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School District of Philadelphia Student Achievement as Related to 2008-2009 K-8 Teachers' Perceptions of Major Academic Indicators

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SCHOOL DISTRICT OF PHILADELPHIA STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT AS RELATED TO 2008-2009 K-8 TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF MAJOR ACADEMIC INDICATORS

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by

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This Dissertation has been accepted for the Faculty of Seton Hall University

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my beloved husband, Alfred, who has encouraged me without reservation and who has put up with losing our dining room, without complaint, for nearly four years as I pursued this educational goal.

It is also dedicated to my dear children, John and Tracey, and to my wonderful grandchildren - Kennedy Danielle, Jahn Elijah, and Juan Eliot. Let it serve as a reminder to all of you to reach for the stars. No dream is too large or too far from reach; and it is never too late to pursue them.

Most of all, I dedicate this document to my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, who has given me the strength and the perseverance to complete the most challenging task of my life.

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SCHOOL DISTRICT OF PHILADELPHIA ACHIEVEMENT AS RELATED TO 2008-2009 PK-8 TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF MAJOR ACADEMIC INDICATORS

ABSTRACT

The School District of Philadelphia (SDP), established in 1818, is the eighth largest school district in the United States, with a student enrollment of 184,560 K-12 students. Like most of the other large urban school districts in the United States, its student population consists of more minority students than non-minority students[1]. As the white student population dwindles, due to the "white flight" of their parents from the city schools to private, parochial, and charter schools and the suburbs, the poverty level in the city's public schools has increased.

An achievement gap between African American and Latino students and White students exists in nearly every school district in the United States. Low socioeconomic status (SES) is frequently cited as the reason students do not achieve academically. Because many African American and Latino students live in low SES areas, it is often assumed that their lack of success in school is primarily due to their home and neighborhood environments. Several educational researchers, school superintendents, staff, and parents have challenged this belief, however.

When Dr. Arlene Ackerman became Superintendent of Schools for the School District of Philadelphia in July 2008, she espoused and promoted her Core Beliefs, which were:

- Children come first.
- Parents are our partners.
- Victory is in the classroom and facilitated by a strong instructional leader.

- Leadership and accountability are the keys to success.
- It takes the engagement of the entire community to ensure the success of its public schools.

In the spring of 2009, at the end of the first full year of Dr. Ackerman's tenure as Superintendent of the District, the SDP teachers completed an annual Teachers' Survey.

This study investigated the results of that survey as it related to the relationship between the perceptions and attitudes of the 2,457 teachers in 92 of the 96 SDP K-8 public schools who voluntarily took the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey and the academic performance of their K-8 schools that year, while controlling for the socio-economic status of the schools.

The results of this study point to the possibility that there are specific variables that can positively affect student achievement, when in place, and negatively affect it, when not in place. Those variables are teacher efficacy, academic press, teacher-parent trust, teachers' outside of the classroom citizenship behavior, and teachers' trust in their administrative and peer leaders.

In part, this study confirmed past research, which examined the same relationships and found, more specifically, that the collective efficacy of teachers within 146 elementary schools in Ohio (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, et. al., 1998) has a positive direct effect on student reading and mathematics achievement. However, because this study was not able to strictly follow the Academic Optimism study parameters it was unable to provide outcome results that mirror previous studies. These results prompted the presentation of numerous implications for theory, practice, and future research.

[1] Minority students are defined in the School District of Philadelphia as all non-White/Caucasian students

SCHOOL DISTRICT OF PHILADELPHIA ACHIEVEMENT AS RELATED TO 2008-2009 PK-8 TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF MAJOR ACADEMIC INDICATORS

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

There is an achievement gap between African American and Latino students and White students in nearly every school district in the United States. The achievement gap between African American and Latino students and their white counterparts is a conundrum that has perplexed educators for decades; and the search for a solution to this problem has become the lifelong work of some educational researchers.

Low socioeconomic status (SES) is frequently cited as the reason students do not achieve well academically. Because many African American and Latino students live in low SES areas, it is often assumed that their lack of success in school is primarily due to their home and neighborhood environments. However, if this were really true, then, it stands to reason, that there would not be any achievement gaps in high SES school districts, like those found in affluent suburbs. Research and historical data show that this is not always the case though.

In 1954, the Supreme Court Brown versus Board of Education ruled unanimously to overturn the Plessy v. Ferguson "separate but equal" doctrine. This landmark decision declared that racial segregation of public schools was illegal (Brown v. Board of Education, 1954). Shortly after, the integration of schools began. From 1954 to the 1960s, states took varying approaches to integrating schools with varying successes and failures.

A decade later, as part of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Coleman Report was authorized to study the effects of integrated schools. The final report was released two years later (Coleman, et. al., 1966). Titled, *Equality of Educational Opportunity*, and also known as the Coleman Report after its primary investigator, it was one of the largest

studies in history, with more than 150,000 students, and it fueled the debate about "school effects".

The research suggested that socially disadvantaged black students profited from schooling in racially-mixed classrooms. This finding served as the catalyst for the implementation of desegregation busing systems, which ferried black children to integrated schools in predominantly white neighborhoods.

The findings of the report shook the beliefs upon which many educators and social reformers had staked their work and marked the beginning of a new era for research on education and more general understanding of how schools work. The report found that black children started school trailing behind their white counterparts and essentially never caught up. It further concluded that what mattered more in determining children's academic success was, not the school, but their family backgrounds (Viadero, 2006).

For over forty-five years since the release of the Coleman Report, school reformers and researchers have sought a recipe for student success in schools. This included the identification of social and organizational characteristics of schools that influence student achievement beyond the socioeconomic condition of students, families and local communities (Public Citizens for Children and Youth, 2008; Crew, 2007; Hoy, Tarter, & Hoy, 2005; H. Green, 2003).

Coleman (1966) and subsequent researchers continued to argue that school-level factors, such as instructional leadership, school schedule, and class size, had less impact on student achievement than the connection between social class and student performance in school (Hoy, Tarter, & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2006; Hoy, Sweetland, & Smith,

2002; McGuigan & Hoy, 2005). Although this connection is strongly supported and prevalent in educational research, educators have been reluctant to accept that there are no factors within their control that can impact the achievement of the students they serve. The idea that SES could be the primary determinant of student academic achievement flies in the face of the fundamental values of public education in which educators believe they can and do make a significant difference in the lives of children from all socioeconomic backgrounds.

More recently, the No Child Left Behind [NCLB] legislation, introduced in 2001, instituted a sense of urgency in American public schools to meet federal standards of attendance, graduation, and academic achievement in reading and mathematics (No Child Left Behind, 2001). The consequences for schools that failed to meet state benchmarks for adequate yearly progress (AYP) included corrective action plans, possible organizational restructuring, and redirected state and/or federal funding for poor academic performance. Schools that continued to fail were subject to new organizational management and school choice options for parents who requested school attendance for their children in more successful schools (Jurewicz, 2004).

A major area of concern in NCLB is that of parent involvement in schools. Ironically, even though the law requires schools to enact programs in this area, there is no mention within the law of how to involve parents and nothing to differentiate the differences in parental involvement in schools by level.

Given the successes and failures of NCLB, President Obama's election in 2008 caused many to hope that NCLB would be abolished soon after his taking office. To date, however, it has not happened. Instead, in March 2010, the Obama Administration

unveiled to the country a plan, called its blueprint, to radically change former President Bush's NCLB law, which they viewed as a flawed law with an accountability system that has labeled more than a third of the nation's schools as failing. It claims NCLB has created "a hodgepodge of sometimes weak academic standards among states" (Turner, 2010). Their proposal to dismantle the 2002 No Child Left Behind law was said to be a move away from punishing schools that have not met benchmarks. Instead the focus would be on rewarding schools for progress, particularly those with poor and minority students.

The proposed changes in the blueprint call for states to adopt standards that ensure students are ready for college or a career rather than grade-level proficiency — the focus of the current law. The blueprint also allows states to use subjects other than reading and mathematics as part of their measurements for meeting federal goals. This possibility pleases many education groups who have said No Child Left Behind encouraged teachers not to focus on history, art, science, social studies and other important subjects" (Turner, 2010).

The current White House Administration also proposed a $4 billion increase in federal education spending, most of which would go to increase the competition among states for grant money and a move away from formula-based funding. Over $100 billion in education money was provided through an economic stimulus package that was predominantly provided to stem huge educational cuts by states, fund programs for special education, low-income students, and early-childhood initiatives, and provide incentives to everyone, from teachers to state officials, to think in terms of reform. The reform piece of the stimulus package also included $5 billion in incentive grants, which

U.S. education secretary Arne Duncan called "race to the top" money.

"A Blueprint for Reform: *The Reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act" (March 2010),* published by the United States Department of Education, begins by saying:

> "Today, more than ever, a world-class education is a prerequisite for success. America was once the best educated nation in the world. A generation ago, we led all nations in college completion, but today, 10 countries have passed us. It is not that their students are smarter than ours. It is that these countries are being smarter about how to educate their students. And the countries that out-educate us today will out-compete us tomorrow. We must do better. Together, we must achieve a new goal, that by 2020, the United States will once again lead the world in college completion. We must raise the expectations for our students, for our schools, and for ourselves – this must be a national priority. We must ensure that student graduates from high school are well prepared for college and a career. A world-class education is also a moral imperative – the key to securing a more equal, fair, and just society. We will not remain true to our highest ideals unless we do a far better job of educating each one of our sons and daughters. We will not be able to keep the American promise of equal opportunity if we fail to provide a world-class education to every child. This effort will require the skills and talents of many, but especially our nation's teachers, principals, and other school leaders. Our goal must be to have a great teacher in every classroom and a great principal in every school. We know that from the moment students enter a school, the most important factor in their success is not the color of their skin or the income of their parents – it is the teacher standing at the front of the classroom. To ensure the success of our children, we must do better to recruit, develop, support, retain, and reward outstanding teachers in America's classrooms."

Related to the research proposed in this study, this ambitious Blueprint for Reform proposes, among many other things, to provide funds to states and districts to develop and support effective teachers and leaders, with a focus on improving the effectiveness of teachers and leaders in high-need schools. It calls on states and districts to track equitable access to effective teachers and principals, and where needed, take steps to improve access to effective educators for students in high-poverty, high-minority

schools. To ensure that responsibility for improving student outcomes no longer falls solely at the door of schools, it promotes accountability for states and districts that are not providing their schools, principals, and teachers with the support they need to succeed (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). As a result of the tracking and accountability measures put into place by the blueprint proposals, dramatic change must be implemented in the lowest-performing schools that have not made progress over time.

For instance, states must have data systems in place to ensure public accountability and to gather information to determine how schools and districts are progressing in preparing students to graduate from high school, college and are career-ready. States and districts are required to collect and make public data relating to student academic achievement and growth in English language arts and mathematics, and student academic achievement in science. State accountability systems are expected to recognize progress and growth and reward success, rather than only identify failure.

To ensure that accountability no longer falls solely on the schools, districts and states are held accountable for providing their schools, principals, and teachers with the support they need to succeed. National recognition and incentives – sometimes financial, other times, more flexibility in how to spend school funds - go to those schools, districts, and states that significantly increase student performance for all students, close achievement gaps, or turn around the lowest-performing schools at the district and state level. Recognized as Reward Schools, Districts, and States, states will receive funds to design innovative programs to "reward" high-poverty Reward Schools and Reward Districts.

Schools, districts, and states not meeting the prescribed goals are known as Challenge Schools that need special assistance. The lowest performing schools in each state, based on academic achievement, student growth, and graduation rates, are required to implement one of four turnaround models.

For all Challenge Schools, districts implement strategies such as expanded learning time, supplemental educational services, public school choice, or other strategies to help students succeed. Challenge Districts whose schools, principals and teachers are not receiving the support they need to succeed also face significant governance or staffing changes, including replacement of the superintendent. In addition, both Challenge Districts and States face additional restrictions on the use of ESEA funds and may be required to work with an outside organization to improve student academic achievement.

The Blueprint recognizes that the interaction between teacher and student is the primary determinant of student success. It is said a great teacher can make the difference between a student who achieves at high levels and a student who slips through the cracks, and a great principal can help teachers succeed as part of a strong, well-supported instructional team. Its research shows that top-performing teachers can make a dramatic difference in the achievement of their students, and suggests that the impact of being assigned to top-performing teachers year after year is enough to significantly narrow achievement gaps. In general, the research indicates that more needs be done to ensure that every student has an effective teacher, every school has effective leaders, and every teacher and leader has access to the preparation, on-going support, recognition, and

collaboration opportunities he or she needs to succeed. States and districts are asked to put in place the conditions that allow for teachers, principals, and leaders at all levels of the school system to get meaningful information about their practice, and support them in using this information to ensure that all students are getting the effective teaching they deserve.

Finally, the Blueprint calls for statewide definitions of "effective and highly effective" teachers and principals and both states and school districts are expected to implement strategies to develop effective teachers and leaders that meet local needs.

"Critics of the *[NCLB]* law....have also long predicted that the law will, over time, determine that all but a handful of schools are failing — a label that would demoralize educators, lower property values and mislead parents about the instructional climates in their schools. President Obama, Mr. Duncan and many Republicans would like Congress to rewrite the testing and other much-criticized provisions of the law in a broad overhaul this year. The federal law proposes far-reaching changes, including replacing the pass-fail school accountability system with one that would measure individual students' academic growth and judge schools on other indicators like graduation rates, not just test scores. The administration's proposal would replace the 2014 goal with a new national target, raising standards so that all students who graduated from high school by 2020 were prepared to succeed in college and a career" (Dillon, 2011).

Critics of the Obama administration's Blueprint for Reform say it lacks a solid research basis for its proposals. In an article in Education Week (September 29, 2010), Dakarai I. Aarons quotes researchers from *The Obama Education Blueprint: Researchers*

Examine the Evidence, a book produced by the newly formed National Policy Center. The researchers examined the six research summaries the administration released in May 2010 to Congress to support the conclusions and proposals of the blueprint. They state: "the overall quality of the summaries is far below what is required for a national policy discussion of critical issues. Each of the summaries was found to give overly simplified, biased, and too brief explanations of complex issues." They further claim that the blueprint relies too heavily on the work of advocacy groups and that there is "a lack of research provided for two key pieces of the blueprint: the accountability system that is to replace the 'adequate yearly progress' measure under the No Child Left Behind Act and the four models school districts are to use to turn around low-performing schools."

Grover J. "Ross" Whitehurst, director of the Brown Center for Education Policy at the Brookings Institution, in Washington D.C., states "the Obama administration is no different from past administrations or Congress in moving forward public policy absent a strong research foundation." He expresses concern that the administration is inappropriately presenting its education policies as evidence-based, and states, "It's almost always the case that policy formation and implementation is out in front of the evidence base. You can't sit on your hands and do nothing if you think something needs to be done and you have been elected to do something."

It is the belief of this researcher and others that this is flawed thinking. To act for the sake of appearing to take action not only wastes time and money and allows the real problem to go unsolved for even longer periods of time, but it also cheats the children who are suffering from poor education. This causes other problems to arise, is both irresponsible and foolish, and amounts to "putting the cart before the horse". In many

ways, it is the equivalent of attempting to get a square peg to fit into a round hole, instead of finding the round peg that truly fits in the hole and closes the gap (Figure 1).

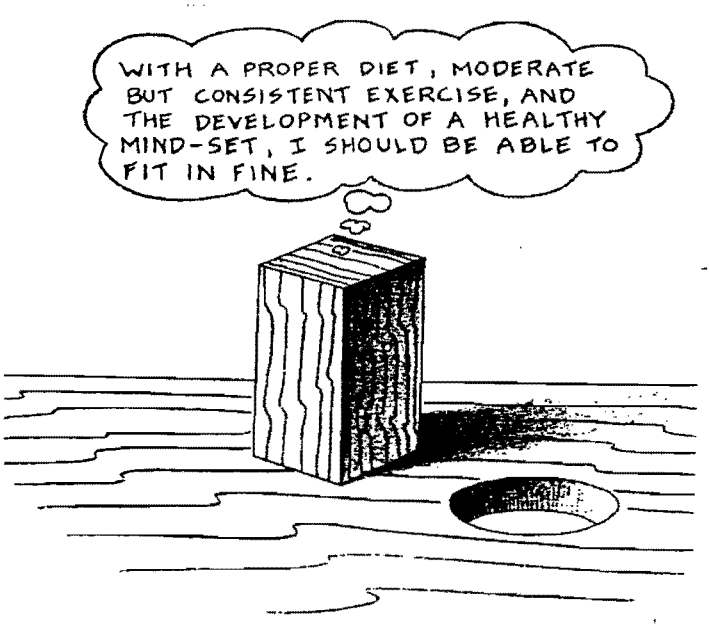

Figure 1. Fitting a Square Peg into a Round Hole (Artist unknown)

Kevin G. Welmer is quoted in an *Education Week* article by Sarah I. Sparks (September 29, 2010) as saying, "we very much believe that outcome of the game should be influenced by at least two things: universal opportunities for all students and policies being guided by high-quality research...." Sparks also quotes education professors Alex Molnar and Welner, founders of the new National Education Policy Center, as saying, "We want to move the discussion in education policy toward valuing high-quality research and incorporating the research into policy formation."

In an effort to get away from the agenda driven studies produced by nonacademic brain trusts, they and others are calling for think tank studies to be required to undergo blind-expert peer review to reduce common flaws like "failing to identify and correct selection bias, confusing correlations with causation, conducting selective literature

reviews, and overstating conclusions based on the data". Diane Ravitch, a research professor of education at New York University and a senior fellow at the Brookings Institution, is quoted in the same article as saying that "the problem is think tanks tend to have a point of view; that's not research, it's a think tank report, and there's a distinction."

Although the Obama administration's think tank plan calls for effective teachers, it seems to assume that teacher training and equitable distribution of resources are the answers to the achievement gap problem. Certainly these are worthy goals, but they are not enough. There is much more to student achievement than strong technical abilities of teachers and principals and resource redistribution.

The Obama blueprint calls for financial incentives for teachers and principals to improve the academic success of their students. Incentive pay, however, has been criticized as being an ineffective road to improved academic achievement and the elimination of the achievement gap. Such incentives, often in the form of bonuses or increased pay for working in poor achieving schools, have recently been shown to have no overall impact on student achievement.

The article, "Why pay incentives are destined to fail: and how they could undermine school reform" by Andrea Gabor (*Education Week*, September 22, 2010), raises doubt on the effectiveness of individualized pay incentives in improving academic achievement and closing the achievement gap. In the article, she posits pay incentives undermine team-based collaboration, thereby creating more problems than they solve. Gabor states the biggest problem with incentive pay is that it is inevitably viewed as unfair; and she says that the best thing about it is that it fosters a culture of

competitiveness that is "considered important to the organizational DNA and independent of fairness and efficacy".

She cites that even at the most successful companies, it is usually deemed a failure. People find ways to "game" the system. In addition, incentive pay runs counter to the logic of a systems approach to organizations because it does not take into account that a well run school will have a much more narrow range of performance among its employees than a poorly run one because management will hire higher caliber teachers there. Finally, Gabor quotes W. Edwards Deming, a leading proponent of systems thinking, as saying, "...merit pay nourishes short-term performance, annihilates long-term planning, builds fear, demolishes teamwork, nourishes rivalry and politics."

In "Study casts cold water on bonus pay: lasting achievement gains absent" (*Education Week*, September 29, 2010), Stephen Sawchuck reports on the findings of the Project on Incentives in Teaching, called POINT. POINT was a three-year randomized experiment, conducted by researchers affiliated with the National Center on Performance Incentives at Vanderbilt University. The study was designed to "study the hypothesis that a large monetary incentive would cause teachers to seek ways to be more effective and boost student scores as a result." Only two small positive findings resulted and they were limited to 5th graders in years two and three of the experiment. No effects were seen in the 6th – 8th grade students in any year of the study. In fact, the gains made by the 5th graders were lost when they moved into the higher grades. The experiment showed that: "On average, students taught by the teachers taking part in the program did not make larger academic gains that those taught by teachers in the normal wage group."

Some researchers and advocates believe the POINT findings "put to rest the idea that incentive pay in and of itself is enough to spur better teacher performance (Sawchuck, 2010)." According to Al Mance, of the Tennessee Education Association, however, "the study confirms what many teachers and unions have long believed: that teachers are already hardworking. For this study to show positive results...you'd have to have teachers who were saving their best strategies for an opportunity to get paid for them, and that is an absurd proposition (Sawchuck, 2010)."

Another finding of the POINT suggests that the debate over the use of test scores as a measure of student learning and teacher effectiveness remains a top concern for teachers because they question whether test-based criteria for determining teacher effectiveness are too narrow.

The findings of the POINT and other similar studies refute the belief by many that merit pay is the answer to the achievement gaps that are occurring across the country. They come at a time, however, when the U.S. Department of Education (USDOE) has announced new grantees under a federal program to provide the development of merit-pay programs for teachers and principals. "Under the Teacher Incentive Fund, $442 million in two-year grants was awarded to 62 school districts, non-profit groups, and state education organizations in 27 states."

The USDOE defended its decision to embrace the Teacher Incentive Fund (TIF) through its Race to the Top competition, which encourages states to institute new systems for evaluating teachers and for using the results of those evaluations to inform pay decisions. A USDOE representative says " What we are trying to do is change the culture of teaching by giving all educators the feedback they need to get better while rewarding

and incentivizing the best to teach in high-needs schools and hard-to-staff subjects (Sawchuck, 2010)."

If developing strong technical skills, reallocating resources, and providing financial incentives for teachers and principals cannot eliminate the achievement gap, in and of themselves, what can? If the USDOE and its various stimulus programs, created to address the achievement gap, have, to date, only produced sporadic change, what will produce measurable and sustainable change? If NCLB, which has been in existence since 2002, has not produced measurable success of its indicators related to reduction of the achievement gap, what can?

To help explain the differences in academic performance of schools, educational researchers have been searching for distinguishing school organizational traits that might reliably predict student achievement despite students' socioeconomic status. School organizational characteristics such as safe and orderly school climate, academic emphasis, and teacher efficacy and their empirical connections to student achievement were identified in the 1970s and 1980s as indicators of "effective schools" based on improvements in student achievement that occurred when those characteristics were present (Purkey & Smith, 1983).

In their study, *Academic Optimism of Schools and Student Achievement* (2006), Wayne K. Hoy, C. John Tarter, and Anita Woolfolk Hoy challenged the assumption that the socio-economic status of students was the primary cause of low academic achievement in high poverty schools. They identified a new construct they called "academic optimism" and used it to explain student achievement in a sample of high schools while controlling for SES, previous achievement, and urbanicity.

Academic optimism is a multi-faceted construct consisting of three parts: collective teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, also known as academic press, and faculty trust in students and parents.

In fact, several organizational properties that consistently correlate with student academic achievement have emerged within the results of most early research on effective schools. Among them are:

1. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) – voluntary and assistive teacher behaviors above and beyond performance expectations of their official role that "go the extra mile" to help students and colleagues succeed (DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy, 2005);
2. Collective teacher efficacy – Beliefs among teachers of their ability to teach students successfully (Bandura, 1993; Goddard, 2002; Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2000; Goddard, Sweetland, & Hoy, 2000; Hoy, Sweetland, et. al., 2002);
3. Faculty trust in students and parents (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, 2004; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001); and
4. Academic emphasis (also known as "academic press") – Seriousness of the school's focus on academic rigor and recognition (Byrk, Lee, & Holland, 1993; Hoy, et. al., 2006; Goddard, Sweetland, et. al., 2000; Hoy and Hannum, 1997; Hoy and Sabo, 1998; Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990; Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991; Shouse, 1996).

Conceptual Framework

Pressures brought on by federal mandates from NCLB (2001) and now the Obama Blueprint for Reform (2010), have educational leaders desperately seeking school attributes that can improve the academic achievement of all students, particularly those in the minority student subgroups of poverty, ethnicity, disability, and limited English proficiency. The challenges of this increased accountability have caused school administrators to look for ways to foster school organizational climates where teachers can work together with the school and its mission in accomplishing educational goals that improve student achievement (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

In July 2008, Dr. Arlene Ackerman became Superintendent of Schools for the School District of Philadelphia, and espoused the following five Core Beliefs:

- Children come first.
- Parents are our partners.
- Victory is in the classroom and facilitated by a strong instructional leader.
- Leadership and accountability are the keys to success.
- It takes the engagement of the entire community to ensure the success of its public schools.

In the spring of 2009, at the end of the first full year of Dr. Ackerman's tenure as Superintendent and following a year of radical unanticipated and unprecedented upheaval within the District as her plan was implemented, SDP teachers completed their annual Teacher Survey.

This study will investigate the results of that survey as it relates to the relationship between the perceptions and attitudes of 2,457 teachers in the 92 SDP PK-8 public

schools toward school leadership, parent support, and the academic performance of their schools.

Table 22 in Appendix IV displays the number of teachers who completed the survey in each school in the study.

It is the belief of this researcher that teacher efficacy, previously referred to as teacher expectations, is necessary for student achievement success; and that academic emphasis, or press, trust between teachers and parents and students, and the willingness of staff to go beyond their expected call of duty are also necessary. Research also points to the leadership of the school principal as a major factor to school success. These are not qualities that can be taught in teacher and principal training classes, but that must be modeled and developed over time.

Purpose of the Study

There are three purposes of this study.

- The first is to investigate the relationship between the perceptions collected from a volunteer group of 2,457 SDP K-8 teachers from 96 schools on their self-efficacy, their perceptions of parent support and community relations, their perceptions about the academic emphasis in their schools, their perceptions of school leadership, and their out of classroom citizenship behaviors (OCCB); and how these perceptions relate to the academic achievement of their schools while controlling for socioeconomic factors.

  Although the original intention was to investigate, through the academic optimism construct lens, the collective perceptions of these teachers, this study is limited from examining that construct because the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey questions

used were written from an individual perspective, with the exception of those related to academic press. As a result, data that query individual perceptions were aggregated to provide estimates of collective results. The academic press survey data, however, were analyzed as collective data, not as aggregated data.

- The second purpose of the study is to build upon the research base for the School District of Philadelphia (SDP) and the Academic Optimism research base by testing the aggregated teacher efficacy and teacher perceptions of parents and community data, collective academic press data, and aggregated perceptions about school leadership, as they relate to student achievement and OCCB among a sample of its non-charter K-8 schools.
- Finally, the third purpose is to encourage the School District of Philadelphia to investigate the academic optimism construct within its schools on future teacher surveys. Understanding academic optimism and how it manifests itself in schools is important because it "emphasizes the potential of schools to overcome the power of socioeconomic factors that impair student achievement" (Hoy, et. al., 2006, p.443). It also helps explain how a school's organizational orientation and teacher beliefs may be influencing student engagement and performance. (See Figure 2.)

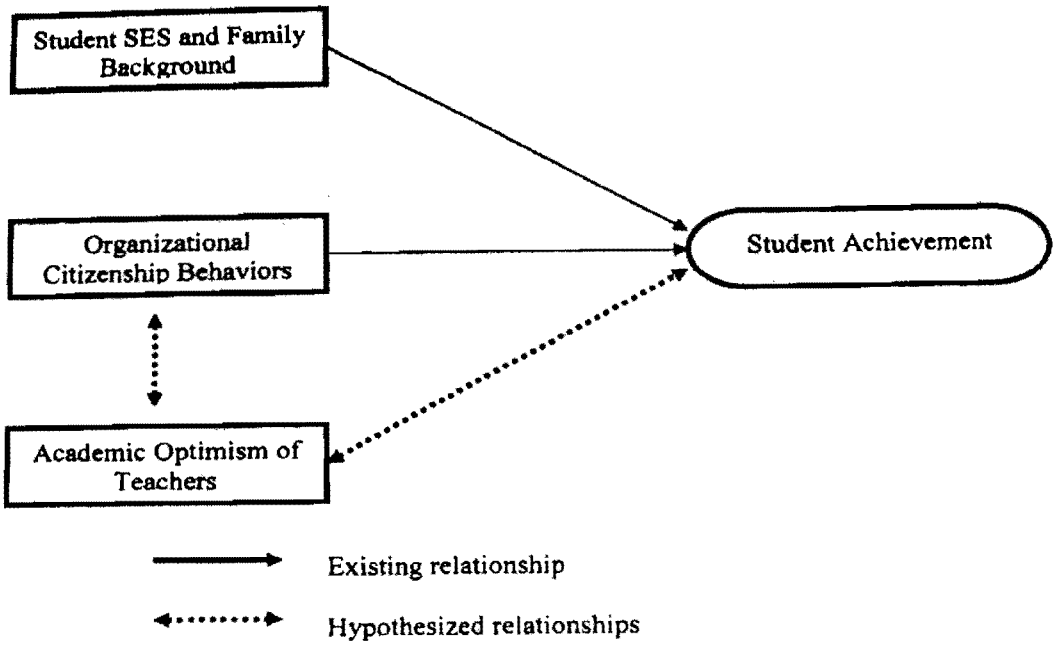

Figure 2. Conceptual framework diagram for the relationship between academic optimism and student achievement (Wagner, 2008)

Significance of the Study

Of the 174 non-charter public elementary schools in the SDP, 95 of them are PK-8 and one is 1-8. Located throughout the City of Philadelphia in various SES areas, those 96 schools are the subject of this study. (See Figure 3 on page 20.)

School organizations and instructional environments are as diverse as the students and teachers who comprise them. As a result, no uniform prescription for student achievement can be applied to all schools (McGuigan & Hoy, 2005). Yet, although no two classrooms, schools, or districts are alike, most grapple with similar issues when it comes to helping their students achieve academically. It is, therefore, necessary that educators explore measurable and flexible organizational methods within their sphere of influence that may positively impact student achievement. Measuring teachers' beliefs and perceptions about themselves, their colleagues, parents, students, and community,

and their schools can provide important insights into their beliefs about instruction, learning, and student achievement (Wagner, 2008).

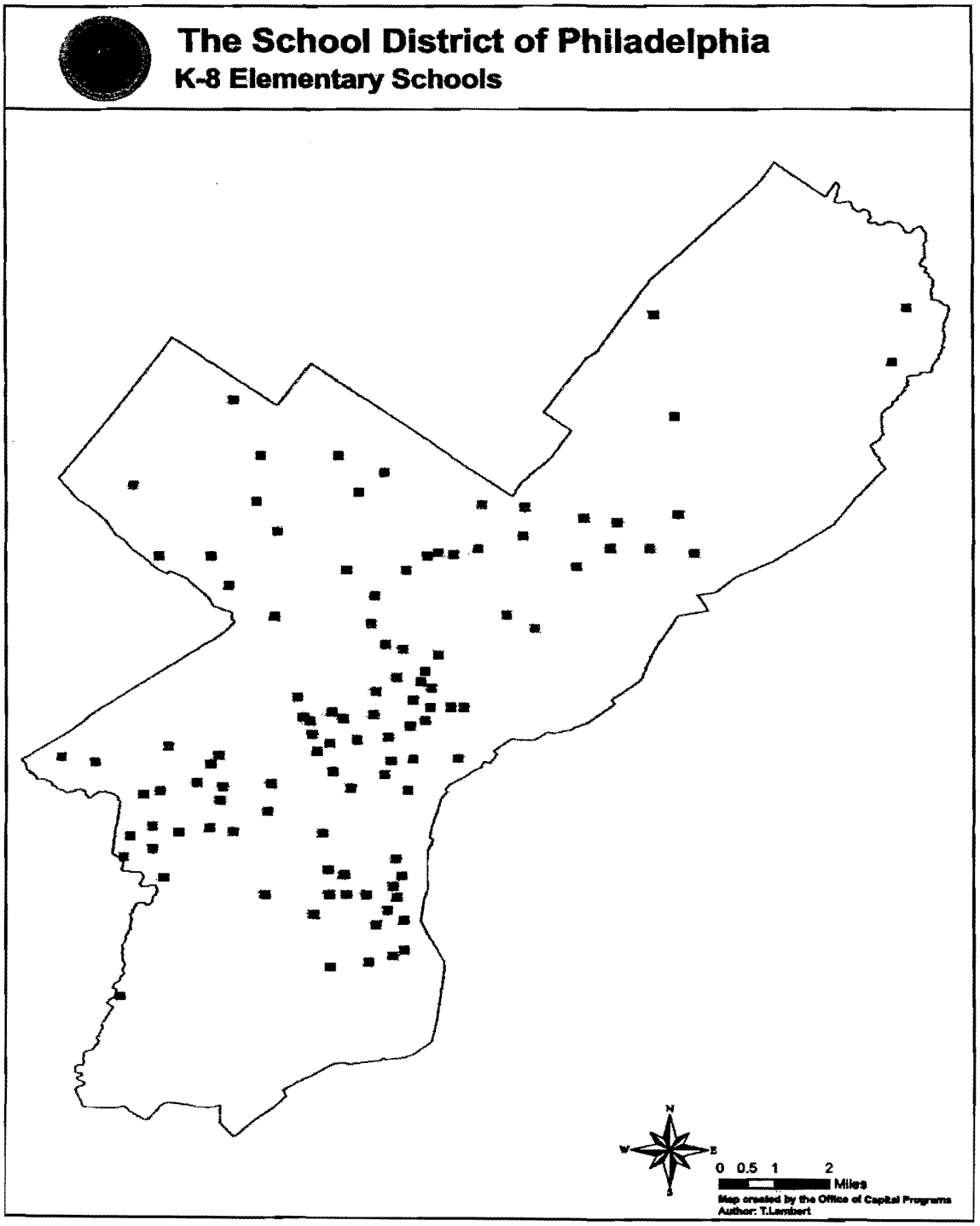

Figure 3. Map of School District of Philadelphia K-8 School Locations

Identifying organizational attributes in schools that consistently produce higher levels of achievement among all students is fundamental to understanding what successful schools, administrators, teachers, and students do to achieve positive results. Understanding the relationships between these variables in schools, and their potential connections to positive school climate and academic success is important in the development of efficacious improvement of schools. Although school research strongly suggests a positive relationship between out of classroom citizenship behaviors (OCCB) and these variables (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005b; Hoy, et. al., 1998), few empirical studies confirm or refute this hypothesis.

Problem Statement

To what extent do the major indicators of teacher efficacy, academic press, parent support and community relations, positive relationships between teachers and school leaders, and out of classroom citizenship behaviors of teachers affect the academic achievement of non-charter public K-8 school students in the School District of Philadelphia, as measured by the 2009 Pennsylvania System of School Assessments in Reading, Grades 3 through 8, and Mathematics, Grades 3 through 8, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the school?

Research Questions of the Study

1. What is the relationship in the study between aggregated teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, parent involvement and community relations, and student achievement on the PSSA, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the schools?

2. What is the relationship between positive relationships with colleagues and principals and teachers' out of classroom citizenship behaviors to student achievement, when controlling for SES of students in the school?

The Research Null Hypotheses

The following research null hypotheses were tested by this confirmatory study:

1. No relationship will be found in the study between aggregated teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, parent involvement and community relations, and student achievement on the PSSA in the schools, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the school
2. No relationship will be found between teachers' positive relationships with colleagues and principals and student achievement, when controlling for SES of students in the school.
3. No relationship will be found between teachers' out of classroom citizenship behaviors and student achievement, when controlling for SES of students in the school.

Definition of Terms

Important terminology used in this study is defined below:

Academic Emphasis – (also known as "Academic Press") a school's general and collective perspective on the importance of academics (Goddard, Sweetland, et. al., 2000; Hoy, Smith, & Sweetland, 2002).

Academic Optimism – the general and collective confidence of a school's faculty that conditions exist for students to achieve academic success (Hoy, Smith, et. al.,

2006; McGuigan, 2005). There are three dimensions to academic optimism: collective efficacy, faculty trust in students and parents, and academic emphasis.

Academic Press – See "Academic Emphasis" above.

Achievement Gap – refers to the observed disparity on a number of educational measures between the performance of groups of students, especially groups defined by gender, race/ethnicity (Whites and Underrepresented Minorities) ability, and socioeconomic status (Economically Advantaged and Economically Disadvantaged). Achievement gaps can be observed on a variety of measures, including standardized test scores, grade point average, dropout rates, and college-enrollment and completion rates. In this study, only standardized test scores will be used to determine achievement gaps between subgroups.

Aggregated Efficacy – the aggregated individual data summarized to provide an estimate of the group-level characteristic representing the collective judgments of group members regarding the extent to which the group as a whole can cause a particular outcome (Bandura, 1977).

Collective Efficacy – a group-level characteristic representing the collective judgments of group members regarding the extent to which the group as a whole can cause a particular outcome (Bandura, 1977).

Economically Disadvantaged – students receiving subsidized (free or reduced cost/FRL) lunches at school.

Elementary Schools – schools in the School District of Philadelphia that include grades pre-kindergarten through fifth grade, kindergarten through fifth grade, pre-kindergarten through sixth grade, kindergarten through sixth grade, third through

fifth grade, pre-kindergarten through seventh grade, kindergarten through seventh grade, or schools that include grades 1 through 8, pre-kindergarten through eighth grade, and kindergarten through eighth grade.

Enabling Bureaucracy – a school's organizational structure and processes that help, rather than hinder, teachers in the performance of their work (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001).

General Teaching Efficacy - the extent to which teachers believe that their efficacy in teaching students is limited by factors outside their control or control of the school. These factors include family background, social class factors, and intelligence (Fritz, Miller-Heyl, Kreutzer, and MacPhee, 2001, p. 200).

Minority – As defined for the SDP, this is any enrolled student who is classified as non-White/Caucasian. This includes students who are African Americans and others of African descent, Latinos/Hispanics, Asian (including East Indians), and American Indians.

Non-Minority – As defined for the SDP, this is any enrolled student who is classified as White/Caucasian. It does not include White Hispanics or East Indians.

Organizational Citizenship - the prevalence of voluntary, spontaneous, discretionary behaviors that helped connect job satisfaction and organizational performance. It incorporates "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place" (Organ, 1997).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) - individual and voluntary teacher behaviors that are discretionary (not required), assistive, and help both students and teachers succeed (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; DiPaola, et. al., 2005).

Organizational citizenship behaviors are actions that "lubricate the social machinery of the organization" (Bateman & Organ, 1983, p. 588). Examples of citizenship behaviors in schools include providing voluntary assistance to fellow teachers and students, regular and punctual attendance, and volunteering one's time for organizational endeavors such as school dances, etc.

Out of Classroom Citizenship Behaviors (OCCBs) – individual and voluntary teacher behaviors that are discretionary (not required), assistive, and help both students and teachers succeed (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; DiPaola, et. al., 2005). This variable differs from the OCB variable in that the data collected are individual teachers' perceptions and, therefore, do not address the variable collectively. As with organizational citizenship behaviors, OCCBs are actions that "lubricate the social machinery of the organization" (Bateman & Organ, 1983, p. 588). Like OCB, examples of OCCB include providing voluntary assistance to fellow teachers and students, regular and punctual attendance, and volunteering one's time for organizational endeavors such as school dances, etc.

Parent Involvement - Parent involvement refers to the amount of participation parents have when it comes to schooling and their child's life. It is the support and participation of parents at home, in the community, and at the school site that directly and positively affects the educational performance of all children.

Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA) - The annual Pennsylvania System of School Assessment is a standards-based criterion-referenced assessment used to measure a student's attainment of the academic standards while also determining the degree to which school programs enable students to attain proficiency of the

standards. Every Pennsylvania student in grades 3 through 8 and grade 11 is assessed in reading and math. Every Pennsylvania student in grades 4 and 8 is assessed in science and all students in grades 5, 8, and 11 are assessed in writing.

Self-efficacy – a "motivational factor that is a content specific evaluation of the capability to successfully complete a task, and is formed through mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social/verbal persuasions, and interpretations of physiological and emotional outcomes" (Bandura, 1977).

Socioeconomic Status (SES) – the condition of students' family backgrounds that characterizes income level or poverty as represented by the percentage of students in a particular school receiving free or reduced-price lunch (FRL). In this study, data for SES are reported from the Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE) and the School District of Philadelphia (SDP).

Student Achievement – student academic performance measured by the Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA). This standards based criterion-referenced assessment is administered each year to all Pennsylvania students in grades 3 – 8 and 11.

Teacher Efficacy – an individual teacher's belief "in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context (Tschannen-Moran, et. al., 1998, p. 233).

Trust – one's willingness to be vulnerable to another based upon the confidence that the other party is benevolent, reliable, competent, open, and honest (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

Underrepresented Minorities (URM) – African Americans, Latinos/Hispanics, English Language Learners (ELL), Native Americans, and immigrants.

Urban School District – includes all school districts eligible for membership in The Council of the Great City Schools, the only national organization exclusively representing the needs of urban public schools. These districts must be located in cities with populations over 250,000 or student enrollment over 35,000; however, school districts located in the largest city of any state are also eligible for membership, regardless of size. Member districts are: Albuquerque, Anchorage, Atlanta, Austin, Baltimore, Birmingham, Boston, Broward County (Fort Lauderdale), Buffalo, Caddo Parish (Shreveport), Charleston County, Charlotte-Mecklenburg, Chicago, Cincinnati, Clark County (Las Vegas), Cleveland, Columbus, Dallas, Dayton, Denver, Des Moines, Detroit, Duval County (Jacksonville), East Baton Rouge, Fort Worth, Fresno, Guilford County (Greensboro, N.C.), Hillsborough County (Tampa), Houston, Indianapolis, Jackson, Jefferson County (Louisville), Kansas City, Little Rock, Long Beach, Los Angeles, Memphis, Miami-Dade County, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Nashville, Newark, New Orleans, New York City, Norfolk, Oakland, Oklahoma City, Omaha, Orange County (Orlando), Palm Beach County, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Portland, Providence, Richmond, Rochester, Sacramento, San Diego, San Francisco, Seattle, St. Louis, St. Paul, Toledo, Washington, D.C., and Wichita.

Value-Added Analysis - a multivariate, mixed model analysis that predicts the growth in test scores attributable to one year's worth of school (McCaffrey et al., 2003).

Yancey Index - The Yancey Index Formula was developed in 1994 by then Temple University professor, Dr. William L. Yancey, for use in his study, "A Socio-Economic Study of Students Attending Philadelphia Public Schools", which estimated the number of Philadelphia public school students who qualified for free or reduced price lunches. Dr. Yancey did a stratified random sampling of the city of Philadelphia and determined the actual percentages of those eligible for the program. He discovered that 80% of the District's families were eligible for some assistance. Roughly half of those had automatically qualified (Categorical Eligibility) and the other half would qualify based on income *if they applied* (Income Eligibility). He then created an index, which is computed school by school. The calculation takes the number of students who qualify under Categorical Eligibility to determine the number who likely would then qualify under Income Eligibility. These two percentages are then combined to determine the school's "Yancey Index." The School District of Philadelphia convinced the USDA to allow the "Yancey Index" to be used to determine the amount of funding the District would receive for the NSLP.

Assumptions

Data for this study were collected through surveys that were administered to all full-time SDP teachers, counselors, and faculty employed during the 2008-2009 school year as part of the April 22, 2009, professional development.

The items selected for this study are from the teachers in the 96 2008-2009 PK-8, K-8, and 1-8 schools involved in the survey. The survey items used in this study have

been shown in prior research studies to be reliable and valid measurements of the variables under study and will be more fully discussed in Chapter 3.

Data regarding students receiving free and/or reduced-price lunch (FRL), as well as other general school demographic data, were obtained from the Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE) and the School District of Philadelphia (SDP). The study assumes that information regarding FRL was distributed to all students and that reasonable opportunities existed for families to apply for FRL eligibility. The study also assumes that schools accurately reported FRL data.

Limitations and Delimitations

After categorizing the survey questions on the SDP 2008-2009 Teacher Survey, the researcher contacted Dr. Wayne Hoy, Professor at The Ohio State University and primary educational researcher who developed the concept of the academic optimism construct. She sent him a copy of the survey items selected for the study to ascertain that the categories met the requirements to measure academic optimism in the SDP K-8 schools. His response was that every component, but one, did not meet the requirements to assess the academic optimism construct (Hoy, 2010).

Dr. Hoy's evaluation of the SDP's teacher survey questions was that most of them addressed the perceptions of the individual teacher, not the individual's perception of the group, as is the case for academic optimism. He informed the researcher that the only element that was collectively addressed in the SDP Teacher Survey was that of academic press. Dr. Hoy's assessment of the SDP survey questions clarified that this study would not be able to duplicate previous studies of Academic Optimism because the SDP teacher

survey questions reflected the beliefs of individual teacher about themselves and not the teachers' beliefs about themselves and their colleagues as a group.

This study does not compare previous achievement data to the 2009 achievement data collected and is, therefore, limited to only the achievement data obtained from the 2009 PSSA. In addition, it does not investigate some of the other areas the SDP asked teachers about in the survey (i.e., job satisfaction, race and gender discrimination, bullying, Empowerment Schools, etc.).

Survey participation was voluntary, so the research results from this study may not be able to be generalized to every public elementary school in the SDP.

Data for this study were collected from a convenience sample of 2,457 full-time teachers, counselors and other full-time professional instructional faculty in 91 of the 95 non-charter PK-8 elementary schools and one Grade 1-8 non-charter elementary school in the SDP. Four of the 95 K-8 schools were not included in the study because they did not complete and/or submit their teacher surveys. The other 80 non-charter elementary schools in the SDP were excluded from the study because their grade organizations did not include all of the elementary school grades tested through the annual state assessment.

Although the sample was not random, it includes a diverse collection of teachers from diverse schools representing students from different geographic and demographic backgrounds within the SDP and the City of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. (See Figure 3 on page 20.)

Achievement data in this study is limited to 3rd through 8th grade reading and mathematics data on the 2009 Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA),

which is the standardized PDE assessment used to determine AYP for NCLB purposes. These grades were chosen because, other than 11th grade, they are the only grades tested using the PSSA.

Although teacher perceptions of principal and teacher leadership are not part of the academic optimism construct, they were included in the study since the data were available and effective schools research points to school leadership as a variable that may influence academic achievement.

The study assumes that all teachers were present at the time of the survey and that they provided honest responses to each survey item. No attempt was made to locate and have teachers who did not take the survey do so after the fact.

This study also reports data that are aggregated to represent school level characteristics. It does not investigate or control for variables that may influence individual teacher behaviors, such as teacher demographics, classroom demographics, years of instructional experience, content area, class size, or student-teacher ratios.

Summary

Current local, state, and federal school accountability standards have made it extremely important that school leaders and staff understand the characteristics of schools that impact on the academic achievement of their students. This understanding is essential since studies show that teacher efficacy, academic press, trust in colleagues, and the presence of out of classroom citizenship behaviors in schools positively impact student academic achievement, regardless of socioeconomic background (SES).

Correlating aggregated teacher efficacy, collective academic press, trust in colleagues and school leaders, perceptions of parent involvement and community

relations, and out of classroom citizenship behaviors to student academic achievement should show a reciprocal relationship between a school's confidence that it can influence student achievement and the collective perceptions of professional behaviors that evoke that confidence.

The characteristics of these variables are significant because, unlike SES, they can be implemented by teachers, administrators, parents, and students; and they "present practical opportunities for school improvement" (McGuigan, 2005, p. 13).

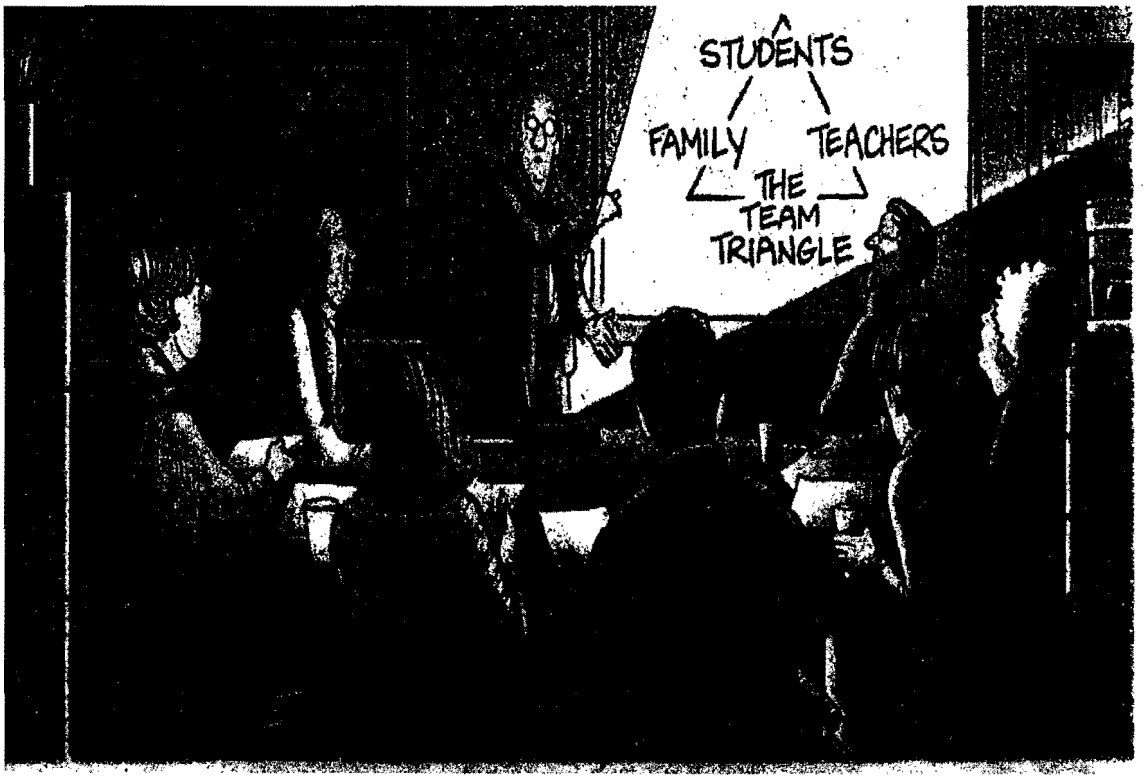

Figure 4. The Team Triangle (Johnston, Date unknown).

If, in fact, school staffs, students, and families/parents can positively influence student achievement, then the hopeless stigma of low SES being synonymous with low academic performance can be put to rest once and for all (Figure 4).

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents a review of the relevant literature for the variables of this study and provides a theoretical justification for the research hypotheses.

Effective Schools Research

In general, schools today are bureaucratic organizations with similar characteristics. They are highly structured and adhere to rigid schedules. They follow numerous policies and procedures that govern operational practices, staff and student behaviors, and instructional curricula. They operate under traditional hierarchal management structures that consist of central office staff, school-level administrators, teachers, and other support staff. Although they can and do respond to change and implement new policies and programs as the needs arise, they tend to exhibit the structure, routine, inflexibility, and general resistance to change that are characteristic of other large bureaucratic entities (Cyert & March, 1963, 1992; McGuigan, 2005).

When the Coleman Report was released in 1966, school bureaucracies were far more diverse in school quality, funding, curriculum, accountability, and student achievement. The Report argued that the effect schools had on student performance was insignificant and that student achievement was largely a result of family background and socioeconomic status. It further suggested that schools could do little to overcome the influential dominance of those two factors (Coleman, et. al., 1966).

Preferring not to acquiesce to the notion that schools could only slightly affect student achievement, if at all, early researchers attempted to refute the findings of the Coleman Report by searching for variables beyond the family background of students in an effort to identify school-level variables that influenced student achievement despite

socioeconomic status. Edmonds (1979), Purkey and Smith (1983), and Buttram and Carlson (1983) all identified specific characteristics of schools that seemed to contribute to student achievement and school effectiveness, in spite of the socioeconomic status of the students. Listed among those characteristics are safe and orderly school environment, site-based school management, strong instructional leadership support, purposeful staff development, staff stability, parent support and involvement, recognition of academic success, emphasis on instruction, opportunity to learn, time on task, a well-planned and aligned program of study/strong curriculum, hierarchical support from central administration, frequent monitoring of student progress, clear mission, and high expectations for student achievement.

One finding of Hallinger and Murphy's meta-analysis of school effectiveness studies (1986) was that the social and environmental contexts of individual schools are inextricably linked to the overall extent to which organizational variables impacted student academic performance in each school. Hallinger and Murphy developed a more succinct list of seven critical variables from an original cluster of fourteen effectiveness factors. (See Figure 5 on page 37):

- *Clear School Mission*: Effective schools develop and maintain a clear school mission. The staff shares a common understanding of what the school is trying to accomplish and mobilizes around activities designed to meet school goals (Edmonds, 1979). This sense of shared purpose provides a unifying framework of values that motivate staff to view themselves as part of the school organization (Brookover, et.al., 1978; Rutter, et.al., 1979; Wellisch, et.al., 1978). It is expressed as explicitly defined school goals that focus staff and resources on a

particular area of learning and provides a basis for selecting programs, allocating scarce resources, guiding staff activities, and evaluating school effectiveness.

- *Tightly Coupled Curriculum*: A well-coordinated curriculum promotes school effectiveness. The principals in effective schools coordinate the curriculum across classrooms and encourage high degrees of interaction among staff on curriculum issues Venezky and Winfield 1979; Wellisch, et. al., 1978). They emphasize the achievement of basic reading and math skills in the form of instructional objectives and align curriculum materials, instructional approaches, and assessment instruments to those objectives.
- *Opportunity to Learn*: This refers to three curricular areas related to student achievement – time, content covered, and success rate. Effective schools allocate, organize, and protect instructional time in order to maximize students' opportunities to learn (Brookover, et. al., 1978; Purkey and Smith, 1983; Stallings and Mohlman, 1981).
- *Instructional Leadership*: Strong instructional leadership is closely associated with effective schools, though it is unclear whether this association reflects a cause-effect relationship (Rowan, et.al., 1983). Instructional leaders coordinate the school-wide educational program and promote consistent policies and practices by developing school-wide norms that reflect high expectations for student learning (Murphy, et.al., 1982; Rutter, et.al., 1979). Principals in highly effective urban elementary schools maintain a strong task orientation (Venesky and Winfield, 1979) and have primary focus on the development of curriculum and instruction than on management and human relations activities. Studies

portray the principal as the key actor in promoting school-wide instructional improvement.

- *Home-school Cooperation and Support*: School effectiveness studies report mixed results on the impact of parent involvement on student achievement. According to Purkey and Smith (1983), few of the school effectiveness studies have found parent involvement to be positively associated with academic achievement. Positive findings are inconsistent as to the type of parental involvement that leads to improved student outcomes, yet several researchers suggest parent involvement can play an important role in promoting learning (Edmonds, 1979; McDill, et. al., 1969; Purkey and Smith, 1983).
- *Widespread Student Rewards*: studies of effective schools for the urban poor indicate that widespread public systems of reward and recognition for academic and behavioral accomplishments contribute to the development of positive learning norms among students (Rutter, et. al., 1979; Wynne, 1983). Public recognition for achievement influences peer groups toward success in school and motivate them to engage more positively and actively in school.
- *High Expectations*: Staff in instructionally effective schools have higher expectations for student achievement than do staff in less effective schools of comparable student composition. In addition, instruction that focuses on mastery of specific skills and is structured to promote high levels of success results in higher self-expectations among students, as well (Brookover and Lezotte, 1979; Rutter, et.al., 1979). The higher expectations held by staff in effective schools create a climate in which students place a higher value on achievement.

While certain administrative behaviors, policies, and practices were found to impact on school effectiveness and student achievement, Hallinger and Murphy (1986) asserted that effectiveness variables were enmeshed within the social and environmental context of each school. For instance, they noted that some characteristics, like school-community goal congruence, low measures of parental involvement, and more directive principal leadership, were more strongly associated with student achievement in low-SES schools that in higher-SES schools. They suggested that a heightened focus among principals in low-SES schools helped compensate positively for the absence of such emphasis at home.

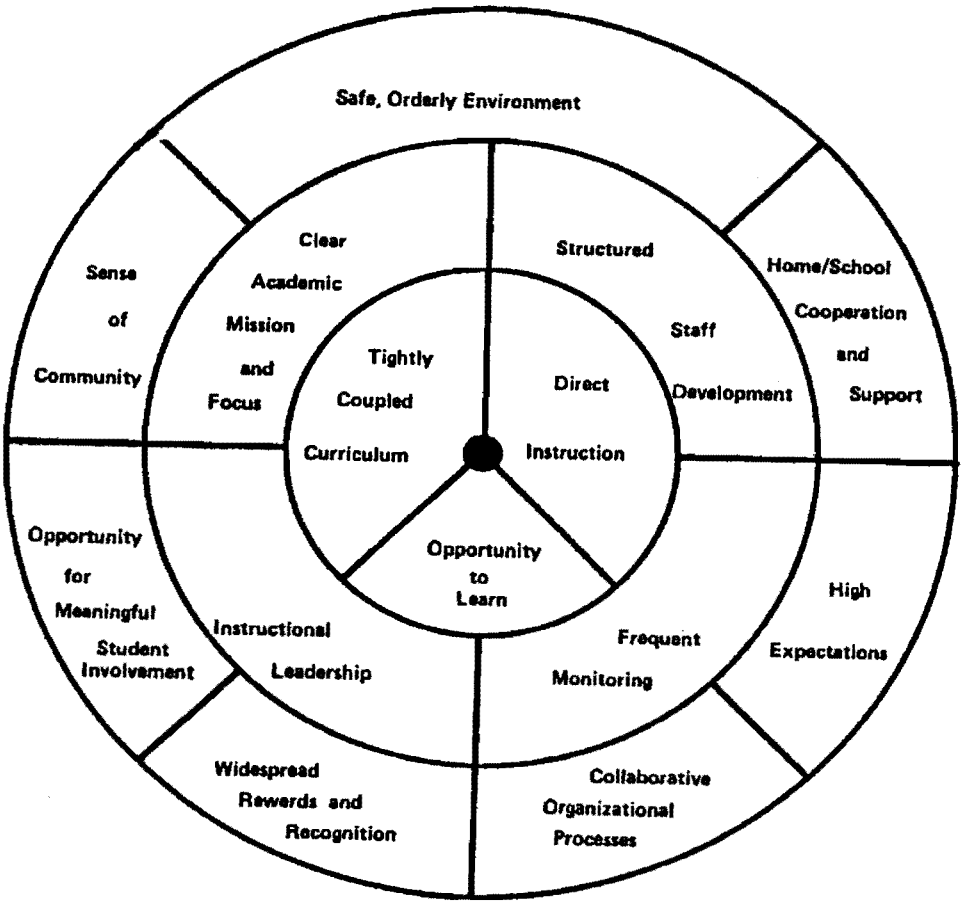

Figure 5: "School Effectiveness Framework" (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986, p. 330)

However, although parent involvement and support are listed on nearly every list of factors to improve schools and student achievement, Hallinger and Murphy (1986) also suggested that lower parent involvement in low-SES schools could possibly be viewed as a positive factor because their lack of involvement usually resulted in less parent entanglement, which streamlined the overall functioning of the school.

Strong instructional school leadership is also usually listed as a primary factor in school success; but despite the inclusion of strong instructional leadership within the research on effective schools, there is no definitive link to specific leadership characteristics of principals and higher student achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1996). Recent studies have, however, advanced the belief that a strong principal, who is an instructional leader and who nurtures and promotes an atmosphere that encourages the teaching staff to succeed, is critical to the academic success of schools.

As mentioned earlier, when Dr. Arlene Ackerman, School District of Philadelphia Superintendent, began her tenure in July of 2008, she brought with her five Core Beliefs about education. These beliefs tie closely to the Effective Schools movement in that they approach school improvement from the perspective that staff, parents, and community can improve schools, regardless of the SES of the schools. Dr. Ackerman's five Core Beliefs about education are:

- Children come first.
- Parents are our partners.
- Victory is in the classroom and facilitated by a strong instructional leader.
- Leadership and accountability are the keys to success.
- It takes the engagement of the entire community to ensure the success of its public schools.

There are critics of the Effective Schools Movement, however. One such critic is Michael E. Dantley, who lays out his argument against the movement in an article called "The Ineffectiveness of Effective Schools Leadership: An Analysis of the Effective School Movement from a Critical Perspective" which was published in 1990 in the Journal of Negro Education (Volume 59, Number 4). He states "...the rather simplistic regimen Effective Schools proponents suggest reveals a systematic autism which fails to take into consideration the social and economic realities in which urban poor schools and students find themselves. As a result of the movement's rather limited perspective of schools, the intricacies and multidimensional aspects of organizations, schools, and leadership frequently are ignored. These rather strong indictments are made upon examining the foundational suppositions of the Effective Schools crusade and discovering that they leave untouched critical issues that routinely face students, teachers, and school administrators in urban settings (Page 585)."

Other critics of the Effective Schools Movement believe that teachers are being expected to do too much in terms of moving their students to academic success. They believe that the SES of a child is a limiting factor in a teacher's ability to do this. This general teaching efficacy is described in Walt Gardner's *Reality Check* in one of Education Week's Blogs of the Week: *"Expecting too much from the best teachers"* (October 20, 2010):

> "It's an article of faith among reformers that recruiting teachers from the top of their classes will assure top-performing schools. There's just one problem: That line of thinking often fails to consider the role that poverty plays in performance. I don't believe that even the best teachers can overcome the huge deficits in socialization, motivation, and intellectual development that poor

> students bring to class through no fault of their own. They can help narrow the gap between these students and those from advantaged backgrounds, but they can't eliminate it. That's a vital distinction given short shrift in today's debate. It's one thing to improve academic performance in absolute terms, but it's quite another to improve performance in relative terms. Let's not forget that children from affluent backgrounds continue to benefit from the enrichment that travel, summer camp, and after-school activities provide. As a result, they leverage their advantages in ways that their poorer classmates simply cannot. Education does not occur in a vacuum. It is a continuous process that goes on long after the school day is over. We set ourselves up for a big disappointment if we persist in the comforting delusion that teachers alone are the answer."

Although Dantley and Gardner make strong arguments for their cases, like Coleman, et al., their perspective takes the ability to improve schools out of the hands of educators and parents. They seem to view the improvement of schools as impossible if environmental factors are challenging due to poverty (SES) and/or violence. This is not a view that this researcher ascribes to and, therefore, will not be covered in-depth in this study.

Roger Goddard has stated, "Making the argument that poor and minority children who have not done well in the past are not likely to succeed is deficit thinking. It is a view that certain students bring a deficit to the educational system that we can't overcome. To believe the opposite – that we have what it takes as a staff to help all children learn no matter their background – is the antithesis of deficit thinking and the embodiment of a robust sense of collective efficacy. This sort of approach places responsibility for student learning squarely on the shoulders of the faculty and does not accept excuses for low performance....The more a staff believes they have the capability to succeed with their students, the more likely are they to choose to put forth the effort

required to achieve success even when they encounter serious difficulties. In contrast, a group with a comparably low level of collective efficacy is more likely to interpret initial setbacks and obstacles as confirmation that they do not have the capability to succeed." (Graham, 2009).

The belief that student achievement can be attained, even in the midst of less than ideal circumstances, is the foundation of this study.

Foundations of Organizational Citizenship Behavior/Out of Classroom Citizenship Behavior (OCB/OCCB)

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is a fairly recent ideology that has been evolving since first being described as an organizational characteristic by Bateman and Organ in 1983. Its roots can be traced to early 20th century research on workplace management, effectiveness, and efficiency that developed in response to the rapid and often wasteful growth of industrial enterprise near the end of the 19th century (Jurewicz, 2004). Chester Barnard (1938) studied organizational effectiveness and reported in his research that larger organizations were collections of smaller sub-organizations whose interconnected social and professional relationships among individuals comprised the larger organization. He stated that the effectiveness of an organization was a function of the "willingness of persons to contribute efforts to the cooperative system" (1938, p. 83) where social relationships and channels of communication were integral to organizational success. This "willingness" to contribute without expectations of extrinsic rewards is the essence of organizational citizenship behavior, called "out of classroom citizenship behavior" (OCCB) for purposes of this study.

Katz and Kahn (1966) stated that organizational effectiveness was a function of the open roles organizational participants played. They also differentiated between task behaviors, also known as "in-role" behaviors, and the "extra-role" behaviors of organizational members. In-role behaviors are those that occur within the formal job description; while extra-role behaviors are synonymous with organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) and out of classroom citizenship behavior (OCCBs), and are more informal behaviors that occur outside, and in addition to, one's formal job description. Examples include helpfulness, orientation, cooperation, congeniality, and other acts of professional compassion toward individuals. Unlike task behaviors, extra-role behaviors arise from feelings of "citizenship" within the organization (Burns and Collins, 1995).

Development of the OCB/OCCB Construct

Bateman and Organ first used the term, "organizational citizenship", in 1983 as they attempted to describe an organizational characteristic. Its roots are traced to early research on workplace management, effectiveness, and efficiency, which began early in the 20th century as a response to rapid growth of industrial enterprise near the end of the 1800s.

Organizational citizenship is described as the prevalence of voluntary, spontaneous, discretionary behaviors that help connect job satisfaction and organizational performance. After further study, Organ (1997) refined his description to incorporate "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place" (1997, p. 95). Since the work of Bateman and Organ (1983), numerous studies of organizational citizenship behavior have been conducted, mostly in the private sector and mostly relating the relationships between job satisfaction, job

performance and overall worker productivity (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994; Sharlicki & Latham, 1995; Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior/Out of Classroom Citizenship Behavior (OCB/OCCB) in Schools

As stated earlier, although the impact of OCB/OCCB has been investigated for over twenty years in the private sector, its existence and significance in public elementary and secondary schools has only recently been examined (DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy, 2005; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005b; Jurewicz, 2004; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Effective teachers routinely perform many duties outside of their formal roles. In fact, student achievement in schools is dependent upon these voluntary and deliberate acts (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Jurewicz (2004) found that OCB/OCCB among instructional staff correlated positively with students' motivation and performance on all construct dimensions.

The Relationship of OCB and OCCB to School Climate and Student Achievement

Although educators have little influence over students' family backgrounds and student behaviors outside of the regular school day, they can strengthen and support the instructional environments to positively impact on achievement for all students. The relationship between the dimensions of school climate and student achievement is abundant and clear in recent school research (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005b; Goddard, Hoy, et. al., 2000; Goddard, Sweetland, et. al., 200; Hoy & Hannum, 1997; Hoy, et. al., 1998; Hoy, Hoffman, Sabo, & Bliss, 1996; Hoy & Sabo, 1998; Hoy, et. al., 1991; Jurewicz, 2004; Sweetland & Hoy, 2000). In fact, the prevalence of OCB and OCCB in schools

relate strongly to the schools' climatic characteristics, regardless of the schools' socioeconomic levels.

More recent research is emerging on the impact of citizenship behaviors in schools and student achievement. When controlling for students' socioeconomic background, researchers found that faculty OCB/OCCB has as much to do with student achievement in reading and mathematics as students' family backgrounds (DiPaola & Hoy 2005b). In her study of organizational citizenship behaviors, school climate, and student achievement, Jurewicz (2004) found significant positive relationships between each of the two pairings: teacher citizenship and school climate and teacher citizenship and student achievement.

Collective Teacher Efficacy

As mentioned earlier, it is widely believed that poor children do less well in school because they are members of a disadvantaged group. There may be another reason, however, and that is that these children do poorly because that is what is expected of them. In other, words, their shortcomings may originate not in his or her different ethnic, cultural, and economic backgrounds, but in their teachers' responses to those backgrounds. If there is any substance to this hypothesis, educators are confronted with some major questions, have these children, who account for most of the academic failures in the U.S., shaped the expectations that their teachers have for them? Have the schools failed the children by anticipating their poor performance and thus in effect teaching them to fail? Are the massive public programs of educational assistance to such children reinforcing the assumption that they are likely to fail? Would the children do appreciably

better if their teachers could be induced to expect more of them (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968)?

Research has shown that teacher expectations can have both positive and negative effects of student learning and achievement and their expectations influence the ways they evaluate students, behave toward students, and make decisions about students.

This first was shown to be true in 1968 in the published results of a powerful experiment conducted in a southern California elementary school in 1964-1965 by Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson. The purpose of their experiment was to support their hypothesis that reality can be influenced by the expectations of others. This influence can be beneficial, as well as detrimental, depending on which label an individual is assigned.

In their experiment, they showed that if teachers were led to expect enhanced performance from some children, then the children did indeed show that enhancement (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). In their study, Rosenthal and Jacobson led teachers to believe that some students in their classes were 'late bloomers' — destined to show dramatic increases in IQ over the school year. In fact, these students had been selected at random. Results showed that, especially in the earlier grade levels, the "late bloomers" gained more in IQ than other students. Teacher expectations created a self-fulfilling prophecy (Spiegel, 2012). At the end of the experiment "...teachers' expectations had improved the academic performance of their students. Where they expected success, they found it (Bellah, 2010)...."

This became known as the "Pygmalion Effect" which refers to the phenomenon in which the greater the expectation placed upon people, often children or students and employees, the better they perform. The effect is named after "Pygmalion", a play by

George Bernard Shaw. In the play, which later became a musical called "My Fair Lady", a professor makes a wager that he can transform a Cockney flower salesgirl into a lady. According to Tauber (1998, as quoted by Bruns, et. al., 2000), the Pygmalion Effect asserts, "one's expectations about a person can eventually lead that person to behave and achieve in ways that confirm those expectations" (p. 1).

The Pygmalion effect is a form of self-fulfilling prophecy and, in this respect, people will internalize their negative label, and those with positive labels succeed accordingly. The effects of teachers' expectations on students are also connected to this idea known in psychology as the self-fulfilling prophecy (Spitz, 1999). The self-fulfilling prophecy states, much like the Pygmalion Effect, that "once an expectation is held, an individual tends to act in ways that are consistent with the belief and eventually his or her actions may cause the expectation to become a reality" (Cooper & Good, 1983). Teachers' expectations, then, may be linked to students' self-image and achievement levels and to their own biases of race, gender, socioeconomic background, home background, clothing and personal belongings, disposition, effort, appearance, and/or past performance (Bruns, et. al., 2000).

Recent research and the experiences of teachers for decades suggest that there are times when the expectations of teachers are similar to those of the travelers in the story below. What teachers expect to find sometimes helps determine what they do find.

"The Travelers and the Blind Man"

"Many years ago, a blind man sat begging at the gates of an ancient city in the Far East. A traveler approached, and seeing the blind man, asked, 'What are the people of this city like?' The blind man replied, 'What were the people like in the last city you visited?' The traveler responded, 'They were ignorant, selfish, nasty, and uncouth.' The blind man said, 'You will find the people here to be the same.'

Later, a second traveler came to the gates of the city, and seeing the blind man, asked the same question as the first. 'What are the people of this city like?' In reply, he received the same question the blind man asked of the first traveler, 'What were the people like in the last city you visited?'

The traveler responded, 'They were happy, kind, tolerant, and pleasant people.' Replied the blind man, 'So you will find them here.'

Sometimes what we expect to find is so much a part of us that it shapes what we see, affects what we find when we look." (George, 1991)

According to Mike Bellah, in "The Expectation Effect", "Rosenthal's "expectation effect" has important implications for all of us. ...1. Don't judge prematurely. All of us tend to make premature and often superficial judgments about people. Race, gender, economic status, and political affiliation are just some of the areas where we negatively label others and, all too often, our expectations come true. The people turn out to be just as unfriendly, self-centered, ignorant, or dishonest as we imagined them to be. Rosenthal's theory suggests that we might be partly to blame. Negative expectations can become self-fulfilling prophecies....2. Be an encourager. Rosenthal's theory teaches that the best way to keep from receiving the worst from people is to make a conscious effort to expect the best—and to show it in as many ways as possible..."

Many teachers and school leaders are coming to understand that what they think and believe about certain children affects their teaching of those children. As they become more and more able to resist the subtle effects of the self-fulfilling prophecy their negative expectations produce, academic achievement in their schools is rising.

The term "teacher efficacy" has replaced the term "teacher expectations". Central to the idea of collective efficacy is individual self-efficacy, or the belief that individuals have the ability to exert control over events in their lives. These beliefs tend to "affect

how much effort people expend, how long they will persist in the face of difficulties, their resilience in dealing with failures, and the stress they experience in coping with demanding situations" (Goddard, Hoy, et. al., 2000, p. 481).

One aspect of the self-efficacy theory proposes that outcome expectations are judgments or beliefs regarding the contingency between a person's behavior and the anticipated outcome. In the academic domain, these two definitions come together as students maintain self-efficacy judgments of their capabilities, skills, and knowledge to master school-related tasks. A student who perceives that he is expected to do well develops confidence and high standards, promoting his self-efficacy and encouraging the student to achieve consistently. Another student who perceives he is expected to do poorly develops failure expectations and low aspirations and persistence in working on assignments, damaging his self-efficacy and preventing the second student from achieving his full potential. These teacher expectations have the potential for affecting student achievement both directly, by affecting the amount of material that the student learns, and indirectly, by affecting the motivation to try to learn at all (Pintrich, 1996, Bruns, et. al, 2000).

Woolfolk-Hoy, in a June 2004 interview with Michael F. Shaughessy stated: "My guess is that efficacy judgments are specific to the teacher's individual situation (subject taught, teaching and managerial skills, knowledge, students, class size, etc.) and less affected by organizational level differences. There is little research showing that the principal has a direct impact on teachers' sense of efficacy."

Humans are motivated to act by their belief of what is possible, attainable, and rewarding (Bandura, 1989). The extent to which teachers as a group believe they make a

difference in the lives of their students helps them act in ways that positively influence student achievement (Goddard, et. al., 2004; Hoy, et. al., 2006; Tschannen-Moran, et. al., 1998). (See Figure 6.)

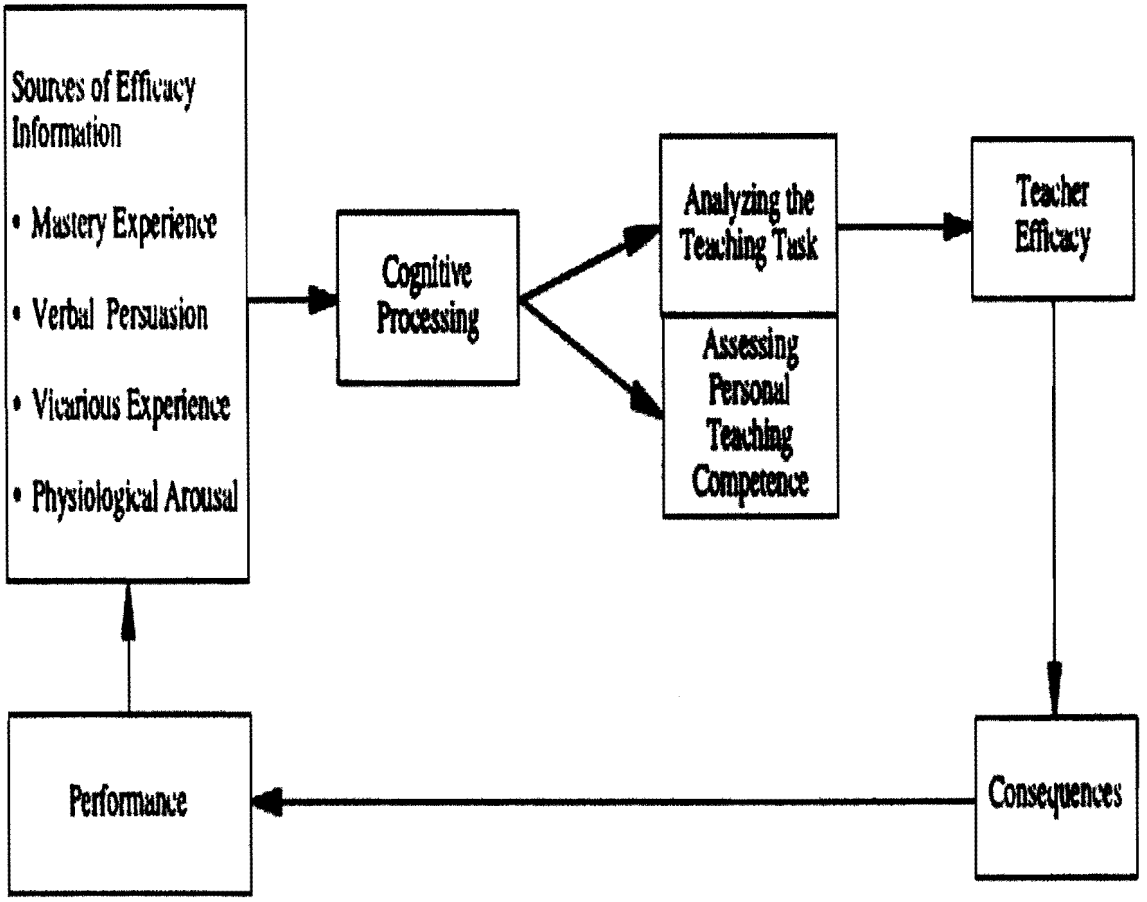

Figure 6: Model of Teacher Efficacy. Source: Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 228.

Patricia Ashton (1984) reviewed research that showed there are two components to teacher expectations:

- The teacher believes that, in general, students can learn the material;
- The teacher believes that particular students can learn under his or her direction.

Ashton reported that there are 8 dimensions to the development of teacher efficacy, which are described in Table 1. In general, however, her research showed the connection between teacher beliefs and student learning.

Table 1

Dimensions of Teacher Efficacy

1. A sense of personal accomplishment	The teacher must view the work as meaningful and important.
2. Positive expectations for student behavior and achievement	The teacher must expect students to progress.
3. Personal responsibility for student learning	Accepts accountability and shows a willingness to examine performance.
4. Strategies for achieving objectives	Must plan for student learning, set goals for themselves, and identify strategies to achieve them.
5. Positive affect	Feels good about teaching, about self, and about students.
6. Sense of control	Believes (s)he can influence student learning.
7. Sense of common teacher/student goals	Develops a joint venture with students to accomplish goals.
8. Democratic decision making	Involves students in making decisions regarding goals and strategies.

(Ashton, 1984)

Jussim, Smith, Madon, and Palumbo (1998) state that, "By far, the strongest influences on teaching are usually students' past performance and motivation" (p. 27). The effects of these expectations are cyclical, as seen in Figure 7 on page 52.

A student who performs well in the past is expected to perform well in the future, just as a student who performs poorly in the past is expected to perform poorly in the future. If a student who usually performs well happens to perform poorly on a specific assignment, the teacher may conclude that the student is capable of doing the work, but did not put enough time and effort into the assignment.

Likewise, if a poor performing student performs unusually high, the teacher may conclude that the student had a burst of luck. Despite this new assignment, the instructor will continue to treat both students based on prior performance. The first student will most likely continue to be praised and continually do good work. The second student is likely to be criticized, encouraging a belief that he/she cannot do the work, and causing his/her continued poor perform.

In addition to past performance, race also plays a part in teacher expectancies. In several studies (Dusek and Joseph, as cited by Jussim, et al., 1998; Baron, Tom, and Cooper, 1985; Wong, Williams, and Smith, as cited by Baron, Tom, & Cooper, 1985), teachers held higher expectancies for White students than for Black and Latino students, while other studies found that teachers also held higher expectancies for Asian-Americans than White students (Bruns, et. al, 2000).

Brophy and Good (1974) describe the process in the following manner:

1) Early in the school year, teachers form differential expectations for student behavior and achievement.
2) Consistent with these differential expectations, teachers behave differently toward various students.
3) This treatment tells students something about how they are expected to behave in the classroom and perform on academic tasks.
4) If the teacher treatment is consistent over time and if students do not actively resist or change it, it will likely affect their self-concepts, achievement motivation, level of aspiration, classroom conduct, and interactions with the teacher.
5) These effects generally will complement and reinforce the teacher's expectations, so that students will come to conform to these expectations more than they might have otherwise.
6) Ultimately, this will affect student achievement and other outcomes. High-expectation students will be led to achieve at or near their potential, but low

expectation students will not gain as much as they could have gained if taught differently.

Chris Proctor (1984) developed a model of the teaching/learning process that highlights the importance of teacher expectations for student learning. His model describes the variables or factors of schools and classrooms thought to be under the influence of educators. The model, found below in Figure 7, shows that in the early years of schooling, when teacher expectations cannot be based on documented performance (or performance can change dramatically from one year to the next), teacher expectations appear to produce achievement variations among students. However, as children progress into later childhood and adolescence, it appears that teacher expectations generally sustain, solidify, and therefore magnify, preexisting achievement differences. At this point, teacher expectations seem to become self-fulfilling prophecies to which students live up or down.

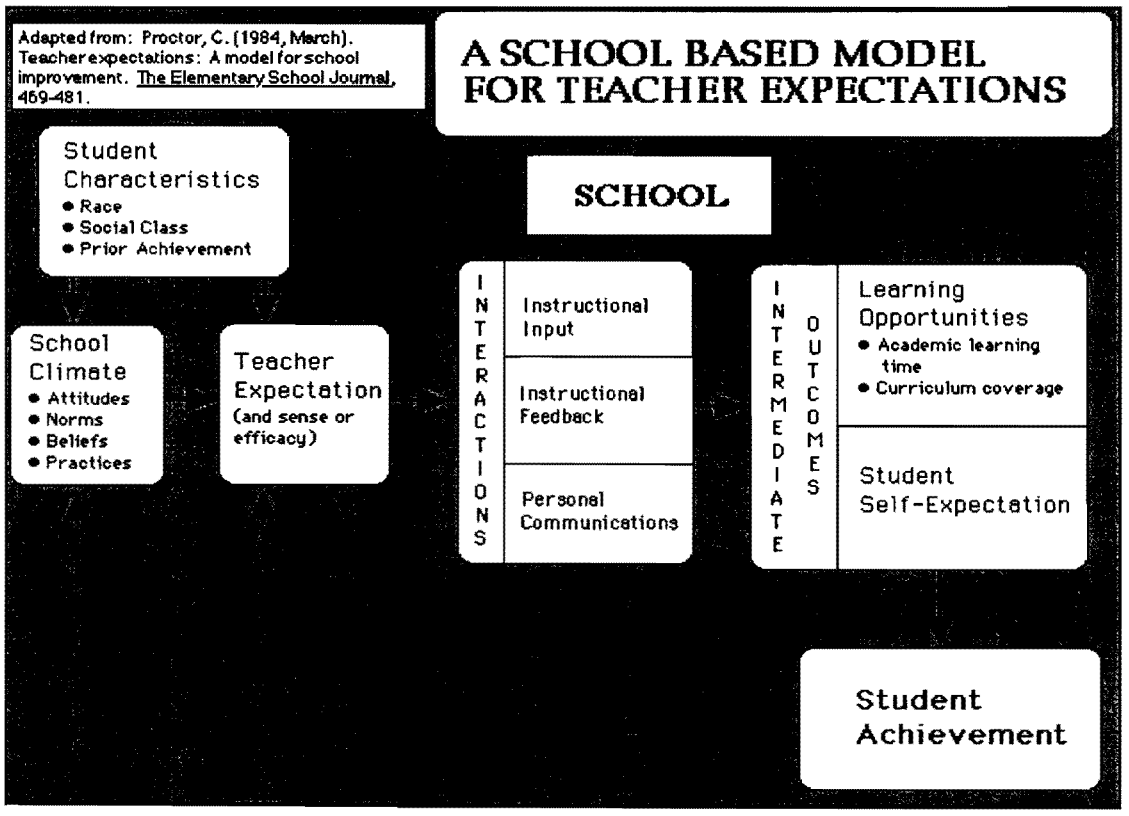

Figure 7. "A School Based Model for Teacher Expectations" (Proctor, 1984)

As mentioned earlier, the data collected from the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey was from questions that addressed individual efficacy, not collective efficacy. This was verified through email correspondence between the researcher and Dr. Wayne K. Hoy.

The selected survey items were categorized and sent to Dr. Hoy (WKH) for his review of the accuracy of the researcher's (CM-D) classifications. His responses to the efficacy survey items follow:

WKH Response: "The problem you have with efficacy is that the items are written at the individual level. The items in #35 seem to be good items to measure individual sense of efficacy. The problem is the items describe the individual teacher, not the faculty as a whole. You could aggregate the individual level data to the school, and that might provide an estimate of the collective efficacy of the school, but research shows that it is not the same as collective efficacy."

CM-D Question: "If most of the teachers in a school agree or disagree with the items in #35, wouldn't the sum of those individual responses amount to collective efficacy (or not) of that staff?"

WKH Response: "Technically, the answer to your first question is 'no'. The unit of analysis should be the school. The questions should begin with something like..."In this school the faculty...."

Roger Goddard was my student when we developed the collective efficacy scale. He later, in another paper, demonstrated empirically that summing the statements in which the individuals describe their own efficacy beliefs is not the same as aggregating statements in which they describe the efficacy of the faculty

as a collective. Nonetheless, I would expect a relatively high correlation between such measures." (Hoy, 2010)

In a 2009 interview by John Graham (JG), Roger Goddard (RG) explained the difference between individual efficacy data that are aggregated and collective efficacy.

RG: Collective efficacy refers to the beliefs of group members regarding their abilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to accomplish the goals with which they are charged...collective efficacy refers to the confidence group members have in their collective capability to be successful. In schools, research has typically defined organizational success in terms of student achievement. Collective efficacy is useful in this regard because it varies greatly among schools and is key to understanding the differences in success achieved by otherwise similar schools.

JG: Is there a difference between the idea of a group of effective teachers and collective efficacy?

RG: Yes....it is unlikely that a group of highly self-efficacious teachers is characterized by a seriously depressed sense of collective efficacy....there are differences in the levels of individual and collective efficacy that teachers report. How one feels about one's individual capability can be different than how one feels about the capability of the group in which one holds membership. In fact, teachers tend to answer somewhat more positively in response to questions that probe their beliefs about their individual capabilities as opposed to their beliefs about group or organizational capabilities....Measures of collective efficacy are associated with organizational membership two or three times more strongly than individual

> teacher efficacy measures....None of this means that one is more important than the other. It just depends on the types of questions you are interested in asking and the problems you want to solve. When you want to understand differences between individual teachers, a reasonable starting point is to examine the influence of teacher efficacy beliefs. Teacher efficacy beliefs influence the choices teachers make as they decide how to approach their work and the challenges it brings. If, however, you want to explain differences among schools in the outcomes they achievement, it is useful to consider the role of collective efficacy beliefs....collective efficacy explains the resolve, determination and resilience with which group members plan work, overcome obstacles, and interact to achieve success (Graham, 2009)."

According to Goddard, collective efficacy beliefs in schools are linked to student achievement. "...the everyday explanations that we are prone to – that students in wealthy communities tend to perform better than those in poor communities, that students who have done well in the past tend to do well in the future – do not explain the differences we care about in school performance. And, even after acknowledging and accounting for the influence of these typical explanatory variables, collective efficacy still matters to performance in ways that go beyond our traditional explanations....The findings showed that even after accounting for student socio-economic status, minority status and prior achievement, collective efficacy was positively and significantly associated with student achievement differences between schools....a strong and collaborative focus on instructional improvement is one of the best ways to increase the confidence of staff in their collective capability to successfully educate all students"

(Graham, 2009).

Goddard goes on to state that instruction is affected by collective efficacy because these teachers are more likely to adapt their lessons to the needs, interests and abilities of students; and instruction is more effective and differentiated in schools where collective efficacy is in place.

Rosenthal, Hoy, Woolfolk-Hoy, Goddard, Tschannen-Moran and many other education researchers have shown the importance of teacher efficacy on student achievement. Because it is an integral part of school success, it is important to find ways to improve it, where needed.

Lee Jussim (2003-2009) believes the most constructive lessons to be learned for teachers from the research are the following: "Teachers should hold expectations flexibly. They might be wrong. The student's label might be wrong. Also, students change. Teachers should remember that holding high standards without providing a warm environment is merely harsh. A warm environment without high standards is simply feel-good mush. But if teachers can create a combination of high standards with a warm and supportive environment, doing so will benefit all students, not just the high achievers. High expectations will mean different things for different students. Attaining average performance might be high for one student and low for another. If teachers wants to purposely harness self-fulfilling prophecy processes to maximize student achievement, they need to integrate accuracy (a clear sense of students' current levels of skill and learning abilities and styles), with warmth and high standards for future performance in order to develop a clear plan for how those students will maximize their learning and achievement."

Robert Pianta, Dean of the Curry School, has his own beliefs on how to teach teachers about how their expectations affect their students. In an NPR interview (2012), Pianta stated that it is truly hard for teachers to control their expectations. He said he has a different idea of how to go about changing teachers' expectations. He posits it is not effective to try to change their thoughts; the key is to train teachers in an entirely new set of behaviors. For years, he and his colleagues at the Curry School have been collecting videotapes of teachers teaching. After analyzing the videos in minute ways, they have developed a good idea of which teaching behaviors are most effective and how teacher expectations affect both their behaviors and classroom dynamics.

In order to see if teachers' beliefs would be changed by giving them a new set of teaching behaviors, Pianta and his colleagues conducted a study. They took a group of teachers, assessed their beliefs about children, and then gave a portion of them a standard pedagogy course, which included information about appropriate beliefs and expectations.

The other portion got intense behavioral training, which taught them a whole new set of skills based on those appropriate beliefs and expectations. These teachers videotaped their classes over a period of months and worked with personal coaches who watched those videos, then gave them recommendations about different behaviors to try. After the intensive training, Pianta and his colleagues analyzed the beliefs of the teachers again. What he found was that the beliefs of the trained teachers had shifted way more than the beliefs of teachers given a standard informational course.

The results of the study have led Pianta to think that to change beliefs, the best thing to do is change behaviors, because "It's far more powerful to work from the outside in than the inside out if you want to change expectations (Spiegel, 2012)".

For this training, the teachers videotaped their classes over a period of months and worked with personal coaches who watched those videos, then gave them recommendations about different behaviors to try.

Based on the findings of his and Jacobson's 1964-1965 experiment and his subsequent research, Rosenthal recommends that more attention in educational research should be focused on the teacher. If it could be learned how she or he is able to bring about dramatic changes in his or her methods of teaching, other teachers could be taught to do the same.

In the "Final Thoughts" section of their "Great Expectations?" article, Bruns, McFall, MacFall, Persinger, & Vostal (2000) state: "Even though the initial expectations formed by teachers may be realistic and appropriate, researchers have found that sustained expectation effects certainly do occur and often limit students' learning and self-concept development. This evidence suggests that teacher expectations play an awesome role in the learning of students. It seems contradictory, then, that those teacher expectations play such a small role in most teacher education-training programs. Since expectation effects are vast and too often unrecognized by teachers, it seems the only remedy is to focus attention on teacher expectations through in-service and pre-service training. Simply put, teacher expectation research should permeate all facets of teacher education programs. Only when every teacher becomes cognizant of the behaviors that express expectations and fully understands these expectations' effects on students, can educators guarantee that they promote positive learning experiences for all students.

Faculty Perceptions of School Principal Leadership

It has been stated that a great deal of effort has been put into trying to determine the cause for and the solution to the achievement gap in American schools. Focus has been on what students should be learning and how and when to teach them. Changes have occurred as educational reform has focused on at-risk students. Researchers have questioned the curriculum, standards, and practices of school districts as students graduate with poor scores or not at all, some dropping out once reaching high school. Various programs and instructional strategies have been put in place in an attempt to correct the problems of low scores on standardized tests. Some, like cooperative learning (Slavin, Karweit, & Madden, 1989; Levin, 1988) and childcare for teenage mothers (Garden, Casey, & Christianson, 1984; Forman & Linney, 1988; Pedro- Carroll & Cowen, 1985; Shapiro, 1987), have shown a degree of promise in helping at-risk students and increasing graduation rates. However, the results shown are not enough to quell the massive problem facing the nation's schools. The search goes on for what can bring about the huge positive change that is needed across the nation.

School leadership is an area being researched as a critical part of the solution to the achievement gap problem. One expectation is that the leadership needed to execute these changes will emerge. As a result, researchers have turned their attention onto the school administrators who guide the various reforms occurring in the schools and the critical role they play. Questions have arisen as to what types of individuals are able to initiate and maintain changes in their schools. Shared characteristics are being sought to find which ones are the most important in leaders to facilitate and implement change in their school organizations and the personal qualities that contribute to successful

educational leadership practices. The answer to these questions have implications for implementing educational innovation and systemic change at both school and district levels and can possibly be used to evaluate and select new leaders and provide professional development for those educational leaders already working in schools.

It was once believed that those who led were naturally endowed with the skills and personality traits needed to lead. Stogdill (1974) identified six categories of personal factors associated with leadership: capacity, achievement, responsibility, participation, status, and situation. He concluded, however, that such a narrow characterization of leadership traits was insufficient: "A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits" (Stogdill, 1948, p. 64). Attempts to isolate specific individual traits led to the conclusion that no single characteristic can distinguish leaders from non-leaders.

When no single trait or set of traits could be identified to explain leaders' abilities, researchers began looking to the circumstances surrounding the work of the leaders they were observing. They considered the situations that leaders addressed and how those situations influenced the skills and behaviors of leaders. They looked for ways to distinguish between effective and ineffective leaders through the use of contingency models that examined the connection between personal traits, situational variables, and leader effectiveness (Hoy & Miskel, 1987, p. 273). In the end they concluded that leaders and leadership are crucial, but complex components of organizations. In 1973, Hencley reviewed leadership theories and concluded "the situation approach maintains that leadership is determined not so much by the characters of the individuals as by the requirements of social situation" (p. 38).

This theory assumes that at any given time a person will be a leader or a follower, depending on the situation or circumstances. Hoy and Miskel (1987), in an effort to identify specific characteristics that influenced leaders' performances, developed a list of four areas of situational leadership: "structural properties of the organization, organizational climate, role characteristics, and subordinate characteristics" (p. 273).

Some studies have provided data on the types of behaviors effective leaders exhibit. These behaviors have been categorized along two dimensions: initiating structures (concern for organizational tasks) and consideration (concern for individuals and interpersonal relations). The former includes activities such as planning, organizing, and defining the tasks and work of people: how work gets done in an organization; while the latter addresses the social, emotional needs of individuals -- their recognition, work satisfaction and self-esteem influencing their performance. Data show that effective leadership behavior tends most often to be associated with high performance in both dimensions.

Other studies considered the relationship between personality characteristics, leaders' behaviors, and the variables of given situations, the underlying assumption being that different situations require different types of leadership; or that the situation itself determines the effectiveness of a leader, i.e., that a leader in one situation may not be a leader in another.

Still others say that leadership roles overlap within an organization and call it organizational leadership. Barnes and Kriger (1986) contend that leadership is not found in one individual's traits or skills, but is a characteristic of the entire organization, in

which "leader roles overlapped, complemented each other, and shifted from time to time and from person to person.... [implying a] more inclusive concept of leadership" (p. 16).

A separate version of organizational leadership is shared leadership. This version states leadership is a team responsibility and not that of one individual; and allows for leadership to flow throughout all levels of the organization. Distributive leadership falls under this category, as do other forms of teacher leadership within schools. Both administrative and the various leadership roles that teachers' colleagues assume in their buildings were surveyed in the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey and both will be aggregated and analyzed in this study.

Another leadership characteristic is vision. Leadership requires vision because it provides meaning and purpose to the work of an organization. Leaders of change are often seen as visionary leaders with vision, the basis of their work. "To actively change an organization, leaders must make decisions about the nature of the desired state" (Manasse, 1986, p. 151). They begin with a personal vision to forge a shared vision with their coworkers. Their communication of the vision is such that it empowers people to act. According to Westley and Mintzberg (1989), visionary leadership is dynamic and involves a three-stage process that includes an image of the desired future for the organization (vision) that is communicated (shared) to "empower those followers so that they can enact the vision" (p. 18). Effective leaders are said to not only have a vision, but also to have the ability to get others to share it, or to develop shared vision within the organization. Vision is defined by Manasse (1986, p. 150) as "the force which molds meaning for the people of an organization". He described four different types of vision: organization, future, personal, and strategic.

Organizational vision is having a complete picture of a system's components, as well as understanding their interrelationships. "Future vision is a comprehensive picture of how an organization will look at some point in the future, including how it will be positioned in its environment and how it will function internally" (Manasse, 1986, p. 157). Personal vision includes the leader's personal aspirations for the organization and acts as the impetus for the leader's actions that will link organizational and future vision. "Strategic vision involves connecting the reality of the present (organizational vision) to the possibilities of the future (future vision) in a unique way (personal vision) that is appropriate for the organization and its leader" (Manasse, 1986, p. 162). Importantly, a leader's vision needs to be shared by those who will be involved in the realization of the vision. Whether the vision of an organization is developed collaboratively or initiated by the leader and agreed to by the followers, it becomes the common ground, the shared vision that compels all involved. "Vision comes alive only when it is shared" (Westley & Mintzberg, 1989, p. 21). These leaders are proactive and take risks. They both recognize interest shifts in their clientele and challenge the status quo to change.

Leaders must also go beyond the development of a common vision and value the human resources of their organizations. Hoy and Brown (1988) found that teachers responded more favorably to principals with "a leadership style that combines both structure and consideration" (p. 36). These leaders provide an environment that promotes individual contributions to the organization's work and develop and maintain collaborative relationships formed during the development and adoption of the shared vision. They form teams, support team efforts, develop the skills groups and individuals

need, and provide the necessary resources, both human and material, to fulfill the shared vision (SEDL, 2010; Bolman & Deal, 2003).

Transformational leadership is the process by which "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation" (Burns, 1978, p. 20). These leaders are individuals that appeal to higher ideals and moral values such as justice and equality and can be found at various levels of an organization. Burns contrasted transformational leaders from transactional leaders, which he described as leaders who motivated their people by appealing to their self-interest. This is not necessarily a good thing because transformational leaders appeal to the emotions of their followers without necessarily focusing on the moral way of doing things. Other researchers have described transformational leadership as going beyond individual needs, focusing on a common purpose, addressing intrinsic rewards and higher psychological needs such as self actualization, and developing commitment with and in the followers (AASA, 1986; Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Coleman & La Roque, 1990; Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992; Leithwood, 1992; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Leithwood & Steinbach, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1989; 1990).

Leadership research and literature, while still focusing on the personal traits of leaders, also began to differentiate between leaders and managers. Managers are described by Bennis & Nanus (1985, p. 21), as "people who do things right", while leaders are described as "people who do the right thing". Burns (1978) describes managers as transactors and leaders as transformers. Managerial skills facilitate the work of an organization because they ensure that what is done is in accord with the organization's rules and regulations. Leaders facilitate the identification of organizational

goals and initiate the development of a vision of what their organization should be. "Management controls, arranges, does things right; leadership unleashes energy, sets the vision so we do the right thing" (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 21).

In his paper, *Research on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership: Retrospect and prospect*, Phillip Hallinger (2007) wrote: "Instructional leadership emerged in the early 1980s as an outgrowth from early research on effective schools....With the advent of school restructuring in North America during the 1990s, the notion of transformational leadership began to eclipse instructional leadership's popularity. Transformational leadership originated in studies of political leaders. The model focuses on the leader's role in fostering a collective vision and motivating members of an organisation to achieve extraordinary performance (Bass, 1985). Its emergence in education not only reflected the changing reform context of schools, but also growing concerns with limitations of the instructional leadership model." The following table summarizes the similarities and differences between the two leadership models. Based on its comparisons, it is apparent that the substantive similarities between the models are more significant that the differences. Both have the leader focus on:

Table 2
Comparison of Instructional and Transformational Leadership Models

Instructional Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Remarks on Differences and Similarities
Articulate and Communicate Clear School Goals	Clear Vision Shared School Goals	IL model emphasizes clarity and organizational nature of shared goals, set either by the principal or by and with staff and community. TL model emphasizes linkage between personal goals and shared organizational goals.
Coordinate Curriculum Supervise and Evaluate Instruction Monitor Student Program Protect Instructional Time		No equivalent elements for these coordination and control functions in the TL model. TL model assumes "others" will carry these out as a function of their roles.
High Expectations	High Expectations	
Provide Incentive for Learners Provide Incentive for Teachers	Rewards	Similar focus on ensuring that rewards are aligned with mission of the school.
Providing Professional Development for Teachers	Intellectual Stimulation	IL model focuses on training and development aligned to school mission. TL model views personal and professional growth broadly. Need not be tightly linked to school goals.
High Visibility	Modeling	Essentially the same purposes. Principal maintains high visibility in order to model values and priorities.
	Culture-building	IL models also focuses on culture building, but subsumed within the school climate dimension.

Adapted from Hallinger & Murphy, 1985 and Leithwood, et. al., 1998

However, those who supervise others need to be both leaders and managers in order to be most effective. Duttweiler and Hord (1987) stated, "the research shows that in addition to being accomplished administrators who develop and implement sound policies, procedures, and practices, effective administrators are also leaders who shape the school's culture by creating and articulating a vision, winning support for it, and inspiring others to attain it" (p. 65).

It is clear from the literature that effective leadership is necessary to the success of an organization. Hallinger (2007) says that trying to carry the burden alone is one of the

major impediments of effective school leadership. He contends that "the day of the lone instructional leader are over"; and that no one person can serve as the instructional leader for an entire school without the substantial participation of other educators.

However, in the field of education, the qualities leaders need in order to successfully implement positive change is not so clear. It is assumed that educational leaders – both administrative and teacher leaders - must be both manager and inspirational leaders. It is also often assumed that leadership in successful schools is from the top, ignoring the invisible teacher leadership within the school. Recent educational reform movements, such as restructuring and site-based management, have promoted increased teacher participation and leadership in the decision-making processes of various aspects of school administration.

Philip Hallinger is the author and publisher of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) which has been used in studies of principal leadership throughout the world since 1982. It is the single most widely used measure of principal leadership over the past 30 years. In addition, the scale has been for the purposes of staff development needs assessment and as part of principal evaluation systems. The PIMRS assesses three dimensions of the instructional leadership construct: Defining the School's Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). (See Chart 3.)

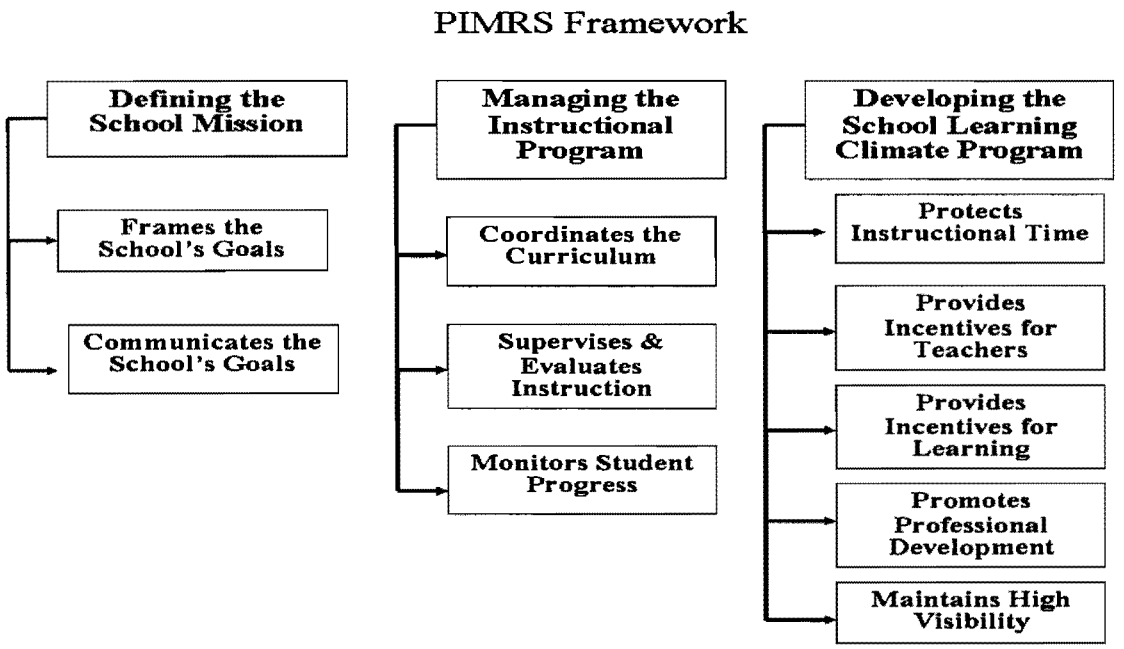

Figure 8. Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale, Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. (1985)

These dimensions are further delineated into ten specific instructional leadership functions. Two functions, Framing the School's Goals and Communicating the School's Goals, comprise the dimension, Defining the School's Mission. Managing the Instructional Program incorporates three leadership functions: Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Coordinating the Curriculum, and Monitoring Student Progress. The third dimension, Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate includes several functions: Protecting Instructional Time, Promoting Professional Development, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learning.

Hallinger suggests that the extent of appropriate staff participation in *leading* these processes (i.e., development of the school's goals, coordination of the curriculum) might vary depending upon the location of the school in its improvement journey. Nonetheless, it is safe to say that long-term, sustained improvement will ultimately

depend upon the staff assuming increasing levels of ownership over proposed changes in the school.

Academic Emphasis

Academic emphasis, also synonymous with academic press, is a construct that defines the "extent to which a school is driven by academic excellence" (Hoy, Smith, et. al., 2002, p. 79). Although singular in name, academic emphasis is a multi-dimensional construct that represents a number of related organizational attributes found in effective schools research, including high student expectations, serious and orderly academic environment, and strong emphasis on instructional time and academics (Austin, 1979; Edmonds, 1979; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986). Schools with strong measures of academic emphasis make student learning and achievement a central focus and have teachers who not only establish high achievement goals for students, but also believe that students can be motivated to work hard and meet expectations. In addition, students, teachers, and administrators in schools with strong academic emphasis respect and recognize hard work and academic achievement (Bryk, Lee, & Holland, 1993; Hoy, et. al., 1990; Hoy, Smith, et. al., 2002; Hoy & Sabo, 1998; Hoy, Tarter, et. al., 2006; Shouse, 1996; Shouse & Brinson, 1995).

Goddard's work found that both teachers' collective efficacy and school leaders have an impact on the academic focus in their schools. "The main finding is that the more school leaders involve staff in decisions that influence their instructional practice, the greater the level of collective efficacy in schools....the more staff collaborate on similar instructionally relevant issues, the greater the levels of achievement in mathematics and reading in their schools...the more school leaders work with teachers on instructional improvement, the greater the level of differentiated instruction in schools, which in turn

is positively associated with collective efficacy" (Graham, 2009).

The research suggests, then, that when school leaders and teachers no longer accept traditional explanations for student failure and build systematic approaches to school improvement, student achievement improves.

Parent Support and Community Relations

Parent involvement and community relations are considered by many to be critical to the success of every school. Although research shows that children are influenced throughout their schooling by parents' expectations, behavior, and support, for many years, schools have typically only assigned parents the role of fundraiser and bake-sale booster. Parents are now being called on to be involved in activities that are more than the traditional roles and to be more involved with their children's education (Henderson, Mapp, Johnson & Davies, 2007; Jackson & Landsmann, 2009).

The questions asked on the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey did not address the issue of Faculty Trust, an element of Academic Optimism. Instead, the data collected on the survey relate to teacher perceptions of parental support and community relations. Measuring the collective trust levels of faculties, however, goes deeper than simply support levels. The job of changing our schools for the better requires much more than support. It demands relationships of trust, where all parties have a willingness to be vulnerable to each other based upon the confidence that the other party is benevolent, reliable, competent, open, and honest (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

Faculty trust in students and parents is the third attribute of academic optimism. This attribute, like the other two - collective efficacy and academic press - is a collective property of schools that functions from an open and healthy school climate and has a

positive influence on school effectiveness and student achievement (Goddard, et. al., 2001; Hoy, et., al., 1990; Tarter, et. al., 1989; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) concluded in a comprehensive study of trust in schools that faculty trust in students and parents was linked significantly to school effectiveness and student achievement in reading and math. Goddard, Hoy, and their colleagues (2000) also found that trusting relationships between teachers, students, and parents contributed to student achievement even after controlling for student characteristics such as race, prior achievement, and SES. They concluded that trust fosters an atmosphere in schools that supports student achievement and higher learning goals for all students, regardless of their economic status.

Parental involvement refers to the amount of participation parents have when it comes to schooling and their children's lives. It is the support and participation of parents at home, in the community, and at the school site that directly and positively affect the educational performance of all children. Parent involvement is most successful when it is viewed, practiced, and promoted as a partnership between the home and school. The school must provide leadership and assume responsibility for encouraging active involvement, using strategies that meet the individual needs of all families within the community. Some schools foster healthy parental involvement through events and volunteer opportunities, but it is also the parents' responsibility to ensure that they are involved with their children's education.

There has been much discussion over the past several years as to value-added modeling (also known as value-added analysis and value-added assessment). This is a method of teacher evaluation that measures the teacher's contribution in a given year by

comparing current school year test scores of their students to the scores of those same students in the previous school year, as well as to the scores of other students in the same grade. In this manner, value-added modeling seeks to isolate the contribution that each teacher makes in a given year, which can be compared to the performance measures of other teachers.

Recently, calls have been made to provide report cards on the value-added aspects of teachers. Figure 8 shows there is also a public perception that parents hold of teachers in this respect. This does not take into account that teachers are only one piece of the puzzle of student achievement. Parents provide an integral piece of the puzzle too.

Figure 9. Family Tree: Teacher-Parent Value-Added Petition (Wilkinson, 2010)

NCLB (2001) describes parent involvement as "participation of parents in regular, two-way, and meaningful communication involving student academic learning and other school activities including ensuring:

- That parents play an integral role in assisting their children's learning;
- That parents are encouraged to be actively involved in their children's education at school;
- That parents are full partners in their children's education and are included, as appropriate, in decision making and on advisory committees to assist in the education of their children;
- The carrying out of other activities, such as those described in section 1118 (found in the Title 1 section of NCLB)."

Parents are often accused of not being interested in being involved in their children's schools. This is not necessarily true. Parents of children who attend high-performing schools and schools in low-poverty areas say their schools do a good job of reaching out to them; while parents whose children attend low-performing schools in high poverty areas often say their schools do little to involve them.

Katy Haycock, president of the Education Trust, a Washington-based group that presses for better schooling for disadvantaged children, says, "it's a constant problem – the willingness of educators to assume that low-income parents, especially minority parents, don't have the same aspirations for their children that wealthier parents have....It's not that they have different values. It's that the quality of schools their children attend is different (Gewertz, 2008)."

Some researchers believe that the involvement of parents can be a good thing, while others say it can be an inhibitor to school and student success. As mentioned earlier, parent involvement and support are listed on nearly every list of factors to improve schools and student achievement, yet Hallinger and Murphy (1986) suggested

that lower parent involvement in low-SES schools could possibly be viewed as a positive factor because their lack of involvement usually resulted in less parent entanglement, which streamlined the overall functioning of the school.

In support of that contention, an article that reviews a book by Nancy E. Hill in the November 18, 2009 *Education Week* cites evidence that "...both research and policy initiatives aimed at promoting parent involvement fail to take into account the distinct needs of adolescents, a group of students that seems biologically driven to break free of parental vigilance" (Viadero, 2009).

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) requires schools, districts, and states to develop academic programs that will increase students' proficiency in reading, math, and science. To learn at high levels, all students need the guidance and support of their teachers, families, and others in the community. NCLB also requires schools, districts, and states to develop programs to communicate with all families about their children's education and to involve them in ways that help boost student achievement and success. The federal legislation, related state and district policies, school goals, family and student expectations, and useful research on partnerships are converging to encourage all schools to establish active and effective learning communities.

Although the law includes a call for parent involvement in schools, it does not mention how to involve parents and has nothing to say about a need for differentiation in the parental involvement in schools by level. Hill (2009) states that most of the previous research in this area has lumped middle and high school parent involvement with elementary parent involvement. Her research points to parental activities that are appropriate to elementary school, like helping with homework and attending field trips,

being less important at the middle and high school levels, where promoting high expectations for school success and the importance of schooling are viewed as more needed by older students (Viadero, 2009).

Based on several meta-analyses, Pomerantz, Moorman, and Litwack (2007) say that studies show that school programs designed to increase parent involvement actually have negative effects on student achievement. They argue that there are four ways that parents can influence children's academic development for good or ill:

- Controlling versus autonomy-supporting parents – Parents with controlling styles pressure children toward particular outcomes through commands, directives, or withdrawal of love; while autonomy-supporting parents allow children to explore their environment, initiate their own behavior, and take an active role in solving their own problems.
- Ability- versus effort-focused parents – Some parents focus on their children's innate abilities and intelligence and their performance compared to other children; while others focus on how hard their children tried and the importance of enjoyment in learning. Pomerantz, Moorman, and Litwack point out that numerous studies show that children do better in school when adults focus on effort rather than innate ability.
- Negative- versus positive-affect parents – Research shows that children do better when they experience positive rather than negative affect. Parents who exhibit irritation and anger around homework and school have a negative affect; while those who are successful in keeping their school-related

interactions with their children positive and enjoyable have a positive affect on their children.

- Negative versus positive beliefs about children's potential – Some parents have a low opinion of their children's school abilities and their opinions can become self-fulfilling prophesies of their children's school success. Others have a more positive view of their children's abilities and/or potential, and, as a result, their children have a marked advantage.

However, even within school level, Hill's study (2009) found there is a difference in the impact of parent involvement at home based on race. "Minority students' future outlook and college plans were not as strongly related to such parental actions as were those of their white counterparts....for students whose parents had a college education, high levels of parent involvement in middle school were linked to better behavior, higher aspirations, and better achievement later on. That was not the case...for students whose parents had not gone to college. High levels of parent involvement for that group translated to high career goals, but not to a similarly high record of student achievement."

Hill's assessment of this problem is that these parents, often accused of not caring or of being uninterested in the academic success of their children, are, in fact, ignorant of what courses and grades are necessary for their children to academically move ahead into higher level courses in high school in anticipation of attending college. She suggests a role schools can play is to teach parents who have not attended college "the educational pathways that lead from middle school to high school to college" and what they can do to get their children on the right track.

Pomerantz and her colleagues (2007) say parents can develop parent involvement skills because being involved gives parents insights about what children are learning at school, increases their understanding of their children's levels of achievement, informs their efforts to help their children, and teachers tend to give extra attention to children whose parents are involved. Parent involvement develops motivation because it tells children that school is important and helps develop their intrinsic motivation to do well, represents an active strategy for dealing with school, which gives children a sense of control over academic performance, and can help children become more familiar with school tasks and see themselves as more competent in the academic arena.

However, even though some researchers believe that parent involvement can be problematic in some ways and more challenging at some levels, the majority believe it is necessary for school to truly be successful. In his book, *Only Connect*, Rudy Crew says schools should not only welcome, but should foster the development of what he calls "Demand Parents" as opposed to "Supply Parents", who are passive recipients of education. Demand Parents demand things from their schools because they understand they are owed something and it is their responsibility to get it for their children (p. 155). Demand parents not only hold their schools accountable, but they share the responsibility of helping their children learn. Crew argues that many parents do not know that there is a role for them in education and it is the responsibility of the school system to help them realize this role. What he calls "Connected Schools" are founded on the belief that all children can learn and all parents can teach (Crew, 2007).

Pomerantz, et.al. (2007), argue that how parents work with their children in the four areas, described on page 68, makes a world of difference and that the differences

among parents account for the variations in the research on the impact of parent involvement. They say that ideal parent involvement, both in school and at home, is beneficial when it supports autonomy and effort, is delivered with positive affect, and conveys positive beliefs about children's abilities. They further say that parent involvement pulls down achievement when it is controlling, is focused on innate ability, is delivered with negative affect, and conveys negative beliefs about children's abilities.

Children's previous school competence experiences play a critical role in how they respond to parental involvement. Those doing well in school and who are confident about their abilities will do well even if their parents do not have the ideal involvement profile; but those who are not doing well in school and who doubt their abilities need parents who fit the profile of the ideal parent involvement. This can help them overcome any deficits they have in school. Without it, their school achievement will suffer. In addition, the authors also say that the right kind of parent involvement is beneficial to children's emotional growth.

Pomerantz, Moorman, and Litwack (2007) recommend that schools work to ensure parents have a sense of control over their children's development by giving them information about the malleability of children's abilities and by helping them develop skills they need to help their children with their school work. They indicate schools should also reduce the pressure on parents to improve their children's school performance and advise schools to have high expectations, but to focus parents on the process of learning rather than students' performances. In addition, they recommend schools emphasize the importance of parents' positive affect and positive beliefs about their

children's potentials and highlight children's improvement with respect to fixed standards rather than in comparison to other children.

Other researchers also address how schools can get and increase parent involvement in the schools. Jonathan Kozol recommends that teachers "reach out quickly to the parents of your students...especially those parents who initially are least responsive." He advises young white teachers serving children of minorities to "learn to cross the lines of race and class in sensitive but determined ways that lower barriers between your classroom and your children's homes (Kozol, 2007)."

Thomas Hatch (2009) says schools should go far beyond the typical parental activities and show-and-tell sessions to more in-depth connections between staff, parents, community members, district administrators, policymakers and other educators. He recommends inviting them into learn more about the school's work and drawing them in through school activities, whenever possible. Activities and informal meetings, for example, provide opportunities to recruit parents and community members for various roles and responsibilities and the opportunities to form partnerships. He also suggests conducting short interviews with staff and parents to determine school needs parents can address with district administration on behalf of their children since often they are able to get results that staff is unable to get done. This type of interaction can build relationships of trust between parents and school staff (Hatch, 2009).

Some researchers recommend home visits as a method of increasing parent involvement (Ferlazzo, 2009; Henderson & Mapp, 2008). Their philosophy is that schools spend too much time in one-way communication with parents and see home visits as a way to inspire two-way conversation between parents and teachers. Larry

Ferlazzo (2009), in an article called "Going Home" says this kind of conversation focuses not only on the child, but also on learning the stories of the parent. He says that in addition to building relationships with the parents and solidifying one with their children, these kinds of conversations can create many other possibilities, because home visits help educators gain a greater sense of the "funds of knowledge" that reside in family members.

However, although it is important to have parents involved with a school's agenda, that may not enough. Beyond involvement is the trust that must be built, not only within the teaching staff and with their school leaders, but with teachers, parents, and students as well. Most schools conduct at least a few activities to involve families in their children's education, but most do not have well-organized, goal-linked, and sustainable partnership programs.

Several researchers now advocate a school learning community that includes educators, students, parents, and community partners who work together to improve the school and enhance students' learning opportunities (Epstein & Salinas, 2004). One component of a school learning community is an organized program of school, family, and community partnerships with activities linked to school goals. Research and fieldwork show that such programs improve schools, strengthen families, invigorate community support, and increase student achievement and success (Epstein, 2001; Henderson & Mapp, 2002; Henderson, Mapp, Johnson & Davies, 2007; 2002; Sheldon, 2003).

School learning communities welcome all families and put laser-like focus on student learning and success. They work with many partners to increase students'

learning opportunities and experiences and even schedule activities to enrich students' skills and talents during lunch, after school, and at other times by school, family, and community partners (Sanders, 2001; Sanders & Harvey, 2002).

Some researchers and educators are now calling for full-service schools that provide services to students, their families, and the communities (Santiago, Ferrara, & Blank, 2008; Crew, 2007; Dryfoos, 1996). These schools not only educate their students, but remain open after hours to educate parents and community members, while also housing health clinics, child care, and other services that families in high-poverty areas lack. Rudy Crew argues for "mutuality of service delivery" to guide the relationships between schools and community, including businesses and higher education. While Superintendent of the Miami-Dade School District, he espoused a redefinition of the role that schools play in the community and "wanted the whole city plugged into the culture of the school system, and the schools plugged into the city (p. 91)." He advocated a re-visioning of public education versus reforming it (Crew, 2007).

According to the National Network of Partnership Schools, for parent involvement to flourish, it must be meaningfully integrated into a school's programs and community. The network developed a framework of six types of parent involvement that schools can use to guide their efforts. It says schools can:

- Help families with parenting and child-rearing skills;
- Communicate with families about school programs and student progress and needs;
- Work to improve recruitment, training, and schedules to involve families as volunteers in school activities;
- Encourage families to be involved in learning activities at home;
- Include parents as participants in important school decisions; and

- Coordinate with businesses and agencies to provide resources and services for families, students, and the community (Epstein, 2001).

Henderson, Mapp, Johnson, & Davies in *Beyond the Bake Sale: the Essential Guide to Family-School Partnerships* (2007) advocate building effective partnerships and deeper trusting relationships between schools, families, and communities. They describe four levels of school/community partnerships:

- *Fortress Schools*: Parents belong at home, not at school. If students don't do well, it's because their families don't give them enough support. We're already doing all we can. Our school is an oasis in a troubled community. We want to keep it that way.
- *Come-If-We-Call Schools*: Parents are welcome when we ask them, but there's only so much they can offer. The most important thing they can do is help their kids at home. We know where to get help in the community if we need it.
- *Open-Door Schools*: Parents can be involved at our school in many ways - we're working hard to get an even bigger turnout for our activities. When we ask the community to help, people often respond.
- *Partnerships Schools*: All families and communities have something great to offer – we do whatever it takes to work closely together to make sure every single student succeeds.

Those same authors offer ways to analyze whole school buy-in and next steps to move toward balanced partnerships, ways to determine how well the school system as a whole supports family and community engagement. The pieces that must be in place to achieve the desired goals are defined and ways to evaluate them are divided into four

levels (already doing this, could easily do this, this will take time, and this will be hard), which provide schools with a well-defined road map to success. The authors end their book with a section of tools and resources, including checklists for conferences, parent surveys, and questionnaires, as well as, recommended reading lists and other resources.

Research points to faculty trust in students and parents as an attribute of academic optimism that is a collective property of schools that functions from an open and healthy school climate and has a positive influence on school effectiveness and student achievement (Goddard, et. al., 2001; Hoy, et. al., 1990; Tarter, et. al., 1989; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). It has been linked significantly to school effectiveness and student achievement in reading and math even after controlling for student characteristics such as race, prior achievement, and SES (Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, 2000). In 2000, Goddard and Hoy concluded, along with their colleagues, that trust fosters an atmosphere in schools that supports student achievement and higher learning goals for all students, regardless of their economic status.

Both parent involvement and community relations were listed among Dr. Arlene Ackerman's five Core Beliefs. In addition to promoting parent involvement in schools through active Home and School Associations, an Office of Parent, Family, Community Engagement and Faith-Based Partnerships was developed, as were parent links on the SDP web site, the development of Parent University of Philadelphia, and parent ombudsmen were hired and assigned in the low-achieving schools. Superintendent's Monthly Parent Roundtables were held throughout the city where parents could bring their issues directly before the Superintendent and a Regional Education Summit. A main information call center was set up for parents to call with reports of bullying, harassment,

truancy, burglary and other concerns for child safety. Policies and procedures were posted on the web site, as were forms, FAQs, important parent information, calendars, and customer service.

Socioeconomic Status and Student Achievement

Socioeconomic status has a definite impact on student achievement (Coleman, et. al., 1966; Hoy, et. al., 2006; Hoy & Hannum, 1997) and it influences student achievement significantly in some schools more than others. Much of the research conducted in the past points to correlations between poverty and poor academic achievement. This would infer that poor students would not be able to achieve academically because of their background. This is a hopeless point of view that could lead educators to think that if these students cannot be expected to learn, there is no reason to expect them to succeed academically.

Effective schools research has primarily focused on urban elementary schools serving low-income, minority students. Critiques of the research have been that the findings cannot be generalized to secondary schools, suburban and rural schools, and schools that serve middle- and upper-middle-class students. Purkey and Smith (1983) and other critics (Cuban, 1984; Firestone and Herriott, 1982; Rowan, et.al., 1983) say the transfer of findings from studies of instructionally effective, urban elementary schools to other school contexts are premature and uncertain (Hallinger and Murphy, 1986).

Hallinger and Murphy's study (1986) built on the findings from other studies, but looked at effective schools serving students from differing SES to understand how they promote student learning. They were specifically interested in analyzing differences between high- and low-SES effective schools in the operation of the seven school

effectiveness variables identified on their "School Effectiveness Framework" (clear school mission, tightly coupled curriculum, opportunity to learn, instructional leadership, home-school cooperation and support, widespread student recognition and rewards, and high expectations for achievement).

Their findings "tentatively confirmed the earlier cautions against premature application of the effective schools that differ from the population studied" and suggest that "school social context does influence the operation of effectiveness factors in elementary schools." They identified schools that maintained high levels of effectiveness over several years and that spanned a wide range of SES. Sixteen elementary schools, out of California's over 3,100 elementary schools met their criteria. Their effectiveness patterns are displayed on Table 3 on page 86.

Table 3
Patterns of Effectiveness in High- and Low-SES Effective Schools

Variable	Low-SES Schools	High-SES Schools
Tightly coupled curriculum:		
Breadth	Narrow	Broad
Orientation	Basic skills	Academic
Alignment with instruction	Moderate	Tight
Opportunity to learn:		
Allocation of time	Basic skills	Broad academics
Homework Expectation	Low to Moderate	High
Clear school mission:		
Philosophy	Back to basics	Traditional
Nature of mission	Mastery of basic skills	Academic achievement
Staff consensus	High	High
Instructional leadership:		
Curriculum coordination	High	High
Control of instruction	High	Low to moderate
Task orientation	High	Moderate
Relationship orientation	Low to moderate	Moderate to high
Home-school cooperation:		
Linkages to homes	Weak	Strong
Parent involvement	Limited	Pervasive
Principal Role	Buffer	Boundary spanner
Rewards and recognition:		
Frequency	High	Low
Nature	Extrinsic, visible	Intrinsic, private
High expectations:		
Source	School	Home and school
Present expectations	High	High
Future expectations	Moderate	High

Hallinger and Murphy, 1986

The results of Hallinger and Murphy's (1986) study suggested that school context does influence the operation of instructionally effective elementary schools. High- and low-SES effective schools were characterized by different patterns of curricular breadth, time allocation, goal emphasis, instructional leadership, opportunities for student reward, expectations for student achievement, and home-school relations. Their results also revealed a larger pattern of SES-related differences involving the manner in which these schools incorporated value preferences and expectations from their social environment into the school organization.

However, despite the traditional view of achievement which suggests talent and motivation also may be precursors for higher student achievement, academic optimism is emerging in a number of studies (Hoy, et. al., 2006) as a school variable that plays an important role in students' academic success regardless of socioeconomic constraints. In addition, Hallinger and Murphy's found that in effective schools:

- The effects of family background on student learning are important and undeniable. The conclusion of Coleman and his colleagues (1966) that student SES, as the most powerful predictor of student achievement, has been substantiated in other studies as well. Home environment is a powerful educational variable because of the material resources it offers and the parental expectations that shape the child's attitudes and beliefs about learning. Effective schools of the urban poor supply the climate of high expectations traditionally present in high-SES schools, but absent in other low-SES schools.

- Parents from low-SES communities often prefer an emphasis on social and vocational education, while parents from high-SES communities generally prefer an emphasis on intellectual or academic goals.
- Parent involvement varies between high- and low-SES schools, as well. Schools in low-SES communities experience less pressure from parents and experience less direct contact with parents. In contrast, parents in high-SES schools were actively involved in the school program, while exerting considerable influence on the school's direction.
- The extent of contact between school staff and the community is important in that teacher attitudes and perceptions are shaped by the expectations and beliefs of the community. Teachers make assessments of student ability, to some extent, based on students' SES backgrounds and adjust their expectations accordingly. As a result, high-SES schools tend to offer an academically oriented and rigorous curriculum designed to promote cognitive learning. Staff members at high-SES schools were constantly aware of parental pressures for children to succeed. The high visibility of parents in and around the school represented a form of environmental control over internal processes.
- Students from high-SES backgrounds internalize high tasks and come to believe they will succeed at academic tasks; while low-SES students are more likely to believe they cannot succeed at academic tasks and make curriculum choices based on that belief later in their academic careers.
- The combination of infrequent home-school contact and low academic expectations make the typical low-income school a less effective environment for

learning cognitive skills. Effective low-SES schools held high expectations for students while maintaining weak linkages with their environments, while high-SES schools seemed to derive their effectiveness in large part through the development of particularly strong connections with their environments.

- Strong interconnections typically exist between schools and their environments, but boundaries between schools in their communities tend to be permeable. The permeability of the school's boundaries impede the development of norms among staff and students that run counter to general environmental values.
- Effective low-SES schools isolated themselves from environmental norms, which usually promoted failure. Their orientation was internal, focusing on implementing practices designed to promote student mastery of basic reading and math skills. They work hard at rewarding their students to build their academic self-esteem and the belief that they can succeed. On the other hand, effective high-SES schools were isomorphic in their orientation to their environments. They exist in an environment of very high expectations and actively sought to incorporate them into their policies and practices. Parents, staff, and students all expected students to succeed; and success bred success.
- Principals in low-SES schools were directive and forceful in setting high standards for students and teachers, they buffered their schools from the environment and attempted to create a learning climate that communicated high expectations and rewarded students for the desired behavior. Because of the involvement of parents at the school, principals in high-SES schools did not have to exert direct authority over staff and instead their role involved mediating the

demands and expectations of the community and smoothing relations between teachers and parents.

- Both effective low- and high-SES schools were similar in that they had a strong results orientation, a safe, orderly environment, a clear mission, instructional leadership, high expectations, and a well-coordinated curriculum. They also monitored student progress and provided structured staff development.

The results of the Hallinger and Murphy study led them to suggest that "although no single formula exists for creating effective schools, future research may be able to identify patterns that are associated with success for certain types of schools that are attempting to attain specific types of goals (1986)." To help explain the differences in academic performance of schools, educational researchers have been searching for distinguishing school organizational traits that might reliably predict student achievement despite students' socioeconomic status. School organizational characteristics such as safe and orderly school climate, academic emphasis, and teacher efficacy and their empirical connections to student achievement were identified in the 1970s and 1980s as indicators of "effective schools" based on improvements in student achievement that occurred when those characteristics were present (Purkey & Smith, 1983).

For over forty-five years, schools in low-SES areas have been considered to be synonymous with being low-achieving schools (Coleman, et.al.,1966). Wayne K. Hoy, C. John Tarter, and Anita Woolfolk Hoy challenged the assumption of the socio-economic status of students as the primary cause of low academic achievement in high poverty schools in their study, *Academic Optimism of Schools and Student Achievement* (2006). They identified a new construct they called "academic optimism" which they used it to

explain student achievement in a sample of high schools while controlling for SES, previous achievement, and urbanicity.

The questions that need to be answered are clear. How do schools in low SES areas succeed academically in spite of their impoverished populations? If schools in higher SES areas are not achieving as expected, why, and what can be done to correct the problem? What really makes the difference? Is it good teachers that make all the difference, as some researchers espouse? Could the right school leadership, proper parent and community involvement, and more money provided to poor-performing schools and teachers whose students perform well on State tests once a year, be the answer? Or is a combination of two or more of these variables the panacea for success?

Searching for What Makes Schools Effective

Hallinger and Murphy findings presented "a paradox in terms of the role of community involvement in school improvement and led them to suggest that "no single formula exists for creating effective schools..." (Hallinger and Murphy, 1986).

Schools can become effective without parent involvement, yet parent involvement and expectations seem to have potentially powerful effects on student learning." Dr. Ackerman's five Core Values (Children come first; Parents are our partners; Victory is in the classroom and facilitated by a strong instructional leader; Leadership and accountability are the keys to success; and It takes the engagement of the entire community to ensure the success of its public schools) reflect the tenets of the Effective Schools Movement and also are related to variables found in the Academic Optimism construct.

The POINT (Sawbuck, 2010) suggests that the debate over the use of test scores as a measure of student learning and teacher effectiveness remains a top concern for teachers because they question whether test-based criteria for determining teacher effectiveness are too narrow.

Like all other low-performing school districts, the SDP is constantly seeking solutions to the problem of how to get low performing schools to succeed academically. In order to avoid throwing good money after bad, however, the District needs to know what research-based programs actually work when it comes to improving student achievement.

The Obama Administration's Blueprint for Reform (March 2010) and many other experts espouse that the interaction between teacher and student is the primary determinant of student success and that a great teacher can make the difference between a student who achieves at high levels and a student who slips through the cracks. Their research suggests that the impact of being assigned to top-performing teachers year after year is enough to significantly narrow achievement gaps.

Some of the studies cited in this literature review posit a great principal can help teachers succeed as part of a strong, well-supported instructional team, while others say there is no definitive evidence that this is the case.

In general, some of the research studies indicate that more needs be done to ensure every student has an effective teacher, every school has effective leaders, and every teacher and leader has access to the preparation, on-going support, recognition, and collaboration opportunities he or she needs to succeed. Both states and school districts are

expected to implement strategies to develop effective teachers and leaders that meet local needs.

Schools are being required by President Obama's Blueprint to support all students, by providing appropriate instruction and access to a challenging curriculum along with additional supports and attention where needed. So every student has a fair chance to succeed, principals and teachers are to be given the resources to support student success. School districts and states are being called upon to take steps to ensure equity, by such means as moving toward comparability in resources between high- and low-poverty schools (March 2010).

The Blueprint proposes to tackle persistent achievement gaps by requiring public agencies, community organizations, and families to share responsibility for improving outcomes for students, although how this requirement can be enforced has yet to be defined. The findings of Hallinger and Murphy state, however, that there is "a paradox in terms of the role of community involvement in school improvement. Schools can become effective without parent involvement, yet parent involvement and expectations seem to have potentially powerful effects on student learning" (1986).

The Obama Blueprint's calls for financial incentives for teachers and principals to improve the academic success of their students has been criticized as being an ineffective road to improved academic achievement and the elimination of the achievement gap. However, such incentives, often in the form of bonuses or increased pay for working in poor achieving schools, have recently been shown to have no overall impact on student achievement.

The findings of the POINT (Sawbuck, 2010) and other similar studies also refute the belief by many that merit pay is the answer to the achievement gaps that are occurring across the country. Those findings come at a time, however, when the U.S. Department of Education (USDOE) has announced new grantees under a federal program to provide the development of merit-pay programs for teachers and principals. "Under the Teacher Incentive Fund (TIF), $442 million in two-year grants was awarded to 62 school districts, non-profit groups, and state education organizations in 27 states."

In spite of evidence pointing to the lack of success of financial incentives for improving student academic achievement, the SDP opted, under Dr. Ackerman's leadership, to do this anyway. The School District of Philadelphia previously gave higher or lower salaries to principals based on the level and size of their schools. That is no longer true. The District now gives higher salaries to principals based on the difficulty of the schools' populations. It also provides more resources to the District's lower performing schools in the lower SES areas - Promise Academies and Empowerment Schools - than to those showing higher achievement in higher SES areas. Principals in the highest achieving schools, called Vanguard schools, receive a bonus of $3,000 a year and their schools receive a few thousand dollars more in their budgets, but principals in the Promise Academies and Empowerment Schools receive higher base salaries than their counterparts and many more material and human resources are funneled into their schools.

If developing strong technical skills, reallocating resources, and providing financial incentives for teachers and principals cannot eliminate the achievement gap, in and of themselves, what can? If the USDOE and its various stimulus programs, created to

address the achievement gap, have, to date, only produced sporadic change, what will produce measurable results and sustainable change? If NCLB, which has been in existence since 2002, has not produced measurable success of its indicators related to reduction of the achievement gap, what can?

Although SDP Administration may believe what is being done in the School District of Philadelphia to improve academic achievement is working or will work, more needs to be done beyond merely eliciting and tallying the individual personal opinions of administrators and teachers. Protocols must be developed that gauge District efforts through the use of research-based measurements.

Academic optimism is a multi-faceted construct consisting of three parts: collective teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, also known as academic press, and faculty trust in students and parents. These organizational properties consistently correlate with student academic achievement and have emerged within the results of most early research on effective schools. Among them are:

1. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) – voluntary and assistive teacher behaviors above and beyond performance expectations of their official role that "go the extra mile" to help students and colleagues succeed (DiPaola, Tarter, & Hoy, 2005);
2. Collective teacher efficacy – Beliefs among teachers of their ability to teach students successfully (Bandura, 1993; Goddard, 2002; Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2000; Goddard, Sweetland, & Hoy, 2000; Hoy, Sweetland, et. al., 2002);

3. Faculty trust in students and parents (Goddard, Tschannen-Moran, & Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, 2004; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001); and
4. Academic emphasis (also known as "academic press") – Seriousness of the school's focus on academic rigor and recognition (Byrk, Lee, & Holland, 1993; Hoy, et. al., 2006; Goddard, Sweetland, et. al., 2000; Hoy and Hannum, 1997; Hoy and Sabo, 1998; Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990; Hoy, Tarter, & Kottkamp, 1991; Shouse, 1996).

The search for a solution to the problem of poor academic achievement, especially among the impoverished students, continues. This problem must be eradicated. Generations of Black, Latino, and other minorities and their communities are being negatively impacted by what is and has been happening to them. And just as importantly, the overall American culture is being adversely affected as well.

Estimates on standardized test scores predict that this year, as much as 80 percent of America's public schools will be labeled "failing." Some educators, such as noted education scholar and New York University Professor Diane Ravitch, believe nearly 95 percent of schools will be designated "failing" under NCLB by 2014 (Paslay, 2011b).

The original purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the attitudinal construct – academic optimism – and its relationship to the organizational citizenship behaviors of teachers and student achievement among a sample of School District of Philadelphia public K-8 elementary schools. The researcher planned to use the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey given in the Spring of 2009, instead of the instruments commonly used to test the academic optimism and OCB of schools (DiPaola &

Tschannen-Moran, 2001; DiPaola & Hoy, 2001; Goddard, Hoy, et. al, 2000; Goddard, 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), to build on the emergent research database for academic optimism.

Although the original intent of this study was thwarted by the method by which the SDP collects its teacher survey data, it still seeks to answer some of the questions about what works to improve student academic achievement in low-performing, low SES schools. It also seeks to determine if any of the variables similar to those of Academic Optimism are in place and making a difference in some of the low-SES SDP K-8 schools. It is predicted the data will show that the positive individual and aggregated teacher efficacy, collective academic press, and positive perceptions about relationships with school leadership and colleagues, perceived parent support, and out of classroom citizenship behaviors will make significant contributions to student achievement controlling for demographic variables.

To what extent do the major indicators of teacher efficacy, academic press, parent support and community relations, positive relationships between teachers and school leaders, and out of classroom citizenship behaviors of teachers affect the academic achievement of non-charter public K-8 school students in the School District of Philadelphia in reading, mathematics, and writing?

It is the belief of this researcher that teacher efficacy, previously referred to as teacher expectations, is necessary for student academic success. Academic emphasis, or press, trust between teachers and parents and students, and the willingness of staff to go beyond their expected call of duty are also necessary. Some research also points to the leadership of the school principal as a major factor to school success. These are not

qualities that can be taught in teacher and principal training classes, but that must be developed over time.

Can the solution to the problem of low performing schools be as "simple" as changing attitudes? If so, how can that be taught? Even if the variables of Academic Optimism prove to be the answer to the problem of poor academic performance in schools, this is obviously not a "one-size-fits-all" solution. Even within it, adjustments will have to be made for the personality and environmental needs of each school.

CHAPTER 3
A DESCRIPTION AND HISTORY OF THE SCHOOL DISTRICT OF PHILADELPHIA

The School District of Philadelphia (SDP) is a large urban public school district that includes all public charter and non-charter schools in the City of Philadelphia. Established in 1818, today it is the eighth largest school district in the nation based on student population. Like districts in other large cities, it is a failing urban district with a large minority student population, many of whom come from low-socioeconomic environments. And like other similar school districts, it is ever searching for solutions to the problem of poor student achievement.

The SDP School Board was created in 1850 to oversee the schools of Philadelphia. The Act of Assembly of April 5, 1867, designated that the Controllers of the Public Schools of Philadelphia were to be appointed by the judges of the Court of Common Plea. There was one Controller to be appointed from each ward. This was done to eliminate politics from the management of the schools. Eventually, however, the management of the school district was given to a school board appointed by the mayor.

In 1965, the State passed the Philadelphia Educational Home Rule Charter. The Charter gave City Council the ability to tax and allowed the Mayor to appoint nine board members from a list of recommendations by a Citizens Panel. Dr. Mark Shedd was the first Superintendent under the Charter. With one exception, since Dr. Shedd arrived on the scene in the late 1960's to lead the Philadelphia School District, every superintendent has been a reformer and every Superintendent has embraced the same goal: to raise student achievement to acceptable levels (Penn Fels, 2010).

Dr. Shedd began the establishment of "alternative schools" in the city through the development of a "Model School District (MSD)" of 31 schools in North Philadelphia and Center City. Schools would have had curricular freedom, be open all-year round, day and night, and run programs for adults as well as children. It was supposed to be a mini-district run by a semi-autonomous board, which included representatives from the community, the District, and Temple University. However, complaints from Center City parents that their children would be bused to "ghetto schools", from others that this was another "experiment on Negro children", and that teachers and principals had no voice in the planning, caused the MSD to never get off the ground. (chillyphilly.com, 2010, Mezzacappa & Blumberg, 2010).

Dr. Shedd was successful, however, in establishing the Parkway Program, or "school without walls" in different neighborhoods using the city itself as the curriculum. These four schools became a radical new model for alleviating building overcrowding and providing meaningful, hands-on, community focused high schools. Although Parkway survived, by the 1980s the three remaining campuses had implemented selective admissions criteria and adopted a more traditional curriculum, which is how they operate today (Mezzacappa & Blumberg, 2010).

Mark Shedd's Superintendency was followed in 1975 by that of Michael P. Marcase. During the Marcase years, the District was in turmoil. Test scores were low and absenteeism among pupils and staff was high. Year after year, students were promoted to the next grade, not because they had learned the material, but because they were a year older. The District was bloated with patronage positions and jobs were parceled out

according to an informal ethnic quota system. In addition, the School District faced perennial budget deficits (Answers.com, 2010).

In 1983 the Philadelphia Board of Education ousted Marcase and interviewed eighty-four applicants for the Superintendent position. Selected to replace him was Constance E. Clayton, the first African American and the first female Superintendent of the SDP. The tasks confronting Constance Clayton were enormous. As Superintendent of Philadelphia's public schools, she presided over, then, the sixth-largest school system in the nation--a massive enterprise employing some 24,526 teachers, administrators, and support staff at more than 250 locations citywide. She faced many challenges, from budget setbacks to a poverty-stricken student body; but during her tenure, she set out to improve Philadelphia's educational system with the zeal of a crusader.

Dr. Clayton concluded that schools that had high expectations of their students were successful. Her administration put requirements in place to "replicate" this behavior in 24 low-income, low-achieving, racially isolated schools. Principals met regularly with teachers to analyze academic performance child-by-child and successful students were publically rewarded. Math and reading were given special attention and parent involvement was stressed in every school. This "Replicating Success" program was later named "Priority One" and was expanded to 75 schools that functioned as a separate region and received special coaching and extra helps from Central Office. This was the first time that the Philadelphia public schools looked at individual classroom data. Although teachers resisted this then-radical notion, elementary schools made significant test score gains as result of this practice. The same was not true of high schools, however (Mezzacappa & Blumberg, 2010).

During Superintendent Clayton's tenure in the late 1980's and early 1990's, the Pew Charitable Trust poured millions into the District to form what were called "schools within schools" or "small learning communities. These were designed to help students and teachers form bonds that would translate into higher academic achievement. In addition, in the early 1990's, Dr. Clayton and the teachers' union proposed school-based management, which would allow schools to adopt their own goals and strategies, have greater control over their budgets, and the ability to seek waivers from teachers' contracts and District rules. Few schools took advantage of this plan and few waivers were approved, giving the school councils limited power. As a result the program ceased to be a reform approach with any teeth and fell by the wayside (Mezzacappa & Blumberg, 2010).

Over the ten years of Dr. Clayton's leadership, student math and reading scores in Philadelphia's elementary schools improved substantially. Parents expressed more confidence in the city's public education, and, through special efforts on Clayton's part, private businesses pumped millions of dollars in grant money into the beleaguered urban schools. Under her management, huge budget deficits were erased and most of her tenure in office saw balanced school budgets with some surplus. Clayton was best known, however, as an administrator, with her priorities fixed firmly on the most important link in the school system's chain--the students themselves. "Somebody had better step forward and be the advocate for kids," she told the *New York Times.* "We have a moral responsibility to these youngsters" (Answers.com, 2010).

When Dr. Clayton left her position as Superintendent in 1994, she was replaced by David Hornbeck, whose tenure lasted for six years. Mr. Hornbeck, a longtime

children's advocate and a minister, began his term as Superintendent with a moral imperative to get something done for underprivileged children. The *Philadelphia Inquirer* bluntly laid out his challenge in a scathing special report on the city's schools called "District in Distress," which painted a bleak picture:

> "Just 25 percent of elementary students were reading at or above the national average. One-third of middle school students had been suspended at least once in the past school year. And Philadelphia spent $1,160 less on the education of each of its 214,000 students than the average in the surrounding suburbs."

Mr. Hornbeck relied on his experience as a leading consultant in Kentucky's far-reaching effort to overhaul its school system in the late 1980s, and as the reform-minded state chief in Maryland from 1976-1988. He was quoted as saying, "I wanted to be the superintendent in a district that exhibited the sort of normal urban education problems. In my view, there was not a single district in the United States, with diversity, that successfully educated most of its children to high standards" (R.C. Johnston. 1999).

Under his superintendency, test scores went up, several of the innovative ideas in his Children Achieving program took root, and a new focus on academic achievement pervaded the district. He was credited with placing achievement at the top of the 215,000 student district's agenda. Under Mr. Hornbeck's leadership, the percentage of Philadelphia students who scored "below basic" on the Stanford Achievement Test - 9th Edition fell from 70 percent in 1996 to 59 percent the following year.

Almost from the start, however, Mr. Hornbeck drew criticism for alienating influential groups, notably the teachers' union, and for what some saw as his inflexibility. For years, he battled with Pennsylvania's Republican Governor, Tom Ridge, over the

amount of State aid the District should have received (Education Week, 1999). This eventually led to the State taking administrative control over the District.

The stated roots of the State's takeover of the School District of Philadelphia (SDP) were the chronic low test scores of its students and the history of inequitable financing that left the District with substantial and perpetual deficits (Travers, 2003). Increased District spending was limited by a State system that relied heavily on property taxes for local school funding, allowing the wealthier school districts, with proportionately more property owners and more expensive real estate, more funds for their schools. The result was great disparities in school system expenditures per student. In 2000, the SDP spent $6,969 a year per student, which contrasted with per student expenditures of nearly twice as much in the wealthier suburban school districts.

Superintendent David Hornbeck announced increased student achievement in 1998 as he asked for more money from the Pennsylvania government for Philadelphia students in his four-year old "[All] Children Achieving" initiative. His request was contained in his announcement of the latest test results that showed students in grades 4, 8, and 11 had improved more than 11 points in reading, mathematics, and science. His report, however, was forced to acknowledge that most city students still fell well short of mastering those subjects (Jones, 1998; Green, 2003).

In February 1998, Mr. Hornbeck threatened to close the City's schools if the State did not provide the funds needed to balance his proposed budget (Clowes, 1998). However, on April 21, State lawmakers responded to the threat with fast moving legislation, Act 46, approving a school-funding package that included a takeover plan for the nation's sixth-largest school system. The legislature's plan was a response to

Hornbeck's threatening to shut down the schools because of a financial crisis (The Heartland Institute, 2007; Clowes, 1998).

The City and the SDP filed two lawsuits in 1997 and 1998 to address inadequate funding levels. The first, dismissed outright by the State court, was filed by the School District, the City, and community leaders, and contended that Pennsylvania did not provide a "thorough and efficient" education. The second case, a civil rights suit filed in Federal District Court, by the District, the City, and other interested parties, contended that the State's funding practices discriminated against school districts with large numbers of non-White students. The SDP was a key complainant in this case. The City agreed to put the case on hold when Mayor Street negotiated the so-called "friendly" State takeover of the SDP, with promises of more funding from the State (Travers, 2003).

In June 2000, under increasing pressure to find a solution to the fiscal and academic problems facing the District, School Superintendent David W. Hornbeck ended his six-year tenure. Hornbeck resigned saying he did not have the financial support of State and City officials to continue his school reform program. After his departure, the Board of Education implemented a new management structure and replaced the superintendent's position with two new positions, a chief academic officer and a chief executive officer (The New York Times, 2000).

In 2001, the District had a projected deficit of $216.7 million in its $1.7 billion budget. There was a crisis in making the school payroll and paying $30 million in vendor bills. In recognition of the State's assistance, Mayor Street agreed to postpone for three months a 1998 federal lawsuit brought by the City claiming racial discrimination in the way the State funded the SDP. A study released in July by the Harvard Civil Rights

Project, ranked Pennsylvania as having the sixth most segregated schools in the United States (Bishop, 2001a). Improving public education became a civil rights issue.

Under the 1998 legislation, Governor Mark Schweiker moved in 2001 to take control of the schools. The State takeover of the fifth largest school district in the United States was seen as the most radical reform ever undertaken in a large urban school district (Bishop, 2001). Mayor John F. Street and many members of the City of Philadelphia opposed this move. The negotiations dragged on because of the State's insistence that the City pay its fair share, while the City fought to retain some control over the governance.

In the end, the City put up an additional $45 million for the schools instead of the $15 million initially offered and the State provided an additional $75 million. In return, the mayor got to appoint two commission members rather than just one under the governor's initial plan (The Heartland Institute, 2007).

Although schools were clearly failing, the State and City could not agree on reform and local governance issues. As negotiations continued, a coalition of labor unions and community groups called the "Coalition to Keep Our Public Schools Public", filed a lawsuit to stop the State from signing a contract for an external vendor, Edison Schools, to manage City schools. The State backed off on a hostile takeover and negotiated with the City (Bishop, 2001c).

A chief concern was the complete privatization of the SDP, which brought protests from the Philadelphia Federation of Teachers (Clowes, 1998), the NAACP, a group of black ministers, and hundreds of students, who walked out of classes (Bishop, 2001b).

On December 21, 2001, Secretary Charles Zogby of the Pennsylvania Department

of Education (PDE) signed a Declaration of Distress for the SDP, triggering the State takeover of the SDP from the City. The State of Pennsylvania formed the School Reform Commission to oversee the troubled public school system. This action was the end result of a month long negotiation under the legislation enacted by the Pennsylvania General Assembly in April 1998. The takeover plan had six main elements:

1) put the District under the control of a School Reform Commission;
2) hire a CEO;
3) enable the CEO to reform the teaching staff by hiring non-certified staff, reconstitute troubled schools by reassigning or firing staff;
4) allow the commission to hire for-profit firms to manage some schools;
5) convert some schools into charter schools; and
6) reallocate and redistribute SDP resources (The Heartland Institute, 2007).

After the State takeover, the District adopted what is known as the "diverse provider" model, turning over the management of some of the lowest-achieving schools to for-profit and nonprofit organizations and two local universities. Additional resources were provided to the private managers. The most controversial of the 2001 reforms of the partnership program, saw "educational management organizations" (EMOs) brought in to manage some of the District's lowest-performing schools (Bishop, 2001d; Gill, Zimmer, Christman, & Blanc, 2007).

The extensive series of changes and initiatives that occurred, both public and private, have been described as "the country's largest experiment in private management of schools. In addition, university and community–based organizations, and the District

itself have implemented different strategies in low-performing schools targeted for 'reform interventions' (Green, 2003; Research for Action, 2003)".

After the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania took over the SDP in 2001, the PA Department of Education (PDE) established the School Reform Commission (SRC), which immediately disbanded the SDP Board of Education and assumed the daily running of the District. They appointed Paul Vallas as Chief Executive Officer (CEO), who directed his leadership team to institute many of the changes that he had made during his six years as the former CEO of the Chicago Public Schools. He directed that a new "Core Curriculum" be developed with District alignment to State standards and PSSA and TerraNova objectives. In addition, for the first time, all Philadelphia public schools would use the same textbook series for English and Mathematics classes; and K-8 teachers were expected to follow the "Planning and Scheduling Timeline" and "Year at a Glance". Benchmark assessments were given after every five weeks of instruction. Students needing additional help were given extra support through alternative instruction in class and, if at-risk of falling behind, were required to attend the Extended Day Program (Green, 2003).

All K-8 students received 120 (90 for high schools) minutes of reading and 90 minutes of mathematics instruction a day. Having all students using the same books and adhering to the same timeline was designed to address the negative effects of the 38% mobility rate of SDP students. Every school had Literacy and Math coaches for teacher support to effectively implement the Core Curriculum. In the primary grades, intern teachers were placed in classroom "to reduce class size" [more accurately: to reduce the

student-adult ratio to 22:1]. Title I funds were shifted from larger schools to other schools to fund the interns (Sperling, 2003).

Classroom teachers in grades K-9 underwent intensive professional development of the new curricular materials two Friday afternoons a month, after students were dismissed early. In the meantime, the SDP developed a plan to recruit and retain quality teachers, as required by NCLB requirements (Green, 2003). Additionally, a group of poorly performing schools, called the Restructured Schools, were given extra supports. An Office for School Intervention and Support was created with staff assigned to work intensely with schools that were not making AYP.

Paul Vallas fell from grace when a sudden $70 million budget deficit appeared seemingly out of nowhere in 2007, damaging his reputation as a good money manager. In addition, he was also hit with discipline and school violence issues in the schools. Nevertheless, Vallas is credited with having "refocused the district's efforts on educating children. He rejected the common 'garbage in-garbage out' belief, widely held within the District, that most of the kids were hopeless cases because of poverty, bad parents, lousy neighborhoods, etc. He was open to innovative ideas, to competition, and to experimentation within the schools; and he had the support of the SRC. He had the support of good administrators and a lot of teachers, and, for a time, he galvanized the district and the public, to not only support the public schools, but to believe in public education (Great Expectations, 2007).

As stated earlier, Dr. Arlene Ackerman, former Superintendent of the San Francisco School District and the Washington D.C. School District, became Superintendent of The School District of Philadelphia in July 2008. Many changes

occurred within the District during her tenure. Among those initiatives were the Renaissance Schools, Promise Academies, expanded summer school, weighted student funding, formation of the Office of Parents, Parent University, Parent Forums, and the annual School Administrative and Teacher Leadership Conferences.

The most recent demographic data on the District's website (SDP, 2010) indicate that currently 76 percent of its 184,560 students in 230 of its 265 schools are eligible for reduced-price or free meals (FRL). In June 2010, the racial composition of the District was African American - 64.4%, Asian - 5.6%, Hispanic - 13.8%, Native American - .2%, and White - 13.3%.

Throughout the years, the District has been subdivided into smaller areas based on geography. These were known at various times as districts, clusters, areas, regions, and divisions. During the 2008-2009 school year, the SDP was subdivided into eleven geographical regions. Nine of those regions contained all school levels – elementary (K-8 and other elementary configurations), middle schools, and magnet high schools. The tenth region consisted of the District's comprehensive high schools and the eleventh region was designated the Alternative Education Region, overseeing the alternative disciplinary schools within the District. In July 2010, however, the regional offices were closed and their staffs dispersed to other parts of the SDP. Schools were reorganized into Academic Divisions based on grade organization and overseen by Assistant Superintendents.

During Dr. Ackerman's tenure, like those of most of her predecessors, there was some improvement in the state test scores, although not enough of an increase in the District's AYP Proficient and Advanced categories to move it from its current status of a

Corrective Action II District, a status it has held, as of 2010, for eight years straight (Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2011).

July 2011 brought even more problems and changes to the SDP. There were charges of cheating on the State PSSA test. A $639 million deficit resulted in job losses for thousands teachers (mostly new ones), Central Office staff reduction, furloughs, school closings, and to the cutting of critical programs, including the expanded summer school program (CBS Philly, February 2011).

Some blame poor stewardship and irresponsible fiscal management. Critics say the state-run School Reform Commission, Dr. Ackerman, and others knew this day of reckoning was coming, but did nothing about it. They claim that most of the problem has been self-inflicted because the District was mismanaging the funds they already had - spending freely on questionable initiatives, banking on temporary federal stimulus money as if it were permanent and ignoring their own five-year financial plan (CBS Philly, February, 2011; CBS Philly, April, 2011; Goldsmith, 2011; MyFoxPhilly, January 2011; Paslay, 2011a).

The SDP responded that these were not the causes of the huge deficit. "The district's problem is not spending. It is funding. State and federal funding for the district is going down next year - for the first time ever, and by an enormous amount - more than $400 million, a 15 percent drop. And this is not due solely or primarily to the district's loss of federal stimulus funds. The district received an average of $113 million in annual stimulus funds in 2010 and in 2011, but it is losing more than $400 million in total funding next year.

"With funding going down and spending increases mandated in areas like health

benefits, utilities, fuel, pensions, and charter-school payments, the district faces a potential budget gap for the 2011-12 school year of more than $630 million. The district has responded to this unprecedented gap in the most responsible way possible - presenting a balanced budget within the limits of available funding, while also advocating for additional funding so that the most injurious cuts to school programs can be avoided if possible.

"The district was prepared for this crisis. It spent months developing a gap-closing plan that is responsible and strategic. But this plan of necessity requires deep spending cuts in order to balance. With 65 percent of the district's budget mandated by law or contract, these cuts have fallen more deeply in the parts of the budget not subject to mandate. And many cuts will be enormously harmful to programs that have enabled the district to achieve a 175 percent improvement in test scores over the past eight years....But the bottom line is the district is *not* repeating the mistakes of the past. Spending is under control. Tough decisions are being made. Reasonable people can differ about some of the specifics, but claims that the School District has failed to manage its finances responsibly are baseless and false" (Masch, 2011).

Some questioned Masch's explanation, saying they were concerned that he was "playing with words....cherry-picks financial data out of context to blame the District's $630 million deficit on a lack of funding" and "... his claim that the District doesn't have a spending problem is a clear case of denial; it is a total lack of accountability. In addition, The City Controller's Office has also expressed serious concerns about how the School District handles tax dollars, and has recommended that they be required to present a five-year financial plan to an independent accounting authority because of "material

weaknesses" found in its financial statements" (Paslay, 2011c).

In September 2011, Arlene Ackerman's tenure as Superintendent of the SDP abruptly ended when she was asked to leave the District due to fiscal and personnel-related issues. She was temporarily replaced by her Associate Superintendent, Dr. Leroy Nunery II. Dr. Nunnery was shortly, thereafter, replaced by Tom Knudson, Acting Superintendent and Chief Recovery Officer, while a nationwide search was conducted for a permanent School Superintendent. Mr. Knudsen, known to the Philadelphia government and business communities as the recently retired CEO of the Philadelphia Gas Works, is credited during his tenure, for PGW's recovery and transformation from a utility with an annual cash deficit of $60 to $100 million from uncollected revenues, a failed computer system not billing 50,000 customers, an infrastructure in need of fundamental repair, a call center unable to provide basic customer service and a demoralized executive staff to the PGW today that is financially sound and recognized by regulators and Wall Street as expertly managed and fully functioning.

Following a yearlong national search, Dr. William R. Hite, Jr. was selected to lead the SDP as Superintendent of Schools during the summer of 2012. Dr. Hite, a former teacher and principal, previously served as the Superintendent of the Prince George's County, MD, public schools, a politically tough system with a growing majority of poor students and a recent history of budget problems.

Dr. Hite calls himself "a servant leader" who can help the Philadelphia School Reform Commission (SRC) reform a district on the brink of insolvency by completely re-imagining the way its schools are managed. In his former superintendency, he froze all salaries, ordered two-day furloughs for all employees, and cut 1,300 positions. Class sizes

rose. Schools were closed. Prekindergarten was reduced from a full day to a half-day program.

The organizational structure also changed there, with the old regions turned into "zones" that Hite said better-supported schools. That is a model that Philadelphia is examining, albeit Philadelphia's leadership has suggested the new structures could be run by outside groups, like charter organizations.

Hite also extended the school day for students and implemented for merit pay for teachers. In Prince George's County, he implemented a weighted student funding formula that allocates money based on students' needs.

Regardless of the cause of the District's fiscal problems and its plans to correct them, however, it must still adhere to its primary mission, that of educating the more than 162,000 K-12 students for which it is responsible. This dilemma, related to its mission and outlined in the introduction to this dissertation, remains the challenge for the School District of Philadelphia and its leadership.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research problem, research questions, data sample and collection procedures, instrumentation, and data analysis procedures.

Purpose of the Study

The original purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the attitudinal construct – academic optimism – and its relationship to the organizational citizenship behaviors of teachers and student achievement among a sample of School District of Philadelphia public K-8 elementary schools. The researcher planned to use the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey given in the Spring of 2009, instead of the instruments commonly used to test the academic optimism and OCB of schools (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; DiPaola & Hoy, 2001; Goddard, Hoy, et. al, 2000; Goddard, 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), to build on the emergent research database for academic optimism.

After categorizing the survey questions on the SDP 2008-2009 Teacher Survey, the researcher contacted Dr. Hoy, sent him a copy of the survey items selected for the study, and asked if the categories met the requirements to measure academic optimism in the SDP K-8 schools. His response was that every component, but one, did not meet the requirements to assess the academic optimism construct (Hoy, 2010).

Dr. Hoy's evaluation of the SDP's teacher survey questions was that they, for the most part, addressed the perceptions of the individual teacher, not the individual's perception of the group, as is the case for academic optimism. He indicated the only element that was collectively addressed in the SDP Teacher Survey was that of academic press. Teacher efficacy was individually addressed. The element of faculty trust of

students and parents was not addressed, as such. Instead the District chose to assess parent involvement and community relations. Furthermore, only two questions collectively addressed organizational citizenship behavior, although there were other questions that assessed some teacher behaviors outside of their classroom duties.

As a result of Dr. Hoy's observations and response to the researcher's email about the differences in the collected data being used for this study, the direction of this study was changed in several substantial ways:

1) The unit of analysis remains the school, which is what the academic optimism construct addresses.
2) The data used in this study is now aggregated from the thousands of individual teacher responses instead of from collective responses as is done in academic optimism surveys.
3) Aggregated individual teacher efficacy responses are measured to provide an estimate of the collective efficacy of the schools in the study.
4) The same is done to measure teacher perceptions of their relationships to and support from parents and the community, and teacher citizenship behaviors beyond the classroom.
5) No comparisons will be made to previous years' academic achievement of the schools in the study; nor will writing achievement be considered.
6) In addition, the study has been expanded to test the aggregated teachers' perceptions of the leadership effects of their school principals and the leadership of colleagues in their schools,.

To test the relationship between teachers' perceptions in these areas and teachers' out of classroom citizenship behaviors (OCCB) to student academic achievement, survey data were collected voluntarily from a convenient sample of 2,457 teachers in a diverse sample of 96 Philadelphia, Pennsylvania public K-8 and 1-8 elementary schools. Their responses provided data on their perceptions of personal efficacy, trusted relationships with their principals and other teachers in their schools, beliefs about parent support and community relations, and opinions about their out of classroom citizenship behavior and that of their colleagues. The data, in all of these areas except one, were aggregated to provide estimates of collective beliefs.

The 2008-2009 teacher survey questions about the academic press variable were the only ones that were asked in such a way as to be measured collectively.

Student achievement scores and demographic characteristics were obtained from the Pennsylvania State Department of Education (PDE) and from the Office of Assessment and Accountability of The School District of Philadelphia in Pennsylvania.

It is predicted the data will show that the positive individual and aggregated teacher efficacy, collective academic press, and positive perceptions about relationships with school leadership and colleagues, perceived parent support, and out of classroom citizenship behaviors will make significant contributions to student achievement after controlling for demographic variables.

There are three purposes of this study. The first is to investigate the relationship between the perceptions collected from a volunteer group of 2,457 SDP K-8 teachers from 92 schools on their self-efficacy, their perceptions of parent support and community relations, their perceptions about the academic emphasis in their schools, their

perceptions of school leadership, and their out of classroom citizenship behavior; and how these perceptions relate to the academic achievement of their schools while controlling for socioeconomic factors.

Although the original intention of the researcher was to investigate, through the academic optimism construct lens, the collective perceptions of these teachers, the study is limited from examining that construct because the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey questions used were written from an individual perspective, with the exception of those related to academic press. As a result, data that query individual perceptions were aggregated to provide estimates of collective results. The academic press survey data, however, were analyzed as collective data, not as aggregated data.

The second purpose of the study is to build upon the research base for the School District of Philadelphia (SDP) and the Academic Optimism research base by testing the aggregated teacher efficacy, aggregated teacher perceptions of parents and community data, collective academic press data, and aggregated perceptions about school leadership, as they relate to student achievement and OCCB among a sample of its non-charter K-8 schools.

Finally, the third purpose is to provide evidence of the need for the School District of Philadelphia to investigate the academic optimism construct within its schools through future teacher surveys. At a time when the District is under severe financial distress, academic optimism appears to be a low-cost vehicle for improving education for its students. Understanding academic optimism and how it manifests itself in schools is important because it "emphasizes the potential of schools to overcome the power of socioeconomic factors that impair student achievement" (Hoy, et. al., 2006, p. 443). This

is especially important in a large urban school district like the School District of Philadelphia where a majority of its students come from low-SES neighborhoods.

Understanding the relationships between the variables of teacher efficacy, academic press, parent involvement, faculty-parental relationships, school leadership, out of classroom citizenship behavior in schools, and their possible connections to student achievement, in spite of socioeconomic status, emphasizes the importance of the social environment of schools and the potential of teacher attitudes to influence student achievement.

Problem Statement

To what extent do the major indicators of teacher efficacy, academic press, parent support and community relations, positive relationships between teachers and school leaders, and out of classroom citizenship behaviors of teachers affect the academic achievement of non-charter public K-8 school students in the School District of Philadelphia, as measured by the 2009 Pennsylvania System of School Assessments in Reading, Grades 3 through 8, and Mathematics, Grades 3 through 8, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the school?

Research Questions of the Study

1. What is the relationship in the study between aggregated teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, parent involvement and community relations, and student achievement on the PSSA, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the schools?

2. What is the relationship between positive relationships with colleagues and principals and teachers' out of classroom citizenship behaviors to student achievement, when controlling for SES of students in the school?

The Research Null Hypotheses

The following research null hypotheses were tested by this confirmatory study:

1. No relationship will be found in the study between aggregated teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, parent involvement and community relations, and student achievement on the PSSA in the schools, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the school
2. No relationship will be found between teachers' positive relationships with colleagues and principals and student achievement, when controlling for SES of students in the school.
3. No relationship will be found between teachers' out of classroom citizenship behaviors and student achievement, when controlling for SES of students in the school.

Data Sample and Collection Procedures

All participants in this study were full-time teachers, guidance counselors, and other full-time professional instructional faculty from 91 of the 95 K-8 public elementary schools and the one Grade 1-8 elementary school in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania who voluntarily completed the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey in the spring of 2009.

Teachers were selected for this study because, according to the research, it is their attitudes toward the academic achievement of their students and their belief that they can

or cannot make a difference in the lives of their students, regardless of socioeconomic background, that are the components of the academic success in schools.

During the 2008-2009 school year there were 175 public non-charter elementary schools in the School District of Philadelphia and seven grade organizations among them. The grade organization breakdown is shown in Table 4.

Table 4
2008-2009 SDP Elementary School Organizations

Number of Schools	Grade Organization
1	PK – 2
13	PK – 4
28	PK – 5
35	PK – 6
2	PK – 7
95	PK – 8
1	1 – 8

The PK–2 elementary school was eliminated from this study because it does not have any of the PSSA tested grades and, therefore, has no comparable academic achievement data to report. Its elimination from the study reduced the sample by one school. The PK-4, PK-5, PK-6, and PK-7 schools were eliminated because, although they have some of the tested grades within their organizational structure, they did not contain all of the elementary PSSA tested grades. Their elimination from the study reduced the sample by an additional 78 schools. In addition, four of the 95 K-8 schools did not submit their teacher survey results, reducing the final sample size of K-8 schools to ninety-one.

Responses were drawn from the remaining 91 K-8 and one 1-8 public non-charter elementary schools in the School District of Philadelphia. These schools are located in

various areas of the city and they represent various ranges of SES within the District, as shown in Figure 3 on page 20.

In the spring of 2009, the School District of Philadelphia's Office of Assessment surveyed all of the District's teachers. Teachers were informed that their participation in completing the survey was voluntary. Because each staff member volunteered to participate in completing the survey from which the data for this study draws, the study sample is, therefore, a convenience sample. Any schools or staff members within them that refused to participate were not replaced from the pool of previously unselected schools. Although not random, the sample is comprised of a demographic and geographic range of Philadelphia's public non-charter elementary schools.

Principals were instructed on how to administer the surveys at a regularly scheduled regional principals' meeting. They were given a large envelope containing the Teacher Surveys. The survey data were collected from faculty members at regularly scheduled faculty and grade group meetings in May 2009.

Once their surveys were completed, staff members returned them to their principals who forwarded them to the Office of Assessment to be analyzed.

A convenience sample of teachers in each school responded on the survey to measures of academic emphasis, teacher efficacy, teacher perceptions of the leadership of colleagues and principals, parent support and community involvement, and out of classroom citizenship behavior. Participants were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality, and the option to refuse to participate, skip any question, or discontinue participation at any time. No attempt was made to collect data from any teachers who missed the faculty meetings.

Aggregated teacher efficacy, academic press, teacher perceptions of the leadership of colleagues and principals, parent support and community involvement, and out of classroom citizenship behaviors are school-level characteristics, so the data for this study were aggregated at the school level to support the school as the unit of analysis.

Data were also collected on the socioeconomic status (SES) of the school and its student achievement in order to correlate their relationship to the other variables in the study (i.e., Teacher Efficacy, Academic Press, Parent Support and Community Involvement, School Leadership, and Out of Classroom Citizenship Behaviors).

The School District of Philadelphia uses a method called the "Yancey Index" to calculate the schools' socioeconomic status. This formula was developed in 1994 by then Temple University professor, Dr. William L. Yancey, for use in his study, "A Socio-Economic Study of Students Attending Philadelphia Public Schools", which estimated the number of Philadelphia public school students who qualified for free or reduced price lunches. The Yancey Index was used again in a second report called "Estimating the Percentage of Students Income-Eligible for Free and Reduced Price Lunch", which was conducted in 2007 by The Reinvestment Fund (TRF).

Prior to the first Yancey study, there were basically two ways to qualify for the National School Lunch Program (NSLP), administered by the US Department of Agriculture (USDA) since 1946 (under the Truman Administration): 1) *Categorical Eligibility*: Those who were already on some sort of public assistance, were (and are) automatically eligible and enrolled in the program. In Pennsylvania, these data come directly from the State. 2) *Income eligibility*: Families could apply for admission into the

program based on the total family income. In the TRF report, the threshold for Income Eligibility is stated as 250% of the federally defined poverty level.

The problem was that non-categorically eligible families were required to apply for the USDA program, and to supply all the necessary documentation to prove their eligibility. In practice, however, many did not apply for various reasons. As a result, many families who could be served by the program were not.

Dr. Yancey did a stratified random sampling of the city of Philadelphia and determined the actual percentages of those eligible for the program. He discovered that 80% of the District's families were eligible for some assistance. Roughly half of those had automatically qualified (Categorical Eligibility) and the other half would qualify based on income *if they applied* (Income Eligibility). He then created an index, which is computed school by school. The calculation takes the number of students who qualify under Categorical Eligibility to determine the number who likely would then qualify under Income Eligibility. These two percentages are then combined to determine the school's "Yancey Index."

The District convinced the USDA to allow the "Yancey Index" to be used to determine the amount of funding the District would receive for the NSLP. The District also decided to make most of its schools "universal feeder" schools, which means that all students in those schools receive free breakfast and/or lunch, regardless of whether they do or would qualify for the program. The School District of Philadelphia is currently the only district in the country that gives all children in selected schools a free meal without requiring an application.

The District's rationalization for the "universal feeder" approach is that it is

estimated to save money, since giving a free or reduced lunch to those who are technically not eligible is less expensive than the cost of determining those who are eligible from those who are not (and the subsequent application process). Other benefits of "universal feeding" are that it reduces the social stigma of receiving free lunch, while maximizing the number of children who receive well-balanced meals.

In 2008-2009, there were 95 K-8 schools and one 1-8 school in The SDP. The student enrollment data by race and grade number and percent are described in Table 3.

Table 5
The School District Of Philadelphia 96 K – 8 Schools – 2008 -2009 Student Enrollment Number And Percent By Race And Grade

Female Af Am K-8	Female Am Ind K-8	Female Asian K-8	Female Latino K-8	Female Other K-8	Female White K-8
15,923	38	1,662	4,704	508	3,404
Male Af Am K-8	**Male Am Ind K-8**	**Male Asian K-8**	**Male Latino K-8**	**Male Other K-8**	**Male White K-8**
16,856	49	1,791	5,049	606	3,753
Total Af Am K-8	**Total Am Ind K-8**	**Total Asian K-8**	**Total Latino K-8**	**Total Other K-8**	**Total White K-8**
32,779	87	3,453	9,753	1,114	7,157
% Af Am Total Enrollment	% Am Ind Total Enrollment	% Asian Total Enrollment	% Latino Total Enrollment	% Other Total Enrollment	% White Total Enrollment
60.32%	0.16%	6.35%	17.95%	2.05%	13.17%

Total All K-8 Students	Mean School Enrollment
54,343	566

All of the 96 K-8 schools were sorted into five groups according to their Yancey Poverty Rates and the percentage of the AYP performance targets they met on the 2009 PSSA test. These classifications were:

Group 1 – Low Poverty; High Performance
Group 2 – Middle Poverty; High Performance
Group 3 – High Poverty; High Performance
Group 4 – High Poverty; Low Performance
Group 5 – Middle Poverty; Low Performance

High performance of AYP targets met is defined as having met 50% or more of the schools' AYP targets that vary from school to school. Low poverty rate (high SES) on the Yancey Scale is defined as schools having 40% - 59.9% of their student populations eligible to receive free/reduced lunches. Middle Poverty is defined as schools with 60% - 79% of the student population eligible to receive free/reduced lunches; and schools identified as High Poverty have 80% or more of their students eligible for the free and reduced lunch program.

Only ten schools were in Group 1 (Low Poverty; High Performance), while Groups 2 (Middle Poverty; High Performance) and 3 (High Poverty; High Performance) had 23 and 39 schools in them, respectively. Group 4 (High Poverty; Low Performance) contained 18 schools and Group 5 (Middle Poverty; Low Performance) had 4 schools in it.

A more detailed presentation of the grouping of the K-8 schools and their poverty levels as compared to their AYP performance targets met can be found on Table 16 in Appendix IV. A scatterplot of the 2008-2009 SDP K-8 Schools' overall AYP

performance targets met versus the Yancey poverty rates are displayed in Table 5 on page 126.

School-level achievement data were calculated using the mean school scores for student performance. Since the analysis was conducted at the school level, achievement in each content area was measured as the proportion of students who scored proficient and advanced in the Reading and Mathematics assessments in Grades 3 through 8. School demographic data were retrieved from the SDP.

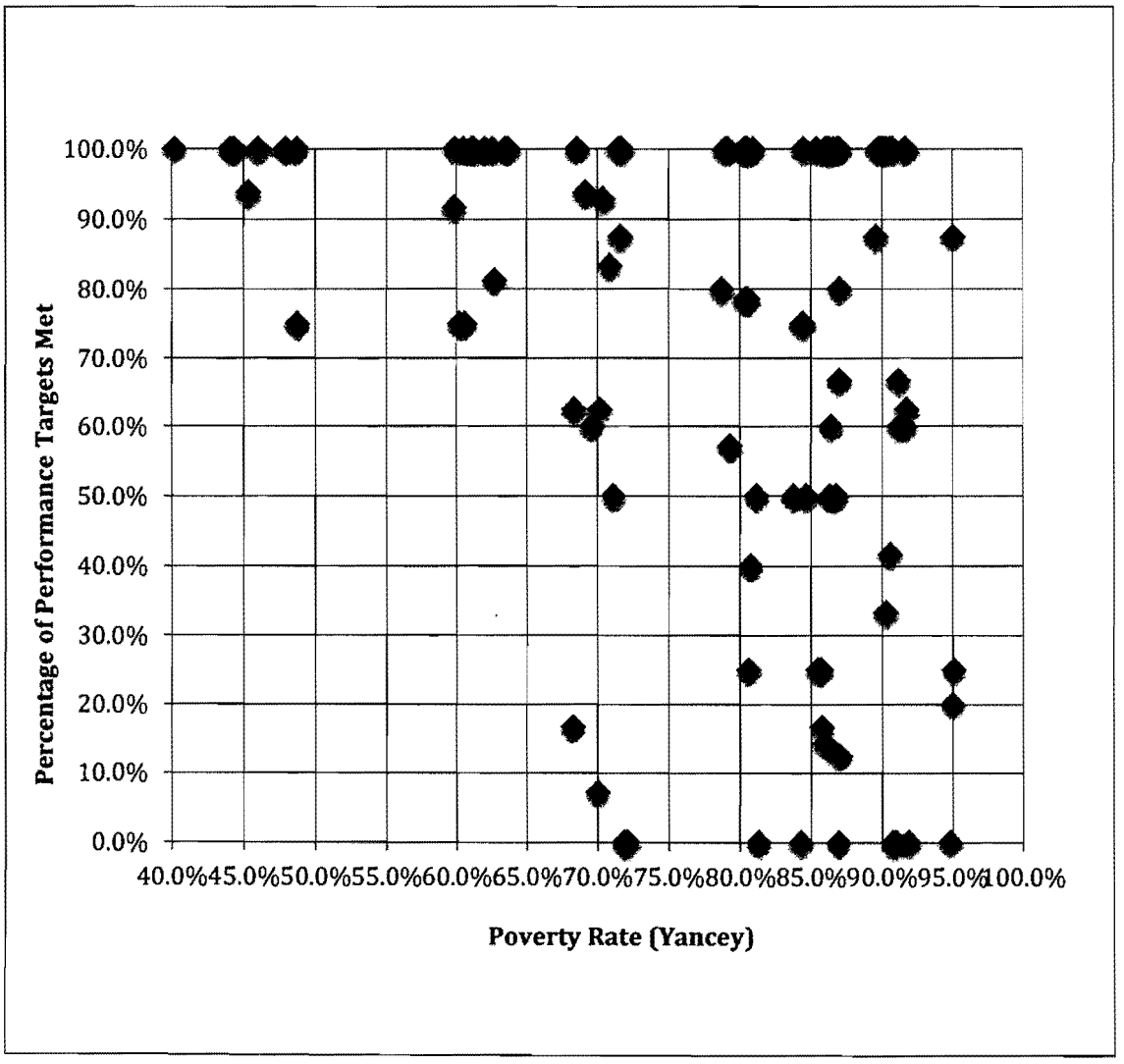

Figure 10. 2008-2009 SDP K-8 AYP Performance Targets Met Vs Yancey Poverty Rates

Figures 11 and 12 display the percentage of K-8 3rd through 8th grade students who scored Proficient and Advanced in Reading and Math on the 2009 PSSA.

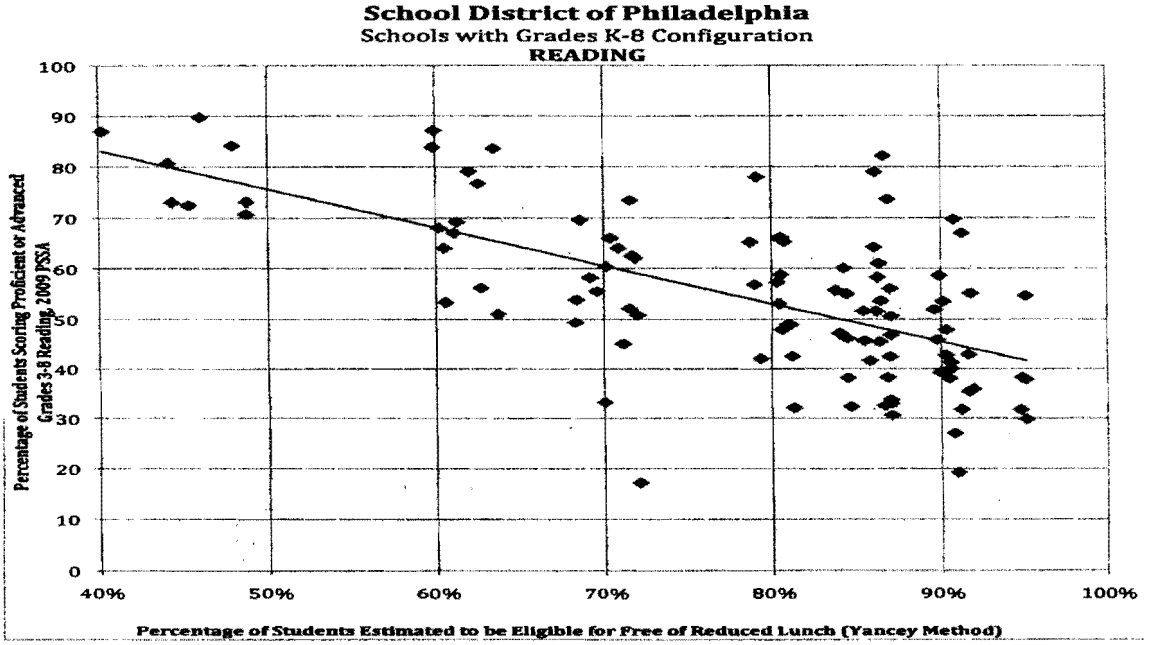

Figure 11. Percentage of Grade 3-8 Students in K-8 Schools Scoring Proficient or Advanced in Reading on the PSSA Versus Yancey Poverty Rates

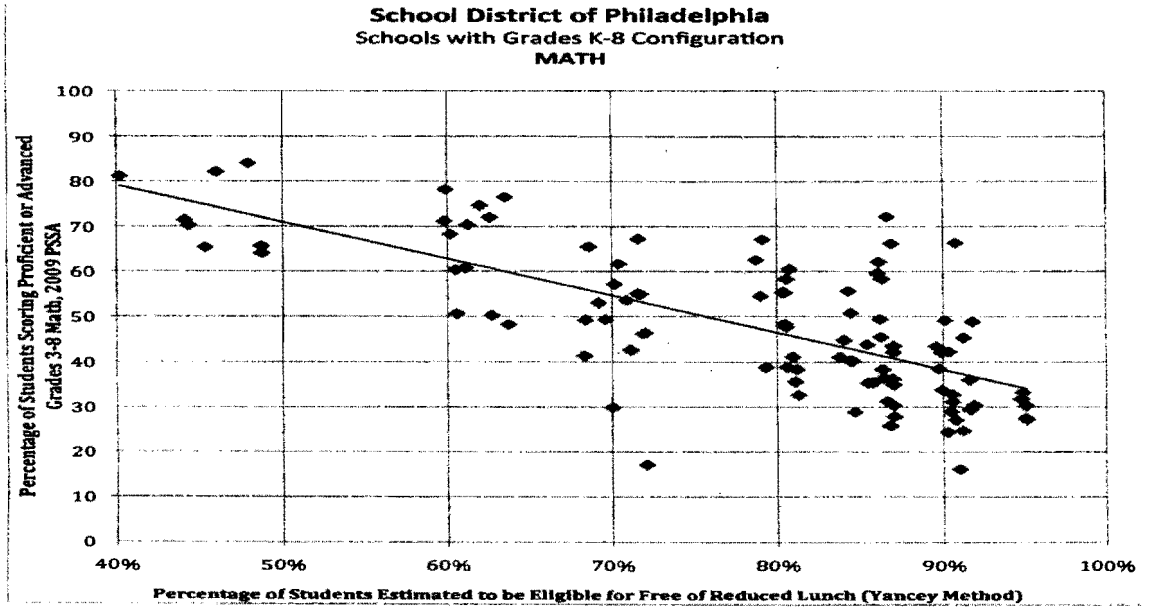

Figure 12. Percentage of Grade 3-8 Students in K-8 Schools Scoring Proficient or Advanced in Math on the PSSA Versus Yancey Poverty Rates

A more detailed description of the 92 schools in the sample is found in Table 4.

Table 6
Sample Descriptors and Comparisons

Classifications	Sample (N= 92)
Grade K – 8 Schools	92
Mean K-8 Sample School Enrollment	591
SDP Regions (2008-2009)	11
Average % FRL*	79.6%
Racial/Ethnic Background of Students	
% African American	61%
% American Indian/Alaskan Native	.2%
% Asian/Pacific Islander	6%
% Hispanic/Latino	18%
% White	13%
% Other	2%

*FRL = Percent of Students Receiving Free or Reduced Lunch (SDP, 2008-2009)

Instrumentation

The five main variables of this study are the collective academic emphasis of schools, aggregated teacher efficacy, parent support and community involvement, aggregated teacher perceptions of the leadership of colleagues and principals, and aggregated out of classroom citizenship behavior citizenship (OCCB) behaviors. Each has been assessed by valid and reliable measures tested in previous studies.

The 2008-2009 Teacher Survey was developed from a similar survey used by the Chicago School District. The survey was developed at the University of Chicago where the validity of its items was tested. The School District of Philadelphia's survey also included items developed specifically for Philadelphia. Analysis of the initial survey data included the creation of scales by averaging responses on individual items for each

survey. This step ensured that the survey items were measuring the intended constructs, or assessing the surveys' construct validity. Analysis of the scales, using a Cronbach's alpha of .75 or above as the criterion, confirmed that the items accurately assessed the intended dimensions of the original scales (Lapin, 2009b).

In this study specific survey items were selected that would provide the data to respond to the research questions about teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, parent support and community relations, trust in school leadership and colleagues, and out of classroom citizenship behavior. Tables 15 – 20, described below, are located in their entirety in Appendix I.

Teacher Efficacy

Collective teacher efficacy is a group-level characteristic representing the collective judgments of teachers regarding the extent to which the group as a whole believes it can be successful (Bandura, 1997). Although proven in studies by Goddard (Graham, 2009) to not be as effective as collective efficacy, aggregated teacher efficacy results can provide an estimate of collective efficacy within a school and was used in this study. The individual efficacy of teachers was measured using a 9-item instrument developed by the University of Chicago for the Chicago Public Schools and adapted to meet the needs of the School District of Philadelphia. Program offices in the School District of Philadelphia provided additional items to ensure the survey met the needs of the SDP (Lapin, 2009).

Statements teachers responded to on this survey were related to their feelings about being able to control disruptive behavior in the classroom, their ability to motivate their students, and the expectations they hold about their students. Participants rated each

of the survey items along a 4-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

The items measure both dimensions of collective teacher efficacy as described by Tschannen-Moran and her colleagues in 1998: the assessment of teaching competence and the analysis of the teaching task. The data collected have been aggregated to provide an estimate of the collective efficacy of the teaching staffs in the schools. See Table 15 in Appendix I for the individual teacher efficacy survey items.

Academic Emphasis

Academic emphasis, or academic press, characterizes a school's general and collective perspective on the importance of academics (Goddard, et. al., 2002; Hoy, Sweetland, et. al., 2002). Academic emphasis is measured in this study using eight survey items that originated from the instrument developed by the University of Chicago for the Chicago Public Schools and adapted to meet the needs of the School District of Philadelphia.

Participants responded to the survey items according to a four-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The academic emphasis questions, which were listed under "Student Learning Environment" on the SDP Teacher 2008-2009 Survey, were worded in a manner that allowed collective analysis for this variable for each school. It is the only variable in this study with questions that addressed the staff as a group, as opposed to the individual teacher's perceptions, thus it is the only collective variable in the study. The survey items for academic emphasis are located on Table 16 in Appendix I.

Parent Involvement and Community Relations

Both parent involvement and community relations were listed among Dr. Arlene Ackerman's five Core Beliefs. In addition to promoting parent involvement through active Home and School Associations, an Office of Parent, Family, Community Engagement and Faith-Based Partnerships was established during her tenure, as were parent links on the SDP web site, the development of Parent University of Philadelphia, and parent ombudsmen assigned in the low-achieving schools. Superintendent's Monthly Parent Roundtables were held throughout the city where parents brought their issues directly before the Superintendent and a Regional Education Summit. A main information call center was set up for parents to call with reports of bullying, harassment, truancy, burglary and other concerns for child safety. Policies and procedures are posted on the web site, as are forms, Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs), important parent information, calendars, and customer service.

The survey used by the SDP does not address the collective trust factor between parents, students, and teachers, however. Instead, the survey questions asked relate to teachers' perceptions of more superficial parent support and community relations, merely seeking their existence in the schools and some of the steps teachers take related to these areas. A deeper understanding of the relationships between teachers and parents and community could be achieved by surveying the teaching staff using the Hoy survey tools to ascertain the collective trust levels between them.

As noted earlier, the survey items used to measure Parent Involvement and Community Relations in Table 17 originated from the instrument developed by the

University of Chicago for the Chicago Public Schools and were adapted to meet the needs of the School District of Philadelphia.

This variable was measured by participants' responses to 4 items on a four-point Likert scale ranging from "never" to "nearly all the time"; 7 items on a four-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"; and 11 items on a four-point Likert scale ranging from "none" to "nearly all".

Faculty Perceptions of School Leadership

For this study, aggregated teacher perceptions of the School Leadership of their Colleagues and Principals were measured. Participants responded to each item according to a four-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The survey items originated from the instrument developed by the University of Chicago for the Chicago Public Schools and were adapted to meet the needs of the School District of Philadelphia.

Table 18 in Appendix I contains the survey items that provide the perceptions of teachers about their school principals. These data were aggregated to provide an estimate of the collective perceptions of the school leaders.

In addition to collecting data on the perceptions of teachers related to their principals, questions were also asked about their perceptions of their colleagues who have leadership roles in the building. These were measured by participants' responses to 9 items on a four-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". These survey items also originated from the instrument developed by the University of Chicago for the Chicago Public Schools and were adapted to meet the needs of the School District of Philadelphia.

Table 19 in Appendix I contains the individual teacher items that provide the perceptions of teachers about their colleagues in leadership roles. These data were aggregated to provide an estimate of the collective perceptions of the school leaders other than the school administrator.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)/ Out of Classroom Citizenship Behavior (OCCB)

First described by Bateman and Organ in 1983, organizational citizenship behaviors are voluntary, discretionary behaviors that help connect job satisfaction and organizational performance. More recent studies of citizenship behaviors in schools suggest these behaviors are individual and voluntary teacher behaviors that are discretionary (not required), assistive, and help both students and teachers succeed (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; DiPaola & Hoy, 2005b).

This study incorporates a 9-item survey in Table 20, which is taken from the 2008-2009 SDP Teacher Survey. Questions were developed and tested for construct validity and reliability by the University of Chicago for the Chicago Public Schools and were specifically modified to fit the SDP.

Participants responded to each of the first two items along a four-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"; and to the other seven items with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "none" to "all". The items measure the extent to which teachers engage in out of classroom citizenship behaviors. Table 16 contains the items on the OCCB Scale.

Socioeconomic Status and Student Achievement

Socioeconomic status has a definite impact on student achievement (Coleman, et. al., 1966; Hoy, et. al., 2006; Hoy & Hannum, 1997); and it will continue to influence student achievement significantly in some schools more than others. However, despite the traditional view of achievement which suggests talent and motivation also may be precursors for higher student achievement, academic optimism is emerging in a number of studies (Hoy, et. al., 2006) as a school variable that plays an important role in students' academic success. Although academic optimism cannot be fully measured in this study, due to the point of view of the survey used to collect the data, some of its individual components are approximated through aggregation of the data.

Analytic Strategies

A school-level unit of analysis was employed for all survey data in this study. Individual teacher survey responses from each school were input into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to produce several school-level descriptive statistics: mean measures for aggregated teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, faculty perceptions of parent involvement and community involvement, faculty perceptions of school leadership and out of classroom citizenship behaviors, and mean scores for each individual survey item.

Two analytic strategies were used in this study, relationships and differences. The relationship strategy was used to show relationships between aggregated teacher efficacy, collective academic press, collective parent involvement and community relations, and student achievement; and teacher trust in colleagues and principals, organizational citizenship behaviors, and student achievement. The difference strategy was used to

show evidence of the differences in the academic achievement and outside of classroom citizenship organizational behaviors of schools where the variables are evidenced and those schools where little or no evidence is evidenced.

This study used the percentage of students receiving scores of Advanced or Proficient on the 2009 Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA) in Reading and Mathematics as collective school-level student achievement measures. These annual performance results are available from the Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE) and are disaggregated by school, region and student demographics.

Methods Table

A school-level unit of analysis was employed for all survey data in this study. Individual teacher survey responses from each school were input into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to produce several school-level descriptive statistics: mean measures for each of the variables (teacher efficacy, academic press, teacher attitudes toward school leadership, parent involvement and community relations, outside classroom citizenship behavior) and mean scores for each individual survey item. Table 7 graphically displays the research questions and data analysis methods used to implement this study.

Table 7
Methods Table

Research Questions	Data Source	Instrumentation	Data Collection	Data Analysis Tool
1. What is the relationship in the study between aggregated teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, parent involvement and community relations, and student achievement on the PSSA, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES0 of students in the schools?	Questionnaire	Survey	Aggregated Efficacy Survey	SPSS
	Questionnaire	Survey	Academic Emphasis Survey	SPSS
	Questionnaire	Survey	Aggregated Teacher Perceptions of Parent Support and Community Relations	SPSS
	Questionnaire	Survey	Aggregated Teacher Trust of Colleagues and Principals	SPSS
	PSSA Test Data	Excel File	PDE	SPSS
	Free-Reduced Lunch (FRL) Data	Excel File	PDE	SPSS
	School Demographic Data	Excel File	SDP	SPSS
	Questionnaire	Survey	Yancey Index Report	SPSS
2. What is the relationship between positive relationships with colleagues and principals to student achievement and teachers' out of classroom citizenship behaviors, when controlling for SES of students in the school?	Questionnaire	Survey	Outside Classroom Citizenship Behavior (OCCB) Survey	SPSS
	Questionnaire	Survey	Yancey Index Report	SPSS

This study used the percentage of students receiving scores of Advanced or Proficient on the 2009 Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA) in Reading and Mathematics as the collective school-level student achievement measures. These annual performance results are available to the SDP from the Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE) and are disaggregated by school, school division, and student

demographic. This particular student performance measure was employed by this study for three reasons:

1. A specific percentage of 3rd – 8th grade students must achieve a Proficient or Advanced score on the test for the school to meet 2009 NCLB requirements (i.e., Reading - 63% and Mathematics - 56%);
2. All students in Philadelphia complete the Reading and Mathematics assessments during the same time period of the school year, thereby providing an equitable amount of instructional time per student; and
3. The test assesses cumulative content and skills at a single point-in-time.

This study controlled for student SES to help determine a more accurate effect of the variables (teacher efficacy, academic press, parent support and community relations, teacher attitudes toward school leadership, out of classroom citizenship behavior) on student achievement. Baseline data for socioeconomic status for this study was established through school-level student participation in the federal free and reduced lunch program (FRL), a statistic that typically characterizes family income level or poverty as represented by the percentage of students in a particular school receiving free and reduced-price lunch (FRL). In this study, data for FRL was obtained from the SDP using the Yancey Index Formula described earlier.

All data collected and used in this study were aggregated at the school level. First, survey items were scored to produce mean values for each item. Second, school-level means were calculated for each survey item. Third, items with each variable were aggregated to produce mean school values for each of the variables; and finally, mean school values were compared across 92 schools in the sample.

A partial correlation analysis provided the results used to answer the majority of research questions related to the relationship between teacher perception variables and academic achievement. This analysis controls for the effects of socio-economic status, which research indicates plays a role in student academic achievement (Coleman, et.al. 1966; Hallinger and Murphy, 1986).

Using mathematics and reading achievement as the dependent variables, a regression analysis was used to determine which survey factor best predicts academic achievement when controlling for socio-economic status.

CHAPTER 5

Analysis of the Data

This chapter sets forth the results of the data analysis. It presents the quantitative study exploring Reading and Mathematics academic achievement of 3rd to 8th grade students in K-8 schools on the PSSA as influenced by teacher perceptions of teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, school leadership, parent and community involvement, and outside classroom citizen behavior. As part of the April 22, 2009 professional development agenda, the School District of Philadelphia measured these perceptions using the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey.

First, an overview of the larger survey and its results will be described. Next, a detailed explanation of data collection procedures is presented, followed by descriptive statistics for the variables in this study, which include teacher efficacy, collective academic emphasis data, parent and community involvement, outside classroom citizen behavior data, and school leadership.

In total, 8,617 teachers from 260 SDP elementary, middle, and high schools completed the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey. The 92 K-8 schools included in this study constitute 35% of the total number of all SDP schools and the 2,457 participants included in this study are equal to 29% of the total number of those who completed the study (Lapin, 2009b).

Data Collection

All participants in this study were full-time teachers, guidance counselors, and other full-time professional instructional faculty from 91 of the 95 K-8 public elementary

schools and the one grade 1-8 elementary school in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. All voluntarily completed the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey in the spring of 2009.

In the spring of 2009, the School District of Philadelphia's Office of Assessment surveyed all of the District's teachers. These surveys were designed by the University of Chicago and modified by The School District of Philadelphia, using Likert scales, to measure individual teacher perceptions of teacher efficacy, school leadership, parent and community involvement, outside classroom citizen behavior, and collective academic emphasis.

Teachers' participation in completing the survey was strictly voluntary. Although participation in the survey was voluntary, the entire population of School District of Philadelphia teachers received the survey and the response rate of 80% indicates a representative sample of teachers. Although not random, the sample is comprised of a demographic and geographic range of Philadelphia's public non-charter elementary schools.

The Office of Assessment trained principals on how to administer the surveys at a regularly scheduled regional principals' meeting. Each principal received a large envelope containing the Teacher Surveys and the faculty members received the survey at regularly scheduled faculty and grade group meetings in May 2009.

Once completed, staff members returned their surveys to their principals who forwarded them to the Office of Assessment for scanning and analysis.

A sample of teachers in each school voluntarily responded to measures of academic emphasis, teacher efficacy, teacher perceptions of the leadership of colleagues and principals, parent support and community involvement, and out of classroom

citizenship behavior on the survey. Participants were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality, with the option to refuse to participate, skip any question, or discontinue participation at any time. No attempt was made to collect data from any teachers who missed the faculty meetings.

Aggregated results of teacher efficacy, academic press, teacher perceptions of the leadership of colleagues and principals, parent support and community involvement, and out of classroom citizenship behaviors are school-level characteristics, so school level survey data were used in this study to support the school as the unit of analysis.

School level socioeconomic status (SES) and student achievement were also collected for use in the analysis of the other variables in the study (i.e., Teacher Efficacy, Academic Press, Parent Support and Community Involvement, School Leadership, and Out of Classroom Citizenship Behaviors).

This study investigated the relationship between the specific variables (teacher efficacy, academic press, parent support and community involvement, and teacher perceptions of school leadership) and student achievement while controlling for SES. The study also examined the relationships between these variables and out of classroom citizenship behaviors of K-8 teachers.

In addition to the survey data collected in May 2009, student achievement data were taken from mean school scores on the 2009 Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA) in Reading and Mathematics.

The socioeconomic status of each participating school was determined by the percentage of students receiving free and reduced-priced lunches (FRL), a school level

statistic obtained for the 2008-2009 academic year from the School District of Philadelphia using the Yancey Index Formula.

As described earlier in the Review of the Literature, this formula was developed in 1994 by then Temple University professor, Dr. William L. Yancey, for use in his study, "A Socio-Economic Study of Students Attending Philadelphia Public Schools (1994)", which estimated the number of Philadelphia public school students who qualified for free or reduced price lunches.

Dr. Yancey did a stratified random sampling of the city of Philadelphia and determined the actual percentages of those eligible for the program. He discovered that 80% of the District's families were eligible for some assistance. Approximately half of those had automatically qualified (Categorical Eligibility) and the other half would qualify based on income *if they applied* (Income Eligibility). He then created a school by school index. The calculation takes the number of students who qualify under Categorical Eligibility to determine the number who likely would then qualify under Income Eligibility for each school. These two percentages combined determine the school's "Yancey Index."

The Research Null Hypotheses

As mentioned earlier, the following research null hypotheses were tested by this confirmatory study:

1. No relationship will be found in the study between aggregated teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, parent involvement and community relations, and student achievement on the PSSA in the schools, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the school

2. No relationship will be found between teachers' positive relationships with colleagues and principals and teachers' out of classroom citizenship behaviors and student achievement, when controlling for SES of students in the school.
3. No relationship will be found between the SES of students in the school to Reading and Math achievement, as measured on the 2009 PSSA.

Findings

The two research questions were answered using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics were computed for out of classroom citizenship behavior, student achievement in Reading and Mathematics, teacher efficacy, academic press, parent support and community involvement, and teacher perceptions of school leadership.

Table 8 displays the descriptive statistics of measurements of the means and standard deviations for each of the variables.

Table 8
Descriptive Statistics of Measurements

SURVEY VARIABLE	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION
Teacher Efficacy	3.02	0.14
Academic Emphasis	2.85	0.29
Teacher - Principal Trust	3.04	0.4
Leadership	3.16	0.37
Teacher - Teacher Trust	3.14	0.26
Parent Involvement	2.52	0.21
Out of Classroom Citizenship Behavior (OCCB)	2.73	0.36
PSSA Reading Advanced + Proficient	47.07	15.8
PSSA Math Advanced + Proficient	53.25	16.01

First Research Question

What is the relationship in the study between aggregated teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, parent involvement and community relations, and student achievement on the PSSA, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the schools?

Using a partial correlation, controlling for poverty, student achievement, as measured by PSSA math and reading proficiency, there was a positive correlation with teacher efficacy (math: $r = .301$, $p = .001$; and reading: $r = .330$, $p = .001$), academic emphasis (math: $r = .519$, $p = .001$; and reading: $r = .539$, $p = .001$), and parent support and community relations. The variable "Parent Support and Community Relations" explains about 20% of the variability in student achievement in math ($r = .445$, $p = .001$) and reading ($r = .476$, $p = .001$).

The original correlations without controlling for SES are presented in Table 9 while the partial correlations controlling for SES are presented in Table 10. The decline in correlation when controlling for SES indicates that SES plays a role in academic achievement.

Table 9
Effects of Teacher Efficacy, Academic Emphasis, and Parent Support & Community Relations on 2009 PSSA Math and Reading Achievement

	Math Achievement (n=92)		Reading Achievement (n=92)	
	r	p	r	p
Teacher Efficacy	.541	.001	.566	.001
Academic Emphasis	.678	.001	.685	.001
Parent Support & Community Relations	.559	.001	.569	.001

Table 10
Effects of Teacher Efficacy, Academic Emphasis, and Parent Support & Community Relations on 2009 PSSA Math and Reading Achievement Controlling for SES

	Math Achievement (n=92)		Reading Achievement (n=92)	
	r	p	r	p
Teacher Efficacy	.301	.001	.330	.001
Academic Emphasis	.519	.001	.539	.001
Parent Support & Community Relations	.445	.001	.476	.001

Second Research Question

What is the relationship between positive relationships with colleagues and principals and out of classroom citizenship behavior to student achievement, when controlling for SES of students in the school?

Using a partial correlation, while controlling for poverty, student achievement, as measured by PSSA Math and Reading Proficiency, there was a positive correlation with teacher out of classroom citizenship behaviors in the school (math: $r = .470$, $p = .001$; and reading: $r = .457$, $p = .001$) and positive collegial relationships with peer school leaders (math: $r = .298$, $p = .01$; and reading: $r = .267$, $p = .01$), and principals (math: $r = .364$, $p = .001$; and reading: $r = .356$, $p = .001$).

When comparing lower income schools that made AYP to lower income schools that did not make AYP, there is a statistically significant difference in the perceptions of leadership ($t=2.307$, $p=.024$). The lower income schools that made AYP had more positive views and attitudes toward their school leaders than those that did not make AYP.

The original correlations without controlling for SES are presented in Table 11 while the partial correlations controlling for SES are presented in Table 12. The decline in correlation when controlling for SES indicates that SES plays a role in academic achievement.

Table 11
Effects of OCCB, Teacher-Parent Trust, and Teacher-Teacher Leader Trust on 2009 PSSA Math and Reading Achievement

	Math Achievement (n=92)		**Reading Achievement (n=92)**	
	r	p	r	p
Out of Classroom Citizenship Behavior	.498	.001	.473	.001
Teacher-Principal Trust	.436	.001	.422	.001
Teacher-Teacher Leader Trust	.339	.01	.314	.01

Table 12
Effects of OCCB, Teacher-Parent Trust, and Teacher-Teacher Leader Trust on 2009 PSSA Math and Reading Achievement Controlling for SES

	Math Achievement (n=92)		**Reading Achievement (n=92)**	
	r	p	r	p
Out of Classroom Citizenship Behavior	.470	.001	.457	.001
Teacher-Principal Trust	.364	.001	.356	.001
Teacher-Teacher Leader Trust	.298	.01	.267	.01

Additional Results

The relationship between the Socioeconomic Status of students in the schools to their Reading and Math achievement as measured on the 2009 PSSA was also analyzed. Using a bi-variate correlation, the relationship between socioeconomic statuses of

students, as measured by the Yancey Index percent, is negatively correlated to both the Reading and Math measures of student achievement.

Table 13
Effects of Socioeconomic Status on 2009 PSSA Math and Reading Achievement

	Math Achievement		**Reading Achievement**	
	r	p	r	p
Socioeconomic Status	-.628	.001	-.725	.001

As mentioned earlier, low socioeconomic status (SES) is frequently cited as the reason students do not achieve well academically. Many African American and Latino students live in low SES areas and it is often assumed that their lack of success in school is primarily due to their home and neighborhood environments.

It is clear from the results that socioeconomic status and student achievement are related. As the percent of students in poverty increases, student achievement declines. Socioeconomic factors explain up to 53% of the variability in reading achievement (Coleman, et. al., 1966; Hallinger and Murphy, 1986).

Table 14 is a cross tab of the number of High and Low SES schools making Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) in 2009 on the Pennsylvania System of School Assessment (PSSA), the standards-based criterion-referenced assessment used to measure students' attainment of the academic standards while also determining the degree to which school programs enable students to attain proficiency of the standards. Every Pennsylvania student in grades 3 through 8 and grade 11 is assessed in Reading and Math on the 2009 PSSA. In addition, students in grades 4 and 8 are assessed in science and students in grades 5, 8, and 11 are assessed in writing on the 2009 PSSA.

Hallinger and Murphy's findings (1986) "tentatively confirmed the earlier cautions against premature application of the effective schools that differ from the population studied" and suggest that "school social context does influence the operation of effectiveness factors in elementary schools." They were specifically interested in analyzing differences between high- and low-SES effective schools in the operation of the seven school effectiveness variables identified on their "School Effectiveness Framework" (clear school mission, tightly coupled curriculum, opportunity to learn, instructional leadership, home-school cooperation and support, widespread student recognition and rewards, and high expectations for achievement).

The results of Hallinger and Murphy's study suggested that school context does influence the operation of instructionally effective elementary schools. High- and low-SES effective schools were characterized by different patterns of curricular breadth, time allocation, goal emphasis, instructional leadership, opportunities for student reward, expectations for student achievement, and home-school relations. Their results also revealed a larger pattern of SES-related differences involving the manner in which these schools incorporated value preferences and expectations from their social environment into the school organization.

The results of these studies appear to be reflected in the results of this study. Philadelphia public schools with high-SES, as well as schools with low-SES, were academically successful, as shown by the PSSA Reading and Math scores. Likewise, both high- and low-SES schools were found among those schools that were not successful on the PSSA.

The number of schools in the study sample that are considered High SES was 16. The minimum Yancey Index is .47, which means 47% poverty. To determine which schools were low and which were high, the average Yancey Index, (mean =.8124, sd =.1458) and one standard deviation below were taken. Any school with a Yancey Index less than .67 was considered High SES, although the school really was just lower in their level of poverty.

Table 14 shows that about two-thirds (52) of the High poverty/Low SES schools in the District did not make AYP, while two-thirds (11) of the Low poverty/High SES schools made AYP. It also shows that a third of the High Poverty/Low SES schools (24) did, in fact make AYP, while a third of the Low Poverty/High SES schools (5) did not.

Table 14
SES High-Low AYP Cross-Tabulation

SES High-Low		AYP		
		N	Y	Total
High Poverty	**Count**	52	24	76
	% Within Low SES	68.4%	31.6%	100.0%
Lower Poverty	**Count**	5	11	16
	% Within High SES	31.3%	68.8%	100.0%
Total	**Count**	57	35	92
	% Within SES High and Low	62.0%	38.0%	100.0%

CHAPTER SIX
SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

Very few characteristics of schools have been shown to be as important as socio-economic status in accounting for academic achievement. Those characteristics include the faculty's collective efficacy (Goddard, 2002; Goddard et al., 2000; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001), faculty trust in students and parents (Goddard et al., 2001; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Hoy, 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003), and the school's academic emphasis (Bryk et al., 1993; Goddard et al., 2000). Within the past decade, however, Wayne Hoy and colleagues (2006) have suggested that these three characteristics may in fact represent three dimensions of a single construct, called Academic Optimism. Academic Optimism is a measure of a general, school wide confidence that students will succeed academically.

Problem Statement

To what extent do the major indicators of teacher efficacy, academic press, parent support and community relations, positive relationships between teachers and school leaders, and out of classroom citizenship behaviors of teachers affect the academic achievement of non-charter public K-8 school students in the School District of Philadelphia, as measured by the 2009 Pennsylvania System of School Assessments in Reading, Grades 3 through 8, and Mathematics, Grades 3 through 8, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the school?

Research Questions of the Study

1. What is the relationship in the study between aggregated teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, parent involvement and community relations, and student

achievement on the PSSA, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the schools?

2. What is the relationship between positive relationships with colleagues and principals to student achievement and teachers' out of classroom citizenship behaviors, when controlling for SES of students in the school?

The Research Null Hypotheses

The following research null hypotheses were tested by this confirmatory study:

1. No relationship will be found in the study between aggregated teacher efficacy, academic emphasis, parent involvement and community relations, and student achievement on the PSSA in the schools, when controlling for socioeconomic status (SES) of students in the school
2. No relationship will be found between teachers' positive relationships with colleagues and principals and student achievement, when controlling for SES of students in the school.
3. No relationship will be found between teachers' out of classroom citizenship behaviors and student achievement, when controlling for SES of students in the school.

This study has investigated the results of that survey as it relates to the relationship between:

a) the perceptions and attitudes of 2,457 teachers in the 92 SDP K-8 public schools toward school leadership, parent support and community relations, the academic performance of their schools; and

b) how these perceptions dovetail with Dr. Ackerman's five philosophical core beliefs of how to improve schools.

It is the belief of this researcher that teacher efficacy, previously referred to as teacher expectations, is necessary for student achievement success. Academic emphasis, or press, trust between teachers and parents and students, and the willingness of staff to go beyond their expected call of duty are also necessary. Additionally, the research also points to the leadership of the school principal as a major factor to school success. None of these variables can be taught in teacher and principal training classes, but must be developed over time.

As mentioned earlier in Chapter 1, there were three purposes of this study.

- The first was to investigate the relationship between the perceptions collected from a volunteer group of 2,457 SDP K-8 teachers from 96 schools on their self-efficacy, their perceptions of parent support and community relations, their perceptions about the academic emphasis in their schools, their perceptions of school leadership, and their out of classroom citizenship behavior; and how these perceptions relate to the academic achievement of their schools while controlling for socioeconomic factors.

  Although the original intention was to investigate, through the Academic Optimism construct lens, the collective perceptions of these teachers, this study is limited from examining that construct because the 2008-2009 Teacher Survey questions used were written from an individual perspective, with the exception of those related to academic press. As a result, data that query individual perceptions were aggregated to provide estimates of collective results. The

academic press survey data, however, were analyzed as collective data, not as aggregated data.

- The second purpose of the study was to build upon the research base for the School District of Philadelphia (SDP) by testing the aggregated teacher efficacy and teacher perceptions of parents and community data, collective academic press data, and aggregated perceptions about school leadership, as they relate to student achievement and Out of Classroom Citizenship Behavior (OCCB) among a sample of its non-charter K-8 schools.
- Finally, the third purpose was to provide evidence to the School District of Philadelphia that the Academic Optimism construct is a low-cost, available vehicle for improving education in its schools that is available and that should be investigated through future teacher surveys. Understanding Academic Optimism and how it manifests itself in schools is important because it not only "emphasizes the potential of schools to overcome the power of socioeconomic factors that impair student achievement" (Hoy, et. al., 2006, p. 443), but it also helps explain how a school's organizational orientation and teacher beliefs may be influencing student engagement and performance. (See Figure 2 on page 19.)

Academic Optimism

Socioeconomic status has a definite impact on student achievement (Coleman, et. al., 1966; Hoy, et. al., 2006; Hoy & Hannum, 1997); and it will continue to influence student achievement significantly in some schools more than others. Despite the traditional view of achievement which suggests talent and motivation also may be precursors for higher student achievement, Academic Optimism is emerging in a number

of studies (Hoy, et. al., 2006) as a school variable that plays an important role in students' academic success.

Academic Optimism consists of three separate, previously identified school attributes, all of which are established links to academic achievement. Specifically, Academic Optimism as a construct has emerged from several important quantitative studies identifying relationships between student achievement and three school characteristics: (1) collective teacher efficacy, (2) academic emphasis (or academic press), and (3) faculty trust in students and parents. Each has been shown to correlate strongly with student achievement despite the effect of student socioeconomic status (Hoy, et. al., 2006; McGuigan, 2005). Hoy and his colleagues (2006) suggested that these three characteristics are so interdependent that they encompass a single latent trait of schools characterizing collective attitudes and perceptions among teachers about their school's potential to impact on student performance.

Hoy and his colleagues (Hoy, et. al., 2006, p. 427) view collective teacher efficacy, faculty trust in students and parents, and academic emphasis as three distinct dimensions of a single latent construct of schools called Academic Optimism. These three attributes represent collective attitudes and beliefs of an instructional faculty that suggest an overall optimism among teachers that students can, should, and will achieve academically.

These same authors believe that Academic Optimism may help contradict more traditional views of performance that suggest student achievement is a primary function of student talent and motivation (Hoy, et. al. 2006). In schools, Academic Optimism and its component characteristics of collective efficacy, academic emphasis, and faculty trust,

have been shown to overcome effects of socioeconomic status and to positively impact student academic performance. Understanding the elements of Academic Optimism, their interrelationships, and their potential achievement effects have important implications for school leaders and teachers. When understood and cultivated, Academic Optimism can improve teachers' academic expectations, trust and confidence of local communities, and the academic performance of students.

The results of this study appear to confirm that the components of Academic Optimism, when implemented simultaneously, can make a positive impact on student achievement, regardless of SES.

Teacher Efficacy and Academic Emphasis as Related to Academic Achievement

The results of this study show that teacher efficacy is a good predictor of academic achievement on the PSSA in Math ($r = .301$, $p = .001$) and in Reading ($r = .330$, $p = .001$). This would indicate that where teachers believe they can positively affect their students' learning, academic achievement is positively affected.

The study results further indicate that academic emphasis is also a good predictor of academic achievement on the PSSA both in Math ($r = .519$, $p = .001$) and in Reading ($r = .539$, $p = .001$). This means that in schools where academics are stressed, academic achievement is positively affected.

Faculty Trust in Students and Parents as Related to Academic Achievement

Faculty trust in students and parents is the third attribute of Academic Optimism. This attribute, like the other two, is a collective property of schools that functions from an open and healthy school climate and has a positive influence on school effectiveness and student achievement (Goddard, et. al., 2001; Hoy, et., al., 1990; Tarter, et. al., 1989;

Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 1998). Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2000) concluded in a comprehensive study of trust in schools that faculty trust in students and parents was linked significantly to school effectiveness and student achievement in reading and math. Goddard, Hoy, and their colleagues (2000) also found that trusting relationships between teachers, students, and parents contributed to student achievement even after controlling for student characteristics such as race, prior achievement, and SES. They concluded that trust fosters an atmosphere in schools that supports student achievement and higher learning goals for all students, regardless of their economic status.

It was not possible to measure the "trust" variable in the study in the manner used in the Academic Optimism construct. As mentioned earlier, this was because the SDP's teacher survey looks at parent support and community relations, rather than that of teacher trust in students and parents. Additionally, the data are collected for individuals, not for the collective group. The results of this study, however, indicate that the variable, parent support and community relations, is a good predictor of academic achievement on the PSSA in math ($r = .445$, $p = .001$) and in reading ($r = .476$, $p = .001$). This means that in schools where parents and community relations are supportive of the school, academic achievement is positively affected.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

A related variable to Academic Optimism is organizational citizenship behavior, which is called "out of classroom citizenship behavior" for purposes of this study.

Although not part of the Academic Optimism construct, this variable was measured, along with the others, by using survey items on a single instrument given to teachers during regularly scheduled faculty/grade group meetings. Each of the items on

that survey are part of an existing instrument previously tested for reliability and validity in prior studies (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; DiPaola & Hoy, 2001; Goddard, Hoy, et. al, 2000; Goddard, 2002; Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 2003).

In this study, however, out of classroom citizenship behavior (OCCB) was collected for individual teachers, not the overall group, and only two items on the SDP teacher survey addressed this variable. Those two items are listed on Table 15 in Appendix I. The results of an examination of this variable, however, show that out of classroom citizenship is a good predictor of academic achievement on the PSSA in math (beta = .323, t = 2.208, and p = .402) and in reading (beta = .402, t = 2.399, and p = .019). This means that in schools where teachers are willing to go beyond the call of duty, academic achievement is positively affected.

Discussion of the Results

Many believe that poverty is the primary indictor as to whether or not a child will be successful in school. Yet most of them, including Dantley (1990) and Gardner (2010), do not seem to take into account that there are achievement gaps in some affluent areas where minorities have lived their entire lives. If the supposition that poverty automatically equals poor academic success were actually true, and vice versa, it would stand to reason, that there would not be any achievement gaps in high SES areas of cities or in affluent suburban school districts. Likewise, it would also imply that there would be no schools in low SES/high poverty areas that would be successful academically.

Table 8 on page 144 shows that about two-thirds (52) of the high poverty schools in the District did not make AYP, while two-thirds (11) of the lower poverty K-8 schools in the SDP did make AYP. This would seem to substantiate the findings of Coleman,

et.al. (1966), whose research found poverty to be the single most important factor in students' academic achievement.

Contrary to the research of Coleman, et.al, however, the data on Table 10 show that a third of the high poverty schools (24) did, in fact make AYP, while a third of the low poverty schools (5) did not.

As mentioned earlier, socioeconomic status does have a definite impact on student achievement (Coleman, et. al., 1966; Hoy, et. al., 2006; Hoy & Hannum, 1997) and it influences student achievement more significantly in some schools than in others. Despite traditional views of achievement, which suggest talent and motivation also may be precursors for higher student achievement, Academic Optimism has emerged in a number of studies (Hoy, et. al., 2006) as a school variable that plays a significant role in students' academic success.

Implications for Practice and Recommendations for Future Research

So, what are the causes and potential solutions to the problem of poor academic achievement in schools?

To quote Charles M. Achilles, John S. Reynolds, and Susan H. Achilles from their book, Problem Analysis: Responding to School Complexity (1997), "Schools are remarkably common in most aspects: students, teachers, schedules, administration, all other personnel, curricula, support activities, and so on. What makes one school exciting and different from others? Might it be how problems are defined and solved? Might it be the uncommon arrangement and deployment of the common aspects? For one principal the problem is drudge and a hassle; for another principal, the problem is an adventure and an opportunity (page 26)."

Since some schools in both high- and low-socioeconomic areas are both successful and unsuccessful in achieving academically, based on the Pennsylvania PSSA Reading and Math tests, something must be happening in the successful schools that is not happening in the unsuccessful ones. The results of this study point to the possibility that there are specific variables that positively affect student achievement, when in place, and negatively affect it, when not in place. Those variables are teacher efficacy, academic press, teacher-parent trust, teachers' outside of the classroom citizenship behavior, and teachers' trust in their administrative and peer leaders.

In part, this study confirmed past research, which examined the same relationships and found, more specifically, that the collective efficacy of teachers within 146 elementary schools in Ohio (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, et. al., 1998) has a positive direct effect on student reading and mathematics achievement. However, because this study did not strictly follow the Academic Optimism study parameters it was unable to provide outcome results that mirror previous studies.

Based on these findings, this investigation points to the need for further study of what effects Academic Optimism can have on the success of schools in high poverty/low SES schools and school districts. Applying this construct to the schools will provide teachers and administrators with a clearer understanding of how the combinations of their positive perceptions of students' abilities, combined with an emphasis on academics and a strong relationship of trust with parents, can positively influence student performance.

The overall data suggest that academic success of students in schools occurs when the components of Academic Optimism and organizational citizenship behavior are in place, regardless of student socioeconomic status. Conversely, it also seems to suggest

that when these variables are not in place, students do not succeed academically, regardless of the socioeconomic status of their families.

It is recommended, therefore, that more research be conducted in the School District of Philadelphia and in other large urban school districts to determine if the Academic Optimism construct is a viable, cost-effective way to improve the academic success of all students, regardless of socioeconomic background.

However, the recommended research should be conducted using the survey instruments developed by Dr. Hoy and his colleagues. That is the only way to know for sure if the Academic Optimism construct's variables (collective teacher efficacy, faculty trust of parents and students, and academic press) are present. Additionally, surveys should be given to teachers to assess their organizational citizenship behaviors.

Conclusion

The original intention of this investigation was to offer new knowledge through a set of variables, on the effects of a construct, labeled "Academic Optimism" by its creators. The variables that constitute Academic Optimism (Teacher Efficacy, Academic Press, and Parent Trust) are theorized to be related to a successful model of the educational system, regardless of SES, when all are in place.

Although it was not possible to examine a "pure" model of the construct in that the variables were not collected in the manner prescribed by the model (i.e., individual teacher perspectives versus the collective perspectives of Academic Optimism), it was possible to get a picture of the effects of these variables on the K-8 schools in the School District of Philadelphia. Along with the main three variables of Academic Optimism, three other variables were examined – Outside Classroom Citizenship Behaviors, Teacher

Trust of Principals, and Teacher Trust of Teacher Leaders. The study also controlled for SES as it looked at the standardized test achievement of the schools in the study.

The outcomes of the various models led to mixed results. Of most promise were those results associated with the relationship of teacher efficacy and student achievement and parent involvement and student achievement. These are both variables that can be put in place with little or no funding in a time when school districts are struggling financially.

This study further confirmed that poverty does not necessarily predict poor academic performance. Based on the data results of this study, those of Wayne Hoy and his colleagues (2006), and other confirmatory studies, and contrary to the literature that says it does, other variables can have a significant impact on achievement. All point to the conclusion that the effects of poverty on academic success can be overcome. In other words, high poverty schools can be high achieving if certain variables are in place.

So where do we go from here?

Figure 9. Calvin and Hobbs: Ignorance is Bliss (Watterson, 2012)

We know what the problem is. In staggering numbers, our children are not achieving academically, particularly in the large urban areas. Are we willing to systematically solve this problem using successful, cost-effective, research-based solutions? Are we willing to do the hard work required to change existing staff attitudes about students' academic achievement? Or will we, like Calvin, cover our eyes and hope for the best, throwing untested ideas and money at the problem, while hoping that one of them will eventually stick and solve the problem?

Academic Optimism is a research-based construct that may hold the key to improving the academic success of students, regardless of race, gender, or economic status. It is recommended that future studies be conducted on the presence of and the effectiveness of the Academic Optimism construct on school success and how teacher perceptions differ in schools with high- and low-SES.

Given the changing student demographics in most urban school districts, can any of the examined variables within he construct impact achievement more than socioeconomic status? Additionally, prior achievement was not controlled for in this study nor were trusting relationships between teachers, parents and students investigated. Would an examination of prior achievement of students serve as a predictor for future achievement and suggest a need for consistent student data and demographic knowledge in instructional planning? Would the presence or absence of trusting relationships between parents, students, and teachers have a correlation to student achievement?

These types of continuing research studies are especially appropriate and timely in view of the current financial woes of most urban school districts – including that of the School District of Philadelphia. The variables of Academic Optimism are relatively

inexpensive to identify and implement because they primarily rely on changes of mindset among adults.

For this to occur in the School District of Philadelphia, the questions on its teacher survey will have to either be redone and/or rephrased so they are asked in a manner that will result in collective responses. The existing Hoy surveys, that have already been tested and proven to be reliable for these variables, could also be used to determine the collective response. The School District of Philadelphia will need to provide professional development to train its teachers, administrators, and parents about the powerful impact teacher efficacy, academic press, parent trust, and organizational classroom citizenship behavior of teachers can have on students' academic achievement. The efforts will be beneficial because they could bring forth data and positive results that will benefit all students in all classrooms, regardless of socio-economic status, in the city, the state, and our nation.

The effort to save the children, who are currently being inadequately and unevenly served by their school districts, is well worth the cost of the time and effort it will take to identify if Academic Optimism is a viable solution. It appears to be one worthy of implementation, providing professional development is provided to teachers and administrators with fidelity.

Surely, our children are worth it.

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APPENDIX I

STUDY SURVEY TABLES

Table 15: Individual Efficacy Survey Items

Your Feelings & Beliefs				
35. Please mark the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of the following:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel able to control disruptive behavior in the classroom.	O	O	O	O
I feel able to motivate students who show low interest in schoolwork.	O	O	O	O
I feel able to get students to believe they can do well in schoolwork.	O	O	O	O
I feel able to help my students to value learning.	O	O	O	O
I feel able to get children to follow classroom rules.	O	O	O	O
I feel able to assist families in helping their children do well in school.	O	O	O	O
I believe that all of our students will be able to succeed academically if they are willing to put in the effort.	O	O	O	O
I feel that there will always be limits on what some of our students will be able to learn.	O	O	O	O
I feel that for some of our students, no amount of effort (i.e., studying) will significantly improve their academic performance.	O	O	O	O

Table 16: Academic Emphasis Survey Items

Student Learning Environment				
33. To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statements about your school?	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
All students have access to appropriate instructional supports.	O	O	O	O
Students respect others who earn good grades.	O	O	O	O
Students try hard to improve upon previous work.	O	O	O	O
The learning environment is orderly and serious.	O	O	O	O
Teachers in this school believe that their students have the ability to achieve academically.	O	O	O	O
When necessary, students will seek extra help from teachers.	O	O	O	O
Students seek extra work so they can get good grades.	O	O	O	O
Academically-oriented students are NOT ridiculed by their peers.	O	O	O	O

Table 17: Parent Involvement and Community Relations

Parent Involvement & Community Relations

24. How often have you done the following this year?	Never	Occasionally	Often	Nearly all the time
When a student skipped class/school, you informed their parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O
When a student performed poorly, you informed their parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O
When a student performed poorly, you talked with their parents/guardians about ways they could help their child do better.	O	O	O	O
When a student performed better than usual, you informed their parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O

25. To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following?	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Parents/guardians are invited to visit classrooms to observe the instructional program.	O	O	O	O
The principal urges teachers to communicate regularly with parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O
Teachers encourage feedback from parents/guardians and the community.	O	O	O	O
Parents/guardians are greeted warmly when they call or visit the school.	O	O	O	O
At this school, it is difficult to overcome the cultural barriers (e.g., translation and interpretation) between teachers and parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O
Teachers and parents/guardians think of each other as partners in educating children.	O	O	O	O
Central administrative offices help schools communicate issues to parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O

26. How many of your students' parents/guardians	None	Some	About half	Most	Nearly All
Attended parent-teacher conferences when you requested them?	O	O	O	O	O
Volunteered to help in the classroom?	O	O	O	O	O
Picked up their child's last report card?	O	O	O	O	O
Support your teaching efforts?	O	O	O	O	O
Do their best to help their children learn? (i.e., help with homework)	O	O	O	O	O
Do not speak English?	O	O	O	O	O

Table 17: Parent Involvement and Community Relations - continued

27. How many teachers at this school...	None	Some	About Half	Most	Nearly All
Are knowledgeable of issues and concerns in the school's community?	O	O	O	O	O
Talk with students about their lives at home?	O	O	O	O	O
Talk with students about their cultures?	O	O	O	O	O
Read books or journals, watch documentaries, or attend workshops that provide information about the cultural backgrounds of their students?	O	O	O	O	O
Feel good about parents' support for their work?	O	O	O	O	O

Table 18: Teacher Trust in Principal Survey Items

Leadership and Professional Environment				
The principal has confidence in the expertise of the teachers.	O	O	O	O
It's OK in this school to discuss feelings, worries, & frustrations about the school with the principal.	O	O	O	O
The principal takes a personal interest in the professional development of teachers.	O	O	O	O
The principal places the needs of children first.	O	O	O	O

The leadership at this school...				
Makes clear to the staff the expectations for meeting instructional goals.	O	O	O	O
Communicates a clear vision for our school.	O	O	O	O
Sets high standards for student learning.	O	O	O	O
Encourages teachers to implement what they have learned in professional development.	O	O	O	O
Carefully tracks student academic progress.	O	O	O	O
Knows what's going on in my classroom.	O	O	O	O
Actively monitors the quality of teaching in this school.	O	O	O	O
Understands how children learn.	O	O	O	O

Table 19: Teacher Trust in Colleagues

Leadership and Professional Environment				
1. Please mark the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of the following:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Teachers respect other teachers who take the lead in school improvement efforts.	O	O	O	O
Teachers in this school trust each other.	O	O	O	O

Table 20: Out of Classroom Citizenship Behavior Survey Items (OCCB)

1. Please mark the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of the following.	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
A conscious effort is made by faculty to make new teachers feel welcome here.	O	O	O	O
The principal, teachers, and staff collaborate to make this school run effectively.	O	O	O	O

2. How many teachers in this school:	**None**	**Some**	**About Half**	**Most**	**All**
Help maintain discipline in the entire school, not just their classroom?	O	O	O	O	O
Take responsibility for improving the school?	O	O	O	O	O
Set high standards for themselves?	O	O	O	O	O
Are willing to try new ideas?	O	O	O	O	O
Feel responsible for helping each other do their best?	O	O	O	O	O
Feel responsible when students in this school fail?	O	O	O	O	O
Are really trying to improve their teaching?	O	O	O	O	O

APPENDIX II

2008 – 2009 TEACHER SURVEY
THE SCHOOL DISTRICT OF PHILADELPHIA

2008-2009 District-Wide Survey

Your answers will be kept anonymous and confidential, and all your answers will be combined with those of other teachers. Also, this survey is voluntary, **so please leave blank any question you do not wish to answer. The survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete.**

Thank you for your valuable feedback!

Please enter
your 4-digit school code.

⇨ School Code

0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5
6	6	6	6
7	7	7	7
8	8	8	8
9	9	9	9

School District of Philadelphia
Teacher Survey

Leadership and Professional Environment

2. Please mark the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of the following.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Teachers talk about instruction in the teachers' lounge, faculty meetings, etc.	O	O	O	O
A conscious effort is made by faculty to make new teachers feel welcome here.	O	O	O	O
The principal has confidence in the expertise of the teachers.	O	O	O	O
It's OK in this school to discuss feelings, worries, & frustrations about the school with the principal.	O	O	O	O
The principal takes a personal interest in the professional development of teachers.	O	O	O	O
Teachers respect other teachers who take the lead in school improvement efforts.	O	O	O	O
Teachers in this school trust each other.	O	O	O	O
The principal, teachers, and staff collaborate to make this school run effectively.	O	O	O	O
Teachers at this school respect those colleagues who are experts at their craft.	O	O	O	O
The principal takes appropriate action when teachers are not performing.	O	O	O	O
I usually look forward to each working day at this school.	O	O	O	O
I wouldn't want to work in any other school.	O	O	O	O
I would recommend this school to parents seeking a place for their child.	O	O	O	O
The principal places the needs of children first.	O	O	O	O

2. How many teachers in this school:	None	Some	About Half	Most	All
Help maintain discipline in the entire school, not just their classroom?	O	O	O	O	O
Take responsibility for improving the school?	O	O	O	O	O
Set high standards for themselves?	O	O	O	O	O
Are willing to try new ideas?	O	O	O	O	O
Feel responsible for helping each other do their best?	O	O	O	O	O
Feel responsible when students in this school fail?	O	O	O	O	O

Are really trying to improve their teaching?	O	O	O	O	O

3. To what extent do you feel respected by:	Not at All	A Little	Some	To a Great Extent
Your students?	O	O	O	O
Your principal?	O	O	O	O
Other teachers?	O	O	O	O
The parents of your students?	O	O	O	O

4. Please mark the extent to which you disagree or agree with the following:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The leadership at this school:				
Makes clear to the staff the expectations for meeting instructional goals.	O	O	O	O
Communicates a clear vision for our school.	O	O	O	O
Sets high standards for student learning.	O	O	O	O
Encourages teachers to implement what they have learned in professional development.	O	O	O	O
Carefully tracks student academic progress.	O	O	O	O
Knows what's going on in my classroom.	O	O	O	O
Actively monitors the quality of teaching in this school.	O	O	O	O
Understands how children learn.				

Professional Development

5. Are you comfortable registering online for professional development opportunities?	O Yes	O No

6. To what extent have the following been helpful to your teaching practice?	Not at all helpful	A Little helpful	Somewhat helpful	Very helpful	Not applicable
Professional Development provided by the District?	O	O	O	O	O

7. In the past 12 months, how many times (if any) did you participate in any of these professional development activities?	Never	1 to 2 times	3 to 4 times	More than 5 times
District-wide summer professional development	O	O	O	O
University course(s) related to teaching	O	O	O	O
Observational visits to other schools	O	O	O	O
Workshops, conferences or training sessions in which you were a presenter	O	O	O	O

Other workshops, conferences or training sessions in which you were NOT a presenter	O	O	O	O
Engage in individual or collaborative research on a topic of interest to you professionally	O	O	O	O
Participate in regularly scheduled collaboration with other teachers on issues of instruction	O	O	O	O
Observe, or be observed by, other teachers in your classroom (for at least 10 minutes)	O	O	O	O
Act as a coach or mentor to other teachers or staff in your school	O	O	O	O

8. In the past 12 months, for how many hours (if any) have you participated in professional development on the following topics?	No hours spent	1 to 8 hours	9 to 16 hours	17 to 32 hours	33 hours or more
The content of the subject(s) you teach	O	O	O	O	O
The use of computers for instruction	O	O	O	O	O
Reading instruction	O	O	O	O	O
Mathematics instruction	O	O	O	O	O
Student discipline and management in the classroom	O	O	O	O	O

9. Overall, how <u>useful</u> were each of these activities to you?	No hours spent	Not useful	Slightly useful	Somewhat useful	Very useful
The content of the subject(s) you teach	O	O	O	O	O
The use of computers for instruction	O	O	O	O	O
Reading instruction	O	O	O	O	O
Mathematics instruction	O	O	O	O	O
Student discipline and management in the classroom	O	O	O	O	O

Data Driven Decision Making

10. To what extent does each of the following influence you in determining the priorities in your classroom?	Not at All	A Little	Some	To a Great Extent
Standardized test scores (i.e., PSSA, TerraNova)	O	O	O	O
Other assessments (i.e., Portfolios, DIBELS, DRA, ACCESS, COR, ASPI, Gates-MacGintie, Teacher-made assessments)	O	O	O	O
Benchmark Tests	O	O	O	O
Letter grades or GPAs	O	O	O	O
Rubric-based scoring of student work	O	O	O	O
Student attendance	O	O	O	O
Disciplinary records	O	O	O	O
Survey data from students, teachers, or parents	O	O	O	O

11. In general, to what extent do you use assessments such as DIBELS, DRA, ACCESS, COR, ASPI, or Gates-MacGintie to do the following?	Not at all	A Little	Some	To a Great Extent	Not applicable to the grade I teach
To identify the skills individual students already have and the skills they need to learn	O	O	O	O	O
To assess the effectiveness of particular instructional programs or initiatives (e.g., tutoring programs, after-school programs, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
To assess the effectiveness of particular teaching practices (e.g., differentiated instruction, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
To compare subgroups of students (i.e., ethnicity, age, sex, ELL status, instructional categories, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
To examine performance trends in my classrooms over time	O	O	O	O	O

12. Do you use the Benchmark tests? (If no, SKIP to Item 16.)	O Yes	O No

13. To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statements?	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Benchmark test scores give me information about my students that I didn't already know.	O	O	O	O
The benchmarks set an appropriate pace for teaching the curriculum to my students.	O	O	O	O
Results on the Benchmark tests give me a good indication of what students are learning in my classroom.	O	O	O	O
At my school, the use of Benchmark tests has improved instruction for students with skill gaps.	O	O	O	O
Benchmark tests encourage conversations among teachers in my grade, SLC, or subject about effective teaching.	O	O	O	O
At my school, someone else reviews my students' Benchmark tests and alerts me to the skills I should be teaching.	O	O	O	O

14. In general, to what extent do you use the Benchmark tests to do the following?	Not at all	A Little	Some	To a Great Extent	I do not use the Benchmark tests
To identify the skills individual students already have and the skills they need to learn	O	O	O	O	O
To assess the effectiveness of particular instructional programs or initiatives (e.g., tutoring programs, after school programs, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
To assess the effectiveness of particular teaching practices (e.g., differentiated instruction, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
To compare subgroups of students (i.e., ethnicity, age, sex, ELL status, instructional categories, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
To examine performance trends in my classrooms over time	O	O	O	O	O

15. During the past 12 months, how often did the following occur in your school?	Never	1-2 times	3-5 times	More than 5 times
You examined your students' Benchmarks item analysis.	O	O	O	O

Your grade group, field coordinators, or coaches met to discuss ideas for re-teaching a skill that students were lacking, according to the Benchmark test.	O	O	O	O
You used the computer to access data abut your students' achievement (for example, from SchoolNet).	O	O	O	O
You met with your principal to talk about your students' Benchmarks.	O	O	O	O
You spent additional time on a particular skill of subject because the Benchmarks showed that your students needed practice.	O	O	O	O
You had professional development on a skill where students seemed weak on the Benchmarks.	O	O	O	O

16. How much help have you received in interpreting Benchmark data and/or using data to make instructional decisions from the following?	Not much help	Some help	A great deal of help
Someone from the regional office or central office	O	O	O
A reading or math teacher leader at your school	O	O	O
Your principal	O	O	O
Instructional systems such as SchoolNet	O	O	O

17. To what extent do you feel able to accurately assign students to:	Not at all able	Slightly able	Somewhat able	Very able	Not applicable to me
Literacy interventions?	O	O	O	O	O
Math interventions?	O	O	O	O	O

If you teach in an Empowerment School, please answer the following questions. If not, please skip to the next section.

Empowerment Schools Support					
18. To what extent do you believe the following supports assist your school in helping children succeed?	Not at all helpful	Slightly helpful	Somewhat helpful	Very helpful	N/A
Parent Ombudsman	O	O	O	O	O
Student Advisor	O	O	O	O	O
ELL Empowerment Schools Response Team	O	O	O	O	O
Empowerment Schools Response Team	O	O	O	O	O
Social Services Liaison	O	O	O	O	O
School Leadership Support Specialist	O	O	O	O	O
School Based Instructional Specialist	O	O	O	O	O
Teacher on Special Assignment	O	O	O	O	O

The Core Curriculum				
19. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Most of my students will be able to meet the proficiency standards identified in the Core Curriculum.	O	O	O	O
My school has placed substantial emphasis on achieving the proficiency standards.	O	O	O	O
I have received adequate support to implement the Core Curriculum.	O	O	O	O
I feel that I am engaging my students when implementing the Core Curriculum.	O	O	O	O

If you teach in an Empowerment School, please answer the following questions. If not, please skip to the next section.

Technology and Computer Use			
20. Does the following exist in your classroom or school?	Yes	No	I do not know
Computers in your classroom	O	O	O
Internet in the classroom	O	O	O
Internet elsewhere in the school	O	O	O
E-mail in your classroom	O	O	O

21. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Our school's technology coordinator helps teachers integrate computing technology into lessons.	O	O	O	O
I can find help in my school when I have trouble using computing technology.	O	O	O	O
The computing technology in my school is in good working order.	O	O	O	O
All students in my school have reasonable access to computers.	O	O	O	O

22. This school year, how often have you required the use of a computer to complete a CLASS or HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENT:	Never	Once or twice a year	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	3 or more times per week.
At School	O	O	O	O	O
At Home	O	O	O	O	O

Parent Involvement & Community Relations			
23. Does the following exist in your school?	Yes	No	I do not know
Home and School Association	O	O	O
Home and School Council	O	O	O
Tutoring Services	O	O	O
Back to School Night	O	O	O
Community-based Partnerships	O	O	O
University-based Partnerships	O	O	O
Faith-based Partnerships	O	O	O
Business-based Partnerships	O	O	O

24. How often have you done the following this year?	Never	Occasionally	Often	Nearly all the time
When a student skipped class/school, you informed their parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O
When a student performed poorly, you informed their parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O
When a student performed poorly, you talked with their parents/guardians about ways they could help their child do better.	O	O	O	O
When a student performed better than usual, you informed their parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O

25. To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following?	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Parents/guardians are invited to visit classrooms to observe the instructional program.	O	O	O	O
The principal urges teachers to communicate regularly with parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O
Teachers encourage feedback from parents/guardians and the community.	O	O	O	O
Parents/guardians are greeted warmly when they call or visit the school.	O	O	O	O
At this school, it is difficult to overcome the cultural barriers (e.g., translation and interpretation) between teachers and parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O
Teachers and parents/guardians think of each other as partners in educating children.	O	O	O	O
Central administrative offices help schools communicate issues to parents/guardians.	O	O	O	O

26. How many of your students' parents/guardians:	None	Some	About Half	Most	Nearly All
Attended parent-teacher conferences when you requested them?	O	O	O	O	O
Volunteered to help in the classroom?	O	O	O	O	O
Picked up their child's last report card	O	O	O	O	O
Support your teaching efforts?	O	O	O	O	O
Do their best to help their children learn? (i.e., help with homework)	O	O	O	O	O
Do not speak English?	O	O	O	O	O

27. How many teachers at this school:	None	Some	About Half	Most	Nearly All
Are knowledgeable of issues and concerns in the school's community?	O	O	O	O	O
Talk with students about their lives at home?	O	O	O	O	O
Talk with students about their cultures?	O	O	O	O	O
Read books or journals, watch documentaries, or attend workshops that provide information about the cultural backgrounds of their students?	O	O	O	O	O
Feel good about parents' support for their work?	O	O	O	O	O

School Safety & Climate				
28. In your opinion, how safe do students at your school feel:	Not Safe	Somewhat Safe	Mostly Safe	Very Safe
Outside around the school?	O	O	O	O
Traveling between home and school?	O	O	O	O
In the hallways of the school?	O	O	O	O
In the bathrooms of the school?	O	O	O	O
In the classrooms?	O	O	O	O
In the lunchroom?	O	O	O	O

29. How safe do YOU feel:	Not Safe	Somewhat Safe	Mostly Safe	Very Safe
Outside around the school?	O	O	O	O
Traveling between home and school?	O	O	O	O
In the hallways of the school?	O	O	O	O
In the bathrooms of the school?	O	O	O	O
In the classrooms?	O	O	O	O

In the lunchroom?	O	O	O	O

30. How would you describe the level of cleanliness of:	Very Unclean	Somewhat Unclean	Somewhat Clean	Very Clean
Your school building?	O	O	O	O
The grounds surrounding your school?	O	O	O	O

31. Does the following exist in your school?	Yes	No	I do not know
Bi-monthly CSAP Tier I Meetings	O	O	O
Weekly CSAP Tier II Meetings	O	O	O
Monthly resource coordination meetings with behavioral health and other student support service providers	O	O	O
3 to 5 consistent school-wide behavioral expectations that are clearly posted	O	O	O
Clear student instruction on behavioral expectations	O	O	O
A system of positive reinforcement for appropriate behavior.	O	O	O
Classroom community meetings that reinforce behavioral norms and allow students to proactively manage day-to-day conflicts.	O	O	O
A systemic, structured approach to managing transitions (lunch, recess, dismissal).	O	O	O

32. How many:	None	Some	About Half	Most	All
Tier I meetings have you participated in during the past 12 months?	O	O	O	O	O
Tier II meetings have you participated in during the past 12 months?	O	O	O	O	O
Exterior doors do you believe are secured properly to keep the students at your school safe?	O	O	O	O	O
Serious incidents do you believe are reported either to a school police officer or to central administration?	O	O	O	O	O
Students in your classes who NEED to attend after-school programs, DO attend?	O	O	O	O	O

Student Learning Environment				
33. To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statements about your school?	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
All students have access to appropriate instructional supports.	O	O	O	O
Students respect others who earn good grades.	O	O	O	O
Students try hard to improve upon previous work.	O	O	O	O
The learning environment is orderly and serious.	O	O	O	O
Teachers in this school believe that their students have the ability to achieve academically.	O	O	O	O
When necessary, students will seek extra help from teachers.	O	O	O	O
Students seek extra work so they can get good grades.	O	O	O	O
Academically-oriented students are NOT ridiculed by their peers.	O	O	O	O

34. To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statements about your school?	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
This school embraces the cultural diversity of the student body.	O	O	O	O
I know of adults at this school to whom students can go for support about feeling discriminated against based on their race.	O	O	O	O
African American boys are treated differently from other students.	O	O	O	O
Racism is a problem at this school.	O	O	O	O
If I heard students make negative remarks about a gay student, I would feel comfortable intervening.	O	O	O	O
I know of adults at this school to whom gay or lesbian students can go for support.	O	O	O	O
A gay or lesbian student would feel safe at this school.	O	O	O	O
Students who are learning English are welcome at this school.	O	O	O	O
Students who are learning English are treated differently from other students.	O	O	O	O
Students with disabilities are welcome at this school.	O	O	O	O
Students who have disabilities are treated differently from other students.	O	O	O	O
Students with disabilities receive appropriate supports and services at this school.	O	O	O	O
Girls and boys are treated differently at this school.	O	O	O	O
Girls hold positions of leadership in our school.	O	O	O	O
Girls are encouraged to participate in math and science courses and programs.	O	O	O	O
Boys are encouraged to participate in language arts courses and programs.	O	O	O	O

Your Feelings & Beliefs				
35. Please mark the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of the following:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel able to control disruptive behavior in the classroom.	O	O	O	O
I feel able to motivate students who show low interest in schoolwork.	O	O	O	O
I feel able to get students to believe they can do well in schoolwork.	O	O	O	O
I feel able to help my students to value learning.	O	O	O	O
I feel able to get children to follow classroom rules.	O	O	O	O
I feel able to assist families in helping their children do well in school.	O	O	O	O
I believe that all of our students will be able to succeed academically if they are willing to put in the effort.	O	O	O	O
I feel that there will always be limits on what some of our students will be able to learn.	O	O	O	O
I feel that for some of our students, no amount of effort (i.e., studying) will significantly improve their academic performance.	O	O	O	O

36. To what do you attribute the successes in student achievement over the past two years? (Select all that apply, if any)	
The core curriculum	O
Benchmark assessments	O
New Programs/Interventions	O
Standardized textbooks/materials	O
The Instructional Management System (SchoolNet)	O

37. How long do you plan to remain teaching in Philadelphia?

- O **As long as I am able**
- O **Until I am eligible for retirement**
- O **Will probably continue unless something better comes along**
- O **Definitely plan to leave Philadelphia but remain in teaching as soon as I can**
- O **Definitely plan to leave teaching as soon**
- O **Undecided at this time**

38. Please mark the extent to which you disagree or agree with each of the following:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
In thinking of all the factors that influence my satisfaction with teaching IN THIS SCHOOL, overall, I am satisfied.	O	O	O	O
In thinking of all the factors that influence my satisfaction with teaching IN GENERAL overall, I am satisfied.	O	O	O	O
I am satisfied with my teaching salary.	O	O	O	O
The Philadelphia School District offers satisfactory benefits.	O	O	O	O
I am satisfied with my level of job security.	O	O	O	O
Some of the classes I teach are too large.	O	O	O	O

I am satisfied with the grade(s) I am currently assigned to teach.	O	O	O	O
I am satisfied with the subject(s) I am currently assigned to teach.	O	O	O	O
I feel that for some of our students, no amount of effort (i.e., studying) will significantly improve their academic performance.	O	O	O	O

Teacher Background

39. How many years have you:	Less Than 1 Year	1 to 3 Years	4 to 5 Years	6 to 10 Years	11-15 Years	More Than 15 Years
Taught at this school?	O	O	O	O	O	O
Been a teacher?	O	O	O	O	O	O

40. What is your race/ethnicity? (check one)

O	African American	O	White, non-Latino
O	Asian American	O	Biracial / Multiethnic
O	Latino	O	Other
O	Native American	O	

41. What is your gender? (check one)

O	Male	O	Female

42. What is the highest degree you have earned? (check one):

O	Bachelor's degree	O	Master's +30
O	Master's degree	O	Master's +60
O	Master's +15	O	Doctorate

43. Please indicate how many courses you have taken about teaching reading and diagnosing reading problems (please do not count courses in teaching English or literature)	0	1	2	3	4 or more
In college	O	O	O	O	O
During Graduate/ Post-Graduate work	O	O	O	O	O

44. Are you:

O	Regularly appointed tenured (more than 3 years)?	O	Regularly appointed not tenured (fewer than 3 years)?

45. Which of the following BEST describes your current certification status? (check one)			
O	**Fully certified to teach in my current content area**	O	**Emergency certified**
O	**Fully certified, but not in my current content area**	O	**Not certified**
O	**Teaching with an Intern Certificate**		

46. Please mark your current teaching position.			
O	**Self-contained elementary classroom (K-8)**		
OR Specific subject teacher. Mark below the primary subject area you teach this year.			
O	**Art, music, drama, performance**	O	**Mathematics**
O	**Bilingual education**	O	**Physical Education**
O	**Counselor**	O	**Reading Specialist**
O	**Early Childhood Education**	O	**Science**
O	**English**	O	**Social Studies, history, government**
O	**English-as-a-second-language**	O	**Special Education**
O	**Foreign language**	O	**Speech, communication**
O	**Heritage language**	O	**Vocational, business, technology**
O	**Home economics**	O	**Writing Specialist**
O	**Language Arts**	O	**Other**

47. Please mark the grade range you currently teach.									
O	**Pre-K**	O	**K – 2**	O	**3 – 5**	O	**6 – 8**	O	**9-12**

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR COMPLETING THIS SURVEY!

APPENDIX III

HOY EMAIL

Emails between Dr. Wayne K. Hoy and Author

On Aug 21, 2010, at 3:45 PM, Cheryl Mason-Dorman wrote:

Dear Dr. Hoy,

I am a doctoral student at Seton Hall University; and I am also an employee of the School District of Philadelphia (SDP).

I am doing my dissertation on Academic Optimism and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the 96 K-8 elementary schools in the School District of Philadelphia. Rather than use your survey instruments, however, I intend to use the teacher survey that the District gives to its teachers each Spring, which has many questions that are similar to the ones on your survey. Specifically, I am using the 2008-2009 District-Wide Survey, which has already been analyzed.

I have gone through the survey and categorized the items on it according to the Academic Optimism and Organizational Citizenship Behavior questions I saw on your on-line survey documents.

I have attached a copy of the SDP survey with my category notes to this email. I was wondering if you would be willing to look over what I have done and let me know if any of the items should be changed to a category other than what I have listed.

I am originally from Columbus and will be there to visit my mother on Saturday, September 4th and on Sunday, September 5th. I know that since it is a weekend, you are probably not planning to be at work, but I am not allowed to take off from work during August or September, so I can only visit on weekends. If you are available to talk about the survey and a couple of other things related to my dissertation plans while I am in Columbus, please let me know. If not, perhaps we can talk by phone at a time that is more convenient for you.

Thank you for your time and consideration related to this request.

Sincerely,

Cheryl Mason-Dorman

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From: Wayne Hoy <whoy@me.com>
Subject: Re: Could you please review my teacher survey?
Date: Sun, 22 Aug 2010 14:40:17 -0400
To: Cheryl Mason-Dorman <cmasondorman@phila.k12.pa.us>

Hi Cheryl--

Unfortunately, I will be in San Francisco when you are in Columbus in September.

It is always difficult to find questions in a general survey that are good measures of concepts for which they were not developed, but it is worth a try. I will look over the stuff you sent and get back to you in a few days with my thoughts.

Best wishes.

Wayne

Wayne K. Hoy
Fawcett Professor of
Education Administration

<mailto:hoy.16@osu.edu>hoy.16@osu.edu
<http://www.waynekhoy.com>www.waynekhoy.com

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Subject: Re: Could you please review my teacher survey?
From: Wayne Hoy <whoy@me.com>
Date: Mon, 23 Aug 2010 16:52:51 -0400
To: Cheryl Mason-Dorman <cmasondorman@phila.k12.pa.us>

Hi Cheryl-

I now have had time to examine your questionnaire. As I said it is difficult to use data that have already been collected to measure variables they were not designed to measure. Your district has an interesting questionnaire. I have both good and bad news for you.

1.There is enough good data to do a nice study.

2. As for measuring academic optimism of schools in a reliable and valid fashion, that would be almost impossible.

3.Your unit of analysis should be schools. That being the case, you have what looks to be a good measure of Academic Press/Emphasis. All the questions for #31 look fine.

You should check the reliability of those items, but I think they would yield a high reliability coefficient. I don't believe you need any other items for this variable.

4. The problem you have with efficacy is that the items are written at the individual level. The items in #35 seem to be good items to measure individual sense of efficacy. The problem is the items describe the individual teacher not the faculty as a whole. You could aggregate the individual level data to the school, and that might provide an estimate of the collective efficacy of the school, but research shows that it is not the same as collective efficacy.

5. Another big shortcoming is that you really have no items that I can find that measure collective trust of the either students or parents. Trust in the principal and trust in teachers are different than trust in students and parents. I cannot even suggest a good way to estimate this variable.

6. You may be able to create a organizational citizenship variable, but it should be consistent with the theory and research on citizenship. One item is clearly a citizenship item—under #1 "A conscious effect is made by faculty to make new teachers fell welcome." If you can find another 5 or 6 items consistent with dimension of citizenship that scale, then you likely have a reliable measure for organizational citizenship. I have attached a paper that describes the construct and its measure that you should find useful.

In sum, I don't think you can develop a good and reliable measure of academic optimism with this data, but here is a suggestion. Use academic press, a estimate of collective efficacy done my aggregating individual measures, and then construct a measure of organizational citizenship. Use those variables as principal concepts in your study.

Wayne

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To: Wayne Hoy <whoy@me.com>
From: Cheryl Mason-Dorman <cmasondorman@phila.k12.pa.us>
Subject: Your review of my teacher survey

Good evening, Dr. Hoy.

Thank you for your examination of the questionnaire that I sent you. I really appreciate your comments and that you have taken the time to help me. I could not locate the paper you said you attached to your email. Could you resend it?

I do plan to use the school as the unit of analysis. Although the data were collected voluntarily and anonymously, the teachers listed their school codes on the front of the survey, which will allow me to sort their responses by school.

I have a few questions for clarification of your response to the survey.

1. Teacher Efficacy:
If most of the teachers in a school agree or disagree with the items in #35, wouldn't the sum of those individual responses amount to collective efficacy (or not) of that staff?

2. Trust of parents/students:
Don't #24, parts of #25, and numbers 26 and 27 address this part of the construct? Can't they be aggregated, similarly to the efficacy items, to provide a picture of Teacher Trust of Parents and Students in these schools?

3. Academic Press:
Can the items in #33 also be used to show Academic Press in the schools, in addition to #31 that you recommended?

4. Organizational Citizenship Behavior:
I think this item in #1 fits the category - "The principal, teachers, and staff collaborate to make this school run effectively." In addition, I think all of #2 fits the OCB criteria. Do you agree?

Wayne, what I think you are ultimately telling me is that, although I will be able to conduct a good study from the data collected on this survey, I cannot officially say that I am looking at Academic Optimism in these schools if I don't have all three legs of the construct exactly as described in the articles I have read about it; and that, since this is the case, I will have to call my study something else. Is this an accurate assessment?

Cheryl

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From: Wayne Hoy <whoy@me.com>
Subject: Re: Your review of my teacher survey
Date: Mon, 23 Aug 2010 23:33:13 -0400
To: Cheryl Mason-Dorman <cmasondorman@phila.k12.pa.us>

Hi Cheryl--

First, I am sorry I forget to attach the article so the first thing I am doing is attaching the article.

Now let me respond to your questions:

1. Technically, the answer to your first question is no. The unit of analysis should be the school. The questions should begin with something like,.."In this school the faculty...." Roger Goddard was my student when we developed the collective efficacy scale. He later in another paper demonstrated empirically, that summing the statements in which the individuals describe their own efficacy beliefs is not the same as aggregating statements in which they describe the efficacy of the faculty as a collective. Nonetheless, I would expect a relatively high correlation between such measures.

2. I don't believe any of the items in 24 capture faculty trust in parents and students. Perhaps two of the items might be used in #25, but that is a stretch. The same might be said for a couple of items in #24 and maybe one item from #27. But again I think that is a stretch. I think you might develop an index that would correlate well with my trust scale, but it would be different and not based on the same theory.

3. I made a mistake. The items in #33 are the academic press/emphasis items, not the items in #31. Just use the items in #33--they are the ones.

4. You need to read the attached article with the conceptual framework and measure for organizational citizenship, and then decide which items are theoretically appropriate. Make the case and then test the reliability of the selected set of items.

5. Finally, yes you got my message. To quote you--"although I will be able to conduct a good study from the data collected on this survey, I cannot officially say that I am looking at Academic Optimism in these schools if I don't have all three legs of the construct exactly as described in the articles I have read about it; and that, since this is the case, I will have to call my study something else." Yes, that is what I think.

Good luck, I think you have the data for a good dissertation. Just be careful what you call your variables. After you complete the study, you may want to discuss the similarities and differences with academic optimism.

Wayne

Wayne K. Hoy
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APPENDIX IV

STUDY SCHOOL SURVEY DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Table 21
School Groupings By Poverty Rate And 2009 AYP Target Performance

SCN	School Name	Poverty Rate (Yancey)	% AYP Targets Met in 2009
Group 1	Low Poverty; High Performance		
	DECATUR	59.9%	100%
	FARRELL	45.3%	93.8%
	GREENBERG	40.2%	100%
	GREENFIELD	48.7%	100%
	JENKS, J. S.	44.1%	100%
	MAYFAIR	48.7%	75%
	MC CALL	59.8%	91.7%
	MEREDITH	46%	100%
	PENN ALEXANDER	47.9%	100%
	SHAWMONT	44.4%	100%
Group 2	Middle Poverty; High Performance		
	ADAIRE	71.7%	100%
	ALLEN, ETHAN	69.2%	93.8%
	BACHE-MARTIN	68.3%	62.5%
	CARNELL	71.1%	50%
	COOK-WISSAHICKON	63.5%	100%
	CREIGHTON	79.3%	57.1%
	DAY	71.6%	87.5%
	DISSTON	70.9%	83.3%
	DOBSON	62%	100%
	FELL	79.1%	100%
	FINLETTER	63.7%	100%
	FITLER	61.1%	100%
	FITZPATRICK	62.6%	100%
	HAMILTON	79%	100%
	HENRY	61.3%	100%
	HOUSTON	60.5%	100%
	LAMBERTON	60.6%	75%
	LEVERING	70.2%	62.5%
	LINGELBACH	68.6%	100%
	OLNEY	70.4%	92.9%
	OVERBROOK ED. CTR	60.2%	75%
	PENROSE	71.5%	100%
	SHARSWOOD	78.7%	80%
	SPRUANCE	62.7%	81.3%
	ZIEGLER	69.6%	60%

Table 21 - Continued:
School Groupings By Poverty Rate And 2009 AYP Target Performance

SCN	School Name	Poverty Rate (Yancey)	% AYP Targets Met in 2009
Group 3	High Poverty; High Performance		
	ARTHUR	83.8%	50%
	BETHUNE	91.6%	60%
	BIRNEY	84.7%	50%
	BLAINE	90.6%	100%
	BLANKENBURG	87%	66.7%
	BREGY	90.1%	100%
	BRYANT	84.5%	100%
	DICK	95.1%	87.5%
	DOUGLASS, F.	91.7%	100%
	DREW	87%	100%
	DUCKREY	86.8%	50%
	FAIRHILL	89.6%	87.5%
	FERGUSON	91.8%	62.5%
	GIDEON	90.3%	100%
	HESTON	85.4%	100%
	HILL, L. P.	90.8%	100%
	HUEY	86.2%	100%
	HUNTER	87%	80%
	KEARNY	86.3%	100%
	KINSEY	81.2%	50%
	KIRKBRIDE	80.3%	100%
	LEIDY	86.3%	50%
	LONGSTRETH	84.5%	75%
	LUDLOW	86.2%	100%
	MEADE	91.7%	100%
	MORRIS	86.4%	60%
	MORRISON	81%	100%
	MUNOZ MARIN	91.2%	60%
	NEBINGER	80.5%	100%
	POTTER-THOMAS	91.2%	66.7%
	SMITH	90%	100%
	SOUTHWARK	80.5%	78.6%
	SPRING GARDEN	86.1%	100%
	STANTON, E. M.	86.9%	100%
	TAGGART	80.5%	78.6%
	VARE, A.	84.4%	75%
	WARING	89.8%	100%
	WASHINGTON, G.	80.4%	100%
	WELSH	86.6%	100%

Table 21 - Continued:
School Groupings By Poverty Rate And 2009 AYP Target Performance

SCN	School Name	Poverty Rate (Yancey)	% AYP Targets Met in 2009
Group 4	High Poverty; Low Performance		
	ALCORN	91%	0.0%
	CLYMER	90.8%	0.0%
	COOKE	85.5%	25%
	DAROFF	85.7%	25%
	DE BURGOS	90.6%	41.7%
	HARRISON	94.8%	0.0%
	HARTRANFT	95%	20%
	HOPKINSON	80.6%	25%
	JUNIATA PARK	86%	14.3%
	KELLEY, W. D.	90.3%	33.3%
	KENDERTON	87%	12.5%
	LEA	85.8%	16.7%
	MARSHALL	80.8%	40%
	MC KINLEY	86.9%	0.0%
	MC MICHAEL	91.9%	0.0%
	MIFFLIN	81.3%	0.0%
	REYNOLDS	95.1%	25%
	WASHINGTON, M.	84.3%	0.0%
Group 5	Middle Poverty; Low Performance		
	DUNBAR	72.1%	0.0%
	EDMUNDS, H.R.	70%	7.1%
	FRANKLIN	68.3%	16.7%
	JACKSON	71.9%	0.0%

- High performance of AYP targets met is defined as having met 50% or more of the schools' AYP targets that vary from school to school.
- Low poverty rate (high SES) on the Yancey Scale is defined as schools having 40% - 59.9% of their student populations eligible to receive free/reduced lunches.
- Middle Poverty is defined as schools with 60% - 79% of the student population eligible to receive free/reduced lunches.
- High Poverty (low SES) is defined as schools with 80% or more of their students eligible for the free and reduced lunch program.

Table 22
Total Teachers Taking 2008-2009 Teacher Survey By School

Group	School Name	Count of Teachers Taking Survey
1	DECATUR	40
1	FARRELL	32
1	GREENBERG	0
1	GREENFIELD	10
1	JENKS, J. S.	20
1	MAYFAIR	42
1	MC CALL	31
1	MEREDITH	0
1	PENN ALEXANDER	30
1	SHAWMONT	28
2	ADAIRE	26
2	ALLEN, ETHAN	46
2	BACHE-MARTIN	11
2	CARNELL	63
2	COOK-WISSAHICKON	21
2	CREIGHTON	23
2	DAY	28
2	DISSTON	51
2	DOBSON	22
2	FELL	29
2	FINLETTER	42
2	FITLER	16
2	FITZPATRICK	33
2	HAMILTON	29
2	HENRY	29
2	HOUSTON	30
2	LAMBERTON	31
2	LEVERING	12
2	LINGELBACH	26
2	OLNEY	42
2	OVERBROOK ED. CTR	26
2	PENROSE	20
2	SHARSWOOD	25
2	SPRUANCE	68
2	ZIEGLER	30
3	ARTHUR	17
3	BETHUNE	19
3	BIRNEY	29
3	BLAINE	27
3	BLANKENBURG	25
3	BREGY	21
3	BRYANT	1
3	DICK	19
3	DOUGLASS, F.	32
3	DREW	20
3	DUCKREY	22
3	FAIRHILL	24
3	FERGUSON	25

Table 22 - Continued
Total Teachers Taking 2008-2009 Teacher Survey By School

Group	School Name	Count of Teachers Taking Survey
3	GIDEON	23
3	HESTON	21
3	HILL, L. P.	0
3	HUEY	36
3	HUNTER	30
3	KEARNY	24
3	KINSEY	25
3	KIRKBRIDE	24
3	LEIDY	22
3	LONGSTRETH	17
3	LUDLOW	25
3	MEADE	25
3	MORRIS	22
3	MORRISON	29
3	MUNOZ MARIN	35
3	NEBINGER	0
3	POTTER-THOMAS	32
3	SMITH	20
3	SOUTHWARK	30
3	SPRING GARDEN	0
3	STANTON, E. M.	15
3	TAGGART	30
3	VARE, A.	25
3	WARING	18
3	WASHINGTON, G.	23
3	WELSH	34
4	ALCORN	21
4	CLYMER	19
4	COOKE	34
4	DAROFF	35
4	DE BURGOS	49
4	HARRISON	14
4	HARTRANFT	32
4	HOPKINSON	52
4	JUNIATA PARK	38
4	KELLEY, W. D.	20
4	KENDERTON	29
4	LEA	23
4	MARSHALL	46
4	MC KINLEY	23
4	MC MICHAEL	14
4	MIFFLIN	9
4	REYNOLDS	29
4	WASHINGTON, M.	21
5	DUNBAR	16
5	EDMUNDS, H.R.	26
5	FRANKLIN	16
5	JACKSON	13
	TOTAL K-8 TEACHERS TAKING SURVEY	**2457**