

CLIMATE AND COLLECTIVE RESPONSIBILITY
AS PREDICTORS OF EFFECTIVENESS
IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

by

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ABSTRACT

For decades, researchers have sought to find school-level properties that can increase the overall effectiveness of the school despite the school's socioeconomic status. Researchers have identified many constructs at the school level with two promising constructs being climate and collective responsibility. This study examined the relationships among climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness, including which of the two constructs has the greatest on effectiveness.

A total of 1,143 teachers participated in the study with the completion of surveys. These teachers were from a random sample of 50 secondary schools in Alabama and Georgia. Established instruments were used to survey perceptions of climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness. Socioeconomic status was measured using the free and reduced lunch percentages for each school.

The findings for climate and collective responsibility in this study supported past research findings. Climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness are all positively related. Climate shows the only significant contribution to effectiveness with the sub-element of collegial leadership having the greatest effect. The findings of the linear regressions indicated that collective responsibility had an indirect contribution to effectiveness through climate. Socioeconomic status was found to have no effect on these findings.

DEDICATION

To my Mom, thank you for always standing behind me and encouraging me in all that I do. You have always pushed me to be my best and have always been my biggest cheerleader. I would have given up many times along this journey if it had not been for your encouragement. I love you!

To my grandparents, Granny and Pop, thank you for always being available to help me chase my dreams. Your support and help were invaluable in this process. I would not be where I am in life without your love and support.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Effectiveness, at its most basic, means achieving a goal. Schools have many goals including student achievement, positive student attitudes, the commitment of teachers, and the trust of parents in the school and in its faculty. Because there are so many different goals, administrators use many perspectives to assess them (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). When discussing effectiveness, school administrators often look to what constructs they can influence to improve the effectiveness of their school or district (Hallinger, 2013). This research hypothesizes relationships among effectiveness, climate, and collective responsibility.

The climate of the school has been a concept of interest to researchers since at least 1963 with the work of Halpin and Croft. Hoy and Miskel (2008) defined the school climate as being a quality of the school that the participants experience. They said climate affects the behavior of the participants and is based on how the participants collectively perceive the behaviors in the school. Hoy and Miskel measured the climate of the school by measuring the perceptions of specific elements including collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, and institutional vulnerability.

The collective responsibility of a school has been a factor of interest to researchers, but less research has been conducted to study the antecedents and effects of collective responsibility. Wu (2012) defined collective responsibility as the perceptions teachers have about the degree to which their colleagues accept or reject responsibility for the learning of their students. LoGerfo

and Goddard (2008) found that collective responsibility can affect student achievement and can help close the achievement gap among student subgroups.

Overall effectiveness is a problem-driven construct, as opposed to a theory-driven construct (Cameron, 2005, as described in Hoy & Miskel, 2008). As a result, there are multiple challenges to providing one definition. According to Hoy and Miskel (2008), there are three overarching challenges. First, schools achieve different levels of success, despite having similar student populations in some instances. Second, the criterion for what constitutes organizational effectiveness does not remain constant. It varies from social and emotional growth for all students in the 1970s, to efficiency, academic achievement, and employment skills in the 1980s, to academic achievement and accountability in the 1990s and beyond. Third, different stakeholder groups have different and conflicting criteria for what effectiveness means. For the purpose of this study, organizational effectiveness was defined by the ability of the organization to meet its goals in regards to the quality and quantity of outputs, and the adaptability and flexibility of the organization (Hoy & Miskel, 2008).

Background of Study

Collective responsibility has emerged in the field of education as a factor that principals can foster to help improve student achievement. Wahlstrom and Louis (2008) found that shared leadership and teacher-principal trust positively affected collective responsibility. These are factors that are often measured with school climate measures, such as the Organizational Climate Index (OCI). Despite research on collective responsibility and ongoing research on climate, there has been no research connecting them.

Halpin and Croft (1963) developed the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) to study climate. Revisions were made by Hoy and Feldman (1989) and Hoy and Sabo

(1998). This measure was later adapted by Hoy, Smith, and Sweetland (2002) to the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI) and by Hoy and Miskel (2008) to the Organizational Climate Index (OCI). In these studies, the organizational climate of schools was described as the school environment as it is experienced by participants, as it affects the behavior of participants, and as it is based on how they collectively perceive behavior in schools (Hoy & Miskel, 2008).

Collective responsibility was first conceptualized by Lee and Smith (1996). Their study was criticized for using collective responsibility as an indicator of collective efficacy, rather than as a separate construct. LoGerfo and Goddard (2008) continued the study of collective responsibility by looking at the construct operationally to assess an individual teacher's willingness to accept or reject the responsibility associated with his or her own students' learning, and to assess the teachers' perceptions of the responsibility for student learning their colleagues accepted or rejected.

More recently, Wu (2012) expanded upon this research, identifying predictors of collective responsibility. He found that enabling school structures, instructional leadership, professional learning communities, and relational trust were predictors of collective responsibility. We found that collective responsibility was a predictor of academic optimism and organizational citizenship. This finding indicated that collective responsibility predicts student achievement. Student achievement has a moderate correlation with overall effectiveness. Therefore, collective responsibility should have a correlation with student achievement and overall effectiveness (Miskel, Fevurly, & Stewart, 1979; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Uline, Miller, & Tschannen-Moran, 1998).

School effectiveness, and the effects of school-level variables on effectiveness, has been a topic of research for decades, dating back to at least 1966 when Coleman, Campbell, Hobson,

McPartlan, Mood, Weinfield, and York studied what variables contributed to overall effectiveness, considering both inputs and outcomes that schools could use to overcome inequalities that students experience, whether related race, background, or other similar factors. Their research, which found that a school's organizational and social characteristics have less effect than the school's socioeconomic status, sparked research searching for school variables that make a difference despite the socioeconomic status of the school. Variables such as climate and collective responsibility have been included in these studies.

Definitions of Concepts

School climate: The first independent variable used in this study was the teachers' perceptions of the school climate. Constitutively, climate is the atmosphere of the school that is experienced by those in the school so that it affects the behaviors and attitudes held about the school. Operationally, climate is measured by the Organizational Climate Index, which was developed by Hoy et al., (2002a) and as reported by Hoy and Miskel (2008). This index measures the participant perceptions of relationships between the school and community, the teachers and the principal, the school and students, and among the teachers measuring perceptions of four aspects of climate: collegial leadership, professional teacher behavior, achievement press, and institutional vulnerability.

Collegial leadership: Collegial leadership occurs when the principal treats teachers as professional colleagues and sets clear teacher expectations and standards of performance, while being open, egalitarian, and friendly. This type of leadership is directed toward meeting the social needs of the faculty and achieving the goals of the school (Hoy & Sabo, 1998).

Professional teacher behaviors: Professional teacher behaviors include a respect for the competence of colleagues, a commitment to student, autonomous judgment, and mutual cooperation and support (Hoy & Sabo, 1998).

Achievement press: Achievement press is the extent to which a school is driven by goals for academic excellence (Hoy, Sweetland, & Smith, 2002). With achievement press, schools set high but achievable goals. Students persist toward achieving their goals, and are respected by each other and teachers for their academic success. Parents, teachers, and the principal set high standards and exert pressure for school improvement (Hoy & Sabo, 1998).

Environmental press: Environmental press is a construct that began as a term called institutional vulnerability, which is the extent to which the school is perceived to be influenced by a few vocal parents and citizen groups (Hoy & Feldman, 1989). High vulnerability suggests that both the teachers and the principal are unprotected from the outside influence, and indicates that they are put on the defensive (Hoy & Sabo, 1998). The term was changed to environmental press to emphasize that press comes from both inside the school, with academic press, and from outside the school, or from the environment. This accounts for the idea that school policy can be changed and the functioning of the school can be influenced by pressure from parents and the community (Hoy, Hannum, & Tschannen-Moran, 1998).

Collective responsibility: The second independent variable used in this study was the teacher's perceptions of collective responsibility. Constitutively, the teachers' perceptions of collective responsibility are the teachers' beliefs about the extent to which teachers in their school take responsibility for student learning. Operationally, collective responsibility is measured by the Collective Responsibility Scale, which was developed by LoGerfo and Goddard

(2008). The survey consists of three dimensions: teacher responsibility, collective responsibility, and school contextual variables.

Effectiveness: The dependent variable used in this study was effectiveness.

Constitutively, effectiveness refers to a school's ability to meet its goals in terms of quantity and quality of product, efficiency, adaptability, and flexibility. Operationally, effectiveness is measured by the School Effectiveness Index, which was created by Miskel and colleagues (1979) after multiple revisions of Mott's 1972 research. The School Effectiveness Index analyzes perceived effectiveness over five dimensions: quantity of product, quality of product, efficiency, adaptability, and flexibility.

Research Questions

The theory presented in this research supports the relationship of these variables and the hypotheses presented test the theory. Given the initial promise of these concepts, the purpose of this research was to answer two questions: (1) are climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness related; and (2) what is the contribution of climate and collective responsibility to effectiveness?

Scope

The unit of analysis for this study was the school with the participants of the study including teachers from 50 secondary schools with 25 schools being located in northern Alabama and 25 schools being located in northern Georgia. The teachers participating in the study were from varying configurations of grades from grade 7 to grade 12.

Limitations

There are limitations to this study, both in terms of internal and external threats to the validity. Internal threats include the sample, measures, and theory. The external threat is being cross-sectional, as opposed to longitudinal. The sample was chosen based on convenience sampling, so results are generalizable to the participants, but may not be generalizable to the entire population outside of the northern sections of Alabama and Georgia. The participants were volunteers, so the researcher had to assume that they were being honest with their responses. The honesty or accuracy of the participants' responses was gauged through measures of reliability and validity. Because this study was cross-sectional, the results were limited in comparison to longitudinal data because one cannot account for the immediate past or the immediate future. The study is a "snapshot" of a given situation. Additionally, the measures of collective responsibility and organizational effectiveness reflect the literature review and related discussions, but represent a limited area of organizational theory. Finally, it is possible that there are other variables that intervene in the explanation of effectiveness, but that were not accounted for in this study.

Summary

This research hypothesized a positive relationship among effectiveness, climate, and collective responsibility, with climate and collective responsibility contributing to overall effectiveness. This is based on previous research. The research on climate is more extensive, while the research on collective responsibility is more recent. There is little or no research connecting the two.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the research history of climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness. A theoretical framework linking these concepts is developed, and hypotheses testing the theory are presented.

Conceptual Framework

The organizational climate of a school has been described as how teachers perceive their experience of their work environment as it relates to collegial leadership, teacher professional behaviors, academic press, and vulnerability to outside influences (Tarter et al., 1989; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002). Collective responsibility has been described as the perception that teachers hold about the degree to which other teachers in their school take responsibility for student learning (Lee & Smith, 1996). These two factors individually have been linked to school effectiveness, or the ability of a school to obtain its goals (Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Lee & Smith, 1996; LoGerfo & Goddard, 2008).

Organizational Climate

The organizational climate of a school is a concept that develops out of teachers' perceptions of their work environment (Tarter et al., 1989). It is the "extent to which the school atmosphere promotes openness, collegiality, professionalism, trust, loyalty, commitment, pride, academic excellence, and cooperation" (Hoy & Sabo, 1998, p. 2). School climate, as defined by Hoy and Miskel (2008), is "relatively enduring quality of the school environment that is experienced by participants, affects their behavior, and is based on their collective perceptions

of behavior in schools” (p. 198). According to Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991), citing Halpin and Croft (1963), school climate is considered the “personality” of the organization (p. 8).

In this study, organizational climate was measured by the Organizational Climate Index (OCI), which has four dimensions, or subtests: collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, and environmental press, or institutional vulnerability. This measure was developed from two previous measures, the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) and the Organizational Health Inventory (OHI), (Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002).

The OCDQ was developed by Halpin and Croft (1963). It is a 4-point Likert-type scale survey that asks members of the organization to provide their perceptions of climate by indicating how frequently they believe various phenomena occur. Using a psychology metaphor, the results of Halpin and Croft’s 1963 study described schools as either open or closed “personalities.” The description of schools as being open or closed was based on the configurations of four factors of principal behavior and four factors of teacher behavior. Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991) provided descriptions of the behaviors studied. The principal behaviors used were production emphasis, which refers to close, highly directive supervision; aloofness, which is formal, impersonal behaviors that maintain social distance from subordinates; consideration, which includes warm, friendly interactions and extra efforts completed for the faculty; and, thrust, which is modeling appropriate behaviors. The teacher behaviors used were hindrance, which is the feelings teachers have when they believe they are burdened with unnecessary, busy routine work or duties; intimacy, which is warm, friendly relationships with other faculty members; disengagement, which refers to the tendency for teachers to complete tasks without commitment; and, spirit, which is morale that results from

task accomplishment and social needs satisfaction. Hoy and Sabo (1998) wrote, “Open schools tend to be healthy ones, and healthy schools tend to be open,” (p. 105).

According to Hoy and Miskel (2008), an open climate is one with cooperation and respect among the faculty, and between the faculty and the principal. Additionally, principals in open climates listen to and consider teacher suggestions, give teachers freedom without being highly directive, and are less restrictive. Teachers in these climates are open and professional in their interactions, know each other personally, cooperate with each other, and commit to their work. A closed climate is the antithesis of this.

The OCDQ received multiple criticisms. One such criticism was from Brown (1964, as cited in Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991), who found that there are eight climate types, as opposed to six, and said that placement on the open to closed continuum might be useful, but was unadvisable since it placed schools into discrete climates. Silver (1983) also criticized placement into discrete climate types. A second criticism received is that the conceptual framework of the OCDQ is cumbersome and lacking in clear logic and parsimony (Silver, 1983). A third criticism said that the OCDQ is not a good measure for urban and secondary schools, which were overwhelmingly being classified as closed based on the measure due to size, specialization, and culture (Halpin, 1967; Carver & Sergiovanni, 1969; Miskel & Ogawa, 1988).

The OCDQ has been revised to account for school grade configurations, such as the OCDQ-RS, which is the revised edition for secondary schools. This instrument measures perceptions of principal behavior, classifying it as supportive or directive. It also assesses teacher behavior, classifying it as engaged, frustrated, or intimate (Hoy, 2010).

According to Hoy and Sabo, who did a factor analysis of the subtests from the OHI-M and the OCDQ-RM, the OCDQ assesses the climate of a school using the perspective that it is

the “personality” of the school, gauging how open a school is in terms of teacher-teacher and teacher-principal interactions. It assesses four dimensions as characteristics of the group: disengagement, hindrance, esprit, and intimacy. It rates four dimensions of behaviors of the leader: aloofness, production emphasis, trust, and consideration. From these eight dimensions’ characteristics and behaviors, six climate types were found by Halpin and Croft: open climates, autonomous climates, controlled climates, familiar climates, paternal climates, and closed climates. Halpin and Croft’s study produced results portraying an open climate as “one low on disengagement, low on hindrance, high on spirit, average on intimacy, low on aloofness, low on production emphasis, high on trust, and high on consideration” (Hoy & Sabo, 1998, p. 10).

Even though valuable data have been collected from the use of the OCDQ, there have been criticisms, such as that the measure was not designed for secondary or urban schools, and that these schools usually have closed climates when the measure has been used. The OCDQ has been criticized for not rating the interactions of teachers, but rather the demands of the administrators who control these interactions. Additionally, criticism has been that the behaviors measured do not address teacher-student or student-student interactions. In an attempt to respond to the criticisms, researchers substantially revised the instrument during the 1980s and the 1990s. For example, with the OCDQ-RM, teacher and principal openness are measured to determine if a school has an open, engaged, disengaged, or closed climate (Hoy & Sabo, 1998). The OCDQ was revised in terms of the subtests and items, but the name was kept in honor of the work of Halpin and Croft.

The OHI was developed to determine the health of a school’s climate, and differs from the OCDQ revisions because it is theoretically based on the work of Parsons (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). The origins of the OCDQ revisions are empirical (Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991). A

healthy organization is one that is able to survive, grow, and prosper in its environment over the long term (Miles, 1969). The OHI measures the perceptions of interactions of students-teachers, teachers-teachers, and teachers-administrators. The development of this measure built upon the Parsonian idea that three levels of control exist: the technical level, the managerial level, and the institutional level (Hoy & Feldman, 1987). Parsons, Bales, and Shils (1953) said that in order to survive, grow, and develop, all organizations must solve four basic problems, which they referred to as the functions of adaptation, goal attainment, integration, and latency. Hoy and Feldman (1987) described these as “the problem of acquiring sufficient resources and accommodating to their environments, the problem of setting and implementing goals, the problem of maintaining solidarity within the school, and the problem of creating and preserving a unique value system (p. 50-51).

Hoy and Sabo (1998) provided explanations of the three levels of control. They said the technical level describes the teachers’ control of what is taught and how it is taught. The managerial level, which includes assistant principals to the superintendent, is comprised of behavior that coordinates the work of the school. The institutional level, usually the school board, legitimizes the work of the school and is the formal connection of the school to the community. The OHI incorporated dimensions into three levels to represent the basic needs of social systems. According to Hoy and Sabo, the technical level was expanded to include morale and academic emphasis; the managerial level was expanded to include principal influence, consideration, initiating structure, and resource support; and, the institutional level was expanded to include institutional integrity.

Hoy and his colleagues (2002a) refactored the dimensions of both the OCDQ as it was revised and the OHI to find a more parsimonious measure for climate, which resulted in a four-

dimensional climate measure. They provided the following four descriptions for the dimensions of the climate measure. The first dimension of organizational climate in the OCI is collegial leadership, which is principal driven and focused on meeting both the school faculty's social needs and the school's goals, and which involves the principal treating teachers as professionals, setting realistic expectations, and setting performance standards. The second dimension is professional teacher behavior, which includes respect for the knowledge and abilities of colleagues, a commitment to students, autonomous judgment, and cooperation and support that exist on a mutual basis. The third dimension is academic press, which involves the school setting high, but achievable academic standards and goals; and, parents, teachers, and administrators exerting pressure for the attainment of these standards and goals. The fourth dimension is institutional vulnerability, which is the degree to which a school is influenced by the demands of a few parents or community groups (Hoy et al., 2002a; Hoy, 2010).

Collegial leadership. Collegial leadership is leadership that focuses on both meeting the social needs of the faculty and on achieving the goals of the school. To meet the needs of the faculty, the principal treats teachers as professional colleagues, and is open, egalitarian, and friendly. To achieve the goals of the school, the principal sets clear teacher expectations and standards of performance (Hoy, 2010). According to Hattie (2009), "It is school leaders who promote challenging goals, and then establish safe environments for teachers to critique, question, and support other teachers to reach these goals together that have most effect on student outcomes" (p. 83).

The managerial roles of a principal are a consideration when examining organizational climate. A principal in a healthy organization tries to develop teacher loyalty, teacher trust, and commitment (Parsons as cited in Hoy, Tarter, and Bliss, 1990). This was supported by Hoy,

Tarter, and Bliss (1990), who wrote, “Teachers in a healthy school are committed to teaching and learning. They set high but achievable goals, maintain high standards of performance, and promote a serious and orderly” (p. 265). Principals in healthy organizations also exert the effort to support teachers by offering help when necessary (Hoy et al., 2002).

Hoy and KuperSmith (1985) defined trust as an expectancy that individuals hold that they can rely on the words, actions, and promises of another individual, group, or organization. Tarter et al. (1989) found that trust is a determining factor in whether something can be relied on, particularly to make decisions that are in the best interest of teachers and students. Faculty trust in the principal exists when teachers believe that a principal will keep his or her word and will take actions in their best interest. Tarter and his colleagues found that a predictor of trust in the principal is supportive principal behavior.

In healthy organizational climates, principals respect teachers as colleagues, which can include empowerment. “Empowerment is a process of strengthening employees’ motivation to accomplish job-related tasks” (Conger & Kanungo, as cited in Somech, 2005, p. 239).

Empowerment can include the implementation of a shared decision-making model or the implementation of a managerial strategy to satisfy an employee’s need for self-determination or to boost an employee’s self-efficacy beliefs (Somech, 2005).

Commitment is an exchange, with a principal using his or her influence to gain the commitment of teachers. According to Somech (2005), commitment is influenced by empowerment. She found that high personal and team empowerment, or low personal empowerment and high team empowerment led to organizational commitment. She found that high personal empowerment and low team empowerment leads to professional commitment. According to Hoy, Tarter, and Bliss (1990), the principal has an indirect effect on student

achievement, but a direct effect on teacher commitment. Cheng (1991), using the original OCDQ, found that in organizations with a preferable commitment style, high initiating structure and high relationships were evident. This is in control of the principal.

The principal's managerial role is an important element of organizational climate. A principal in healthy organization tries to develop teacher loyalty, teacher trust, and commitment (Parsons as cited in Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990). Hoy and his colleagues said, "Teachers in a healthy school are committed to teaching and learning. They set high but achievable goals, maintain high standards of performance, and promote a serious and orderly learning environment" (p. 265). Principals in healthy organizations exert effort to support teachers by offering help when necessary (Hoy et al., 2002).

Cosner (2009) asserted that developing and cultivating collegial trust is "an important capacity-building strategy" (p. 285). Cummings and Bromiley (1996) defined trust as a belief held by an individual or group that another individual or group "(a) makes good-faith efforts to behave in accordance with any commitments both explicit or implicit, (b) is honest in whatever negotiations preceded such commitments, and (c) does not take excessive advantage of another even when the opportunity is available" (p. 303).

According to Cosner (2009), capacity building is described as resources that support local reform efforts. Studies have shown that the principal, through his or her leadership, is a support for the development of collegial trust in schools (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Kochanek, 2005; Tschannen-Moran, 2004, as cited in Cosner, 2009). Principals play a role in the development of trust between teachers when they promote teacher interaction (Smylie & Hart, 2009, as cited in Cosner, 2009).

Cosner's study showed that repeated interactions, such as department meetings, staff meetings, and site-based professional development, were effective in building collegial trust (2009). This was supported by Walhstrom and Louis (2008) who found that it is important for principals to allocate time for teachers to meet and for principals to provide opportunities for professional development that is job-embedded. Timperly, Wilson, Barrar, and Fung (2007, as cited in Hattie, 2009) reviewed 72 studies and found that the effectiveness of professional development is affected by principal support for opportunities for professional learning, by access to "relevant expertise" (p. 121) and by having the opportunity to meet with other teachers in order to process the new learning.

Managerial behaviors like collegial leadership build trust and commitment. Trust and commitment arguably promote overall effectiveness.

Professional teacher behaviors. Hoy and Sabo (1998) wrote that teacher professionalism exists when teachers are committed to their students, when they respect the competence of each other, when they like each other, and when they take their work seriously. A commitment to both students and colleagues results in teachers enthusiastically accomplishing their jobs.

"An effect size provides a common expression of the magnitude of study outcomes for many types of outcome variables, such as school achievement" (Hattie, 2009, p. 7). An effect size of $d = 1.0$ would indicate an increase of one standard deviation on the outcome. According to Hattie (2009), the typical teacher's effects are about $d = 0.15$ to $d = 0.35$. To increase the effects significantly beyond this, intervention, or innovation is required of the teacher. Hattie described this as making a deliberate effort to utilize a different, though not necessarily new, method of teaching, curriculum, or strategy than what is currently in place in the classroom.

Holly (2002, as cited in Hattie, 2009) did a meta-analysis of 150 articles, finding the critical change agents that can be used are “knowledge and skills; a plan of action; strategies to overcome setbacks; a high sense of confidence; monitoring progress a commitment to achieve; social and environment support; and finally, freedom, control, or choice” (p. 251). These critical change agents are comparable to Hoy and Sabo’s (1998) professional teacher behaviors. When these serve as either typical teacher effects or greater through intervention or innovation (Hattie, 2009), school achievement, or student performance, is affected.

According to Tarter and his colleagues, professional teacher behavior predicts trust in colleagues. Tarter et al. (1998) found that colleague trust exists when faculty members rely on each other in difficult situations and rely on each other’s integrity. They found that engaged teacher behavior is a predictor of trust in colleagues. Trust is an important component to building school capacity because it supports the development of teacher knowledge, skills, and abilities that are necessary for reforms to be made within the organization (Spillane & Thompson, 1997).

Hackman and Oldham (1976) created the Job Characteristics Model, which examined factors that lead to motivation, growth satisfaction, and satisfaction. All three were influenced by experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and knowledge of results. Experienced meaningfulness is influenced by skill variety, task significance, and task identity. Experienced responsibility is shaped by autonomy, while knowledge of results is formed by feedback. Collectively, this is professional control. Hackman and Oldham used looping to demonstrate this importance. In the instance of looping, one group of teachers served the same students 6th, 7th, and 8th grade. They were responsible for student success and were able to see the results from year to year in order to positively impact student achievement.

Teachers are often grouped into professional teams (Pounder, 1998). When teachers view their teams as being highly empowered, they are more likely to contribute to the goals of the school and to make individual sacrifices to help the team achieve success (Kirkman & Rosen, as cited in Somech, 2005). By creating conditions in the school that deprivatize teacher practice, or create opportunities for teacher engagement in a “reciprocal helping relationship” or joint problem solving, principals are able to foster trust among teachers (Smylie & Hart, as cited in Cosner, 2009). In addition to trust and support, these interactions allow teachers to develop shared values, to share a common focus on student learning, to collaborate, and to participate in reflective dialogues (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008). According to Miskel, McDonald, and Bloom (1983), it is work interdependence, communication, and teacher expectations that define mechanisms and norms, which guide individual interactions (Miskel, McDonald, & Bloom, 1983). They found, contrary to general expectations, that the more teachers were isolated from their colleagues, the more effective the school, the more satisfied the staff, and the more positive the student attitude.

With the deprivatization of teacher practice, the isolation of teachers is reduced (Hord, 1997). According to Hord, the communal organization that accompanies professional learning communities leads to multiple outcomes, including: increased commitment to the mission and goals of the school, as well as increased vigor in working to strengthen the mission; shared responsibility for the total development of students, and collective responsibility for student success; higher likelihood that teachers will be well informed, professionally renewed, and inspired to inspire students; and more satisfaction, higher morale, and lower rates of absenteeism.

Professional teams or professional learning communities are more likely to be found in professional bureaucracies (Tschannen-Moran, 2009), where the skills that professionals acquire

during their training are used for the coordination of efforts rather than centralization and formation being the driving force (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). This builds on the work of Mintzberg (1979), who said a professional bureaucracy is an organizational structure that can simultaneously allow both standardization and decentralization, as standardization is in teacher training, and autonomy is in practice. When professional teacher behaviors are found in established professional learning communities, they include collaboration, the deprivatization of the teaching practices, and reflective dialogues (Louis, Marks, & Kruse, 1996). Several researchers have argued that with deprivatization, as with the development of professional learning communities, as teachers become more open in their teaching practices, collective responsibility increases (Louis et al., 1996; Wu, Hoy, & Tarter, 2013; LoGerfo & Goddard, 2008).

Tschannen-Moran (2009) found that greater professionalism, which she described as a bureaucratic structure that is enabling, is demonstrated when a professional orientation is fostered by the principal, and where trust is greater in the organization. She argued that principals can foster both professional norms and trust by allowing teachers to exercise their professional judgment. They can also develop structures that “allow time for collaboration, communication, and peer coaching” (Cosner, as cited in Tschannen-Moran, 2009, p. 241). Principal leadership influences the professional community, which influences classroom instruction, and ultimately student learning (Sebastian & Allensworth, 2012).

According to Conley, Bacharach, and Bauer (1989), to positively affect teacher professionalism, principals and school leaders should create a conducive work environment. The environment should provide a high level of support for the goals set forth by employees, should include a high level of work autonomy, should allow teachers to serve as their own judges, and

should allow teachers to be highly involved in the decision making processes. According to Wahlstrom and Louis (2008), shared decision making allows teachers to participate in and have an influence over school-wide decisions. Pounder (1999) found that these collegial interactions serve to decrease teacher isolation and are believed to increase teacher commitment. This is further supported by Bandura's (2001) social cognitive theory, which says that many things people seek to accomplish are only achievable when social interdependence is present. This means that to achieve goals, group members must share intentions, knowledge, and skills. Bandura (2000) said that since people do not live their lives in autonomy, collective agency is necessary for a group's goal attainment, which requires group members to interact and coordinate in their transactions.

Academic press. "Academic press is the extent to which the school is driven by a quest for academic excellence," (Hoy, Sweetland, & Smith, 2002, p. 79). It is a part of the behavioral environment of the school. As such, when academic press is high, the members of the school organization work for success. In these schools, "Teachers set high but achievable goals, they believe in the capability of their students to succeed, the school environment is orderly and serious, and students, teachers, and principals all respect academic achievement and work for success," (Hoy et al., 2002b, pg. 79). Teachers believe they can reach students and overcome negative external influences. Teachers are more persistent in their efforts, set higher goals, plan more, accept personal responsibility for student achievement, and do not get discouraged by temporary setbacks or failures (Hoy et al., 2002b; Bandura, 1997).

Academic press has been found to lead teachers to work for success with the acceptance of responsibility for that success, and to work without allowing temporary setbacks to frustrate them or impede their efforts (Goddard, Sweetland, & Hoy as cited in Hoy et al., 2002).

Academic press is fostered through the collective perceptions of staff members (Hoy, Sweetland, et al., 2002b).

Academic emphasis leads to academic press, which combines academic emphasis and principal influence (Hoy & Sabo, 1998). Academic emphasis (Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991) and academic press have been shown to foster student achievement. Student achievement promotes overall effectiveness.

Institutional vulnerability/environmental press. Institutional vulnerability is the extent to which the school is susceptible to a few vocal parents and influential community groups. When a school is highly vulnerable to the pressures applied by such groups, research suggests that both teachers and principals feel unprotected and put on the defensive (Hoy & Feldman, 1989; Hoy, 2010; Hoy & Sabo, 1998). Institutional vulnerability is part of the institutional level of the organization, which connects the school with its environment. It is concerned with the health dimension of institutional integrity. Institutional concern is focused on the school's ability to cope with outside forces (Hoy & Sabo, 1998).

The term was changed to environmental press by Hoy, Hannum, and Tschannen-Moran (1998). They wanted to emphasize that press comes internally and externally in the school environment, from academics and from the environment, or forces outside the school. Environmental press is the institution's willingness to change policy, or for the functioning to be influenced by pressures from parents and the community.

Collective Responsibility

Lee and Smith (1996) were among the first researchers to conceptualize collective responsibility. They were interested in determining the effect collective responsibility has on student achievement. Lee and Smith defined collective responsibility as the teachers'

willingness to take responsibility for their students' learning based on the degree to which the faculty perceives that teaching is worth the effort.

Lee and Smith (1996) conducted a study using survey data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study to examine how the organization of teachers' work affects students in their early years of high school. This survey was given to high school sophomores and their teachers. To analyze data, Lee and Smith drew composites from the teacher questionnaire data. They then used factor analysis and aggregated the composite measures to the school level. They found the mean of individual responsibility to determine and quantify collective responsibility.

With their study, Lee and Smith (1996) found that when a school's teachers believed that their efforts were effective in improving student learning, they simultaneously increased their efforts. Their study showed that this increase in effort led to significant gains across subjects in a two-year time period with increase collective responsibility. They found that the more responsibility teachers assumed for student learning, the more willing they were to focus on students who may be struggling or who may come from low socioeconomic backgrounds, which they argued led to an equal distribution of efforts regardless of student backgrounds or social class. This study was criticized for the researchers' view of collective responsibility being connected too tightly with collective efficacy, with little distinction being made between the two.

Wahlstrom and Louis (2008) found that a sense of collective responsibility is positively related to shared leadership and teacher-principal trust. They found collective responsibility was associated with the three distinct instructional practices of focused instruction, standard contemporary practice, and flexible grouping practices. Although the study found links between collective responsibility and the organization, it received criticism for using collective responsibility in the study as an indicator of collective efficacy.

With the criticisms of previous measures of collective responsibility, LoGerfo and Goddard (2008) used two operational measures, one individual and one collective as a school property, to look at responsibility. The measure of teacher responsibility was designed to assess an individual teacher's willingness to accept or reject the responsibility associated with his or her own students' learning. The measure of collective responsibility was designed to assess teachers' perceptions of the responsibility accepted or rejected by their colleagues for student learning. They found that collective responsibility came from shared values, shared beliefs, and a common goal among the faculty and the administration. They also found that collective responsibility was positively and significantly related to student achievement and to closing the achievement gap, but had no relationship to socioeconomic status. This is consistent with other study results that found that collective responsibility did not vary with socioeconomic status (Lee & Smith, 1996; Wu, 2012).

Wu (2012) described collective responsibility as a continuum. Brattesani, Weistein, and Marshall (1984) described one end of the continuum, where teachers looked at their own teaching, and evaluated it for success or failure. They argued that teaching and learning are interactive processes. Lee and Loeb (2000) described the other end of the continuum as where teachers looked to locate fault for low student achievement outside of themselves. These teachers looked for obstacles to the teaching and learning processes, such as low socioeconomic status, lack of student ability, or school size (Wu, 2012).

Collective responsibility may be a sub-element of organizational citizenship behaviors. The difference from the review of literature seems to be that collective responsibility can be generalized across the faculty whereas organizational citizenship behaviors are exhibited by individuals. Organizational citizenship is similar to climate, but in a broad sense as it is not

specific. Collective responsibility has greater consequences on instruction since it involves more specific behaviors.

Bateman and Organ (1983) introduced the organizational characteristics of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), as not formally prescribed, but important, worker behaviors. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran applied this construct to schools. According to Organ (1988), organizational citizenship behaviors are those that exceed the role expectations already in existence without reward and that are aimed at reaching the organizational goals. DiPaola, Tarter, and Hoy (2007) expanded upon this definition, calling the behaviors “voluntary and discretionary” (p. 227). Zarea (2012) described these as “behaviors that go beyond the call of duty” (p. 80).

Zarea (2012) described organizational citizenship behaviors as having dimensions including consciousness, sportsmanship, loyalty, altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, functional participation, advocacy participation, social participation, protecting company, interpersonal harmony, self development, taking initiative, and being personable. These behaviors can be directed toward the individual, group, or organization. According to Somech and Ron (2007), these behaviors include the extension of assistance to other teachers, supervisors, and students. Katz (1964) included participation in actions beyond formal expectations and obligations to be one of three employee behaviors necessary for the organization to function successfully.

Collective responsibility and organizational citizenship have been found to increase student achievement, trust, and shared leadership. These concepts have been found to promote overall effectiveness.

DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) conducted two studies to examine the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and climate. They found that there was a positive

relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and climate in regards to collegial leadership, teacher professionalism, academic press, and institutional vulnerability, which they preferred to as community engagement.

Bryk and Schneider (as cited in Cosner, 2009) found that collegial trust is connected to (a) teacher willingness and efforts to innovate in the midst of reform initiatives, (b) public problem solving within school, (c) social controls that develop within teacher communities, and (d) teacher commitment and attachment to the school and its mission. Trust appears to affect teacher-teacher relations, which include professional community and collective responsibility. These in turn may affect the teachers' instructional practices (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008).

Trust, climate, and achievement were interrelated to the logic of school organizations (Hoy & Miskel, 2008, 2013). These variables have been connected to overall effectiveness.

Collective responsibility tends to be higher in small schools (Lee & Smith, 1996; Lee & Loeb, 2000). Lee and Loeb (2000) found this to be the case in elementary schools. They interpreted it to mean that school size has an effect on teachers' attitudes and students' achievement.

Wu (2012) asserted that enabling school structure, instructional leadership, professional learning communities, and relational trust were predictors of collective responsibility. LoGerfo and Goddard (2008) found that collective responsibility was related to collective efficacy and trust, which were two dimensions of academic optimism. Wu (2012) and Wu, Hoy, and Tarter (2013) expanded upon this, and found that collective responsibility was both related to organizational citizenship and was a predictor of academic optimism. Since academic optimism is a predictor of student achievement, collective responsibility has an effect, although indirect, on

student achievement, which is one dimension considered for effectiveness (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Uline, Miller, & Tshannen-Moran, 1998).

Hoy (2012) explained the links between academic optimism and responsibility as, “...academic optimism and relational trust (working through academic optimism) foster a learning environment in which students and teachers accept responsibility for learning, are motivated to exert strong effort, persist in difficult tasks, and are resilient in the face of problems and failures” (p. 88).

Organizational Effectiveness

There are multiple ways to measure organizational effectiveness, and little agreement exists on how to define the construct in relation to schools (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). This is because the definition of effectiveness depends on the purpose of the definition. Schools have multiple desired outcomes, so multiple definitions can be used for the many dimensions, stakeholders, and environmental constraints (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Basically, overall effectiveness is how well an organization functions regardless of the constraints in place.

The systems model was used in this study because it explains the effectiveness of a school independently of socioeconomic status. The systems model of organizational effectiveness (Hoy & Miskel, 2008) is based on a principle that one of the primary concerns of an organization is to survive and grow. The systems model considers organizations as open systems that include inputs, transformations, and outputs (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). This builds on the 1979 works of Miskel, Fevurly, and Stewart. According to Hoy and Miskel (2008), the inputs can include environmental constraints, human capital resources, school missions, board policy, materials, methods, and equipment. Hoy and Miskel wrote,

The transformation criteria are the quantity, quality, and consistency of the internal processes and structures that transform the inputs to outcomes... Examples of transformational criteria are the structure and content of the curriculum, health of the interpersonal climate, motivation levels of students and teachers, teacher and administrator leadership, quality and quantity of instruction, and quality-control procedures such as the number of tests given, evaluation of teaching, use of instructional technologies, and personnel evaluations. (p. 300-301)

The outputs can include achievement, job satisfaction, absenteeism, dropout rate, and overall quality. The inputs and the transformation processes equally determine the quality and effectiveness of schools (Hoy & Miskel, 2008).

Parsons (as cited in Hoy & Ferguson, 1985) argued that an organization's survival depends upon the exercise of four functions: adaptation, goal attainment, integration, and latency. Goal attainment, which is the problem of setting and achieving goals, supports adaptation, which is the problem of accommodating to the environment. Latency is the problem of creating and maintaining the motivational and value patterns of the system. These mechanisms support integration, which is the problem of maintaining solidarity within the system.

Hoy and Ferguson (1985) wrote that organizational effectiveness is a multidimensional construct that has multiple constituencies, which include students, teachers, and administrators. The dimensions Hoy and Ferguson acknowledge are closely related to the functions outlined by Parsons. These dimensions are

(1) organizational adaptation in the form of successful accommodation to internal and external forces, (2) organizational productivity in terms of the extent to which the organization is successful in setting and accomplishing its internal goals, (3) organizational cohesiveness in the form of the absence of intraorganizational conflict, and (4) organizational commitment to the form of member's motivation and commitment to the organization. (p. 122)

Hoy and Miskel (2008) supported this idea with their assertion that effectiveness is traditionally defined relative to the degree of goal attainment, which for teachers could include the outputs of

job satisfaction, absenteeism, and recruitment and retention rates. For administrators, it could include the outputs of job satisfaction, balanced budgets, and commitment to the school.

According to Mott's General Model of Effectiveness, the criteria for overall effectiveness included both the quality and quantity of these outputs. These outputs interact with the efficiency of production, as well as the adaptability and flexibility of the organization to influence effectiveness (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). This idea supports previous research, which found perceived organizational effectiveness was a subjective evaluation of the productivity, adaptability, and flexibility of a school. When considering the effectiveness of a school (as perceived by teachers), more effective schools were characterized by "(1) more participative processes, (2) less centralized decision-making structures, (3) more formalized general rules, and (4) more complexity or high professional activity" (Miskel, Fevurly, & Stewart, 1979, p. 114). Miskel et al. (1979) defined organizational processes as the more informal, interpersonal characteristics and actions resulting from the interaction of individuals within the organization. They defined organizational structures as the school's more formal characteristics or enduring patterns of operation.

Uline et al. (1998) agreed with school effectiveness as a multidimensional construct. They developed a model of school effectiveness that showed overall effectiveness was defined by instrumental activities and expressive activities. Instrumental activities included reading, math, and writing. Expressive activities included teacher trust in colleagues, teacher trust in principal, and school health.

Overall effectiveness is a consequence of organizational properties. Effectiveness is supported by structure, culture, politics, and motivation, all of which affect teaching and learning. Hoy and Miskel (2008) argued that effectiveness occurred when there was a focus on

teachers, and that administrators could cultivate a culture of academic optimism, which includes efficacy, trust, and academic optimism with motivation as an underlying concept. They argued this could lead to the development of professional capacity, which could lead to a positive school-learning climate.

Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic status is a control variable in this study. Although socioeconomic status could influence overall effectiveness of the school, it has no predictive validity for the purpose of this study. Hattie (2009) said socioeconomic status (SES) related to the relative position an individual, family, or household maintains in the social hierarchy, and directly related to the resources in the home. Three such resources, parental income, parental education, and parental occupation, are the main indicators of SES. Hattie found that the overall effect from the four meta-analyses based on 499 studies, which has 957 effects, to be $d = 0.57$, indicating a notable significant influence on student achievement. Sirin (2005) found that parental income, which is the indicator of SES for this study, has an effect of $d = 0.58$. Given the possible but unhypothesized influence of SES, the variable was measured and its effects controlled for.

Theoretical Framework

Climate can be described as how teachers experience the school (Tarter, Bliss, & Hoy, 1989). When a school climate is healthy, student, teacher, and principal behavior are in harmony with each other. Students work hard toward their goals and they respect other students who achieve academically, which is academic emphasis. Teachers have a high level of teacher affiliation; they set high but achievable goals; they focus on academic excellence; and, they create an orderly and serious learning environment. Principals exhibit friendly, open, egalitarian, and supportive behaviors. They exhibit high collegial leadership, provide high resource support,

and have high principal influence. Additionally, they ensure high institutional integrity, protecting teachers from outside influences (Hoy & Sabo, 1998). Given these findings, a healthy climate promotes overall effectiveness.

Collective responsibility can be described as how teachers take responsibility for student achievement. When collective responsibility is high, trust is also high. Teachers are more likely to persist in difficult tasks and are less likely to be negatively affected by challenges or failures (Hoy, 2012). With these notions in mind, collective responsibility affects student achievement, a dimension of effectiveness (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Hoy & Miskel, 2008; Uline, Miller, & Tschannen-Moran, 1998).

Climate and collective responsibility are both independent predictors of effectiveness. From this researcher's perspective, it is plausible that they also have a joint contribution, with collective responsibility having the greater effect because it is more specific and more directly related to achievement than climate. Figure 1 represents a graphic representation of these contributions.

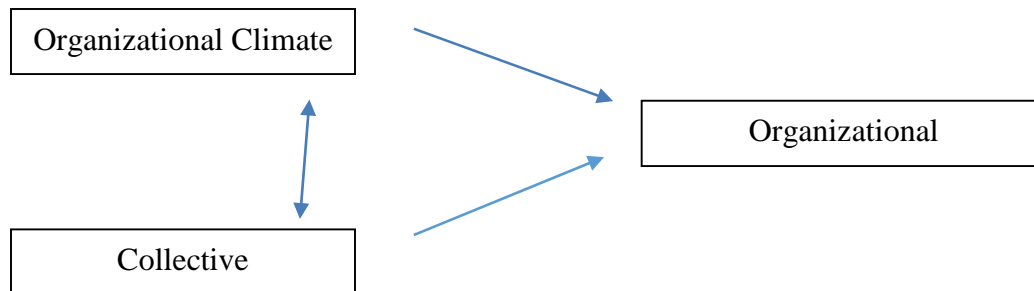


Figure 1. Graphic representation of the contributors of independent variables.

Hypotheses

Research history argues that organizational climate and collective responsibility make an individual and joint contribution to the explanation of effectiveness. This study tests two hypotheses:

H1: Climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness are positively related; and

H2: Collective responsibility is a stronger predictor of effectiveness than climate.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Chapter III presents the research methodology used in this study. It also includes descriptions of the research design, variables studied population, sample, measurements, data collection methods, data analysis techniques, hypotheses, and a conclusion.

Research Design

This study was a non-experimental research effort utilizing cross-sectional data. Survey methodology was used to obtain teachers' perceptions for the constructs of organizational climate, collective responsibility, and school effectiveness. Correlation and regression analyses were used to test the relationships between organizational climate, collective responsibility, and school effectiveness measures while controlling for socioeconomic status. Data was collected for socioeconomic status, with this being used as a control variable.

This study was conducted using a joint data collection method with a colleague, who was using survey methodology to obtain teachers' perceptions of mindfulness and pupil control ideology.

Sample

The unit of analysis for this study was the school, with the participants of the study including teachers of 50 secondary schools in Alabama and Georgia selected for their willingness to participate in the study. Using schools in two states broadened the sample used in the study. The schools were identified through convenience sampling. Teachers were surveyed because their actions and perceptions indicate the healthiness of the organizational climate and

the level of collective responsibility present within the schools, as well as the mindfulness and pupil control ideology of the school.

Twenty-five schools surveyed were located in Alabama, and twenty-five were located in Georgia. Within the twenty-five Alabama schools, the average student enrollment was 505.1 students. These schools had an average of 56% of students receiving federally subsidized meals. Alabama schools had a total of 504 respondents with an average 20.2 respondents per school. Within the twenty-five Georgia schools, the average student enrollment 728.4 students. These schools had an average of 52.85% of students receiving federally subsidized meals. Georgia schools had a total of 639 respondents with an average of 25.56 respondents per school. Table 1 represents this information.

Table 1

Enrollment and Free/Reduced Lunch Means by State (N=50)

State	Number of Schools	Enrollment	Percentage of Students Receiving Free or Reduced Lunch - M, SD	Number of Respondents
Alabama	25	505.1	M = 56% SD = 18.6	504
Georgia	25	728.4	M = 52.8% SD = 21.2	639

Measurements

One independent variable in the study was teachers' perceptions of the school climate. Constitutively, climate is the atmosphere of the school that is experienced by those in the school so that it affects that behaviors and attitudes held about the school. Operationally, climate is measured by the Organizational Climate Index, which was developed by Hoy et al. (2002a). This index measures the participant perceptions of relationships between the school and community, the teachers and principal, the school and students, and among the teachers by

measuring four aspects of climate: collegial leadership, professional teacher behavior, achievement press, and institutional vulnerability. These aspects of climate are measured through a 30-item descriptive questionnaire. Sample items for institutional vulnerability included “(26) The school is vulnerable to outside pressure,” and “(2) A few vocal parents can change school policy.” Sample items for collegial leadership included “(3) The principal treats all faculty members as his or equal,” and “(20) the principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation.” Sample items for professional teacher behaviors included “(8) Teachers help and support each other,” and “(23) The interactions between faculty members are cooperative.” Sample items for achievement press included “(16) Parents exert pressure to maintain high standards,” and “(11) Students respect others who get good grades.” The Alpha coefficients of reliability for collegial leadership, professional teacher behaviors, achievement press, and institutional vulnerability are .94, .88, .92, and .87, respectively. This study examined climate within its subtests and collectively. Each of these subtests has a differing effect on the effectiveness of a school; and, together they create a school climate, or environment experienced by those within it. The climate measure has construct validity because it has been used successfully in many studies (Hoy & Sabo, 1998; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002) and the measure performed as expected.

The other independent variable that was tested by the study was teachers’ perceptions of collective responsibility. Constitutively, the teachers’ perceptions of collective responsibility are the teachers’ beliefs about the extent to which teachers in their school take responsibility for student learning. Operationally, collective responsibility is measured by the Collective Responsibility Scale, which was developed by LoGerfo and Goddard (2008). The survey consists of three dimensions: teacher responsibility, collective responsibility, and school

contextual variables. The dimensions contained items with individual Likert-type response scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items for teacher responsibility included “I hold myself responsible for ensuring that my students do not fail,” and “It is my job to ensure that all my students learn.” This has a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .64. Sample items for collective responsibility included “Teachers in my school take responsibility for improving the school,” and “Teachers in my school feel responsible when students in our school fail.” This has a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .85, giving it a high internal reliability. Collective responsibility is a newer variable and has been used successfully (LoGerfo & Goddard, 2008; Wu, 2012). In the study reported here, the variable acted as predicted, suggesting predictive validity.

The dependent variable tested in the study was effectiveness. Constitutively, effectiveness refers to a school’s ability to meet its goals in terms of quality and quantity of outputs, efficiency, adaptability, and flexibility. Operationally, effectiveness is measured by the School Effectiveness Index, which was created by Hoy and colleagues after multiple revisions stemming from Mott’s 1972 work. The School Effectiveness Index is an 8-item Likert-type scale that analyzes effectiveness over five dimensions: quantity of product, quality of product, efficiency, adaptability, and flexibility. The reliability of the scale is high, with alpha coefficients from .87 to .89. Sample items from this measure included “(1) The quality of products and services produced in this school is outstanding,” and “(7) Teachers in this school anticipate problems and prevent them.” The effectiveness measure has construct validity because it also has been successfully used in a number of studies (Uline et al., 1998; Hoy & Miskel, 2008).

Data Collection Methods

The research design was a non-experimental quantitative survey design that measured the relationship between school climate, the level of collective responsibility, and effectiveness. The survey used in this study allowed for generalizations to be made from the sample to the population. The surveys were administered in face-to-face meetings in a cross-sectional manner, as opposed to a longitudinal manner, with the data collected in one sitting rather than over time.

After obtaining IRB approval, data collection began after permission was received from principals, and superintendents where necessary. The surveys included an explanation of the study, a consent indicator, and instructions for completing the surveys. Participants were instructed to read the consent indicator prior to completing the surveys. They were also instructed not to include their names or any other identifying information on their surveys. Survey responses were collected in an envelope and sealed until the researcher left the campus to begin data analysis.

The unit of analysis for the survey was the school. As there were three measures used in the study, teachers were randomly given one of the three surveys. The surveys were paired with my colleague's mindfulness and pupil control ideology surveys. The data was compiled per school, though individual school scores were not released due to IRB guidelines.

Data Analysis Techniques

The unit of analysis was the school. Survey data from individual responses to the Organizational Climate Index, School Effectiveness Index, and Collective Responsibility Scale, as well as socioeconomic status data, were input into the *Statistical Product and Service Solutions* (SPSS) software program. To test the hypotheses, SPSS was used to perform simple correlational analyses and multiple regression analyses. Additionally, the researcher considered

the characteristics of the sample, as well as the reliability of the measures. The hypotheses tests are provided in the following section.

Hypotheses

This study examined the relationship between climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness. Two hypotheses were tested. They included the following:

H1: Climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness are positively related; and

H2: Collective responsibility is a stronger predictor of effectiveness than is climate.

Conclusion

Research cited in this chapter provided strong evidence that specific organizational properties can lead to overall school effectiveness. This study seeks to add to the body of research in organizational literature by further examining the constructs of climate, collective responsibility, and school effectiveness. The results of this research were obtained through the use of descriptive statistics, factor analyses, correlational analyses, and multiple regression analyses. The results provided a more comprehensive understanding of how the variables examined in this study interact in influencing school effectiveness.

CHAPTER IV: ANALYSIS OF DATA AND RESEARCH FINDINGS

Chapter IV presents the findings of this study concerning the relationships between climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness. The findings are based on the results of the survey methodology described in Chapter III, while controlling for school-level SES. The unit of analysis for this study was the school; therefore, mean school values were calculated for all variables.

This chapter is organized into four sections. The first section provides descriptive statistics for each of the research variables. The second section presents findings for correlations among the three research variables. The third section presents data for multiple regressions. The fourth section provides a brief summary of the data and findings.

The construct of climate was measured by using the 30-item Organizational Climate Index developed by Hoy and Miskel (2008) after revisions of Hoy, Smith, and Sweetland's 2002 work with the Organizational Health Inventory and Halpin and Croft's 1963 work with the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire. This instrument consists of Likert-type items used by teachers to indicate their level of agreement with each item, ranging on a 4-point scale from *rarely occurs* (1) to *very frequently occurs* (4). This instrument includes only positively-worded items, so no reverse scoring was required. This instrument measured the sub-elements of collegial leadership, professional teacher behaviors, achievement press, and institutional vulnerability.

The construct of collective responsibility was measured using the Collective Responsibility Scale developed by LoGerfo and Goddard. The instrument consists of 8 Likert-type items used by teachers to indicate their level of agreement with each item, ranging on a 6-point scale from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6). This scale also used only positively-worded items, so no reverse scoring was used. This instrument measured the sub-elements of teacher responsibility, collective responsibility, and school contextual variables.

The construct of effectiveness was measured by using the School Effectiveness Index developed by Miskel and colleagues (1979) after revisions of Mott's 1972 work. This instrument consists of 8 Likert-type items used by teachers to indicate their level of agreement with each item, ranging from a 6-point scale from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6). This scale also used only positively-worded items, so no reverse scoring was used. This instrument measures quantity of products, efficiency, adaptability, and flexibility.

Permission to participate was obtained from 50 sample schools. The Organizational Climate Index, Collective Responsibility Scale, and School Effectiveness Index were administered to faculty members during regularly scheduled faculty meetings. There was a total of 1,143 respondents from 50 secondary schools. The schools consisted of grade configurations ranging from grade 7 to grade 12.

Descriptive Statistics

This section provides the descriptive statistics for all dependent, independent, and control variables. All variables have been aggregated to the school level since the school was the unit of analysis. The dependent variable was effectiveness. The independent variables were climate and collective responsibility. The control variable was SES, which was also considered for its effects.

Table 2 and Table 3 include the descriptive statistics for the research variables. The climate was broken down into sub-elements. Statistics included in the figure include the number of schools in the sample (N), mean (M), standard deviation (SD), variance (V), and the minimum and maximum scores for each variable. Data were aggregated at the school level. The mean scores for the variables climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness were calculated at the school level. School means were then used to calculate an overall mean for each variable.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Research Variables

Variable	N	M	SD	V	Minimum	Maximum
OCI-CL	374	3.3644	.53731	.089	1.43	4.00
OCI-TP	383	3.3163	.47529	.071	1.43	4.00
OCI-AP	369	2.8577	.47572	.103	1.25	4.00
OCI-EP	361	2.3036	.70476	.134	1.99	4.00
COL-RES	374	4.7407	.64290	.150	2.00	6.00
SEI	364	4.5856	.71849	.162	1.00	6.00

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for States Studied

State	N	Enrollment, M	Enrollment, Minimum	Enrollment, Maximum	Free and Reduced Lunch, M
Alabama	25	505.1	150	1907	56%
Georgia	25	728.5	85	1584	52.8%

To ensure reliability, the three survey instruments were tested individually. Reliabilities for the instruments were calculated with the school as the unit of analysis. Instruments should have a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .70 or greater to be determined reliable (Muijs, 2004). Considering the school as the unit of analysis, reliability was confirmed in each of the three

research instruments. Climate was calculated by sub-elements. The reliabilities of the measures were acceptable and ranged from .79 to .90.

Table 4

Alpha Coefficients of Reliability Using the School as Unit of Analysis (N=50)

Variable	Instrument	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Cases
Climate – Collegial Leadership	OCI	7	.90	50
Climate – Teacher Professionalism	OCI	7	.91	50
Climate – Academic Press	OCI	8	.88	50
Climate – Environmental Press	OCI	5	.79	50
Collective Responsibility	CRS	8	.86	50
Effectiveness	SEI	8	.88	50

Correlation Analyses

Pearson correlation coefficients were computed for all depended and independent variables in order to determine possible cause-and-effect relationships that exists between the variables. Correlation results were used to address Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2.

Table 5

Intercorrelation of All Variables in Study (N=50)

	OCI-CL	OCI-TP	OCI-AP	OCI-EP	Col-Res	SEI	FRL
OCI-CL	--						
OCI-TP	.54**	--					
OCI-AP	.54**	.54**	--				
OCI-EP	-.42**	-.12	.04	--			
Col-Res	.08	.26	.33*	.13	--		
SEI	.58**	.44**	.48**	-.35*	.31*	--	
FRL	-.01	-.24	-.45	.07	-.10	-.31*	--

Notes. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

For H1, climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness are positively related. As shown in Figure 6, correlation statistics support the first hypothesis. As collective responsibility increases, so does effectiveness. As total climate increases, so does effectiveness and collective responsibility.

Table 6

Intercorrelation of Hypothesis 1 Variables (N=50)

	Effectiveness	Collective Responsibility
Effectiveness	-	
Collective Responsibility	.31**	-
Total Climate	.42**	.33**

Note. ** $p < .01$.

For H2, collective responsibility is a stronger predictor of effectiveness than climate. Correlation statistics indicate that the second research hypothesis was not supported.

Table 7 shows the regression of effectiveness on all the predictor variables. This shows the unique relationship between each variable and effectiveness.

Table 7

Linear Regression of Effectiveness on Predicted Variable (N=50)

	r	Beta
OCI-CL	.58	.40*
OCI-TP	.54	.05
OCI-AP	.54	.07
OCI-EP	-.42**	-.20
Collective Responsibility	.08	.25*
Free/Reduced Meals	-.08	-.20

$R = .70$; $AdjR^2 = .43$ **

Table 8

Linear Regression of Effectiveness on Free/Reduced Lunch, Total Climate, and Collective Responsibility (N=50)

Free/Reduced Meals	-.21
Total Climate	.33*
Collective Responsibility	.08

R = .47; AdjR² = .17**

All climate measures are correlated with effectiveness. The sequence is demonstrated in the regressions. It shows that total climate is correlated with effectiveness.

The question could be raised that an Alabama and Georgia sample could be too different to generalize about, with the idea that schools could be different by state. The underlying theory is that schools are foundationally the same from state to state, which was supported by the findings in this study. Variables were taken from each and tested to determine that no significant differences were found. An independent samples t-test was conducted to measure the differences. As shown in Figure 9, the differences were not significant, though close.

Table 9

T-test Comparing Alabama and Georgia Results (N=50)

	Enrollment	OCI-CL	OCI-TP	OCI-AP	OCI-EP	Col Res	SEI	FRL
Alabama (mean)	505.1	3.33	3.24	2.82	2.32	4.57	4.65	55.96
Georgia (mean)	728.4	3.43	3.33	2.80	2.25	4.54	4.76	52.78
t- statistic	-1.86	-1.25	-1.21	.243	.66	.27	-.99	.56
sig.	.069	.217	.234	-.809	.51	.822	.32	.57

t = -1.86, sig. (2-tailed) = 0.69

Table 10

One-way ANOVA between Alabama and Georgia (N=50)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	sig.
Collegial Leadership	Between Groups	.138	1	.138	1.563	.217
	Within Groups	4.241	48	.088		
	Total	4.379	49			
Teacher Professionalism	Between Groups	.106	1	.106	1.456	.234
	Within Groups	3.505	48	.073		
	Total	3.611	49			
Academic Press	Between Groups	.006	1	.006	.059	.809
	Within Groups	5.180	48	.108		
	Total	5.186	49			
Environmental Press	Between Groups	.060	1	.060	.440	.510
	Within Groups	6.564	48	.137		
	Total	6.62	49			

As shown in Tables 9 and 10, no relationships between enrollment and SES were found. However, relationships were found between the four variables in the OCI. Because the four variables of the OCI are related, it increases the likelihood of getting the results by chance; therefore, an ANOVA, rather than four individual t-tests, was used to test the state-to-state differences on the climate variables. Similarly to the enrollment and SES data, there were no significant differences in the climate subtests. None of the differences are greater than would be expected between the two states.

Findings

This chapter presented data showing the reliability of the measures. Hypotheses testing supported the predicted relationships of climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness. Contrary to the prediction of the second hypothesis, climate had a greater effect on effectiveness than did collective responsibility.

CHAPTER V:
FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

Chapter V is broken into four sections. The first section provides a summary of the findings. The second section presents the theoretical implications of the study. The third section gives practical implications. The fourth section provides suggestions for future research.

Findings

Five findings were noted in this study. They include the following:

1. Climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness are positively related, as hypothesized;
2. Contrary to the predicted relationship, climate had a greater effect on effectiveness than did collective responsibility. In fact, with all variables together, climate made the only significant contribution to effectiveness in the study;
3. Multiple regressions show that collective responsibility does have a relationship to effectiveness, just not as strong as climate. When climate, collective responsibility, and SES are used as joint predictors of effectiveness, only climate made a significant contribution to effectiveness;
4. This study was conducted in Alabama and Georgia. Though no hypothesis was made that there would be differences among the states, this was examined to ensure that the measures were generalizable across the states. Differences were found between the two states, but they were not significant; and
5. SES had no effect on the hypothesized relationships.

Discussion of Findings

Total climate and collective responsibility were correlated. There was found to be a .21 ($r=.33$, $p<.01$) correlation between the two. When climate was broken into sub-elements, the greatest correlations were with collegial leadership ($r=.58$, $p<.01$) and achievement press ($r=.48$, $p<.01$). A significant bivariate relationship ($r=.33$, $p<.05$) was found between collective responsibility and academic press, or expectations for student performance. This means that collective responsibility is one antecedent of climate and effectiveness.

Free and reduced lunch was inversely correlated to academic press. The results of this study show that despite the socioeconomic status of the school, the principal can influence overall effectiveness through climate and antecedents such as collective responsibility.

The overall climate concept is related to collective responsibility. If teachers in the school take responsibility for student learning, there is a significant impact on effectiveness ($r=.31$, $p<.05$). As teachers take responsibility, achievement press increases ($r=.31$, $p<.05$). Teacher professional behaviors and environmental press have a positive correlation, but not significantly with collective responsibility. Contrary to the initial thought, collective responsibility does not have a significant impact on effectiveness. When SES is added to the equation, collegial leadership emerges as a significant contributor to effectiveness.

Theoretical Implications

Wu, Hoy, and Tarter (2013) found that collective responsibility has a significant effect on student achievement. Effectiveness is a school's ability to meet its goals such as instrument and expressive goals (Miskel, Fevurly, & Stewart, 1979). Since student achievement is typically one goal of many held by schools, it was hypothesized that collective responsibility would impact overall effectiveness, which includes adaptation, goal attainment, integration (or social

cohesion), and latency (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). Overall effectiveness includes quantity of product, quality of product (of which student achievement is a part), efficiency, adaptability, and flexibility (Miskel, Fevurly, & Stewart, 1979). This study was unique in that it examined the relationship between climate and collective responsibility and how the two constructs contribute to effectiveness, not just student achievement. Collective responsibility is defined as a sharing of goals, and the faculty's perception of flexibility, innovation, communication, and doing good work, so it was believed that this shared belief would yield results in multiple areas, which would be overall effectiveness. For example, if a faculty had a low score on collective responsibility, it would be believed that their view of the school's effectiveness might be low. However, if a faculty had a high score on collective responsibility, it would be believed that their view of the school's effectiveness might be high. The relationship is positive and continuous; therefore, the higher the collective responsibility, the higher the effectiveness.

Results of the study indicated that climate and collective responsibility were significantly related. Both climate and collective responsibility contribute to effectiveness, but climate makes a larger contribution. The overall relationship between collective responsibility and climate was found to be ($r=.33, p<.01$). With the regression of effectiveness on climate and collective responsibility, it was found that climate is related to collective responsibility with a beta of .33. This regression also shows that climate makes a larger contribution to effectiveness than does collective responsibility with a beta of .42.

However, when looking at the relationship between collective responsibility and the climate subtests, only academic press is related to collective responsibility. This could be due to the idea that if a teacher feels responsible for his or her students and their success, they will also put an emphasis on student academic excellence. Collective responsibility is an operational

property, not indicative of a particular teacher. Thus, independently of self-perceptions of the effectiveness of a particular teacher, the measure looks at the collectivity. Replication of this study is needed to confirm these relationships and contributions.

Multiple regressions show that collective responsibility does have a relationship to effectiveness, just not as strong as climate. When climate, collective responsibility, and SES are used as joint predictors of effectiveness, climate made a more significant contribution to effectiveness, as found with bivariate correlations. Given the results of the regression analysis, it is likely that the relationship of collective responsibility and climate exists, and both influence effectiveness when no variables are controlled. This relationship is shown in Figure 2. In this figure, climate is viewed as a unit because that is the way it is experienced in schools. It is also typically a collective variable in literature.

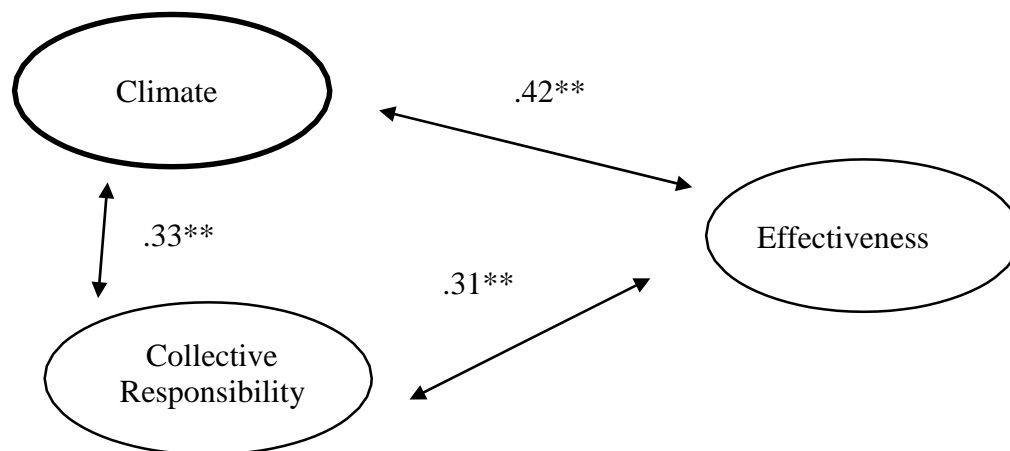
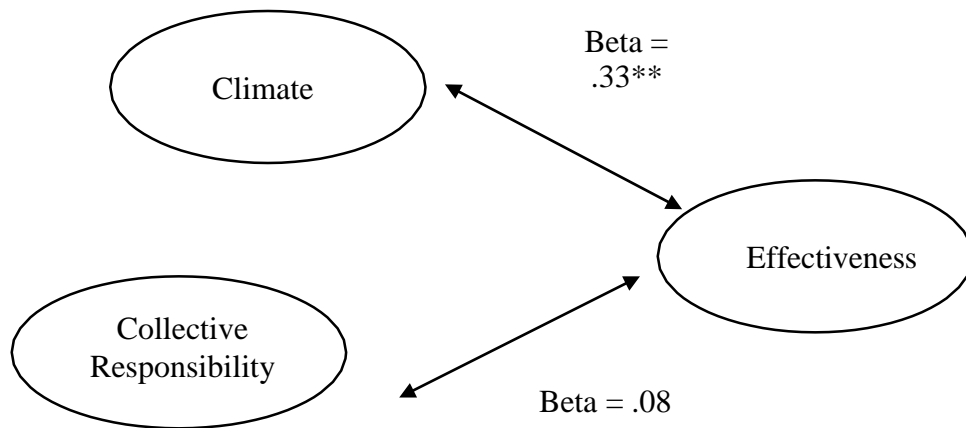


Figure 2. Graphic representation of zero-order correlations of climate and collective responsibility to effectiveness and each other.

Beta relationships, as shown in Figure 3, show that collective responsibility does not have a direct relationship to effectiveness, but is related to climate. When the variables of climate, collective responsibility, and effectiveness were all examined collectively, there were

relationships among each of the variables. However, when climate was controlled for, collective responsibility did not show a significant contribution to effectiveness.



$R = .47$, $\text{Adj. } R^2 = .17^{**}$

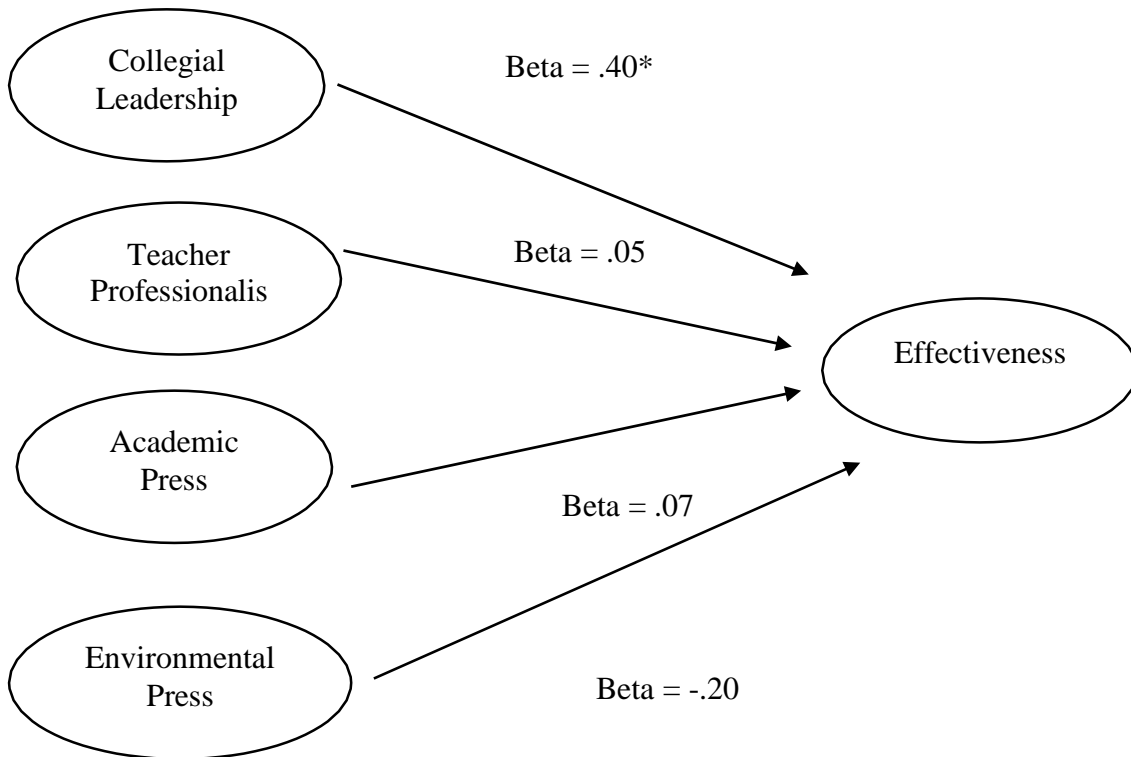
Figure 3. Graphic representation of regression of effectiveness on variables using total climate.

As shown in the figures, collective responsibility is associated with climate. School climate is defined as the atmosphere of the school that is experienced by those in the school so that it affects the behaviors and attitudes about the school. One sub-element of climate is academic press, which is the extent to which a school is driven by goals for academic excellence (Hoy, Sweetland, & Smith, 2002). Collective responsibility is the teachers' beliefs about the extent to which teachers take responsibility for student learning (LoGerfo and Goddard, 2008). Collective responsibility and academic press are constitutively distantly related. This relationship comes from the focus both concepts have on student achievement.

Academic excellence required an emphasis to be placed on student learning both by the faculty and students, and could include other stakeholders. Collective responsibility requires that teachers take responsibility for the student learning that takes place. The two concepts are related in a sense because academic press holds the goals, and collective responsibility provides personal roles in working toward the goals. Academic press and collective responsibility also

have a correlation of .33*. The indirect effect that collective responsibility has on effectiveness could be through climate, and its sub-element of academic press. The more teachers feel responsible for success, and the more emphasis is put on academic excellence, the greater the effectiveness.

As shown in Figure 4, the subtests of climate all make their unique contributions on effectiveness when the subtests and collective responsibility are regressed on effectiveness. Collegial leadership is the only subtest that makes a significant contribution to effectiveness, with a beta of .40*. Climate is broken into sub-elements in this figure to explain the variance.



(Beta = .08 for Collective Responsibility as shown in Figure 3) $R = .47$, $Adj. R^2 = .17^{**}$

Figure 4. Graphic representation of regressions using the OCI subtests of climate.

I presented and tested a theory that argued that collective responsibility would be stronger in the prediction of effectiveness than was climate. This theory was not demonstrated as presented in this study. Climate, which is a broader concept and affects more facets of the school environment, showed to be the stronger predictor. This theory should be further developed by narrowing the focus from overall effectiveness to just those areas that are affected by student achievement, which could assessment scores, grades, retentions, and other such measures of student success. It could also be furthered to examine if collective responsibility is indeed an antecedent of climate, which then contributes to effectiveness.

Practical Implications

The results of this study have practical implications for practicing school administrators who often look to find constructs they can influence to improve the effectiveness of their school (Hallinger, 2013). As Tarter, Bliss, and Hoy (1989) discussed, climate is how teachers experience the school, and is a function of the interactions of teachers. Principals can exhibit friendly, open, egalitarian and supportive behaviors. Tarter, Bliss and Hoy (1998) were using OCDQ-RS and OHI-S climate measures. Their work was expanded upon by Hoy and Sabo (1998) with the OCI climate measure. They can also demonstrate collegial leadership, provide high resource support, and have high levels of influence. They can also ensure institutional integrity by protecting against environmental press (Hoy & Feldman, 1987; Hoy & Sabo, 1998). Climate can be affected by the school administrator. Contrary to the second hypothesis, climate is the most important tested variable to effectiveness. Regardless of the size or SES of the school, climate, particularly the sub-element of collegial leadership, has an effect on effectiveness. Therefore, the influence of the principal on how the faculty and students experience the school is great.

Collective responsibility is not a completely insignificant variable to achievement. As Wu, Hoy, and Tarter (2013) found, collective responsibility is significant in affecting student achievement, one factor of effectiveness. As this study shows, collective responsibility also contributes to climate. The climate of a school could be improved by fostering collective responsibility within the school. Wahlstrom and Louis (2008) argued that shared leadership and teacher-principal trust are positively related to collective responsibility. LoGerfo and Goddard (2008) found that shared values, shared beliefs, and a common goal among the faculty and the administration leads to collective responsibility. Wu (2012) had a different view of collective responsibility as an interaction of teaching and learning. He viewed it as a continuum on which the faculty evaluates their own teaching for success or failure.

The commitment of faculty leads to collective responsibility because of shared goals. The research presented in this study suggests that as climate increases, so does collective responsibility. Perhaps, a principal's focus on improving climate is necessary to foster collective responsibility.

A practicing school administrator could take these findings to foster collective responsibility. While also factoring in the findings in regards to collegial leadership, a school principal could set up a model of shared leadership with teacher leaders. A principal could also set up a model of shared leadership with teacher leaders. A principal could also regularly review the values, beliefs, and goals with the faculty and make adjustments accordingly. It would also be beneficial to provide teachers with data showing student achievement, and allow teachers to play an active role in analyzing this information in order to adjust future instruction and positively impact student achievement.

Collective responsibility alone is not enough to explain climate or effectiveness. However, collective responsibility does have its own contribution to climate, likely be an antecedent and related to academic press and professional teacher behaviors. Climate has shown an effect on effectiveness. Collective responsibility and climate also work together to make it possible to overcome the socioeconomic status of the school. To provide a school scenario, in a school with high collective responsibility, teachers are likely to feel responsible for student success and set high academic goals. This in turn, would lead to higher achievement and overall effectiveness with the student success, teacher satisfaction, teacher retention, and other components of effectiveness, regardless of the socioeconomic status.

Future Research

From the results of this study, it appears that collective responsibility might be a contributor to climate, and the contribution to effectiveness is achieved through the impact on climate. This study shows a .33* correlation between academic press, a subelement of climate, and collective responsibility. Is it possible that collective responsibility contributes to climate, and climate predicts effectiveness? If greater collective responsibility signifies a greater sense of responsibility for student success, this could also mean that teachers expect more academic effort and success from their students, which would be indicative of greater academic press. Future research might examine this conjecture in relationship.

Organizational citizenship behaviors could also be explored with collective responsibility. I would hypothesize that organizational citizenship behaviors and collective responsibility are positively related, and that organizational citizenship behaviors contribute to collective responsibility. This thought comes from the notion that organizational citizenship behaviors are those behaviors people exhibit or work that people do beyond what is required.

When individuals go beyond the expected, they are furthering their commitment to the organization's goals and their contribution to the mission of the school. The same is true when an individual has a greater sense of collective responsibility, with each feeling responsible for the learning of students.

Considering that this study looked at an internal view of effectiveness by examining teachers' perceptions of overall goal attainment, another study could examine it from the view of student achievement, which, perhaps, would show collective responsibility having a greater impact when the three variables are considered together. This hypothesized relationship is based on the premise that collective responsibility is the responsibility of the staff in relationship to student success. Academic press has shown a positive relationship with student achievement in the past research, as well as in this study. In this study, overall effectiveness, which is a broader view of a school's ability to meet its goals, was considered. A focus solely on academic achievement as the goal could yield greater effects for collective responsibility. Along this same line, future research could also examine the impact collective responsibility has on the elements of climate, particularly on academic press.

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APPENDIX A

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE INDEX

Directions: The following are statements about your school. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school from rarely occurs to very frequently occurs .	Rarely Occurs	Sometimes Occurs	Often Occurs	Very Frequently
1. The principal explores all sides of topics and admits that other opinions exist.	1	2	3	4
2. A few vocal parents can change school policy.	1	2	3	4
3. The principal treats all faculty members as his or her equal.	1	2	3	4
4. The learning environment is orderly and serious.	1	2	3	4
5. The principal is friendly and approachable.	1	2	3	4
6. Select citizens groups are influential with the board.	1	2	3	4
7. The school sets high standards for academic performance.	1	2	3	4
8. Teachers help and support each other.	1	2	3	4
9. The principal responds to pressure from parents.	1	2	3	4
10. The principal lets faculty know what is expected of them.	1	2	3	4
11. Students respect others who get good grades.	1	2	3	4
12. Teachers feel pressure from the community.	1	2	3	4
13. The principal maintains definite standards of performance.	1	2	3	4
14. Teachers in this school believe that their students have the ability to achieve academically.	1	2	3	4

15. Students seek extra work so they can get good grades.	1	2	3	4
16. Parents exert pressure to maintain high standards.	1	2	3	4
17. Students try hard to improve on previous work.	1	2	3	4
18. Teachers accomplish their jobs with enthusiasm.	1	2	3	4
19. Academic achievement is recognized and acknowledged by the school.	1	2	3	4
20. The principal puts suggestions made by the faculty into operation.	1	2	3	4
21. Teachers respect the professional competence of their colleagues.	1	2	3	4
22. Parents press for school improvement.	1	2	3	4
23. The interactions between faculty members are cooperative.	1	2	3	4
24. Students in this school can achieve the goals that have been set for them.	1	2	3	4
25. Teachers in this school exercise professional judgment.	1	2	3	4
26. The school is vulnerable to outside pressures.	1	2	3	4
27. The principal is willing to make changes.	1	2	3	4
28. Teachers “go the extra mile” with their students.	1	2	3	4
29. Teachers provide strong social support for colleagues.	1	2	3	4
30. Teachers are committed to their students.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX B

SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS INDEX

Directions: Teachers produce a variety of product such as lesson plans, new curricula, student learning as well as numerous services including teaching, advising, counseling, and parent conferences. Think of these products and services as you respond to each item and indicate the degree with which you agree with the following statements about your school.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The <i>quality</i> of products and services produced in this school is outstanding.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. The <i>quantity</i> of products and services in this school is high.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. The teachers in my school do a good job <i>coping</i> with emergencies and disruptions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Most everyone in the school <i>accepts</i> and <i>adjusts</i> to changes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. When changes are made in the school, teachers accept and adjust <i>quickly</i> .	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Teachers in this school are well <i>informed</i> about innovations that could affect them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Teachers in this school <i>anticipate</i> problems and prevent them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Teachers in this school use available resources <i>efficiently</i> .	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX C

COLLECTIVE RESPONSIBILITY SCALE

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Teachers in my school take responsibility for improving the school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I hold myself responsible for ensuring that my students do not fail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Teachers in my school set high standards for their teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Teachers in my school are responsible to help each other do their best.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Teachers in my school hold themselves responsible to ensure that all students succeed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Teachers in my school feel responsible when students in our school fail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. When my students do poorly on a test, it's because I did not prepare them adequately.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I feel responsible when my students fail.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX D

IRB Approval

December 12, 2013

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

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALABAMA
RESEARCH

Anna Murphree
ELPITS
College of Education
The University of Alabama

Re: IRB # 13-OR-384 "Climate, Collective Responsibility, Mindfulness,
Pupil Control Ideology, and Effectiveness in Secondary Schools"

Dear Ms. Murphree:

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

Your protocol has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. You have also been granted the requested waiver of documentation of informed consent. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Your application will expire on December 11, 2014. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of the IRB Renewal Application. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of the IRB Study Closure Form.

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

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



Carpantado T. Myles, MSN, CIM, CIP
Director of Research Compliance & Research Compliance Officer
Office of Research Compliance
The University of Alabama



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