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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS, TRUST IN
LEADERSHIP AND TEACHER ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

by

Tonia Y. Havard-Dew

Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty of

Olivet Nazarene University

School of Graduate and Continuing Studies

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

the Degree of

Doctor of Education

in

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SIGNATURE PLACEHOLDER

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My commitment to learning, studying, and personal growth was first encouraged by my parents, Lee and Lutisher Havard. My parents were truly my first teachers. For that reason, I acknowledge and thank them for their tireless efforts of ensuring that I had the best opportunities for academic advancement and for inspiring me to strive for attainment at the highest levels both personally and professionally. Throughout my doctoral studies, I have proudly shared my experiences and accomplishments with my parents, and I appreciate them for sharing in my excitement as I conclude this journey.

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Finally, I thank my friends who have been my biggest cheerleaders throughout my pursuit of this degree; especially my best friend, Miisha Smith. When I was excited

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Lee and Lutisher Havard.

ABSTRACT

As greater accountability is placed on school districts, in response to the increased demands of federal and state policies and mandates, teacher workloads and responsibilities have been increased to meet those demands. School districts rely on teachers' commitment to students' educational pursuits and their willingness to demonstrate behaviors that exceed their formal role expectations to facilitate student success. These behaviors, known as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), cannot be required, but play a critical role in ensuring a district's success. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between teachers' trust in their administrator and teachers' OCB through the analysis of the data collected from 121 elementary, middle, and high school teachers using *The Faculty Trust Scale* and the *Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale for Schools*. Three separate inferential statistical procedures were performed to analyze the relationship between teachers' trust and OCB and predictor variables: years of service, gender, and grade level taught. The Pearson product-moment correlations (Pearson r) was performed to identify a possible relationship between teachers' trust and organizational citizenship behavior. The researcher found a negative statistically significant relationship between teachers' years of service and teachers' trust in their administrator. The results of the current study suggest the need for further exploration into the antecedents of teachers' OCB. The results further demonstrate that teachers' trust in their administrators erodes over time in response to administrator behaviors.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

According to Vince Lombardi, famed football player and coach, it was “individual commitment to a group effort that makes a team-work, a society work, a civilization work” (“17 quotes,” n.d.). Schools are a microcosm of the communities in which they are located. As such, the social interactions found within schools often reflect societal norms. From teachers who provided clean uniform shirts for students in need, purchased extra school supplies, volunteered to start a student council, or those who spend personal time serving in the Parent-Teacher-Student Organization; these examples of teacher contributions to their school communities are not directly related to the prescribed job requirement of teachers. However, the aforementioned examples demonstrated teachers’ commitment to the betterment of their students’ educational experiences. According to Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie (2006), these extra role behaviors are known as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB); actions that “go beyond the existing role expectations” (p. 33) to aid the school as a whole.

For decades, public schools in the United States have undergone continuous reform with the implementation of educational thrusts focused on national standards for curriculum, assessment, and accountability (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2014). According to Tschannen-Moran and Gareis, there have been at least three decades of educational reform measures that have ushered in our current era of accountability.

Included among them were the 1991 publication of Curriculum Standards by the National Council of Teachers of Math, the articulation of *Goals 2000* as a federal policy in 1993, the enactment of *The No Child Left Behind* in 2002, and the adoption of *Common Core State Standards* in 2010 (Kessinger, 2011). In 2015, the adoption of the *Every Student Succeeds Act*, a replacement of *No Child Left Behind*, provided another iteration of the 1965 *Elementary and Secondary Education Act*. According to Kessinger, the federal government continued to expand the educational obligations of states; forcing schools to demonstrate greater accountability, especially as it related to improved performance on standardized testing.

As laws were enacted to emphasize increased expectations for student learning, teacher roles and workloads have been modified in response to the reality of high stakes accountability (Valli & Buese, 2007). With each newly elected administration, new reform models, interventions, and innovative technology were introduced as a means for improving student achievement (Adams, 2013). However, what educational reform did not address was the importance of establishing a vibrant school climate or ensuring that collegial relationships within the school community were established.

The success and effectiveness of schools were not solely measured by concrete and tangible characteristics. Elements such as leadership, professional development opportunities, and rigorous curriculum were noted in successful and effective schools (Brown & Militello, 2016; Eilers & D'Amico, 2012). However, according to Bayraktar and Girgin (2017), because the inputs and outputs of educational organizations were people, an additional variable that impacts organizational success was trust. According to Yilmaz and Altinkurt (2012), trust was the most important need of employees, as trust

bound interpersonal relationships. In schools, where success was largely dependent on the collaborative efforts of stakeholders, trust was a notable component to consider. Trust served to motivate teachers toward increased behaviors that promoted student success (Adams, 2013). Yilmaz and Altinkurt contended that trust or mistrust encouraged or threatened organizational functioning. Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015a) contended that without trust, organizational effectiveness and efficiency were diminished.

Ali and Waqar (2013), and Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2014; 2015a), suggested that there was a correlation between the behavior of principals, principals' leadership style and the perception of trustworthiness from teachers. Throughout the text the terms administrator and principal are used interchangeably to identify the school building administrator to whom the participants report. Legood, Thomas, and Sacramento (2016) suggested that the foundation of trust in a leader was derived from the observation of trustworthy behavior in the leader as a role model to employees, their influence, and the discretionary issuance of rewards and incentives. According to Tschannen-Moran (2001), in organizations with increased trust, employees were more at ease and focused on the furtherance of organizational aims versus self-preservation. Thus, developing a school atmosphere where trusting relationships were prevalent, encouraged productivity in schools and facilitated the ease of goal attainment (Akin, 2015; Levent, Ozdemir, & Akpolat, 2018).

Within the walls of a school building, principals and teachers shared the primary responsibility for the achievement and success of students. By virtue of their role as instructional leaders, principals bore the responsibility for creating and developing the school environment and ensuring that the school climate was one that encouraged

employee skills to flourish and fostered organizational commitment (Levent et al., 2018). Teachers, as professionals, were “generally committed to doing what is in the best interest of their students” (DiPaola & Neves, 2009, p. 493). While the main role of teachers included the instruction and supervision of students, Ali and Waqar (2013), Yilmaz and Altinkurt (2012), and Kaya (2015) contended that teachers also contributed to student success and the overall success of the organization by demonstrating their willingness to extend themselves beyond their formal contracts to volunteer for extra duties. OCB included volunteering to mentor a new teacher, carrying out unexpectedly assigned tasks, or tutoring a student; all without expectation of reward. Ali and Waqar outlined several behavioral manifestations of OCB which included: altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic function.

Statement of the Problem

Key to organizational success was the commitment of employees to assume duties beyond those of their formal contracts (Ali & Waqar, 2013). According to Valli and Buese (2007), in educational institutions, teachers assumed a number of roles related to instructional and extracurricular activities. Valli and Buese asserted that these roles required the modification of teachers’ professional practice in order to address the changing needs of the school community and to meet the demand of changing policy. According to Makvandi, Naderi, Makvandi, Pasha, and Ehteshamzadeh (2018), the success of educational institutions depended on teachers’ proclivity toward executing tasks beyond their formally required duties to facilitate organizational attainment of goals at their schools.

According to Kaya (2015), administrators were unable to force desirable OCB from teachers, as the desired behaviors result from the willingness of the employee rather than a directive from the superior. Educating students is a complex activity that requires teachers to make the professional judgement to extend themselves beyond the call of duty (Dagh & Averbek, 2017). However, according to Altinkurt, Anasiz, and Ekinici (2016), at issue is not teachers' unwillingness to demonstrate OCB, but rather that many educational administrators were unaware of the influence their own behaviors had on their employees' OCB.

To reach the endorsed goals for organizational success, psychological factors including trust, must be considered (Bayraktar & Girgin, 2017). According to Berkovich (2018), schools were organized in a way that makes the realization of success dependent on the cooperative efforts of stakeholders. Trust influenced the quality of interpersonal relationships (Akin, 2015) that facilitated the ease of cooperative efforts. According to Northouse (2018) leadership is defined as "a process by which an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 5). It was imperative that educational administrators understand the impact of their behaviors on the variables that influenced organizational success. By doing so, educational institutions benefitted from the demonstration of a host of behaviors from staff that aided in goal attainment.

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between teachers' perception of their administrator's behaviors, teachers' trust in their administrator and whether the presence of trust impacts teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors. The researcher will examine the correlation between these factors in order to help facilitate the development of strategies to encourage trusting relationships between the parties and

to increase the presence of OCB that contribute to the success and vitality of educational organizations.

Background

When an employee has developed and exhibited positive workplace behaviors toward their colleagues or toward the place of employment, those behaviors were described as organizational citizenship behaviors (Apaydin & Sirin, 2016). In the mid-twentieth century, Katz (1964) provided a framework for behavioral characteristics that when exhibited by employees, facilitated the effective functioning of an organization. Among those behaviors cited by Katz was the notion that employees had to have been inspired to participate in activities that extended beyond the prescribed behaviors of the position held. A study conducted by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) provided that regardless of job type or job site, the daily functioning of any place of employment depended on innumerable displays of “cooperation, helpfulness, suggestions, gestures of good will, altruism . . . what we might call citizenship behavior” (p. 653). According to Smith et al. citizenship behaviors served to “lubricate the social machinery of the organization” (p. 654).

Following the initial research studies, the evolution of the definitions and constructs of OCB were continuous. However, it has been the conceptualization of OCB by researcher and professor, Dennis W. Organ, that has received the most widespread attention and acceptance (Somech & Oplatka, 2015). Organizational citizenship behaviors were identified as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system but promotes effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). The path of Organ’s initial research focused on the

social aspect of the work environment, rather than the requisite job duties (Elkins, 2015). However, in a subsequent study, Organ (1997) redefined OCB as “contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance” (p. 91).

Organ et al. (2006), described the actions of a Good Samaritan who was employed at a paper mill. Sam as he was called, aided a struggling new summer hire despite having his own workload. The assistance lent by Sam, was identified as organizational citizenship behavior. Organ et al. provided that the Good Samaritan, by spontaneously aiding a co-worker, despite having his own duties to complete and without expectation of any reward, contributed to the performance of the group and subsequently the entire organization.

Four key themes were presented in Organ et al.'s (2006) illustration of the Good Samaritan: 1. assistance was extended to do work that was not his to complete; 2. his behavior was voluntary and not solicited in any way; 3. the behavior was not exhibited with expectation of reward or recognition; and 4. the behavior contributed in some way to the operations of the team and subsequently the organization. From these themes, Organ et al. identified ten varieties of OCB that were appreciated by managers because their presence eased management responsibilities. Among those listed behaviors were: 1. helping; 2. compliance; 3. sportsmanship; 4. civic virtue; 5. courtesy; 6. cheerleading; 7. peacemaking; 8. loyalty; 9. self-development; and 10. protecting the organization (Organ et al.).

Although early research on OCB was applied to the observed behaviors of employees in general, Ali and Waqar (2013) suggested that the trend of researching OCB

in schools was emerging. On a daily basis, in schools across the world, needs arose for children who did not fit contractual prescripts. Thus, the reassessment of teachers' roles became necessary as did increased dependency on teachers and their willingness to be contributors to change regardless of their requisite duties (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000), in their study of extra role behaviors in schools identified OCB as "behaviors that go beyond specific role requirements. . . in order to promote organizational goals" (p. 650). Non-performance of OCB had no negative impact on the employee, however the results of studies conducted by Altinkurt et al. (2016) and Avci (2016) which supported the idea that the demonstration of voluntary and humane behaviors facilitated organizational efficiency and the positive development of students, created a healthy school climate, and facilitated cooperative efforts. According to Kaya (2015), OCB helped minimize negative work environments and increased cooperation and performance.

Uzun (2018) contended that teacher attitudes and behaviors were important influencers for goal attainment and success in schools. It was believed that OCB were often intrinsically motivated by an individual's desire for "a sense of achievement, competence, belonging, or affiliation" (Dagh & Averbek. 2017, p. 1708). Ali and Waqar (2013) conducted a quantitative research study aimed at examining the relationship between OCB and different leadership styles. Ali and Waqar found a statistically significant relationship between teacher OCB and leadership style. Karaköse (2008) asserted that the actions and attitudes of authority figures in the workplace affected the actions and attitudes of employees. In a study of the relationship between perceived supervisor support, organizational identification, OCB, and burnout, Uzun revealed that

the presence of positive or negative behaviors from school administrators affected teacher behavior. Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2014) found a strong relationship between the collegial leadership behaviors of the principal and faculty trust in the principal. According to Altinkurt et al. (2016), the expectation of OCB by administrators from employees must be accompanied by the provision of support for these behaviors within the organizational structure and climate.

The overall findings of the study conducted by Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2014) suggested that absent trust, principal effectiveness was minimal in building a strong and vibrant school climate. Because principals were at the center of change in schools, their actions were instrumental in sustaining relational trust (Bryk & Schneider, 2003). When teachers were supported by their administrators, they reciprocated those efforts positively toward the organization (Uzun, 2018). According to Bryk and Schneider, trust was vitally important for school improvement and the social trust among the stakeholders improved overall school operations. The establishment of trusting relationships facilitated confidence in intentions, interdependence, a feeling of empowerment by efforts exhibited, and a heightened capacity of individuals to fulfill the expectations of others (Bryk & Schneider; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015a). According to Tschannen-Moran and Gareis, when principals earned the trust of their teachers, they created a widespread culture of trust. Balyer (2017) suggested that a trusting relationship between the teacher and administrator enhanced the teacher's sense of security, increased effort toward the attainment of educational goals, and possibly strengthened the presence of OCB.

Research Questions

The current study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How do teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level taught relate to teachers' trust in their administrator?
2. To what extent do years of service, gender, and grade level taught, predict organizational citizenship behavior?
3. What is the relationship between teachers' trust in administrators and the degree to which organizational citizenship behaviors are demonstrated by teachers?

Description of Terms

Organizational citizenship behaviors. "a set of effective behaviors that are not explicitly written in part of the job/business descriptions, but promotes the health of business" (Kaya, 2015, p. 600).

Trust. "the perception of the individuals toward others' intentions, expectations, and words" (Kosar, 2015, p. 258).

Significance of the Study

The continued enactment and implementation of new policies and educational reform measures required teachers' willingness to act as change agents in districts across the nation. It was vitally important that school districts realized the key roles teachers played in ensuring the success of students by demonstrating positive behaviors that were not explicitly defined in their job descriptions (Apaydin & Sirin, 2016; Kaya, 2015).

The process of teaching and learning are not limited to activities that occur within a classroom. According to Mansoor, Danial, Javad, Ashraf, and Shabbir (2012), increased

attention was given to the need for increased employee engagement in order to facilitate organizational goal attainment. Improvements to teaching and learning were realized when a teacher had volunteered for a committee, assisted a student in need of remediation, or mentored a new staff member. These extra role behaviors contributed to the enhancement of organizations by governing interdependencies among the team, improving collective outcomes, reducing the allocation of resources toward maintenance functions, and providing more opportunities for efficient planning and scheduling (Demir, 2015; Oplatka, 2009). Because schools were largely dependent on teachers' commitment to school goals, it was prudent for educational organizations to support teachers in a way that encouraged more participatory behaviors that exceeded daily job expectations (Avci, 2016; Oplatka).

While there had been numerous studies on the relationship between OCB and an array of variables (Adigüzelli, 2016; Akin, 2015; Altinkurt et al. 2016; Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000), there have been gaps in the literature regarding the relationship between administrator behavior and teacher trust in administrators and OCB. The recent studies of Somech and Oplatka (2015) urged the continuation of research on OCB in schools, as further research had lasting value and critical implications on school effectiveness.

According to Kosar (2015), the role of the school administrator was paramount for building trust in schools. By examining the relationship between administrators' behaviors, teachers' trust perceptions, and the presence of OCB, this researcher aimed to add to a growing body of work focused on the importance of establishing and nurturing trust relationships between school administrators and teachers. The findings of this study

could support the need for the development of leadership training focused on building interpersonal relationships between principals and school staff members in order to increase OCB, which contribute to the success and vitality of educational organizations.

Process to Accomplish

The proposed study was conducted using a quantitative research design. Data was collected for this study through the use of two measurement tools. To assess the degree to which organizational citizenship behaviors are exhibited, the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale for Schools (DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy, 2005) was employed. To evaluate the trust of teachers in their principal, the Principal Subscale of the Comprehensive Faculty Trust Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) was administered.

The study population included 200 elementary, middle, and high school teachers from school districts located in the suburbs of a large midwestern city. The study sample consisted of 113 participants. To access the study sample, permission was sought from the president of the union with which all participants were affiliated. This researcher worked in concert with the union president to randomly select participating schools. Once schools were identified, emails were sent to all teachers from the target grade levels; elementary, middle, and high school, to introduce the purpose of the study, inform participants of potential risks, identify a contact person, share the benefits of the study, and to outline the study timeline.

The study window ran from September 1, 2019 through December 15, 2019. At the start of the study window, surveys were emailed to all teachers at the identified schools. The assessment began with the presentation of the informed consent contract. Once informed consent was obtained, the participants responded to 12 questions relative

to organizational citizenship behaviors. The eight questions related to teachers trust in their principal were answered second, and the survey concluded with the collection of demographic information; grade level taught, gender, and years of service, via open and closed-ended questions.

Measures

The Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale for Schools (DiPaola et al., 2005) consisted of 12 items to measure the degree to which teaching staff demonstrated OCB. A higher score on the measure was indicative of a greater degree to which organizational citizenship within the school was displayed. The scale was scored by calculating an average score, rated on a six-point Likert Scale from 1 “strongly disagree” to 6 “strongly agree”. The following are sample questions from the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale for Schools: “Teachers help students on their own time, teachers volunteer to sponsor extracurricular activities, and teachers give an excessive amount of busy work.” According to DiPaola et al., reliability for the scale was consistently high with a range of $\alpha=0.86$ to 0.93. Construct validity was confirmed using three separate factor analyses (DiPaola et al.).

To evaluate the trust of teachers in their principal, the Principal Subscale of the Comprehensive Faculty Trust Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) was used. The Principal Subscale consisted of eight items that evaluate teachers’ perception of the principals’ benevolence, honesty, openness, competence and reliability. Participants responded on a six-point Likert Scale from 1 “strongly disagree” to 6 “strongly agree”. Examples of questions from the Principal Subscale included: “The principal acts in the best interests of the teachers, and teachers can rely on the principal.” Scores generated

from the scale included an average score that was calculated for all responses on the questionnaire. The mean score of the subscale was also calculated. A standardized score was computed to compare the levels of schools (elementary, middle, and high school) represented in the study sample. Standardized scores were presented on a scale with a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100. Scores less than 500 indicated that there was a problem with trust in the principal. According to Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, the coefficient of reliability for this subscale was $\alpha=0.98$.

Summary

The roles of principals and teachers were distinctly different. However, regardless of role, both dedicate their efforts toward actions that were in the best interest of students. The collaborative efforts of teachers and administrators were an essential component for the attainment of prescribed goals in schools (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). However, the ability of the parties to work collaboratively was influenced by the trusting relationship established between the two.

Yilmaz and Altinkurt (2012) described trust as a means to secure interpersonal relationships thereby encouraging improvement in organizational functioning. According to Bryk and Schneider (2003), it was the actions of the principal that influenced the perception of trust; but trust alone did not ensure success of the organization. In educational organizations, where trusting relationships abound, teachers who reciprocated the efforts of their principals (Uzun, 2018), were more at ease, focused on organizational aims (Tschannen-Moran, 2001) and possibly were willing to exhibit desirable OCB (Balyer, 2017).

In the next chapter, the literature will be reviewed to detail the impact of OCB in schools and provide evidence of how trust perceptions of teachers in their principals is vitally important for ensuring the presence of OCB that facilitate organizational success.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Schools today are facing substantial influence from quickly evolving external forces that create new demands for greater accountability and successful student performance (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). These external influences often necessitate a shift in the school culture in order to meet the urgency of the new requests. As the culture of an organization shifts, leadership behaviors and attitudes shift to meet the needs of the culture. According to Avery (2004) societal changes impact leadership concepts and practices. The nature of relationships among the adults within a school have a greater influence on the character and quality of that school and on student accomplishment than anything else (Barth, 2006).

In an effort to educate the youth in schools today, many schools implemented antiquated bureaucratic structures and professional practices that were characterized by “a hierarchy of authority, division of labor with specialization, and written rules and polices” (Tschannen-Moran, 2009, p. 218). While these bureaucratic structures were likely to be employed to ensure the appropriate organizational functioning, Tschannen-Moran contended that bureaucracy in schools, facilitated by educational leaders, was apt to stifle necessary adaptations and breed distrust among school faculty. Together, trust and distrust were core elements in the development of all social interactions; personal and

professional (Posten & Mussweiler, 2013). The essence of trust was apparent in every aspect of human existence and the importance of trust was not absent risk or doubt (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). The net value of distrust was detrimental to an organization that thrived on collective effort by obscuring the collaborative efforts needed for goal attainment (Goodard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001).

In schools, principals were charged with fostering desirable learning environments (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015a). Tschannen-Moran and Gareis contended that for principals, acquiring the trust of teachers and establishing a permeating culture of trust was imperative because it allowed school staff to “realize their positive intentions toward their professional relationships” (p. 257). When school administrators built trusting relationships with their teachers, an inspiration for increased efforts and achievement resulted (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis). One way that teachers demonstrated increased effort was through their volunteerism or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Somech and Ron (2007) stated that “schools depend on teachers’ willingness to go above and beyond the call of duty to attain their school’s objectives and goals” (p. 39). In schools and other dynamic settings, where the necessary employee behaviors were not always directed or predicted, managers valued OCB (VanDyne & LePine, 1998). Schwabsky (2014) claimed that there were numerous factors within schools that made it necessary for teachers to extend themselves beyond the duties as outlined in their professional contracts, yet as defined, OCB was discretionary (VanDyne & LePine). Because of the nature of OCB, much of the study of the construct was centered on why individuals engaged in the behavior (Somech & Ron).

Reviewing the literature provided better insight into the behaviors and attitudes displayed by principals, which aided in the performance of OCB by teachers. According to Johnson (2018), effective leaders, through the construction of a trusting work climate, reduced negative workplace behaviors thereby improving organizational performance. This chapter explored the existing literature related to the importance of trust in building relationships, fostering interdependency among teachers, and inspiring teacher behavior. This chapter also examined the literature relative to leadership characteristics and styles that were identified as those that built interpersonal relationships and that foster trust. Finally, since the focus of this current study was to discover how perceived trust in a building administrator predicts the performance of OCB, this chapter presented the literature that examined the construct of OCB, its antecedents and how administrator behavior relates to OCB.

Defining Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

A term first coined by Organ (1988), in recent years OCB has received increasing interest in the educational literature (Oplatka, 2009). The term OCB was frequently used interchangeably by scholars with the expression prosocial behavior (Organ, 1988; Winterich, Aquino, Mittal, & Swartz 2013) and extra-role behavior (Oplatka, 2013). Irrespective of the designation used, the preferred expressions were used to describe behaviors that were flexible (Robbins, 2006), executed to promote welfare to the subject of said behaviors (e.g. students, team, school in general) (Oplatka, 2009; Organ, 1988), discretionary and unrewarded (Elstad, Christophersen, & Turmo, 2012; Oplatka, 2009; Organ, 1988; Somech & Ron, 2007; Uzun, 2018), addressed the social domain of the work climate (Elkins, 2015), and for which employees were not trained to perform (Chen

& Kao, 2012; Oplatka, 2009). It was importantly noted that OCB characterized positive workplace behaviors (Altinkurt et al., 2016; Apaydin & Sirin, 2016). Apaydin and Sirin conducted a study to determine the factors that contributed to school effectiveness. The researchers found that OCB reduced workplace deviance and improved group cohesiveness (Apaydin & Sirin).

Organ et al. (2006) identified the construct as worker “contributions that were not compelled by job description nor contractually rewarded” (p. 65). Oplatka (2009) compared the extra-role nature of OCB to that of the in-role performance duties. Oplatka identified OCB as activities that were inclusive of “volunteering, persisting, helping, following rules, and endorsing organizational objectives” (p. 377). Though an employee was not persuaded to exhibit OCB, Uzun (2018) found that the perception of having the support of a supervisor positively affected organizational identity and organizational citizenship behavior. Shore, Bommer, Rao, & Seo (2009) related the idea that employees countered complimentary treatment from their employers with increased positive attitudes and beneficial behaviors to Blau’s (1968) social exchange theory. According to the theory of social exchange, behaviors of one individual were dependent on those first demonstrated by another (Uzun). According to Uzun, when individuals were the beneficiaries of leader support, they mirrored it favorably within their organizations. An organization that succeeded in stimulating OCB constructed an improved work environment as employees assumed proactive attitudes in the resolution of organizational issues (Coelho da Silva, da Consolacao Paiva, Antonio da Silva, 2019).

To illustrate the impact of leader behavior, Ali and Waqar (2013) conducted a quantitative research study to examine organizational citizenship behaviors in relation to

three leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. The study included nine school heads and 129 teachers who worked under the three identified leadership styles. The teachers were compared for their demonstrated organizational citizenship behaviors. Data were collected using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for school leaders and the Organizational Citizenship Behavior questionnaire for schoolteachers. Each participant group was individually assessed by Ali and Waqar to ensure truthfulness of data collection. Data were collected using correlation and ANOVA along with Post Hoc analysis.

Ali and Waqar (2013) found results which indicated a significant relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and leadership style. Specifically, teachers working under transformational leadership styles were found to demonstrate higher incidents of citizenship behaviors, than those working for leaders who exhibited the transactional leadership style. School teachers working under laissez-faire leadership exhibited the least organizational citizenship behavior. It could be contended that OCB required an unspoken psychological contract, of sorts, which provided reciprocity in responsibility between the leader and subordinate in the effort to complete tasks (Altinkurt et al., 2016).

The Dimensions of OCB

In defining OCB, it is important to consider the features of the construct. OCB was identified as a multidimensional concept (Bogler & Somech, 2005). Organ (1988) initially labeled endless categories to which one could assign characteristics of OCB but later narrowed the categorization of the construct to a five-dimensional classification. The five dimensions of OCB, as identified by Organ included: altruism, sportsmanship,

conscientiousness, civic virtue, and courtesy. These dimensions encompassed organizational behaviors that included assisting a co-worker, adhering to governing rules and regulations, not complaining about your job or the conditions of employment, and actively participating in company sponsored events (Wang, Hinrichs, Prieto & Howell, 2013). Nearly 20 years after defining the five dimensions of OCB, Organ et al. (2006) refined the definition of OCB to include four themes:

- behaviors that were outside of routine functions
- behaviors that benefitted an organization either directly or indirectly
- the behavior was voluntary, and
- participation in the behaviors varied from person to person.

Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested that only two categories of OCB existed; those that benefitted the organization in general and those that benefitted the individual directly thereby indirectly assisting the organization. DiPaola and Neves (2009) contended that for schools within the United States, all aspects of OCB were condensed to comprise one integrated category. The notion of a one category construct was first identified by DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) in a study from which a new measure of OCB in K-12 schools was developed. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran revealed a one-factor construct of OCB in schools that described schools as service organizations with a two-pronged objective of “helping individuals and furthering the organizational mission” (p. 440). Helping behaviors improved staff optimism, boosted teamwork, and minimized the need for managers to impose regulations on the larger group (Walker & Slear, 2011). DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran concluded that the

organizational mission of schools was synonymous with helping people, and as such one construct.

Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Bogler and Somech (2005) suggested that the implementation of educational reforms influenced increased performance expectations for teachers, which limited the completion of prescribed job duties. Despite the reprimands or financial consequences that accompanied the failure to perform required tasks (Love & Kim, 2019), the reliance upon teachers to complete requisite tasks and those beyond their duties remained essential for the attainment of school goals and objectives (Somech & Ron, 2007).

According to Somech and Ron, ascertaining the contributing factors for individual engagement in OCB has contributed to a considerable volume of research among scholars in organizational behavior and social psychology. In a study of extra-role behaviors in schools, Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000) found a positive relationship between OCB and job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and collective efficacy. Bogler and Somech offered that the inclusion of teachers in decision making encouraged greater investment in the school community and subsequently encouraged OCB. Somech and Ron, in an attempt to understand the complex variables that gave rise to OCB, indicated that perceived supervisor support and collectivism were positively related to OCB. Chen and Kao (2012) found that psychological contract and professional commitment have positive effects on OCB.

Organ et al. (2006) suggested that all motivators of OCB were unknown. Elkins (2015) contended that a range of factors that mediated job satisfaction contributed to the performance of OCB. Other scholars attributed the performance of OCB to leadership

style (Ali & Waqar, 2013; Kaya, 2015; Quraishi & Aziz, 2018; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Raftar-Ozery, 2018), and administrator power sources (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012). While Page, Boysen, and Arya (2019) and Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015a) emphasized the importance of trust in cultivating school culture and Daly, Moolenaar, Liou, Tuytens, and Del Fresno (2015) stressed the importance of relationship building with staff, MacKenzie (2011) described the relationship between perceived trust in a building administrator as more than a mediating factor for OCB. The work of Ali and Waqar provided a glance at the role of leaders and their leadership style in encouraging OCB from teachers. For the purpose of this study, the concept of trust was explored as motivator of OCB, in the relationship between teachers and their building principals.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors as an Educational Construct

The study of OCB crossed domains and disciplines throughout the years. Oplatka (2009) indicated that “there remains a paucity of research on OCB in education” (p. 378). Garg and Rastogi (2006) opined that the study of OCB in schools was disregarded. However, given recent reform efforts, according to Bogler and Somech (2005), the success of schools became more and more reliant on the willingness of teachers to contribute to successful change despite prescribed job requirements. Garg and Rastogi asserted that in an effort “to meet the new standards that have been set for schools, personnel must go beyond minimum performance of their duties” (p. 530).

A recent search of the literature on the organizational citizenship behavior reveals an increased interest on the relationship between OCB and various issues that affected educational organizations in the Asian countries of Turkey and Pakistan, however those numbers decreased significantly in American educational literature. The recent literatures

have linked OCB to school climate (Çavuş& Devel, 2017), job satisfaction (Abdullah & Akhar, 2016), climate profile of public and private schools (Garg & Rastogi), organizational justice (Burns & DiPaola, 2013) and effective school characteristics (Alanoglu & Demirtas, 2016). Of the aforementioned studies listed, only the work of Burns and DiPaola was conducted in the United States.

Quraishi and Aziz (2018) identified schools as social organizations that played a critical role in society not only as developers of academic and technical skills in learners, but also for their contribution to the development of learners' intellectual skills and citizenship. Though the professional needs of teachers did not always align with those of their schools (Apaydin & Sirin, 2016), Garg and Rastogi (2006) reasoned that there existed a gap in organizational effectiveness that could only be filled when employees worked beyond their prescribed role requirements. In an effort to align teacher actions with school needs, teachers were motivated to make efforts beyond the regular call of duty (Elstad et al., 2012). The environment and structure of schools must support the behavior desired from teachers (Altinkurt et al., 2016). The actions and demeanor of school administrators had an impact on teacher behaviors in the workplace (Uzun, 2018). According to Quraishi and Aziz, in order to sustain teacher commitment, administrators were authentic in their interactions with teachers using optimism to create an environment that fostered the confidence, resilience, and aspirations of followers. In the face of ever-changing societal expectations, schools were more dependent upon teachers to perform tasks that went beyond their job roles (Sagnak, 2016). Bogler and Somech (2005) and Christophersen, Elstad, Solhaug, and Turmo (2015) emphasized the importance of teacher commitment on ensuring school effectiveness. However, Quraishi

and Aziz also stressed the importance of school leadership for school improvement. When educators worked collectively to demonstrate their helping behaviors and commitment to their respective schools, society in general was a benefactor of these charitable acts (Elstad, Christophersen, & Turmo, 2011), which were identified as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB).

Trust as an Organizational Construct

Developments in the organizational sciences have influenced scholars across disciplines to demonstrate increased interest in the importance of trust as a concept and the way trust was both cultivated and beneficial, organizationally (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). Within the early research into organizational behavior, scholars agreed that the theoretical integration of the sociology of trust was incomplete and vague, as researchers identified trust as a psychological event rather than work to substantiate the concept as an influencer of social systems (Cook, 2005; Lewis & Weigert, 1985). Baier (1985) expressed her surprise that trust had not been more widely studied given the nature of the construct's impact within cooperative organizational systems. However, by the mid 1990's, the work of Hoffman, Sabo, Bliss and Hoy (1994) emphasized trust as an emerging factor within the social structure of organizational cultures. Since the 1990's, the investigation into trust by social scientists demonstrated the indispensable nature of trust (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999), as trust was identified as the adhesive that bound, facilitated and created stable social interactions within organizations (Demir, 2013; Posten & Mussweiler, 2013). Handford and Leithwood (2013) called trust an "enabler of change" (p. 194).

Because all ongoing relationships were grounded in trust (Cook, 2005), according to Goodard, Tschannen-Moran, and Hoy (2001), within complex social structures, trust was essential for humans to flourish, gain knowledge, and exist. Within organizational structures, where there was a constant need for adaptation to facilitate goal attainment, trust caused the cooperative behaviors needed to respond to the ever-changing needs of an organization (Smith, Hoy, & Sweetland, 2001). Cook and Wall (1980) indicated that “trust between individuals and groups within an organization was a highly important ingredient in the long-term stability of the organization and the well-being of its members” (p. 39) because trust “contributes to the maintenance of social order at the micro-level” (Cook, p. 6) in organizations. It was noted that organizational trust required a degree of determination, openness, dedication, and mutual respect between individuals in their interactions (Dovey, 2009).

Trust Defined

The complexities of trust as a concept gave rise to disagreement among scholars about how to define trust (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1988; Smith et al., 2001). Because of the existence of the numerous conceptualizations (Thomsen, Karsten & Oort, 2015), trust took on varied meanings within interpersonal, organizational, and societal contexts (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Relationship types, the expectations maintained, and the evolution of relationships made defining trust complicated (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Cook and Wall (1980) contended that trust referred to one’s willingness to impute good intentions toward and have assurance in the verbal and non-verbal behaviors of others. In an effort to establish a multidisciplinary view of trust, Rousseau et al. identified trust as a psychological condition, wherein one’s acceptance of

vulnerability was rooted in affirmative potential behaviors of another. There was agreement between Lewis and Weigert (1985) and Hoy and Tschannen-Moran that notwithstanding the definition, the foundation of trust was essentially social and as such, was embedded in all relationships. According to Forsyth, Adams and Hoy (2011), trust was “the keystone of successful interpersonal relations, leadership, teamwork, and effective organizations” (p.8).

Trust required that an individual not only act in a manner that was considered to be positive, but that he or she does so with consistency (Goodard et al., 2001). According to Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999), “trust is an individual’s or group’s willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open” (p. 189). Lewis and Weigert (1985) provided that trust was more vital to the construction of necessary groups and relationships than was the sense of moral obligation. There was agreement between Hoy and Tschannen-Moran and Lewis and Weigert, that trust reduced uncertainty and complexity in social interactions. Lewis and Weigert stated that trust enabled confidence in social interactions and minimized the need of an individual to make rational predictions about possible outcomes of an interaction. Distrust also reduced complexity, but yielded responses rooted in “suspicion, monitoring, and the activation of institutional safeguards” (Lewis & Weigert, p. 969). Dovey (2009) warned of the fragility of trust, and indicated that even after years of cultivating trust, it was quickly destroyed.

As a multi-faceted social construct, any trusting experience was comprised of definite cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). There was interdisciplinary agreement throughout the literature on the conditions under which

trust thrived. Where there was trust, also present was the willingness to take risks in the face of vulnerability (Goodard et al., 2001). Because trust required dependency on the compassion of others, one who extended trust experienced uncertain vulnerabilities (Baier, 1985). Embedded within the social exchanges of every educational institution was mutual dependency; between staff and students, staff and parents, and staff and administrators (Bryk & Schneider, 2003). Wherever social exchanges occurred, there were important consequences that were manifested (Bryk & Schneider). Therefore, it was important to consider the continuous nature of trust, which like all behavior, developed and occurred over time (Goodard et al.). Unity in action and the maintenance of order emerged from trust (Goodard et al.; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). “If we value the maintenance of a particular relationship, we behave in a trustworthy manner toward the other and if another recognizes or was interested in being trustworthy, the other will trust us” (Cook, 2005, p. 6).

Trust in Schools

As the efforts to increase student achievement continually expanded to include increased use of technology, evaluation frameworks, and numerous reform models, Adams (2013) revealed that it was of critical importance to consider the nature of the “social and human enterprise of schools and school systems” (p. 364). Central to recent discussions about schools was the issue of the importance of trust (Louis, 2007). Within schools, the stakeholders, who comprised the school community, interacted within the confines of their defined roles in social exchanges that yielded important consequences (Bryk & Schneider, 2003) in the daily operations of schools. Bryk and Schneider conducted a decade-long case study aimed at defining social trust in schools, the factors

that aided in the development of social trust, and the benefits produced by the presence of social trust on school reform. The case study results demonstrated that social trust among teachers, parents, and school leaders improved the daily routine tasks in schools and further, that social trust was a key resource for school reform.

Though understudied, Hoy (2002) identified trust as a significant component of successful schools. Daly (2009) acknowledged trust as a key factor in schools where new relationships and innovative organizational connections were made. The educational literature has shown the relationship between trust and instructional capacity (Adams, 2013); professionalism (Tschannen-Moran, 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015a); school achievement (Goodard et al., 2001); organizational commitment (Bastug, Pala, Kumarstasli, Gunci, & Duyan, 2016), job satisfaction (Van Houtte, 2006); principals' openness, competence, and organizational justice (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015b); and collaboration in the implementation of curriculum reform (Cerit, 2013). Bryk and Schneider (2003) concluded that the daily social interactions that characterized the school community were not possible without trust.

Trust within organizations was influenced by the behaviors of other persons or groups with whom direct or indirect interaction was sustained. According to Louis (2007), the issues related to trust in schools were rooted in the maintenance of traditional teacher relationships where administrators provided the essential resources for instruction, while teachers demonstrated performance that was adequate enough to keep administrators happy. This dynamic, according to Louis, posed an immanent challenge for the collaborative efforts that ought to be aimed at advancement. The continuous interaction that defined the cooperative efforts required in schools to complete the task of

educating students, made trust between the parties essential (Baier, 1985; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015b).

According to Bryk and Schneider (2002), the origin of all social interactions within schools was derived from trust, within the framework of established role relations. It was understandable why trust was a valued commodity in schools. In life situations where one's personal interests cannot be obtained without reliance upon another, trust was a condition that was necessary to nurture this interdependence (Hoy, 2002). In schools, trust was conceptualized as it related to the varying groups of stakeholders who comprised the school community (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). The cycle of interdependency in schools was observed as communities trusted school officials to be custodians over their tax dollars, as parents trusted schools to educate their children, and as schools ask parents for trust (Hoy). Trust was reciprocally afforded across groups because it was beneficial to do so (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy). When stakeholders took a deliberate risk of interdependence, they were vulnerable (Hoy). A sense of security was realized through the reciprocal openness, commitment, and respect (Dovey, 2009) among the parties. Demir (2013) asserted that from a normative perspective of trust in schools, there was an expectation that all members of the school community supported the achievement of students by presenting appropriate conduct. According to Bryk and Schneider (2003), the interdependency required by teachers to achieve established educational goals and outcomes emphasized the importance of relational trust in schools. However, mobilizing the capacity and energy remained the responsibility of leadership (Fullan, 2002).

Leadership Defined

The concept of leadership evolved to meet societal perspectives, expectations, and needs (Avery, 2004). Leadership was defined as a social construct (Kursunoglu & Tanriogen, 2009) that served to move “people towards specified goals” (Karaköse, 2008, p. 570), the ability to motivate subordinates toward the contribution of team and organizational aims (Guest, Hersey & Blanchard, 1986), and the capacity to “enlist, mobilize and motivate others to apply their abilities and resources to a given cause” (Eyal & Roth, 2011, p. 256). de Oliveria Rodrigues and Ferreira (2015) defined leadership as actuating individuals, employing communication and examples to inspire and arouse followers toward efficiency and effectiveness in the performance of duties. Though the definitions of leadership were varied and abstract (Avery), there was one element of leadership about which researchers agree: influence. All iterations of the definition of leadership focused on leadership as a process that contained an element of power to influence others (Karaköse). According to Northouse (2018), a leadership without influence could not survive, because leadership served as a mechanism to guide individuals toward a collective end. Eyal and Roth submitted that leadership motivated maximum effort toward activities that facilitated goal attainment. Effective leadership catapulted an organization toward change (Uzoehina & Oguegbu, 2015). While it was clear that there was a lack of consensus around how leadership was defined (Posner & Kouzas, 1988), Karaköse posited that leadership was central to all effective management practices.

According to Avery (2004), an implication of leadership was a relationship between the leader and follower. As people worked together and built a trusting

reciprocal relationship, leadership rose (Avery). In schools where cooperative behaviors contributed to high performance, trust was a key element of these interdependent relationships (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015a). The work of Rousseau et al. (1988) emphasized the idea that trust, as a psychological condition, birthed actions that were demonstrative of interdependency and risk taking. Thus, leadership behaviors, which can either build trust or produce distrust (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016) were influencers of one's willingness to take risks and depend on others in the workplace (Northouse, 2018).

School Leadership

Leadership in schools broadly referred to heads of schools as either educational or instructional leadership. Regardless of the term selected, a school administrator was one who sought to construct effective schools, where high learning outcomes resulted (Çogaltay & Karadag, 2016). According to Kirtman (2013), the lack of coherence when referring to school leadership was due to conflicting definitions put forth by policymakers and researchers. School administrators were once labeled as colleagues, sounding boards, inspirational, and resourceful due in large part to their influence on teachers (Dimmock, 1999; Kursunoglu & Tanriogen (2009); Tschannen-Moran, 2001). School leaders were those at the upper levels of a school's organizational structure (Connolly, James, & Fertig, 2019). The shift in terminology used to identify school leadership evolved based on global technological, societal and political advancement which necessitated considerable modifications to both our educational systems and the role of leadership (Uzoechina & Oguegbu, 2015).

The effectiveness of schools and their ability to meet the prescribed societal functions rested with the abilities and knowledge of school leadership (Levent et al.,

2018). The increased emergence of studies on educational leadership suggested that the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of schools on the attainment of organizational outcomes were not solely attributed to student characteristics and capacities (Çogaltay & Karadag, 2016). Instead, Çogaltay and Karadag suggested that this performance was related to leadership attitudes and behaviors exhibited by school leadership. Kersten and Israel (2005) identified educational leadership as the focal point for the improvement of student test scores, ensuring that classrooms were well equipped to meet the specific needs of students, and the maintenance of a relevant learning environment. School leaders organized and executed programmatic thrusts, designated resource allocation and improved the performance of staff and students through motivation and modeling (Çogaltay & Karadag). Uzoechina and Oguegbu (2015) noted that educational leadership served to initiate school reform and efforts to restructure, while Fessehatsion (2017) emphasized the importance of educational leadership in the establishment of a sustainable and successful school system. Dinham (2005) contended that educational leadership was important in the development of school effectiveness, innovation, the facilitation of instruction, and scholastic attainment.

Research into instructional leadership left researchers with the definition of the construct and uncertainty about the behaviors associated with instructional leadership (Heck & Marcoulides, 1993). Heck and Marcoulides submitted that the characteristics associated with leadership were dependent upon a number of variables related to an individual leader's beliefs and values coupled with specific organizational context. For Quinn (2002), the emergence of instructional leadership as a concept illuminated the effectiveness of an administrator who demonstrated the ability to establish clear

expectations and high goals, and to maintain firm discipline. Agreement on the importance of instructional leadership during late 1980's, 1990's and early millennium, was demonstrated in the research of Andrews and Soder (1987), Andrews et al. (1991), and Kelley et al. (2005). A study by Andrews and Soder revealed a high correlation between instructional leaders and the improvement of student learning opportunities; Andrews et al. identified instructional leadership as one of the characteristics found in successful schools; and Kelley et al. opined that instructional leadership was at the forefront of determining an effective learning environment. Fessehatsion (2017) claimed that without effective school leadership, attempts at school improvement were futile. The literatures associated educational leadership with job satisfaction (Apadin, Sarier, & Uysal, 2013), organizational justice (Hoy & Tarter, 2004), organizational commitment (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996), organizational culture (Hoy & Miskel, 2006), and performance (Bass, 1985).

Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, (2004) conducted a meta-analysis to assess the impact of principal leadership on student achievement. In executing the meta-analysis, Waters et al. not only confirmed a significant relationship between principal leadership and increased student achievement, but the researchers also developed a concise definition of leadership effectiveness by grouping 66 leadership practices into 21 leadership responsibilities. Among the responsibilities identified by Waters et al. were: 1. promoting cooperation and cohesion among staff; 2. maintaining open and effective communication with staff; 3. maintaining relationships with teachers; 4. portraying positive attitudes about the staff's ability to succeed; and 5. demonstrating behaviors that were consistent with the beliefs expressed.

The aforementioned leadership responsibilities signified the important role played by school leadership in the development of interpersonal relationships within schools. No organization operated without a leader, nor could a publicly operated organization have existed without interpersonal relationships (Agba, 2018). According to Agba, the development and maintenance of interpersonal relationships engendered value in workers. Successful school leaders developed teacher capacity within their schools. (Crum, Sherman, & Myran, 2009). By influencing teacher efficacy, motivation and knowledge skills, a flourishing educational model was fashioned and sustained (Crum et al.). The cooperative nature of schools dictated interpersonal relationships where the school leader was in a unique position of influencing the behavior of others through modeling (Thompson, 2017) and directing (Uzoechina & Oguegbu, 2015), serving as a source of inspiration through commitment (Avolio & Bass, 2004), and maintaining human relation and communications (Onorato, 2013). According to Aydin et al. (2013), the individual in a school who developed creative responses to problems, determined policy needed, and made changes to rules was the leader. However, in order to meet with the results expected from federal, state, and local mandates to improve student achievement, today's leaders must be "attuned to the behaviors that influence teachers" (Onorato, p. 35). The changes faced by schools required a movement toward leadership that was less traditional and authoritative (Leithwood, Patten, & Jantzi, 2010) and more interested in ensuring the satisfaction of staff (Aydin et al., 2013).

The Principal as the Instructional Leader

Within any workplace, the central resource for guidance among employees was made available through the organizational leadership (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison,

2005). Leadership impacted organizational advancement (Sagnak, 2016), and at a time when educators were faced with high stakes accountability and mounting pressures for improvement from government agencies and the public, school leadership mattered (Daly, 2009). Fullan (2002) noted that among educators, leader effectiveness was attributed to assuming the role of an instructional leader. Within individual schools, the building administrator played a key role in providing the leadership needed for overall improvement (Lee, 1991). The culture maintained in schools was exclusive to schools (Karaköse, 2008), with clearly defined roles, rights, and obligations for each stakeholder that were accompanied by reciprocal expectations (Sergiovanni, 2005). The role of principals within their respective buildings was multifaceted (Hallinger, 2005; O'Donnell & White, 2005). Leithwood (2005) indicated that effective instructional leaders were capable communicators who demonstrated sound reasoning, open-mindedness, and were interested in the thoughts and ideas of others. Research of the late twentieth century emphasized the managerial duties of principals, which included scheduling, hiring personnel, and the articulation of districts' policies and procedures (Donmoyer & Wagstaff, 1990). Though school building administrators maintained managerial responsibilities, the principal was established as the catalyst for change within schools (Kersten & Israel, 2005), and as such, school leaders shifted their roles from solely managerial to that of instructional leaders (Lee).

As the instructional leader, a principal's focus was initially fixed on the setting of goals and standards, articulating clear expectations, and the maintenance of school discipline (Quinn, 2002). However, in the quickly evolving environment of schools, flexibility was necessary to accommodate the need for efficiently executed modifications

(Sagnak, 2016). The advent of performance standards left principals at the center of accountability for student achievement and school improvement (Hallinger, 2005; Whitaker, 2003). As the individual who was central to the school improvement process, building principals experienced immense internal and external pressure to refine the standard of teaching provided in the schools (Kersten & Israel, 2005). Together, the internal stressors realized from the provisions of collective bargaining agreements and the rigors of teacher evaluation combined with imposed federal mandates (Kersten & Israel) represented bureaucratic pressures that was easily detected by teachers (Fox, Gong, & Attoh, 2015).

The Principal as a Culture Builder

The responsibility for creating a school climate that was conducive to teaching and learning was borne by the principal as he or she was intentional in his or her efforts to be instructional leaders who were committed to the needs of stakeholders and the pursuit of common objectives (Fessehatsion, 2017; Sergiovanni, 2005). Hallinger (2005) identified principals as culture builders who were goal centered and led with enthusiasm and expertise. As managerial duties were increasingly released, principals were enabled to develop unrestricted learning communities that were collaborative in nature (Fox et al., 2015). Leaders who were prepared to inspire embodied certain values (Karaköse, 2008) According to Karaköse, those values shaped the ideologies of the school culture, which impacted emotions and beliefs of staff.

The changes required and needed in schools necessitated leadership that possessed mature organizational skills and developed social and interpersonal skills (Avci, 2016). To build a stable and effective school culture, principals worked to

establish bonds with stakeholders by combining insight with determination and an understanding of the needs of others (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Bass and Avolio contended that there was continual interaction between organizational leadership and the culture as the leader worked to develop systems for the development of the culture that reinforced the normative behaviors already present. The current cultural norms found within an organization made the development of a positive school culture difficult as a result of embedded issues that often had unknown causes. For this reason, Dinham (2005) suggested that the focal point for the development of a positive school climate has shifted from interest in the leader to a focus on the practice of leadership and the importance of delegation, collaboration, trust and empowerment.

Both the culture and climate “suggest a natural, spontaneous and human side of the organization” (Hoy, 1990, p. 149). Though both ambiguous and abstract, both culture and climate were identified as components of school effectiveness and reform (Hoy). School culture was identified by Demir (2013) as “one of the most important and complex aspects of education” (p. 623). Stolp and Smith (1995) offered that relationships between people and the climate were an integral part of the organizational culture.

The climate of an organization was described as the shared perception of the work environment (Hoy, 1990; Stolp & Smith, 1995) that was influenced by the formal and informal organizational structures, participant dispositions, and school leadership (Hoy). Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015b) added that the construct was comprised of behavioral norms which included teacher professionalism, academic press, and community engagement. As was indicated, stakeholders interacted within a climate to establish the culture. Thus, culture referred to how people feel about the organization

(Stolp & Smith), which included expectations, beliefs systems and values that made up the organizational identity and guidelines for behavior (Hoy; Stolp & Smith).

One of the key responsibilities of a school leader was the role of a culture builder (Stolp & Smith, 1995). By “instilling values of concern for others, personal and group success and continuous improvement” (Stolp & Smith, p. vii) and being goal-centered and leading with enthusiasm and expertise (Hallinger, 2005), school leaders developed schools into communities of service providers (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015b). Due to the importance of the development of relationships on the effectiveness of overall organizational functioning (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015b), when establishing school climate, the principal was intentional in his or her efforts to be committed to the needs of stakeholders and the pursuit of common objectives that impacted teaching and learning (Fessehatsion, 2017; Sergiovanni, 2005). As principals willingly released their managerial duties, they realized increased opportunities to cultivate unhindered learning communities that were collaborative in nature (Fox et al., 2015).

In a study that explored the relationship between trust and the connectedness of stakeholders in schools, Tschannen-Moran (2014) identified principals as central figures in establishing a school climate that fostered trust between teachers and students. The findings of Tschannen-Moran further emphasized that when principals were identified as trustworthy, they “set a tone that influences how teachers relate to one another” (p. 3) within the work environment. To build and maintain a stable and effective school culture, principals worked to establish bonds with stakeholders by combining insight with determination and an understanding of the needs of others (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Bass and Avolio stressed the continual nature of the interaction between organizational

leadership and culture; as the leader endeavored to create systems for the furtherance of the culture that reinforced the normative behaviors already present. Though possibility of the current cultural norms presented within schools impeding the development of a positive school culture existed, cultural norms evolved when teachers gave attention to their own reactions and emulated the models presented by leaders (Bass & Avolio). Hoy (1990) suggested that when leaders established an open climate, principals led by example, while teachers worked collaboratively. This, Hoy claimed, allowed the best and most genuine behavior for the parties.

In a two-year study of elementary schools in Seattle, Andrews and Soder (1987), described four distinct ways in which principals, in their capacity as instructional leaders, interacted with teachers. The pair identified principals as having served as: 1. a resource provider; assembling needed personnel and bringing materials into their buildings, 2. an instructional resource; establishing programmatic expectations and planning activities, 3. a communicator; articulating the school vision and instructional aims, and 4. a visible presence; observed around the school interacting with stakeholders. Fessehatsion (2017) opined that without effective school leaders, who endeavored to construct favorable school environments, school improvement was unattainable. Fessehatsion stressed the importance for administrators to aim to create a school environment that yielded high student achievement, harmonious cooperation between teachers and staff, effective communication, progressive instructional leadership, and efficient utilization of resources. Fullan (2002) contended that the characterization of principals as the instructional leaders was only the first step in increasing student learning. Fullan suggested that principal responsibility also included the ability to mobilize and maximize

the resources found among the instructional staff by improving working conditions and staff morale.

Building Trust as the Principal

The development of a thriving educational system was important. A faculty that trusted its principal was a step in the direction toward ensuring a system's survival (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015b). Fessehatsion (2017) revealed that a school principal, in the execution of his or her duties, either assisted or destroyed the efforts to create effective schools. Fullan (2002) identified effective school leaders as key change agents in school reform attempts. However, there was agreement between Dovey (2009) and Duclos (2014) that any meaningful change that occurred within an organization had not transpired through the work of leadership in isolation. Change was dependent upon the collaborative endeavors of all persons with a vested interest in the organization (Dovey; Duclos). In schools, key participants in efforts of reform were teachers, with whom principals worked in concert, as they led schools toward the attainment of organizational aims (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis).

As the focal point of educational success continued to center on standards and core competencies, Dinham (2005) suggested that the role of the principal morphed from one characterized by the technical aspects of administration to one that emphasized the importance of leaders' relationships with their subordinates. According to Duclos (2014), the evolution of schools required leaders who were skilled at developing the collaborative skills of stakeholders. Kursunoglu and Tanriogen (2009) stressed the role of principals as central figures in initiating, developing and enabling positive attitudes among staff, toward change. Fullan (2014) characterized human beings as motivated either by

activities that were intrinsically meaningful or by collaborating with others toward the attainment of never before completed goals. In schools, where staff relied upon one another to reach organizational aims, those collective goals were only attained when teachers were given the knowledge, motivation, and discretion to respond to the individual needs of learners (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Trust, then, was identified as an important social construct that facilitated the interaction (Dovey, 2009). Though a fragile resource (Dovey), trust was critical in building the foundation upon which cooperative efforts in the workplace were built (Savolainen, Lopez-Fresno, & Ikonen, 2014). Without trust, schools were “likely to experience the overheated friction of conflict as well as a lack of progress toward its admirable goals” (Tschannen-Moran, 2004, p. xi).

Trust was defined using the definition provided by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003), which described trust as “an individual’s or group’s willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest, and open” (p. 189). The descriptors used to identify trust also served to illuminate strong leadership characteristics (Duclos, 2014). For example, Kouzes and Posner (2010) delineated five practices that were exhibited by exemplary leaders. Those practices comprised descriptors that included modeling the way, developing competence, fostering collaboration, creating community, recognizing others, and facilitating relationships. Fessehatsion (2017) considered good leadership to be marked by one who endeavored to ensure effective communication and harmonious collegial working cooperation. Kirtman (2013) used descriptors like risk taking, clear communication, direct and honest, builds team, and follows through to highlight seven competencies that were “observable behaviors that demonstrate skill, learning and experience” (p. 5) in

effective leaders. The best predictor of future behavior was past behavior and as such, Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015b) noted that a principal's ability to garner the trust of staff was dependent upon the consistency of benevolence, honesty, openness, and competence that were demonstrated. It was imperative that school leaders understood that trust was earned from subordinates who counted on them and who perceived them as consistent in their actions (Kirtman). A study conducted by Handford and Leithwood (2013) illustrated this point. Using interviews from 24 randomly selected teachers from three high trust schools and three low trust schools, Handford and Leithwood determined that teachers' trust in principals was influenced by leadership practices that were identified as either competent, consistent, reliable, open, respectful and executed with integrity. Handford and Leithwood contended that it was a teacher's level of trust in his or her leadership that explained any discrepancy in the willingness to risk innovation; and further, when trust increased, a teacher was momentarily willing to risk trying something new and failing.

The research of Rousseau et al. (1988) highlighted vulnerability as a key component of trust, which was later confirmed by Tschannen-Moran (2004) as a necessary ingredient in school relations. Trust was not necessary without a sense of vulnerability (Hoy, 2002). Because of the collaborative nature of schools, vulnerability was essential (Dovey, 2009), from the perspective of the leader or trustee and the perspective of the follower or trustor (Duclos, 2014). Information did not lead to a common understanding or action unless there was a willingness to risk vulnerability (Adams, 2013). The collaborative efforts between leadership and stakeholders required not only vulnerability, but also that one's vulnerability not be exploited (Dovey). Fullan

(2014) who described the principal as a learning leader, posited that the principal shaped conditions for learning for all and modeled the behaviors within the organization that aided in the development of trust (Duclos). Duclos stressed that the ability of a leader to demonstrate vulnerability minimized perceived hierarchical strength and encouraged subordinates to participate absent worry.

The tasks completed within school districts depended on unified efforts, dedication, trust, and concurrent thoughts (Dinham, 2005). The actions of the principal, as the instructional leader, served as tangible examples of the manner in which trust was integrated into the daily routine (Duclos, 2014). The activities within any workplace required interaction by way of face-to-face communication and trust (Savolainen et al., 2014) between colleagues and between leaders and their subordinates. As such, the development of interpersonal relationships and effective communication were mechanisms that facilitated effectiveness, efficiency, and improved quality of services in public institutions (Agba, 2018). According to Savolainen et al., in interpersonal work relationships there was a correlation between job satisfaction and performance when trust mediated. Littrell, Billingsley, and Cross (1994) contended that principals who supported their staff emotionally, through the transparent transference of information, had a more satisfied staff. Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015b) deduced that a sense of fairness was perceived by teachers who trusted their principals. Fox et al. (2015) submitted that there were tremendous benefits to the overall school functioning that arose from a sustainable rapport between the teacher and principal at the K-12 level. Kirtman (2013) opined that it was the main function of principals, as leaders, to ensure that the optimal services were offered to parents and students. Through their leadership, Price (2015) contended that

principals offered a social acclimation to their interactions with teachers, which fostered a heightened awareness of the principal's social alignment toward the stakeholders. To that end, it was essential for school leaders to build teams and to develop confidence and trust with stakeholders in an effort to achieve the desired results (Kirtman, 2013).

Leadership Styles

The increase in principals' responsibilities over the last two decades forced the reconceptualization of principals' roles (Fullan, 2014) and leadership styles in order to aggrandize their impact on scholastic attainment and the development of an effective educational school system (Fessehatsion, 2017). Principals indirectly influenced student academic attainment through their collaboration with staff (Quinn, 2002). According to Walker and Slear (2011), to positively influence teachers, principals understood the power of their personal traits and behaviors. The key traits of leadership, influence and interdependency, emphasized the importance of the interactions between the leader and follower that impacted one another through reciprocal exchange, with leaders creating a balance between their own needs and organizational needs (Northouse, 2018).

According to Uzoechina and Oguegbu (2015), "leadership is the ability or state of being a leader" (p. 5) and the manner in which the principal behaved was a determinant of one's leadership style. Northouse (2018) revealed that the influential behaviors exhibited by leaders were both directive and supportive. Behaviors that were directive in nature included establishing goals and ensuring that the resources for attainment were available or defining roles and modeling how goal attainment was possible within the role (Northouse). Supportive behaviors included facilitating two-way communication between the parties, encouraging subordinates, and offering emotional support

(Northouse). When a school leader demonstrated a leadership style that was collaborative in nature; where subordinates observed him or her planning ahead, establishing the vision and mission of the organization, and coordinating activities among them, he or she presented a leadership style that brought out the best performance in others (Beatty & Buzzotta, 2010). Thompson (2017) suggested that in the same way teachers were expected to make practical and theoretical modifications within their classrooms, it was the principal who led these shifts through his or her behaviors, which motivated those within his or her sphere of influence to complete tasks.

According to Tschannen-Moran (2009), collective goals were only realized when teachers were motivated, acquired information, and were given the discretion to respond to the needs of students. Tschannen-Moran contended that it was the leadership orientation of the principal as demonstrated by administrative routines and the degree to which interpersonal relationships were maintained, that organizational goals were attained. Because teacher motivation was influenced by administrator behavior, it stands to reason that the style of leadership exhibited by principals must also be considered.

Fessehatsion (2017) conducted a descriptive research study that sampled 62 teachers from five schools located in Asmara, Eritrea. Fessehatsion revealed that teachers believed principals to be facilitators of change through the exertion of their leadership styles, providing and gathering resources, acting in a supervisory role, improving the provision of training and professional development opportunities, and the creation of varying means for effective communication. Eyal and Roth (2011) used structural equation modeling to determine the relationship between educational leadership and

teacher motivation. The pair concluded that leadership styles among school principals played a significant role in teacher motivation.

Uzoehina and Oguegbu (2015) described the principal as a change agent whose actions were determined by the leadership style demonstrated. To successfully motivate and influence subordinates, leadership was executed in an ethical, considerate, and dependable way that facilitated contributions toward common organizational aims (de Oliveira Rodrigues & Ferreira, 2015). Though there were several leadership styles to which administrators could subscribe, the transactional and transformational leadership styles were extensively discussed across the educational leadership literatures (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Berkovich, 2018; Eyal & Roth, 2011; Leithwood et al., 1994; Nir & Hameiri, 2014; Urick, 2016). Bateh and Heyliger found that increased job satisfaction was observed in faculty who identified with an administrator with either the transformational or transactional leadership style as their dominant leadership style.

As was previously indicated, the culture of an organization was largely influenced by its leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Bass and Avolio further contended that the organizational culture also impacted leadership development. An organizational culture that was identified as innovative and viewed satisfactorily by employees, was likely led by transformational leaders who operated with the assumption that their subordinates were trustworthy and valuable contributors, with the ability to resolve complex issues among themselves with little or no administrative input (Bass & Avolio). The collection of leadership practices and behaviors that comprised leadership (Kedir & Geleta, 2017), if used effectively, aided in transforming teaching and learning (Dinham, 2005).

The definition of trust as presented by Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (1999) provided that trust was “an individual or group’s willingness to be vulnerable to another party based on the confidence that the latter party is benevolent, reliable, competent, honest and open” (p. 189). A study by Onorato (2013) demonstrated that the transformational leadership style closely aligned with behaviors that were necessary to elicit trust from subordinates. According to Onorato transformational leaders persevered to achieve their established mission, took risks, and inspired others through their own personal commitment. Unlike the transactional leadership style, which was rooted in the issuance of rewards for compliance to regulations (Eyal & Roth, 2011) or the correct completion of a task (Bass & Avolio, 1993), the transformational leadership style influenced followers by considering their needs (Aydin et al., 2013), adhering to organizational values, and serving as a model (Eyal & Roth) for positive behaviors. In order to perform effectively within the confines of the highly competitive and stressful environment that drove school, student, and leader functioning, a transformational leader led in a way that projected his or her own values to subordinates and facilitated the ownership of those values (Onorato, 2013). Transformational leaders aroused subordinates to set aside self-interests for the sake of organizational goals (Dartey-Baah, Anlesinya, & Lamptey, 2019).

Using a relational survey model, Avci (2016) conducted a qualitative study to explain the leadership styles of principals from the assessment of teachers. Avci also sought to determine whether those leadership styles predicted the currently observed organizational citizenship behaviors. According to Avci, teacher perceptions of general leadership styles of principals were high for both transactional and transformational

leadership styles. Avci further detailed that there was a positive, highly statistically significant relationship between principals' transactional and transformational leadership styles and OCB, with transformational most positively impacting OCB.

Asencio and Mujkic (2016) surveyed United States federal employees to investigate the relationship between employee perception of transactional and transformational leadership behaviors and employee perceptions of trust in their leaders. Using the Organizational Leadership Scale and applying multivariate regression analysis, Asencio and Mujkic indicated that both transactional and transformational leadership styles were positively related to employee trust in leaders on average, however greater levels of interpersonal trust were found with transformational leaders.

According to Onorato (2013), effective leaders exhibited both transactional and transformational leadership characteristics; rewarding employees for stellar performance and motivating them through corrective action when things went awry, while also providing support, inspirational motivation, opportunities for growth and professional development, and serving as a role model within the workplace (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). According to Thompson (2017) a skilled and effective leader inspired and influenced instead of relying on coercive power for results. Dartey-Baah et al. (2019) maintained that transformational leaders also stimulated their subordinates intellectually, which challenged them to consider alternative and non-traditional solutions to problems in the workplace. Leithwood, Menzies, and Jantzi (1994) reasoned that the transformational leadership style was most befitting for motivating teachers toward the continued innovations that were proposed in education with each passing year. While transactional leadership helped teachers recognize the performance required for the

fulfillment of organizational aims, transformational leadership increased staffs' commitment to the organizational goals (Leithwood et al.). Leithwood et al. further contended that in order to ensure the resources that were needed for restructuring and reforming schools were available, it was critical to earn teachers' commitment to change as evidenced by various enhancements to teacher behaviors.

The Impact of Leadership on Teachers' Behavior

According to Andrews et al. (1991), the greatest assets within schools were teachers. Though administrators were responsible for establishing and maintaining a trusting environment (Bilgin-Aksu, Aksu, & Polat, 2015), it was the interaction between the principal and the teacher that ultimately enabled the fulfillment of the goal of educating students (Fox et al., 2015). Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015b), suggested that teachers and principals shared in the effort to create and offer an environment in which learning occurred. The ability to transform teaching and learning required a leader who was intentional about building interpersonal relationships while working with staff both individually and in teams (Dinham, 2005). Dinham suggested that because success in education was largely dependent upon collaboration, commitment, trust, and common purpose, the development of leader-follower relationships was of great value toward that aim. Smith et al. (2001) maintained that teachers desired a school environment wherein the interpersonal relationships were characterized as trusting. According to Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015b), the five facets of trust; benevolence, honesty, openness, competence, and consistency laid the foundation upon which a constructive and productive relational dyad was formed between the principal and teachers. Further, the

skills possessed and modeled by principals were key in influencing teacher attitudes in general and toward efforts at reform (Kursunoglu & Tanriogen, 2009).

Irajzad and Shahriari (2017) believed that teachers played a central role in establishing supportive relationships with students, and when teachers were motivated and possessed the knowledge and discretion to address the needs of students, organizational goals were attained (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Organ et al. (2006) suggested that “we behave positively toward people we like or respect” (p. 67). As such, positive workplace behaviors were expected from employees who liked and respected their supervisors (Organ et al.) Organ et al. further contended that “the more positive the person’s job attitudes or job satisfaction, the more positive a person’s behavior with respect to the job” (p. 67).

The display of positive and professional behaviors from teachers was important in the overall improvement in schools (Kosar, 2015; Organ et al. 2006). According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998), “a climate of teacher professionalism supports trust in the principal” (p. 348). Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015b) described teacher professionalism as having the expertise and pledging one’s best efforts and loyalty toward those served, namely students. School leaders played a critical role in creating and maintaining the necessary organizational structures that facilitated professionalism (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015b). According to Hoy, Hannum, and Tschannen-Moran (1998), teacher professionalism behaviors revealed commitment to individual and cooperative work, which was important, because the absence of commitment decreased the likelihood of teachers’ increasing their workloads (Leithwood et al., 1994).

Blase and Blase (2000) conducted a qualitative study with over 800 teachers to identify and describe the characteristics of principals that enhanced classroom instruction and the impact of those traits on the teacher participants. The data collected yielded two themes; talking with teachers to encourage reflection and the promotion of professional growth. Between the two thematic groupings, eleven strategies of effective leadership emerged. The identified leadership strategies were determined to have “strong enhancing effects on teachers, emotionally, cognitively, and behaviorally” (p. 135). Specifically, teachers reported improvement to their “motivation, satisfaction, self-esteem, efficacy, sense of security, and feelings of support” (p. 132). Crum et al. (2009) emphasized that the development of teacher efficacy, motivation, knowledge and skills were essential in the establishment and continuance of a flourishing school.

The appropriateness of both transactional and transformational leadership styles within the educational setting were previously noted in the studies of Bass and Avolio, 1993; Bateh and Heyliger, 2014; Berkovich, 2018; Eyal and Roth, 2011; Leithwood et al., 1994; Nir and Hameiri, 2014; and Urick, 2016. In a study to investigate the relationship between educational leadership and teachers’ motivation, Eyal and Roth found that principals’ leadership style predicted teachers’ motivation and feelings of well-being. Leithwood et al. contended that the effects of the most suitable leadership style for education, the transformational leadership style, yielded: 1. compulsion toward continued professional growth, 2. cooperation among staff, 3. self-efficacy, 4. sharpened focus toward goal attainment, and 5. increased teacher capacity beliefs. In organizations like schools, relationships were ongoing (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). “The extent to which an employee exhibits OCB, or any other behavior, is a function of the

employee's ability, motivation, and opportunity" (Organ et al., 2006, p. 93) and the positive perceptions of school administrators' behaviors (Yilmaz & Altinkurt, 2012).

Conclusion

In order to construct an efficient educational system, a stable and effective school climate and culture, and an atmosphere that encouraged employees to make sacrifices to exert extra effort, effective leader behaviors were critical (Avci, 2016). The present study sought to construct a pathway illuminating the relationship between administrator behaviors that gave rise to trust and explore the potential relationship between trust and organizational citizenship behaviors. Schools are complex social organizations where teachers and principals shared the burden for student achievement. However, school improvement was not realized without effective leadership (Fessehatsion, 2017), who worked to improve teacher morale and the environment that encompassed the school community in an effort to mobilize the energy and capacity of teachers (Fullan, 2002). Fullan contended that the improvement of relationships was the common denominator in successful change efforts, because relationships were never-ending. When leaders matched their words with actions, and reflected their genuine nature with consistency, they established themselves as trustworthy (Ozyurt & Villicana-Reyna, 2016). Research supported the relationship between leadership and trust (Bass & Avolio, 1993). The premise of this study was that leader behavior drove teacher participation in OCB. Therefore, it is necessary to explore the relationship between trust perceptions and OCB.

Summary

Research affirmed the relationship between leader behavior and OCB (Ali & Waqar, 2013; Dartey-Baah et al., 2019) and the benefits of OCB in schools (Bogler &

Somech, 2005; Somech & Ron, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015b). Leadership behavior was essential in influencing teacher behavior (Eyal & Roth, 2011; Handford & Leithwood, 2013) and was a valuable resource in constructing and sustaining school culture and climate (Fessehatsion, 2017; Stolp & Smith, 1995; Tschannen-Moran, 2014). Lastly, the studies conducted by Bryk and Schneider (2003), Daly (2009), Goodard et al. (2001), Louis (2007), Tschannen-Moran & Gareis (2015b) and Van Houtte (2006), highlighted the importance of trust in schools. This study measured OCB exhibited in K-12 schools and the perception of trust held by the participating teachers and their respective school administrator in an effort to determine the relationship between the two concepts. Chapter III described the quantitative methodology used in this study and outlined how this methodology was applied to the three research questions previously presented.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In an effort to meet with the increased demands for accountability in schools, teachers assumed several roles related to both instructional and extracurricular tasks to meet the ever-changing needs of the school community and the demands of current educational policy (Valli & Buese, 2007). According to Makvandi et al. (2018), the success of educational institutions depended on teachers with a proclivity toward executing tasks beyond their formally required duties to facilitate the organizational goal attainment of their respective schools. These non-prescribed tasks, which were discretionary in nature (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) were identified as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). The preceding literature review outlined research-based insights on the relationship between the attitudes and actions of principals on the ability to build trusting relationships with teachers and a school environment that not only served to guide teacher behavior, but also to inspire teachers to demonstrate OCB. This current chapter will describe the steps executed in the chosen methodology.

The plan for this current study was to explore whether teachers' trust in their principal, as determined by the perception of the principal's behavior, was a predictor of teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors. First, the current study sought to identify teachers' trust perception of principals based on their years of service, gender, and

gradelevel when principals' behavior was analyzed. Next, the researcher sought to determine if teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level taught predicted organizational citizenship behaviors. Finally, the current study was designed to determine whether a relationship existed between teachers' trust in their administrator and teachers' OCB when the two variables were analyzed.

Three specific research questions were the focus of this current study:

1. How do teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level taught relate to trust in their administrator?
2. To what extent do years of service, gender, and grade level taught predict organizational citizenship behavior?
3. What is the relationship between teachers' trust in administrators and the degree too which organizational citizenship behaviors are demonstrated by teachers?

Research Design

To explore the relationship between teachers' trust in their principal and OCB, a quantitative research design was employed. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2019), the quantitative research method was used to "identify relationships among two or more variables and then, based upon the results, to confirm or modify existing theories or practices" (p. 89). A correlational research approach was utilized to address the three research questions. Correlational research provides an indication of the relationship between two or more variables without designating causal connections (Salkind, 2017). In this particular study, the researcher sought to determine to what extent a specific outcome was predicted by at least one piece of information (Leedy & Ormrod).

Specifically, this study was constructed to allow the researcher to explore whether the trust perception of teachers for their principals could predict participation in OCB.

To evaluate the trust of teachers in their principal, the Principal Subscale of the Comprehensive Faculty Trust Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003) was used. The Principal Subscale consisted of eight items that evaluated teachers' perception of trust in their principal based on the principal's demonstration of benevolence, honesty, openness, competence, and reliability. Participants responded to a six-point Likert Scale from (1) "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree." Examples of questions from the Principal Subscale included: "The principal acts in the best interests of the teachers," and "Teachers can rely on the principal."

According to Hoy and Tschannen-Moran (2003), the norms of the Faculty Trust scales were derived from a sample of 97 high schools in Ohio, 66 middle schools in Virginia, and 146 elementary schools in Ohio. According to Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, the coefficient of reliability for this subscale was $\alpha = 0.98$. Through factor analyses, construct validity of the Faculty Trust Scale was determined. The construct validity of the Faculty Trust Scale was determined through factor analyses (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran).

The Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale for Schools (DiPaola et al., 2005) was used to measure the degree to which teachers engage in organizational citizenship behavior. The OCB scale was an ordinal scale comprised of a 12-item Likert-type scale with answers ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree." According to DiPaola et al., the reliability of the OCB scale was consistently high with a range of .86-.93. In a study of OCB in high schools, DiPaola et al., reported a reliability coefficient of

alpha = 0.87. The validity has been supported in three separate factor analyses (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Participants

Research for the current study was conducted utilizing a population that included 200 elementary, middle, and high school teachers from school districts located in the southwest suburbs of a large midwestern city. To generate the sample for the current study, convenience sampling was used. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique (Salkind, 2017) where participants are selected because they are either easily accessible or within close proximity to the researcher (Leedy & Ormrod, 2019).

Permission to conduct this study and accessibility to the study population was obtained from the president of the union to which all of the participants were affiliated. Participating school districts were approved by the union president and introductory emails were sent to all teachers at each school, within the target grade levels. The introductory email outlined the timeframe during which the study was conducted, and at the start of the study window, surveys were distributed to all teachers at the identified schools by email. Of 200 surveys that were emailed, 133 surveys were returned, 114 of which were returned completed. Of the completed surveys received, there were 47 elementary teachers, 38 middle school teachers, and 18 high school teachers.

Data Collection

Data collection for the current study was completed over a period of four months beginning in September of 2019. Permission to use the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale for Schools (OCBSS) was obtained from Dr. Michael DiPaola. A copy of

the permission is obtained is found in Appendix A. Permission to use the Faculty Trust Scale was published on the website of the author, Megan Tschannen-Moran. A copy of the permission retrieved from the website is found in Appendix B. Survey questions were transferred to survey monkey and a link to survey access was sent to teachers at the selected schools. The selected schools were provided with monthly reminders by email, and updates at local union meetings. Participating schools were informed that two, twenty-dollar gift cards would be made available to each school with 20 or more participating teachers.

The study participants completed a survey, comprised of 25 questions. Each survey required approximately four minutes to complete. The first two survey questions were used to grant consent and confirm that prospective participants were in fact certified K-12 educators. The next 12 questions measured the extent to which participants demonstrated OCB. Then, participants responded to six questions that measured the participant's perception of trust in his/her principal. The survey concluded with the collection of demographic information for each participant, which was gathered using closed and open-ended questions that included: what grade level do you teach, elementary, middle or high school, with which gender do you identify, and how many years have you taught.

For the collection of data required to answer the first research question- *how do teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level taught relate to trust in their building administrator?*, research participants completed The Faculty Trust Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003). The Faculty Trust Scale (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran) was used to measure the extent to which teachers agreed or disagreed with statements about their

principal's demonstration of benevolence, honesty, openness, competence, and reliability. Participants responded to a six-point Likert Scale from (1) "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree." To collect data required to answer the second research question- *to what extent do years of service, gender, and grade level taught predict organizational citizenship behavior?*, each participant completed the OCBSS (DiPaola et al., 2005). The OCBSS was an ordinal scale comprised of a 12-item Likert-type scale with answers ranging from (1) "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree." To answer the last research question- *what is the relationship between teachers' trust in administrators and the presence of OCB for teachers'?*, data obtained from the Faculty Trust Scale and the OCBSS were used to conduct inferential statistical tests that determine correlation. Data collected from the survey responses were entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and used to analyze the three research questions.

Analytical Methods

Data obtained from the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale for Schools and the Faculty Trust Scale were analyzed using SPSS. Both individual mean scores and total mean scores were calculated using the data obtained from each tool.

To determine how teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level were related to teachers' trust in their administrator inferential statistics were applied to the data. Specifically, in the analysis of the relationship between teachers' years of service and trust, Pearson product-moment correlation was performed. When the variables being examined were both continuous, the Pearson product-moment correlation is the appropriate measure of correlation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2019). A *t*-test for independent means was employed to determine whether a relationship existed between gender and

trust. The *t*-test for independent samples was used to determine whether significant differences existed between independent groups (Salkind, 2017), in this case, male and female. To determine the relationship between the grade level taught by teachers and trust perceptions in their administrator, a one-way ANOVA was applied to the data. According to Leedy and Ormrod, this test was selected as the best means to examine differences between the means of at least three groups, “through the comparison of the variances within groups and across groups” (p. 334). Tables displayed teachers’ perception of trust in their administrator with respect to teachers’ years of service, gender, and grade level. These tables will be presented in Chapter IV.

The researcher also used inferential statistics to determine the extent to which teachers’ years of service, gender, and grade level taught predicted teacher organizational citizenship behavior. Pearson product-moment correlation was performed for the measure of teachers’ years of service and teachers’ trust in his or her administrator. A *t*-test for independent means was used to analyze the relationship between teachers’ gender and OCB. The one-way ANOVA was performed to analyze the extent to which grade level predicted OCB. The results are displayed in tables that will be presented in Chapter IV.

To explore whether a relationship existed between teachers’ trust in their principal and the presence of OCB in teachers, the Pearson product-moment correlations was performed using the total trust score and the total OCB score. Results were displayed in tables that will be available in Chapter IV.

Limitations

The researcher identified several potential limitations in the current study. First, as the union representative for many of the districts represented in the study, most if not

all participants in the study knew the researcher personally or knew that the researcher interacted with administrators within the district. This fact may have influenced survey responses.

Second, OCB is a fairly new construct as it relates to education. As such, access to tools that measured OCB were limited to two tools. Though the tool ultimately used by the researcher was both valid and reliable, the tool for which the researcher initially sought permission to use provided a more in depth look at the construct by measuring OCB in three different ways.

Third, the researcher sought to explore socioeconomic status as a possible confounding variable in the relationship between teachers' trust in their principals and the presence of OCB. However, while composing the review of literature in Chapter II, the researcher was unable to uncover any research or data that supported a relationship between school socioeconomic status and teachers' OCB.

Finally, the survey questions utilized to measure teachers' trust in their principal required responses that were potentially sensitive in nature and that may have shed a negative light on the principal. Though the survey was coded to ensure that all responses contained no identifying information, concerns about confidentiality may have discouraged honesty in responses.

Summary

This chapter explained the methodology of the current study, describing the collection of data and the methods of data analysis. The next chapter will present survey results, examine the findings of the data analysis, and provide implications of the current research and recommendations for future research opportunities.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

As schools continually face the pressure of external influences that create demands for increased accountability and successful student performance (Tschannen-Moran, 2009), school cultures must shift to meet these new demands. Principals, as school instructional leaders, played a key role in organizational advancement (Sagnak, 2016) by providing the leadership necessary for building level improvement (Lee, 1991). There were clearly defined roles and obligations for each stakeholder within the school community (Sergiovanni, 2005), however, it was the principal who created the school climate and culture that fostered trusting relationships within the work environment (Tschannen-Moran, 2014). The purpose of this current study, as explained in Chapter I, was to examine the relationship between teachers' perception of their administrator's behaviors, teachers' trust in their administrator and whether the presence of trust impacts teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors. The literature reviewed in Chapter II emphasized the critical importance of trusting relationships within schools, which depended on human capital for goal attainment (Adams, 2013). The cooperative efforts required to educate students made trust an essential element in nurturing the interdependency that was characteristic of schools (Hoy, 2002; Tschannen-Moran, 2009).

According to Somech and Ron (2007), schools depended on teachers' willingness to exceed their prescribed roles for the attainment of their school's objectives and goals. This extra-role behavior, or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), cannot be required by leaders (Organ et al., 2006). However, according to Uzun (2018), individuals who received leader support, reciprocated leader behaviors favorably within their organizations. The discretionary nature of OCB makes the focal point of studies on the construct center on why individuals engaged in the behaviors (Somech & Ron). This current study explored how teachers' trust in their principal, as determined by teachers' perception of their principal's behavior, was a predictor of teachers' OCB. The previous chapter detailed the methodology used to execute the current study. Chapter IV provides the results of the methodology chosen to complete the current study.

To investigate the relationship between teachers' trust in their principal and teachers' OCB, 200 elementary, middle, and high school teachers were surveyed to measure: 1. the extent to which teachers' trusted their principals, as determined by their agreement or disagreement with statements about their principal's demonstration of benevolence, honesty, openness, competence, and reliability; and 2. to determine the extent to which the participants exhibited organizational citizenship behaviors. Of the 200 surveys distributed electronically, the results of the current study were based on the responses of 113 licensed elementary, middle, and high school teachers who completed the surveys. The participant responses to all survey questions were not mandatory. As a result, not all questions were answered. For questions related to teachers' OCB, $N = 113$. For questions related to trust, $N = 104$. Survey data were collected and analyzed to

identify possible relationships between the teachers' trust in their principal and the teachers' demonstration of OCB.

The current study addressed the following research questions:

1. How do teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level taught relate to teachers' trust in their administrator?
2. To what extent do teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level taught predict teachers' organizational citizenship behavior?
3. What is the relationship between teachers' trust in administrators and the degree to which organizational citizenship behaviors are demonstrated by teachers?

Findings

Research Question One

The first research question asked in the study was *how do teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level taught relate to teachers' trust in their administrator?*

To address the first research question, the researcher conducted three separate inferential statistical procedures to analyze the relationship between each predictor variable and trust. To determine the relationship between teachers' years of service and teachers' trust in their principal, a Pearson product-moment correlation (Pearson r) was conducted.

The results of the analysis indicated a negative, statistically significant relationship, at the moderate level, between teachers' years of service and teachers' trust in their principals.

($r(100) = -.30, p = .003, R^2 = .089$). Further analysis indicated that the slope of the regression line was $-.03$. Figure 1 illustrates the relationship between teachers' years of service (y) and teachers' trust in their principal (x).

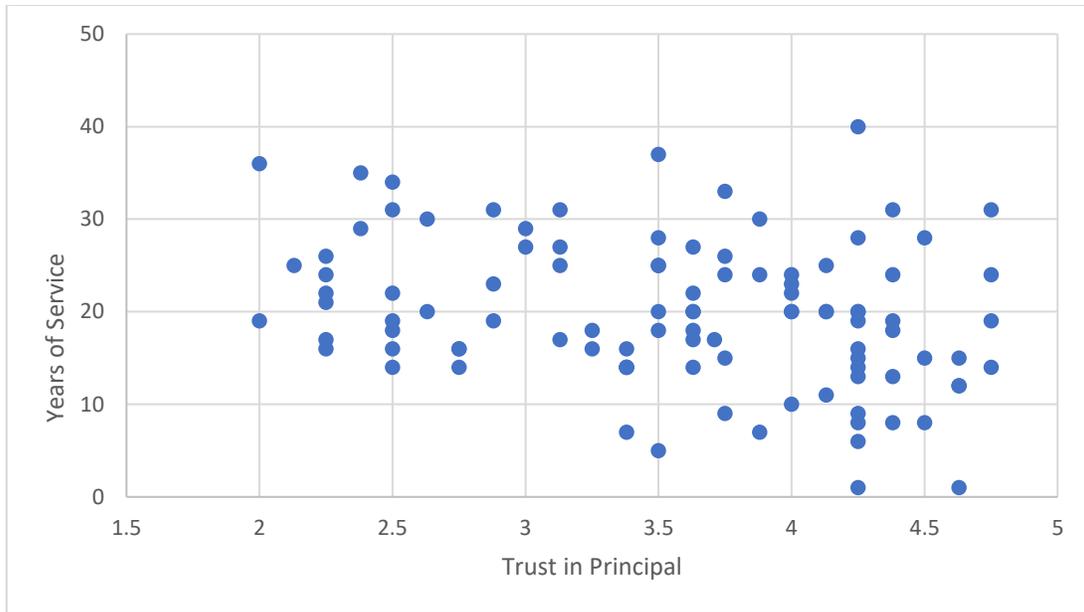


Figure 1. The relationship between teachers’ years of service and teachers’ OCB. (This scatterplot indicates a moderate negative correlation between teachers’ years of service and teachers’ trust in their principal).

Overall, the results of the Pearson r , as illustrated above, indicated that as teachers’ years of service increased, teachers’ trust in their administrators decreased. Based on the results of the analysis, for each year taught, a teachers’ trust score would be expected to decrease by .03. Less than 10% of the variance of trust in principals can be explained by teacher’s years of service.

The researcher selected a t -test for independent means to analyze the relationship between gender and trust in principals. See Table 1.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Teachers' Trust in Principals by Gender of Participants

Gender	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Male	17	3.66	.84
Female	84	3.58	.75

The t-test revealed that there was no significant difference between men ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .84$) and women ($M = 3.58$, $SD = .75$) and trust in their principals; $t(99) = .41$, $p = .684$. Specifically, the results did not indicate significant differences in the trust perception of men and women toward their trust in principals.

Finally, to analyze the relationship between elementary, middle, and high school teachers and trust, the researcher conducted a one-way ANOVA. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the three grade levels and trust in principals: $F(3,100) = 2.16$, $p = .098$. See Table 2.

Table 2

One-Way ANOVA for Teachers' Trust Scores by Grade Level

Source	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Between Groups	3.72	3	1.24	2.16	.098
Within Groups	57.42	100	.57		
Total	61.14	103			

Research Question Two

The second research question in the study asked *to what extent do teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level taught predict organizational citizenship behaviors?*

To examine the extent to which teachers' years of service predicted organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), the Pearson *r* was conducted. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between the number of years teachers taught and organizational citizenship behavior demonstrated; ($r(99) = .05, p = .597$). A *t*-test was used to analyze the relationship between men ($M = 59.23, SD = 6.72$) and women ($M = 56.05, SD = 8.54$) and the level of OCB demonstrated; ($t(98) = 1.45, p = .151$). See

Table 3.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of Teachers' OCB Responses

Gender	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Male	17	59.23	6.72
Female	83	56.05	8.54

Specifically, the *t*-test indicated that there was no significant difference in OCB demonstrated between men and women.

A one-way ANOVA was used to analyze the difference between the grade level taught and OCB. The results of the ANOVA indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the three grade levels; elementary, middle, and high school, and OCB: ($F(3,100) = 0.26, p = .855$). The results of the One-Way ANOVA are provided in Table 4.

Table 4

One-Way ANOVA for Teachers' OCB by Grade Levels

Source	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Between Groups	53.54	3	17.85	.259	.855
Within Groups	6814.93	99	68.84		
Total	6868.47	102			

Research Question Three

The third question asked in this research study was *what is the relationship between teachers' trust in their administrator and the degree to which organizational citizenship behaviors were demonstrated by teachers?* The final research question examined the relationship between teachers' trust in their principal and the presence of OCB from teachers. This research question was measured conducting a Pearson r . The results of the Pearson r indicated that no statistically significant relationship existed between teachers' trust in their principal and teachers' organizational citizenship behavior. ($r(101) = .05, p = .594$).

Conclusions

In summary, the results of the data collected and analyzed for this research study did not indicate an overall relationship between teacher 'trust in their principals and the demonstration of organizational citizenship behaviors. The following conclusions can be drawn from the findings related to the research questions.

Research Question One

Research question one asked, *how do teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level taught relate to trust in their principals?* The results of the data analyzed for this research question did not indicate a statistically significant relationship between teachers' gender and grade level taught and trust in their principal. However, the results did indicate a statistically significant relationship between teachers' years of service and trust in their principal. Specifically, as teachers' years of service increased, a teachers' trust in their principal decreased. These findings support the continuous but fragile nature of trust described by Dovey (2009) and Goodard et al. (2009). Rousseau et al. (1988) identified trust as a psychological state comprised of one's intended acceptance of vulnerability that was rooted in affirmative expectations of

another's intentions and behaviors. In schools, where relationships are ongoing (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998), trustworthiness was not based on a single interaction between the parties (Oplatka, 2009). Oplatka contends that reliability was a key component of trusting relationships. As such, principals who were perceived as trustworthy were those who consistently exhibited behaviors that aligned with teachers' expectations (Adams, 2013; Goodard et al., 2001). The findings related to teachers' years of service suggest that teachers with more years of service are likely to have been subjected to behaviors of principals over time that could have led to diminished expectations or that were inconsistent with behaviors identified by teachers as trustworthy. As such, this researcher concludes that establishing and maintaining trust of teachers was negatively impacted as the conduct of principals diminished the sense of vulnerability needed to foster the interdependency that characterizes the school community (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015a).

Research Question Two

Research question two asked, *to what extent do teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level taught predict organizational citizenship behavior?* The results of the data relative to this question indicated that no statistically significant relationship between the three aforementioned variables and organizational citizenship behavior was present. In dynamic organizations such as schools, the attainment of organizational goals and objectives was dependent upon teachers' willingness to go above and beyond the call of duty (Somech & Ron, 2007). Though OCB was defined as discretionary (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), there were several factors in schools that make it necessary for teachers to extend themselves beyond their prescribed duties (Schwabsky, 2014). To that end, this researcher concludes that the nature of education inherently dictates that teachers perform duties beyond their formally prescribed roles.

This researcher further concludes that the limitations of this current study further contributed to less than informative data results derived from this current study.

Research Question Three

Research question three asked, *what is the relationship between teachers' trust in their administrators and the degree to which organizational citizenship behaviors are demonstrated by teachers?* The results of the data analyzed from this current study indicated that a relationship does not exist between teachers' trust in their principal and the presence of OCB. Trust has been identified as a critical component of successful schools (Hoy, 2002), where new relationships and organizational innovations were constructed (Daly, 2009). Though administrator behaviors can establish or erode trusting relationships (Asensio & Mujkic, 2016), this researcher concludes that factors other than trust perceptions of the principal, such as psychological contract and professional commitment (Chen & Kao, 2012) or leadership style (Ali & Waqar, 2013), were suggested motivators for teachers' OCB.

Implications and Recommendations

This current study attempted to identify whether teachers' years of service, gender, and grade level were predictors of teachers' trust in their principal and teachers' OCB; and to determine whether teachers' trust in their principals was a predictor of teachers' OCB. Based on the results of the data analyzed from this current study as related to the aforementioned points, only a moderate, negative statistically significant relationship existed between teachers' years of service and trust in their principal. The results of the previously mentioned study objectives, from which no statistical significance was indicated, suggests that for a study conducted with a participant group that was adequately sized, teachers' gender and grade level were not suitable predictors of teachers' trust in their principals. Further, teachers' years of service, gender, and

grade level were not suitable predictors for organizational citizenship behavior demonstrated by teachers.

The researcher offers additional implications and recommendations about the importance of understanding teachers' OCB and the value of trusting relationships between teachers and principals that were derived from the findings of this current study. The struggle of school districts across the country to respond both efficiently and effectively to the needs of students in the midst of a global pandemic, provides yet another example of the dynamic nature of schools and the need for the flexibility of teachers to perform duties not explicitly defined by their job descriptions (Kaya, 2015). Much of the study on OCB focuses on the antecedents of the behavior (Somech & Ron, 2007). Although this current study did not reveal a relationship between demographic characteristics of teachers and the demonstration of OCB, the results of this current study suggest that the commitment of teachers to the betterment of their students and schools extends beyond teachers' physical traits, assignments, and tenure. The literature reviewed in Chapter II highlighted the positive impact of trust in promoting healthy school dynamics (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015b). Therefore, a future recommendation for research into organizational citizenship behavior and trust in schools is to expand the focus on trust relationships beyond that of teachers and principals to include all stakeholders within the school community as a predictor of OCB observed in schools.

Goodard et al. (2001) indicated that building trusting relationships was an ongoing process. According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (1998), the maintenance of individual expectations was among the ways that trust was both defined and redefined as relationships evolved. The indication of a negative statistically significant relationship between teachers' years of service and their trust in principals provided evidence that trust can be diminished over time

due to the perception of behavior exhibited by others. According to Bryk and Schneider (2003), as individuals interacted with one another with frequency and consistency, the intentions of those with whom they interacted were discerned through actions and behaviors. Because trust among stakeholders within a school community were identified as a key resource in improving routine work in schools (Bryk & Schneider), these findings support the need to develop strategies for encouraging the establishment and maintenance of trusting relationship among school staff.

Current research supports the impact of trusting relationships within schools on encouraging productivity and goal attainment (Akin, 2015; Levent et al., 2018). Within the educational literature, there remains a scarcity of research to support why teachers engaged in discretionary behaviors that fell outside of the scope of their duties (Oplatka, 2009). There was a long-held belief that the professional nature of teaching was to commit oneself to doing whatever was in the best interest of students (DiPaola & Neves, 2009). By exploring the level of trust perceptions among teachers in their principals and the degree to which OCB were exhibited, the researcher sought to identify whether teachers' trust in their principals was a predictor of teachers' OCB. Although the results of this study did not indicate a relationship between the two aforementioned variables, this current study established a foundation upon which future studies into the organizational citizenship behaviors observed in teachers can be built. As the educational landscape evolves and unforeseen circumstances arise that impact educational systems, better understanding of teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors becomes a vital component to the continued success of schools where collaboration, commitment, common purpose, and trust were hallmark characteristics (Dinham, 2005).

In Chapter III, this researcher noted that a limitation of this current study was the inability to measure organizational citizenship behavior more narrowly. Specifically, though

organizational citizenship behaviors, as observed in schools, benefit the students and the overall organizational mission (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001), future research on the construct in school settings can be directed towards comparing the degree to which teachers' OCB were directed toward the students, the team (other colleagues), and the school as a whole. By conducting an in-depth study to observe the degree to which teachers' OCB were directed toward students, the team, and the school as a whole, future researchers can identify possible relationships between trust and OCB in each category. Additionally, examining the dimension to which teachers' OCB were directed can enhance future studies into how school climate and culture correlate with OCB.

An additional recommendation for future researchers was to expand the study to explore the impact of school and student socioeconomic status on teacher organizational citizenship behaviors. While it has been noted that professional commitment was a likely influencer of teacher behavior (DiPaola & Neves, 2009), exploring a possible relationship between school and student socioeconomic status could be beneficial to better understanding teacher OCB. By developing a study that compares the levels of teachers' OCB demonstrated in schools with high and low socioeconomic statuses, researchers can identify whether access to resources or the lack of resources influences teachers' OCB.

In the absence of effective leadership, school improvement cannot materialize (Fessehatsion, 2017). The key role of a principal is that of culture builder (Stolp & Smith, 1995) within a school. As such, a final recommendation for future research into the relationship between trust and OCB integrates the perspective of school leadership into the study. As the individual who was a central figure in developing and enabling positive attitudes among staff (Kursunoglu & Tanriogen, 2009), obtaining the perspective of the manner in which principals

view themselves and the level of trust placed on staff can provide an indicator of whether the school culture and climate supports the interdependency needed for school effectiveness.

Schools across the United States benefit from organizational citizenship behaviors exhibited by teachers. However, within the United States, there continues to be limited research about why teachers engage in this discretionary behavior. The findings of this study, though not statistically significant, add to the growing body of knowledge regarding OCB in schools. With further study and a deeper examination into the antecedents of teachers' OCB, a more accurate understanding of the role played by principals and administrators in facilitating the activation of OCB can be obtained.

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Appendix A

Permission to use instrument from Michael F. DiPaola

Re: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale for Schools

Tonia Havard-Dew
Sat 5/11/2019 4:09 PM



To:

• Dipaola, Michael F <mfdipa@wm.edu>

Thank you!

From: Dipaola, Michael F <mfdipa@wm.edu>
Sent: Friday, May 10, 2019 9:11 PM
To: Tonia Havard-Dew
Subject: Re: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale for Schools

You are welcome to use the measure...best wishes, MFD

Michael F. DiPaola, Chancellor Professor
Educational Policy, Planning, & Leadership
School of Education
College of William & Mary
PO Box 8795
Williamsburg, VA 23188
757-221-2344 (office)

From: Tonia Havard-Dew <thavardew@olivet.edu>
Sent: Friday, May 10, 2019 9:13 PM
To: Dipaola, Michael F
Subject: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale for Schools

Good Evening Dr. DiPaola,

My name is Tonia Havard-Dew and I am a doctoral candidate at Olivet Nazarene University. I am writing my dissertation, entitled "The Relationship Between Administrator Behavior, Teachers' Trust on Administration and Teachers' Organizational Citizenship Behavior" and would like to use your OCB Scale to collect data.

I've located all of the information on administering the scale from your website, but I was unsure about whether I needed your consent to administer the scale for my study.

Thanks in advance for your consideration!

Appendix B

Permission to use instrument from Megan Tschannen-Moran

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