

ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, CITIZENSHIP,
AND EFFECTIVENESS IN A PUBLIC
LIBERAL ARTS INSTITUTION

by

RACHEAL BRANTLEY BANKS

DAVID E. HARDY, COMMITTEE CHAIR

BEVERLY DYER
MARK LEGGETT
C. JOHN TARTER
WAYNE J. URBAN

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ABSTRACT

Organizational citizenship behavior has been studied in various organizational settings, but few have examined the construct within the context of higher education. In addition, evidence (DiPaola, Tarter, Hoy, 2007), has suggested a relationship between organizational citizenship and effectiveness within schools, but has not been fully examined in higher education. Thus, this study's purpose was to gain an understanding of organizational climate, specifically citizenship, and organizational effectiveness at a public liberal arts institution. The researcher investigated, through survey instrumentation, how full-time faculty, staff and administrative professionals perceived the level of engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors, perceptions of organizational effectiveness within their work units and the relationship between citizenship and effectiveness.

The results provided insight to the site institution regarding organizational behavior, particularly employee perceptions and the potential impact on organizational operations. The majority (over 80%) of employees reported high levels of organizational citizenship behavior within their institutional division. At the same time, these employees also held high perceptions of organizational effectiveness. Data analysis provided further evidence of organizational behavior and characteristics through a strong correlation and significant relationship between citizenship and effectiveness.

An ancillary objective of this study was to test the instrumentation for use in higher education institutions. A Pearson's r correlation coefficient and factor analysis established the reliability and validity of the instrumentation within the context of higher education.

Consequently, these measures have the potential to equip other public liberal arts colleges and universities with tools to consider utilizing in both planning and assessment.

Through increased research efforts, higher education scholars can call attention to the importance of employee behavior on overall organizational operations and provide data to inform both practitioners and policymakers. Practitioners, particularly institutional leaders, should use this information to improve operations and policymakers should utilize the empirical evidence to implement valuable programs and encourage effective practices. All parties should work together to ensure that colleges and universities are in a position to truly achieve their mission of higher education.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

α	Cronbach's alpha index of internal consistency
β	Beta
M	Mean: the sum of measurements divided by the number of measurements in the set
p	Probability associated with the occurrence under the null hypothesis of a value as extreme as or more extreme than the observed value
r	Pearson product-moment correlation
SD	Standard deviation

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

The liberal arts college, modeled after Oxford and Cambridge, is the oldest form of higher education in the United States (Rudolph, 1962). Since higher education in this country originated with an emphasis on liberal arts values, a considerable amount of research has been conducted regarding the unique nature of liberal arts colleges. In Burton Clark's (1970) study of three prominent liberal arts colleges (Antioch, Reed, and Swarthmore), he found that the central component for distinctiveness was its saga or central belief system expressed by those passionate about the college. Kuh and Whitt (1988) defined this central belief system as culture, which is the collective, mutually shaping patterns of norms, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that guide the behavior of individuals and groups in an institute of higher education and provide a frame of reference within which to interpret the meaning of events and actions on and off campus.

Whereas culture is considered a more enduring and holistic characteristic, climate is based upon individual perception of the organization and, therefore, is more dependent upon the current circumstances. According to Moran and Volkwein (1992),

climate is a relatively enduring characteristic of an organization which distinguishes it from other organizations and embodies members' collective perceptions about their organization with respect to such dimension as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovations, and fairness; produced by member interaction; serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; reflects the prevalent norms and attitudes of the organization's culture; and acts as the source of influence for shaping behavior. (p. 20)

While organizational climate refers to the overall perceptions individuals have of the work environment, organizational citizenship behaviors refer to the informal behaviors that are part of

the work environment. After initially introducing the concept in 1983, Organ (1988) elaborated on the original definition of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), or “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4).

Liberal arts institutions are typically small and, as a result, personal interaction is a distinguishing feature. Thus, comparisons are often made between liberal arts colleges and families. Just as with families, the relationships that exist within the gates of a college campus can be complex. Therefore, examining the behavior and experiences of those closest to an institution, particularly its employees can prove to be a useful tool in understanding the potential impact upon organizational operations. According to Baird (1990),

information about the climate is a critical addition to the knowledge of most decision makers about their institution...Understanding how the members perceive its realities and how they react to their perceptions is import so that decision makers can avoid actions that would be detrimental to their institution. (p. 35)

Statement of the Problem and Significance of the Study

Institutions gather data on numerous aspects of the organization considered vital in the planning process and in the evaluation of their effectiveness. While ACT scores, enrollment numbers, retention rates and learning outcomes are all important characteristics, the question is how an organization uses this information. Simply reporting data provides no roadmap.

Considering that little investigation has been conducted specifically regarding public liberal arts institutions, there are a number of unanswered questions. Like many institutions of higher education, public liberal arts institutions also need information in order to ensure the institution is moving in the right direction. After all, effective organizations are responsive organizations (Birnbaum, 1988).

Understanding employee's perceptions and behaviors could prove to be helpful in understanding the complexities of organizational operations. According to Peterson and Spencer (1990), climate reflects and provides members of an organization with an understanding of the purpose or meaning of their organization and their work. In addition, it helps provide a framework for making sense of the informal aspects of an organization. Climate plays a crucial role in providing a sense of organizational identity, which can be used to create an image and establish legitimacy with outside constituencies. In addition, understanding how decisions and actions are influenced can be used to create more effective organizations (Tierney, 1990).

Organizational citizenship behaviors are a concrete example of organizational climate within the workplace. How employees interact with other employees and with the organization is also important in assessing effectiveness of the organization (McKenzie & Podsakoff, 1992; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Even though organizational citizenship behaviors are considered discretionary behaviors, they provide the organization with the adaptation and innovation that are necessary for both growth and long-term survival (Katz, 1964; Skarlicki & Latham, 1995).

For those that make organizational decisions within higher education, growth and long-term survival should be of utmost concern. This knowledge regarding the reality of organizational dynamics can help decision makers embrace favorable circumstances and address unfavorable situations if necessary. Possessing this type of knowledge can equip both faculty and administrators to make useful comparisons to like institutions, identify necessary changes, make recommendations for improvement and measure the effectiveness of changes (Baird, 1990).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of organizational climate, specifically citizenship, and organizational effectiveness at a public liberal arts institution. The researcher investigated, through survey instrumentation, how full-time faculty, staff and administrative professionals perceived the level of engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors, their perceptions of organizational effectiveness within their work unit and the relationship between citizenship and effectiveness.

Since little investigation has been conducted specifically regarding public liberal arts institutions, the researcher aimed to provide useful insight to both the site institution and to equip other public liberal arts colleges and universities with a tool to utilize in both planning and assessment. The intent was also to develop recommendations for leaders and decision makers, so they may remain viable and competitive in the higher education marketplace.

Research Questions

This study explored the following research questions:

1. How do full-time employees at XYZ University perceive organizational citizenship behavior within their division of the institution;
2. How do full-time employees at XYZ University perceive organizational effectiveness within their division of the institution;
3. At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon gender;

4. At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon age;
5. At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon employment classification;
6. At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon length of service;
7. At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon institutional division type; and
8. What is the relationship between organizational citizenship and organizational effectiveness at XYZ University?

Assumptions

In conducting the current study, the researcher made several assumptions. First, it was assumed that the data provided to contact potential survey respondents represented all full-time faculty, staff and administrative professionals from the study site institution. The second assumption was that survey instrument designed to measure organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness accurately assessed these constructs in order to provide insight to the stated research questions. Finally, the researcher made the assumption that the respondents would provide honest responses to the items on the questionnaire.

Delimitations

In conducting this study, the following delimitations were established:

1. In order to pilot the survey questionnaire, the site institution for study was a single public liberal arts institution;
2. The study population only included faculty, administrative professionals and support staff at a public liberal arts institution; and
3. In order to examine the research questions from an employee perspective, students were not included as potential participants.

Limitations

The primary limitation of this study was the fact that a single institution was the site of the study. Therefore conclusions could only be drawn about the study institution. In addition, students were not surveyed and thus findings are limited to the employee population. Conducting the survey via online survey software requires access to the internet and a certain level of familiarity with technology. Furthermore, respondents participated via self-selection, which had potential to limit responses.

Organization of the Study

The chapter has provided an overview of the study and the overall purpose of the study, which was to gain an understanding of organizational climate, specifically citizenship, and organizational effectiveness at a public liberal arts institution. In addition, the research questions are outlined and this chapter also demonstrated the need for and significance of the current study. The remainder of the study is organized as follows. Chapter II presents a review of the literature on liberal arts colleges, with a particular focus on those that are publicly controlled. Literature on organizational climate and citizenship behavior are also included in the review. The research

methodology employed in this study is outlined in Chapter III. Chapter IV presents the research findings and the final chapter, Chapter V, includes the discussion, recommendations and conclusions drawn from the study.

CHAPTER II:

Review of Literature

Introduction

Both organizational climate and the liberal arts college have been subject to extensive investigation. This chapter will review both areas of literature, as they are relevant to the present study. Since the research is being conducted in the context of a specific type of higher education institution, the first section will examine the pertinent literature on liberal arts colleges and universities. This will be followed by the examination of the literature on the construct of organizational climate, along with its definition and its significance in workplace. The rationale for the review of these particular subject areas is three-fold, as Creswell (2003) outlined. They are relevant to the present study, relate the literature to ongoing dialogue in higher education and provide a benchmark for comparing the results of this study with other findings.

Liberal Arts Colleges and Universities

As mentioned in chapter one, there has been extensive exploration of liberal arts institutions. Generally, this research has been concerned with the historical significance of liberal art colleges and universities, the importance of liberal learning and its benefits to students and society, and how, why and where liberal arts curriculum should be incorporated into larger institutions. Another unique aspect of modern day liberal arts institutions is the distinction between private and public liberal arts colleges. Although the latter are not as prevalent, the literature pertaining to public liberal arts colleges and universities is presented.

History of Liberal Arts Institutions

The liberal arts college is the oldest form of higher education in the United States. These colleges, which Rudolph (1962) referred to as colonial colleges “were complex, but among other things, they intended to re-create a little bit of old England in America” (p. 4). There was a need for education and training of clergy and gentlemen that would provide leadership. So, higher education in America began with the establishment of Harvard College in 1636. Before 1770, eight colleges were established with similar ideals. These included William and Mary, Yale, New Jersey (Princeton), King’s (Columbia), Philadelphia (University of Pennsylvania), Rhode Island, Queen’s (Rutgers) and Dartmouth.

The curriculum of these colleges was drawn from a number of sources. Being creatures of both the Reformation and Renaissance, the curriculum reflected both influences. “Beside the Reformation ideal of the learned clergymen was placed the Renaissance ideal of the gentleman and scholar” (Rudolph, 1962, p. 23). Staples of the curriculum during the first year included Latin, Greek, logic, Hebrew and rhetoric. Subsequent years included natural philosophy (physics), meta-physics and moral philosophy. However, the rise of a scientific point of view began to diversify the traditional curricular offerings. By 1745, arithmetic was an entrance requirement at Yale (Rudolph, 1962). Curriculum continued to shift and at Philadelphia (University of Pennsylvania) and William Smith implemented the first systematic course of study in America that emphasized English, English literature and more practical subjects.

Following the American Revolution, the colonial colleges were not the same. Rudolph (1962) discussed numerous changes. Several colleges were established, the state became more involved in the operations of higher education and religious tolerance began to increase. The curriculum also reflected the new responsibility of preparing young men for responsible

citizenship. In the 1820s the curriculum again changed as there was pressure to shift from the classics to something more useful for contemporary life. However, the Yale Report of 1828 “stated the case for the classical curriculum in America with such finality that not until the next generation would another band of reformers assail the old course of study” (Rudolph, p. 131).

The crisis occurred in the 1850s, when opponents of the Yale Report began to argue for the increased importance of the sciences (Rudolph, 1962). However, it would not be until after the Civil War that science would disrupt the classical course of study. The Morrill Act of 1862 “helped to develop a whole new network of institutions with a popular and practical orientation” (p. 244). During this same time period, the elective principle, or the freedom to choose coursework, came into existence. Rudolph referred to the elective principle as one of the most creative and also most destructive educational developments. It became the instrument for ushering out the acquaintance with the classics, which had for centuries been the mark of an educated man.

In 1861, Yale awarded its first doctoral degrees and many colleges followed suit and established graduate programs in order to achieve university status. Professional schools also were incorporated into the university structure in order to train experts necessary in an industrialized society. According to Rudolph (1962), these events helped to unleash a spirit of vocationalism among growing universities. Many small colleges also incorporated professional studies and vocational courses in attempt to survive.

However, a counterrevolution of sorts did exist. There were some colleges that had no intention of becoming a university, whereas some of the older universities held onto the Renaissance ideology. The small liberal arts colleges, according to Rudolph (1962) had limited options and held onto the traditional studies while incorporating some innovative aspects, such as

the elective curriculum. In addition, the customs of undergraduate life were not impacted by the decision of many institutions to move from a college to become a university. By the 1920s many colleges had made the transformation to a university and others were not interested, so the focus shifted.

From 1945-1970, higher education experienced its “Golden Age,” according to Thelin (2004). This time period was characterized by increase prominence for both public and private institutions and enrollment increased, particularly during the Great Depression and following World War II. During the time of expanding enrollments, the multi-campus university system developed, teachers’ colleges began to add graduate and professional programs and community college systems became partners with the state universities. However, the most significant change during this period were federal programs such as the 1964 Civil Rights Act and funding for student financial aid provided by the Higher Education Facilities Act (Thelin, 2004). Thelin (2004) pointed out that although this era in the history of higher education was quite prosperous, there were also problems. In part, the rapid expansion was responsible for discontentment and unrest among students.

In the early 1970s, there was a resurgence of the focus on the practical arts rather than liberal learning and liberal arts curriculum. Brint, Riddle, Turk- Bicakci, and Levy (2005) argued that the ever growing number of students vying for a less rapidly growing number of jobs led to a depressed college market. Thus, the focus shifted away from liberal arts to the pursuit of occupational-professional fields and this trend continues.

The argument that higher education is becoming more vocationalized and less focused on liberal education is a not novel one. Labaree (2006) discussed several scholars that have studied this shift. Most historical accounts have emphasized that land-grant colleges and graduate

schools are responsible for turning the focus away from liberal education and stressing the need to prepare students for work. The evidence, according to Labaree, supports this position. The land-grant college, normal school and community college were all created to have vocational missions and the majority of students in the United States are enrolled in institutions that have origins as one of these three types.

Labaree (2006) maintained that the shift toward professionalism in American higher education is best explained by its vulnerability to the market. Dwindling state funding requires institutions to rely on student tuition and the end result is that they have to cater to the demands of the consumer. Over the years, students have become more concerned with getting a good job and less concerned with liberal learning. Colleges and universities also have to be responsive to donor demands and research funding agencies because of the reliance on funding from both.

Labaree (2006) argued, however, that instead of professionalizing liberal education, we may have been liberalizing professional education. Using the example of divinity and law, Labaree discussed how the content of professional education has become more academic. The coursework in law school focuses little on how to develop skills that are useful in professional practice like writing briefs or handling clients. However, they do focus on elements of liberal education such as jurisprudence, logic and argumentation.

From this perspective, the focus on vocationalism has been more rhetoric than reality or more spin than substance. Maybe it is just a marketing tool that “makes a university education seem more useful and relevant than it really is” (Labaree, p. 7). Labaree (2006) presented a couple of explanations for the counter argument of professional education becoming more liberal. The first is academic inertia or old curriculum content creating new institutional forms. The other is based upon Ralph Turner’s notion of contest mobility in which the goal of education

is to prepare students to compete in the contest for social positions. Therefore, flexibility is necessary to provide numerous possibilities. In other words, specialization is deferred in order to keep options open. For example, doctoral programs require coursework before beginning a dissertation.

In order to resolve this paradox, Labaree (2006) suggested these two opposing arguments, professionalized liberal education or liberalized professional education, can be brought together when they are considered in relation to stratification and formalism. Stratification refers to the hierarchy that exists within American higher education. The peculiar dynamic that creates a gap between the purpose of education and its content is characterized as formalism.

Stratification is educational pecking order. At the top are research universities, which began as colonial colleges and the flagship universities. The second tier is made up of the land-grant colleges. The third tier includes regional state universities, which were originally founded as normal schools to train teachers. Community colleges represent the fourth and final tier of the American higher education system. According to Labaree (2006), as you go down the hierarchy each type of institution shows more vocational tendencies. With the exception of the community college, those in each tier altered their vocational mission and evolved in order to look more like those in the top tier.

Labaree's (2006) central message is that "professional education may be the biggest recurring loser in the history of American higher education" (p. 13). As new institutions were established, professionalism was central and then as they attempted to move up, they reverted to the liberal norm. The area in which vocationalism is dominant is in shaping the purpose of the American higher education system. The culture of credentialism and consumerism has shifted the focus from the value of using higher education to education's exchange value. Yet, the

content of higher education has not necessarily become more practical. The result is a case of formalism on two levels. The first is a supposed professional education that is characterized by liberal content and a focus on getting a job rather than learning vocational skills. On another level, the system offers students little incentive for learning liberal content because they are concerned with earning the credential.

Labaree (2006) concluded that “liberal education has succeeded in colonizing professional education, but credentialism has turned this liberal education back toward vocational goals. The content is liberal, but credentialism means the content does not really matter” (p. 15). While this process is dysfunctional, it seems to work.

Labaree (2006) argued that institutions of higher education incorporate elements of both liberal arts and practical arts. The curriculum is rooted in the liberal arts and the purpose of higher education has shifted to incorporate the need for practical arts. The following research considers how this phenomenon is manifested in liberal arts education.

Role and Impact of Liberal Arts Education

Although the first institutions of higher education valued the liberal arts, it has become difficult to reach an agreement on exactly what characterizes a liberal arts education in today’s society. Some believe it is a general education, some consider it to be subject matter specific and others insist it is training in the classics. While all of these things may be considered to be aspects of a liberal arts education, Lind (2006) simply defined it as “training for citizenship” in which students are not simply trained in facts, but also are taught to analyze, to think, to question and to adapt (p. 52). Holton (2002) suggested that from the beginning a liberal arts education intended to provide young people with freedom.

Delucchi (1997) voiced his concern regarding the popular trend in the 1970s and 1980s of shifting toward a more professional curriculum in order to meet student demands and maintain enrollment. To that end, many colleges still maintained the claim of being a liberal arts college when in reality they tended to award more professional degrees. In order to address these questions, Delucchi (1997) focused on three issues. These included determining how likely institutions were to claim that they are liberal arts colleges, to what extent curricula supported these claims, and how inconsistencies were explained.

Delucchi employed Peterson's Guide to Four-Year Colleges to gather data including detailed institutional information on colleges (selectivity, size, endowment, religious affiliation, and academic programs) and used synopses of college mission statements to identify those that claimed to be a liberal arts institution. The institutions classified as having a primarily liberal arts mission yielded a sample of 327 institutions.

Delucchi (1997) used inconsistency between liberal arts claims and curricula as the dependent variable. If one of 327 colleges in the sample awarded more than 60% of its degrees in professional fields (business, criminal justice, education, engineering, health and human services), Delucchi coded this as inconsistency and found that over two-thirds, or 68%, were dominated by professional majors. Independent variables included control (public or other), whether the college had a denominational affiliation, selectivity, residential nature of the campus, endowment, size, region (North, Midwest, West), age of institution, Greek affiliation, and if the institution was a women's college.

Religiously affiliated colleges were more likely to offer curricula inconsistent with their liberal arts claims. The strongest predictor of consistency was whether or not the college was highly selective. The inconsistency probability decreased by 0.012 for each one percentage rise

in undergraduates that resided on campus and it is also reduced for each million dollar increase in value of the endowment. Those colleges in the western United States were found to be more consistent, as were those that only awarded undergraduate degrees.

According to Delucchi (1997), the institutions that were more likely to offer inconsistent curricula including religiously affiliated, less selective, non-residential, and those with smaller endowments may have shifted away from having a pure focus on liberal arts in order to maintain institutional loyalty and preserve their public image. Yet another explanation is the need to compete financially. Without a sizeable endowment, a college might need to meet the student demand for professional coursework. Delucchi (1997) concluded that the attempt to manage the uncertainty of their environment created inconsistencies between claims and ultimately has resulted in fewer true liberal arts colleges.

These studies (Delucchi, 1997; Holton, 2002; Kuh & Umbach, 2005; Lind, 2006) suggested that the purpose of liberal arts colleges and universities is unique. However, there is a lack of empirical evidence aimed at determining the impact of this uniqueness, particularly on student development. According to Pascarella, Wolniak, Cruce, and Blach (2004), evidence suggested that current students and alumni of liberal arts colleges reported a unique undergraduate experience as compared to their counterparts of other types of institutions. However, it is not clear to what extent liberal arts institutions were responsible for fostering these experiences. Therefore, Pascarella et al. (2004) addressed the issue of the impact of attending a liberal arts college on students' experiences in seven areas identified as good practices in undergraduate education.

Pascarella et al. (2004) selected 16 four-year colleges and universities from the National Center on Education Statistics IPEDS data in order for the sample to represent differences in

institutional type, control and to include a wide range of selectivity. Of the 16, five were private liberal arts colleges that varied in selectivity, three were Research I institutions, one was designated as a Research II institution, and the remaining seven were comprehensive institutions with a regional focus. All were participants in a three-year longitudinal study, the National Study of Student Learning (NSSL), which investigated the factors that influence learning and cognitive development in college. Over the course of three years, the participants completed several questionnaires, allowing for extensive data collection pertaining to both academic and extracurricular experiences.

In conducting the analysis, Pascarella et al. (2004) used attendance at a liberal arts college versus other institutional type as the independent variable. The researchers created 19 measures of good practices and grouped them in seven categories, which served as dependent variables. Based upon the work of Chickering and Gamson (1987), they included student-faculty contact, cooperation among students, active learning/time on task, prompt feedback, high expectations, quality of teaching and influential interactions with other students.

In order to address the fact that the measures of good practices were based on student self-reports, Pascarella et al. (2004) controlled for student characteristics and experiences that existed prior to college enrollment. The results indicated that in the first year, students attending liberal arts colleges reported a significantly higher level on 12 of the 19 good practice dimensions. Thus, this research provided evidence “that in comparison with other institutions, liberal arts colleges do, in fact, foster a broad range of empirically vetted good practices in education” (p. 69).

Although the data does not outline how liberal arts colleges are able to foster good practices in education, Pascarella et al. (2004) concluded by proposing several factors that are

likely to contribute to this achievement. In the first and second year, liberal arts students reported higher levels of faculty interest in teaching and student development and higher levels of quality non-classroom interactions with faculty. Therefore, institutional size “may have had a more pronounced enabling influence on the frequency, quality, and impact of student’s relationships with faculty” (p. 71). In addition, the ethos or culture that places a premium on effective teaching and high academic expectations is of equal or greater importance. This is evidenced by that fact that the researchers found culture in liberal arts colleges, irrespective of selectivity, to be very pervasive.

In an ASHE Higher Education Report entitled *Liberal Arts Colleges and Liberal Arts Education*, Pascarella, Wolnick, Seifert, Cruce, and Blaich (2005) presented a comprehensive review of the literature regarding liberal arts colleges and their history, current structure and composition and challenges faced by these types of institutions. The review was followed by the report of an empirical study aimed at determining whether students at liberal arts colleges experienced best practices in education, the impact of these colleges upon intellectual and social development, the extent to which a liberal arts emphasis affected student development and the long-term impact and extent of the effects of attending a liberal arts institution.

Results suggested that students attending liberal arts colleges did report higher exposure to good practices in education, especially during the first year. Some of these included high quality of teaching and high levels of interaction among students and faculty members. There were some significant effects upon student development including openness to diversity and learning for self-understanding. There were a number of long-term impacts of attending a liberal arts institution including a higher annual salary and household income for its graduates as compared to private master’s level universities (Pascarella et al., 2005).

Because many liberal arts colleges are defined by rural locale and religious affiliation, it appeared that students at these institutions are less likely to be exposed to diversity. In order to test this assumption, Kuh and Umbach (2005) utilized data from two national surveys that included responses from 98,744 undergraduate students (49,706 were first-year students and 49,038 were seniors) from 349 colleges. They found that students from liberal arts colleges reported a higher level of experiences with diversity as compared to those classified as Doctoral-Research Extensive, Doctoral-Research Intensive, Master's I and II and Baccalaureate-General.

Kuh and Umbach (2005) also compared the relationship between effective educational practices and diversity experiences. For the most part, a clear relationship existed between the two measures. One example is the positive correlation between a climate for diversity and a supportive campus environment. One study indicated that a commitment to diversity via mission statements, programming and practices, integration into classroom activities and attempts to introduce structural diversity all contributed to "diversity-rich learning environments." Kuh and Umbach's research made the case that liberal arts colleges can create valuable experiences for their students that prepare them for the real world, which is becoming more diverse each day.

According to Brint, Riddle, Turk-Bicakci, and Levy (2005), the number of degrees awarded in the liberal arts is declining. This paper explored whether or not the shift toward occupational education has historical precedents and what characterized the institutions with a focus on professional training. Historically, the importance of liberal arts education has fluctuated. In addition, institutions that are less prestigious tend to focus on the practical arts in response to the labor market. These findings suggested that liberal arts are likely to continue to be devalued and may only become significant for students planning to pursue graduate studies.

This article illuminated the tension present in the higher education environment to prepare students for the workforce, while at the same time preparing them for the world.

According to Lind (2006), a broad liberal education has never been more necessary, yet no one can decide what defines a liberal education. It is viewed by some as a non-specialized general education. Liberal education is also referred to as subject matter, like the humanities or liberal arts. Others think of the classics or the great books in regard to liberal education. Lind proposed that the tradition of liberal education is a synthesis of all of these elements with one common purpose, which is training for citizenship.

Although modern liberal education has evolved, its ultimate premise of training citizens for public life has not. Lind (2006) suggested that in an era intent on producing professionals, undergraduate liberal arts education is in trouble. Yet, there remains a need for leaders of our society, no matter the profession, “to be well-rounded, well-informed generalists if they are to make sound decisions in public and private life” (p. 58).

Because desperate times call for desperate measures, Lind (2006) proposed that defenders of liberal education consider another option. This included the possible provision of the liberal arts curriculum in secondary schools in order to ensure exposure to the principles that define a liberal arts education. Recognizing this type of reform might be quite debatable, Lind concluded with the assertion that liberal education is certain to survive in some form because society needs leaders and citizens that know how to read, write and reason.

Durden (2007) described the establishment of liberal arts education in America and its emphasis upon citizenship, character development and public service. Although these ideals seem to be disappearing from higher education in the twenty-first century, the author argued that it should be the responsibility of the higher education community to instill these values in

students. In order to reclaim the distinctiveness of a useful education, both for the individual and public, the development of a strong partnership between both academic affairs and student affairs is necessary. Durden (2007) also emphasized the fact that higher education has become very individualized. The notion that an educated person benefits both oneself and society is a thing of the past. He argued that this shift in values should be a genuine concern.

Using a sample of students that participated in the Wabash National Study of Liberal Arts Education, Seifert et al. (2008) sought to determine if certain practices in liberal arts institutions (student-faculty contact, instructor feedback, etc.) lead to liberal arts outcomes. Results of the study indicated that several outcomes including intercultural effectiveness, inclination to inquire and learn for a lifetime, psychological well-being and leadership were all affected by student experiences. The findings were significant because they indicated that students attending a liberal arts college were actually receiving a liberal arts education.

Private vs. Public Institutions

As shown, the majority of scholarly research focuses on the history of liberal education, how it is defined and its impact. It is obvious that liberal arts colleges have and will continue to be an important part of the higher education system within the United States. However, most previous studies have failed to take into account one specific part of the higher education landscape, public liberal arts colleges and universities.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2009), there are 4,634 institutions of higher education in the United States, most of which fall within a specific classification as identified by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The classifications and the respective number of institutions include: associate's colleges (1,920),

research/doctorate-granting universities (295), master's colleges and universities (728), baccalaureate colleges (808), special focus institutions (851), and tribal colleges (32).

According to the Carnegie Foundation website, the Carnegie Classification “has been the leading framework for recognizing and describing institutional diversity in U.S. higher education for the past four decades.” Since the development of the classification system in 1970 and its publication in 1973, there have been revisions in 1976, 1987, 1994, 2000, 2005 and 2010. In regard to liberal arts institutions, one major modification was the elimination of the liberal arts category. In 1987, prior to this change, 647 institutions were classified in the liberal arts category. Of those, only 32 were listed as publicly controlled and the remainder was considered private institutions.

Although there is no longer a Carnegie classification for liberal arts colleges, many institutions still consider liberal education as their primary focus. For example, the Council of Public Liberal Arts Colleges (COPLAC) website (2013), lists 27 institutions that identify themselves, through membership, as public liberal arts colleges and universities (See Appendix A). Even though these institutions only represent 0.5% of higher education in the United States and approximately 4%, using the 1987 Carnegie classification framework, they have committed themselves to liberal arts ideals established by the colonial colleges.

The Role of COPLAC

The presidents of public liberal arts institutions saw a need organize their efforts and to advocate the value of their mission with state legislators. In order to equip themselves to deal with associated challenges of being unique in that they are publicly controlled institutions with a liberal arts focus, they came together to form the Council of Public Liberal Arts Colleges (COPLAC) in 1987 (Blake, 1996). According to the COPLAC strategic plan, the mission of the

Council advances “the aims of its member institutions and drives awareness of the value of high-quality, public liberal arts education in a student-centered, residential environment” (p. 4). The mission statement reflects the unique identity of COPLAC members. These institutions

1. aspire to provide the best possible education;
2. are committed to making liberal arts education available to all and recognize their public mandate of community responsiveness;
3. exist to offer a liberal arts curriculum;
4. offer a personalized education for students; and
5. are committed to the integration of academic and student life, thus providing education for the whole student (COPLAC Strategic Plan, 2008).

The COPLAC website (2013) also outlines the activities that support the mission. These include

1. communication with state and federal policy leaders regarding the vital importance and benefits of providing students with comprehensive public higher education in the liberal arts and sciences;
2. collaboration with major national higher education organizations like the Association of American Colleges and Universities to advance the aims of liberal learning in a global society; and
3. establishment of an organizational and administrative structure that encourages member collaborations, including faculty and student exchanges, professional development opportunities for staff, faculty summer institutes, shared study-abroad programs, and enhanced information sharing.

Regional undergraduate research conferences and a web-based platform for outstanding scholarship at the undergraduate level have been incorporated into COPLAC's broader mission. According to the COPLAC website, "students who enroll at a COPLAC institution will now be engaged directly in the wider mission of public liberal arts education, the best preparation for a meaningful life and professional career."

The member institutions convene, as do most other professional organizations, to ensure they are supporting the aforementioned mission and activities. The Council sponsors yearly institutes for faculty and staff members. In addition, many members participate in the National Student Exchange and collaborate on a number of endeavors in an effort to support one another and continuously emphasize the importance of liberal learning.

"The members of the Council share in common a commitment to making accessible, in the public sector, the quality of liberal arts education usually associated with small residential private colleges" (Blake, 1996). Thus, membership in COPLAC provides these institutions with unified goals and a vision for the future of liberal arts education.

These institutions, particularly those that are members of COPLAC, seek to offer an education that prepares its students for both personal and professional success. A student-centered focus, responsiveness, providing a personalized education, emphasis on collaboration are all important components outlined by COPLAC member institutions. Yet, there is little direct research on publicly controlled liberal arts colleges and universities, particularly in order to determine the impact of these values. The manner in which an organization and its members behave and interact can provide a great deal of insight into values and their effects (Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; Bateman & Organ, 1983).

Organizational Climate

Foundations of the Study of Organizational Climate

In the 1930s, psychologist Kurt Lewin was among the first to investigate the relationship between the environment and human behavior (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). In order to determine the outcome of group behavior when exposed to variables, Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) created different “social climates” in which participants were studied. Since that time, the construct of organizational climate has been studied extensively in order to determine the impact of this relationship on organizations. The manner in which organizational climate is formed and subsequently, how the construct is defined and how it should be measured, have been central questions.

In regard to the formation of organizational climate there are three predominant perspectives, which include the structural, the perceptual and the interactionist approaches. The structural approach, considers climate to be an attribute of an organization (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Early research (Drexler, 1977; Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; Guion, 1973; Litwin & Stringer, 1968) on organizational climate led to the conclusion that the formal characteristics such as size, structure, leadership style, and goals influence the behavior of individuals within an organization and create the organizational climate.

Recognizing that the study of organizational behavior has both theoretical and practical implications, Forehand and Gilmer (1964), appreciated the need to analyze this behavior, particularly the differences in the organization’s personality or climate. Organizational climate is the “the set of characteristics that describe an organization and that (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations, (b) are relatively enduring over time, and (c) influence the behavior of people in the organization” (p. 362). These aspects of organizational climate are vital

because they can be incorporated into empirical research. Forehand and Gilmer (1964) placed a great deal of emphasis on the ability to objectively measure the variations in organizational climate. However, they synthesized various research approaches that allow for systematic observation and provide a feel for the organization's climate.

The first approach Forehand and Gilmer discussed were field studies, or observation of the actual activities that occur within an organization. While interviews, records of correspondence and organizational history provide a wealth of information, there is in all of them an inherent level of subjectivity. In the second approach presented by Forehand and Gilmer, members of an organization are the focus. This approach assesses the perceptions of participants based on the role organizational characteristics, such as structure, goals and objectives and supervisory practices. These internal perceptions provide insight that is not observable to an outsider, yet difficulty exists in determining if the individual is formulating his or her perception solely on the organizational characteristics. Objective indices such as organizational size and salaries allow for a more standard methodology that is applicable across different types of organizations. However, this type of approach does not take into consideration the relationship between the organizational properties, nor does it take into account the possible impact on institutional functioning. The final approach discussed was the experimental manipulation of climate via extrapolation of data from small groups within an organization that are applicable to the larger organization. Forehand and Gilmer concluded that that the examination of small group dimensions and the effects of organizational variables should be considered in future research.

In their book, *Motivation and Organizational Climate*, Litwin and Stringer (1968) aimed to provide a means of systemically addressing problems of management through the examination of individual behavior within organizations. They emphasized a need for managers to understand

the relationship between human motivation and environmental factors. Litwin and Stringer referred to these environmental factors as organizational climate, which is defined as “a set of measurable properties of work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behavior” (p. 1).

Employing the aforementioned definition to guide their research, Litwin and Stringer (1968) conducted both experimental research and field studies to test their theory that climate has an influence on motivation in the workplace. In an experimental study, the researchers created three simulated business organizations in which each president had a different leadership style (formal, informal, high productivity focus). The leadership styles were varied in order to produce a different climate. Using data gathered from two weeks of observation and climate scale scores, obtained through administration of a questionnaire, indicated that different organizational climates can be created by influencing leadership style inputs. Litwin and Stringer also tested the effect of climate on the following outcome variables: motivation, job satisfaction, and performance. Results showed those subjected to formal climate were tense, had low job satisfaction and low organizational performance. The informal, democratic climate resulted in high motivation and satisfaction, but only moderate performance. Finally, the motivated climate suggested a high level of satisfaction and high performance and productivity.

Litwin and Stringer (1968) also conducted field studies of organizational climate within three types of businesses, which included a service unit of a utility company, two manufacturing organizations and the subunits of a complex organization. Employees were administered a revised climate questionnaire and apperception test to measure motivation and satisfaction. If available, performance metrics of the businesses were utilized. While these reports focused on

the climate within particular organizations, they provided examples of issues managers must face and address. For example, the report of the service department of a utility company showed that the needs of employees were not being met, the climate failed to support flexibility, individual responsibility, rewards, support, or group loyalty. All of this impacted performance and resulted in dissatisfaction and resentment. To remedy this situation, Litwin and Stringer suggested to either hire employees that respond better to a highly structured environment or to change the climate to meet the needs of the current employees. These field studies, along with Litwin and Stringer's experimental research, suggested that organizational characteristics can influence behavior, and thus, determine the climate.

Pritchard and Karasick (1973) synthesized previous definitions of organizational climate and offered the following definition: "a relatively enduring quality of an organization's internal environment distinguishing it from other organizations; (a) which results from the behavior and policies of members of the organization, especially top management; (b) which is perceived by members of the organization; (c) which serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; and (d) acts as a source of pressure for directing activity" (p.126).

Recognizing that previous research on organizational climate had proposed a relationship between individuals and outcomes, such as performance and job satisfaction, Pritchard and Karasick (1973), aimed to address these findings within workgroups or subunits of an organization. The researchers surveyed 76 managers from two companies with differing organizational climates (high achievement-oriented and aggressive vs. low achievement-oriented and conservative). Participants were administered a number of questionnaires that measured organizational climate, job satisfaction, and individual needs. Individual job performance ratings were administered and utilized, as were the regional effectiveness ratings of each company.

Pritchard and Karasick (1973) also conducted an analysis to determine the influence of subunits and organizational practices and policies on climate. These results indicated that subunit climate is affected by both local and overall organizational climate. In addition, the researchers hypothesized that highly effective subunits and those with low effectiveness would exhibit different organizational climates. To test this hypothesis, possible correlations were examined between climate scores, region effectiveness and satisfaction. Findings indicated that the organizational climate conditions that accompany effectiveness and satisfaction are not necessarily the same and that climate was highly correlated to managerial satisfaction rather than to managerial performance. The final component of Pritchard and Karasick's (1973) study examined the interaction between individual needs and climate factors. The only significant finding was that individuals high in need for order performed more effectively in a high structure climate.

In response to Pritchard and Karasick's (1973) findings, Guion (1973) addressed the disquiet regarding organizational climate research. After discussing the significance of the construct and the necessity for research, Guion expressed his concern with the lack of clarity and described organizational climate as "one of the fuzziest concepts to come along in some time" (p. 121). While the concept initially was seen as an attribute of an organization, it has become more popular to view climate as attributes of individuals, or their perceptions. Guion pointed out that this shift is a function of methodological convenience, rather than an attempt to move to a different construct. Measurement of the accuracy of individuals' perceptions presents the problem of construct validity. Although the perceptions may be interesting, the question of accuracy remains. However, if accuracy is not a concern there is yet another issue. Guion claimed that if there is no external reference for accuracy, then the possibility exists that there is

no difference between current and previous research findings. Documenting several studies, Guion provided evidence that perceived organizational climate is merely a new name for job satisfaction. Ultimately, Guion recognized that a difference exists among the relationship between individuals and the organization. He suggested that perceptions can be used as estimates of attributes of organizations, but should be considered descriptive. Therefore, the organization, not the individual, is the appropriate level of analysis in determining climate.

Like Guion (1973), Johannesson (1973) also questioned whether organizational climate was a truly independent construct and argued that job satisfaction and the perceptual measurement of climate are redundant. This potential overlap might be attributed to the fact that climate researchers used items from established job satisfaction measures to create climate measures. In addition, the underlying assumption of satisfaction measures, such as the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), is that feelings influence descriptions of the work situation. So, Johannesson suggested that using methods of measurement in perceptual climate research, like asking respondents to describe their feelings about the work situation, is identical to satisfaction methods.

Along with a review of the literature, Johannesson (1973) conducted survey-based research at a large manufacturing firm using two measures of job satisfaction and one measure of organizational climate. Johannesson concluded that “organizational climate as measured in this study failed to add new or different variance to commonly identified satisfaction factors” (p 141). This provided evidence that a redundancy exists between what has historically been defined as job satisfaction and what is currently being described as perceived organizational climate. Based on this evidence, Johannesson (1973) suggested that alternative methods for assessing environments should be explored.

This assertion that organizational climate and job satisfaction is one in the same was also the subject of a study conducted by Downey, Hellriegel, Phelps, and Slocum (1974). However, their explanation varied somewhat from Johannesson. Downey, Hellriegel, Phelps, and Slocum did not claim the two were the same, but had another possible explanation for the alleged redundancy between climate and job satisfaction. They hypothesized that organizational level (president, department head, etc.) and/or job performance played a role.

In order to test this hypothesis, they surveyed 104 managers from a specialty steel firm. After administering the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to measure job satisfaction and Litwin & Stringer's (1968) organizational climate questionnaire, Downey, Hellriegel, Phelps and Slocum (1974) concluded that this data supported the notion that organizational level and job performance can account for some of the variance between climate and satisfaction. Thus, they are not one and the same.

Lawler, Hall and Oldham (1974) were also interested in the relationship between organizational structure, organizational climate and job satisfaction. Like Schneider and Hall (1972), the researchers interpreted organizational climate as a generalized perception of the organization that is formulated as a result of an individual's experiences. However, Lawler, Hall and Oldham proposed a different model in regard to the study of climate. Contrary to previous studies, the researchers viewed climate an intervening variable that is caused by independent variables such as organizational structure and administrative processes, and influences outcome variables like job satisfaction and organizational performance.

In order to test their proposed model, data was gathered from 117 directors and 291 scientists in research and development organizations. Organizational structure, process and

performance data were obtained from the directors. The scientists were administered questionnaires in order to rate both organizational climate and satisfaction on a scale.

Findings indicated that the participants did not perceive a relationship between structural variables and organizational climate. While there was some support that organizational processes are related to climate, there was stronger support for the link to satisfaction and performance. The researchers concluded that climate seems to be influenced by factors that directly affect a person's daily work experiences, rather than organizational structure.

In direct response to Johannesson's (1973) claim that organizational climate and job satisfaction are redundant, LaFollette and Sims (1975) conducted a study among employees at a major medical complex and each employee was administered three questionnaires that measured organizational climate, organizational practices, and job satisfaction. Their job performance was also rated by supervisors. Correlations were used to evaluate the relationships between the instruments and job performance. Results showed that job performance was highly related to 33% of the climate factors, 21% to the practices factors and 100% to the measure of job satisfaction. According to LaFollette and Sims (1975), these findings would not vary so dramatically if the measures were redundant as Johannesson (1973) claimed. If they were redundant, then equal correlations could be expected, but this was not the case. Based on previous studies (Taylor & Bowers, 1972; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Hand, Richards, & Slocum, 1973; Downey, Hellriegel, Phelps & Slocum, 1974) and their own research, LaFollette and Sims (1975) concluded that there is a body of evidence that casts doubt on the redundancy thesis and supports the climate-causes-satisfaction thesis.

The growing body of research on organizational climate and the contradictory findings served as the catalyst for Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) to analyze the existing knowledge-base.

They presented a critical review of the research on what they referred to as “one of the most important but least understood concepts in management—organizational climate” (p. 255).

Hellriegel and Slocum began by defining organizational climate as “a set of attributes which can be perceived about a particular organization and/or its subsystems, and that may be induced from the way that organization and/or its subsystems deal with their members and environment” (p. 256).

Hellriegel and Slocum examined (1974) the following dimensions of 31 studies: (a) the author(s) and source of the studies; (b) the instrument or means of measuring climate; (c) description of the sample population; (d) how the organizational climate construct was used (i.e. independent, dependent, intervening, or interacting variable); (e) summary statement of the empirical findings; and (f) the level of research rigor used. The results of Hellriegel and Slocum’s (1974) critical analysis found that were few studies achieved a sophisticated level of research rigor. In regard to the other variables, Hellriegel and Slocum (1974) suggested that this data is evidence “that most researchers have not specified the external environment impinging upon the subsystem, the type of technology, or the possible interactions of these variables on the individual’s perceptions of his climate” (p.277). As a result, an effective climate in one type of environment may be dysfunctional in another type of environment. External criteria should be given the same consideration as internal criteria and concentrate on possible linkages between the two.

James and Jones (1974) also presented a review of the existing literature on organizational climate in attempt to provide further clarity. This review yielded a classification of the various approaches to conceptualizing and measuring organizational climate. These

included the multiple measurement-organizational approach, the perceptual measurement-organizational approach and the perceptual measurement-individual approach.

Using different terminology, James and Jones' (1974) described the structural approach as the multiple measurement-organizational attribute. The research of Forehand and Gilmer (1964) and Litwin and Stringer (1968) were discussed as being representative of this approach. In short, the variance in the organization's environment is based upon the situational factors (e.g. structure, norms, physical environment, etc.).

The second category, perceptual measurement-organizational attribute approach is a comprehensive perspective that incorporates both the organizational processes and the psychological processes of organizational members. In describing this approach, James and Jones (1974), cited the work of Campbell et al. (1970) and Pritchard and Karasick (1973), who claimed that organizational climate is determined by psychological processes in a particular situation and that organizational climate variables are considered to be either causative or moderator factors for performance and attitudes. However, questions regarding accuracy of perceptions and achieving consensus among perceivers suggests, according to James and Jones, that pure perceptual measurement is not ideal and that different sources of measurement of organizational climate are needed.

The third approach to measurement or organizational climate is what James and Jones (1974) referred to this as the perceptual measurement – individual attribute approach. Referencing a number of studies by Schneider and his associates (Schneider, 1972, 1973; Schneider & Bartlett, 1968, 1970; Schneider & Hall, 1972), this approach is described as one that focuses on the "perceptions held by individuals about their organizational environment"

(p.1105). Although the physical environment plays an important role, it is the individual perceptions that are most important.

After summarizing all three approaches (multiple measurement-organizational attribute, perceptual measurement-organizational attribute, and perceptual measurement-individual attribute), James and Jones (1974) concluded with several concerns and recommendations. The first is that organizational climate should not continue to be defined by specific measurement techniques, but that theoretical and conceptual issues should guide measurement. In addition, there should be a differentiation between organizational climate (organizational attributes) and psychological climate (individual attributes). They proposed the following: (a) a need to determine the conceptual bounds, variables and dimensions; (b) investigation of multiple sources of measurement; (c) address accuracy of perceptual climate measures with respect to objective climate variables; (d) address the role of consensus versus diversity of a perception; (e) determine where organizational climate fits within models of organizational analysis; (f) determine the appropriate level of analysis for data; and (g) investigate the relationship between organizational climate measures and individual behaviors and attitudes and organizational performance.

The ongoing debate surrounding the structural and perceptual approaches, led Gavin (1975) to conduct a study of managerial level bank employees. He intended “(a) to examine the personal and organizational correlates of climate perceptions and (b) to assess how personal and organizational variables might interact in the determination of climate perceptions” (p. 135). Data was collected in three areas: biographical, organizational climate perceptions and organizational variables. Although the results provided no support regarding the interaction between personal and organizational variables, both accounted for small but significant amounts

of variance in organizational climate perceptions. Therefore, Gavin concluded that both organizational and personal factors were instrumental in climate perceptions.

Rather than conduct an exhaustive review of the literature on organizational climate, Schneider (1975) intended to aid in the understanding of employee behavior via presentation of evidence about the climate concept and present a framework to guide future research. As a result, the how and why of the development and use of climate perceptions was addressed. Schneider also discussed the conceptualization and/or operationalization issues in assessing climate and the differentiation of climate from job satisfaction.

Schneider (1975) began with discussion about the nature and function of climate perceptions. He suggested that much of the organizational climate research is based upon two assumptions, which are that humans seek order in their environment to create order through thought or individuals create order in their environment so they can adapt their behavior to the work environment. Schneider cited numerous studies (Ryan, 1970; Dieterly & Schneider, 1974; Newcomb, 1961; White & Lippitt, 1968) that provide evidence that supports the idea that people adapt or attempt to adapt to the climate of their situation.

Schneider (1975) also provided his perspective on some recurring issues such as how climate is conceptualized, how to measure climate, what to measure and how climate measures differ from those intended to measure attitudes (i.e. job satisfaction). In relation to job satisfaction, Schneider argued that satisfaction is the study of an individual affective and organizational climate has a descriptive organizational orientation. Ultimately, the unit of analysis and conceptualization of climate depends upon the problem to be researched. Schneider's conclusions led to the development of the following definition of organizational climate:

Climate perceptions are psychologically meaningful molar descriptions that people can agree characterize a system's practices and procedures. By its practices and procedures a system may create many climates. People perceive climates because the molar perceptions function as frames of reference for the attainment of some congruity between behavior and the system's practices and procedures. However, if the climate is one which reward and support the display of individual differences, people in the same system will not behave similarly. Further, because satisfaction is a person's evaluation of a system's practices and procedures, people in the system will tend to agree less on their satisfaction than on their descriptions of the system's climate. (p. 475)

On the heels of Schneider's (1975) study, Payne, Fineman, and Wall (1976) revisited the conceptual differences between organizational climate and job satisfaction and posed questions similar to those of previous researchers (Guion, 1973; James & Jones, 1974; Schneider, 1975). The following questions were examined: (1) Are organizational climate and job satisfaction operationally the same? (2) Is organizational climate applicable to organizations or individuals? (3) Are measures of organizational climate and job satisfaction descriptive or affective?

Considering the first question, Payne, Fineman and Wall (1976) theorized that there should be common aspects about specific jobs and the organizational context of those jobs. Despite potential overlap, there are conceptual differences. The first is that job satisfaction is concerned with a particular job and the organizational climate focuses on the organization as whole. The other difference is that organizational climate is derived from an individual's description of the organization and satisfaction is concerned with an individual's affective response to his or her job.

Payne, Fineman and Wall's (1976) second question addressed whether organizational climate is relevant to the explanation of the behavior of organizations or individuals. While using individuals as the unit of analysis is more popular, the question still remains. In response to the final question, Payne Fineman and Wall proposed that organizational climate is clearly a descriptive measure and job satisfaction is affective. Due to the tendency of correlation between

climate and satisfaction, the researchers suggested the focus be on distinguishing between the description of the climate and one's satisfaction with that climate and not one's job. Clarifying how one views climate and how satisfied he or she is with the climate will allow some separation of affect.

According to Drexler (1977), if organizational climate distinguishes an organization, then a level of variance should exist. Yet, it should also be relatively homogenous within an organization. In order to test variation between organizations and the strength of departmental effects, Drexler utilized data from the Survey of Organizations data bank. Descriptive statistics were compared for 6,996 individuals within 21 organizations. Using four climate indexes comprised of 13 items, an average climate score was calculated. Variance in organizational climate was found to be organization specific, and therefore, should be considered to be an organizational attribute.

The foundational studies that investigated organizational climate transformed the manner in which organizational behavior was viewed. Growing interest in the concept of organizational climate called for additional research aimed at further clarification. At the same time, this innovation raised a number of questions and consensus was difficult. There was debate over what constituted the organizational climate construct and how it should be defined, whether it was a function of the individual or the organization, and how organizational climate should be measured.

Expansion of the Concept

In the 1980s, the research on organizational climate the focus shifted. Previous studies (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; LaFollette & Sims, 1975) provide evidence regarding the value of organizational climate; therefore it was no longer a fundamental question. Researchers began to

explore the impact more fully, determine how climate is formed and consider whether the previous perspectives were sufficient in and of themselves.

Schneider and Reichers' (1983) began their review of the literature by summarizing the conceptual and methodological progress made in organizational climate research. This is followed by an exploration of the etiology of climates, or the manner in which climate emerges. Finally, Schneider and Reichers present their perspective on the development of climate and its implications.

Based on the conceptual advances of the climate construct, Schneider and Reichers (1983) considered the research thus far to be quite significant because it provided an alternative to the motivation theories for behavior at work. Another advancement that previous climate research provided was that its focus on group level data brought additional attention to the importance of group membership and group influences on individual and organizational functioning. The third contribution that resulted from climate research was the distinction between psychological climates, or the meanings and individual attaches to a work context, and organizational climates, which are the summated meanings attached to a particular feature of a work setting. The final conceptual advance, outlined by Schneider and Reichers, was that work settings have numerous climates bases on the notion that people perceive organizational events in related sets.

In terms of methodological advances, Schneider and Reichers (1983) first pointed to those early studies that failed to measure climate. Therefore, the movement away from merely making inferences based on experimental manipulations to utilizing measurement techniques represented notable progress. Another area of progress was the differentiation of climate from attitudinal measures, such as job satisfaction. Previous research (i.e. Guion, 1973; Johannesson,

1973) found little difference between climate and satisfaction because climate perceptions were considered both evaluative and descriptive. However, they are divergent concepts when climates are conceptualized descriptively.

While progress has been made in terms of measuring climate, Schneider and Reichers (1983) pointed out two issues that remain unsolved. The first pertained to the multi-dimensional nature of climate and the fact that non-specific measures of climate fail to take into account. Therefore, understanding specific issues is difficult if the measure is aimed at assessing the climate of the entire organization. Another concern raised was in regard to appropriately aggregating employee responses so they represent larger social units. Schneider and Reichers recommended that prior to data collection researchers need to ensure that the instrument is relatively descriptive and refers to the unit (individual, subsystem) of interest.

After discussing the developments in organizational climate research, Schneider and Reichers (1983) discussed the etiology of climates. They suggested a more complete understanding of how climates emerge can lead to further understanding of the climate concept and further methodological progress. The central question posed was “how is it that individuals who are confronted with a vast array of stimuli in the work environment come to have relatively homogenous perception of those stimuli?” (p. 25).

In regard to how climates emerge, Schneider and Reichers (1983) outlined two approaches, the structural approach and the selection-attraction-attrition approach, and proposed a third, symbolic interactionism. The structural approach or view, organizational settings influence attitudes and perceptions of organizational events and thus climate emerges from objective aspects such as the organization’s size, hierarchy, etc. However, the empirical relationships between climates and structural elements are inconsistent. In addition, this

approach fails to account for differences that arise in climates across work groups within the same organization.

Another explanation that Schneider and Reichers (1983) discussed is the selection-attraction-attribution (SAA) approach. This approach suggests that “organizational processes such as selection into the organization and individual processes such as attraction to the organization and attrition from the organization combine to produce relatively homogenous memberships in any one organization” (p. 26). Simply stated, members of the organization are similar and therefore they have similar perceptions. This approach, according to Schneider and Reichers (1983) also falls short because it does not take into account differences among climates among groups within one organization. In addition, this approach is the opposite of the structural approach and places the source of perceptions primarily with the individual.

While these other approaches cannot completely explain how climates emerge, Schneider and Reichers (1983) suggested that perhaps symbolic interactionism provided a better account. Based on Mead’s (1934) concept social behaviorism, in which the social context of behavior is important in explaining identity and meaning, Schneider and Reichers suggested that “climates emerge out of the interactions that members of a work group have with each other” (p. 30). An applicable example is newcomer socialization. As newcomers to an organization experience the socialization process, it aids in understanding expectations and learning their roles in the organization. The same processes, according to Schneider and Reichers, also gives rise to climates because social interactions lead to understanding of various aspects of the organization and to similar perceptions.

In regard to the etiology of climates, Schneider and Reichers (1983) suggested that all three perspectives have something to offer. Yet the first two do not account for the differences in

climate between different groups as does the symbolic interactionist approach. Groups of employees that interact with one another on a regular basis will attach meaning to certain events, practices or procedures. Another implication of the symbolic interactionist approach is that it “allows for the construction of some conceptual bridges” (p. 36). Exploring these relationships can lead to management of climate. For example, it may be possible to change the climate by introducing newcomers to the group. Finally, this approach accounts for changing interaction patterns and thus the dynamic and static nature of climates in different organizations.

Attempting to explain how organizational climate is formed, Ashforth (1985) expanded the interactionist perspective originally proposed by Schneider and Reichers (1983). Ashforth aimed to clarify the symbolic interactionist perspective by focusing on five roles. These include (a) the workgroup; (b) affect; (c) corporate culture; (d) symbolic management; and (e) the physical setting. Ashforth recognized the notion that climate perceptions are a function of social interactions, but also attempted to explain how interactions are bounded within an organization.

According to Ashforth (1985), those within a workgroup tend to have similar backgrounds, interests and demographic characteristics. As a result of these similarities, beliefs are apt to be similar. Those in the workgroup are likely to constitute a compatible group for coworkers to compare themselves. So interaction occurs on another level besides physical boundaries, like symbolic interactionism suggests. Interaction also takes place because of perceived interpersonal similarities. The members of a workgroup also develop a common stake in the perpetuation of the group, which is regulated by norms and expectations. As a result, perceptions are resistant to change.

Although symbolic interactionism focuses on the sense-making activity, Ashforth (1985) claimed that the role of affect is equally as important. Using the literature on newcomer

socialization, Ashforth discussed the desire for social integration and the desire to reduce anxiety. He suggested that both affective desires induce individuals to be less critical than they might otherwise be and to act more in a more accommodating manner. As a result, “climate perceptions are likely to be more stable than implied by the interactionist perspective” (p.841).

Ashforth (1985) also explained the role of culture and its relationship to climate. According to Ashforth, culture informs climate both directly and indirectly informs climate. Culture helps individuals decide what is important and also make sense of experiences and in an indirect manner it affects climate through its impact on the objective work environment. Therefore, an etiology of the climates should seek to understand the cultures that likely inform them.

The symbolic interactionist approach suggests that individuals shape one another’s understanding. However, Ashforth (1985) suggested that the process by which individuals come to understand a situation is not as spontaneous, but it can be managed. So, managing symbols (slogans, stories, etc.) can affect how one views the climate. Organizational leadership can therefore create someone’s reality and that individual may begin to see a climate consistent with the manner in which management would like.

The final extension on the etiology of climates is the role of the physical setting. Physical characteristics such as boundaries (walls or partitions), level of comfort, crowding, etc. facilitate climate perceptions. The physical setting also plays a symbolic role. Titles, uniforms, etc. indicate that authority is valued. Consequently, employees make inferences about the climate.

While Ashforth (1985) acknowledged that the interactionist approach offers a viable explanation about how climate is formed, some extensions of the perspective were discussed. Expanding on previous research, Ashforth highlighted five areas that needed additional

clarification. Examining the roles of the workgroup, affect, culture, symbolic management, and physical setting led Ashforth to conclude that more research on the formation of climate is necessary.

Reconsideration and Re-examination

While Ashforth (1985) and many others called for more research on organizational climate, interest appeared to wane, particularly following numerous studies conducted during the 1960s and 1970s. Thumin and Thumin (2011) pointed out that some, like Glick (1985), alleged this was attributable to conceptual and methodical discrepancies and others like Schneider (1985) suggested the slowdown was based on greater acceptance of the concept and more recently, it was due to the fact that a number of scales had been developed (2000). No matter the reason for this period of inactivity, several years passed before there was a resurgence of interest in organizational climate.

Similar to previous research (Schneider & Reichers, 1983; Ashforth, 1985), Moran and Volkwein (1992) presented and examined the three approaches (structural, perceptual and interactive) to the formation of organizational climate. Building on Schneider and Reichers' (1983) interactive approach, Moran and Volkwein (1992) presented a fourth model by which climate emerges, which is the cultural approach. It "incorporates the interaction of group members as a key determinant of organizational climate, but further posits the predominate influence on these interactions is the shared knowledge and meanings presented by the organization's culture" (p. 19). The definition of organizational climate proposed by Moran and Volkwein is based on the insights offered by the cultural approach. It is as follows: "organizational climate is a relatively enduring characteristic of an organization which distinguishes it from other organizations and (a) embodies members collective perceptions about

their organization with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation, and fairness; (b) is produced by member interaction; (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the organization's culture; and (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behavior" (p. 19).

While previous approaches regarding the formation of organizational climate indicated progress in the development of the concept, they did not fully explain the fact that culture influences the perceptions and interactions of individuals within an organization (Moran & Volkwein, 1992). Rather than the psychological focus inherent in the interactive approach, the cultural approach is a more sociological one that concentrates on the manner by which groups interpret, construct, and negotiate reality through the creation of an organizational culture. In responding to the organizational environment, the cultural model suggests that organizational climate is created by a group of individuals that interact and share a common frame of reference, which is the culture.

While culture plays a critical role in shaping processes that produce organizational climate, the two concepts are not one in the same. Moran and Volkwein (1992) used Schein's definition of culture, which is "the pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and that have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel as related to those problems" (1985, p. 3). Several features highlight the distinction between the two constructs. Culture is highly enduring and slow to evolve, whereas climate is relatively enduring and forms more quickly and alters more rapidly. With roots in social psychology, climate focuses on perceptions and culture was originally the domain of anthropologists that analyzed the symbols, myths, and

rituals of group members. With all of this said, the responses to events and activities within an organization are significant to both climate and culture. The shared meanings create overlap and provide the basis for Moran and Volkwein's argument.

Denison's (1996) view was similar to that of Moran and Volkwein in that organizational culture and climate are conceptually linked to one another. According to Denison (1996), a steadfast way to determine the difference between the two is based on methodology. Culture typically is studied using qualitative research methods, whereas organizational climate is more often examined using quantitative methods. Another widely accepted difference exists in the temporal orientation. Culture is more permanent because it "refers to the deep structure of organizations, which is rooted in the values, beliefs, and assumptions held by organizational members" (p. 624). In contrast, climate is comprised of organizational members' perceptions and as a result they are considered more temporary. The theoretical foundation on which each is based is another distinction. Organizational climate developed from Kurt Lewin's (1951) field theory, which analytically separates the individual from the social context. So individuals work within the climate, but do not create it. Culture is based on Mead's (1934) theory on symbolic interaction in which the social context is the medium and the outcome of social interaction.

On the surface, there appears to be a clear distinction between organizational climate and culture. Yet Denison (1996) recognized the existence of similarities that warranted consideration. These areas of convergence include parallel definitions, central theoretical issues, content and substance, epistemology and methods, and theoretical foundations. As a result, climate and culture "should be viewed as differences in interpretation rather than differences in the phenomenon" (p. 645). Denison further suggested that the focus should be shifted from the

existing paradigm wars to integration of research methods, literature and practical applications in the field.

Taking into account the historical issues brought forth in organizational climate research, some of the more research has attempted to shift that focus as Denison (1996) advised. Zhang and Liu (2010) used a human resources management perspective and re-visited similar questions posed by many of the early studies on organizational climate. The relationship between organizational climate and other organizational variables such as organizational structure and size, job satisfaction, turnover and performance was examined.

Using a recently developed organizational climate measure, Zhang and Liu's (2010) results were supported by some of the earlier organizational climate studies. For example, results indicated that situational or structural factors such the size of the organization and salary impacted climate, which is similar to the results of research conducted by Forehand and Gilmer (1964) and Litwin and Stringer (1968). Another notable finding was the effect of organizational climate on organizational effectiveness. Several factors such as educational level, job specialty, leadership and communication were found to effectively predict group performance.

Thumin and Thumin's (2011) research is another example of modifying the research focus of organizational climate studies to be more practical rather than dwelling on differences and definitions. They developed a new organizational climate instrument, the Survey of Organizational Characteristics (SOC), and incorporated items pertaining to job satisfaction. "The decision to treat job satisfaction as a dimension of climate or a related but independent and conceptually distinct measure appears to be a matter of personal preference," according to Thumin and Thumin. Recognizing the argument that job satisfaction and organizational climate are conceptually distinct, the researchers found that the two to be highly correlated and suggested

that feelings about one's job will inevitably affect feelings about one's organization, and vice versa. One of the important facets of organizational climate is employee job satisfaction. In Thumin and Thumin's study, as well as most prior research, measures of job satisfaction have emerged as strongly predicting or explaining employees' assessment of the climate of their organization.

Thumin and Thumin (2011) also weighed in on the culture versus climate debate. To bridge the ideological gap to this never ending debate, the researchers took the position that climate is a single measure of the broader concept of culture, and perhaps, the term climate should no longer be used. Contrary to some of the early studies of organizational climate, Thumin and Thumin advocated for flexibility and open-mindedness in regard to measurement. Rather than argue over methodologies and the proper approach, the best, most revealing, and most accurate assessment will result from appreciating the variety of methodologies available and using all of the tools in the interdisciplinary toolkit.

Organizational Climate Research in Educational Settings

Whether it is banks, grocery stores or manufacturing firms, many of the aforementioned studies were conducted in a corporate setting. While the business environment seemed to be the most likely context for research on organizational behavior, researchers slowly began to apply organizational theory to education (Greenfield, 1973). Haplin and Croft (1963) were among the first to examine the environment of primary and secondary schools and shortly thereafter, Pace and Stern (1968) developed an instrument to objectively and systematically measure college environments.

Primary and Secondary Education

In 1963, Haplin and Croft developed the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ). The OCDQ was designed to portray the climate of an elementary school and was one of the early measures of organizational climate within schools. Organizational climate, according to Haplin and Croft, “can be construed as the organizational personality of a school; figuratively, personality is to the individual what climate is to the organization” (p. 1).

In response to the observation that the organizational personality, or climate, of schools varies, the researchers set out to capture this useful information for school administrators. In development of the OCDQ, Haplin and Croft (1963) Croft were able to differentiate six organizational climate types, which included:

1. open, which is described as a lively organization moving toward its goals and is characterized by authentic behavior;
2. autonomous, wherein decisions are made via group consensus with little control by a leader;
3. controlled, is depicted as being extremely task-oriented and lacks openness or authentic behavior;
4. familiar, is highly personal, but has a lack of control;
5. paternal, is defined by a principal that fulfill the role of the leader and discourages leadership from others;
6. and closed, which is characterized as a stagnant organization where a high degree of apathy exists.

Through this study, Haplin and Croft (1963) recognized the element of authentic or open behavior in schools and conceptualized the six climate types. Both represented significant contributions to the literature.

Using the Haplin and Croft's (1963) Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), Kenney and Rentz (1970) surveyed 2,047 teachers from 90 urban elementary schools. This sample was unlike the one used in the development of the questionnaire, therefore, Kenney and Rentz intended to test whether the factor structure was the same as that in the original instrument. If not, the researchers intended to identify how the two factor structures differ. This study also examined if there were outside sources that had an internal influence on school climate.

After the teachers' responses were subjected to factor analysis, Kenney and Rentz (1970) found four factors, which included: Factor 1, Principal as Authority Figure; Factor 2, Teacher and Teacher Group Perception; Factor 3, Non-Classroom Teacher Satisfaction, and Factor 4, Work Conditions. Obviously, a number of identifiable factors were not the same as Haplin and Croft's original eight factors (disengagement, hindrance, esprit, intimacy, aloofness, production emphasis, thrust, and consideration). The factors that were a result of Kenney and Rentz's analysis provided insight to the perceptions that can influence the climate. These included (1) the view of the principal as an authority figure, (2) the negative view of the teacher group, (3) low satisfaction with work inside the classroom and (4) teacher frustration.

Although Brookover, Schweitzer, Schneider, Beady, Flood and Wisenbaker (1978) did not specifically study urban schools like Kenney and Rentz (1970), the researchers were interested in the potential impact of the composition of the student body on achievement.

Brookover et al. proposed that school climate, rather than composition, is responsible for much of the variance in achievement between schools.

Students attending public elementary schools were surveyed and Brookover et al. (1978) also gathered data regarding the occupations of parents to determine the mean socio-economic status of each school. The racial composition of each school was also obtained from the State Department of Education and was utilized in this study. The dependent variable, mean achievement of students, was calculated from school level state achievement data.

The researchers compared three groups, which included the entire sample of schools, the schools that were comprised of a majority of white students and those schools with a majority composition of minority students. Results from the analysis found that the combination of socio-economic status, racial composition and climate variable accounted for more than one-half of the variance in mean achievement between schools. However, less than 10 percent was attributable to socio-economic status and racial composition. Therefore, Brookover et al. concluded that composition variables, when used alone, are not adequate measures of the impact of school climate.

To supplement the results from the statistical analyses, school observations were also conducted at four schools. Notable observations in higher achieving schools included the fact that teachers spent a larger portion of class time in instruction and used more group-focused activities. Whereas, the schools with lower achievement levels were unwilling to invest in the students and confusion regarding positive and negative reinforcement was evident. These observed differences, according to Brookover et al. (1978), may also contribute to the differences in achievement between schools.

Anderson (1982) also considered the effect of climate on schools. In a review of over 200 studies, Anderson (1982) suggested that although there are few unifying threads regarding school climate, there is some harmony. Areas of agreement include the existence of climate within schools, difficulty in description and measurement of the construct, the influence of other dimensions on climate, the influence of climate on other dimensions (student outcomes, values, satisfaction). Anderson also emphasized that developing a better understanding of climate will lead to improved understanding of student behavior.

The question pertaining to how climate is formed is unrelenting and is also subject to debate within the school climate literature. Anderson (1982) examined three differing theoretical perspectives. These include the input-output theory, sociological theory and the ecological theory. A school, according to *input-output theory*, is viewed as an organization that converts inputs into outputs. This perspective takes an economic slant in that allocation of resources will lead to particular outputs. So, more money, materials or superior teaching techniques will create positive climate. *Sociological theory* considers schools to be a “cultural system of social relationships” (Anderson, 1982, p. 382). This perspective examines the relationships that are a part of schools, such as students, parents, teachers and families. Learning outcomes differ based on the degree of difference in the school social environment. The third perspective on how school climate is formed is based on *ecological theory* and incorporates elements of both input-output and sociological theories. Simply put, Anderson described ecological theory as a perspective that explores the entire system. The variables within the school system can be modified for the benefit of student outcomes.

The theoretical orientation (i.e. input-output, sociological or ecological) of the researcher typically influences the instrument utilized to measure school climate. Anderson (1982) chose to

use Tagiuri's (1968) taxonomy (ecology, milieu, social system, culture) as a means to examine the impact on student outcomes. According to Tagiuri, an organization's ecology are the physical and material aspects, its milieu is the social dimension, its social system is concerned with the patterned relationships of organizational members and the culture refers to belief systems, values, etc.

Ecology variables, such as building characteristics and size, have shown low or inconsistent relationships with student outcomes. However, Anderson (1982) discussed some studies (Duke & Perry, 1978; Rutter et al., 1979) that demonstrated that these variables could potentially mediate climate. Characteristics of students and teachers, along with their morale, make up the milieu of a school and have also been incorporated in school climate research. For the most part, student and teacher characteristics had little impact on school climate, but morale of both groups was related to achievement. Social system variables are quite diverse and therefore, findings vary. A few of the variables that characterize the patterns of relationships in schools include administrative organization, shared decision-making among teachers and students, opportunity for student participation. Along with social system variables, cultural variables such as teacher commitment, peer norms, cooperative emphasis, expectations, emphasis on academics, rewards and praise, consistency, consensus and clear goals have been studied a bit more extensively. According to Anderson, the values and belief systems of various groups within a school have shown a definite relationship with climate and student outcomes.

After an extensive review of research on school climate, Anderson (1982) concluded with consideration of how best to identify school climate and how to relate it to student outcomes. In order for school climate research to be meaningful there is a need for specification of causal models. Using the possible ecology, milieu, social system and culture variables, Anderson

proposes that it can encompass all of the possible relationships among the dimensions in a school environment and linking these relationships to student outcomes.

Organizational climate, according to Hoy and Clover (1986) “is a relatively enduring quality of the school environment that (a) is affected by the principal’s leadership, (b) is experienced by teachers, (c) influences members’ behavior, and (d) is based on collective perceptions. In order to measure the impact or changes in the situation, Hoy and Clover evaluated the most well-known conceptualization and measure of school climate, which is the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), and offered a revised version.

The OCDQ had not been revised since Haplin and Croft (1963) developed the instrument. So, Hoy and Clover (1986) voiced a number of concerns that provided justification for the necessity of a revision. Issues associated with the original instrument included questions of reliability and validity, conceptual problems, lack of underlying logic in the framework, the vagueness of some of the dimensions, the ambiguity of the climate continuum, the exclusion of students and the unit of analysis being the individual rather than the school.

In revising the OCDQ, Hoy and Clover (1986) assessed the original items and generated some new items. In order to address other concerns, such as the unit of analysis, a pilot study was conducted. Factor analysis was conducted to reduce the number of items and exploratory factor analyses were also performed. As a result, several subtests were eliminated including aloofness, academic press and pupil control items. This reduced the number of items to 42 and yielded a six-factor solution. These dimensions were categorized as principal behaviors (supportive, directive, and restrictive) and teacher behaviors (collegial, intimate, and disengaged).

The revised OCDQ, or OCDQ-RE, was administered to 1,071 teachers from 70 elementary schools in New Jersey. A factor analysis supported the structure developed in the pilot study, reliability scores were high and the construct validity was supported. A second-order factor analysis was conducted on the six dimensions to determine whether the behaviors are open or closed and determine the type of climate. Hoy and Clover's (1986) organizational climate typology is outlined in Figure 1.

		Principal Behavior	
Teachers' Behavior		Open	Closed
Open		Open Climate	Engaged Climate
Closed		Disengaged Climate	Closed Climate

Figure 1. Typology of School Organizational Climate

Even after the development of the OCDQ-RE, the assessment school climate continued to be a concern. In 1991, Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp published the book *Open Schools, Healthy Schools: Measuring School Climate*. The purpose outlined in the preface of the text is “to provide educational researchers with a set of reliable and valid measures to study the nature of the school workplace, and to provide practitioners with a set of tools to evaluate their school climate with an aim toward organizational improvement.” The researchers began with a discussion on the nature of the workplace, outlined the details of revision of the OCDQ and proposed a modification of the OCDQ for secondary schools. Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp (1991) also created two inventories to measure school health and offered guidance in utilizing these measures.

Organizational climate is a useful perspective, according to Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp (1991) because it captures the distinctive atmospheres of schools and it has also become a

component of school effectiveness. In addition to climate, organizational culture has also been used as a model for evaluating effectiveness. Therefore, both climate and culture are considered. The researchers suggested that choosing the appropriate framework is dependent upon the analysis. If the purpose is to determine underlying forces that motivate behavior, then a cultural approach would be preferable. However, a climate approach is more desirable for describing the actual behavior, managing and potentially changing that behavior.

After deciding a climate approach is most appropriate for studying teacher and principal behavior, Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp (1991) turn to how to measure the behavior. They presented the details of the development of the OCDQ-RE as previously outlined by Hoy and Clover (1986) and also proposed a modification of the instrument in order to assess climate within secondary schools. The Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire for Secondary Schools, OCDQ-RS, was developed to address characteristics unique to secondary schools. Some of these included the interaction that teachers have with administrators other than the principal and the fact that teachers in secondary schools consider themselves to as specialists in their particular subject.

The OCDQ-RS went through several stages of development, as did the revision of the original OCDQ. The result was a 34-item questionnaire that addressed five aspects of school climate including supportive principal behavior, directive principal behavior, engaged teacher behavior, frustrated teacher behavior and intimate teacher behavior. These five aspects form the two basic aspects of school climate, which are openness and intimacy.

In addition to school climate, Hoy, Tarter and Kottkamp (1991) were also concerned with the health of the institution and developed an inventory to for both elementary and secondary schools. Pertinent research regarding both climate and organizational health are outlined. Hoy,

Tarter and Kottkamp (1991) concluded with advice and encouragement for others to use of the instruments presented in the text.

With existing instruments to measure the climate of both elementary schools (OCDQ-RE) and secondary schools (OCDQ-RS), Hoy, Hoffman, Sabo and Bliss (1996) emphasized the fact that the climate of middle schools had not been conceptualized and operationalized like that of both elementary and secondary schools. According to Hoy et al., the philosophy and structure of middle schools are relatively distinct. Therefore, the instruments developed specifically for elementary schools (OCDQ-RE) and for secondary schools (OCDQ-RS) are not adequate for middle schools.

The researchers addressed this need by developing the OCDQ-RM. Hoy et al. (1996) used a process similar to that used in the development of previous version of the OCDQ. The phases included:

1. conceptualizing school climate;
2. generating items to operationalize the climate construct;
3. conducting a pilot study to reduce and refine the items and dimensions of school climate;
4. conducting a second study to test the stability of the factor structure of the construct; and
5. testing the reliability of the instrument.

The result was a 50-item questionnaire that the researchers collected data from 2,777 middle school teachers in New Jersey. The analysis of the data had the same results as those Hoy and Clover (1986) found during the development of the OCDQ-RE. Using the organizational climate typology, Hoy et al. (1996) hypothesized that a school with open climate would lead

others to perceive principals' and teachers' behavior as more authentic. Two authenticity scales, the leader authenticity scale and the teacher authenticity scale, were administered to a separate random sample than those that responded to the OCDQ-RM. The results of correlations among dimensions of openness and authenticity supported the researchers' predictions. In order to get a clear picture, the authenticity was regressed on the components of openness among principals (supportive, directive, and restrictive) and teachers (collegial, committed, and disengaged). Supportive principal behavior and collegial teacher behavior were the strongest predictors of authenticity. Both dimensions of climate, openness and authenticity, define four climates types – open, engaged, disengaged and closed.

According to Hoy et al., the development of the OCDQ-RM has theoretical, research and practical implications. Hoy et al. proposed that their typology of school climate is a framework for the study of a number of important issues including school effectiveness, structure, decision-making, etc. In a more practical sense, the instrument can be utilized as a diagnostic tool to guide action, to gain a real sense of teacher perceptions and as a tool for professional development.

Freiberg and Stein (1999) also conveyed the importance of collecting and utilizing data to foster learning. They argued that “school climate is the heart and soul of a school” and climate is important to learning because it can define the quality of a school that creates healthy learning places (p. 11). Therefore, one must determine the impact of climate on the learning process, use that information to improve and sustain positive, healthy environment.

In regard to the measurement of climate, Freiberg and Stein (1999) grouped techniques into two categories, including direct and indirect measures. Direct measures such as surveys, interviews and observations require a high level of contact. Using indirect measures (i.e. records,

turnover rates, and student achievement information) eliminates the need for interaction of the researcher and the teachers and students.

However, data collection is not useful unless it is used to guide decision-making and determine what needs to be changed or sustained. This process is not a one-time transaction. According to Freiberg and Stein (1999), “continuous improvement requires continuous information about the learner and the learning environment” (p. 24).

If a school finds itself with an unhealthy climate, the strategies for change must be implemented quickly and must be highly visible. At the same time, a reflection upon the circumstances that created a poor climate and consistent effort toward improving those circumstances is necessary. As with improving climate, sustaining a healthy climate is no easy task and requires continuous examination, effort and commitment. With a goal of a healthy learning environment, those associated with a school need to ask the key questions, which include: (a) where did we begin, (b) where we are now, and (c) where are we going?

In 2002, Hoy, Smith & Sweetland, developed the Organizational Climate Index (OCI) to capture “open and healthy dimensions of high school climates at the student, teacher, principal and community levels” (p. 38). In developing this survey, the researchers combined the OCDQ and OHI, which were previously developed by Hoy and his colleagues. The process of developing the instrument included: selection of the items, conducting a factor analysis, refining the conceptual framework, identifying the subtests and checking the reliability of each dimension (institutional vulnerability, collegial leadership, professional teacher behavior, achievement press).

The second aspect of the study was to determine if schools with open and healthy climates have more trusting faculty. The Faculty Trust Survey was administered and a separate

set of teachers, selected at random, were administered the OCI. Findings indicated that there was moderate correlation between the three aspects of trusts (colleagues, principal and clients). In regard to the OCI, moderate correlations existed between achievement press and collegial leadership and teacher behavior, but achievement press was not related to institutional vulnerability. In addition, collegial leadership was positively associated with professional teacher behavior and negatively related to institutional vulnerability. When considering these together professional teacher behavior was found to be key to developing trust in colleagues. The researchers conclude that the OCI is a reliable and valid diagnostic tool that can be used to identify symptoms of issues that need to be addressed in order to provide an environment that is imbued with trust and positive personal dynamics.

The aforementioned research touts the importance of school climate and how it can be a useful method for in the organizational development process. Cohen, Pickeral and McCloskey (2008) concur and outlined a number of ways in which positive school climate enhances student success. It promotes academic achievement and healthy development among students and promotes teacher retention. Therefore, schools use school climate as a form of assessment that both measures learning and supports it.

There are a number of ways to measure school climate such as focus groups, interviews, observation, surveys, etc. However, Cohen, Pickeral, and McCloskey (2008) suggested that surveys are best in evaluating school climate. The survey instrument must be scientifically sound and comprehensive in (1) “recognizing student, parent, and school personnel voice and (2) assessing all of the dimensions that color and shape the process of teaching and learning and educators’ and students’ experiences in the school building” (p. 46). There are few measures that meet both criteria. One exception is the Comprehensive School Climate Inventory, which was

developed by the Center for Social and Emotional Education (CSEE). This inventory measures the four major factors that shape school climate which are safety, relationships, teaching and learning and institutional environment.

Data can provide meaningful information about the degree to which the five essential factors shape school climate. Using this information creates a positive learning environments and aids in the education of the whole child. Cohen, Pickeral, and McCloskey (2008) offer three ways in which data can support these efforts. These include gauging activity for improvement, encouraging teachers, principals, and superintendents, students and other stakeholders to work together in building a high-quality learning environment and supporting students' learning through effective school-family-community partnerships. After all, the goals of education are not just to facilitate linguistic and mathematical learning, but to educate the whole child. Using school climate data to help define success within schools is a step toward doing so.

Higher Education

The college environment has also been subject to exploration. Previous research on the college level explored “the atmosphere, the style of life, or the general institutional context, within which student learning, growth and development take place” (Pace, 1968, p.130). In order to objectively and systematically measure college environments, Pace and Stern (1958) developed the College Characteristics Index (CCI). While this instrument uses individual students as the unit of analysis, the College and University Environment Scales, or CUES, which Pace later developed, focuses on a collective perception of students. So if students agreed on a statement by two to one or greater, then the statement was considered a characteristic of the college. According to Pace (1968), another way to characterize the college environment is to consider the individuals that make up that environment. The Environmental Assessment

Technique (Astin & Holland, 1961) assumes that college environment is a product of size, student intelligence and personal characteristics of students. Another instrument, the College Student Questionnaire examines the presence and characteristic of student subcultures.

Despite differing approaches, some similarities regarding the college environment were discovered. These major dimensions, according to Pace (1968), include scholarship, humanistic matters, vocational, collegiate and bureaucratic elements, a sense of community and friendliness/affiliation. While some congruency exists on the various dimensions, the diversity among college environments is great. For example, the scores on the CUES scales (Scholarship, Awareness, Community, Propriety and Practicality) vary greatly among liberal arts colleges. Pace discussed another possible conclusion that has resulted from study of college environments, which is the incongruence of the rules and practices on a college campus. If the goal is to obtain a particular objective, then one must consider that the classroom practices, student personnel policies, library rules, peer group activities, etc. are all functionally related.

In order to better understand the higher education environment and its various groups and subgroups, Hartnett and Centra (1974) used data that was gathered in the development of the Institutional Functioning Inventory (IFI). Respondents' scores are based on eleven scales (intellectual-aesthetic extracurriculum, freedom, human diversity, concern for improvement of society, concern for undergraduate learning, democratic governance, meeting local needs, self-study and planning, concern for advancing knowledge, concern for innovation and institutional spirit). Using the scores of faculty, administrators and students, the researchers compared their view of the collegiate environment and considered possible differences among faculty subgroups.

Comparing IFI scores of faculty with situational variables (academic discipline, academic rank, teaching load and tenure), yielded moderate correlations and implied that their perceptions are not highly influenced by these variables. In regard to administrators, findings indicated that they had a more favorable view of the academic environment. There were also notable correlations between the institutional means of different groups on the same scale. Six of the eleven correlations among faculty and administrators were over .90, as were four of the six faculty/student correlations. While only one correlation was above .90 for students and administrators, the majority were above .70. Harnett and Centra proposed that these scores are indicative of a high level of consensus among faculty, administrators and students and that there is presence of one generally accepted environment, rather than several environments dependent upon group membership.

Also interested in the dynamics of subgroups within colleges and universities, Moran and Volkwein (1988) used data from the Higher Education Management Institutes' (HEMI) data bank to examine organizational climate at nine higher education institutions to answer two questions that have been consistently asked in organizational climate literature. The first is whether organizational climate has greater relevance at the organization or subunit level. The second question pertains to specific ways in which organizations with positive climates vary from those with negative climates.

Moran and Volkwein (1988) began to address both questions by outlining the findings from prior research on organizational climate. If organizational climate is relevant at the organizational level, Moran and Volkwein predicted that the climate would vary significantly among campuses. They chose to study nine campuses that were similar in control (publicly supported), mission, and size (2,000-11,000 students). From these campuses, the respondents

were 2,937 board members, presidents, administrators, faculty, staff and students that had been surveyed to determine their attitudes and perceptions. The response measure was the HEMI questionnaire section on organizational climate.

After conducting an analysis of variance on the data, Moran and Volkwein (1988) found that organizational climate does vary significantly among campuses and concluded that climate can be viewed as an organizational level characteristic. In addition, this variance was compared to variance within intra-organizational units, or workgroups. Other characteristics, the individual role (administrator, department chair, faculty) were considered, along with length of service (>1 year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, <15 years). Only data from two campuses was large enough to analyze workgroups, however there were significant effects for organization, role and workgroup. However, the subunits, particularly academic departments, accounted for the highest proportion of variance in climate. Contrary to the findings of Hartnett and Centra (1974), the results suggested that the departments or work groups are important factors in determining the institution's climate.

Moran and Volkwein (1988) also attempted to determine if the organizational climate scores of individual roles (administrators, faculty and department chairs) impacted the perception of climate. The findings indicated that administrators mean score was 5.30, whereas faculty was 5.21 and the mean climate score for department chairs was 4.87. So, administrators had a more positive perception than faculty and significant differences were found between the climates scores of faculty and administrators at seven of the nine institutions. Therefore, Moran and Volkwein concluded that one's role in an organization does appear to influence organizational climate.

In order to gain insight into the dynamics of climate, Moran and Volkwein (1988) also compared positive and negative climates. Using the Wilks lambda method, a discriminant analysis conducted on the organization with the highest climate score to the one with the lowest produced an interesting result. Apparently, other traditional aspects of administration/faculty relations are not as important as goal setting and holding individuals accountable to performance standards. The latter helps create and maintain a positive perception. These factors are typically associated with organizational effectiveness; therefore Moran and Volkwein suggested that administrators take note of the possible relationship between the climate and setting clear goals and at the same time consider the potential influence of workgroups.

While the relationship between culture and climate was the subject of corporate climate studies (Denison, 1996), several researchers (Peterson & Spencer, 1990; Rhoads & Tierney, 1990) studied the same within the context of higher education institutions. Tierney (1990) claimed that “the climate and culture of an organization are two of the more difficult aspects to understand about colleges and universities” (p. 1). This lack of understanding has created confusion and difficulty in differentiation among the concepts.

Peterson and Spencer (1990) pointed out that within higher education institutions, it is common to hear the terms environment, culture and climate used to describe a wide array of different organizational phenomena. Despite the confusion, organizational climate and culture have been researched quite extensively. The findings have proved to be useful in understanding the complexities of organizational operations and as the concepts have evolved, both climate and culture perform several important functions.

Peterson and Spencer (1990) highlighted several studies that are significant. For example, Tichy (1983) identified culture as a major factor in effectiveness and Blackburn and Pitney

(1988) outlined the importance of organizational climate in relation to individual performance. Peterson and Spencer maintained that “culture and climate provide members with and reflect their understanding of the purpose or meaning of their organization and their work” (p. 4). Increased accountability and increased competition for students and funding necessitates attention to an institutional image that reflects positive culture and climate.

Culture and climate are often used interchangeably. However, Peterson and Spencer (1990) point out a number of distinctions. The study of culture, for the most part, originates from anthropology, sociology, linguistics, and more recently, organizational behavior and psychology. Climate study, however, emanates from cognitive and social psychology and organizational behavior studies. The major features of culture include (1) emphasis on an organization’s uniqueness and its meaning to its members, (2) its depth and enduring nature, and (3) rigidity and difficulty to change. On the other hand, an understanding of climate is characterized by (1) a primary emphasis on common participant views of a wide array of organizational phenomenon that allow for comparison among groups over time, (2) a focus on current patterns of beliefs and behaviors, and (3) its malleable character.

Although there are differences, Peterson and Spencer (1990) suggested that both culture and climate are useful in understanding college and university environments. Some of the most popular approaches for understanding and studying culture are geospatial; traditions, myths, and artifacts; behavioral patterns and processes; and espoused versus embedded values. Models for climate study include objective climate, perceived climate and psychological/felt climate.

The geospatial approach to the study of culture is the first outlined by Peterson and Spencer (1990). This approach focuses “on tangible and visible physical elements that have shared meaning within the culture” (Peterson & Spencer, 1990). An example of this approach would

include the architecture of an institution. Considering the traditions, myths and artifacts can potentially aid in the discovery of assumptions that guide individual behavior. Behavioral patterns and processes represent another approach for studying culture. These are present in the organization's operations and are sometimes referred to as the "social architecture." The shared values of beliefs of organizational members represent the final set of approaches. These can be explicit, like mission statements, or implicit actions of individuals. Peterson and Spencer (1990) recognized the potential insight that each provides, but also acknowledged the holistic nature of organizational culture. Therefore, they recommended that the study of culture should not be limited to one particular approach.

Peterson and Spencer (1990) discussed the conceptual foundations for climate research and placed them into three broad categories. The first, objective climate includes patterns of behavior or formal activity that can be observed directly or objectively. While useful, objective climate does not capture the attitudes, perceptions and motivational consequences of organizational climate. Perceived climate "focuses on the cognitive images that participants have of how organizational life actually does function and how it should function" (p. 12). The concern with perceived climate is selecting among the many aspects of organizational life and deciding what to do with the data. Although not often used, Peterson and Spencer (1990) mentioned the motivational dimension of work, or the psychological or felt climate. This would include the morale, satisfaction, loyalty and commitment among employees.

Even after discussion the definitions, dimensions, distinctions and models of culture and climate, the picture still remained a bit fuzzy. Thus, Peterson and Spencer (1990) summarized possible issues that need further attention. These considerations include whether to adopt a broad or specific focus; determining if culture is something the organization has or is; questioning

whether climate is intrinsic or extrinsic use of quantitative or qualitative methods; utilization of culture and climate as an independent, intervening or dependent variable; examination of variables over time to mitigate other changes and the potential impact; and take the subculture or sub-climate into account.

More recently, Duggan (2008) examined climate perceptions in the context of community colleges. This study specifically focused on non-instructional staff perceptions, the impact of gender on staff interactions with faculty and students, and the impact of gender on staff perceptions of job satisfaction. Respondents from seventy-five public and private two-year institutions in six states were asked to respond to a 60-item survey that explored the work environment. Survey questions addressed interactions with faculty and students, workplace satisfaction, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and perceptions of organizational climate.

Findings indicated that female respondents had more interaction with the campus community, were more committed to the organization and were only slightly more satisfied with their work. In relation to organizational climate measured by peer support, supervisory support, and organizational support some variance did exist across gender. However, the peer support scale was the only one with significant difference based on gender. Duggan (2008) proposed that understanding what constitutes a positive climate and understanding “the gendered nature of underlying practices and perceptions affecting climate, steps can be taken to change the climate to meet the needs of all employees” (p. 54).

Like Duggan (2008), Thomas (2008) also chose to study organizational climate at a particular type of higher education institution. Whereas, Duggan focused on the two-year system,

Thomas conducted a study of organizational climate perceptions and commitment among administrators, faculty and staff at four evangelical higher education institutions.

A total of 2,076 employees were surveyed and 947 employees responded, which resulted in a 46% response rate. Demographic data was collected and climate was assessed using the Personal Assessment of the College Environment (PACE). The PACE questionnaire measures four dimensions including institutional structure, supervisory relationship, teamwork and student focus. Participants also responded to the 18-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ).

According to Thomas (2008), the mean climate scores of the data collected on the PACE survey indicated a perceived positive climate among the respondents at Christian higher education institutions. In regard to commitment, Thomas (2008) found no significant relationship between the administrators' and faculty members' perceptions of organizational climate and the level of commitment to the organization. However, there was a negative significant correlation between climate and commitment scores for staff. This is an interesting finding that indicated that when staff members employed at Christian higher education institutions are more satisfied with the climate, they are less committed to the organization. Thomas offered a number of explanations for this result, which is contrary to previous research. A high percentage of survey respondents were staff, the reversed scoring direction of the PACE survey, unfamiliarity with surveys and large sample size could have impacted the results. The final explanation is the possibility of employees maintaining employment at Christian higher education institutions for some other reason not assessed by the OCQ. Ultimately, Thomas concluded that organizational climate may or may not be a predictor of one's commitment to his or her place of employment.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Both organizational climate and organizational citizenship behaviors have been studied extensively. Based on the Pritchard and Karasick's (1973) definition, organizational climate is part of the internal environment that results from the behavior and policies of members of the organization. Climate is perceived by members of the organization, serves as a basis for interpreting the situation acts as a source of pressure for directing activity. Organizational citizenship behavior is a component of climate that specifically encompasses the informal behaviors that are part of the work environment. Evidence has shown that both impact organizational functioning (Drexler, 1977; Forehand & Gilmer, 1964; Guion, 1973; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Moran & Volkwein, 1992; Organ, 1988; Karambayya, 1990; Walz & Niehoff, 1996; Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & McKenzie, 1997).

Definition and Dimensionality

Bateman and Organ (1983) introduced the concept of employee citizenship, later to be defined as organizational citizenship behavior. Bateman and Organ based the construct of organizational citizenship behavior on the research of Katz and Kahn (1966) on supra-role behavior, or behavior that cannot be prescribed or required in advance for a given job. These behaviors are not part of the performance of usual tasks, but help the organization function. Some examples of citizenship behaviors are: helping coworkers with a job related problem, promoting a work climate that is tolerable and minimizes distractions created by interpersonal conflicts and protecting and conserving organizational resources.

Based on citizenship behavior, Bateman and Organ (1983) predicted that a causal connection exists between prior overall satisfaction and subsequent display of a host of citizenship behaviors. In addition, strong satisfaction with supervision was also expected. To test

this prediction, the researchers surveyed non-academic administrators at a state university. Participants' responded to the Job Descriptive Index and immediate supervisors of each respondent, rated a variety of behaviors the authors considered to be related to citizenship. These included compliance, altruism, dependability, housecleaning, complaints, waste, cooperation, criticism of and arguing with others and punctuality.

After conducting data analysis, Bateman and Organ were not able to find evidence of causality. However, the results indicated that all dimensions of job satisfaction were positively related to citizenship behavior. The researchers suggested using citizenship behavior for future research because of its potential value to managers and organizations in providing for a broader understanding of employee behavior.

Smith, Dennis, and Near (1983) predicted that one's mood, as well as environmental and individual variables might predict citizenship behaviors. In order to uncover the possible determinants of citizenship behavior, the researchers surveyed employees and their supervisors at two banks. Several measures were used to measure citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction, leader supportiveness, task interdependence, extraversion and neuroticism, and belief in a just world.

Results suggested that two types of organizational citizenship behavior exist. The researchers referred to these as altruism and general compliance. Altruism is helping someone that needs aid and is specifically aimed at individuals. Whereas, general compliance is characterized by conscientiousness that is indirectly helpful, such as using time wisely and being punctual. Other notable findings included that a positive mood, characterized by job satisfaction in this study, and leader supportiveness, an environmental factor, both influenced altruism. In addition, general compliance was also support to leader supportiveness. The researchers concluded that it appeared that job satisfaction affected organizational citizenship behavior, and

that at the very least there were some non-affective determinants of altruism and generalized compliance. This early research did just as Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) suggested and that organizational citizenship behavior was worthy of study in its own right.

Building on initial research conducted in 1983, Organ (1988) elaborated on the original definition of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), or “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4). While similar to the initial definition, Organ clarified three aspects of the original definition and further defined the dimensions that make up organizational citizenship behavior. The first was the term discretionary, which is considered behavior that is not an enforceable requirement of the job and is a matter of personal choice, rather than being a part of the employment contract. The second clarification Organ outlined was the notion that organizational citizenship behavior is not directly tied to the reward system and those participating in these behaviors receive no formal reward for doing so. Simply put, rewards, if any, are indirect and uncertain as compared to formal rewards, such as high productivity. The final characteristic that was addressed in more detail was that organizational citizenship behaviors contribute to effectiveness. Not each instance of OCB is effective, but in the aggregate and over time, it would make a difference in organizational outcomes.

In attempt to provide even more clarification of the definition of organizational citizenship behavior, Organ (1988) expanded categories of discretionary behavior and highlighted how each contributes of organizational efficiency either on the individual or organizational level. These included altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue. Altruism was still considered to include behaviors that were directed at helping

others and can contribute to both individual and organizational effectiveness. Organ had previously considered the remaining four behaviors in the category of generalized compliance. Also valuable to both the individual and organization is conscientiousness, or the wise use of time and resources. Sportsmanship allows time to be spent on activities critical to the organization, rather than focusing on petty issues. Courtesy within and organization creates less friction because members of the organization receive necessary information to maximize the use of time. By participating in activities and attending functions that are not required, civic virtue, helps to enhance the image of the organization.

According to LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002), organizations have shifted from strict hierarchical to more team-based structures. As a result, individual initiative and cooperation has become more significant in the workplace. Based on this trend and because of the impact organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has on the organization's social system, researchers and scholars have become more interested in OCB. Even though previous research examined the relationships among the dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior and a variety of correlates, LePine, et al. recognized that the research was deficient in its focus on how the dimensions of OCB relate to one another and how the dimensions are related to other variables. Therefore, LePine, et al. conducted a meta-analysis to assess the relationships among the behavioral dimensions of OCB and the relationships between behavioral dimensions and a common set of predictors.

To assess the questions regarding dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior, LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002), first conducted a literature review. Using the dimensions proposed by Organ (1988), which include altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy, and sportsmanship, Le Pine, Erez and Johnson conducted a meta-analysis using the random effects

(RE) method in order to model and test for significant differential relationships. Results showed that with the possible exception of sportsmanship, that all of the dimensions were related to one another.

In the second set of analyses, the researchers studied relationships between organizational citizenship behavior dimensions and predictors. Based on the popularity of certain predictors of OCB in the literature, the following were examined: job satisfaction, commitment, fairness, leader support and conscientiousness. Each predictor was found to be statistically significant, suggesting the relationship between the predictors and OCB does not depend on how OCB is behaviorally defined. Although scholars suggest that OCB is composed of conceptually distinct behavioral dimensions, LePine, Erez, and Johnson's research suggested that this is not necessarily the case.

Based on these results LePine, et al. (2002) offered several alternatives. First is the notion that scholars might consider OCB as a latent construct and avoid focusing on the specific dimensions of OCB when conducting research and interpreting results. However, the dimensions seem to be conceptually distinct, so the researchers propose another alternative, which is to consider OCB as an aggregate construct. Rather than focus on the frequency of OCB, the measure should obtain ratings of how likely an employee is to engage in these types of behaviors. Ultimately, LePine and Johnson suggested an increased "effort focused on developing theory that can guide OCB measurement and analysis" (p. 62).

Predictors and Correlates

Although Organ's research was central in defining what constitutes organizational citizenship behaviors, others began to investigate why employees engage in these types of behaviors. Researchers have investigated various constructs and their relationship with

organizational citizenship behaviors. Some of the more common include job satisfaction, commitment, leadership, fairness, justice, and job performance.

Job Satisfaction

A number of studies have provided empirical evidence that suggested a relationship between OCB and job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988, Smith, et al, 1983). Schnake (1991) suggested that job satisfaction may explain why individuals engage in OCB, which is to repay the organization. In earlier research, Organ (1988) suggested that satisfaction may have more bearing on OCB than other factors that are related to task performance like skill, resources, etc. Considering these studies, Organ and Lingl (1995) suggested that rather than a causal relationship, that there might be stable personality factors that underlie both satisfaction and OCB. As a result, there would be a correlation between the two. To assess whether personality can explain the relationship between OCB and satisfaction, employees of two companies were surveyed. Results indicated that linkages did exist between personality and satisfaction. The two dimensions tested, agreeableness and conscientiousness, the researchers concluded that former might explain some of the variance between OCB and satisfaction. However, Organ and Lingl also suggested that satisfaction might account uniquely for the variance in OCB. While there was some association, the results were not conclusive to suggest that personality definitely accounted for the correlation between job satisfaction and OCB.

According to Turnipseed and Murkison (2000), the role of personality is that it can alter, negate or enhance behavior in response to organizational stimuli. Thus, the overall work environment and its relationship to OCB is key. There are many variables such as interpersonal relations and supervision that may account for different types of relationships with OCB. In this study of military personnel, six of the eight hypotheses were supported. Ultimately, the

researchers concluded that satisfaction with the organization produced more organizational citizenship behavior among soldiers.

Citing a lack of research, Williams and Anderson (1991) intended to demonstrate the discretionary behaviors that characterized organizational citizenship can be distinguished empirically from in-role behaviors. Like many organizational climate researchers, Williams and Anderson were also interested in the role that job satisfaction and organizational commitment might play. To ascertain whether in-role behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors are distinct types of performance, Williams and Anderson (1991) surveyed participants and their supervisors. The participants were asked to respond to questions about performance, satisfaction and commitment, whereas the supervisors completed a survey that only included items related to performance.

Analysis of the data supported the hypothesis that in-role behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors on the individual level and organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization are indeed distinctive from one another. In regard to satisfaction and commitment, results showed that there were some correlations between the cognitive components of job satisfaction and no correlations existed between commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Commitment

Although Williams and Anderson (1991) found no correlation between commitment and OCB, other research has demonstrated a significant relationship between the two. Organizational commitment, or “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in organization,” has also been studied in conjunction with organizational citizenship behavior (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p. 226).

Like other researchers, Schappe (1998) examined several correlates. The purpose of Schappe's study was to "determine the relative contributions of job satisfaction, procedural justice, and organizational commitment in predicting OCB" (p.278). While previous research studied satisfaction, justice and commitment together, none had previously considered all three simultaneously. Analyzing data collected from three surveys, Schappe's conclusions were somewhat contrary to the findings of previous studies. When considering satisfaction, justice and commitment, only organizational commitment emerged as a significant predictor of OCB. Schappe offered practical implications of this study within the context of managing organizational behavior. The first is that managers should not rely on traditional conceptualizations of job performance and should expand their view to incorporate innovative behavior that is critical to effective functioning of the organization. In addition, managers need to know how to "better manage and promote the relationship between meaningful organizational attitudes, such as commitment, and beneficial organizational behavior, such as OCB" (p. 288).

Leadership, Fairness, and Justice

Since servant leaders have a pervasive focus on developing others, Walumbwa, Hartnell and Oke (2010) examined the association between the leader and employee organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Whereas previous research demonstrated a positive relationship between servant leadership and OCB (Deluga, 1994; Ehrhart, 2004; Lapiere & Hackett, 2007; Burton, Sablynski & Sekiguchi, 2008; Liden et al., 2008; Neubert, et al., 2008; Johnson, et al., 2009), Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke focused on understanding how the two are related. Results indicated that leadership influences OCB through different mechanisms, including employee perceptions of self-efficacy and commitment to the supervisor. In addition to individual-level attitudes, the researchers also considered contextual mechanisms and found that two different types of climate, procedural justice climate and service climate, partially mediated the

relationship between servant leadership and OCB. Simply stated, Walumbwa, Hartnell and Oke's findings suggested "that servant leadership is instrumental in developing positive climates that can be then be used to enhance employee citizenship behavior in organizations" (p. 527).

Deluga's (1994) research supported the findings of Walumbwa, Hartnell and Oke and the impact of leadership on organizational citizenship behavior. Deluga found that supervisor fairness was correlated to most of the dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, Williams, Pitre, and Zainbuba (2002) found that employees who believed they were treated fairly by their supervisors were more likely to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors. Moore and Love's (2005) research indicated that lower levels of trust and fairness, led to lower levels of organizational citizenship behavior.

Efficiency, Effectiveness, and Organizational Performance

In 1988, Organ clarified the organizational citizenship construct and proposed that institutional effectiveness was a consequence of organizational citizenship behavior. Over time, other researchers have come to the same conclusion (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & McKenzie, 1997; Walz & Niehoff, 1996).

Recognizing the empirical data that supported the link between organizational citizenship behaviors and effectiveness, Karambayya (1990) explored how organizations can foster these desirable behaviors. Rather than trying to hire and retain those with predispositions to citizenship behavior, Karambayya proposed that perhaps identifying contextual characteristics that have implications for the desired set of behaviors and fostering an environment that is favorable to those behaviors is more practical.

Using slightly differing dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior, Karambayya (1990) conceptualized it in terms of:

1. personal industry, or the aspects of ones' own work like rule obedience or effective use of time;
2. individual initiative, which is directed toward the whole work and includes innovation and creativity;
3. interpersonal helping is directed toward helping others; and
4. loyal boosterism, or presenting the organization in a positive manner.

The relationship between each type of citizenship behaviors and eight contextual variables was analyzed. These variables included work unit size, work unit homogeneity, work unit stability, task interdependence, interaction within the work unit, culture, complexity of technology and rewards. Karambayya's (1990) analysis showed that factors in the work context, such as culture, work technology and task interdependence, did have an impact on organizational citizenship behaviors. Another important finding was that citizenship behavior does not go completely unrewarded as many of the previous studies suggested.

The empirical evidence in Karambayya's study, as well as others, compelled Organ (1997) to take another look at its central characteristics. In this article, the researcher again refined the discretionary terminology and the non-contractual rewards components of the definition of organizational citizenship behavior. In describing organizational citizenship behaviors as discretionary or extra-role behaviors, Organ addressed the notion that issues with defining these behaviors are possibly inherent in the lack of clarity in the concepts of "role" and "job" themselves. Recognizing that the workplace and job descriptions are ever-changing, Organ reiterated that organizational citizenship behaviors are "discretionary in the sense of going beyond the enforceable requirements of the job description" (p. 88). Although Organ clarified the non-contractual rewards component or organizational citizenship behavior in previous

research, again it was spelled out in this article. Organ does not deny that some forms of organizational citizenship behavior can lead to rewards in the workplace, but simply that they are not part of the formal reward system. In regard to the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and effectiveness, there has been less criticism. In fact, Organ pointed out that there have been several studies that have been supportive.

One study Organ referred to was a study conducted by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994). This research consisted of two studies pertaining to individual and work unit performance in relation to organizational citizenship behavior. In the first study, Podsakoff and MacKenzie used a confirmatory factor analysis to compare managers' performance ratings and organizational citizenship behavior scores of over 900 employees in the insurance business. Findings indicated that although organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is not a part of the formal duties of a job, managers still evaluate employees based on OCBs.

Results from Podsakoff and MacKenzie's (1994) second study revealed that organizational citizenship behaviors not only impact individual performance, but also impact group or work unit performance. Using the data from the first study, the data was aggregated at the work unit level and the researchers used a unit performance index to compare scores to organizational citizenship behavior ratings. Over one-fifth of the variance (17%) in overall unit performance was accounted for by organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Thus, Podsakoff and MacKenzie concluded that OCBs make an important contribution to organizational effectiveness.

Whereas Podsakoff and McKenzie (1994) found that organizational citizenship behaviors at the unit-level were important in regard to effectiveness, Walz and Niehoff (1996) examined organizational citizenship behaviors in regard to organizational-level performance. In order to

examine this issue, Walz and Niehoff used Organ's (1988) model of organizational citizenship behavior and multiple criteria for organizational effectiveness.

Data was gathered via a questionnaire from 34 general managers of fast-food or limited-menu restaurants (LMR). The managers also assessed organizational citizenship behaviors of employees. Data on effectiveness included an overall performance rating from the manager and financial and customer satisfaction data were also gathered from company records. After gathering all of the data, Walz and Niehoff tested two hypotheses. The first was that organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), in the aggregate will discriminate between high-, medium- and low-performing LMRs. The results of the analysis indicated that "managers of high performing LMRs generally rated higher levels of OCB in their employees; whereas, lower levels of OCB were associated with low performing LMRs" (p.310). The second hypothesis tested was that all organizational citizenship behavior dimensions, in aggregate, will be significantly associated with organizational effectiveness. Results showed that the dimensions of OCB were significantly significant in regard to a number of effectiveness criteria. For example, as employees exhibited helping behavior, operating efficiency, customer satisfaction and quality were higher.

In 1997, Podsakoff and MacKenzie revisited literature on organizational citizenship behaviors and provided a summary of the potential reasons why citizenship behaviors influence organizational performance. Evidence has shown that organizational citizenship behaviors may enhance coworker productivity, managerial productivity, free up resources for more productive purposes, reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions, serve as an effective means of coordinating activities between team members and across work groups, enhance the organization's ability to attract and retain the best employees, enhance the stability

of organizational performance and enhance the organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes.

Some studies have outlined and investigated the consequences of organizational citizenship behavior in regard to organizational performance. For example, Chen, Hui & Segó (1998) found that employees that exhibit citizenship behaviors are less likely to leave the organization. Thus, the cost of turnover is reduced in organizations that foster citizenship behaviors.

Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009) conducted a meta-analysis of over 200 studies in order to examine both individual and organizational level consequences of organizational citizenship behavior. On the individual level, Podsakoff and her colleagues found that ratings of employee performance and reward allocation decisions were positively related to organizational citizenship behavior. This is significant because it "suggests that managers consider organizational citizenship behavior to be an important part of an employee's overall contribution to the organization" (p.131). In regard to turnover, turnover intentions and absenteeism, the findings were similar to those of Chen, Hui, and Segó (1998), in that all were negatively related to organizational citizenship behavior.

Considering organizational or unit level performance, Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff and Blume (2009) found that organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) was negatively related to costs and unit-level turnover. However, OCB was positively related to a number of effectiveness measures such as productivity, efficiency and profitability. The results provided "compelling support for Organ's (1988) contention that citizenship behaviors, are in the aggregate, related to measures of organizational effectiveness" (p.132). Due to the fact that OCB affects both individual and organizational relationships in a positive manner, it challenges the notion that

employees exhibit OCB to manage impressions and devote less time to their jobs, thus creating inefficiency.

Chahal and Mehta (2010) outlined the importance of organizational citizenship behavior in the healthcare industry. Recognizing the potential impact on absenteeism, turnover, satisfaction and loyalty, the authors insisted that it was necessary to understand the impact of organizational citizenship behavior in strengthening the relationship with consumer, enhancing organizational image and ultimately organizational performance.

More recently, Ozer (2011) examined how the social exchange between coworkers might mediate the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and performance. Since employees perform their jobs within social environments that include their coworkers, Ozer evaluated whether team member exchange (TMX) has beneficial outcomes for both individual employees and the organization as a whole. Data was collected from employees, coworkers and supervisors from 266 firms taking part in a jewelry exhibition. Matched questionnaires were analyzed and results confirmed that relationships between employees, or team-member exchange, mediated the OCB-performance relationship.

Because previous research (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Whiting et al., 2008) reported a great deal of variation in the strength of the OCB-performance relationship, Ozer (2011) also considered the role of task autonomy in moderating this relationship. Task autonomy gives employees the flexibility to exchange information with their coworkers, therefore, it was expected that the outcome of this study also confirm that task autonomy would moderate the relationship between OCB and TMX and TMX and performance. For organizational citizenship behaviors targeted toward individuals, like offering proactive advice, task autonomy did serve as a positive moderator for this relationship. However, for OCBs targeted toward the organization

(e.g. arriving to work on time) did not. Ozer (2011) suggested that although OCBs targeted toward the organization relate to performance, it just does so through different mechanisms than OCBs targeted toward individuals.

Based on the results, Ozer (2011) offered several practical implications. First, organizations “that are interested in fostering a social and psychological environment conducive to the accomplishment of organizational goals” should create opportunities for employees to perform organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). In addition, managers might also consider granting task autonomy to those who are likely to perform OCBs at work, rather than granting it uniformly. Therefore, assisting those who benefit from it and avoid overburdening those that do not need task autonomy. Because OCBs enable employees to improve their performance, it does not inhibit performance on tasks. So Ozer (2011) suggested that organizations find ways to alleviate any stressful feelings employees may feel in response to fulfilling multiple roles beyond those associated with their tasks. Based on the results that show OCBs (on the individual level) work through team member exchange (TMX) to improve performance, managers might also benefit from assigning employees with a high propensity to exhibit OCBs to a job that required a high level of team member exchange.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Research in Education

Although organizational citizenship behavior has been studied in various types of organizations, research in educational settings has received less attention, particularly in regard to colleges and universities. Skarlicki and Latham (1995) examined organizational citizenship behavior in higher education and DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) were among the first to study organizational citizenship behavior in a school setting.

Skarlicki and Latham (1995) developed a survey specifically to measure organizational citizenship behaviors among faculty. Participants in the study included faculty from two business

departments and one psychology department from three separate universities. Results suggested that the items that define organizational citizenship behaviors are generalizable across the same industry and also supported the notion of organizational citizenship behavior as a two-dimensional construct. The most significant finding, according to Skarlicki and Latham, was that certain types of citizenship behavior may contribute to, while other may detract from, an individual's performance. When faculty exhibit behaviors that benefit the organization, then it might hinder personal productivity. So, if the focus is one on effective teaching, which benefits the organization, then there might not be time to focus on scholarship activity necessary to achieve tenure.

Whereas Skarlicki and Latham's (1995) research was conducted in the higher education environment and used departments as the unit of analysis, DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) measured organizational citizenship behaviors within schools and therefore the entire school served as the unit of analysis for their study. The purpose of DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran's (2001) research was to determine if OCB has the potential to influence the effectiveness of schools in the same ways as in other types of organizations. In doing so, the researchers also looked at the relationship between OCBs and school climate, which is characterized by the collective perceptions of participants of routine behavior within the school. Previous research (Hoy, et al., 1991) found that creating a positive, open climate in schools is related to effectiveness. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) hypothesized that professionals within schools with open, healthy climates will exhibit greater citizenship with colleagues as well as in serving their students.

In order to test their hypothesis, DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) developed the Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools Scale (OCBSS) and also administered

participants the School Climate Index (SCI). Findings indicated that the pervasive climate of a school is strongly related to citizenship behaviors. For example, in schools with a clear focus on academic achievement, employees acted like citizens of the school, rather than tourists. Teachers that exhibited greater levels of professionalism were more altruistic and helpful because their goals were congruent with the organizational mission. Organizational citizenship behavior was also more evident where the principal had a more collegial leadership style. With this, the researchers concluded that a strong climate was positively related to the cultivation of organizational citizenship behavior in schools.

DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran's (2001) conclusions also indicated that the type of organizational setting determines what constitutes organizational citizenship behaviors. In schools, "the distinction between helping individuals and furthering the organizational mission is blurred, because the mission is synonymous with helping others" (p. 442). Although organizational citizenship behaviors had previously been found to consist of two to five dimensions, DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran's study found only one factor in K-12 schools. In addition, this research also provided schools with another means of explaining the social processes of effective schools.

In further exploration of organizational citizenship behaviors, DiPaola, Tarter and Hoy (2007), reexamined the OCBSS in order to refine the measure and extend its use beyond elementary schools into both middle and high schools. After replicating and confirming the factor analysis of DiPaola and Tschannen and Moran (2001), the new measure called the Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) Scale was shortened and tested to ensure validity and reliability. In both the high school and middle school context, the OCB Scale supported the

single, integrated concept of organizational citizenship, was found to be reliable and stable and to work well in both contexts.

To test the OCB's predictive validity, DiPaola, Tarter and Hoy (2007) presented a conceptual framework that hypothesized that collegial leadership of the principal, teacher professionalism, academic press, school mindfulness and perceptions of effectiveness would be theoretically linked to organizational citizenship. The first three were tested using subscales of Hoy, Smith and Sweetland's (2002) Organizational Climate Index. The M-scale (Hoy et. al, 2004) was used to test school mindfulness and perceptions of effectiveness were tested using the School Effectiveness Survey (Hoy and Miskel, 2001). Using data collected from 75 middle schools, all five hypotheses were found to be correlated with organizational citizenship and supported the validity of the OCB Scale.

After concluding that the OCB worked well in both high schools and middle schools, the researchers turned to elementary schools. The OCB was also an effective measure of citizenship behavior in elementary schools. Having developed and tested a new measure of organizational citizenship for schools, DiPaola, Tarter and Hoy (2007) concluded that the "organizational citizenship of a school is key in promoting professionalism, academic excellence, mindfulness, supportive leadership of the principal and effectiveness" (p. 246).

Organizational Effectiveness

Organizational effectiveness has been viewed as one of the most pervasive yet least delineated constructs in the study of organizations (Goodman & Pennings, 1977; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985). Cameron (1978) pointed out that while there is concern about organizational effectiveness and its impact on organizational operations, there has been a history of confusion regarding what organizational effectiveness really is. Traditionally there have been two

approaches to the study of organizational effectiveness and a third model, which is a synthesis of the two. With increased performance The study of effectiveness has also become an area of increased interest in the educational context, both in primary and secondary schools and colleges and universities.

While there has been little consensus on what defines organizational effectiveness, there are two predominant models and a third model, which combines the other two, in order to study and define organizational effectiveness. The first model is the goal model and it is defined in terms of the degree of goal attainment (Steers, 1977) and the systems model of effectiveness is defined by the organization's interaction with its environment and the ability to acquire scarce and valued resources (Yuchtman and Seashore, 1967). The following summarizes the literature on both approaches and discusses a third approach, which synthesizes the goal and systems approaches.

According to Hoy and Miskel (2008), in the goal model "goals provide direction and reduce uncertainty for participants and represent standards for assessment of the organization" (p. 290). While outcomes and goal attainment has historically received widespread acceptance in terms of evaluating effectiveness, it does have limitations and shortcomings. The following outlines those limitations:

1. Organizations typically have multiple goals, which may be inconsistent and get overlooked;
2. Rather than focusing on the goals of the constituencies, the focus is often on the administrator's goals;
3. Goals are dynamic, but the model for evaluation is static;

4. Official goals, which are the formal statements of purpose, may not be operative goals, or the actual intentions of the organization;
5. Goals do not guide or direct behavior, but serve to justify behavior (Cameron, 1978; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Hoy & Miskel, 2008).

Given the number of criticisms, the systems, or system-resource model of organizational effectiveness was proposed as an alternative approach. Hoy and Ferguson (1985) pointed out that “the demands placed on organizations are so numerous, complex and dynamic, it is impossible to define specific goals in any meaningful way; hence, the major concerns of organizations are to survive and grow” (p. 120). Effectiveness, based on the system-resource model, is measured by the internal stability of the organization, efficient use of resources, ability to cope and to compete for resources. Yet, there have been criticisms of this model as well, including 1) too much emphasis on inputs or acquisition of resources may have damaging effects on outcomes; and 2) the system-resource model is actually a goal model that focuses on acquiring resources, or inputs, rather than outcomes or goals.

School Effectiveness

Whereas both the goal and systems model share the objective of measuring organizational effectiveness, Hoy and Ferguson (1985) indicated that previous researchers (Hall, 1972; Steers, 1977), had suggested integrating the two approaches. Thus, Hoy and Ferguson (1985) proposed and tested a model in which both goals and system models are synthesized and used to evaluate effectiveness within schools. Hoy and Ferguson view schools as open social systems and offered the following definition which was derived from Georgopoulos and Tannebaum’s (1957) research. Organizational effectiveness is “the extent to which any organization as a social system, given certain resources and means, fulfills its objectives without

incapacitating its means and resources and without placing undue strain on its members” (p.121). Hoy and Ferguson’s (1985) model has four dimensions including adaptation, goal attainment, integration and latency. In testing this model, teachers and administrators from secondary schools responded to a battery of subtests and data on student achievement was also analyzed. To test effectiveness, Hoy and Ferguson (1985) used the Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness (Hoy & Miskel, 2008), which is a derivative of Mott’s (1972) Index of Organizational Effectiveness. The empirical analysis of the model as operationalized in this exploration was reasonably successful, according to Hoy and Ferguson (1985). They found that the scores on measures of cohesiveness, commitment and the dimensions of effectiveness varied together. Each criterion of effectiveness was subjected to an appraisal by an outside panel of experts and the relationship between the experts’ independent judgments and Mott’s measure of effectiveness were strong ($r = .75$). Hoy and Ferguson suggested that Mott’s index is a useful measure for of school effectiveness for both researchers and practitioners. Hoy and Ferguson also suggested that this is the first step in developing and refining a comprehensive framework for assessing organizational effectiveness in schools.

Tarter and Hoy (2004) also used a model of an open-systems framework of schools and captured perceptions to examine school effectiveness within elementary schools. Taking into consideration the environmental constraint of socioeconomic status, this study used student achievement and teacher perceptions to measure effectiveness and examined the relationships between these measures and elements of successful schools. Student achievement scores were collected from the Department of Education. As with Hoy and Ferguson’s (1985) previous research, this study used the Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness developed by Hoy and Miskel to assess teacher perceptions of effectiveness. The components necessary for

successful school functioning included structure (formalization, centralization and decision-making), individual (knowledge, skills and motivation of teachers), politics (informal behavior intended to circumvent the formal organization) and culture (trust) and were examined using a battery of tests. Structure was measured using a 12-item scale designed to “capture the degree to which formalization and centralization enable teachers to accomplish their work” (p. 544). Collective efficacy was assessed using Goddard’s (2002) 12-item scale and asked teachers about beliefs regarding the teaching task and competence. The culture of trust was measured based on the level of trust in students, colleagues, administrators and parents and Tarter and Hoy used a scale of illegitimate political activity to measure the politics variable. All of the proposed hypotheses in the study were confirmed and the variables within the school system, socioeconomic status, structure, collective efficacy, and trust were all significantly and positively correlated to the variables of school performance. The politics variable and performance variables were significantly correlated as well, but revealed a negative correlation. Multiple regression found a significant correlation between achievement and teacher’s perceptions of effectiveness. Additional analysis revealed that collective efficacy, structure and socioeconomic status impacted student achievement. Thus, Tarter and Hoy (2004) concluded that highly motivated teachers in a structure of support directly improves student learning.

Measuring effectiveness of schools through perceptions is not uncommon. According to Miskel, Fervurly, and Stewart (1979) perceived organizational effectiveness is “the subjective evaluation of a school’s productivity, adaptability and flexibility” (p. 98). Miskel, et al. used Mott’s (1972) model of perceived organizational effectiveness to adapt a measure of school effectiveness. Effectiveness as defined by Mott is the ability of an organization to mobilize its centers of power for action in order to achieve goals and adapt. Mott explained that five

performance outcomes including the quantity of the product, quality of the product, efficiency, adaptability and flexibility measure the characteristics of effective organizations. Mott's measure was originally used in hospitals, however, Miskel et. al (1979) were among the first to modify and adapt it for use specifically in schools. Many other have followed suit and made use of Mott's original measure (Miskel, Bloom & McDonald, 1983; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Hoy, Tarter & Kottkamp, 1991).

Effectiveness and Higher Education

According to Hoy and Miskel (2008), the interest in effectiveness and quality in schools was due to part to *The Nation at Risk* report from 1983 that illuminated the notion the achievement levels in America's schools were not competitive internationally. As a result, performance became a focus and continues today. Increased accountability has also become a focus for higher education, particularly for public institutions. An economic motivation is driving states to redefine relationships by pressuring institutions to become more accountable, more efficient, and more productive in the use of publicly generated resources (Alexander, 2000).

Similar to primary and secondary schools, defining and measuring the quality of higher education can be difficult because there is no consistent definition of what constitutes quality (Harvey & Green, 1993). Cameron's (1978) early work on effectiveness in higher education highlighted the confusion over the definition of organizational effectiveness, which leads to difficulty in assessment. So, Cameron intended to determine which dimensions encompass effectiveness within higher education. After conducting a review of the literature and identifying 130 possible dimensions, interviews were conducted with top administrators and faculty at six institutions. They were asked to respond to the following:

1. What organizational characteristics do effective colleges possess;

2. What is it at this institution that makes a difference in terms of its effectiveness;
3. What would have to change in order to make this institution more effective;
4. Think of an institution of higher education that you judge to be effective. What is it that makes that institution effective;
5. Of the 130 or so items generated from the literature, which ones are not relevant to the effectiveness of this school; and
6. Of the 130 items, which ones are not measurable or for which are data not available?

From the interviews, nine dimensions emerged, which included:

1. Student educational satisfaction;
2. Student academic development;
3. Student career development;
4. Student personal development;
5. Faculty and administrator employment satisfaction;
6. Professional development and quality of the faculty;
7. Systems openness and community interaction;
8. Ability to acquire resources; and
9. Organizational health.

After identifying the effectiveness dimensions, questionnaire measuring effectiveness was administered to administrative staff and department heads at the site institutions. Based on the results of the data analysis, Cameron concluded that effectiveness is a construct composed of multiple domains which are therefore operationalized in different ways.

Over three decades ago, Cameron (1978) also emphasized that the financial concerns of colleges and universities have led to research of efficiency rather than effectiveness. While institutions must demonstrate that they use resources efficiently, the criteria used to evaluate efficiency are not sufficient for understanding institutional success. More recently, Cameron & Whetten (1996) observed a shift in emphasis from effectiveness to quality. Hoy and Miskel (2008) pointed out that although effectiveness and quality are not the same, both are ways to describe organizational performance and while the terminology of organizational effectiveness is getting less attention in contemporary scholarship and administrative practice, but the need to assess outcomes and make appraisals of organizations is not.

Even though effectiveness has experienced a shift in emphasis from theoretical formulations of the construct to the practical application of quality (Cameron & Whetten, 1996), the question of definition and measurement stills remains. While most states require performance reporting from institutions of higher education, there is a lack of coordination and common performance indicators that would allow policymakers to track successes and shortcomings (Burke, 2003). Burke suggested funding, affordability, college/school collaboration, participation (enrollment), articulation, completion, degree attainment, job placement, sponsored research and student development serve as a common set of criteria by which colleges and universities are evaluated.

Umayal and Suganthi (2010) proposed measuring performance in higher education based using the business concept of a balanced scorecard and include the perspectives of financial stability, customer satisfaction, business process streamlining and learning and growth. A number of criteria fall within these perspectives and are used as performance indicators, such as pedagogy enhancement, quality of faculty, and resource accountability. "In today's competitive

environment especially in the education sector, the performance of higher educational institution needs to be constantly measured and monitored. In such a scenario, the performance assessment of institutions becomes mandatory for survival” (Umayal & Suganthi, p. 20). The balanced scorecard perspective, according to Umayal and Suganthi, can be used as a strategic tool for improving performance and achieving a competitive edge.

The performance indicators proposed by Burke (2003) and Umayal and Suganthi (2010) only represent a small percentage of the number of variables offered as potential performance indicators. According to Shin (2010) graduation rates are the most widely adopted performance indicator and suggested they, along with research funding serve as criteria of evaluating effectiveness. Other researchers have (Bogue, 1998; McLendon & Hearn, 2006) also included graduation rates, and student retention, as higher education performance indicators.

Summary

With roots going back to 1636 and the founding of Harvard College, the liberal arts college is woven throughout the historical fabric of higher education in America. As a result, liberal arts institutions have been studied quite extensively. Yet, there has been little to no investigation regarding the public counterparts to private liberal arts colleges. This lack of evidence highlights a need to explore the interworking of these particular types of institutions. Research has demonstrated that examining the climate, citizenship behaviors and effectiveness of an organization is valuable in understanding how the organization functions. The method for analyzing these concepts in a public liberal arts context is outlined in the following chapter.

CHAPTER III:
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Organizational citizenship behavior has been studied in various organizational settings, but few have examined the construct within the context of higher education. In addition, evidence (DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy, 2007), has suggested a relationship between organizational citizenship and effectiveness within schools, but has not been fully examined in higher education. Thus, this study's purpose was to gain an understanding of organizational climate, specifically citizenship, and organizational effectiveness at a public liberal arts institution. The researcher investigated, through survey instrumentation, how full-time faculty, staff and administrative professionals perceived the level of engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors, perceptions of organizational effectiveness within their work units and the relationship between citizenship and effectiveness.

This chapter will outline the methodology used to guide the conduct of this study including the research approach, intent and research questions, theoretical framework, the site where the research was conducted, the participants, instrumentation for the study, data collection methods, ethical and security considerations and the statistical and data analysis techniques utilized.

Research Approach

To answer the research questions for the present study, the overall research approach employed was survey-based quantitative research that used descriptive and inferential analysis of

the collected data. The survey is a common strategy of inquiry used in quantitative research (Creswell, 2003). According to Muijs (2004), survey research has a number of advantages. It is highly flexible and can be used to study relationships between variables or describe a situation. It is also easier to generalize findings to real-world settings, it is efficient and is easy to guarantee respondents' anonymity. It is "particularly suited for canvassing opinions and feelings about particular issues" (p.45). The purpose of descriptive research "is to make careful, highly detailed observations of educational phenomena" (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2005, p. 3). According to McMillian and Schumacher (2001), the use of descriptive statistics is indispensable in interpreting the results of qualitative research. Descriptive research provides very valuable data and once a descriptive understanding is achieved, then casual relationships can be examined. Thus, this study also used inferential statistics to make predictions based on the descriptive statistics.

Intent and Research Questions

This study explored the following research questions:

1. How do full-time employees at XYZ University perceive organizational citizenship behavior within their division of the institution;
2. How do full-time employees at XYZ University perceive organizational effectiveness within their division of the institution;
3. At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon gender;

4. At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon age;
5. At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon employment classification; and
6. At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon length of service;
7. At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon institutional division type; and
8. What is the relationship between organizational citizenship and organizational effectiveness at XYZ University?

Theoretical Framework

Over 70 years ago, Lewin (1939) advocated for examination of the relationship between individuals and their environment. Research has been extensive on various aspects of organizational behavior. Organizational climate, specifically citizenship behavior, and the relationship to organizational effectiveness reflect the interaction that occurs between the individual and organization.

The construct of organizational climate is important because individual perceptions guide behavior. Some of the early researchers on organizational climate like Litwin and Stringer (1968) recognized its effect. As a result, they defined organizational climate as “a set of measurable

properties of work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behavior” (p. 1). Litwin and Stringer’s research showed that employees working in motivated climate experience a high level of satisfaction and high performance and productivity. More recent research has come to similar conclusions. For example, Zhang and Liu (2010) found that organizational climate did affect organizational effectiveness. Several factors such as educational level, job specialty, leadership and communication were found to effectively predict group performance.

Empirical evidence has also demonstrated that organizational citizenship behavior impacts organizational functioning as well. While organizational citizenship focuses on actual behavior and organizational climate is concerned with perceptions of the environment, both impact employee behavior. Schneider’s (1975) suggestion that humans seek order in their environment to create order through thought or individuals create order in their environment so they can adapt their behavior to the work environment pointed to a connection between organizational climate and citizenship.

Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) were first to conceptualize organizational citizenship behavior and study its characteristics. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), is “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4). Results suggested that organizational citizenship behavior is comprised of at least two dimensions, altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism was defined as behaviors that are directed toward helping others within an organization, whereas generalized compliance is a more interpersonal conscientiousness and is characterized by with compliance with organizational rules.

Later, Organ (1988) refined the definition of organizational citizenship behavior to include five dimensions (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue). Even though there was much debate in the years following, when DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) studied organizational citizenship behaviors in schools, they found that was an integrated concept containing both behaviors that help the individual and those that help the organization. Using the five components originally outlined by Organ, (1988) as a single concept, DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran developed the Organizational Citizenship Behaviors in Schools Scale (OCBSS).

Using DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran's (2001) OCBSS, DiPaola, Tarter, and Hoy (2007) refined the instrument and developed the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale. They too, contended that a measure based on an integrated concept was a more effective measure of citizenship behaviors in schools because schools are service organizations in which both employees and the organization are committed to best interests of their clients. The result is a high degree of congruence between professional and organizational goals and the mission of helping individuals and furthering the organization is equally as important. Schools serve their clients, or students, and therefore are people-helping organizations.

The mission of institutions of higher education is equivalent to that of primary and secondary schools. Educating students is incorporated into organizational goals. Liberal arts institutions, in particular, place a great deal of emphasis on teaching. Pascarella et al. (2004) found that liberal arts institutions' ethos or culture places a premium on effective teaching and high academic expectations is of equal or greater importance. Since educating students is central to the mission of higher education, the present study adapted the Organizational Citizenship

Behavior Scale for use in higher education and used the framework to guide the conduct of this study.

Because the relationship between organizational citizenship behaviors and effectiveness, Mott's (1972) model of perceived organizational effectiveness was also incorporated into the theoretical framework for this study. Five performance outcomes including the quantity of the product, quality of the product, efficiency, adaptability and flexibility "define the ability of an organization to mobilize its centers of power for action to achieve goals and adapt" (Hoy & Miskel, 2001). Based on the five criteria, Mott developed a questionnaire to measure the characteristics of effective organizations.

Mott's measure was originally used in hospitals, but was also applied to various organizational settings. However, it has also been modified and adapted for use specifically in schools (Miskel, Fevurly, & Stewart, 1979; Miskel, Bloom, & McDonald, 1983; Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991). Miskel and his colleagues referred to this measure as the Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness (IPOE). After refining several iterations, the most recent measure is the School Effectiveness Index (SE Index). The SE Index measures the degree to which a school is perceived to be effective by its faculty. Just as Mott's measure was amended for use in the schools, the present study adapted it for use in the higher education context.

Site Institution and Participant Selection

The site of this study is a four-year, public institution of higher education. It falls within the Master's Colleges and Universities classification according to the Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education. XYZ University is also a member of the Council of Public Liberal Arts Colleges (COPLAC). COPLAC advances "the aims of its member institutions and

drives awareness of the value of high-quality, public liberal arts education in a student-centered, residential environment” (p. 4). Based on the values of the institutions that are members of COPLAC, using one as the site for this study has the potential to determine the impact of these values on organizational operations.

It was the intention of the researcher to include faculty, administrative professionals and support staff as participants in this study. Prospective participants received an initial email invitation to participate in the study with a reminder. Participation in the survey was strictly voluntary.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire used in the current study included 24 questions to capture demographic data and measure citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness. A copy of the survey is included in Appendix B. The first five questions included basic demographic questions that were used in to compare responses of various respondent groups. The demographic questions included the academic or functional unit in which the respondent works, years of service, current employment classification, gender and age.

In order to measure citizenship behavior and its relationship with effectiveness in the higher education context, two survey questionnaires were adapted for use in this study. The first is the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale, which was developed by DiPaola, Tarter, and Hoy (2005). Using the components of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue, this instrument measures the voluntary and discretionary behavior that exceeds the formal requirements of the job.

Based on the work of Mott (1972), Miskel (1979), Hoy and Ferguson (1985), Hoy and Miskel (1991), and Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991), the second measure, the Organizational

Effectiveness Index, contains 8 items that measure the dimensions of effectiveness, which are productivity, adaptability and flexibility.

With no available measures to adequately address citizenship and effectiveness within the higher education context, this study served as a single institution pilot study in which the two survey instruments and their constructs were tested. In addition, conclusions were drawn about the organizational climate, citizenship and effectiveness at the study institution.

Ethical and Security Considerations

Several tactics were implemented in order to protect both the anonymity of the participants, as well as the institution at which the data will be collected. Informed consent was obtained from participants via an informed consent form embedded in the survey. Participants were also provided an explanation of the purpose of the research and will be allowed to discontinue participation at any time.

In addition, approval was obtained from the University of Alabama's Institutional Review Board prior to the distribution of the survey. Once data was collected it was stored on a separate flash drive and no information was stored on a shared or networked drive. The separate drive was stored in a locked cabinet when not being used.

Data Collection

The method utilized to collect data for the present study was an online survey. According to Van Selm and Jankowski (2006), the rationale for choosing to conduct research via online survey is based upon several factors. These include the object of the study, particular characteristics of the population and to facilitate response from those that are normally difficult to reach. In addition, research on sensitive issues may receive improved response if conducted in an online format. Other advantages are the cost, ease, speed of delivery and response, ease of

data cleaning and analysis and the attractiveness of those populations that are technologically savvy (Sills & Song, 2002).

The current study meets the recommended criteria for online survey research. Faculty, administrative professionals and support staff employed at the site institution during the 2012-2013 academic year were the object of the study. The participants are both specific and based upon particular characteristics. The study population is housed across campus and this format will provide a more convenient method of which the study population is accustomed.

Furthermore, due to the nature of the items contained in the survey instrument may be considered sensitive to some respondents.

With the endorsement of the university's administration, the study population included all full-time faculty members, administrative professionals and support staff. The schedule for response was designed to allow for ample time and opportunity for completion of the survey. A list of employees was obtained from the site institution's Human Resources Office and the survey invitation was distributed via university e-mail. After 14 days, a follow-up email was sent to those that did not initially complete the survey. Following an additional 14-day period, an additional email and final reminder was distributed to encourage non-responders to participate.

Data Analysis

At the end of the data collection period, the survey was closed to participants and the data was collected and analyzed. Scores for each respondent and for the institution were calculated. Once the scores were calculated, they were exported into SPSS for additional analysis.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to evaluate the collected data. A profile of respondent characteristics was presented and descriptive statistics were calculated for survey items and for each construct of organizational citizenship and organizational

effectiveness. Since these constructs have not been tested in the higher education context, both reliabilities and a factor analysis were conducted.

Additionally, each research question was tested for significance. To determine if differences between the construct scores of the groups of employees existed, t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were utilized. The final analysis examined the relationship between the overall organizational citizenship behavior score and that of organizational effectiveness. In this study, the unit of analysis differs and is based upon the information being sought to address each research question.

Summary

Institutions of higher education are multifaceted organizations that seek to achieve several goals simultaneously. Understanding employee's perceptions and behaviors could prove to be helpful in understanding the complexities of organizational operations. This present study seeks to explore these perceptions and the potential impact on organizational effectiveness. The methodological approach that guides this study was presented in this chapter including the research approach, intent, research questions, theoretical framework. The site institution and participants were also discussed, along with instrumentation, ethical and security considerations. Finally the data collection methods and data analysis was presented.

CHAPTER IV:
ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

In seeking to provide a more comprehensive understanding of both organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness, the results of the present study are described in this chapter. A profile of participants is presented, followed by an analysis of the survey instruments and a review of the data as it relates to each research question. The purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of organizational climate, specifically citizenship, and organizational effectiveness at a public liberal arts institution. The intent was to investigate, through survey instrumentation, how full-time faculty, staff and administrative professionals perceived the level of engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors and their perceptions of organizational effectiveness within the work unit and the relationship between citizenship and effectiveness. In addition, this study served as a pilot test for the survey instruments in the higher education context.

The participants in this study responded to basic demographic questions and two surveys, which were adapted for use in the higher education context. The Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCB), which was developed by DiPaola, Tarter, and Hoy (2005) measures the voluntary and discretionary behavior that exceeds the formal requirements of the job. The revised version for higher education is a 11-item Likert-type scale that assessed the organizational citizenship behavior of full-time employees at a public liberal arts institution by focusing on the dimensions of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic

virtue. Based on the work of Mott (1972), Miskel (1979), Hoy and Ferguson (1985), Hoy and Miskel, (1991), and Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991), the second measure, the Organizational Effectiveness Index (OEI), contains 8 items that measure five dimensions of effectiveness, which are quantity of the product, quality of the product, efficiency, adaptability and flexibility.

Profile of Participants

The study population included 610 full-time faculty, staff and administrative professionals at a public liberal arts institution. After analyzing the data to determine if missing data, approximately 35 responses were eliminated based on incomplete responses. Completed surveys were received from 120 employees. In comparing response rates, Shih and Fan (2009) found the average rate for online surveys to be 33%, which is higher than the response rate for the present study (20%).

Based on 2011-2012 data retrieved from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), the gender of the underlying population of the site institution in this study is 40% male and 60% female. This is reflected closely in the percentage of respondents based on gender. Of the respondents, 55.0% were female (n=66) and 45.0% (n=54) were male.

In regard to age, 30% of the participants were 40 years old and younger. Almost a quarter (24.8%) fell in to 41-50 category and the largest percentage of respondents (44.4%) were 51 years and older. Tables 1 and 2 outline the participants' demographic profile for gender and age.

Table 1

Summary of Participants by Gender

Gender	Number	Percent
Male	54	45.0%
Female	66	55.0%
Total	120	100.0%

Table 2

Summary of Participants by Age

Age	Number	Percent
40 Years or Younger	36	30.8%
41-50 Years	29	24.8%
51 Years or Older	52	44.4%
Total	117	100.0%

Table 3 summarizes the length of service of the respondents. Those with less than 5 years of employment accounted for 33.3%, those with 5-9 years represented 28.3% and 38.3% of the respondents had 10 or more years of employment at the site institution for this study.

Table 3

Summary of Participants' Length of Service

Length of Service	Number	Percent
Less than 5 Years	40	33.3%
5-9 Years	34	28.3%
10 or More Years	46	38.3%
Total	120	100.0%

While employees from both academic and administrative work units responded to the survey, participants from the academic units (College of Arts and Sciences, College of Business, College of Education, Provost's Office) represented the largest group of respondents, with 61.3% (n=73). There were 46 employees that responded from administrative units (Administration and Finance, Advancement and University Relations, Economic and Regional Development, President's Office, Student Affairs, Other), accounting for the remaining 38.7%. These results are outlined in Table 4.

Table 4

Participants by Work Unit

	Number	Percent
<i>Academic Units</i>	73	61.3%
College of Arts and Sciences		
College of Business		
College of Education		
Provost's Office		
<i>Administrative/Service Units</i>	46	38.7%
Administration and Finance		
Economic/Regional Development		
Advancement and University Relations		
President's Office		
Student Affairs		
Other		
Total	119	100.0%

The final demographic question in this study asked for respondents to select their employment classification. Based on 2011-2012 data retrieved from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) the site institution in this study employs 246 full-time faculty and 255 administrators and professional staff. Other staff, including clerical/secretarial and technical/paraprofessional classifications, equals 91. Although there are more full-time administrators and staff than faculty, over half of the participants (51.7%) were faculty. Administrators represented 32.5% and staff accounted for 15.8% of the respondents. This data is presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Participants by Employment Classification

Employment Classification	Number	Percent
Faculty	62	51.7%
Administrative	39	32.5%
Staff	19	15.8%
Total	120	100.0%

Results

Survey Diagnostics

In addition to specifically addressing the research questions, this study also served as a pilot test for the survey instrumentation for use in higher education institutions. While the original Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale and School Effectiveness Index have been utilized in other organizational settings and found to be valid and reliable measures, the psychometric properties have not been examined in the higher education context. Descriptive statistics for both constructs of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness are presented. In addition, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated and a factor analysis was also conducted for the adapted versions of both instruments.

The descriptive statistics for both constructs are provided in Table 6. Included are the number of respondents (N), mean (M), standard deviation (SD), variance (V) and the minimum and maximum scores. The mean score for both constructs was calculated by aggregating all participant responses and then a mean score was calculated for the institution. The overall institutional mean was used to calculate the mean for each construct.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Citizenship and Effectiveness (N = 120)

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Minimum	Maximum
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	48.92	8.19	.573	26	66
Organizational Effectiveness	35.82	6.57	.680	19	48

The Cronbach alpha is the most appropriate type of reliability for survey research, according to McMillian and Schumacher (2001). So, to test internal consistency reliability of both the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale and the Organizational Effectiveness Index, Cronbach's alpha (α) was used. The scale for a reliability coefficient is from .00 to .99 and if the coefficient is high, for example .90, then the scores have little error and are highly reliable and the opposite is true for low scores. An acceptable range of reliability is .70 to .90 (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The results of this analysis indicate high reliability for both the OCB Scale ($\alpha = .87$) and the OE Index ($\alpha = .90$). Table 6 outlines the results of the Cronbach's alpha analysis for both instruments.

Table 7

Cronbach's alpha for OCB Scale and OE Index

Instrument	Number of Items	Cronbach's alpha
OCB Scale	11	.87
OE Index	8	.90

A factor analysis was conducted to examine the factor structure of both measures in the higher education context. For organizational citizenship behavior, the factor analysis of DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) and that of DiPaola, Tarter and Hoy (2007) was replicated. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) developed the Organizational Citizenship in Schools Scale (OCBSS) and the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCB) was the result of an

analysis and refinement of the OCBSS by DiPaola, Tarter and Hoy. While these previous analysis were conducted in elementary, middle and high schools, the present study examined the structure in higher education. Results from Principal Component Analysis revealed one strong factor with an eigenvalue of 5.11, which is similar to the findings of DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001), and explains 46% of the variance in organizational citizenship. Factor loadings and a comparison of the factor structures are exhibited in Table 8.

Table 8

OCB Factor Analysis Comparison

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Items	OCBSS High Schools	OCB High Schools	OCB Middle Schools	OCB Elementary Schools	OCB Higher Ed
Employees in this division help others on their own time.	.52	.49	.75	.42	.81
Employees in this division do not use their time efficiently.	-.60	-.56	-.68	-.58	-.40
Employees in this division voluntarily help new employees.	.63	.66	.72	.84	.67
Employees in this division volunteer to serve on committees.	.67	.66	.76	.85	.73
Employees in this division volunteer to participate in or sponsor extracurricular activities.	.62	.62	.68	.75	.76
Employees in this division arrive at work promptly and use work time effectively.	.55	.54	.70	.85	.64
Employees in this division take the initiative to introduce themselves to new employees.	.66	.67	.53	.80	.57
Employees in this division effectively communicate changes to colleagues.	.50	.52	.76	.75	.67
Employees in this division are required to spend excessive time on activities outside of the institution's mission.	-.48	-.48	-.66	-.64	-.17
Employees in this division work productively.	.58	.59	.89	.88	.72
Employees in this division make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the institution.	.58	.59	.89	.88	.67

The Organizational Efficiency Index was also analyzed using a factor analysis. Based on Mott's (1972) original Index of Organizational Effectiveness, the Index of Perceived Organizational Effectiveness (Miskel et al., 1979) and the School Effectiveness Index, which is one of the latest revisions of Mott's scale by Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991). A Principal Component Analysis revealed that all questions loaded on one strong factor with an eigenvalue of 4.85, which explains 59% of the variance in organizational effectiveness. The factor structure is outlined in Table 9.

Table 9

OE Factor Analysis Summary

Organizational Efficiency Items	OE Higher Ed
The quality of products and services produced in this division is high.	.78
Employees in this division cope well in emergency situations.	.77
The quantity of products and services produced in this division is high.	.68
Most employees within this division accept and adjust to changes.	.80
Employees in this division are aware of advancements in their field that could impact their jobs.	.75
When changes are made at this institution, employees in this division accept and adjust quickly.	.76
Employees in this division anticipate and prevent problems.	.81
Employees in this division use available resources efficiently.	.82

Research Questions

Research Question One

How do full-time employees at XYZ University perceive organizational citizenship behavior within their division of the institution?

Research questions one and two were analyzed using item analysis to gain insight regarding the relationship between the overall construct scores and the individual survey items. Item analysis is instructive in determining which individual items seem to have more effect on the overall construct score. In addition, item analysis can be valuable in assessing the specific actions of employees.

Participants responded to 11 survey questions that were designed to capture perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior within their work unit. Respondents indicated the degree of agreement with 11 statements on a 6-point Likert scale (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Somewhat Disagree; 4=Somewhat Agree; 5=Agree; 6=Strongly Agree). Each item was analyzed to determine the frequency and percentage of agreement for each statement. The responses are presented in Table 9.

With the exception of two items, over 80% of the respondents agreed with statements that indicate employees in their work unit exhibit positive organizational citizenship behaviors. Respondents rated items related to helping others (Items 1, 3) as most prevalent within their work units. When asked if employees help others on their own time (Item 1), 89.2% of the respondents agreed. The second highest percentage of agreement among respondents on the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale was 87.5% and was in response to Item 3, and pertained to employees voluntarily helping new employees.

The highest percentage of disagreement among respondents was on Items 10 and 9. For Item 10, 39.2% of respondents did not disagree with the statement, which indicated the perception that excessive time was spent on activities outside of the institution's mission. The second highest level of disagreement was in response to Item 9, which was related to the

effective communication of changes among employees. Over a quarter (29.2%) disagreed with this statement.

The item analysis of the responses to the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale is informative regarding the behaviors of the respondents and their perceptions of the institution. According to Organ, Smith, and Near (1983) altruism, or voluntarily helping others, is an important component of the organizational citizenship behavior construct. The results of the item analysis indicate that employees at the site institution, XYZ University, perceive high levels of altruistic behaviors among their colleagues. Responses to the items in this study indicate that activities that fall outside of the mission were perceived negatively and communication is key within the institution. According to Birnbaum (1988), mission, or sustaining a sense of community, requires shared sentiments and values on such matters as the general purposes of the organization, loyalty to the collectivity, and agreement about institutional as reflected in the shared understanding of members. In addition, members of collegial institutions “come to expect that both formal and informal communications will follow certain customs” (p. 103).

Table 10

Summary of OCB Item Responses

	% Disagree								% Agree							
	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Disagree		Total		Somewhat Agree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Employees in this division help others on their own time. (Q1)	1	0.8	4	3.3	8	6.7	13	10.8%	30	25	48	40	29	24.2	107	89.2%
*Employees in this division do not use their time efficiently. (Q2)	15	12.5	42	35	40	33.3	97	80.8%	11	9.2	9	7.5	3	2.5	23	19.2%
Employees in this division voluntarily help new employees. (Q3)	1	0.8	3	2.5	12	10	16	13.3%	20	16.7	55	45.8	29	24.2	104	86.7%
Employees in this division volunteer to serve on committees. (Q4)	3	2.5	4	3.3	10	8.3	17	14.1%	26	21.7	45	37.5	32	26.7	103	85.9%
Employees in this division volunteer to participate in or sponsor extracurricular activities. (Q5)	2	1.7	11	9.2	11	9.2	24	20.0%	35	29.2	44	36.7	17	14.2	96	80.0%
Employees in this division arrive at work promptly and use work time effectively. (Q6)	1	0.8	8	6.7	9	7.5	18	15.0%	34	28.3	46	38.3	22	18.3	102	85.0%
Employees in this division take the initiative to introduce themselves to new employees. (Q7)	1	0.8	1	0.8	13	10.8	15	12.5%	38	31.7	40	33.3	27	22.5	105	87.5%
Employees in this division effectively communicate changes to colleagues. (Q8)	2	1.7	10	8.3	23	19.2	35	29.2%	42	35	35	29.2	8	6.7	85	70.8%
*Employees in this division are required to spend excessive time on activities outside of the institution's mission. (Q9)	11	9.2	37	30.8	25	20.8	73	60.8%	22	18.3	15	12.5	10	8.3	47	39.2%
Employees in this division work productively. (Q10)	0	0.0	4	3.3	15	12.5	19	15.8%	25	20.8	58	48.3	18	15.0	101	84.2%
Employees in this division make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the institution. (Q11)	0	0.0	7	5.8	14	1.7	21	17.5%	32	26.7	38	31.7	29	24.2	99	82.5%
Average Citizenship Item Score								18.8%								81.2%

Note: *Items are reversed scored.

Research Question Two

How do full-time employees at XYZ University perceive organizational effectiveness within their division of the institution?

While research question one addressed the perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior among full-time employees at the site institution, research question two aimed to determine the perceptions of faculty, staff and administrative professionals in regard to organizational effectiveness. The following summarizes the responses and details of each item are outlined in Table 10. Respondents rated items related to productivity (Items 1, 3) as most prevalent within their work units. Therefore, almost 100% of the respondents agreed that the quality (95.8%) and quantity (95.0%) of services produced in the institution is high. While employees agreed that high level of productivity exists, alternatively, responses to items related to change received the lowest level of agreement. The highest percentage of disagreement among respondents was on Items 6 and 4. For Item 6, 35.8% of respondents disagreed with the statement, indicating that when changes are made, employees do not accept and adjust quickly. The second highest level of disagreement was in response to Item 4, which was also related to change. In response, 25.8% disagreed that colleagues accept and adjust to changes.

The item analysis of the responses to the Organizational Effectiveness Index provides further insight regarding the behaviors of the respondents and their perceptions of the institution. The analysis indicates the employees perceive high levels of productivity, however change appears to be unwelcome. Although change is difficult and many times unwelcome, institutions must be responsive to their environments to survive (Birnbaum, 1988).

Table 11

Summary of OE Item Responses

	% Disagree							% Agree								
	Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Somewhat Disagree		Total		Somewhat Agree		Agree		Strongly Agree		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
The quality of products and services produced in this division is high. (Q1)	0	0.0	2	1.7	3	2.5	5	4.2%	21	17.5	46	38.3	48	40.0	115	95.8%
Employees in this division cope well in emergency situations. (Q2)	1	0.8	2	1.7	10	8.3	13	10.8%	32	26.7	51	42.5	24	20.0	107	89.2%
The quantity of products and services produced in this division is high. (Q3)	0	0.0	1	0.8	5	4.2	6	5.0%	28	23.3	49	40.8	37	30.8	114	95.0%
Most employees within this division accept and adjust to changes. (Q4)	1	0.8	8	6.7	22	18.3	31	25.8%	36	30.0	43	35.8	10	8.3	89	74.2%
Employees in this division are aware of advancements in their field that could impact their jobs. (Q5)	0	0.0	5	4.2	14	11.7	19	15.8%	36	30.0	47	39.2	18	15.0	101	84.2%
When changes are made at this institution, employees in this division accept and adjust quickly. (Q6)	3	2.5	13	10.8	27	22.5	43	35.8%	42	35.0	23	19.2	12	10.0	77	64.2%
Employees in this division anticipate and prevent problems. (Q7)	5	4.2	10	8.3	15	12.5	30	25.0%	45	37.5	33	27.5	12	10.0	90	75.0%
Employees in this division use available resources efficiently. (Q8)	1	0.8	7	5.8	18	15.0	26	21.7%	26	21.7	49	40.8	19	15.8	94	78.3%
Average Effectiveness Item Score								18.0%								82.0%

Research Question Three

At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon gender?

In an effort to determine if demographic variables affected the perception of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness of full-time employees at the site institution, several statistical analyses were performed. Research questions three, four, five, six and seven specifically analyzed demographic variables and both constructs. Research question three considered whether differences in perceptions existed based upon gender. A t-test is used to determine whether the mean values of variable on one group of subjects is different from mean value the same variable with a different groups of subjects (McMillian & Schumacher, 2001). So, a t-test was used to address this question. Results of the t-test are presented in Table 11 and showed that the total effectiveness score did not differ based upon gender of the respondents, $t(118) = -2.53, p = .808$. In addition, no significant differences were found for the total organizational citizenship behavior score and gender, $t(118) = -.011, p = .158$.

Table 12

Perceptions by Gender

	F	Sig. (p)	t	df	Mean Difference
Effectiveness Total Score	.059	.808	-2.53	118	-.306
Citizenship Total Score	2.019	.158	-.011	118	-0.17

Research Question Four

At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon age?

To address employee perceptions of citizenship and effectiveness by age, the data were aggregated into the three following categories: 40 Years or Younger, 41-50 Years and 51 Years or Older. Because an analysis of variance (ANOVA) addresses whether or not there is a significant difference between population means, it was utilized to analyze research question four. The ANOVA results, shown in Table 12, illustrate the variance between age groups and variance within age groups in regard to perceptions of organizational effectiveness and organizational citizenship behavior. No significant differences were found between organizational effectiveness and age, $F(2, 114) = .142, p = .868$. The same is true for analysis of organizational citizenship behavior and age in that no significant differences were found, $F(2, 114) = .942, p = .393$.

Table 13

Perceptions by Age

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Effectiveness Total Score	Between Groups	12.073	2	6.036	.142	.868
	Within Groups	4851.585	114	42.558		
	Total	4863.658	116			
Citizenship Total Score	Between Groups	125.354	2	62.677	.942	.393
	Within Groups	7581.877	114	66.508		
	Total	7707.231	116			

Research Question Five

At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon employment classification?

Employment classification was also analyzed to determine if any significant differences in perceptions exist among the survey respondents. As with research question four, the data were aggregated to three categories which included faculty, administrative and staff. The means of each employment classification category were analyzed using an ANOVA (Table 13) to determine any differences. The mean effectiveness score did not differ significantly across the three categories of employment classification, $F(2, 117) = .615, p = .542$. The mean citizenship score was also compared to the mean scores of each employment classification category and the level of variance was not significant, $F(2, 117) = .845, p = .432$. As with gender and age, the results of employment classification also indicated no significant differences in the total effectiveness score and citizenship score based on employment classification.

Table 4

Employee Perceptions by Employment Classification

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Effectiveness Total Score	Between Groups	53.404	2	26.702	.615	.542
	Within Groups	5080.562	117	43.424		
	Total	5133.967	119			
Citizenship Total Score	Between Groups	113.606	2	56.803	.845	.432
	Within Groups	7865.561	117	67.227		
	Total	7979.167	119			

Research Question Six

At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon length of service?

Data on the length of employment at the site institution was also gathered for each respondent. Each employee selected their length of service from one of the following categories: Less than 1 Year, 5-9 Years, 10-19 Years, or 20 Years and above. When conducting the analysis, data were aggregated into three categories, which included less than 5 Years, 5-9 Years, and 10 Years or More.

An ANOVA was conducted to determine if any differences in employee perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness existed among the three groups. When comparing the means of each length of service category with the mean effectiveness score, the results of the analysis did not indicate significant differences, $F(2, 117) = 1.897, p = .155$. The mean citizenship score was also compared to the mean scores of each length of service category and the results were $F(2, 117) = .758, p = .471$, indicating no significant differences among length of service of the respondents and organizational citizenship behavior. The detailed results are presented in Table 15.

Table 3

Employee Perceptions by Length of Service

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig. (p)
Effectiveness Total Score	Between Groups	161.223	2	80.611	1.897	.155
	Within Groups	4972.744	117	42.502		
	Total	5133.967	119			
Citizenship Total Score	Between Groups	102.014	2	51.007	.758	.471
	Within Groups	7877.153	117	67.326		
	Total	7979.167	119			

Research Question Seven

At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon institutional division type?

The final demographic variable analyzed was institutional division type or work unit. The mean scores for academic units (College of Arts and Sciences, College of Business, College of Education, Provost's Office) and administrative units (Administration and Finance, Advancement and University Relations, Economic Development and Regional Engagement, President's Office, Student Affairs) were compared in a t-test analysis. The total effectiveness score did not differ based upon the institutional division in which the respondents worked, $t(117) = -1.70, p = .113$. Results of the t-test analysis for total organizational citizenship behavior score also found no significant differences based upon institutional division, $t(117) = .66, p = .095$. Results of the analysis are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Employee Perceptions by Institutional Division

	F	Sig. (p)	t	df	Mean Difference
Effectiveness Total Score	2.554	.113	-1.70	117	-1.008
Citizenship Total Score	2.841	.095	-.66	117	-2.060

Research Question Eight

What is the relationship between organizational citizenship and organizational effectiveness at XYZ University?

In order to investigate the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness at the site institution, Pearson's correlation coefficient (Pearson's r)

was computed. Pearson's r provides information about both the direction and strength of the relationship between variables. The direction can be either positive or negative and the closer the correlation is to 1, the stronger the relationship (Muijs, 2004). As shown in Table 17, the result of the correlational analysis for organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and organizational effectiveness (OE) was a high positive correlation. ($r = .826$). In addition, the relationship was also statistically significant ($p < .01$).

Table 17

Correlational Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Organizational Effectiveness (OE)

		OCB	OE
OCB	Pearson Correlation	1	.826**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	120	120
OE	Pearson Correlation	.826**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	120	120

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

With such a strong correlation between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness, the total scores for each were regressed using linear regression. Organizational effectiveness (dependent variable) was regressed on the independent variables of organizational citizenship behavior and all demographic variables to determine which predicts effectiveness. Results indicated that organizational citizenship behavior was significant ($\beta = .83$, $p < .01$). The institutional division or work unit was significant ($p < .043$) and when age was aggregated to include those 50 Years and Younger and those 51 Years and Older, it was also found to be significant ($p < .016$). Table 18 outlines the results of the regression analysis.

Table 18

Summary of Regression Analysis

DV: OE Mean Predictor Variables	B	β	Sig.
OCB	.659	.826	.000**
Division	1.428	.107	.043*
Age	1.687	.131	.016*

Note: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Summary

This chapter presented the results of the data analyses that were conducted to answer this study's research questions on organizational citizenship behavior and effectiveness. In order to provide a profile of the participants of the study, descriptive statistics were analyzed and presented. In addition, correlational analysis was utilized to investigate the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and effectiveness. Inferential statistics, ANOVA and multiple linear regression, were also employed to determine if both organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness were impacted by several variables such as gender, academic discipline/functional area, employment classification, age, length of service. Using the data presented, Chapter V will discuss findings and conclusions and provide recommendations for policy, practice and future research.

CHAPTER V:
FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of organizational climate, specifically citizenship, and organizational effectiveness at a public liberal arts institution. Understanding employee's perceptions and behaviors and having insight on how decisions and actions are influenced are all important aspects in regard to building effective organizations (Tierney, 1990; McKenzie & Podsakoff, 1992; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Gaining and understanding the impact of organizational citizenship behaviors will allow leaders and decision makers to better prepare their institutions to remain viable and competitive in the higher education marketplace.

Findings

To gain an understanding of employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness, both were examined in the context of a public liberal arts institution. Employees were administered a survey to address the eight research questions that guided this study. The questions are restated here, along with the research results.

Research Question One

How do full-time employees at XYZ University perceive organizational citizenship behavior within their division of the institution?

An analysis of the responses to the organizational citizenship behavior items revealed that in 9 of the 11 items, either 80% or more of the respondents agreed with statements that indicate

employees in their work unit exhibit positive organizational citizenship behaviors. Respondents rated items related to helping others (Items 1, 3) as most prevalent within their work units. When asked if employees help others on their own time (Item 1), 89.2% of the respondents agreed. The second highest percentage of agreement among respondents on the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale was 87.5% and was in response to Item 3, and pertained to employees voluntarily helping new employees.

The highest percentage of disagreement among respondents was on Items 10 and 9. For Item 10, 39.2% of respondents did not disagree with the statement, which indicated the perception that excessive time was spent on activities outside of the institution's mission. The second highest level of disagreement was in response to Item 9, which was related to the effective communication of changes among employees. Over a quarter (29.2%) disagreed with this statement.

Figure 2 outlines how respondents answered each item on the OCB Scale and is informative regarding the behaviors of the respondents and their perceptions of the institution. According to Organ, Smith and Near (1983) altruism, or voluntarily helping others, is an important component of the organizational citizenship behavior construct. The results of the item analysis indicate that employees at the site institution, XYZ University, perceive high levels of altruistic behaviors among their colleagues. Responses to the items in this study indicate that activities that fall outside of the mission were perceived negatively and communication is key within the institution. According to Birnbaum (1988), mission, or sustaining a sense of community, requires shared sentiments and values on such matters as the general purposes of the organization, loyalty to the collectivity, and agreement about institutional as reflected in the

shared understanding of members. In addition, members of collegial institutions “come to expect that both formal and informal communications will follow certain customs” (p. 103).

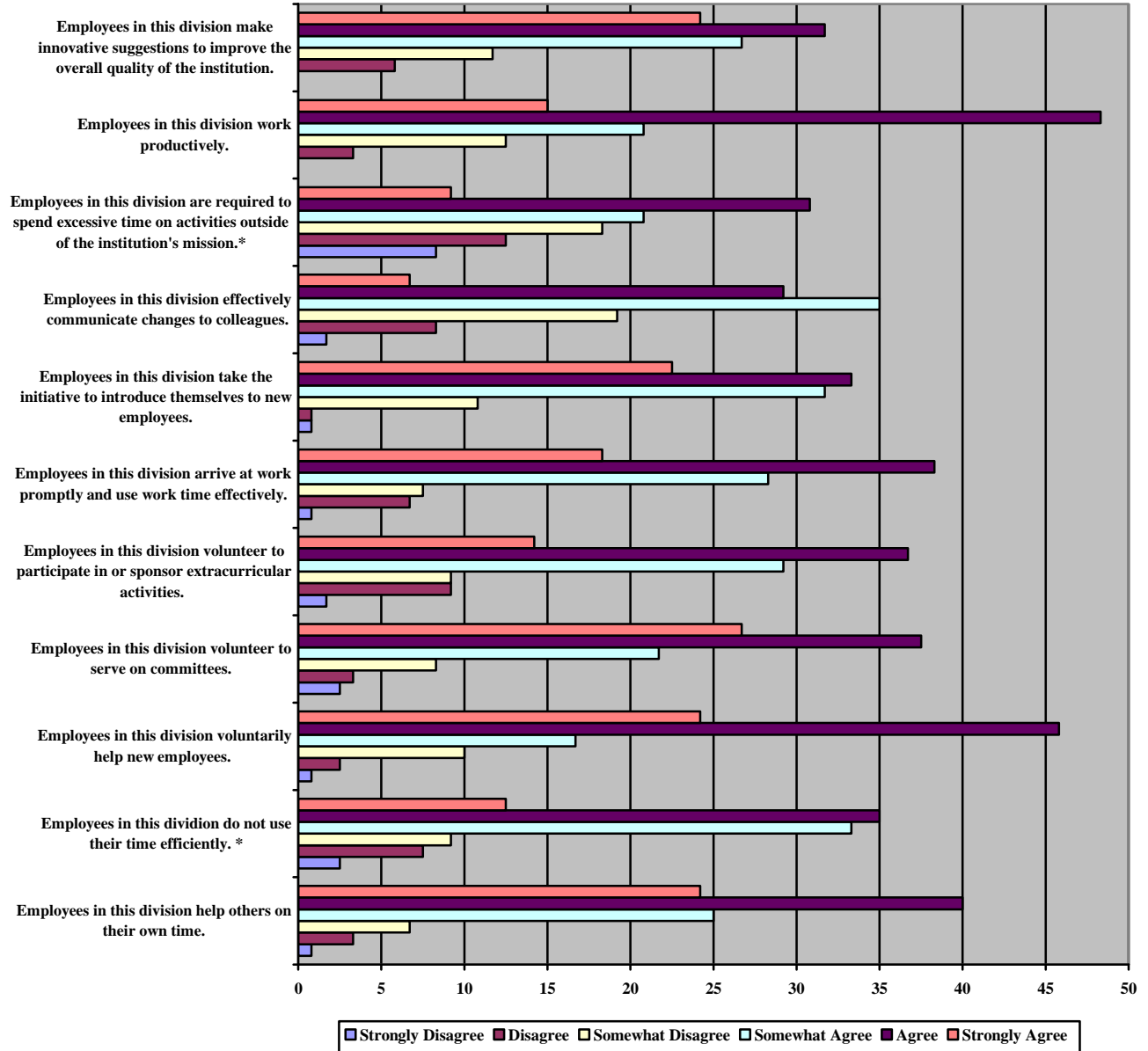


Figure 2. OCB Item Responses

Research Question Two

How do full-time employees at XYZ University perceive organizational effectiveness within their division of the institution?

Respondents indicated on a 6-point Likert scale their level of agreement with 8 statements measuring organizational effectiveness. Respondents rated items related to productivity (Items 1, 3) as most prevalent within their work units. Therefore, almost 100% of the respondents agreed that the quality (95.8%) and quantity (95.0%) of services produced in the institution is high. While employees agreed that high level of productivity exists, alternatively, responses to items related to change received the lowest level of agreement. The highest percentage of disagreement among respondents was on Items 6 and 4. For Item 6, 35.8% of respondents disagreed with the statement, indicating that when changes are made, employees do not accept and adjust quickly. The second highest level of disagreement was in response to Item 4, which was also related to change. In response, 25.8% disagreed that colleagues accept and adjust to changes.

Figure 3 details the responses to the items measuring organizational effectiveness and provides further insight regarding the behaviors of the respondents and their perceptions of the institution. The analysis indicates the employees perceive high levels of productivity, however change appears to be unwelcome. Although change is difficult and many times unwelcome, institutions must be responsive to their environments to survive (Birnbbaum, 1988).

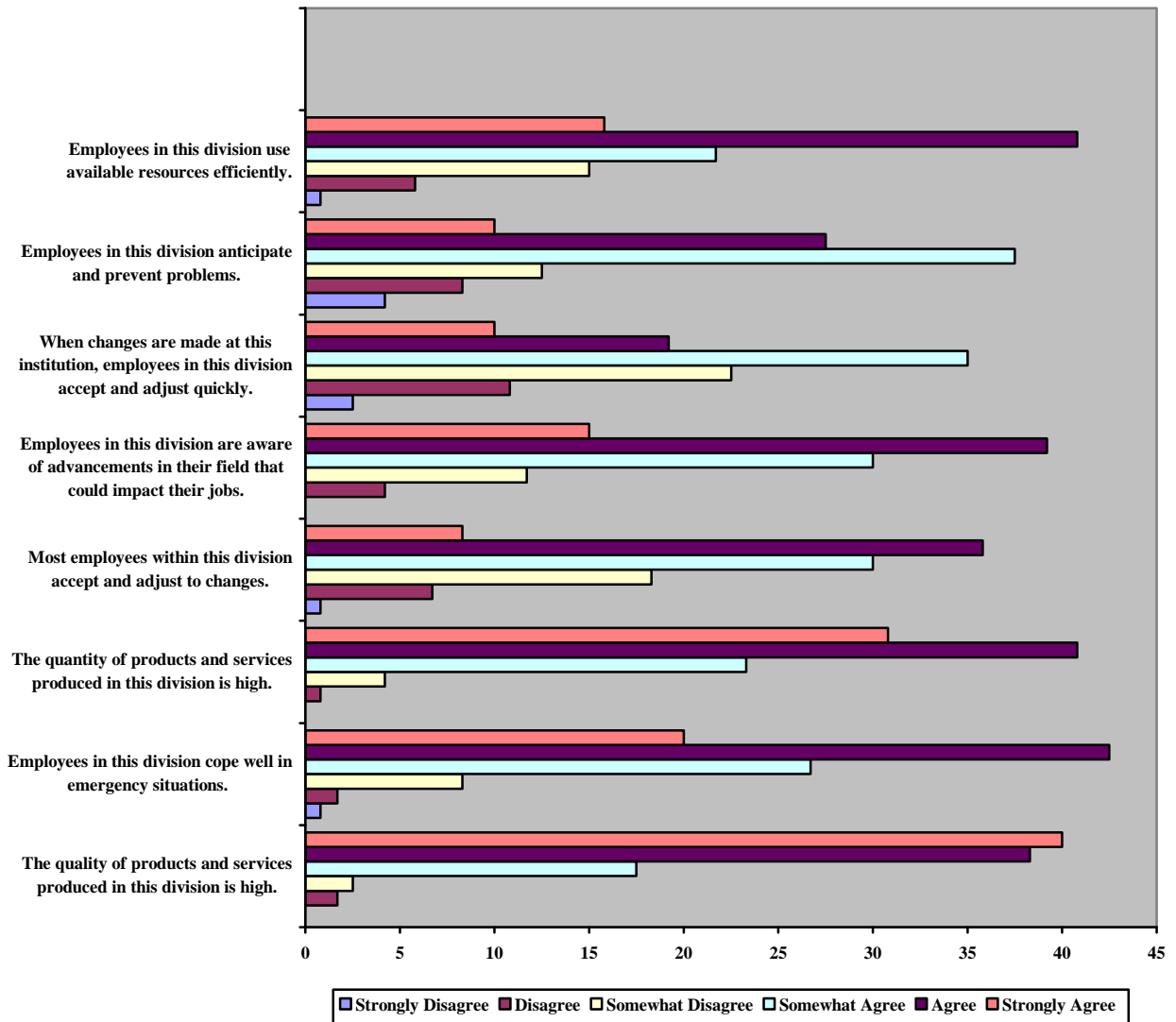


Figure 3. OE Item Responses

Research Questions Three, Four, Five, Six and Seven

At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon gender?

At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon age?

At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon employment classification?

At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon length of service?

At XYZ University are there differences in full-time employees' perceptions of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based upon institutional division type?

Research questions three, four, five, six and seven specifically analyzed possible differences in employee perceptions of both organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness based on demographic variables (gender, age, employment classification, length of service and institutional division). Although previous research has found significant differences between these constructs and demographics, the present study did not achieve similar results.

Research Question Eight

What is the relationship between organizational citizenship and organizational effectiveness at XYZ institution?

The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness was positive and the relationship between the constructs was statistically significant. In fact, the results of the correlational analysis indicated a high positive correlation, ($r = .826$), and the relationship was statistically significant at the $p < .01$ level. This finding is consistent with previous research (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997;

Podsakoff & McKenzie, 1997; Walz & Niehoff, 1996; DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy, 2007; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009) in that as employees perceive higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior among their colleagues, their perceptions of organizational effectiveness are also higher.

Organizational effectiveness (dependent variable) was also regressed on the independent variables of organizational citizenship behavior and all demographic variables to determine which predicts effectiveness. Results indicated that organizational citizenship behavior was significant ($\beta = .83$, $p < .01$). The institutional division or work unit was significant ($p < .043$) and when age was aggregated to include those 50 Years and Younger and those 51 Years and Older, it was also found to be significant ($p < .016$).

Conclusions

Based on the data analysis and findings, several conclusions can be drawn from this study.

Conclusion One

The adapted measures of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale and the School Effectiveness Index were found to be reliable and valid for this study within the higher education context.

In addition to addressing the specific research questions, this study also served as a pilot test for the survey instrumentation for use in higher education institutions. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated and a factor analysis was also conducted for the adapted versions of both instruments. The results of these analyses indicate that both measures are valid and reliable for use in higher education.

According to Muijs (2004), a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .70 for an instrument is considered reliable. Thus reliability was confirmed for both the OCB Scale ($\alpha = .87$) and the OE Index ($\alpha = .90$). The alpha coefficients for the instruments in study were both similar to those of previous iterations of the instruments. Reliability for the Organizational Citizenship Behavior for Schools Scale, established by DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) was .87. In 2007, DiPaola, Tarter and Hoy (2007) refined the scale and called it the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCB). This scale was tested in elementary, middle and high schools and the alpha coefficients equaled .93, .93 and .86, respectively. The Organizational Effectiveness Index utilized in this study is an adaption of previous versions, most recently the School Effectiveness Index which has been used in primary and secondary education. Alpha coefficients of reliability have found to be from .87 to .89 (Hoy & Ferguson, 1985; Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991; Miskel, Fevurly, & Stewart, 1979). In the present study, the reliability ($\alpha = .90$) is consistent with previous versions of the instrument.

A factor analysis for the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale also validated the instrument. As previously shown in Table 8, the factor structure of the OCB used in the present study is similar to that of previous versions, which were utilized in educational settings, primarily elementary, middle and high schools. Unlike Mott's (1972) factor analysis, only one factor emerged for the Organizational Effectiveness Index. However, a Principal Component Analysis revealed one strong factor with an eigenvalue of 4.85, which explains 59% of the variance in organizational effectiveness. The psychometric properties of the adapted survey instruments indicate that they are suitable to measure organizational citizenship behavior and effectiveness in the higher education context.

Conclusion Two

Based on the strong positive perceptions of organizational citizenship and organizational effectiveness, the climate at XYZ University appears to be quite pervasive.

Forehand and Gilmer (1964) defined organizational climate as the “the set of characteristics that describe an organization and that (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations, (b) are relatively enduring over time, and (c) influence the behavior of people in the organization” (p. 362). Considering the item analysis of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Organizational Effectiveness surveys, it appears that employees at the site institution of study perceive high levels of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness. On average, 81.2% of respondents agreed on some level that colleagues within their institutional division exhibited positive organizational citizenship behavior and only 18.8% disagreed. In regard to organizational effectiveness, the numbers were very similar in that 82% of employees agreed with the items indicating a high level of effectiveness and only 18% disagreed.

One could infer that employees exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors because they believe they contribute to the institution on some level. While the present study only presented a snapshot of employee perceptions of behavior, it does describe characteristics of the organization that distinguish it from others, which are some of the major components that define an organization’s climate, according to Forehand and Gilmer (1964).

Further, there were no significant differences among respondents based on demographic variables. While somewhat unexpected, it is informative regarding the climate. It suggests that the climate resonates throughout the institution and reinforces other findings of the study. Collectively, over 80% of the respondents agreed, on some level, that organizational citizenship

behavior and effectiveness are prevalent in their work units. Also, the item analysis conducted in research questions one and two revealed that employees are very altruistic, perceive high levels of productivity, are somewhat averse to change and have certain expectations regarding communication. All of these are characteristic of a collegial institution, which emphasizes consensus, shared power and common commitment and aspirations (Birnbaum, 1988).

Conclusion Three

Employees that perceive higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior also hold high perceptions of organizational effectiveness.

Analysis of the organizational behavior and effectiveness scores using a Pearson's correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) revealed a high positive correlation. ($r = .826$) and the relationship was also statistically significant ($p < .01$). With such a strong correlation between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness, the total scores for each were regressed using linear regression. Organizational effectiveness was regressed on organizational citizenship behavior to determine if it predicts effectiveness. Results indicated that organizational citizenship behavior was significant ($\beta = .83$, $p < .01$). Considering demographics in the regression analysis revealed significance among variables. When aggregated by academic (College of Arts and Sciences, College of Business, College of Education, Provost's Office) or administrative (Administration and Finance, Economic/Regional Development, Advancement and University Relations, President's Office, Student Affairs, Other) unit, the institutional division was significant ($p < .043$). For the data analysis, age was aggregated to include those 50 Years and Younger and those 51 Years and Older and was also found to be significant ($p < .016$).

The regression analysis also established that the Adjusted R^2 was .68, indicating that organizational citizenship behavior explains 68% of the difference in organizational

effectiveness. This finding is consistent with previous research (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Ahearne & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & McKenzie, 1997; Walz & Niehoff, 1996; DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy, 2007; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009) in that as employees perceive higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior among their colleagues, they also perceive higher levels of organizational effectiveness.

Recommendations for Policy and Practice

Considering the findings and conclusions of the present study, the researcher suggests the following recommendations for both policy and practice related to organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness.

Given the findings on the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness, researchers, practitioners and policymakers should place more emphasis upon understanding organizational citizenship behavior within the context of higher education.

Scholars conducting research in both private sector and primary and secondary education have established the potential impact that organizational citizenship behavior has on effectiveness within their sectors. Yet, these constructs have received little attention in higher education institutions. Research provides a basis for knowledge and influences decisions, programs and policies (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The outcome of limited research efforts is limited information. With limited information, practitioners and policymakers are not equipped to improve educational practices. Empirical evidence offers implications of research findings that help to build a knowledge-base regarding particular issues. An awareness of the constructs of organizational citizenship and organizational effectiveness by practitioners may inhibit possible negative outcomes and inspire positive ones. Karambayya's (1990) research

explored how organizations can foster desirable behaviors and identified contextual characteristics that foster an environment for favorable citizenship behaviors.

Decreasing state funding for public institutions and rising tuition for all types of institutions has created concern for all constituencies associated with higher education. Further understanding the complexities of organizational operations within higher education may provide practitioners and institutional leadership with the knowledge to position themselves for long-term growth and survival. This knowledge can then be utilized to provide policymakers with valuable knowledge and inform them as they develop policy to support and improve higher education institutions. Because COPLAC communicates with state and federal policy leaders and collaborates with major national higher education organizations to promote public liberal arts education, the member institutions could also utilize research on organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness to reinforce their advocacy efforts.

Along with the other avenues for determining effectiveness, institutional leadership within higher education institutions should recognize and evaluate the potential impact of organizational citizenship behavior.

For those that make organizational decisions within higher education, knowledge regarding the reality of organizational dynamics can help decision makers to embrace favorable circumstances and address unfavorable situations if necessary. Possessing this type of knowledge can equip both faculty and administrators to make useful comparisons to like institutions, identify necessary changes, make recommendations for improvement and measure the effectiveness of changes (Baird, 1990).

Even though this was a single institution study, the results are difficult to ignore. In this study, there was a clear correlation and relationship between organizational citizenship behavior

and organizational effectiveness. A vast majority of respondents agreed that actions associated with organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness were prevalent in their divisions. Analysis of the data also revealed a correlation and significant relationship between the two constructs. As shown in the literature review, previous research has found similar results in other types of organizations, particularly the private sector and primary and secondary schools.

Recommendations for Future Research

Considering the findings and conclusions of the present study, the researcher suggests the following recommendations for future research related to organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness.

A future study should incorporate qualitative measures to provide additional insight on the institutional environment.

The current study utilized an electronic survey to gather data and questions were closed-ended. Even though organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness have typically been investigated through quantitative measures, the researcher believes that value could result from incorporating a qualitative component in future studies. “Qualitative research describes and analyzes people’s individual and collective social actions, beliefs, thoughts and perceptions” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 395). Further exploration may incorporate open-ended questions alongside quantitative research questions. Due to the fact that the constructs of citizenship and effectiveness have not been investigated extensively in higher education, employing different approaches to research has the potential to build the literature, which should lead to a better understanding of the constructs.

A future study should investigate organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness at other institutional types.

The current study only surveyed full-time employees at a public liberal arts institution. Further research may find differences in the relationship between the two constructs depending on the institution's mission or institutional control (private vs. public). Additionally, the set of research questions were not conclusive about the relationship between the constructs of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness when demographics were considered. Perhaps, the demographic variables might uncover differences at another type of institution. Replicating this study in other types of higher education institutions has the potential to provide a body of literature that could impact organizational operations across all types of higher education institutions.

Future studies should utilize the adapted measures of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness in order to continue to investigate the reliability and validity within the context of higher education.

This study served as a pilot study for the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale and Organizational Effectiveness Index within higher education. Even though these measures have been historically reliable and valid in primary and secondary education and the private sector, this study is believed to be the only, or one of a few, to test the instruments within a higher education environment. Additional studies should continue to test both reliability and validity in an effort to produce refined and standardized measures of organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness that will be available for use in future studies.

Concluding Thoughts

This study contributed to the scholarly research on organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness within the context of higher education, specifically at a public liberal arts institution. This study also served as a pilot test for two measures, the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale and Organizational Effectiveness Index. In addition to building the knowledge-base and testing the measures for future use in higher education, this study developed recommendations for researchers, policymakers and practitioners.

The results provided insight to the site institution regarding organizational behavior, particularly employee perceptions and the potential impact on organizational operations. The majority (over 80%) of employees reported high levels of organizational citizenship behavior within their institutional division. At the same time, these employees also held high perceptions of organizational effectiveness. Data analysis provided further evidence of organizational behavior and characteristics through a strong correlation and significant relationship between citizenship and effectiveness.

An ancillary objective of this study was to test the instrumentation for use in higher education institutions. A Pearson's r correlation coefficient and factor analysis established the reliability and validity of the instrumentation within the context of higher education. Consequently, these measures have the potential to equip other public liberal arts colleges and universities with tools to consider utilizing in both planning and assessment.

This study also developed recommendations for leaders and decision makers. Through increased research efforts, higher education scholars can call attention to the importance of employee behavior on overall organizational operations and provide data to inform both practitioners and policymakers. Practitioners, particularly institutional leaders, should use this

information to improve operations and policymakers should utilize the empirical evidence to implement valuable programs and encourage effective practices. All parties should work together to ensure that colleges and universities are in a position to truly achieve their mission of higher education.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

COPLAC Member Institutions

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Location</i>
Eastern Connecticut State University	Willmantic, CT
The Evergreen State College	Olympia, WA
Fort Lewis College	Durango, CO
Georgia College & State University	Milledgeville, GA
Henderson State University	Arkadelphia, AR
Keene State College	Keene, NH
Massachusetts College of Liberal Arts	North Adams, MA
Midwestern State University	Wichita Falls, TX
New College of Florida	Sarasota, FL
Ramapo College of New Jersey	Mahwah, NJ
St. Mary's College of Maryland	St. Mary's, MD
Shepherd University	Shepherdstown, WV
Sonoma State University	Rohnert Park, CA
Southern Oregon University	Ashland, OR
Southern Utah University	Cedar City, UT
SUNY College at Geneseo	Geneseo, NY
Truman State University	Kirksville, MO
University of Alberta (Augustana Campus)	Camrose, Alberta
University of Illinois at Springfield	Springfield, IL
University of Maine at Farmington	Farmington, ME
University of Mary Washington	Fredericksburg, VA
University of Minnesota-Morris	Morris, MN
University of Montevallo	Montevallo, AL
University of North Carolina Asheville	Asheville, NC
The University of Science and Arts of Oklahoma	Chickasha, OK
University of Virginia's College at Wise	Wise, VA
University of Wisconsin-Superior	Superior, WI

Data Source: COPLAC Website, www.coplac.org, 2013

Appendix B

IRB Approval

February 6, 2013

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



Racheal Banks
Department of ELPTS
College of Education
Box 870231

Re: IRB # 13-OR-043: "Organizational Climate, Citizenship and Effectiveness in a Public Liberal Arts Institution"

Dear Ms. Banks,

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

Your application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. You have also been granted a waiver of written 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 February 5, 2014. If the study continues beyond that date, you must complete the IRB Renewal Application. If you modify the application, please 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, please complete the Request for Study Closure (Investigator) form.

Please use the IRB-approved consent language.

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

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



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



358 Rose Administration Building
Box 870127
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0127
(205) 348-8461
FAX (205) 348-7189
TOLL FREE (877) 820-3066

Appendix C

Text of Recruitment Invitation Email Sent to Potential Study Participants

Greetings. My name is Racheal Banks and I am a doctoral student in the Higher Education Administration program at the University of Alabama and am currently employed at the University of South Alabama.

I would like to invite you to participate in an on-line survey that I am conducting as part of my dissertation. The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of full-time employees' perspectives on organizational climate, citizenship behaviors, and organizational effectiveness in public liberal arts institutions such as the one at which you are employed from the perspective of employees.

Your participation in this survey is extremely important and will remain confidential. You will not be asked to provide your name or any personally identifiable information, nor will the IP address from which you send your survey response be collected. Submissions are completely anonymous, as is the name of the institution.

I am attaching a file containing more detailed information concerning the study, its purposes, and study participants' rights for you to review as you consider taking part. The information in this file is also provided at the beginning of the on-line survey and you will be asked to indicate your understanding of the study and your role in it and your informed willingness to participate.

This is a short survey that will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

In order to participate, please follow the hyperlink below:

HYPERLINK TO URL OF SURVEY

If you have any difficulty in accessing the survey directly through clicking on the link, it can be copied and pasted into your web browser instead.

Thank you in advance for taking time to participate in this study. If you are interested in receiving a copy of the results of this study when they are available, please email Racheal Banks at rbbanks@crimson.ua.edu.

Sincerely, Racheal Banks

Appendix D

Text of Follow-up Survey Invitation Email Sent to Potential Study Participants

Greetings. I am contacting you again regarding a request from me to participate in a brief on-line survey on organizational behavior at public liberal arts institutions that you recently received from me. I hope you will take a few minutes to participate in the study.

Again, my name is Racheal Banks and I am a doctoral student in the Higher Education Administration program at the University of Alabama and am currently employed at the University of South Alabama.

I would like to invite you to participate in an on-line survey that I am conducting as part of my dissertation. The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of full-time employees' perspectives on organizational climate, citizenship behaviors, and organizational effectiveness in public liberal arts institutions such as the one at which you are employed from the perspective of employees.

Your participation in this survey is extremely important and will remain confidential. You will not be asked to provide your name or any personally identifiable information, nor will the IP address from which you send your survey response be collected. Submissions are completely anonymous, as is the name of the institution.

I am attaching a file containing more detailed information concerning the study, its purposes, and study participants' rights for you to review as you consider taking part. The information in this file is also provided at the beginning of the on-line survey and you will be asked to indicate your understanding of the study and your role in it and your informed willingness to participate.

This is a short survey that will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

If you have already completed the survey, I sincerely thank you for your assistance and apologize for the repeated communications. If you have not completed the survey but still would like to participate, please follow the hyperlink below:

HYPERLINK TO URL OF SURVEY

If you have any difficulty in accessing the survey directly through clicking on the link, it can be copied and pasted into your web browser instead.

Thanks again for taking time from your busy schedule to complete the questionnaire. Again, if you are interested in receiving a copy of the results of this study when they are available, please email Racheal Banks at rbbanks@crimson.ua.edu.

Sincerely, Racheal Banks

Appendix E Informed Consent

You are invited to participate in a research study titled *Organizational Climate, Citizenship and Effectiveness in a Public Liberal Arts Institution*. This study is being conducted by Ms. Racheal Banks, a doctoral degree candidate in the Department of Higher Education Administration at the University of Alabama. Ms. Banks is being supervised by Dr. David E. Hardy, Associate Dean for Research and Service and Associate Professor of Higher Education in the College of Education at The University of Alabama. Because this study is a partial fulfillment of requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree, Ms. Banks is not receiving any salary or financial aid for completing this project.

In conducting this survey-based, quantitative study, Ms. Banks wishes to gain an understanding of organizational climate, citizenship, and organizational effectiveness at a public liberal arts institution, such as the one at which you are currently employed.

Taking part in this study involves completing an on-line, web-based survey that will take approximately 10 minutes. The survey contains questions about organizational climate, citizenship and effectiveness, as well as some items designed to collect basic demographic information (i.e., gender, age, employment classification, length of service and academic discipline/functional area) from you.

All full-time faculty, staff and administrative professionals at your institution are being invited to participate in this study, and participation is entirely voluntary.

In order to protect your confidentiality, no personally identifiable information will be collected as part of this study. Specifically, the survey will not ask for your name, e-mail address, birth date, job title, or specific department, nor will the IP address from which you submit the survey be collected when you respond. Data will initially be stored on a secure website at Qualtrics (<http://www.qualtrics.com>), the survey system provider utilized by the College of Education at The University of Alabama, until the researchers download it for analysis. Once data is downloaded, it will be stored on a password protected external drive in a locked cabinet at the principal investigator's personal residence. Data will only be available to the investigator and will be deleted and destroyed upon completion of the study and all data analysis. Only summarized data will be presented at meetings or in publications. Likewise, no individual responses will be published or provided to your institution, and the name of your institution will not be included in any written or oral presentation of the results of this study.

There will be no direct, personal benefits to you from participating in this study. However, the findings will be useful to the researchers, and to leaders and employees at public liberal arts institutions, in developing a better understanding of employees' behaviors and perceptions that could prove to be helpful in providing insights on the complexities of organizational operations, and improving institutional environments regarding climate, citizenship and effectiveness.

Essentially, there are no foreseeable risks to you personally or to your institution if you choose to participate in this study. The chief risk is that one or more of the questions might make you feel temporarily uncomfortable while completing the survey, as they ask you to assess the quality and effectiveness of the division in which you work and the characteristics and behaviors of you and your co-workers as a whole group related to organizational citizenship at your institution. However, you may skip any questions you do not want to answer or discontinue your preparation at any time.

Again, your individual responses will not be reported but, rather, will be used in calculating group statistics by such categories as gender, age group, length of service, employment type (i.e., faculty, staff, etc.), and organizational unit (i.e., Administration & Finance, Student Affairs, College of Business, etc.).

Neither choosing or not choosing to participate in the study, nor deciding to discontinue participation or skipping questions in the survey once you have begun will have any effect on your job or your relations with your employer/institution.

If you have questions or problems related to this study please contact the principal investigator, Ms. Racheal Banks at 205-337-3515 or rbbanks@crimson.ua.edu or her dissertation supervisor, Dr. David Hardy, at 205-348-6874 or dhardy@bamaed.ua.edu.

If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant, contact Ms. Tanta Myles (the University Compliance Officer) at 205-348-8461 or toll free at 1-877-820-3066. If you have complaints or concerns about this study, file the through the UA IRB Outreach website at http://osp.ua.site/PRCO_Welcome.html. Also, if you participate, you are encouraged to complete the short Survey for Research Participants that is online at this website. This helps UA improve its protection of human research participants.

Again, **YOUR PARTICIPATION IS COMPLETELY VOLUNTARY**. You are free not to participate or stop participating any time before you submit your answers.

If you understand the statements above, are at least 18 years old, and freely choose to take part in this study, please indicate this by choosing YES on the first page of the survey questionnaire.

Thank you, in advance, for your participation in this study.

Appendix F

Organizational Climate, Citizenship, and Effectiveness Survey

Informed Consent

You are invited to participate in a research study titled Organizational Climate, Citizenship and Effectiveness in a Public Liberal Arts Institution. This study is being conducted by Ms. Racheal Banks, a doctoral degree candidate in the Department of Higher Education Administration at the University of Alabama. Ms. Banks is being supervised by Dr. David E. Hardy, Associate Dean for Research and Service and Associate Professor of Higher Education in the College of Education at The University of Alabama. Because this study is a partial fulfillment of requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree, Ms. Banks is not receiving any salary or financial aid for completing this project. In conducting this survey-based, quantitative study, Ms. Banks wishes to gain an understanding of organizational climate, citizenship, and organizational effectiveness at a public liberal arts institution, such as the one at which you are currently employed. Taking part in this study involves completing an on-line, web-based survey that will take approximately 10 minutes. The survey contains questions about organizational climate, citizenship and effectiveness, as well as some items designed to collect basic demographic information (i.e., gender, age, employment classification, length of service and academic discipline/functional area) from you. All full-time faculty, staff and administrative professionals at your institution are being invited to participate in this study, and participation is entirely voluntary. In order to protect your confidentiality, no personally identifiable information will be collected as part of this study. Specifically, the survey will not ask for your name, e-mail address, birth date, job title, or specific department, nor will the IP address from which you submit the survey be collected when you respond. Data will initially be stored on a secure website at Qualtrics (<http://www.qualtrics.com>), the survey system provider utilized by the College of Education at The University of Alabama, until the researchers download it for analysis. Once data is downloaded, it will be stored on a password protected external drive in a locked cabinet at the principal investigator's personal residence. Data will only be available to the investigator and will be deleted and destroyed upon completion of the study and all data analysis. Only summarized data will be presented at meetings or in publications. Likewise, no individual responses will be published or provided to your institution, and the name of your institution will not be included in any written or oral presentation of the results of this study. There will be no direct, personal benefits to you from participating in this study. However, the findings will be useful to the researchers, and to leaders and employees at public liberal arts institutions, in developing a better understanding of employees' behaviors and perceptions that could prove to be helpful in providing insights on the complexities of organizational operations, and improving institutional environments regarding climate, citizenship and effectiveness. Essentially, there are no foreseeable risks to you personally or to your institution if you choose to participate in this study. The chief risk is that one or more of the questions might make you feel temporarily uncomfortable while completing the survey, as they ask you to assess the quality and effectiveness of the division in which you work and the characteristics and behaviors of you and your co-workers as a whole group related to organizational citizenship at your institution. However, you may skip any questions you do not want to answer or discontinue your preparation at any time. Again, your individual responses will not be reported but, rather, will be used in

calculating group statistics by such categories as gender, age group, length of service, employment type (i.e., faculty, staff, etc.), and organizational unit (i.e., Administration & Finance, Student Affairs, College of Business, etc.). Neither choosing or not choosing to participate in the study, nor deciding to discontinue participation or skipping questions in the survey once you have begun will have any effect on your job or your relations with your employer/institution. If you have questions or problems related to this study please contact the principal investigator, Ms. Racheal Banks at 205-337-3515 or rbbanks@crimson.ua.edu or her dissertation supervisor, Dr. David Hardy, at 205-348-6874 or dhardy@bamaed.ua.edu. If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant, contact Ms. Tanta Myles (the University Compliance Officer) at 205-348-8461 or toll free at 1-877-820-3066. If you have complaints or concerns about this study, file the through the UA IRB Outreach website at http://osp.ua.site/PRCO_Welcome.html. Also, if you participate, you are encouraged to complete the short Survey for Research Participants that is online at this website. This helps UA improve its protection of human research participants. Again, YOUR PARTICIPATION IS COMPLETELY VOLUNTARY. You are free not to participate or stop participating any time before you submit your answers. If you understand the statements above, are at least 18 years old, and freely choose to take part in this study, please indicate this by choosing Yes below, and you will be taken to the first page of the survey questionnaire. Thank you, in advance, for your participation in this study. By choosing Yes below, I acknowledge that I have read and understand the information concerning this study and my rights as a participant. Do you agree to continue?

4. Yes
5. No

Demographics

Please indicate your academic discipline/functional area.

6. Administration and Finance
7. Advancement and University Relations
8. College of Arts and Sciences
9. College of Business
10. College of Education
11. Economic Development and Regional Engagement
12. President's Office
13. Provost's Office
14. Student Affairs
15. Other

How long have you been employed at this institution?

16. Less than 1 year
17. 1-4 years
18. 5-9 years
19. 10-19 years

20. 20 years and above

Please indicate your current employment classification.

- 21. Clerical/secretarial
- 22. Executive/administrative/managerial
- 23. Faculty
- 24. Technical/paraprofessional
- 25. Other

What is your gender?

- 26. Male
- 27. Female

What is your age?

- 28. Under 20
- 29. 21-30
- 30. 31-40
- 31. 41-50
- 32. 51 and above

Question Block 1

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements about your work unit/division within the institution:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The quality of products and services produced in this division is high.	33.	34.	35.	36.	37.	38.
Employees in this division cope well in emergency situations.	39.	40.	41.	42.	43.	44.
The quantity of products and services produced in this division is high.	45.	46.	47.	48.	49.	50.
Most employees within this division accept and adjust to changes.	51.	52.	53.	54.	55.	56.
Employees in this division are aware of advancements in their field that could impact their jobs.	57.	58.	59.	60.	61.	62.
When changes are made at this institution, employees in this division accept and adjust quickly.	63.	64.	65.	66.	67.	68.
Employees in this division anticipate and prevent problems.	69.	70.	71.	72.	73.	74.
Employees in this division use available resources efficiently.	75.	76.	77.	78.	79.	80.

Question Block 2

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements about your work unit/division within the institution:

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Employees in this division help others on their own time.	81.	82.	83.	84.	85.	86.
Employees in this division do not use their time efficiently.	87.	88.	89.	90.	91.	92.
Employees in this division voluntarily help new employees.	93.	94.	95.	96.	97.	98.
Employees in this division volunteer to serve on committees.	99.	100.	101.	102.	103.	104.
Employees in this division volunteer to participate in or sponsor extracurricular activities.	105.	106.	107.	108.	109.	110.
Employees in this division arrive at work promptly and use work time effectively.	111.	112.	113.	114.	115.	116.
Employees in this division take the initiative to introduce themselves to new employees.	117.	118.	119.	120.	121.	122.
Employees in this division effectively communicate changes to colleagues.	123.	124.	125.	126.	127.	128.
Employees in this division are required to spend excessive time on activities outside of the institution's mission.	129.	130.	131.	132.	133.	134.
Employees in this division work productively.	135.	136.	137.	138.	139.	140.
Employees in this division make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the institution.	141.	142.	143.	144.	145.	146.