

Promoting Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools: The Impact of Individual and Organizational Characteristics

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Purpose: *The success of schools fundamentally depends on teachers' willingness to go above and beyond the call of duty, namely, to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs). Attempts to understand the causes of OCB frequently focus on individual characteristics; only recently have researchers begun to direct their attention to more contextual variables. The present study continues this line of research and proposes an integrative model. This allows the authors to examine simultaneously the relative impact of individual characteristics (dispositional variables of positive affectivity, negative affectivity, and teacher attitude) to perceived superior support and an organizational characteristic (of organizational values of individualism versus collectivism) on OCB at school.*

Method: *Data were collected from a survey of 104 teachers and their principals at eight elementary schools in northern Israel.*

Results: *A mixed models analysis demonstrates that perceived supervisor support and collectivism were positively related to OCB, whereas a negative relation was found between negative affectivity and OCB; no relation was found between positive affectivity and OCB. However, when these variables were examined simultaneously, the organizational variable of collectivism proved the most effective predictor of OCB.*

Implications: *The present results should serve to encourage OCB researchers to focus more attention on characteristics of organizational context as related to OCB. Schools are powerful suppliers of norms to their teachers, and exchange relationships that form within schools, as well as collective values, may partly determine the level of OCB in them.*

Keywords: *organizational citizenship behavior; negative affectivity; positive affectivity; perceived supervisor support; individualism-collectivism*

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The success of schools fundamentally depends on teachers' willingness to go above and beyond the call of duty to attain their school's objectives and goals. But today more than ever, schools encounter forces restricting their ability to motivate teachers externally to engage in such extra-role behaviors (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Somech & Bogler, 2002; Van Der Vegt, Van De Vliert, & Oosterhof, 2003). This study focuses on behaviors that surpass formal job requirements but are important and even crucial for a school's survival, namely, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; e.g., Organ, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bacharach, 2000).

OCB refers to all helping behaviors extended to colleagues, supervisors, and students, such as lending a colleague a hand with work overload or preparing special assignments for higher and lower level students; and extended to the school at large, such as suggesting improvements in pedagogical issues or talking favorably about the school to outsiders (e.g., Penner, Midili, & Kegelmeyer, 1997; Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995). OCB is essential because schools cannot anticipate through formally stated in-role job descriptions the entire array of behaviors needed for achieving goals (George & Brief, 1992).

The concept of OCB shares a close conceptual kinship with the idea of collective responsibility that has received attention in the educational literature (e.g., Bryk, Camburn, & Louis, 1999; Newmann, King, & Youngs, 2000) and refers to teachers' responsibility for student learning. Field studies show that OCB enhances school effectiveness because it frees up resources for more productive purposes, helps coordinate activities within the organization, and enables teachers to adapt more effectively to environmental changes (e.g., Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Van Der Vegt et al., 2003). As these behaviors in the organization are important, determining the reasons why individuals engage in OCBs has theoretical and practical aspects. Attempts to understand the correlates and causes of OCB frequently focus on individual characteristics (George & Bettenhausen, 1990); only recently have researchers begun to discern that some of these behaviors may be further understood by an investigation of how they are embedded in different contexts, such as the work group, the department, or the organization (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a, 2005b; George & Jones, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000, Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). The study reported here follows this line of research, addressing OCB in schools. It proposes an integrative model, which allowed us to examine simultaneously the relative impact of individual characteristics (dispositional variables of affectivity and employee's attitude to perceived superior support) and an organizational characteristic (organizational values of individualism vs. collectivism) on OCB in the school setting (see Figure 1).

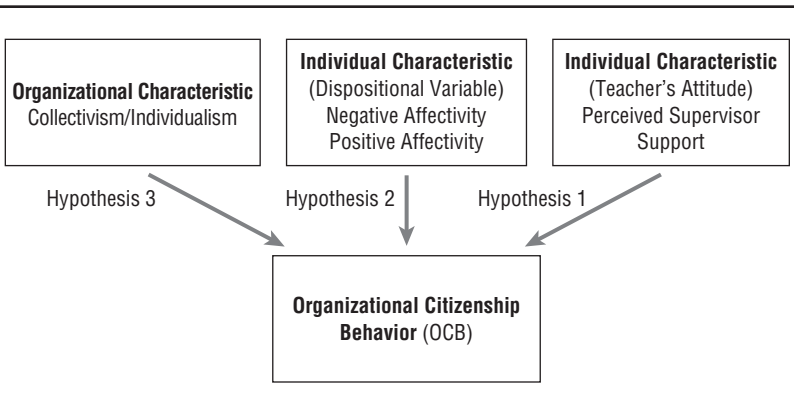


Figure 1. Study Model

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

OCB: Definition and Construct

OCB is defined in the study as discretionary behavior directed at individuals or at the organization as a whole, which goes beyond existing role expectations and benefits or is intended to benefit the organization (Organ, 1988). According to this definition, OCB refers to organizationally beneficial behaviors and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by a contractual guarantee of recompense. OCB consists of informal contributions that participants can choose to perform or withhold without regard to considerations of sanctions or formal incentives (Organ, 1990). Although most scholars agree on the multidimensionality of this construct, a review of the literature reveals a lack of consensus about its dimensionality. Podsakoff et al. (2000) identified almost 30 potentially different forms of OCB. However, they also asserted that the constructs greatly overlap, so they might be captured in five common dimensions: (a) *Altruism*, or helping behavior, which involves voluntarily helping others with an organizationally relevant task or problem, such as helping other teachers who have heavy workloads; (b) *Conscientiousness*, namely, going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance, such as attending at work above the norm; (c) *Sportsmanship*, which reflects the employee's willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining, such as not wasting time complaining about trivialities; (d) *Courtesy*, namely, behaviors aimed

at preventing work-related problems with others, such as not abusing the rights of others; and (e) *Civic virtue*, which reflects responsive, constructive involvement in the organization, such as keeping abreast of changes at school. Based on this typology, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) developed a systematic and comprehensive measure of OCB, which was adopted in the study.

Antecedents of OCB

Determining the reasons why individuals engage in OCBs has attracted a substantial amount of research attention in both organizational behavior and social psychology. Attempts to understand the correlates and causes of OCB frequently focus on individual characteristics. This literature implicitly assumes that people's personal characteristics and their reactions in and to the workplace influence the extent to which they will exceed the call of duty. However, recently scholars have argued that these behaviors might be further understood by an investigation of how they are embedded in different contexts, such as the work group, the department, or the organization (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a, 2005b; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). Accordingly, we chose to examine the impact of the individual variables of affectivity and perceived superior's support and the organizational variable of individualism-collectivism.

The Relationship Between Individual Characteristics and OCB

Based on a thorough review of the OCB literature, Podsakoff et al. (2000) identified two main categories of individual characteristics: employees' attitudes and dispositional variables. The employee attitudes category, which has been thoroughly treated in research, suggests an important relationship between OCB and satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Lee & Allen, 2002), organizational commitment (VanYperen, Van den Berg, & Willering, 1999), perceptions of fairness (Folger, 1993; Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993), perceptions of organizational/supervisor support (Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999), and intrinsic and extrinsic job attitudes (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Examples of dispositional variables are affectivity (George, 1990), agreeableness (Konovsky & Organ, 1993), and conscientiousness (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Here we chose to examine the most frequently investigated antecedents of OCB, namely, perceived supervisor support (employee's attitude) and affectivity (a dispositional variable); to our knowledge, no study thus far addresses these connections in

schools. Furthermore, most research examines either attitudes or dispositional variables, but examining them simultaneously allowed us to learn about the relative impact of these variables on OCB in schools.

Perceived supervisor support. Employees develop general views concerning the degree to which supervisors appreciate their contributions and care about their well-being (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). Perceived superior support is also valued as assurance that aid will be available from the supervisor when it is needed to carry out one's job effectively and to deal with stressful situations (Randall et al., 1999). Supportive supervisors are seen as taking pride in their employees, compensating them fairly, and looking after their needs (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Moreover, because supervisors act as agents of the organization, having responsibility for directing and evaluating subordinates' performance, employees view their supervisor's favorable or unfavorable orientation toward them as an indication that the organization favors or disfavors them. On the basis of social exchange principles and reciprocity norms (e.g., Blau, 1964), individuals will attempt to reciprocate those who benefit them. The notion of fairness underlies the norm of reciprocity in that people seek to balance their inputs and outcomes in relation to others (Flynn, 2003). According to Organ (1988), employees interpret fairness to mean that their supervisors can be trusted to protect their interests; this in turn engenders an obligation to repay their supervisors through "positive," beneficial actions. Accordingly, beneficial actions directed at employees by the organization and/or its representatives contribute to the formation of high-quality exchange relationships that oblige employees to reciprocate in positive, beneficial ways (e.g., Lambert, 2000). Several researchers (e.g., Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) have argued that OCB is especially suitable material for reciprocity because workers have much discretion in performing it, whereas traditional in-role behaviors are primarily a function of work processes and the worker's abilities (e.g., Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). The proposition that OCB is the currency of reciprocity is supported by research (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Schnake, 1991). For example, based on a meta-analysis of the literature, Podsakoff et al. (2000) indicated that perceptions of fairness, and perceived supervisor's support have significant relationships with OCB of roughly comparable strength (ranging from .21 to .31). In our case, we posited that high perceived supervisor's support should produce a felt obligation to care about the school's welfare and to help the school attain its objectives by exhibiting high frequency of OCBs:

Hypothesis 1: Perceived superior support will be positively related to OCB.

Affectivity. Affectivity, or mood, is a personality structure that represents pervasive and generalized affective states (Clark & Isen, 1982; George, 1996). Evidence suggests considerable stability of this trait during periods as long as 30 years (Williams & Shiaw, 1999). Affectivity is not directed at a particular target but concerns the naturally occurring feeling states that people experience. For example, although some particular event may put an individual into a good mood, this is a generalized affective state that will influence reactions and actions concerning a variety of stimuli unrelated to the positive mood-inducing event. Factors analysis of measures of self-reported affectivity suggests two dimensions: positive affectivity and negative affectivity. The two may be independent and can have different patterns of correlation with other variables (Agho, Price, & Mueller, 1992). Positive affectivity is an individual's disposition to be happy across time and situations. Such individuals tend to feel active, excited, enthusiastic, and optimistic, as well as enjoy work-related activities (Watson, Pennebaker, & Folger, 1987). Negative affectivity is an individual's disposition to experience discomfort across time and situations. Persons scoring high in negative affectivity are more prone to feel anxiety, threat, irritation, frustration, and discomfort, even in the absence of objective stressors in the environment (Agho et al., 1992).

The conceptual basis for predicting a relationship between affectivity and OCB derives from the social psychology experiments (Rosenham, Salovey, Karylowski, & Hargis, 1981), which strongly affirm a connection between positive affectivity and OCB (e.g., Rosenham, Salovey, & Hargis, 1981). One explanation is that employees with positive affectivity may be more likely to perceive situations and other workers in a more positive light (George, 1996). This increased attraction to others and generally favorable outlook may predispose employees to exhibit behaviors that benefit organization members, enhance organizational outcomes, or both. In addition, positive affectivity may lead to increased social awareness, such that employees will be more willing to display prosocial behaviors and, hence, may exhibit OCB as a means of protecting or prolonging their positive emotional state (e.g., Isen & Baron, 1991; Williams & Shiaw, 1999).

Regarding the link between negative affectivity and OCB, studies generally, but not entirely consistently, demonstrate the converse of the conclusion above—that negative affectivity tends to suppress or inhibit altruistic or helping gestures (e.g., Agho et al., 1992). Individuals high in negative affectivity are generally more likely to have a negative view of themselves, others, and the world around them and to interpret ambiguous stimuli negatively. Such individuals tend to increase the psychological

distance between self and others and, hence, to decrease their willingness to exhibit helping and prosocial acts (George, 1990):

Hypothesis 2: Positive affectivity will be positively related to OCB, and negative affectivity will be negatively related to OCB.

The Relationship Between Organizational Characteristics and OCB

Because individuals perform OCB, it is appropriate to seek its causes in teachers' personal characteristics. However, teachers who do or do not display OCB do not do so in a vacuum, and the organizational context most likely serves to encourage or discourage them (George & Jones, 1997). For example, George and Bettenhausen (1990) and Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) found that less highly formalized organizations created an atmosphere of group cohesiveness that encouraged employees to engage in OCB, whereas bureaucratically structured organizations created an environment of employees' alienation that inhibited OCB. In a similar manner, the study of DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001), which was conducted in schools, reveals a positive link between an open and collegial climate and OCB in teachers. In this study, we focused on school culture, as an organizational variable, which represents the normative system of shared values and beliefs that shapes how organization members feel, think, and behave (Schein, 1990; Veiga, Lubatkin, Calori, & Very, 2000). However, recently scholars have argued that culture is not merely an organizational feature, but that organizational events serve as a context within which individuals perceive culture. Accordingly, employees' culture perception derives both from their perceptions of their environment and from the ways they cognitively assess it through schemas derived from work-related values (L. A. James & James, 1989). In this study, we chose to examine the impact of the major dimension of organizational culture—individualism-collectivism—on teachers' OCB.

Individualism-Collectivism. Many researchers have suggested that much of the complexity of culture can be modeled by assuming that cultures vary along a number of dimensions (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995), whereas theorists (Gerstner & Day, 1994; Triandis, 1995) have described individualism-collectivism as a major dimension of cultural variation. Individualism-collectivism is an analytical dimension that captures the relative importance people accord to personal interests and shared pursuits (Wagner, 1995). Individualistic cultures emphasize self-reliance, autonomy, control, and

priority of personal goals, which may or may not be consistent with in-group goals. An individual feels proud of his or her own accomplishments and derives satisfaction from performance based on his or her own achievements. By contrast, in collective cultures people will subordinate their personal interests to the goals of their in-group. An individual belongs to only a few in-groups, and behavior within the group emphasizes goal attainment, cooperation, and group welfare and harmony. Thus, pleasure and satisfaction derive from group accomplishment (Lam, Chen, & Schaubroeck, 2002; Triandis, 1995). Thinking about the implications of these differences suggests that variations in individualism-collectivism should influence personal tendencies to engage in OCB. A collectivistic orientation is expressed in strong feelings of loyalty, reciprocity, and solidarity among members of the same group, and people in this culture experience greater in-group regulation of behavior and a heightened sense of duty to the in-group, as compared with individualistic members (Bontempo, Lobel, & Triandis, 1990). When teachers perceive their organizational culture as collectivistic, they may be expected to value collaboration; when they perceive their school as individualistic, they may value competition. Accordingly, helping colleagues will be encouraged by the former perception and discouraged by the latter, because valuing collectivism may enhance social responsibility values that endorse the spreading of goodwill, whereas individualism may be more inwardly focused (George & Jones, 1997). Accordingly, we hypothesized

Hypothesis 3: Collectivism will be positively related to OCB, and individualism will be negatively related to OCB.

Finally, our model allowed us to examine the relative contributions of personal (perceived superior support and affectivity) and organizational (individualism-collectivism) characteristics on promoting teachers' OCB in schools.

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

The sample consisted of 104 teachers at eight elementary schools. Participants were recruited as follows. First, 8 elementary schools were randomly chosen from a Ministry of Education list of 35 elementary schools located in the district of Haifa, in northern Israel. Second, in each school, the principal and all teachers were approached and asked to participate.

Response rates within schools ranged from 67% to 95% with a mean of 78% ($SD = 16.6$) for teachers and 100% for principals. School size (number of enrolled students) ranged from 260 to 720, with an average of 370 ($SD = 34.23$); the number of teachers ranged from 10 to 26, with an average of 16.15 ($SD = 7.34$). Of the teachers, 95% were women, the average age was 38.5 years ($SD = 9.47$), and they had an average of 9.68 ($SD = 6.2$) years of seniority in the current school and 15.34 ($SD = 7.28$) years of seniority as teachers. As for higher education, 31% held a bachelor's degree, 13% held a master's degree, and 66% held a "professional" degree (equivalent to a junior college diploma, with teaching credentials). Regarding the principals, all were women, with an average age of 46.2 years ($SD = 4.65$) and with an average tenure as principal at the present school of 8.49 years ($SD = 6.54$). Five held a bachelor's degree and 3 held a master's degree. These demographic characteristics were similar to those found in comparable studies on teachers in Israel (Bogler, 2001; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000).

A trained MA student who served as a research coordinator collected data from the teachers through survey questionnaires. The questionnaires were distributed to the teachers at regular staff meetings or during their long recess. The purpose of the study was explained in general terms, anonymity was guaranteed, and the importance of candid answers was emphasized. However, following the advice of Podsakoff and Organ (1986), to avoid same-source bias, we surveyed principals for an evaluation of teachers' OCB. To match the teachers' questionnaires and the principal's OCB appraisal of each teacher, all questionnaires were marked with hidden numbers. The number of the questionnaire given to each teacher was entered against his or her name on a list of the school's teachers. When completing the OCB evaluations, the principal wrote in the numbers on this list rather than the teachers' names to avoid anonymity impairment. Each evaluation was then attached to the appropriate teacher's questionnaire according to the number.

Measures

Perceived supervisor support. To assess teachers' perception that their principal valued their contribution and cared about their well-being, we adapted Kottke and Sharafinski's (1988) Perceived Supervisor Support Scale, which was specifically adjusted to suit the educational setting context. Participants indicated the extent to which they disagreed or agreed with each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale, anchored at the extremes by 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*. The items included "Help is available from my principal when I have a problem" (see appendix). The scale was measured by the mean response to the 15 items ($\alpha = .94$).

Affectivity. Dispositional positive affectivity and negative affectivity were measured by a 49-item questionnaire developed by Watson and Tellegen (1985). Watson and Tellegen identified each item on the scale as a clear marker of either positive or negative affectivity based on factor analyses of studies of self-reported affect. Respondents were requested to indicate on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *very slightly or not at all* to 7 = *extremely*, the extent to which they “generally feel this way.” The 24 Positive Affectivity items included happy, attentive, and excited ($\alpha = .95$). The 25 Negative Affectivity items included hostile, angry, and frightened ($\alpha = .93$). The items of each scale were summed, and higher values indicated higher levels of both positive affectivity and negative affectivity.

Organizational culture. School culture was measured by adoption of the Individualism-Collectivism 6-item scale from the GLOBE project (Hanges & Dickson, 2004). The scale contains and measures individualism-collectivism in the workplace and was specifically adjusted to suit the educational setting context. This scale assesses teachers’ perception of the relative importance the school accords to personal interests and to shared pursuits. The participants indicated the extent to which they disagreed or agreed with each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored at the extremes by 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. The items included “In this school the principal encourages devotion to the team, even at the price of harming members’ personal goals” (see appendix). The scale was measured by the mean response to the items ($\alpha = .80$); higher values indicated higher levels of collectivism, whereas lower levels indicated higher levels of individualism

OCB. Principal’s evaluation of teachers’ OCB was measured on the OCB Scale of Podsakoff et al. (1990), which was specifically adjusted to suit the educational setting context. This 24-item scale refers to five types of OCB (see appendix). Altruism, which reflects teachers’ discretionary behaviors that have the effect of helping other colleagues with an organizationally relevant task or problem, was measured with five items (e.g., “This teacher helps others who have heavy work loads.”). Conscientiousness, which refers to teachers’ discretionary behaviors that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the school, in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, and so forth, was measured with five items (e.g., “This teacher obeys school rules and regulations even when no one is watching.”). Sportsmanship, which reflects teachers’ willingness to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining, was measured by five items (e.g., “This teacher consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters”—reversed score). Courtesy, which refers to teachers’

discretionary behavior aimed at preventing work-related problems with others, was measured by five items (e.g., “This teacher does not abuse the rights of others.”). Civic virtue, which reflects behaviors indicating that the teacher responsibly participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the school, was measured by four items (e.g., “This teacher attends functions that are not required, but help the school’s image.”). Items were rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *strongly agree* to 7 = *strongly disagree*. The items of each scale were summed, and higher values indicated higher levels of each type of OCB.

Confirmatory factor analysis using the LISREL 8 program (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996) was used to analyze the internal structure of the present nine study scales (five subscales of OCB, Perceived Supervisor Support, Negative Affectivity, Positive Affectivity, and Individualism-Collectivism). Specifically, we tested the measurement model by comparing the nine-factor (oblique) model with the rival four-factor model (OCB, Perceived Supervisor Support, Affectivity, and Individualism-Collectivism) and a one-factor model (oblique). As Kelloway (1998) noted, the quality of fit of a theoretical model is based both on whether it provides a good absolute fit to the data and whether it fits better than a competing model. Results indicate that the nine-factor solution had good fit indexes: goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = .99, adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) = .98, normed fit index (NFI) = .97, non-normed fit index (NNFI) = .97, incremental fit index (IFI) = .97, comparative fit index (CFI) = .95, root mean square error (RMSE) = .02. Even more important, the nine-factor model provided a better fit to the data than did either of the plausible rival models. All the fit indexes of both competing models were worse than those of the nine-factor model (four-factor model: GFI = .90, AGFI = .91, NFI = .93, NNFI = .90, IFI = .91, CFI = .92, RMSE = .13; one-factor model: GFI = .87, AGFI = .87, NFI = .87, NNFI = .89, IFI = .87, CFI = .86, RMSE = 0.17). These results indicate that the nine scales of the present measurement model represent concepts that are not only theoretically, but also empirically, distinguishable.

Level of Analysis

The unit of theory in the present study was the individual.¹ To justify treating the data at the individual level, we ran two tests. First, we computed the agreement index (r_{wg}). L. R. James, Demaree, and Wolf (1984) developed the r_{wg} within-group similarity, or agreement coefficient, to assess interrater reliability among judgments by a single group of “judges” (respondents) on a single variable (e.g., level of collectivism) about a single referent (e.g., a superior or an organization). A value of 0.70 or above is suggested as a

“good” amount of within-group interrater agreement (L. R. James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1993). All scales demonstrated poor agreement among organization respondents. The mean r_{wg} values were below the generally acceptable level of good agreement of .70 (George, 1990) for Perceived Supervisor Support (.31), Negative Affectivity (.29), Positive Affectivity (.31), and Individualism-Collectivism (.51). Next, we performed the intra-class correlation (ICC) test. The within-group agreement was estimated by two measures: ICC(1) provides an estimate of the reliability of an individual respondent’s rating and answers the question: To what extent is variability in the measure predictable from group membership? ICC(2) estimates the reliability of mean differences across schools (between-group variance) and answers the question: How reliable are the group means within a sample (Bliese & Halverson, 1996)? As indicated by L. R. James (1982), ICC(1) generally ranges from 0 to .50 with a median of .12. There are, however, no definite guidelines for determining acceptable values. Our results demonstrate the following ICC(1) and ICC(2) values, respectively: Perceived Supervisor Support, .11 and .46; Negative Affectivity, .09 and .44; Positive Affectivity, .09 and .39; Individualism-Collectivism, .11 and .49; and OCB, .08 and .32. All of these were below the median, or recommended ICC values, reported in the literature (e.g., Knight, Durham, & Locke, 2001; Liao & Chuang, 2004). We, thus, concluded that the variables did not show appropriate level of agreement among respondents, so it did justify treating the data at the individual level of analysis.

However, to assess our hypotheses, a multilevel analysis was necessary because individuals were nested in eight different schools. Multilevel analysis is a methodology for the analysis of data with complex patterns of variability, with a focus on nested sources of variability. The best way to analyze multilevel data is an approach that represents within-group as well as between-group relations within a single analysis, where *group* refers to the units at the higher levels of nesting hierarchy. Very often it makes sense to use probability models to represent the variability within and between groups as random variability. For a study of teachers within schools, for example, this means that unexplained variation between not only teachers but also schools is regarded as a random variability. This can be expressed by statistical models with so-called random coefficients (Singer, 1998; Snijders & Bosker, 1999). For this purpose, we used the mixed linear models procedure, which is appropriate for assessing hypotheses at the individual level, when individuals are nested in naturally occurring hierarchies. In this study, the school level was treated as a random effect factor, so all the hypotheses were assessed at the individual level, with account taken of the random effect of the school level.

RESULTS

The intercorrelation matrixes at both the individual and the aggregate levels for all key variables included in the analysis are presented in Table 1. According to the means of teachers' OCB shown in Table 1, the subscale that received the highest scores was Sportsmanship ($M = 4.25$), followed by Civic Virtue ($M = 4.01$), Altruism ($M = 3.94$), and Courtesy ($M = 3.93$). The lowest average score was ascribed to Conscientiousness ($M = 3.52$). All the correlations among the five subscales were positive and significant, ranging from .55 to .78. No significant correlation was found between Negative Affectivity and Positive Affectivity ($p > .05$), indicating that these two personality dimensions were not polar extremes of the same continuum but distinct, independent constructs.

To test the study hypotheses, we first conducted separate mixed linear models analyses to predict the impact of each independent variable (perceived superior support, affectivity, individualism-collectivism) on the overall OCB Scale, as well as on the five dimensions of OCB (altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue). Next, for the relative impact of the individual characteristics versus organizational characteristics on teachers' OCB, we conducted mixed linear models analyses with all the independent variables that were significantly associated with OCB in predicting the overall OCB Scale, as well as the five dimensions of OCB.

Hypothesis 1 concerns the relationship between the individual characteristic of perceived superior support and teachers' OCB. As shown in Table 2, a positive and significant relationship was found between perceived superior support and the overall scale of OCB, $t(95) = 2.65, p < .05$, as well as positive and significant relationships between perceived superior support and four dimensions of OCB: altruism, $t(99) = 2.31, p < .05$; conscientiousness, $t(73) = 2.65, p < .05$; sportsmanship, $t(95) = 2.05, p < .05$; and civic virtue, $t(94) = 2.02, p < .05$. No significant relation was found between perceived superior support and courtesy ($p > .05$).

Hypothesis 2 concerns the relationship between the individual characteristic of affectivity and teachers' OCB (see Table 3). Regarding positive affectivity, no significant relationship was found between positive affectivity and OCB ($p > .05$). Regarding negative affectivity, as expected, a negative and significant relationship was revealed between negative affectivity and the overall scale of OCB, $t(97) = -2.34, p < .05$, as well as negative and significant relationships between negative affectivity and four out of the five dimensions of OCB: altruism, $t(95) = -2.70, p < .05$; conscientiousness, $t(98) = -2.17, p < .05$; sportsmanship, $t(98) = -2.55, p < .05$; and civic virtue, $t(97) = -2.50, p < .05$. No significant relation was found between negative affectivity and courtesy ($p > .05$).

TABLE 1
Correlations Among All Measures Calculated at the Individual Level ($n = 104$) and at the Organizational Level ($n = 8$)

| | <i>M (SD)</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|--|---------------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|------|-------|-------|
| 1. Organizational citizenship behavior | 4.02 (.58) | 1.00 | .89*** | .76*** | .87*** | .81*** | .89*** | -.24* | .10 | .24* | .32** |
| 2. Altruism | 3.96 (.77) | .81** | 1.00 | .55*** | .73*** | .67*** | .77*** | -.04 | .04 | .14 | .27* |
| 3. Sportsmanship | 4.25 (.60) | .79** | .58* | 1.00 | .60*** | .55*** | .55*** | -.18* | .21* | .19* | .35** |
| 4. Conscientiousness | 3.95 (.67) | .64** | .39* | .17 | 1.00 | .60*** | .76*** | -.05 | .08 | .21* | .20* |
| 5. Courtesy | 3.95 (.57) | .54* | .25 | .69** | .38* | 1.00 | .68*** | .03 | .15 | .28** | .29** |
| 6. Civic Virtue | 4.01 (.80) | .91** | .79** | .52* | .79** | .24 | 1.00 | -.10 | .06 | .22** | .28** |
| 7. Negative Affectivity | 2.06 (.50) | -.36* | -.57* | .02 | -.34* | -.15 | -.57* | 1.00 | -.19 | .17 | -.18 |
| 8. Positive Affectivity | 3.75 (.59) | .19 | .31* | .08 | .18 | .02 | .30* | -.24 | 1.00 | .20 | .19 |
| 9. Perceived Superior Support | 3.96 (.79) | .15 | .13 | .07 | .11 | .43* | .28* | -.12 | .15 | 1.00 | .17 |
| 10. Collectivism | 3.97 (.73) | .29* | .07 | .17 | .18 | .43* | .32* | -.15 | .04 | .16 | 1.00 |

NOTE: Individual-level correlations above the diagonal. Organizational-level correlations below the diagonal. Individual-level correlations computed by disaggregating school-level measures to each individual in the school; organizational-level correlations computed by aggregating individual measures within schools. Means and standard deviations are reported for the individual level.
 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

TABLE 2
Results of Mixed Models Analyses, Testing the Effect of Perceived Superior Support on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

| <i>Dependent Variable</i> | <i>Variable</i> | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--|-----------|----------------|--|-----------|----------------|
| | <i>Random Effect: School Level</i> | | | <i>Predictor: Perceived Superior Support</i> | | |
| | <i>b</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>t Value</i> | <i>b</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>t Value</i> |
| OCB | .06 | .09 | .76 | .21 | .08 | 2.65* |
| Altruism | .06 | .07 | .71 | .24 | .10 | 2.31* |
| Conscientiousness | .07 | .09 | .77 | .25 | .09 | 2.65* |
| Courtesy | .06 | .07 | .77 | .09 | .07 | .77 |
| Sportsmanship | .08 | .07 | .73 | .19 | .09 | 2.05* |
| Civic virtue | .05 | .09 | .73 | .23 | .11 | 2.02* |

* $p < .05$.

TABLE 3
Results of Mixed Models Analyses, Testing the Effect of Affectivity on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

| <i>Dependent Variable</i> | <i>Independent Variable</i> | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--|-----------|----------------|--|-----------|----------------|--|-----------|----------------|--|-----------|----------------|
| | <i>Random Effect: School Level</i> | | | <i>Predictor: Positive Affectivity</i> | | | <i>Random Effect: School Level</i> | | | <i>Predictor: Negative Affectivity</i> | | |
| | <i>b</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>t Value</i> | <i>b</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>t Value</i> | <i>b</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>t Value</i> | <i>b</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>t Value</i> |
| OCB | .07 | .09 | .32 | .04 | .12 | .32 | .04 | .06 | .29 | -.28 | .12 | -2.34* |
| Altruism | .05 | .09 | .43 | .17 | .15 | 1.13 | .04 | .06 | .27 | -.41 | .15 | -2.70* |
| Conscientiousness | .04 | .08 | .34 | .04 | .13 | .34 | .04 | .08 | .31 | -.12 | .15 | -2.17* |
| Courtesy | .03 | .09 | .32 | .02 | .11 | .18 | .06 | .06 | .29 | -.14 | .11 | -1.19 |
| Sportsmanship | .03 | .09 | .32 | .03 | .12 | .29 | .03 | .07 | .33 | -.33 | .13 | -2.55* |
| Civic virtue | .03 | .06 | .37 | .08 | .16 | .49 | .04 | .07 | .36 | -.42 | .17 | -2.50* |

* $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 3 concerns the relationship between the organizational characteristic of individualism-collectivism and teachers' OCB. Table 4 shows positive and significant relationship between collectivism and the overall scale of OCB, $t(55) = 2.10, p < .05$, as well as positive and significant relationships between collectivism and four out of the five dimensions of OCB:

TABLE 4
Results of Mixed Models Analyses, Testing the Effect of Collectivism
on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

| <i>Dependent Variable</i> | <i>Variable</i> | | | | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------|----------------|--------------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| | <i>Random Effect: School Level</i> | | | <i>Predictor: Collectivism</i> | | |
| | <i>b</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>t Value</i> | <i>b</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>t Value</i> |
| OCB | .07 | .06 | .72 | .28 | .13 | 2.10* |
| Altruism | .07 | .07 | .71 | .40 | .18 | 2.19* |
| Conscientiousness | .07 | .07 | .72 | .30 | .14 | 2.18* |
| Courtesy | .08 | .06 | .74 | .08 | .14 | .59 |
| Sportsmanship | .06 | .07 | .69 | .32 | .13 | 2.44* |
| Civic virtue | .06 | .07 | .70 | .38 | .18 | 2.10* |

* $p < .05$.

altruism, $t(85) = 2.19$, $p < .05$; conscientiousness, $t(97) = 2.18$, $p < .05$; sportsmanship, $t(27) = 2.44$, $p < .05$; and civic virtue, $t(57) = 2.10$, $p < .05$. No significant relation was found between collectivism and courtesy ($p > .05$).

Finally, to test the relative impact of individual characteristics and organizational characteristics on teachers' OCB, we conducted mixed linear models analysis with all the variables that were found, in the study, to be significantly associated with teachers' OCB: negative affectivity, perceived superior support, and individualism-collectivism. As shown in Table 5, the results indicate that the overall OCB Scale was positively and significantly related only to the organizational characteristic of individualism-collectivism, $t(60) = 2.28$, $p < .05$. No significant relations were found between the overall OCB Scale and the individual characteristics of perceived superior support and negative affectivity ($p > .05$). Regarding the relationship between the five dimensions of OCB and the study variables, positive and significant relations were found between collectivism and four of the dimensions: altruism, $t(60) = 2.28$, $p < .05$; conscientiousness, $t(91) = 2.18$, $p < .05$; sportsmanship, $t(47) = 2.46$, $p < .05$; and civic virtue, $t(50) = 2.62$, $p < .05$. Regarding perceived superior support, positive and significant relations appeared between perceived superior support and two of the dimensions: conscientiousness, $t(98) = 2.57$, $p < .05$, and courtesy, $t(94) = 2.07$, $p < .05$. No significant relations were found between negative affectivity and the five dimensions of OCB.

TABLE 5
Results of Mixed Models Analysis, Testing the Relative Effects of Individual and Organizational
Characteristics on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

| Dependent Variable | Independent Variable | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------------|-----|---------|-------------------|-----|---------|--------------------------------|-----|---------|------------------|-----|---------|--------------------------------|-----|---------|----------------------------|-----|---------|
| | Random effect: School Level | | | Predictor: POS | | | Random Effect: School Level | | | Predictor: NA | | | Random Effect: School Level | | | Predictor: Collectivism | | |
| | b | SE | t Value | b | SE | t Value | b | SE | t Value | b | SE | t Value | b | SE | t Value | b | SE | t Value |
| OCB | .06 | .08 | .61 | .05 | .08 | .64 | .08 | .06 | .43 | -.05 | .10 | -.50 | .07 | .09 | .69 | .28 | .12 | 2.28* |
| Altruism | .06 | .08 | .53 | .03 | .11 | .23 | .06 | .09 | .53 | -.11 | .14 | -.79 | .06 | .08 | .63 | .38 | .17 | 2.18* |
| Conscientiousness | .06 | .06 | .61 | .19 | .08 | 2.57* | .06 | .06 | .52 | -.11 | .12 | -.43 | .06 | .09 | .67 | .23 | .12 | 2.14* |
| Courtesy | .05 | .07 | .62 | .22 | .11 | 2.07* | .06 | .05 | .60 | -.25 | .14 | -.36 | .08 | .07 | .70 | .17 | .14 | 1.17 |
| Sportsmanship | .06 | .06 | .44 | .03 | .09 | .30 | .08 | .06 | .56 | -.25 | .13 | -2.00 | .07 | .07 | .66 | .33 | .13 | 2.46* |
| Civic virtue | .04 | .09 | .42 | .02 | .11 | .16 | .07 | .07 | .47 | .02 | .14 | -.42 | .07 | .07 | .69 | .42 | .16 | 2.62* |

NOTE: POS = Perceived superior support; NA = Negative affectivity.

* $p < .05$.

DISCUSSION

The present study explores the issue of OCB in the educational system. OCB has become paramount because it smoothes the way for schools to make the adaptations and innovations necessary for long-term survival and growth (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). But schools, as loosely coupled organizations where teachers work in isolation from their supervisors and their peers, are hard pressed to encourage teachers to engage in these extra-role behaviors. Teachers are not mandated to do so: Throughout the school day, they choose whether to help colleagues, to share insights on improvements, and generally, to do what is needed to help their school perform smoothly and productively (Lambert, 2000). The study reported here addresses the issue of OCB by examining its individual and organizational antecedents, and it may contribute to the OCB literature in several respects.

Overall, the results demonstrate that both perceived supervisor support (an individual characteristic) and the organizational value of collectivism (an organizational characteristic) promote teachers' OCB. Also, when these variables were examined simultaneously, the organizational variable proved the most effective predictor for OCB. It is clear that the generalizability of the findings should be examined in other networks of variables, but these results are important. Despite repeated calls in the organizational behavior literature for more attention to context (e.g., DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; O'Reilly, 1991; Wilpert, 1995), most OCB research takes the individual perspective (e.g., Diefendorff, Brown, Kamis, & Lord, 2002; Randall et al., 1999), which seems to fall short of fully capturing the OCB phenomenon.

Second, in terms of the specific OCB dimensions, our findings consistently demonstrate that four of the five dimensions of OCB, namely, altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue, were positively related to perceived supervisor support and to collectivism and negatively associated with negative affectivity; courtesy had no significant relationship with these variables. This finding is consistent with other studies that examine various antecedents in different organizational settings (e.g., Diefendorff et al., 2002; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Diefendorff et al. (2002), who investigated employees in a computer company, found positive relations between job involvement and those four dimensions of OCB, but not courtesy. According to Vey and Campbell (2004), courtesy, which refers to behaviors that prevent problems from befalling others, might today be perceived as inherent in-role behavior, not an extra investment. This raises conceptual questions about the nature of the OCB construct and the boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviors. The

leading OCB scholars (e.g., Organ, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Van Dyne et al., 1995) have noted that much empirical research on OCB focuses more on substantive validity than on concept validity and, thus, delineates the relationship between OCB and other constructs rather than carefully defining the nature of OCB itself. Morrison (1994) showed in her study that OCB is not a clear-cut construct because the boundary between in-role and extra-role behavior is ill defined and varies from one employee to the next and between employees and supervisors. Future research needs to pay much more attention to more comprehensive theoretical explications of the construct and its measures.

Third, the study examines the impact of the individual characteristics of personality (positive affectivity, negative affectivity) and teachers' attitudes (perceived superior support) on OCB. Overall, only the perceived superior support variable (an attitude variable) was proved positively related to OCB. This finding might shed light on the debate about whether an individual's tendency to engage in OCB is dominated by a cognitive process or is a result of internal and emotional state. Our findings, like those of previous studies (e.g., Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Penner et al., 1997), imply that cognitive appraisal of job attitudes is a more powerful determinant of OCB than is characteristic of emotional state. A teacher's decision on whether to engage or disengage in such OCBs as helping colleagues or students, or sharing insights on improvements, is a process of cognitive and rational judgment.

Regarding the personality variable, we found, in line with our hypothesis, a negative association between negative affectivity and OCB. This suggests that teachers scoring high in negative affectivity, who are more prone to feeling anxiety, frustrations, and discomfort, even in the absence of objective stressors in the environment, are apparently more sensitive to potentially negative stimuli in the immediate environment. Therefore, they are less willing to exhibit OCB toward their students, colleagues, or the school as a unit. However, the present results did not support the expected positive link between positive affectivity and OCB. This finding supports previous research, which does not find any appreciable relationship between positive affectivity and OCB (e.g., George, 1990; Penner et al., 1997). In their meta-analysis, Organ and Ryan (1995) found that the average correlations between OCB and positive affectivity were .15 or less. Accordingly, these authors, concluded that if personality characteristics play any role in OCB, it is probably indirect. According to George (1996), because affective states (as opposed to traits) are direct precursors to behavior, internal states should be the constructs of interest. That is, an employee's affective state, which refers to moods that are experienced in the short run and that fluctuate with

time, is theorized to be a better predictor of OCB than an employee's affective traits, which refer to stable and enduring individual differences in typical affective levels (Williams & Shiaw, 1999).

Regarding the impact of teacher attitude and perceived superior support, the results support our hypothesis and show a positive association between perceived superior support and teachers' OCB. This means that teachers who believed that their principals valued their contribution and cared about their well-being tended to exhibit higher levels of OCB. This finding supports the basic premise of social exchange theory as applied to the workplace: Positive actions on the part of the school propel teachers to reciprocate in beneficial ways. Teachers who develop a positive opinion about their principal's care and support are thought to acquire a feeling of obligation to repay him or her. In this case, the more supportive the teachers perceived their principal, the more likely they were to engage in OCB, such as making suggestions for improvement, voluntarily attending meetings, or assisting colleagues with their duties.

Finally, regarding the impact of the organizational characteristic of individualism-collectivism, the results support our hypothesis and show a positive association between collectivism and teachers' OCB. This finding implies that highly collective schools, which are characterized by emphasizing collective goals and strong feelings of loyalty, reciprocity, and solidarity among teachers (Hofstede, 1993; Triandis, 1993), tend to foster teachers' OCB. Highly individualistic schools, which are characterized by emphasizing self-reliance, autonomy, and self-coping, and whose teachers are expected to orient their action to their own benefit (Triandis, 1995), tend to inhibit any such prosocial behavior in their teachers. This finding emphasizes the important role of the school in encouraging teachers to engage in OCBs. Schools are powerful suppliers of norms to their teachers, and exchange relationships that form within schools may partly determine the level of OCB in them. As George and Jones (1997) suggested, organizations are powerful instruments of social influence and exercise a substantial effect on the behavior of individuals in organizations.

Limitations and Further Research

As with any study, this research is not without limitations. First, the data were largely gathered by questionnaires and were subject to biases. In this respect, the study does not differ from previous work (for review, see Podsakoff et al., 2000). Note that recent research suggests that self-reported data are not as limited as was previously believed, and people often perceive their social environment accurately (Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 1998). Indeed,

common method variance may not be a serious problem in our data because the criterion variable (teachers' OCB) was obtained from different sources (i.e., principals; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). However, because each principal provided the ratings for all his or her teachers, there might have been a certain dependence among the ratings within organizations, which could potentially generate some appraisal biases. For example, some principals might evaluate teachers in comparison with their counterparts and not against an absolute standard; another bias could be the leader's personal tendency to provide overall high/low evaluations. In an attempt to reduce some of these potential limitations, we asked principals to complete the OCB appraisals on different days, instructing them to evaluate each teacher independently.

Second, in this study, we selected measures that were mostly used in private sector organizations. For example, to assess teachers' OCB, we employed the measure by Podsakoff et al. (1990), which is a well-known, systematic, and comprehensive measure of OCB but has been used mostly in business organizations. Further research might examine the suitability of the measures to the educational setting or might adopt measures developed for use in the school setting (e.g., DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Third, the cross-sectional design of the study raises the issue of causality. It is difficult to determine the nature of the relationship between the antecedent variables and OCB. For example, do schools that engage in OCB also tend to develop more collective values? Are these individual and organizational characteristics determinants or consequences of OCB? Nor could the data provide direct evidence of causal links between the study variables and OCB. Longitudinal studies are clearly required to explore the nature of these relationships further.

A fourth limitation pertains to the sampled population, which might have unique characteristics. It is critical to assess the generalizability of the findings to larger and more heterogeneous samples (Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999). Finally, the study examines only selective individual and organizational antecedents of OCB, which do not fully capture the feature in schools. Further studies should examine the impact of other variables at the individual, group, organizational, and environmental levels in an attempt to extend our understanding of how schools can encourage teachers to engage in OCB to promote their school's effectiveness.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The importance of OCB in schools has been increasingly recognized for two main reasons: First, OCB directly contributes to a school's effectiveness

(Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997); second, schools have evinced the ability to encourage such behavior (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; George & Jones, 1997). The results of the study, which demonstrate that organizational characteristics play a significant role in promoting OCB among teachers, might imply that OCB, like other organizational behaviors, can be viewed as a context-related phenomenon in that it is really interactive or “social” in nature. Therefore, this study should serve to encourage OCB researchers to focus more attention on characteristics of organizational context as related to OCB.

The present findings also offer a rich agenda for practice. The educational system, as a loosely linked organization, faces difficulties in setting and supervising specific quantitative goals for teachers. Therefore, behaviors that go beyond in-role duties become a fundamental component for achieving effectiveness in schools (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005a, 2005b). Nonetheless, within the context of the current reform movement in education, when job definitions are ambiguous, schools will have to be more dependent on teachers who are willing to contribute to successful change, regardless of formal job requirements (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000). In other words, schools could not achieve their goals if teachers limited their contributions only to those specified in their job descriptions (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Specifically, the present results illustrate that OCBs are related to organizational characteristics. Principals who understand the motives of OCB, and are able to make use of them, are expected to have a relative advantage in promoting school effectiveness (Bogler & Somech, 2005). By identifying specific variables that might boost teachers’ willingness to engage in OCB, principals will be able to choose where to invest more resources to encourage such behaviors. In this study, perceived superior’s support and collectivism variables were related to OCB. Accordingly, principals can take several routes that may enhance OCBs: First, the results suggest that OCB is inspired by social exchange principles and reciprocity norms. Therefore, principals would be well advised to exhibit supportive behaviors toward their teachers, such as “being there” for them when needed, treating them fairly, appreciating their contributions, and caring about their well-being. These behaviors might produce perceived supervisor’s support, which in turn will lead to teachers’ willingness to engage in OCB. Practically, we suggest developing specific training programs to help principals learn to use support behaviors. Second, principals should become more aware of the effects of organizational values on teachers’ willingness to engage in OCB. Our findings suggest that a culture that emphasizes values

of collectivism, which builds collegial relationships in school with a sense of common purpose, should encourage teachers to invest extra effort for important work outcomes, whether the formal job description requires it or not. Specifically, we suggest that the major challenge for all principals is to create opportunities for collegial interactions such as teamwork, which enhance teachers' cooperation and might contribute to foster OCBs in schools.

APPENDIX

Perceived Supervisor Support

1. My principal values my contribution to the well-being of our department.
2. If my principal could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary, he/she would do so (reversed item).
3. My principal appreciates extra effort from me.
4. My principal strongly considers my goals and values.
5. My principal wants to know if I have any complaints.
6. My principal takes my best interests into account when he/she makes decisions that affect me.
7. Help is available from my principal when I have a problem.
8. My principal really cares about my well-being.
9. If I did the best job possible, my principal would be sure to notice.
10. My principal is willing to help me when I need a special favor.
11. My principal cares about my general satisfaction at work.
12. My principal shows a lot of concern for me.
13. My principal cares about my opinions.
14. My principal takes pride in my accomplishments.
15. My principal tries to make my job as interesting as possible.

Collectivism/Individualism

1. In this school the principal encourages devotion to the team, even at the price of harming members' personal goals.
2. The reward system in this school is oriented to maximizing the collective interests of the school.
3. In this school, individualism is valued more than group cohesion (reversed item).
4. In this school, being accepted by other members of the team is very important.
5. In this school, the principal encourages team loyalty even if the individual goals suffer.
6. In this school, teachers take pride in the individual accomplishment of their colleagues.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

This teacher:

Altruism

1. Helps other teachers who have been absent.
2. Helps others who have heavy work loads.
3. Helps orient new teachers even though it is not required.
4. Willingly helps others who have work related problems.
5. Is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her.

Conscientiousness

1. Attendance at work is above the norm.
2. Does not take extra breaks.
3. Obeys school rules and regulations even when no one is watching.
4. Is one of my most conscientious teachers.
5. Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.

Sportsmanship

1. Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters (reversed item).
2. Always focuses on what's wrong, rather than the positive side (reversed item).
3. Tends to make "mountains out of molehills" (revised item).
4. Always finds fault with what the organization is doing (reversed item).
5. Is the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing (reversed item).

Courtesy

1. Takes steps to try to prevent problems with other teachers.
2. Is mindful of how his/her behavior affects other people's jobs.
3. Does not abuse the rights of others.
4. Tries to avoid creating problems for colleagues.

Civic Virtue

1. Considers the impact of his/her actions on coworkers.
 2. Attends meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.
 3. Attends functions that are not required but help the school image.
 4. Keeps abreast of changes in the school.
 5. Reads and keeps up with school announcements, memos, and so on.
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NOTE

1. We would like to thank the anonymous reviewer for his constructive comment. We acknowledge that measuring the construct of collectivism at the teacher level, and not at the organizational level, might be a potential study limitation. Measuring this construct at the teacher level might reflect teachers' subjective perceptions of collective values in the school, rather than the degree to which collective values were shared by faculty at a school.

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