The Mediating Role of Trust in School in the Relationship Between the Types of Power Exerted by School Principals and the Organizational Citizenship Behaviors of Teachers

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Abstract

This study tests the mediating effect of teachers' trust in their schools on the effect of power types used by school principals on teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors. The study was designed as a cross-sectional survey model. Since exploring mediating role of organizational trust was our focus, the mediation model was also tested. The sample of the study consisted of 439 teachers who responded to the online scales and were evaluated from 19.758 teachers working in public schools in Van in 2020-2021. In addition to personal information, Power Type Scale, Organizational Trust Scale in Schools, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale were used to gather data. In the study, mean and standard deviation values were calculated. To determine the relationship between variables, correlational analysis was performed. Path analysis was also used to test the structural equation model. Results revealed that teachers who work with school principals using personal or reward power have high trust in their schools, whereas legitimate power is not a significant predictor of school trust and coercive power is a low predictor of school trust. Results also mirror that teachers who have a high sense of trust in their schools report more organizational citizenship behaviors. The direct relationship between the use of power and organizational citizenship behavior was not found significant. As a result of the indirect effect of teachers' trust in their schools in case of school principals' use of personal, reward, legitimate or coercive power, the total effect size between these two variables was found to be significant. This study adds nuance to the literature by suggesting that the behaviors of school principals influence the perception of trust in school and that this perception is reflected in teachers' behaviors.

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Introduction

Schools as social systems reach their goals through human activities. To achieve these goals effectively, it is not considered sufficient for school staff to only fulfill the duties or formal roles assigned to them. Furthermore, flexible and dynamic work skills, self-sacrificing, and altruistic individual behaviors are also required in schools (Nasra & Heilbrunn, 2016). One of the ways to achieve this in schools is to reinforce organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). In order to cope with many unforeseen unexpected situations, OCB provides the organization with the flexibility needed, reduces the interdependence of individuals in the organization, and increases altruistic (helpful) behaviors in the organization (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983).

Through OCB, it is seen that teachers who exhibit behaviors beyond the formal roles expected from them have a high tendency to continue their duties in their current schools and are satisfied with their work (Nasra & Heilbrunn, 2016; Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006). The existing literature suggests that school principals who work with teachers with high levels of organizational citizenship behaviors are more supportive in schools (Nasra & Heilbrunn, 2016), school effectiveness increases, and the school has a better climate that strengthens collaboration between colleagues (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). The study of Smith et al. (1983) reveals that employees in organizations with high supportive leadership behaviors have high job satisfaction and employees with high job satisfaction report statistically significantly higher altruistic behaviors. Similarly, the same study found that supportive leadership behaviors were positively related to employees' generalized compliance (conscientiousness) behaviors. However, when school principals constantly instruct or restrict teachers, OCB, which has many effects on the benefit of the school, may decrease (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). It can be argued that the source of such undesirable school administrator behaviors in the context of OCB may be the types of power that the administrator has or uses. In an organization, negativities such as the leader's use of coercive power in a way that puts the employees in a difficult situation may result in indicating a low level of OCB of the employees (Altınkurt & Yılmaz, 2012b).

Administrators in organizations use power for various purposes. Although power brings negative connotations in the field of management into mind, it is a fundamental element of the leadership work (Reiley & Jacobs, 2016). The use of power is found in the essence of leadership work (Owens & Valesky, 2015). School administrators aim to be effective in management endeavors through using power. Depending on the types of power used by school administrators, the perceptions of school members, especially teachers, and their behaviors at school may differ. Koşar and Çalık's (2011) study suggests that the type of power that school administrators use is related to the school culture, while the perception of support and success culture is positively related to the personal and reward power, and the perception of bureaucratic culture is positively related to legitimate and coercive power. Doğan and Çelik (2019) provide evidence that depending on the power source that school administrators use, teachers' organizational commitment levels differ, thereby resulting inchange in their job performance. Thus, it is logical to argue that the use of power which determines teachers' perceptions of the school and affects their behaviors in educational organizations, is also instrumental in shaping their perceptions of school trust. The totion that perceptions of power and trust play a decisive role in organizational relations (Bachmann, 2001) brings these two concepts closer. In the study of Altınkurt and Yılmaz (2012a), it was concluded that there is a significant relationship between the power sources exerted by school administrators and organizational trust.

Organizational trust as a concept related to the use of power is very important and worth investigating for organizations. When this concept is examined in terms of educational organizations, it is seen that in schools where organizational trust is high, teachers' perceptions of organizational justice are also high (Polat & Celep, 2008), teachers' tendency to be ready for change increases (Zayim & Kondakçı, 2015), undesirable behaviors in terms of schools such as mobbing (Cemaloğlu & Kılınç, 2012) and organizational cynicism (Akın, 2015) are less. The available literature also suggest that organizational trust, which is important in terms of school effectiveness (Gray, 2016), might influence organizational citizenship behaviors (Koşar & Yalçınkaya, 2013).

Although there have been studies on the relationship between the types of power exerted by school administrators with organizational trust (Altınkurt & Yılmaz, 2012a) and the relationship between organizational trust and organizational citizenship behavior (Koşar & Yalçınkaya, 2013), how the types of power exerted by school administrators are related to teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors and how organizational trust plays a mediating role in the emergence of this relationship seem relatively underresearched. Therefore, this study sets out to examine how the power types exerted by school administrators are related to the teachers' organizational trust and organizational citizenship behaviors, alongside the potential mediating role of organizational trust in this interplay.

Theoretical Framework

Organizational Citizenship and Its Importance for Educational Organizations

Organizational citizenship behavior refers to an attitude that an individual indicates voluntarily without a formal requirement at work by contributing to the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988). In other words, organizational citizenship behaviors denote extra-role behaviors for the organizations' functioning without problems for its efficiency (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Organ (1997) also defined OCB as the maintenance and development of the social and psychological context that supports the task performance of individuals in organizations.

Scholars have suggested different OCB dimensions based on Organ's definitions of OCB. Some dimensions are as follows; helping or altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue or conformity. Smith et al. (1983) explained OCB with the concepts of altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism refers to an employee's exhibition of behaviors beyond the formal job roles. Generalized compliance, on the other hand, is the right and appropriate behavior of the individual for the general well being of the organization rather than specific individuals. As altruistic behaviors include behaviors such as teaching how to do the job to a person that is new at work or relieving the workload of an employee with an excessive workload, it is seen that the concept of "helping" is used instead of this concept in later studies. Similarly, it is seen that only the concepts of "compliance" or "conscientiousness" are used as an alternative to the generalized compliance (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006).

The existing research on OCB shows help and harmony dimensions are emphasized (Organ et al., 2006; Smith et al., 1983), but in some other studies, sportsmanship (not complaining about the assigned workload), courtesy (avoiding trouble for others) and civic virtue (participating in activities that benefit the organization) dimensions that differ from the help and harmony dimensions in a statistically significant way were also used (Konovsky & Organ, 1996). Altruism gives expression to helping or benevolence (Organ, 1997). Altruism refers to the behaviors that aim to help newcomers in an organization and help someone with a heavy workload directly and consciously in face-to-face situations (Smith et al., 1983). Compliance is related to a form of conscientiousness that expresses an employee's compliance with internalized norms such as punctuality and not wasting time (Smith et al., 1983). Sportsmanship is related to the behaviors that individuals prefer not to do, such as complaining in organizations (Organ et al., 2006). Sportsmanship refers to the willingness to accept minor disappointments and inconveniences without anxiety or complaint (Konovsky & Organ, 1996). Courtesy is a concept that reveals as consultation with others, sharing information, indicating respect for the needs of others, suggesting the extent to what extent it helps to prevent the other employees' problems. Civic virtue, on the other hand, defines responsible and constructive participation in the political or governance process of the organization (Organ et al., 2006); it also refers to taking responsibility for the problems faced by the organization and constructive participation in the solution of problems (Konovsky & Organ, 1996).

In the context of educational organizations, the altruism dimension of OCB includes helping behaviors specific to the individual, as well as helping a new teacher adapt to school, introducing the rules, principles, and norms of the school, and helping in the socialization process in general (Sezgin, 2005). Behaviors related to the compliance (conscientiousness) dimension of OCB in schools include the school's internal stakeholders being on time at the office, using the lesson and study periods effectively, and showing consistency in continuing to work. Teachers' focus on solving the problems they encounter in their institutions without complaining, their willingness to work with a positive attitude, or not exaggerating the problems they encounter can be given as examples of behaviors in the sportsmanship dimension of OCB (Koşar & Yalçınkaya, 2013). The courtesy dimension of organizational citizenship behavior in the aspect of the decisions and behaviors of the individual in the organization is explained as informing those who will be affected by these decisions and behaviors conveying the necessary information to the relevant people (Schnake & Dumler, 2003). In this regard, informing colleagues about the decisions they make, the activities they organize, and the problems they may encounter, giving the necessary information to the school administration, and communicating with the families of the students when necessary are among teachers' sample behaviors in this dimension. Teachers' participation in the decision process, professional and social activities, following the current information about their fields and implementation of new educational activities, and sharing these with colleagues are found among the behaviors related to the civic virtue dimension (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005).

Use of Power in Organizations and Its Importance for Educational Organizations

Administrators in organizations need to use power to influence employees in line with the goals of the organization. However, the source of this power and how it is used determines its effectiveness. There are various types of sources that can be used to influence others. In the most general sense, it is possible to consider these types of power in two categories as leadership power and legal (authority) power, depending on whether the followers provide this power to the leader or not. While leadership power is the one provided voluntarily by followers, legal power is provided by an authority to the manager and can be applied without voluntary support (Owens & Valesky, 2015). From these two different types of power, it is possible to consider leadership power as personal power and legitimate power as position power (Bass, 1960). French and Raven (1959) made a classical and widely accepted (Reiley & Jacobs, 2016) classification of power types. These researchers stated that there may be other types of power (e.g. information power) and mentioned five different types of power in the most general sense such asreward power, coercive power, legitimate or legal power, referential power, and expert power. Among these types of power, legitimate power, reward power, and coercive power stem from the position of the leader, while reference and expert power are personal powers (Bass, 1960; Etzioni, 1975). In the present study, this classification was accepted as the theoretical basis to determine the types of power exerted by school principals. It is possible to use different types of powers in organizations. In other words, applying the power source does not prevent the use of another one. It has been claimed that leaders who apply only one power source exhibit weaker leadership than leaders who apply multiple power sources (Owens & Valesky, 2015). When examining how French and Raven (1959) explain different types of power, the following explanations are encountered:

Reward Power

Reward power expresses giving a reward or having the ability to give rewards or leading for giving rewards. The individual obtains his reward power from his position in the organization (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). Having a role in the reward means that the person can control the reward. The person who uses the reward power is effective in increasing the positive values or eliminating or decreasing the negative values for the person to whom it will affect. For example, paying employees additional wages for their overtime work is one such use of power. The point to be considered in the use of reward power is what is requested from the follower for the reward. If the condition for the reward is something that exceeds the power or capacity of the follower, this power may not produce the desired effect (French & Raven, 1959).

Coercive Power

Coercive power is similar to reward power in that it provides people with the ability to manipulate things that are valuable to another. Coercive power is also derived from the position in the organization (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). The person with coercive power knows that if he does not produce the expected effect, he will be punished. Negative values are increased when this power is used. For example, dismissing an employee who does not do his job well is an example for coercive power (French & Raven, 1959).

Legitimate Power

The source of legitimate power is the position in the organization. In other words, the position power that the individual obtains in the organization through his formal role provides him with reward power and coercive power as well as legal power (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). Legal power creates an expectation that everyone exposed to that power will engage in similar behavior. Cultural values form the basis for use of this power. Culture could provide some people with the power to set norms of behavior. For example, in some cultures, the criterion that determines this strength may be the age of the person, while in another culture the determining factor may be intelligence, gender, physical characteristics, or something else. When considered in terms of organizational culture, the person in the managerial position can be determinant of behavioral norms. Roles assigned to a task give a person legitimate power. Legitimate power also has an impact on how other power sources are used (French & Raven, 1959).

Reference Power

The source of reference power is interpersonal relationships. Individuals can acquire this power through rational persuasion, belief, or personal identity (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). The reference power includes the desire of the person who is open to this power to be similar to the person who has this power. For example, a person that has an impressive quality may be the one that will others want to resemble or take role model. When referential power is considered in the context of management, the follower can maintain their bond with the leader. The follower maintains this relationship by exhibiting the same behaviors as the leader, having similar beliefs, or being motivated by similar value systems (French & Raven, 1959).

Expert power

Expert power emerges depending on the value that individual attributes to another's knowledge or expertise. When a person compares the knowledge or expertise of another person with his own knowledge or expertise, he can attribute this power to that person when he feels he lacks it. Acceptance of expert power varies depending on whether people are the members of the same group or not. When people are not the members of the same group, expert power turns into knowledge power and does not create an effect as it is between leader and follower (French & Raven, 1959).

Organizational Trust and Its Importance for Educational Organizations

Since working together often creates interdependence, individuals in organizations feel the need to trust others to achieve personal or organizational goals, and this trust emerges in different ways in organizations (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). The formation of trust in organizations is based on components such as benevolence, reliability, competence, honesty, and openness, and people with these characteristics are considered to be reliable (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). Especially in situations where the risk is high, the need for trust increases. Mayer et al. (1995, p. 712) taking the risk situation into account made the following definition for trust in organizations: Trust is "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action that is important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party".

Trust which is important for establishing and maintaining healthy relations among the stakeholders in the school, school members' high performance, and school effectiveness, is related to different variables. In the research conducted by Zayim and Kondakçı (2015), it was determined that

organizational trust is an important power in determining the tendency of teachers' readiness for change. It is stated that organizational trust is a protective shield against teachers' professional burnout (Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2015). It is emphasized in the literature that schools that want to be effective and develop their capacities should increase organizational trust and develop leadership behaviors accordingly (Cosner, 2009). Hoy and Tarter (2004) found that organizational trust in schools is an indispensable element for organizational justice. In addition, in schools where organizational trust is high, teachers have high self-confidence, less conflict is experienced at school, and school-family cooperation is better (Hoy & Tschannen-Moran, 1999). All these positive effects reveal how important it is to develop organizational trust in schools and that this issue should be further clarified in terms of school and individual (teacher, school administrator) behaviors.

The Relationship Between Types of Power that School Administrators Use and Teachers' Trust in Their Schools

Scholars who deal with the issue of trust or power in organizations often focus on subordinate and superior relationships as both the use of power and trust is based on interpersonal relationships. Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (2007) claimed that hierarchical power relations and information asymmetry among individuals are effective in the formation of trust in organizations. Altınkurt and Yılmaz's (2012a) study revealed that as expertise and reference power of school administrators originating from the person increase, the trust of teachers in their schools also increases significantly. Similarly, in Özhan's (2016) study, it was found that when school principals use their personal power (expert power and charismatic power) teachers' perceptions of trust in the administrator, trust in the school, and organizational trust are fostered (Bass, 1960; Etzioni, 1975). However, there are contradictory results in the literature regarding the empirical link between the use of coercive power or legitimate power and organizational trust. In the study of Altınkurt and Yılmaz (2012a), the use of coercive power was found to be negatively related to school trust. In Özhan's (2016) study, these power sources were found to be positively and significantly related to trust in the administrator, school, and organization although they are not as highly correlated as personal power resources. Given these contradictory results it is logical to propose that legitimate power and coercive power are negatively related to organizational trust (French & Raven, 1959). Therefore, we pose the following hypotheses:

H1a: Teachers' perceptions of the reward power of their school principals predict their trust in their school positively and significantly.

H1b: Teachers' perceptions of the personal power of their school principals predict their trust in their school positively and significantly.

H1c: Teachers' perceptions of the coercive power of their school principals predict their trust in their school negatively and significantly.

H1d: Teachers' perceptions of the legitimate power of their school principals predict their trust in their schools negatively and significantly.

The Relationship Between the Types of Power Used by School Principals and the Organizational Citizenship Behavior of Teachers

The use of power in organizations means more than the behavior of a leader. The implementation and effects of power are also based on the interaction of followers' behaviors and the conditions of the organization (Reiley & Jacobs, 2016). Altınkurt and Yılmaz (2012b) found that when school administrators use coercive power, teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors also increase. These findings were also replicated in studies conducted in other organizations. Jain, Giga, and Cooper (2011) found that the organizational citizenship behaviors of the employees that work with administrators who have high personal power are high, but on the contrary, they found that the opposite was also true for subordinates who work with the administrators with high position power. Similarly, Reiley and Jacobs (2016) found that OCB in subordinates is also significantly high when the perceived personal power of the administrator is high, although at a low level. In this study, no significant correlation was found between the types of power stemming from the administrator's position and OCB. Based on these results, the following alternative hypotheses have been proposed:

H2a: Teachers' perceptions of reward power of their school principals reward power predicted their organizational citizenship behaviors positively and significantly.

H2b: Teachers' perceptions of the personal power of their school principals predict their organizational citizenship behaviors positively and significantly.

H2c: Teachers' perceptions of the coercive power of their school principals predict their organizational citizenship behaviors negatively and significantly.

H2d: Teachers' perceptions of the legitimate power of their school principals predict their organizational citizenship behaviors negatively and significantly.

The Relationship Between Teachers' Trust in Their Schools and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Polat and Celep (2008) found in their research that teachers who have high perception of trust in their schools also have high organizational citizenship behaviors. Similarly, Koşar and Yalçınkaya's (2013) research revealed that teachers' organizational trust perceptions positively influence their organizational citizenship behaviors. Studies conducted in other organizations different from educational organizations also found a positive relationship between these two variables (Singh & Srivastava, 2016). Given the accumulated evidence on these two concepts both in educational organizations and other organizations and taking the findings that are consistent with each other into consideration, the following alternative hypothesis has been posed:

H3: Teachers' trust in their schools predicts their organizational citizenship behaviors positively and significantly.

The Mediating Role of Organizational Trust in the Effect of the Types of Power Used by School Principals on the Organizational Citizenship Behaviors of Teachers

While the organizational behaviors executed by the school principals have direct effect on the behaviors of the teachers, they can also have indirect effect on the teachers' behaviors by making difference in their perception of school. One of the important factors that creates this indirect effect is organizational trust (Bektaş, Kılınç, & Gümüş, 2020; Cemaloğlu & Kılınç, 2012; Karacabey, Bellibaş & Gümüş, 2022). For instance, school principals' ethical leadership behaviors might increase teachers' perception of trust in the school, which in turn reduced negative behaviors among teachers (Cemaloğlu & Kılınç, 2012). Another study suggests that school administrators' leadership behaviors affect teachers' perceptions of organizational trust and that high organizational trust perceptions affect teachers' job satisfaction positively (Boyacı, Karacabey, & Bozkuş, 2018). Given the effect of power types executed in organizations on the perception of organizational trust (Altınkurt & Yılmaz, 2012a) and the impact of organizational trust on organizational citizenship behavior (Koşar & Yalçınkaya, 2013), the following hypotheses have been proposed:

H4a: The reward power of school principals by affecting teachers' perceptions of trust in their schools affects their organizational citizenship behaviors positively.

H4b: The personal power of school principals by affecting teachers' perceptions of trust in their schools affects their organizational citizenship behaviors positively.

H4c: The coercive power of school principals by affecting teachers' perceptions of trust in their schools affects their organizational citizenship behaviors negatively.

H4d: The legal power of school principals by affecting teachers' perceptions of trust in their schools affects their organizational citizenship behaviors negatively.

Theoretical Model

This study suggests that the power types of school principals affect teachers' perceptions of organizational trust and organizational citizenship behaviors and that organizational trust plays a significant mediating role in the effect of power type on organizational citizenship behavior. These predicted relationships are shown in Figure 1:
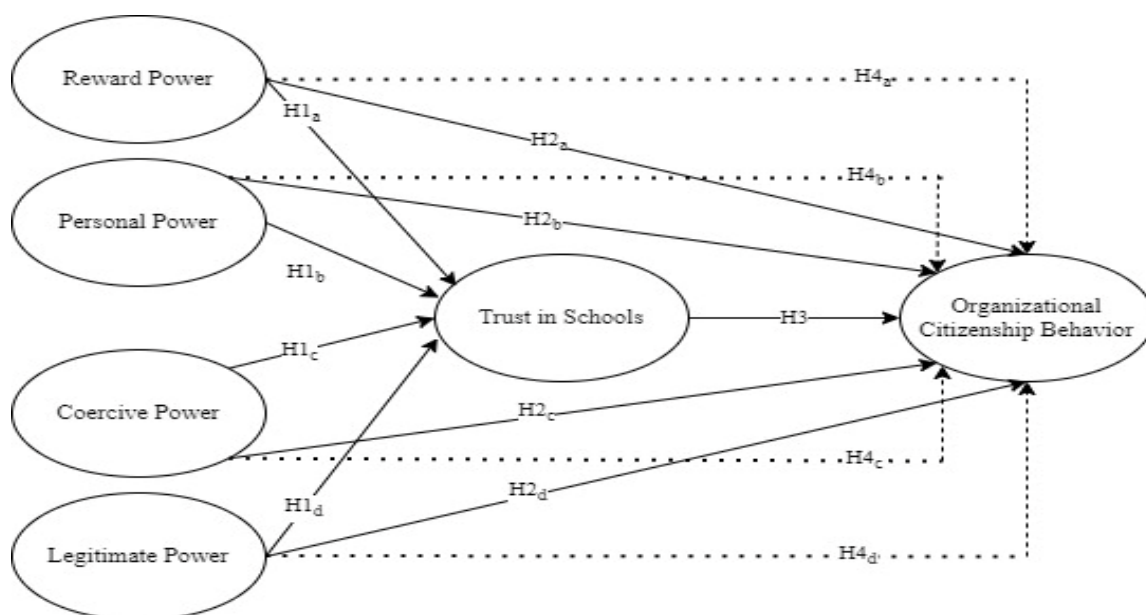

Figure 1. Theoretical Model of the Study

Method

The Study Model

This study was designed as a cross-sectional survey model as it sets out to examine the link between the types of power used, organizational trust, and organizational citizenship behaviors. The purpose of the cross-sectional survey model is to examine the existence and extent of the relationship between two or more variables (Karasar, 2009) without any intervention (Büyüköztürk, Kılıç-Çakmak, Akgün, Karadeniz, & Demirel, 2018). In cross-sectional studies, study data are collected with tools such as questionnaires or scales (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). This study also tested a mediated effect model by including organizational trust in the model as a mediator that possibly bridges power types and organizational trust.

Sample

The sample consists of 19.758 teachers working in official educational institutions in Van in the 2020-2021 academic year (https://van.meb.gov.tr/). The sample of the study consists of 439 teachers who responded to the Google Questionnaire Form created by authors between 12-30 July 2021. 53.3% of the sampled teachers were female and 46.7% were male. The average age (ranging from 22 to 59 years old) was 33.28 (SD=7.62),the average professional experience was 8.07 years (SD=7.98), and the average year of working in the current school was 3.29 years (SD=2, 96).

Data Collection Tools

Power Type Scale

In the study, the Power Type Scale (GST) developed by Koşar (2008) was used to examine the type of power used by school principals. In this five-point Likert-type scale (1=Never; 5=Always), there are four dimensions and 33 items such as personal power (15 items; sample item: School principal is always seen as someone whose knowledge can be consulted), reward power (7 items; sample item: School principal gives everyone what they deserve), legal power (7 items; sample item: School principal takes formal attitude in his relations with teachers), and coercive power (4 items; sample item: School principal cause troubles among teachers who do not get along with him). The items in the original scale explain 71% of the total variance and the reliability coefficients calculated for each sub-dimension range from .81 to .98. The reliability coefficients range from .79 (legitimate power) to .98 (personal power). The value calculated for the whole scale is .90. The scale items explained 72% of the total variance. CFA results showed that the four-dimensional structure of the scale yielded a good fit (RMSEA = .048; GFI = .897; AGFI = .861; NFI = .943; CFI = .970; SRMR = .076). Better fit values were found for the binary factor (RMSEA = .084; GFI = .995; AGFI = .954; NFI = .995; CFI = .996; SRMR = .0131) (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008) ; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Organizational Trust Scale in Schools

The Organizational Trust Scale in Schools (OSAS), which was developed by Daboval, Comish, Swindle, and Gaster (1994, as cited in Yılmaz, 2005) and adapted to educational organizations by Yılmaz (2005), was used to determine the level of organizational trust in schools.

This Likert-type scale is composed of four dimensions and 40 items: sensitivity to employees (15 items; sample item: It helps new teachers to integrate into the school), trust in the administrator (12 items; sample item: School principal deals with teachers' problems), openness to innovation (4 items; sample item: I can make suggestions about the school without hesitation) and communication environment (9 items; sample item: Communication channels are always open in this school). The original scale explains 53.91% of the total variance and the reliability coefficients calculated for each sub-dimension range from .75 to .95. The reliability coefficients ranged from .88 (openness to innovation) to .97 (trust in the administrator). The value calculated for the whole scale is .99. In this study, the scale explains 73% of the total variance. CFA results confirmed the four-dimensional structure of the scale (RMSEA = .059; GFI = .849; AGFI = .802; NFI = .929; CFI = .956; SRMR = .0294).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

The Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCB) was developed by various researchers based on the dimensions of organizational citizenship proposed by Organ (1988) and adapted into Turkish by Polat (2007). The scale was validated for the four-factor construct. In this Likert-type scale, there are 20 items in four different dimensions: cooperation (8 items; sample item: I voluntarily take time to help my fellow teachers when they have a problem), courtesy (4 items; sample item: I can magnify small problems in my school), conscientiousness (4 items; sample item: I come to work on time), civic virtue (4 items; sample item: I voluntarily participate in all activities that strengthen the image of our school). The reliability values calculated for the sub-dimensions in the original scale ranged from .81 to .89. The reliability coefficients ranged from .75 (conscientiousness) to .90 (sportmanship). The value calculated for the whole scale is .85. In this study, the scale explains 62% of the total variance. CFA findings affirmed the four-dimensional structure of the scale (RMSEA = .059; GFI = .913; AGFI = .885; NFI = .903; CFI = .939; SRMR = .0577).

Data Analysis

Providing that their identities and the names of their school were confidential,, data collection tools were implemented online to the participants. Data collection tools were sent to the participants via e-mail and WhatsApp. Feedback was received from a total of 478 teachers. Before the analysis, missing value and extreme value analyses were made on the data, and it was tested whether the data provided the assumption of normality. Since the data were obtained through online scales, there were no missing values in the continuous variables tested in the study. Since five teachers did not specify the length of service at their current school, these blanks were assigned an average value. In determining extreme values, normal scores were converted into z scores to determine deviation from the mean, and 39 scales whose z scores were not in the appropriate range (higher than ±3 values) were excluded from the evaluation. Thus, the final evaluation was made on 439 scales. It was tried to determine whether the data had normal distribution or not, with the values of skewness and kurtosis, and it was assumed that the values were in the range of -1 to +1, thus with a normal distribution. After the data extraction process was completed, descriptive analyzes were made on the data obtained, and the construct validity of the applied scales was tested. Correlation analysis was performed and the direct or indirect effects between the variables in the study were tested with structural equation modeling. Analysis of construct validity of scales and path analysis were conducted by using AMOS and MPlus programs, whereas normality tests, descriptive analyses, and correlation calculations were made using the SPSS software program.

Results

Descriptive Results

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics on power type, organizational trust and organizational citizenship behaviors and the bilateral relations between the variables.

Table 1. Correlation Results for the Variables Tested in the Study

	M	*SD*	**P1**	**P2**	**P3**	**P4**	**TS**	**OCB**
P1	3.67	1.10	1	.82**	-.66**	-.21**	.88**	.34**
P2	3.94	.99		1	-.61**	-.25**	.85**	.30**
P3	3.03	.82			1	.46**	-.68**	-.32**
P4	2.15	1.05				1	-.24**	-.03
TS	3.99	.95					1	.39**
OCB	4.47	.44						1

Note: P1=Personal Power; P2=Reward Power; P3=Coercive Power; P4=Legitimate Power; TS=Trust in School; OCB=Organizational Citizenship Behavior; **p<.01; *p<.05

As seen in Table 1, school principals use more personal power (*M* =3.67) and reward power (*M* =3.94) compared to legitimate and coercive power. It is seen that teachers have high organizational trust perceptions (*M* = 3.99) and organizational citizenship behaviors are similarly high (*M* = 4.47).

When the relations between the variables were examined, it was determined that personal power and reward power were highly and positively related to organizational trust. It was determined that the coercive power type was negatively and highly correlated with teachers' perceptions of school trust, while the legitimate power type was negatively and lowly related to teachers' perceptions of school trust. These findings provide supporting evidence for H1$_a$, H1$_b$, H1$_c$, and H1$_d$.

In the study, it was determined that the personal power and reward power of the school principal were positively but low-level correlated with organizational citizenship behavior, there was no statistically significant relationship between legal power and OCB, and coercive power was negatively related to OCB at a low level. Although these findings provide supporting evidence for H2$_a$, H2$_b$, H2$_c$, they may not provide sufficient evidence to support the H2$_d$ hypothesis.

When the relations between the variables were examined, it was determined that the general score of organizational trust was moderately and positively correlated with the general scores of organizational citizenship (r=.39; p<.01). This finding may provide sufficient evidence to confirm H3.

Results Related to Model Fit

Path analysis was conducted to determine the predictive power of school principals' power types on teachers' organizational trust and organizational citizenship behaviors. It is seen that the fit index values of the model under Figure 2 are acceptable (Hooper et al., 2008; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

According to the standardized regression values calculated for the path model, it was seen that the personal power and reward power types used by the school principals predicted the teachers' trust in school positively and significantly; however, it did not significantly predict the teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors (in terms of direct effect). It was found that coercive power used by school principals predicted school trust statistically, but weakly negatively. According to the results, legitimate power is not a significant predictor of school trust. It has been found that trust in school, which is the mediating variable of the model, is a positive, statistically significant, and strong predictor of teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors. As can be seen in Figure 2, these findings confirm H1$_a$, H1$_b$, H1$_c$ and H3, but not H1$_d$. The results revealed that the power types used by school principals were not a significant predictor of OCB. Again, these findings given in Figure 2 revealed that H2$_a$, H2$_b$, H2$_c$, and H2$_d$ were not confirmed.
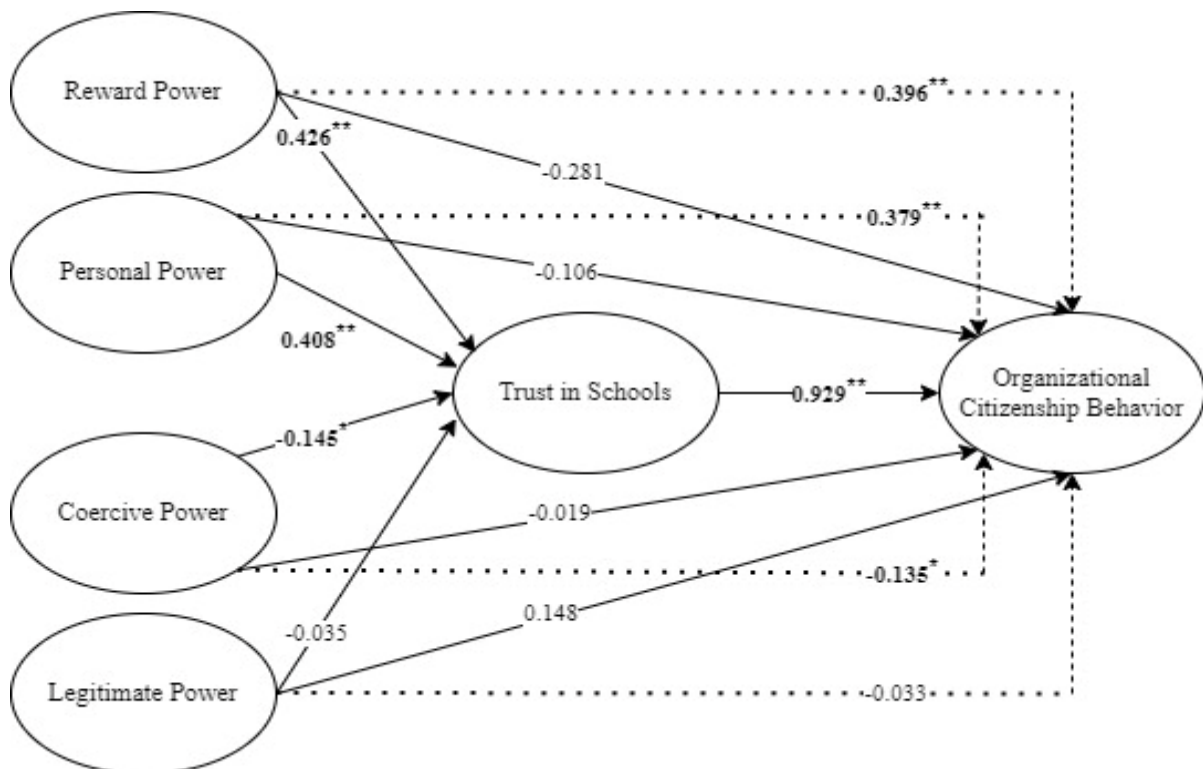
Note: The unbroken arrows in the model show the direct path coefficients and the dashed arrows indicate the indirect path coefficients. Fit values for the model are as follows; χ2/sd=3319.282/1254=2.647; p=0.000; RMSEA=0.061; CFI=0.901; TLI=0.895; SRMR=0.078

Figure 2. Path Diagram for Predicting Teachers' Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Results on the Mediation Effect of School Trust in the Effect of Power Types on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

In order to test the mediating role of the trust of teachers in their schools in the effect of the types of power exerted by principals on the organizational citizenship behaviors of the teacher, bootstrap analysis were conducted. The results of 5.000 bootstrapping analyzes are given in Table 2,

Table 2. Findings Regarding the Mediation Effect of Teachers' Trust in Their Schools

Power Type	Effect on OCB	Multiplication of Coefficients			Bootstrapping 95% Confidence Interval	
		Estimation	SE	p	Lower	Upper
Reward Power	Indirect Impact through Trust in School	0.396	0.111	0.000	0.110	0.682
	Direct Effect	-0.281	0.156	0.071	-0.683	0.121
	Total Effect	0.115	0.132	0.385	-0.226	0.455
Personal Power	Indirect Impact through Trust in School	0.379	0.093	0.000	0.140	0.617
	Direct Effect	-0.106	0.140	0.449	-0.467	0.255
	Total Effect	0.273	0.116	0.019	-0.027	0.572
Coercive Power	Indirect Impact through Trust in School	-0.135	0.067	0.044	-0.307	0.038
	Direct Effect	-0.019	0.139	0.892	-0.376	0.338
	Total Effect	-0.153	0.137	0.261	-0.505	0.198
Legitimate Power	Indirect Impact through Trust in School	-0.033	0.036	0.361	-0.124	0.059
	Direct Effect	0.148	0.088	0.094	-0.079	0.374
	Total Effect	0.115	0.091	0.207	-0.120	0.350

When the findings in Table 2 were examined, the mediating role of teachers' trust in their schools in the relationship between the reward power and personal power types exerted by school principals and the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers was statistically significant. On the contrary, we observed that the mediating effect of teachers' trust in school was not significant between coercive and legitimate power used by school principals and the OCB behaviors of teachers. These findings show that the H4$_a$ and H4$_b$ were confirmed, whereas H4$_c$ and H4$_d$ were not.

Discussion

This study investigated the empirical link between the types of power exerted by school principals and the trust of teachers in their schools and their organizational citizenship behaviors, alongside the mediating role of organizational trust in the indirect effect of power types on organizational citizenship behavior. We proposed primarily $H1_a$, $H1_b$, $H1_c$, $H1_d$ hypotheses, assuming that that power types had positive effect on organizational trust. Results confirmed that the reward power and personal power significantly predicted the trust in the school. Another hypothesis, that the use of coercive power by school principals negatively and significantly predicts organizational trust has also been confirmed. However, $H1_d$ was not confirmed as legitimate power was not found as a significant predictor of trust in school. It means that teachers who think that their school principals apply personal power or reward power have higher perception of trust in their schools. The study of Altınkurt and Yılmaz (2012a) partially supports these findings. They found that the reference power, which can be considered as personality power, predicted teachers' perceptions of school confidence positively and significantly, however, trust in the school principal was positively predicted by reward and expertise power as well as the reference power. At the same time, consistent with the finding of this study, the legitimate power did not yield significant association with trust in school. Despite this difference, the claim that hierarchical power relations and the power difference generated by these relations affect organizational trust (Schoorman et al., 2007) significantly supports the findings of this study. Our findings found support from previous studies (e.g. suggesting that there is a positive, highly significant relationship between the types of organizational power sources and the organizational trust levels of teachers (e.g. Özhan, 2016). It has been concluded that while charismatic power is most associated with teachers' organizational trust levels, coercive power is associated with the lowest level. In Çalışkur's (2015) study, a positive and highly significant relationship was found between the reward power dimension with all trust dimensions. In the same study, similar to the finding of the current study, a negative and partially significant relationship was found between coercive power and trust. In addition, it is understood that legitimate power and trust are not seen to be related in the context of concern for employees, power that provides employees' needs and employment, being aware of one-to-one interests and needs, and caring about them. Similarly, according to the results of Karadağ and Bektaş's (2013) study that aimed at examining the relationship between the power resources used by school administrators and organizational trust according to teacher perceptions, it was found that there is a positive and significant relationship between organizational trust and power resources. However, in the study of Karadağ and Bektaş (2013), unlike our findings, it was found that the highest relationship between organizational trust and organizational power sources was reported between coercive power and trust, while the lowest one was between reward power and trust. Also, in Karadağ and Bektaş's study, rewards such as promotion, appreciation, or thanks are not seen as a source of trust by the teachers. However, in the current study, teachers pointed out that school administrators' use of reward power increases trust. Therefore, we argue that the use of the reward power, which is a reinforcer, increases the trust of the teachers in the organization. At the same time, school administrators' use of coercive power that focuses on punishment is effective in reducing trust in the school. In other words, it is arguable that the more coercive power is used, the less trust the teachers have in their schools. In particular, it can be claimed that legitimate power that the school principal use based on his authority may damage the sincerity climate in the school which will also affect the trust factor. Today, with the changing world conditions and rapid innovations, a more participatory understanding of leadership is favored. In this regard, it is necessary to build trust in schools to ensure the active participation of employees in all processes and to create an opportunity for them to demonstrate their performance in the best and correct way. Hence, school principals need to use their power resources appropriately and effectively.

Second, we proposed that the reward and personal power predicted the organizational citizenship behaviors positively and significantly; while legitimate and coercive power predicted the organizational citizenship behaviors negatively and significantly. However, H2$_a$, H2$_b$, H2$_c$, and H2$_d$ presented could not find statistically significant support. In other words, the types of power did not significantly affect teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors. Although previous research results (e.g. Jain et al., 2011) provide the basis for these hypotheses, it is striking that no significant effect has emerged between the power types exerted by school principals and organizational citizenship behaviors. Because power sources with positive characteristics were expected to affect organizational citizenship behavior positively, and power sources with negative characteristics were expected to influence organizational citizenship behaviors negatively. A possible explanation regarding this result may be that how school principals use power does not directly affect teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors, but can affect indirectly through the climate of trust. In line with this finding, the types of power did not directly affect teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors. Contrary to this finding of the study, Altınkurt and Yılmaz (2012b) found a moderate and significant relationship between the power sources of administrators and organizational citizenship behaviors of teachers. Uğurlu and Demir (2016) also found a small and positive effect of managerial power on teachers' organizational citizenship behavior. Contrary to the findings of this study, Çavuş and Harbalıoğlu (2016) concluded that there was a positive relationship between the reward, expert, charismatic and knowledge-based power and organizational citizenship dimensions. Uzun and Köse (2021) also concluded that as teachers' perceptions of school administrators' use of legitimate power, reward power, expert power, and charismatic power increase, their engagement to work increases, and when their perceptions of coercive power increase, their engagement decreases. Regardless of the power type used by school principals, teachers continue to exhibit voluntary behaviors with institutional loyalty. When organizational citizenship behaviors of the employees are considered as voluntary behaviors beyond formal job descriptions, it is logical to suggest that teachers' individual efforts are efficient and these efforts are independent of the power types of the school administrators in providing the success of their institutions.

Our other hypothesis suggested that teacher trust in their school positively affects their organizational citizenship behaviors (H3). Our data found support for this hypothesis. This study revealed that the organizational citizenship behavior tendencies of teachers who have high perceptions of trust in their schools were also statistically significantly high. This finding seems to be consistent with previous studies (Denholm, 2002; Koşar & Yalçınkaya, 2013; Timuroğlu & Çokgören, 2019). In their study, for instance, Koşar and Yalçınkaya (2013) concluded that as teachers' trust levels increase, their tendency to perform organizational citizenship tend to increases. Timuroğlu and Çokgören (2019) also stated that as the level of organizational trust perception increases, organizational citizenship behavior also increases. They also concluded that this relationship is positive. McKenzie's (2011) study also found a significant relationship between trust in colleagues and organizational citizenship behavior. One of the dimensions of organizational trust is trust in the manager. However, surprisingly, the related research differed from this research by not detecting a significant relationship between the two variables in this dimension. In the research, it was concluded that trust in the administrator was not effective in the teachers' display of organizational citizenship behavior in the schools they work, but trust in the colleagues is effective. From this point of view, we could argue that colleagues play important roles in teachers' indicating extra voluntary behaviors in providing their institution's effectiveness. Also, it can be stated that there has been an open and sharing climate among colleagues. It can also be expressed that there is a sense of trust, but the same is not the case with trust in the administrator.

As another result of the study showed that the mediating role of teachers' trust in their schools in the relationship between the reward power and personal power types used by school principals and organizational citizenship behavior of teachers was statistically significant. However, the mediation effect of teachers' perceptions of school trust between the coercive and legitimate power types and the OCB behaviors of teachers was not significant. These findings show that the research hypotheses H4$_a$ and H4$_b$ are confirmed, whereas hypotheses H4$_c$ and H4$_d$ are not. Accordingly, it is possible to suggest that the reward and personal power used by school administrators increase teachers' trust in their institutions, and therefore their tendency to show organizational citizenship behaviors also increases. However, the legitimate and coercive power did not affect the trust of teachers, so it did not not result in any increase or decrease in their tendency to perform citizenship behaviors.

When the results of the research are evaluated in general, it is seen that teachers' perceptions of trust in their schools, who think that their school administrators use positive power sources, and organizational citizenship behaviors, are high; whereas it was also observed that the perceptions of the teachers regarding the relevant variables were in the opposite direction, as they think that school principals use coercive power related to the use of authority due to his position. While the use of power does not have direct effect on organizational citizenship behavior, it is effective in fostering teachers' organizational trust perceptions. According to these results, it can be argued that it is important for school principals to use more personal power sources to influence teachers, instead of applying legitimate and coercive power, unless there is a compelling reason to reinforce trust among colleagues and increase trust in the school. Accordingly, the climate of trust established in the school may affect teachers' OCB behaviors positively.

Limitations and Future Implications

Although this study confirms the hypotheses it proposes to a great extent, it also has some limitations that warrant further attention from scholarswho want to conduct subsequent studies.In this study, which was primarily designed as cross-sectional survey model, scales were used and research findings were obtained based on the scores given to these scales. It is an important limitation because this study investigated teacher perceptions of our study constructs at one point in time.of the research that it measures the instantaneous perceptions of individuals about certain phenomena. Therefore, cross-sectional studies may be insufficient to explain causality among constructs under investigation (Cohen et al., 2018). Another limitation of the study is the possible self-report bias in the self-evaluations related to research questions. In the literature, it is stated that this is a limitation for such studies (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). Future studies should consider such limitations and conduct longitudinal or experimental designs to better depict the causal links among these variables.

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