

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP, ACHIEVEMENT PRESS,
AND STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

by

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationship of achievement press, organizational citizenship, and student achievement. A total of 55 schools were surveyed, and 1,665 certified school personnel participated in the study. The instruments used in this study were the Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) scale and a subset of the Organizational Climate Index (OCI) called achievement press.

It was hypothesized that all three variables are correlated and achievement press is a better predictor of student achievement than organizational citizenship. To test this hypothesis, elementary school teachers completed surveys that measured achievement press and organizational citizenship. Student achievement was defined as a student's performance on the Alabama Reading and Mathematics Test. Reliabilities for the OCB and the OCI ranged from .80 to .89, indicating acceptable levels of reliability.

As predicted in the first hypothesis, achievement press and organizational citizenship are positively correlated; however, neither variable was correlated to student achievement. Socioeconomic status was correlated to reading achievement, math achievement, and achievement press. Hypothesis 2 predicted achievement press would be a better predictor of student achievement than organizational citizenship. This study did not validate the prediction of Hypothesis 2.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This study investigates organizational citizenship, achievement press, and how they relate to student achievement. Organizational citizenship is an employee's willingness to go beyond his/her normal job duties and complete a task that is beneficial to the company (Organ, 1988a). Achievement press, also known as academic press (Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002), occurs when a school sets high but achievable goals for its students. Students work towards reaching these goals while being respected for their efforts by their peers and their teachers (Hoy, Smith, et al., 2002). Organizational citizenship and achievement press are newer terms that encompass the attitudes and actions teachers, administrators, and school staff members use to educate students (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Hoy, Hannum, & Tschannen-Moran, 1998; Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). These two terms are not synonymous, but organizational citizenship appears to relate to achievement press, and vice versa (DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy, 2007). There is a gap in the literature explaining the exact relationship between organizational citizenship and achievement press as well as their effect on student achievement.

Background of the Study

Organizational citizenship is the human side of any company or school in which a person puts aside self-interest, steps outside of his/her regular duties, and helps any co-worker or the company become stronger and more efficient (Bateman & Organ, 1983). The idea of organizational citizenship behaviors in schools is a relatively new concept (DiPaola et al., 2007). DiPaola and Hoy (2005) were two of the first researchers to link organizational citizenship

behaviors and student achievement. These authors tested an argument that organizational citizenship behaviors caused teachers to give extra effort to students and to be more agreeable to trying new teaching methods. Therefore, it seems probable that if a school's employees increased their level of organizational citizenship behaviors, then the school would be able to achieve more academically.

There have been several published studies on the academic press of a school and how each of academic press's elements relates to increased student achievement (Goddard, Sweetland, & Hoy, 2000; Hoy & Hannum, 1996; Hoy & Sabo, 1998; Hoy & Tarter, 1997; Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991; Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). For example, Hoy, Tarter et al. (1991) and Hoy and Tarter (1997) related an element of academic press, academic emphasis, to student achievement in high schools. Goddard et al. (2000) were able to connect academic emphasis to student achievement in elementary schools while Hoy and Sabo (1998) linked academic press to student achievement in middle schools.

DiPaola and Hoy (2004) were the first researchers to try to connect organizational citizenship and student achievement. In the high school setting, these authors were able to link organizational citizenship behaviors with mathematics and reading achievement, even when SES was controlled. DiPaola et al. (2007) along with DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) were the first researchers to positively link organizational citizenship behaviors and academic press. Jurewicz (2004) was the first researcher to link organizational citizenship behaviors to student achievement and organizational citizenship behaviors to academic press. In that study, over eighty Virginian middle schools were used to determine the aforementioned links.

No studies could be found that have tried to correlate organizational citizenship, achievement press, and student achievement (DiPaola et al, 2007). This dissertation

hypothesizes that there is a relationship between these three variables. Speaking of academic press as a school property, DiPaola et al. (2007) wrote “It seems that organizational citizenship works in concert with other school properties to enhance student achievement. Just how that dynamic occurs is an important topic for further research” (p. 247).

Purpose

Lee and Bryk (1989) stated schools can be “engaging environments for students and productive workplaces for adults, or they can impede these ends” (p. 190). Schools should be places where students come to feel challenged and teachers are provided the tools, materials, and time to make these challenges possible. A promising research direction is in the testing of organizational variables that may be related to school achievement and about which little is known. Should the research effort be successful, there will likely be some guides for the practitioner.

Definition of Terms

Academic Press--the tendency of a school to set high but achievable goals for its students and the students’ belief that they can meet these goals. All stakeholders apply pressure for the school to improve and help students meet these goals (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). The operational definition of academic press will be a subset of the OCI, called Achievement Press.

Achievement Press--this term will be used interchangeably with academic press. Achievement press will be interchanged with academic press because the aforementioned scale was reformulated into the achievement press scale (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). The achievement press scale was shown to be as reliable as the academic press scale while being less extensive.

Organizational Citizenship--an employee going beyond his or her prescribed job role and performing tasks which ultimately benefit the organization (DiPaola et al., 2007). The

operational definition of organizational citizenship behaviors is the Organizational Citizenship Behaviors scale (OCB) that was developed by DiPaola et al. (2007).

Student Achievement--the ability of a school to teach reading and math skills as assessed by state standardized test scores (Tarter & Hoy, 2004). The operational definition of student achievement will be the Alabama Reading and Mathematics Test (ARMT) (Alabama State Department of Education, 2012).

Socioeconomic Status (SES)--the percentage of students who receive a free or reduced lunch data will serve as a proxy for the SES. The higher the percentage of students not qualifying for free and reduced lunch, the higher the SES (DiPaola & Hoy, 2007).

Research Question

The research question that directed this study is, “What is the relationship of organizational citizenship and achievement press to student achievement?”

A review of the literature relevant to academic press, organizational citizenship, and student achievement is provided in the next chapter. This literature review guided the premise of this dissertation, a theory about the relationship between the three variables. The hypotheses that follow were developed to test this theory.

H1: Organizational citizenship, achievement press, and student achievement will be correlated.

H2: Achievement press will make a greater contribution than organizational citizenship in the prediction of student achievement.

Limitations

This study had several limitations. One of the internal limitations was the reliability of responses to these instruments. Teachers’ responses may not honestly reflect their perceptions or

their perceptions may not be consistent. It may be that other variables, not considered in this study, are better predictors of achievement. Another possible external problem with this study is the generalizability of it to other parts of the State of Alabama or even the nation. Because the data were not surveyed at random but were surveyed on the basis of geographic location, the results of this study may only be applicable to a similar region.

Another internal limitation is this study was cross-sectional and not longitudinal (Creswell, 2009). Because the former is a survey that is less exhausting time-wise, it was chosen over the latter. Longitudinal surveys give several glimpses of data, while cross-sectional studies usually give only one or two glances. Both of the instruments that were used in this study have been shown to be reliable.

Two other limitations to this study are a restriction of range and a low sample size. The former occurs when a value is condensed and no longer fully represents the actual value of its origin (Weber, 2001). This matter is compounded when values are abbreviated at multiple points during a study. The latter can cause Type I or Type II statistical errors. Green (1991) suggests the minimum sample size for this study is 75 schools.

Summary

Organizational citizenship and achievement press are two overlapping constructs that have been shown to relate (DiPaola & Hoy, 2004; DiPaola et al., 2007; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Jurewicz, 2004). Both of these constructs have also been shown to independently correlate to student achievement (Goddard et al., 2000; Hoy et al., 1991; Hoy et al., 2002; Hoy & Hannum, 1996; Hoy & Sabo, 1998; Hoy & Tarter, 1997). However, there have been no studies

that have correlated these two constructs with student achievement (DiPaola et al., 2007).

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the possible connection between these three variables as a possible way to improve student achievement.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a research history of organizational citizenship and achievement press. A theoretical argument linking organizational citizenship and achievement press in the prediction of achievement will be presented. Finally, hypotheses that test the theory will be developed.

Conceptual Framework

An examination of organizational citizenship behaviors in schools includes the history of this topic along with different methods used to measure it. Organizational citizenship behaviors occur when a teacher goes beyond his/her contractual duties and performs a task beneficial to the school (DiPaola et al, 2007). These behaviors are not mandated by school administrators, and teachers willingly exhibit them in order to help their fellow workers (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005).

Bateman and Organ (1983) were two of the first researchers to establish a relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and job satisfaction. This discovery led to a multitude of studies into this relationship in order to improve organizations and boost productivity (Organ, 1988). Part of this multitude of studies was centered on how many dimensions organizational citizenship contained (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran determined there were not multiple dimensions of organizational citizenship in schools, but only one. They stated that employees worked together for the overall benefit of the school. Like the dimensions of organizational citizenship, there

have been several measures developed to determine the organizational citizenship of organizations (Podsakoff et al., 2000). The measure used in this study evolved from one of the original measures for organizational citizenship (DiPaola et al., 2007).

The topic of academic press has roots in effective schools research (Hoy et al., 1991). This body of research tried to determine the characteristics of an effective school (Coleman et al., 1966; Edmonds, 1979; Stedman 1987) and soon took the path of school climate (Halpin & Craft, 1963). A few years later, the work of Parsons (1967) explained the climate of a school in terms of health.

Academic press was later correlated to student achievement (Hoy et al., 2002). Like the OCB scale, the scale used to determine academic press has evolved from some of the original basis for academic press (Hoy et al., 1991). The Academic Press scale is the combination of three subscales from the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI). In a recent work, the OHI was combined with the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire and then refined into the Organizational Climate Index (OCI). Achievement press, as conceptualized and operationalized in this study, comes from a subset of the OCI called achievement press.

The third part of the conceptual framework for this study is the literature related to student achievement. The first section of the student achievement literature describes student achievement as the main goal of a school. Next, this body of writing discusses the problems with properly defining student achievement. That is, student achievement is viewed by some as standardized test scores while others believe student achievement is much more complex and is a combination of many different evaluations and judgments (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005). In this section, both organizational citizenship and academic press were both shown to relate to student achievement.

Organizational Citizenship

An organization cannot be effective with employees completing only the tasks that are mandated by their contracts (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; Katz, 1964). Barnard (1938) maintained that “the willingness of individuals to contribute cooperative efforts to the organization was indispensable to the effective attainment of organizational goals” (as cited in DiPaola & Hoy, 2005, p. 36). Katz (1964) stated there must be three elements present in any successful company or organization. The first of these elements is that a worker must become part of the organization and remain with it. Second, a worker must have a specific task or tasks that he or she is responsible for and he/she must carry these tasks out. Last, a worker must go beyond what is known about or required of his/her role in the company to become more productive and thus more efficient (as cited in Smith et al., 1983). Much later, Organ (1988a) labeled the employee’s willingness to go beyond his/her regular job duties in order to become more useful for the organization as organizational citizenship.

Part of the foundation of organizational citizenship is job satisfaction and how job satisfaction relates to job performance (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1977, 1988; Smith et al., 1983). There are numerous studies on the way job satisfaction affects job performance (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Lawler & Porter, 1967; Organ, 1977, 1988; Smith et al., 1983). In one of the original works on satisfaction-performance, Lawler and Porter (1967) summarized several previous studies on the relationship between low and high job satisfaction. These authors stated many investigations were conducted during the 1930s and the 1940s that tested how age, gender, education, tenure, type of job, salary, and other variables related to job satisfaction. The reason given for the numerous writings on job satisfaction during this time period was that this concept is often presumed to be related to performance (Lawler &

Porter, 1967; Organ, 1988). Because employers are always looking for ways to boost performance and productivity, the topic of job satisfaction improving productivity was explored in subsequent decades (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

Satisfaction-performance. The concept of organizational citizenship was developed during a time when many employers believed that job satisfaction related very little to performance (Lawler & Porter, 1967; Organ, 1977, 1997). Bateman and Organ (1983) discussed these times when they wrote, “Any notion that satisfaction causes performance is regarded as naïve folk wisdom, not supported by the empirical record” (p. 587). At first there was no leap from believing that improving an employee’s attitude about his or her job would actually improve that employee’s performance. The gap between job satisfaction and performance was first explained by the thought that improving an employee’s attitude would cause that employee to be more willing to help others and take part in other areas of the workplace and these actions would increase production. Organ (1977) warned that dismissing the thought of job attitudes as being related to job performance could mean the loss of knowledge pertinent to organizational enhancement. Smith of Smith et al., (1983) was the first to identify behaviors that were caused by an increase in job satisfaction. Smith found several behaviors that led her to develop an instrument that has been widely used to evaluate organizational citizenship (Organ, 1997).

Understanding performance. The problem of understanding the relationship between job satisfaction and performance could be explained by the misconception of the term performance (Organ, 1977). Many researchers have sought to find a direct relationship between job satisfaction and the amount of products produced by an employee when such a relationship does not directly exist (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Lawler & Porter; 1977; Organ, 1977, 1988). These researchers have tried to over simplify performance and thus left it unrelatable to larger

items such as achievement of goals and the quality of products (Bateman & Organ, 1983). A better definition of the performance of a company is a positive change in the attitudes of workers in which they are willing to help others and take on extra tasks that will benefit the organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988). Another explanation to why the relationship between job satisfaction and performance is hard to describe is many of the early researchers were content with only examining the relationship and not the causes of the relationship (Organ, 1977). The causes of the relationship will be examined in a subsequent discussion of the dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviors.

Extra role behaviors. Katz and Kahn (1966) were two of the first authors to describe how the operation of an organization was promoted by employees who exhibited extra role behaviors. This type of functioning would later become known as citizenship behaviors or organizational citizenship behaviors (Bateman & Organ, 1983). These extra role behaviors are not mandated or even suggested by the organization's management. Some examples given by these authors include workers helping their colleagues with a profession-related problem, working with minimal complaints, and enduring temporary hardships for the good of the organization. Simple tasks such as keeping the work area clean or making wise use of company supplies are other extra role behaviors. These extra role behaviors were later viewed as a product that was more valuable than output (Smith et al., 1983).

Supervisors like employees displaying such extra role behaviors because they make the of the supervisors' jobs easier (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Employees who help other workers with job-related tasks aid managers by completing these tasks so the managers do not have to finish them thus gaining managers additional time to work on more productive duties such as planning or streamlining practices (Podsakoff & MacKenzie,

1997). Bateman and Organ (1983) also alleged managers appreciated employees exhibiting these behaviors more than managers appreciated the performance of regular job duties because they were not required and meant the employee was going above and beyond his/her normal duties.

Satisfaction-citizenship. Researchers give two reasons why organizational citizenship behaviors are caused by job satisfaction. The first of these reasons is reciprocity (Hwa & Ramayah, 2010; Organ, 1988). Reciprocity is when workers return certain beneficial behaviors to those who have helped them (Bateman & Organ, 1983). This means that when a worker feels as if his/her work is desired and that he/she is not being manipulated, then this person will reciprocate with a greater rate of production or a creative solution to a company problem. In a more modern version of reciprocity in the workplace, Organ (1988a) stated when an employee was given the proper tools and resources, such as technology and specific trade skills, he/she would, in turn, collaborate with other employees, assist the supervisor, and improve the reputation of the division or company.

Another basis for the idea that job satisfaction causes citizenship behaviors is several research articles have been conducted on altruistic behaviors (Organ, 1988). Speaking of a summary of these types of works, Bateman and Organ (1983) stated the possibility “that more satisfied persons display more of the prosocial, citizenship behaviors” (p. 588). In an earlier work, Rosenhan, Underwood, and Moore (1974) indicated prosocial behaviors tended to indicate a commonality of thought and actions of workers.

Bateman and Organ (1983) were some of the first researchers to empirically establish a relationship between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviors. In fact, all of the variables of job satisfaction used in this work were shown to be positively correlated to citizenship. These

variables were pay, promotions, the work itself, supervision, and opportunities for promotion, with supervision and opportunities for promotion being viewed as more important than the other three variables.

As previously stated, one of the original problems of describing the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance was researchers often concentrated on the relationship itself and not the cause of the relationship. Because Bateman and Organ (1983) found a relationship between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviors and because citizenship behaviors are a performance, it seems proper to examine the causes of the relationship between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviors. Some of these causes could be determined from a further analysis of the types of citizenship behaviors, that is, the dimensions of citizenship behaviors (Smith et al., 1983).

Two dimensions, In one of the antecedent works of organizational citizenship, Smith et al. (1983) wrote organizational citizenship has at minimum two dimensions. These dimensions are altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism is described as behaviors or actions that are aimed at helping one specific person. DiPaola and Hoy (2005) wrote that altruistic people are those who go the extra mile and seek out those who need support or help. Podsakoff et al. (2000) gave several examples of altruistic people. These authors stated someone is altruistic if he/she helps a new coworker learn how to operate a different piece of machinery. Altruism similarly exists when one worker assists another by helping him/her catch up on paperwork. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) wrote altruism is strongly related to job satisfaction. They indicated that this behavior occurs when a person is in need and another coworker assists with or without a formal request for help. This behavior is also often referred to as the

agreeableness factor (Organ & Lingl, 1995). These authors explained agreeableness in terms of opposites such as helpful to irritable and selfish to cooperative.

Generalized compliance is described as completing tasks that benefit the whole company and not one person. Again, Organ and Lingl (1995) defined this variable in terms of opposite pairs such as late to punctual and careless to careful. This variable is often defined as doing tasks in the correct manner for the sake of what is best for the company (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; Smith et al., 1983). Again, Podsakoff et al. (2000) gave several examples of this behavior. They wrote that workers who exhibited generalized compliance were prompt and did not waste time. Smith et al. (1983) stated that generalized compliance meant what a “good employee ought to do” (p. 657).

Five dimensions. Organ (1988b) expanded the number of dimensions thought to make up organizational citizenship behaviors, adding the elements of courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. Courtesy occurs when employees relay pertinent information to other employees in order to prevent accidents and loss of work time. This type of behavior can be very helpful to any supervisor, and thus the company, because giving advanced notice of potential problems would allow a supervisor to be proactive and move from managing crises to improving employees’ abilities and roles in the company (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

Sportsmanship is explained as employees avoiding grumbling and criticism of the organization. If employees avoid complaining about the company and/or its elements, this allows the manager to concentrate his/her efforts on more meaningful tasks such as spreading best practices throughout the company or following up on employee feedback (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). The term civic virtue is defined as workers volunteering for committees, meetings, or other tasks in which they had rather not take part. By volunteering for these types

of activities, employees will help with the overall group effort and thus will increase the organization's effectiveness.

Seven dimensions. In an effort to clearly define organizational citizenship behaviors, Podsakoff et al. (2000) reviewed the literature concerning these types of behaviors. These authors found more than 30 different elements of organizational citizenship. These authors concluded,

Furthermore, even though the dramatic growth of the OCB research into other related management domains, such as human resources management, industrial and labor relations, strategic management, international business, and leadership, is healthy for research in this area, one unfortunate outcome of this diversification is that it has become increasingly difficult for all but the most avid readers to keep up with the developments in the literature. (p. 515)

Thus these authors proceeded to document the overlaps and turn the 30 elements into seven common dimensions. These dimensions were based on the five founding elements of organizational citizenship, as determined by Organ (1988b). These common themes of organizational citizenship behaviors are "helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development" (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 516).

Helping behavior shares some of the same characteristics as altruism (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Altruism is one of the first two elements of organizational citizenship as determined by Smith et al. (1983). Podsakoff et al. (2000) determined that helping behaviors consisted of altruism along with peacemaking, courtesy, and cheerleading. Helping behaviors often mean that one person puts aside his/her immediate goals in order to help another person meet his or her goals. This can range from as simple an act as verbally encouraging a person to complete a task or helping a person brainstorm possible solutions to lending one's physical efforts to help someone in need (Smith et al., 1983).

The theme of sportsmanship is explained as being a good sport, seeing the best of the situation, and cooperating with other coworkers for the common good (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005). This theme allows for an increase in constructive behaviors that will ultimately increase school efficiency and effectiveness. The third theme, organizational loyalty “entails promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting and defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse conditions” (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517).

Like altruism, organizational compliance has its roots based in one of the two original factors of organizational citizenship. Organizational compliance is another name for generalized compliance that occurs when a worker puts off self-interest for the common good and productivity of the organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Also, the themes of individualized initiative (conscientiousness) and civic virtue are part of Organ’s (1988) work that named five areas of organizational citizenship. The last of the seven themes, self-development, is one with scarce background based on the organizational literature. George and Brief (1992) defined self-development as the following:

Workers voluntarily seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one’s field or area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one’s contributions to the organization. (p. 311)

One constant throughout a review of the literature on organizational citizenship is a disagreement about the number of dimensions of this variable (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012). From the original work of Smith et al. (1983), which discovered two main elements of OCBs, to other studies with seven dimensions or even the work of DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) that concluded that there was only one dimension in the school setting, there have also been different classifications of the same dimension.

One question that might arise from an effort to try to properly separate and categorize organizational citizenship and its elements is, “Are the elements of organizational citizenship useful as individual entities?” That is, if organizational citizenship is shown to affect student achievement, will some or all of the elements of organizational citizenship also affect student achievement? According to DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001), in a study of organizational citizenship in schools, there are not five dimensions or even two dimensions of organizational citizenship that portray this type of citizenship in the school setting. In fact, these authors’ study revealed there was only one dimension of organizational citizenship behaviors present in schools. This means that both the individual and the school work together to benefit each other in order to achieve the overall goals of the school.

OCB measures. Since the phrase organizational citizenship was coined, there have been a variety of measures created and used to empirically study this concept (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). One of the first of these measures was created by Smith et al. (1983) and contained 16 Likert-type items and yielded results indicating there were two types of citizenship behaviors, altruism and generalized compliance. Since that time, the scales created to measure organizational citizenship behaviors have ranged from at minimum seven items to almost 100 survey questions (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). These scales have also measured this topic from only two areas to as many as seven areas.

Another scale that has been used to measure organizational citizenship is the Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools Scale (OCBSS). The OCBSS was created from the original organizational citizenship scale developed by Smith and colleagues (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). The OCBSS measured this topic in two areas, organizational citizenship aimed at the individual and organizational citizenship directed at the organization

(DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). In the development of the OCBSS, items from Smith and colleagues' original scale were evaluated by three different groups. The final suggestions of these groups changed the total number of items from 16 to 15. Five of the original items were deleted to form the new scale, two items were revised, and four new items were added.

This study used the Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) scale. This scale is a revision of the OCBSS (DiPaola et al., 2007). As previously stated, the OCBSS contained 15 Likert-type items. The OCB dropped three of these items to make a total of 12 Likert-type items. The three items were dropped because their reliabilities were less .45. The correlation between the OCBSS and the OCB was .97.

There are two reasons that the OCB measure was used in this study. First, this scale is a shorter version of the OCBSS, and it measures the same areas equally or better than the longer scale (DiPaola et al., 2007). Second, a commonality between the number of dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviors in schools is that all of these dimensions work together to form a solitary concept (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; DiPaola et al., 2007). The OCB is constructed around the theory that all the dimensions of organizational citizenship in schools work together to form a single concept (DiPaola et al., 2007).

Academic Press

Academic press occurs when a school sets lofty, but attainable, goals for its students. These students believe that they can achieve these goals, make a substantial effort to achieve them, and are respected by their teachers and peers for their efforts in reaching these goals (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). Principals, parents, and teachers all work together for the improvement of the school and for the school to maintain high standards. The foundation of academic press is

the effective schools research (Hoy et al., 1990) and has been reconceptualized as recently as 10 years ago (Hoy, Smith, et al., 2002).

Since the 1960s, there have been several major works that serve as the foundation and the motivation for effective schools research. One of these works, Coleman et al. (1966), concluded characteristics of a school had very little effect on student achievement. In this study, the only school characteristic that was found to be a strong predictor of student achievement was socioeconomic status. Edmonds (1979) and Stedman (1987) were two of the first researchers to disprove the findings of Coleman and his colleagues.

Effective Schools

Although these two researchers had different findings for the characteristics of effective schools (Stedman, 1987), there were five characteristics that were similar in both the works of Edmonds (1979) and Steadman (1987). These five similar characteristics of effective schools are the school staff maintains an orderly learning environment, teachers and administrators set lofty goals for students, the principal has a sound leadership style, teachers and administration emphasize that students have a basic academic foundation, and students are evaluated often and scientifically.

School climate. Halpin and Croft (1963) supplied the effective schools research base with one of its foundational works, based on the climate of a school. The climate of a school is described as “the set of internal characteristics that distinguishes one school from another and influences the behavior of its members” (Hoy et al., 1991, p. 10). The purpose of the work conducted by Halpin and Croft (1963) was to develop a survey that would identify the key parts of the teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interactions, which determined eight components of

school climate. These components are “hindrance, intimacy, disengagement, spirit, production emphasis, aloofness, consideration, and thrust” (Halpin & Croft, 1963).

Climate-open to closed.

The results of their study led Halpin and Croft to create a measure of organizational climate called the Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire (Halpin & Croft, 1963; Hoy et al., 1998). This work was designed to allow the same concepts to be used to describe each school in order to have a sense of consistency between schools (Halpin & Croft, 1963; Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990). These eight components were analyzed and grouped into six clusters of school climate. These climates were arranged along a scale that varied from open to closed (Halpin & Croft, 1963; Hoy et al., 1998). The open end of the scale indicated the school administration had a healthy combination of organization and structure and had chosen a positive course for the school. In addition, open principals were able to provide teachers with needed support and gave thought to the teachers’ efforts and suggestions. Teachers at this same end of this school climate scale worked well with their colleagues and remained focused on their jobs of educating all students. Hoy (1990) stated that open schools were authentic in that they were not only busy with student achievement but helping the students feel content. Hoy stated that these two traits of a school occurred in conjunction with the development of the whole school.

In contrast, a closed school has a large number of rules that were seen as hindering to the overall goals (Halpin & Croft, 1963; Hoy et al., 1998). Principals at this type of school were engaged in micromanaging the staff and required burdensome amounts of paperwork. Moreover, this type of principal was not supportive of his/her staff and did not interact with the staff on any level (Hoy et al., 1991).

Climate-health. Parsons, Bales, and Shils (1953) explained the school as a social system. In order for a social system or school to live and thrive, it must complete four tasks. The school must be able to adapt to its environment, set and implement goals, maintain harmony, and create and keep its individual values and culture. This work was crucial in helping to explain school climate as organizational health (Hoy, 1990). In his work, Parsons (1967) stated that organizations such as schools have three different grades of power: technical, managerial, and institutional. The technical level is the key role of the organization (Hoy et al., 1990). For schools, this would mean that teaching and learning are the focus of the school. The overall goal of the school is to produce knowledgeable students. The whole staff works together at this level in order to remove obstacles to education of students. However, this concentration on teaching and learning means teachers must have the final decision on the content of the curriculum and teaching methods (Hoy, 1990).

The managerial level of the school climate in terms of health is the principal of that school (Hoy et al., 1990; Parsons, 1967). These principals serve as mediators between every person who participates in the organization. According to Hoy (1990), this process is different from teaching. Administrators must develop and implement initiatives that strengthen loyalty to the school, increase staff trust, and provide motivation for all members of the school. Principals must be willing to locate, obtain, and allocate all needed resources and work (Hoy et al., 1990).

The institutional level school health joins the school with its community (Hoy & Hannum, 1997; Parsons, 1967). Hoy (1990) stated, “it is important to have the backing of the community” (p. 154). Teachers and principals need the support of all stakeholders if they are to complete their function of teaching and learning. Often, the influence of people who are outside of the school can distract administrators and teachers from the goal of educating students (Hoy &

Hannum, 1997). Schools need to be accepted as institutions that are trying to educate and produce knowledgeable individuals (Hoy et al., 1990).

Academic emphasis. The term academic emphasis comes from the technical level of school organizational climate in the terms of health (Hoy, 1990). Academic emphasis is often classified as the press of a school toward academic achievement (Hoy, 1990; Hoy et al., 2002; Hoy et al., 2006). This term originated with the work of Edmond (1979) and was classified as academic emphasis by Hoy and his colleagues (Goddard et al., 2000). Academic emphasis is further defined as the school holding the students to high but achievable expectations, the teachers of the school believing in themselves and their students, the students striving to improve their work, students respecting the work of others, and the learning environment being neat, orderly, and conducive to learning.

Academic emphasis is measured by the Organizational Health of Elementary Schools (OHI-E) questionnaire (Hoy et al., 1991). This questionnaire uses the previously discussed framework given by Parsons (1967) that states there are three levels of organizational power. The statements from the OHI-E measure the academic emphasis of a school by asking teachers to rate themselves in response to five items. These items vary from asking how much students respect their peers when they get good grades or how cooperative students are while the teacher is teaching and students are learning (Hoy et al., 1991).

Principal influence. Principal influence and resource support are two aspects of the managerial level of school-climate health (Hoy, 1990). Hoy et al. (1991) originally combined these two phrases into a term called resource influence. However, these topics are generally not seen as a combined measure (Hoy, 1990; Hoy et al., 1990; Hoy et al. 1998). Thus, resource influence is usually split into these two separate entities. Principal influence is defined as the

ability of the principal to influence his/her superiors' decisions (Hoy et al., 1991). This term is further described as the ability of the principal to maintain independent thoughts and actions while simultaneously and successfully working with the superintendent. Again, some of the statements from the OHI-E measure how much influence the principal has on his superiors. These items also ask teachers to rate their principal in his/her ability to get what is asked for from his/her superiors (Hoy et al., 1991). Teachers who complete this scale must also decide if the superintendent gives significant thought to the suggestions of the principal or if the principal is able to influence the superintendent.

Resource support. Resource support occurs when the school provides needed supplies and extra supplies are available upon request (Hoy, 1990; Hoy et al., 1990; Hoy & Hannum, 1997; Hoy et al., 1998). Hoy et al. (1991) depict a failing school, known as Harding, in which the principal is portrayed as someone with little influence. In this situation, the principal is unable to obtain the needed items for the school. This leads to the faculty becoming discouraged and thus giving up on the possibility of being able to positively affect students. Likewise, the survey statements from the OHI-E asks teachers to rate if classroom supplies are available as needed or if supplementary materials for classroom use are obtainable (Hoy et al., 1991).

Academic press. The term academic press comes from the combination of three different scales of the Organizational Health Inventory for secondary schools (Hoy et al., 1998). The scales that were combined to form this new construct were academic emphasis, resource support, and principal influence (Hoy et al., 2002). Hoy et al. (1998) created a second-order factor when three subtests of the OHI were combined (Hoy et al., 2002). One of the most comprehensive characterizations of academic press came from Hoy et al. (1998) when they defined academic press as the following:

High achieving schools have a strong press for academic excellence (strong Academic Press). Teachers and administrators set a tone that is serious, orderly, and focused on academics. Students respond by accepting the challenge, believing in themselves, and respecting the academic accomplishments of their peers. In the press for achievement, everyone does his or her part. Principals use their influence with superiors to get the necessary resources and support for the instructional program; teachers set reasonable academic goals for their students and go the extra mile in helping them achieve; and students accept the importance of academics and hard work to be successful (high Academic Press). (p. 353)

The definition of academic press used in this dissertation comes from a recent study that combined the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI) and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). The authors of this study then refined these items into the Organizational Climate Index (OCI). A subset of OCI is called achievement press. Hoy, Sweetland et al. (2002) gave a correct definition of this latest version of academic press:

Achievement press describes a school that sets high but achievable academic standards and goals. Students persist, strive to achieve, and are respected by both students and teachers for their academic success. Parents, teachers, and the principal all exert pressure for high standards and school improvement. (p. 42)

Careful attention should be paid to the difference in the definition of academic press as a combination of the three subtests of the OHI and the definition of achievement press as a subset of the OCI. The former had more emphasis on principal influence and resource support (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). In the latter definition, nothing is stated about principal influence and resource support (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). One might assume that principal influence and resource support is a part of the faculty working for success, but nothing is directly stated.

In another attempt to understand academic press and its relevance, Goddard et al. (2000) described this concept in terms of societal and behavioral norms. They indicated if teachers considered themselves and their colleagues capable of impacting student learning, this consideration would become the norm for the school. Mediocre teachers would increase their

efforts in order to maintain a level of effort and accomplishment equal to that of their peers. Moreover, if teachers did not respond with increased teaching efforts that were equitable to those of the group, these authors stated there would be social consequences. This group effort for teachers would serve as the level to which all teachers were individually judged by their colleagues.

Press measures. As previously stated, Halpin and Craft (1963) developed the Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire, which examined the climate of schools. This questionnaire attempted to rate the climates of schools along a scale that ranged from open to closed (Halpin & Croft, 1963; Hoy et al., 1991). This instrument consisted of 64 Likert-type items. These items were used by teachers and administrators to rate the interactions of teachers with their colleagues and teachers with principals. There were eight characteristics used when the teachers and administrators rated their interactions (Halpin & Croft, 1963; Hoy, 1990; Hoy et al., 1990; Hoy et al., 1991). These eight interaction characteristics were eventually modified into six clusters of a school climate and these clusters were placed along the scale, which varied from open to closed. These clusters are “open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal, and closed” (Hoy, 1990, p. 152).

Hoy et al., (1991) listed several researchers whose studies had identified substantial problems with the OCDQ. For example, Halpin (1966), along with Miskel and Ogawa (1988), wrote this measure was designed for elementary schools and thus did not properly measure the climate of a secondary school. Hoy et al. (1991) complained that this measure was approximately 30 years old, with no major efforts to revise this work. Another shortcoming of this work was the indistinguishable characteristics of the middle clusters. In his doctoral dissertation, Robert J. Brown (as cited in Hoy et al., 1991) tried to reproduce the results of this

study and his results indicated not six climate types, but eight. Moreover, a major conceptual problem with this questionnaire is that it does not deal with the main focus of schools, educating students (Hoy et al., 1991).

The Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire-Rutgers Secondary is based on the original OCDQ and was developed because this original work was not created for middle and high schools (Hoy et al., 1991). After a long revision of the OCDQ, which consisted of a pilot study and another study, new items were added, some existing items were changed, and other survey statements were abandoned. The result was a 34-item Likert-type questionnaire that used five dimensions of school climate (Hoy et al., 1990, Hoy et al., 1991). These items were organized into two categories when a second order factor analysis was conducted on the five dimensions. One of the categories was openness, which was similar to the openness category given by Halpin and Croft (Hoy et al., 1990). The other category was based on the dimension of intimate behavior and was called intimacy. This category was described as sound, interconnected social employee associations.

Parsons (1967) developed a framework in which he noted there were three levels of organizational authority: technical, managerial, and institutional. This framework gives the school a way to identify and measure school climate in terms of health (Hoy, 1990). From this framework, seven key elements of organizational health were developed (Hoy & Feldman, 1987). Academic emphasis and morale are the key elements of organizational health from the technical level. Resource support, principal influence, consideration, and initiating structure are four other key elements that appear in the managerial level of school climate in terms of health. The remaining key element of organizational health was from the institutional level and was integrity of the institution (Hoy, 1990; Hoy et al., 1991).

The Organizational Health Inventory (OHI) is based on these seven key elements (Hoy, 1990; Hoy et al., 1990, Hoy et al., 1991). This instrument consists of 44 Likert-type items and measures each of these seven elements at the technical, managerial, and institutional levels. Also, a second order factor analysis confirmed all of these seven elements work together to form “one strong general factor” (Hoy et al., 1990, p. 267). This strong general factor was based on the overall school health and was therefore named health (Hoy & Feldman, 1987). As previously mentioned, three of the seven key elements of school health were found to form a second order factor called academic press (Hoy et al., 1998).

Achievement press as a subset of the Organizational Climate Index (OCI) was the measure of academic press used in this work. This subset was formed when the Organizational Health Inventory and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire were combined and later refined into the OCI (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). This combination consisted of 95 Likert-type items, which were later refined into 27 Likert-type items. The rationale behind the usage of the achievement press scale is that it has been shown to be as reliable as the original version of the academic press scale, while containing less than half of the items (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002).

Student Achievement

Tarter and Hoy, in their study on how certain characteristics of quality elementary schools explain student achievement, wrote that the products of organizations can be assessed in several ways (Tarter & Hoy, 2004). One of the main ways schools are evaluated is through student achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Tarter & Hoy, 2004). Student achievement as used in this study was how well a student achieves on a standardized test. Part of the rationale of judging schools by the achievement of their students is goal attainment (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Goals for an organization are what the organization hopes to achieve.

Goals. There are three reasons schools and organizations have goals (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). First, goals set the standard for what is to be attained in the school and can serve as a rubric for evaluation. Next, goals provide a focal point for all employees. These goals serve as objectives of the school that are known and visible to all staff members. Third, goals serve as an inspiration for all who are involved with the school. Employees are driven to achieve these goals.

As stated, goals help determine an effective school by serving as standards to judge the outputs or performances of a school (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Each member of the school has different goals and outputs. When each member of the school obtains or surpasses his or her goals, then the school is deemed effective. Some student outputs are the graduation rate, standardized test scores, classroom grades, future ambitions, confidence, and ingenuity. Outputs for teachers are job retention, attitudes toward employment, and attendance. Administrators' performances are job satisfaction, balanced budgets, and dedication to the school.

However, there are a few problems with using goals in the process of evaluating the effectiveness of a school (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). One of these problems is schools often have goals that overlap or clash. Hoy and Miskel (2008) give an example of goal conflict as when teachers are supposed to maintain an orderly work environment while also fostering student trust and compassion in students. These authors also wrote emphasizing standards-based teaching and achievement of high test scores can clash with teachers' job satisfaction.

Defining student achievement. Another problem of using goals to determine school effectiveness is clearly defining the goal of student achievement and determining how to properly measure it. DiPaola and Hoy (2005) wrote, “How well students are achieving is determined by judgment of teachers, teacher-made tests, grades, and standardized tests” (p. 277). Tarter and Hoy (2004) used two contrasting ways to evaluate school effectiveness. The first was data obtained from standardized test scores. The second was a scale that measured teacher perceptions of the general effectiveness of the school. Hoy and Miskel (2008) stated that parents and stakeholders, along with other citizens, too narrowly judge schools. The authors wrote that these people equate school effectiveness with the level of attainment on standardized tests. Most states have standardized tests that are used to determine the achievement and effectiveness of all schools within that state (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005). These states, as well as the schools and districts which are contained within, get reports based on their performance on these tests.

Organizational citizenship-student achievement. DiPaola and Hoy (2005) used standardized test results for the measure of student achievement in their study of organizational citizenship in high schools. The specific measure of student achievement used in this study was a 12th grade proficiency test given by the Ohio Department of Education. Using this data, DiPaola and Hoy (2005) linked organizational citizenship with student achievement in the areas of mathematics and reading, even when they controlled for SES. These authors hypothesized organizational citizenship would be linked to student achievement for several reasons. One of these reasons is teachers who exhibit organizational citizenship characteristics would give extra effort and would instinctively work with struggling students. These teachers would also be more willing to try new instructional approaches when they realize their standard teaching methods have become less effective.

Reciprocity between organizational citizenship and student achievement is a relationship that was not tested by DiPaola and Hoy (2005) but was believed to exist by these authors. That is, these authors believe the boost in student achievement will cause a greater amount of organizational citizenship behaviors. In turn, the greater amount of organizational citizenship behaviors will increase the amount of student achievement.

Academic press-student achievement

Many studies have linked academic press and student achievement (Hoy et al., 1998; Hoy et al., 2002). In the study conducted by Hoy et al. (1998), certain aspects of middle school climates were examined to determine their contributions to student achievement. These authors independently linked academic press to mathematics, reading, and writing achievement of middle school students. In fact, these authors acknowledge SES as the single greatest predictor of student achievement but state academic press is “not far behind” SES (p. 352).

Hoy et al. (2002) formed a theoretical model to explain math achievement in high schools. This model hypothesized that both academic press and collective efficacy were positively associated with mathematics achievement. Analysis of the data confirmed a link between academic press and student achievement in mathematics, even after SES was controlled. However, these researchers concluded academic press was the strongest when collective efficacy was potent. Through path analysis, discovery was made that academic press worked through collective efficacy and therefore academic press had an indirect effect on mathematics achievement.

Academic press’s relationship to student achievement is like that of organizational citizenship and student achievement in that they both can be classified as reciprocal (DiPaola &

Hoy, 2005; Hoy et al., 2002). In the case of academic press and student achievement, Hoy et al. (2002) wrote academic press boosts the performance of the organization and this boost of performance causes an increase of academic press. These authors stated:

Thus, to the extent a strong academic press is positively associated with student achievement, there is reason to lead schools in a direction that will systematically enhance emphasis on academics. Such efforts are likely to be rewarded with continuous growth not only in academic press of the school but also in student achievement. (Hoy, Sweetland, et al., 2002, p. 79)

Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic Status is a significant variable to consider when looking at student achievement. SES generally refers to “an individual’s (or family’s, or household’s) relative position in the social hierarchy and directly relates to the resources in the home” (Hattie, 2009, p. 61). The three main areas of SES are how much education the parents have received, how much money they earn, and what type of profession they work in. Sirin (2005) found no difference between any of the three types of SES in their effect on student achievement. From four meta-analyses of nearly 500 studies, Hattie noted low SES had a remarkable negative effect on student achievement. In reverse, the upper end of the SES scale can also be a strong indicator of high achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005).

Sirin (2005) found SES did not have a greater influence on achievement when the different types of subjects were compared. SES did have a greater effect on achievement in urban areas as compared to their rural counterparts. The discrepancy in achievement caused by SES was found to be most prevalent in middle school years and the least influential in preschool (Sirin, 2005). This study controlled the effects of SES on the given variables, allowing a better indication of their relationships.

Theoretical Framework

A review of the literature provides a basis for theorizing that citizenship and press individually and jointly predict student achievement. There are several ways that academic press and organizational citizenship are related. The first of these links is student achievement. Increasing both the academic press and the organizational citizenship of a school has been shown to increase student achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; Hoy & Hannum, 1997). In addition, both academic press and organizational citizenship are derived from a concerted effort among employees. When a worker decides to take on extra tasks or duties that will benefit the organization, he or she is exhibiting organizational citizenship behaviors (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Furthermore, in certain areas of a school, when a teacher or staff member chooses to work on additional responsibilities and jobs that will benefit the school, he or she is displaying academic press.

For example, the construct academic press is a combination of three separate entities called academic emphasis, principal influence, and resource support (Hoy et al., 1998). Academic emphasis is the faculty focus on boosting academic achievement (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). The faculty of a school could choose not to be concerned about academics and rather concentrate on athletics. Because this is a conscious effort among teachers to complete their jobs and assist with others' efforts, academic press can be a form of organizational citizenship.

Resource support occurs when needed supplies are readily available and extra supplies are obtainable upon request (Hoy et al., 1991). The person or people who secure these supplies must often exhibit organizational citizenship (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Needed and extra supplies are often purchased through grants and donations. Many schools are not able to have someone whose job description includes writing grants. Thus, a person must take the need for supplies

upon himself/herself and use this need as the basis of a grant. Other schools have personnel who also take it upon themselves to seek donations for needed classroom materials. Again, seeking these donations is not listed as a job description for most school employees and thus is an extra task that is completed for the improvement of the school.

Another connection between these two variables could be contained within the definitions. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) wrote that their studies discovered there was only one dimension of organization citizenship. This dimension was the alignment of individual goals with organizational goals for the overall achievement of the latter. Some of the examples that these two authors give of citizenship behaviors are the teacher who helps new teachers orient themselves to the school and the teachers who work during time not mandated by their contracts. Because part of academic press is academic emphasis and part of academic emphasis is the establishment of a neat and orderly learning environment that is conducive to learning, the two previously mentioned citizenship behaviors can be part of academic press.

Because there are several overlapping characteristics of academic press and organizational citizenship, it seems probable that these two are related. Moreover, because both have been shown to relate to student achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2004; Hoy & Hannum, 1997), if they both can be shown to relate to each other, then an improvement in either factor would also mean an increase in the other factor. Ultimately, this would reveal an increase in student achievement. Thus, the theory of this paper explains the relationship between organizational citizenship, academic press, and student achievement.

Hypotheses

There will be two hypotheses in this dissertation.

H1: Organizational citizenship, achievement press, and student achievement are related.

Organizational citizenship and achievement press, which contain overlapping characteristics, have both been individually related to student achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2004; Hoy & Hannum, 1997). Given the individual relation to student achievement and similar characteristics, it is hypothesized that organizational citizenship, achievement press, and student achievement are related to each other.

H2: Achievement press makes a greater contribution than organizational citizenship in the prediction of student achievement.

Achievement press has been shown to relate to student achievement in many studies (Hoy et al., 1998; Hoy et al., 2002), compared to two studies linking organizational citizenship and student achievement (DiPaola et al., 2007). Because there are more studies linking achievement press to student achievement than studies linking organizational citizenship to student achievement, it is hypothesized that academic press makes a better contribution toward student achievement than does organizational citizenship.

Summary

This chapter has given a history of achievement press and organizational citizenship as well as student achievement. Both of the former constructs have been shown to relate to student achievement. These constructs overlap and correlate. However, there is no literature about the correlation of all three variables. Moreover, a theoretical explanation and a test of how the variables interact was provided.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to detail how the data of this study were collected and analyzed. How the study participants were chosen and the specific measurement tools used will also be discussed in addition to the data collection and analysis.

Selection of Sample

The selection of the sample used in this study was based on convenience. Only schools within an hour's driving distance were considered. Initially, a prospective list was developed to determine how many Alabama schools were within this radius. When it was determined how many school districts would be needed to have a sample of 60 schools, the prospective list was divided for contact among the six researchers. The data collection process began with a superintendent's permission to survey his or her district. Next, principals within the given districts were contacted to determine if they would allow their school staffs to participate in this research. If the superintendent declined to allow his/her district to participate, no further contact was made with this superintendent or anyone within the district. If the principal of a school declined to take part in this research, no other contact was made with the school or its personnel. When superintendents granted permission and the principals did likewise, a time for survey administration was scheduled. Superintendents and principals were contacted until 60 schools had agreed to allow their staffs to be surveyed. A master list of the schools to be surveyed was maintained and thus a running number of the schools surveyed was compiled.

The current study used 55 schools in Northwest Alabama as a sample. This convenience sample was based on schools in Northwest Alabama that agreed to participate in the study and those schools that were both reasonably close to the researchers. Each selected school contained at minimum of one grade from kindergarten through sixth. The schools represented rural, suburban, and urban areas and were limited to those with 15 or more faculty members. Teacher participation was anonymous and voluntary.

Instrumentation

The conceptual definition of organizational citizenship behaviors is the one given by DiPaola et al. (2007), which states that there is only one dimension of organizational citizenship. That is, the benefits to the individual work in conjunction with the benefits to the organization and both combine to form a single dimension of organizational citizenship. Organizational citizenship behaviors were measured by an instrument developed by DiPaola et al. (2007) called the Organizational Citizenship Behavior scale. This scale contains 12 Likert-type statements ranging from the score of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). The items contained in this scale ask the teachers to rate themselves and their colleagues on items such as “teachers help students on their own time” and “teachers give an excessive amount of busy work” (DiPaola et al., 2001). The reliability for this scale ranged from .86 to .93.

The conceptual definition of achievement press is a school with lofty, but achievable goals for students. These same students persevere to meet these goals while being respected by their peers and their teachers. All stakeholders pressure the school for high standards and continuous improvement (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). The operational definition of achievement press also comes from the OCI, or at least a subset of the OCI. The subset consists of 8 Likert-type items ranging from the score of 1 (*rarely occurs*) to 4 (*frequently occurs*). The items

contained in this scale ask teachers, administrators, and students to rate themselves and the school on how much they push for academic achievement. Achievement press survey items vary from “students respect others who get good grades” to “the school sets high standards for academic performance” and “students seek extra work so they can get good grades” (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002). The reliability for this scale was .92 (Hoy, Smith et al., 2002).

The conceptual definition of student achievement is the mastery of fundamental reading and math skills (Tarter & Hoy, 2004). The operational definition of this term is the Alabama Reading and Mathematics Test (ARMT+). All Alabama third through eighth grade students who attend a public school take this test. Schools and school districts get a report card based on their scores (Alabama State Department of Education, 2012). The percentage of students who are able to master basic math and reading skills are given to the district. These percentages of mastery for students are used to determine student achievement for each school. The reliabilities for the reading and math tests of the ARMT fall between the high .80s and the low .90s (Kanetra Germany, personal communication, April 8, 2013). If a school contains the third grade, the school’s reading and math achievement scores were based off the ARMT+ results for this grade level. If the school did not contain the third grade, it was determined that the school contained the sixth grade. Thus, the schools achievement scores consisted of ARMT+ scores for the sixth grade. All schools used in this study either used the third grade ARMT+ scores or the sixth grade ARMT+ scores.

The conceptual definition of socioeconomic status (SES) is the household income of each student (DiPaola & Hoy, 2007). Students from families with higher SES are thought to have better educated parents and a better home environment. The home environment is perceived as better because it is more likely to provide students with learning opportunities and values

educational attainment. The operational definition for SES is the percentage of students who receive a free or reduced lunch. The higher the percentage of students not qualifying for free and reduced lunch, the higher the SES (DiPaola & Hoy, 2007). SES served as the control variable in the prediction of achievement.

Data Collection

The data were gathered at one regularly scheduled faculty meeting at each school. After the superintendent had granted permission to survey the district and the principal had granted permission to survey the school, a time was set for a researcher to attend a regularly scheduled faculty meeting. Generally, the researcher was allowed to administer his or her surveys at the beginning of the meeting and then leave after all surveys were collected. On occasion, the survey administration was in the middle of the meeting or at the end.

Upon arriving, the researcher would give a packet to the principal. The principal would then sign permission to survey the staff. At this time, the principal was also given an informed consent form, which detailed his or her individual rights for survey participation. After the principal left the meeting room to complete his/her survey, the teacher surveys were distributed and a teacher's informed consent form was read aloud. At this time, questions about the process were sought. If no questions were raised, the teachers were allowed to begin their surveys. When each survey was completed, the teachers placed them in a large envelope. When all teacher surveys were completed and placed in the envelope, the researcher left the room to obtain the principal survey. The school surveys were then bound together by school. All schools were entered into the spreadsheet for analysis within a week. The hardcopies of each survey are being maintained by the researchers.

Each of these meetings took place in the spring of 2014. All answers were anonymous, and the researchers had no way of matching any response to a certain participant. Each survey was assigned a code number that allowed the researcher to know from which site the survey originated, but the number did identify the respondent. Each survey was coded for origin prior to administration. The data were gathered by one of a group of graduate students participating in this larger study about the positive effects of school culture in Northwest Alabama.

The SES information was determined by the percentage of students who were enrolled in the free and reduced lunch program at each school. The information on the percentage of free and reduced lunch students at each school was obtained from the Alabama State Department of Education Website (Alabama State Department of Education, 2014).

Data Analysis

The focus of this study was the relationship between organizational citizenship, achievement press, and student achievement. The school was the unit of analysis for this study. Each questionnaire response was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS was used to perform all statistical analyses. Correlational analysis was used to test the hypotheses. Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression with block entry was used to isolate the effects of each independent variable on the dependent variable. OLS regression was used rather than simultaneous regression because it was hypothesized that achievement press would make a greater contribution toward student achievement than organizational citizenship. This type of regression allowed the independent variables to be entered into the equation at different times compared to all of the variables being entered at the same time as in simultaneous regression. The difference is OLS regression with block entry regression explained the variance in the predictability as the second independent variable is entered after the first. Stepwise

regression was also employed to determine which variables were significant. The non-significant variables were excluded from the analysis as part of stepwise regression.

Table 1

Data Analysis

Hypothesis	Variables	Measure	Analysis
Organizational citizenship, achievement press, and student achievement will be related.	◦ Organizational citizenship	◦ Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale	Correlational Analysis
	◦ Achievement press	◦ Achievement press subscale of the OCI	
	◦ Student achievement	◦ Alabama Reading and Math Test Scores	
Achievement press will make a greater contribution than organizational citizenship in the prediction of student achievement.	◦ Organizational citizenship	◦ Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale	OLS Regression
	◦ Achievement press	◦ Achievement press subscale of the OCI	
	◦ Student achievement	◦ Alabama Reading and Math Test Scores	

Summary

The methods used in this study were similar to several previous studies (DiPaola et al., 2007; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Jurewicz, 2004). The sample for this study consisted of approximately 60 schools in northwest Alabama. The data collection and analysis methods were described. The measures for each variable were detailed as well as the selection method of participants.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter reports the findings of the relationship between academic press, organizational citizenship, and student achievement. The chapter includes the descriptive, reliabilities, correlations, tested hypotheses, and unhypothesized findings. Free and reduced lunch data were used to control for SES.

Descriptives

The original intention of the study was to examine elementary schools with a K-6 configuration. It became challenging to find schools with this exact grade span due to the lack of consistency in Northwest Alabama. Grade configurations vary widely among school districts and often within districts. Table 2 gives a summary of the configurations of schools that participated in the study. Of the 77 schools contacted, 60 schools participated in the larger study about the positive effects of school culture in Northwest Alabama. From these 60 schools, 1,665 teacher respondents completed surveys. In this dissertation, the data from only 55 of the 60 schools was used because five of the schools did not administer the measure of student achievement. The instruments were administered during a regularly scheduled faculty meeting. Completion of the surveys was strictly voluntary and all respondents were assured anonymity. The school was the unit of analysis and each school was given a seven-digit identifying code for comparative analysis.

Table 3 shows the descriptive characteristics of the measures, which includes the range, mean, standard deviation, and skewness for all of the variables used in the study, including socioeconomic status and reading and math achievement from the ARMT+. The skewness value for math achievement was greater than the desirable |1|, but did not exceed the extreme value of |3| (Schwab, 2006).

Table 2

Summary of School Configurations

Configuration	Total	Percentage of Total
P-K	1	2
P-2	2	3
K-3	1	2
K-4	6	10
K-5	7	12
K-6	9	15
K-8	5	8
1-2	2	3
3-5	2	3
3-6	1	2
4-8	1	2
5-6	1	2
5-8	2	3
6-8	5	8
6-12	2	3
K-12	13	22
Totals	60	100

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of the Measures

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD	Skewness
Achievement press	55	2.35	3.38	2.93	.22	-.28
OCB	55	3.85	5.05	4.51	.30	-.25
Math Achievement	55	.50	.99	.85	.10	-1.09
Reading Achievement	55	.68	1.00	.89	.07	-.86
SES	55	.10	.92	.43	.17	.31

Reliability

The two surveys used in this study were the OCB and a subset of the OCI called Achievement Press. The OCB is a 12-item response survey in which teachers respond to a 6-point Likert-type scale. The responses range from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Achievement Press is an 8-item response survey in which teachers respond to a 4-point Likert-type scale ranging from *rarely occurs* to *very frequently occurs*. To test for internal reliability, a Cronbach alpha (α) was done on the Achievement Press and the OCB. Table 4 shows Cronbach's alpha for each variable and the number of items measured in each instrument (Achievement Press and OCB).

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha for Study Variables

Variable	Cronbach's alpha	Number of Questions
Achievement Press	.80	8
OCB	.89	12

Correlations

Correlations among all the variables examined in the study are shown in Table 5. Several variables were shown to have a significant, positive correlation at the .01 level. Achievement press and organizational citizenship were correlated ($r = .38, p < .01$). Socioeconomic status was correlated to achievement press ($r = .34, p < .01$), math achievement ($r = .30, p < .01$), and reading achievement ($r = .57, p < .01$). Reading achievement and math achievement were correlated ($r = .38, p < .01$). A positive correlation indicates that as one variable increases, so does the other. For example, the significant correlation between achievement press and organizational citizenship indicates as the level of achievement press of a school increases, the amount of organizational citizenship behaviors that its employees exhibit also increases. Only one negative correlation was found. This correlation was -0.06 and was between achievement press and math achievement. This correlation was not significant at the .01 level.

Table 5

Correlations among All Major Variables Examined in the Study

Var.	AP	OCB	MA	RA	SES
AP	1	.38**	-.08	.10	.34*
OCB		1	.01	.09	.17
MA			1	.38**	.30*
RA				1	.57**
SES					1

Notes: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed). Academic Press (AP), Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), Math Achievement (MA), Reading Achievement (RA), Socioeconomic Status (SES)

Hypotheses Testing

The first hypothesis, which states organizational citizenship, achievement press, and student achievement will be related, was partially supported. Table 5 illustrates a moderate and

significant relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and achievement press ($r = .38, p < .01$). However, organizational citizenship and achievement press did not have a positive relationship with either reading or math achievement. Socioeconomic status had a significant and positive relationship with reading achievement ($r = .57, p < .01$), with math achievement ($r = .30, p < .05$), and with achievement press ($r = .34, p < .01$).

The second hypothesis, which states achievement press will make a greater contribution than organizational citizenship in the prediction of student achievement, was not supported. Four regression analyses were performed to determine the effect of achievement press and organizational citizenship on academic achievement. The first analysis was concerned with the prediction of reading achievement, which used OLS regression. In this analysis, achievement press, organizational citizenship, and SES were all entered separately as independent variables. The second analysis was performed in a similar manner and was concerned with the prediction of math achievement. The multiple regression results indicated that the combined influence of achievement press, organizational citizenship, and SES explained 32% of the variance in reading achievement (Adj. $r^2 = .32, p < .01$). It is noteworthy that SES made the only significant contribution to reading achievement ($\beta = .60, p < .01$) when OLS regression was employed. The second multiple regression results indicated that the combined influence of achievement press, organizational citizenship, and SES explained 8% of the variance in math achievement (Adj. $r^2 = .08, p < .01$).

Table 6 represents the first analysis and shows beta weights (standardized regression coefficients), β (unstandardized regression coefficients), standard error, t , and significance for reading achievement. Table 7 represents the second analysis and shows the same regression

coefficients for math achievement. It is noteworthy that SES made the only significant contribution to reading achievement ($\beta = .60, p < .01$) when OLS regression was employed.

Table 6

OLS Regression Coefficients Examining Achievement Press and Organizational Citizenship on Reading Achievement

Predictor Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	β	Std. Error	β	<i>t</i>	Sig.
Step 1					
(constant)	.793	.020		38.837	.000
SES	.223	.044	.568	5.019	.000
<i>R</i> = .57, <i>R</i> ² = .32, Adj <i>R</i> ² = .31.					
Step 2					
(constant)	.86	.13		6.42	.000
Achievement Press	-.03	.04	-.11	-.85	.399
Organizational Citizenship	.01	.03	.03	.21	.834
SES	.24	.05	.60	4.93	.000
<i>R</i> = .58, <i>R</i> ² = .33, Adj <i>R</i> ² = .29.					
<i>Note.</i> Significant at $p < .01$					

Table 7

OLS Regression Coefficients Examining Achievement Press and Organizational Citizenship on Math Achievement

Predictor Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	β	Std. Error	β	<i>t</i>	Sig.
Step 1					
(constant)	.774	.035		22.397	.000
SES	.171	.075	.299	2.278	.027
<i>R</i> = .30, <i>R</i> ² = .09, Adj <i>R</i> ² = .07.					
Step 2					
(constant)	.99	.22		4.41	.000
Achievement Press	-.10	.07	-.22	-1.45	.152
Organizational Citizenship	.01	.05	.04	.261	.795
SES	.21	.08	.37	2.62	.011
<i>R</i> = .36, <i>R</i> ² = .13, Adj <i>R</i> ² = .07.					
<i>Note.</i> Significant at $p < .01$					

Tables 8 and 9 show the same regression coefficients for the stepwise analysis. The first table represents reading achievement and the latter symbolizes math achievement. In both stepwise analyses, achievement press and organizational citizenship were deemed non-significant and were subsequently excluded from the analyses. Stepwise regression indicated SES was only a significant predictor of reading achievement ($\beta = .22, p < .01$).

Table 8

Stepwise Regression Coefficients Examining Achievement Press and Organizational Citizenship on Reading Achievement

Predictor Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	β	Std. Error	β	<i>t</i>	Sig.
(constant)	.79	.02		38.83	.000
SES	.22	.04	.57	5.02	.000

Table 9

Stepwise Regression Coefficients Examining Achievement Press and Organizational Citizenship on Math Achievement

Predictor Variables	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	β	Std. Error	β	<i>t</i>	Sig.
(constant)	.77	.04		22.40	.000
SES	.17	.08	.30	2.28	.027

Summary

In this chapter, a statistical test of the relationship between achievement press, organizational citizenship, and student achievement was conducted. Both correlation and regression data were used to examine these relationships. The research question asked what the relationship was between the three aforementioned variables. The correlation data indicated there was a relationship between achievement press and organizational citizenship. This data did

not indicate a relationship between organizational citizenship and student achievement or achievement press and student achievement. A negative, non-significant correlation was found between achievement press and math achievement.

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine if achievement press made a better contribution toward student achievement than organizational citizenship, while controlling for SES. This analysis determined SES was only a significant predictor of reading achievement and math achievement. No significant predictors were found for math achievement through multiple regression. In addition, this analysis indicated achievement press had a negative, non-significant relationship with reading and math achievement.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter will discuss the findings of the current study. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between achievement press, organizational citizenship, and student achievement. The first segment of this chapter will introduce the study, including the purpose of the research and problems addressed by the research. The next section of this chapter will contain a summary of the research findings. Both the theoretical and practical implications of the findings will be included in the second section. The latter part of this chapter will make recommendations for further research.

The primary purpose of this research was to examine the relationships between achievement press, organizational citizenship, and student achievement. The main problem of the study dealt with achievement press, organizational citizenship, and their ability to predict student achievement. The review of literature indicated achievement press would make a greater contribution to student achievement than organizational citizenship. The data did not support this assumption. For this study, school effectiveness was equated to student achievement and student achievement was measured by fourth grade reading and math scores on the ARMT+.

Summary of Findings

1. Achievement press and organizational citizenship are positively correlated.
2. SES is a good predictor of achievement press, math achievement, and reading achievement.

3. Math achievement and reading achievement have a strong correlation.
4. Achievement press does not have a relationship with reading achievement or math achievement.
5. Organizational citizenship does not have a relationship with reading or math achievement.
6. Achievement press does not contribute more to student achievement than organizational citizenship. In fact, academic press has a negative, insignificant relationship with math achievement.

Theoretical Implications

Achievement Press and Organizational Citizenship

This study confirmed a positive correlation between achievement press and organizational citizenship. Jurewicz (2004) found such a relationship in a similar study of 80 Virginia middle schools. Hypothesis 1 postulated this relationship. When achievement press is high, everyone works together to meet the goals of their institution. Teachers will set high but achievable goals for their students. The students will work to meet these goals. Stakeholders will press the school for high goals and will help ensure students meet these goals. Both the teachers and the school administration will strive to establish a neat and orderly learning environment. Teachers will give extra effort to confirm students meet their goals (Hoy et al., 1998).

Because there is a positive correlation between achievement press and organizational citizenship, when achievement press is high, organizational citizenship is also high. This indicates teachers and administrators will take on extra roles to benefit their school. When school faculty members are working to establish a safe and orderly environment, they might also

be mentoring a new or underperforming teacher (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Moreover, when teachers are giving extra effort to make sure students meet their goals, this would encompass teachers taking on an extra, beneficial role such as giving up their planning time to tutor students.

Achievement Press and Student Achievement

The literature contained in Chapter 2 indicated there would be a positive relationship between achievement press and student achievement (Hoy et al., 1998; Hoy et al., 2002). Analysis of the data could not confirm such a link, even after SES was controlled. Hoy and colleagues (1998) found a positive relationship between these two variables in middle schools. This study determined links between math achievement, writing achievement, reading achievement, and achievement press. In another study, Hoy et al. (2002) found an indirect relationship between math achievement and achievement press.

There are six possible reasons for this lack of relation. First, there are no studies that directly link achievement press and student achievement in elementary schools. The theoretical framework is based off relationships between academic press and student achievement in middle schools and high schools (Hoy et al., 1998; Hoy et al., 2002). Second, SES was controlled in the analysis of these two variables, but the SES of the whole population was high. Table 3 indicates the mean SES of the population was .43 with a standard deviation of .17. That is, 68% of this population had an SES between .26 and .60. The lowest SES in this study was .10. The third explanation is the achievement scores were congregated at the top of the scale. Again, Table 3 indicates the average level of math achievement was .85 with a standard deviation of .10. Because the scores had a small range, it may have been hard to establish a significant relationship between student achievement and achievement press.

The fourth reason for the lack of relation between the two variables could possibly lie within the measure of student achievement. The ARMT+, or a version of it, was used in Alabama from 2004 to 2013 (Alabama State Department of Education, 2012). A set of item specifications for this test was available from the Alabama State Department of Education. These specifications contained example problems that were very similar, if not identical, to those administered on the ARMT+. The item specifications also contained an explanation of how the tests were scored, stating how many points each question counted. Because teachers often knew what questions would be on the ARMT+ and how much each question was valued, many began to teach the ARMT+ instead of the skills contained within. This false sense of student achievement could lead to no relationship between achievement press and student achievement.

Teachers were forced into teaching the ARMT+ instead of the state standards because of the issue of School Improvement status (Alabama State Department of Education, 2011). This status was issued if a school had not met 100% of its goals for two consecutive years. For a middle school, the achievement of goals was primarily based on the ARMT+. School improvement status had many financial, personnel, and paperwork burdens. Schools and teachers worked very hard to keep from being identified as being on school improvement.

Restriction of range is another plausible reason that no significant relationship was found between achievement press and student achievement. “Restriction of range occurs whenever design or circumstances abbreviate the values of one or both variables being correlated (Weber, 2001).” Because the school was the unit of analysis for this study, a school’s score was determined from the averaging of the responses of its teachers. Moreover, the achievement press or organizational citizenship of each school was calculated from the mean of these averages. That is, the scores were averages of averages. Thus, the sharpness of these scores could have

diminished through these two averages. Restriction of range can have an effect on validity, reliability, and statistical power (Weber, 2001).

The sixth explanation of no significance is a low number of schools used in this study. According to Green (1991), the equation to determine the minimum sample size is $n > 50 + 8m$, where n is the minimum sample size and m is the number of predictor variables. Because there are three predictor variables used in this study, the minimum sample size should have been 75 schools. Even using the formula given by Harris (1985), the minimum sample size should have been 53, which is slightly less than the 55 schools used in this study. When a sample is too small, it often invites Type I and Type II errors especially when the dependent variable is skewed.

Organizational Citizenship and Student Achievement

The lack of a relationship between organizational citizenship and student achievement is similar to the disconnection between achievement press and student achievement. The review of literature indicated a potential elementary school link between student achievement and organizational citizenship (DiPaola & Hoy, 2004; Jurewicz, 2004). DiPaola and Hoy (2004) stated schools with high organizational citizenship should have high student achievement because these teachers were more likely to try new, innovative teaching methods and these teachers would give extra effort. Organizational citizenship has only been linked to student achievement in middle and high schools thus leaving the area of elementary schools unexplored. Other possible causes for the lack of association between student achievement and organizational citizenship are a high SES of the population and a narrow range of achievement scores. The fourth reason for disconnection between the variables was the measure of student achievement,

the ARMT+. The last two disconnects are restriction of range and a small sample size as previously discussed.

One explanation of the lack of relation of student achievement to organizational citizenship and student achievement is unique to these two variables. Organizational citizenship did not originate as an educational term but has its roots in the study of businesses and organizations (Bateman & Organ, 1983). This term was not applied to schools or studied in schools until 2001 (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Because organizational citizenship is a new term in education, there is little chance that it is completely relatable to student achievement.

Organizational Citizenship, Achievement Press, and Student Achievement

The second hypothesis, which states achievement press makes a greater contribution than organizational citizenship in the prediction of student achievement, was based on the review of literature that indicated the first two variables have overlapping characteristics and a common link to student achievement (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Hoy & Hannum, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Both variables have also been linked to each other (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005). Because both have been individually correlated to student achievement and to each other, it was hypothesized they would both be linked to student achievement in elementary schools. This study found no such relationship.

Several reasons for this disconnection are similar to the explanation of no relation between student achievement and achievement press or student achievement and organizational citizenship. These reasons range from a high population SES to clustered student achievement scores, restriction of range, small sample size, or to the lack of elementary studies. Moreover, the basic cause for the disconnection between the three variables is there was no correlation

between achievement press and student achievement ($r = .10$, ns; $r = -.08$, ns) or organizational citizenship and student achievement ($r = .09$, ns; $r = .02$, ns).

Socioeconomic Status to Student Achievement

DiPaola and Hoy (2005) stated that no study of student achievement was complete without an examination of SES and the challenge was to find factors that were better predictors of student achievement than SES. This challenge could not be met in the current study. The best predictor of reading achievement ($r = .57$, $p < .01$), math achievement ($r = .30$, $p < .05$), and achievement press ($r = .34$, $p < .05$) was SES. Hattie (2009) determined low SES indicated low student achievement. DiPaola and Hoy (2005) found the upper end of the SES scale can be a strong predictor of high student achievement. Hence, the low SES of the current study population may have skewed the possible achievement results. Of the 55 schools surveyed, 70% would qualify as a Title I School (United States Department of Education, 2014). This means that at 70% of schools surveyed in this study, at least half of the students received a free or reduced lunch.

Practical Implications

Achievement press and organizational citizenship have been shown to correlate. Thus, as the achievement press of a school increases, the organizational citizenship of the school also increases. The application for school personnel is the more a school focuses on academics, the more the personnel begins to take on extra, beneficial school-related tasks. The catalyst in this relationship may be the arrival of a new principal. If this new principal focuses on academics, he or she will set high but achievable goals for students and teachers. Students will work toward the achievement of these goals while being respected for their efforts by their peers. The faculty will strive to provide students with the tools, technology, and education to meet their goals. Parents

and stakeholders will press the school for the continuation of high goals and student attainment of these goals. In turn, while all of these items related to achievement press are occurring, organizational citizenship behaviors will also be taking place. These organizational citizenship behaviors will be the acceptance of extra roles. Teachers who display organizational citizenship behaviors might volunteer for after school tutoring or give students their contact information for out-of-school assistance. These same teachers could also begin to sponsor clubs or activities for the student body.

The increase of both variables can occur after the acquisition of a new, high performing teacher. As this teacher begins to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors, such as helping students with work before school or implementing new techniques learned through professional development, the other teachers may exhibit similar organizational citizenship behaviors or achievement press behaviors. The other teachers who work closely with the new teacher will not want to be viewed as subpar in comparison with their new colleague. They will begin to take academic achievement and education of students more seriously. They will also surrender their free time to help teach and motivate students. These teachers will begin to raise the level of expectations to increase students' levels of learning.

Another practical and less broad application is the ability of this current study's cohort members to administer certain surveys. These members can now analyze their own faculty, their districts' personnel, or others in a quest to determine if they possess certain school climate characteristics or if these characteristics can be correlated to student achievement. School climate measures could be applied to the school, a group of teachers, or one teacher. This research has taught these people to be lifelong learners and constant surveyors of their educational surroundings.

Recommendations for Future Research

This is the first known study to test the relationship between achievement press, organizational citizenship, and student achievement. This study should be extended because of the lack of relation to student achievement. The study could be replicated with middle and/or high schools. Both achievement press and organizational citizenship were correlated to student achievement in previous studies of middle and high schools. The same hypothesis should be examined in subsequent research to determine which is the better predictor of student achievement.

Another extension of this study could occur by using a different population. As noted in this chapter, the SES of the population was very low. Instead of using a population with a 70% free and reduced lunch rate, purposeful sampling could find a study sample with a 30% free and reduced lunch rate. By finding such a population, low achievement might not be as likely. A third addition to this study could occur from using the same population, but also analyzing the amount of community involvement. Shouse (1996) wrote academic press combined with community involvement had strong effects on academic achievement for low and middle SES schools.

This study should be advanced by using a different measure of student achievement. As previously discussed, many teachers have taught the ARMT+ for the last several years and have become very good at teaching this test. This could be a possible reason most of the scores were clustered around the 90% proficient mark. The Alabama State Department of Education has recently replaced the ARMT+ with the Aspire. This new test is used nationally and has a much lower mean. These scores will possibly have a wider range and could be easily linked to achievement press or student achievement.

The theory of this research should also be further developed. Achievement press should be linked to student achievement in more elementary schools. The same should be accomplished with organizational citizenship. In both instances, SES should be controlled and a good measure of student achievement should be found.

The evidence or lack thereof should not be a reason for practicing administrators to stop measuring achievement press and organizational citizenship in school. Whether a direct tie to student achievement can ever be concluded is irrelevant to the necessity of both achievement press and organizational citizenship. The main job of a school is the press for academic achievement and success. Also, a healthy school contains employees who are willing to go above and beyond their contractual duties to complete beneficial tasks.

Summary

The research contained within this study confirmed the link between organizational citizenship and achievement press. The results partially confirmed Hypothesis 1, but Hypothesis 2 could not be supported. Surprisingly, neither of the previously mentioned variables could be linked to student achievement as in prior studies. The evidence created from this study can provide practicing administrators a guide to analyze and design schools that include achievement press and student achievement.

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APPENDIX A
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR SCALE

OCB-SCALE

Indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following statements about your school.

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

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APPENDIX B
ACHIEVEMENT PRESS SCALE

ACHIEVEMENT PRESS

Directions: The following are statements about your school. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school from **rarely occurs** to **frequently occurs**.

	Rarely Occurs	Sometime Occurs	Often Occurs	Very Frequentl y Occurs
1. Parents exert pressure to maintain high standards.	1	2	3	4
2. Students respect others who get good grades.	1	2	3	4
3. Students try hard to improve on previous work.	1	2	3	4
4. Students seek extra work so they can get good grades.	1	2	3	4
5. Parents press for school improvement.	1	2	3	4
6. The school sets high standards for academic performance.	1	2	3	4
7. Students in this school can achieve the goals that have been set for them.	1	2	3	4
8. Academic achievement is recognized and acknowledged	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX C
IRB APPROVAL

Office for Research
Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects



March 20, 2014

Jon Bret Smith
ELPTS
College of Education
The University of Alabama

Re: IRB # EX-14-CM-040 "An Investigation of School Characteristics in Northwest Alabama"

Dear Mr. Smith:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your proposed research.

Your protocol has been given exempt approval according to 45 CFR part 46.101(b)(2) as outlined below:

- (2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
 - (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and
 - (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Your application will expire on March 19, 2015. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of Continuing Review and Closure Form. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of FORM: Continuing Review and Closure.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the assigned IRB application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



Carpano T. Myles, MSM, CIM, CIP
Director & Research Compliance Officer
Office for Research Compliance
The University of Alabama



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