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The role of values and leadership style in developing OCB among Arab teachers in Israel

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to examine the relationship between individual values, social exchange variables (organizational leadership and transformational leadership), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and in-role performance. Specifically, we posited that the principals' values would be transmitted to the teachers and would thereby affect the latter's OCB and in-role performance.

Design/methodology/approach – A survey was administrated in a sample of 1,268 teachers and their 64 principals, all of them employed in Arab schools in Israel.

Findings – The results of HLM showed that the principals' individual values were related to two of the outcome variables: Openness to change was related to altruistic OCB and self-transcendence to inrole performance. However, the nature of the relationships found was not according to expectations. The findings showed a strong positive relationship between the two social exchange variables and all three outcome variables. The results demonstrate that both individual values and social exchange variables are concepts that can increase the understanding of employees' behavior in the workplace. **Research limitations/implications** – The authors conclude by emphasizing the need for further research on the relationship between values, social exchange, and performance and by suggesting some directions for such research.

Originality/value – The data for the study were collected from different sources (data on values and performance from the schools' principals and data on the exchange variables from the teachers). Such an examination provides interesting insights into the relationship examined, together with reducing common method errors.

Keywords Organizational commitment, Transformational leadership, Organizational citizenship behavior, Individual values

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has become one of the more researched outcomes in the field of organizational behavior and industrial psychology (Ehrhart and Naumann, 2004), as shown in several comprehensive literature reviews (LePine et al., 2002; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). The concept had its roots in the work of Katz and Kahn (1966), who identified three types of behavior required of employees for the effective functioning of an organization: the decision to join and remain in the organization; the performance of prescribed roles in a dependable manner; and the undertaking of innovative and spontaneous activities beyond the prescribed role requirements. The last of these was termed "extra-role behavior" by Katz (1964) and "OCB" by Bateman and Organ (1983).



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This paper is dedicated to Ebrhaem Abd El Majid, the first author, who passed away. The paper is based on his dissertation.

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The term OCB was meant to denote organizationally beneficial actions and behaviors that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by a contractual guarantee of compensation; it includes both organizational OCB (impersonal OCB directed towards the organization in general) and altruistic OCB (helping a specific person within the organization). According to Organ's definition, "[...] OCB represents individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Thus, OCB consists of informal contributions that participants can choose to make or withhold, without regard to considerations of sanctions or formal incentives. OCB derives its practical importance from the premise that it represents contributions that do not inhere in formal role obligations, and that these contributions, aggregated over time and persons, enhance organizational effectiveness (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). Studies have found OCB to be related to a variety of individual- and organizational-level outcomes, including employee performance as rated by managers, withdrawal-related criteria, productivity, reduced costs, customer satisfaction, and unit-level turnover (Podsakoff et al., 2009). OCB is essential in the education system because schools cannot anticipate through formally stated in-role job descriptions the entire array of behaviors needed for achieving goals (Belogolovsky and Somech, 2010).

Most research that has examined determinants of OCB has focused on the work attitudes of subordinates and on their relationship with their supervisors as demonstrated in concepts such as leadership style or commitment. OCB antecedents are usually examined within the theoretical framework of exchange (Organ, 1988), which is described as taking place primarily at the individual level, between the supervisor and her/his subordinates (Konovsky and Pugh, 1994). In addition, the role of personality traits in work-related behaviors and attitudes has received renewed attention over the past decade (Furnham et al., 2005). Researchers have begun to examine the effect of values on both commitment (Cohen, 2007; Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001; Pearson and Chong, 1997; Wasti, 2003) and on organizational OCB and performance (Ang et al., 2003; Farh et al., 2007). Fischer and Smith (2006) highlight the importance of such an examination, arguing that employees from different socio-cultural backgrounds bring different career aspirations and value systems to their work.

Values are thought to play a functional role in all sorts of work-related processes and outcomes (Lam et al., 2002). As yet, few studies have examined the effect of values on attitudes and behaviors at the individual level (Clugston et al., 2000; Fischer and Smith, 2006; Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001; Wasti, 2003). Most studies on values have focussed on the national level of analysis, in that they have compared aggregated scales of values across countries (Hofstede et al., 2010). Key examples include the approach taken by Hofstede (1980), as well as work by Schwartz (1999) and the GLOBE Study. However, studies have pointed out conceptual and methodological problems associated with this procedure (Vauclair, 2009). In addition, individuals both within and across societies may have quite different value priorities that reflect their heritage, personal experiences, socio-economic level, and acculturation (Schwartz and Bardi, 2001). Values can influence how an individual perceives and interprets a given situation and the importance he or she gives it (Schwartz et al., 2000; Schwartz et al., 2012), as well as how he or she reacts and behaves in given circumstances (Schwartz, 1996). Further, values play a central role in determining the fit between individuals and the employment organization (Berings et al., 2004). The underlying assumption is that

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people will be happier and more motivated, satisfied, and committed when their values are congruent with those emphasized in the group or organization (Berings *et al.*, 2004). All of this suggests that an understanding of individual-level differences in values may offer insights into better ways of managing different employees (Francesco and Chen, 2004).

The present study advances the stream of research outlined above by applying Schwartz's (1992, 1996) human values theory, which lends itself to individual-level study. Several lines of reasoning support this decision. First, there has been some criticism of Hofstede's (1980) approach, which – as noted by Kirkman et al. - reduces culture to an overly simplistic four- or five dimension conceptualization. Furthermore, Hofstede limited his sample to a single multinational corporation, failed to capture the malleability of culture over time, and ignored within-country cultural heterogeneity. Other researchers have criticized Hofstede's measurement techniques. Kirkman et al. noted that in spite of the criticism, researchers have favored this fivedimension framework because of its clarity, parsimony, and resonance with managers. The controversy regarding Hofstede's (1980) theory is also demonstrated in several papers presented in a 2006 volume (Issue 5) of the *Journal of International Business* Studies, which made itself a forum for debate between supporters and opponents of Hofstede's approach vs that of the GLOBE Study. Earley, in responding to the debate, concluded that it may well be time that the traditional large-scale, multi-country survey be set aside for the development of alternative midrange theories that offer a more direct look at organizational phenomena in a cultural and national context. It is argued here that Schwartz's (1992, 1996) theory, in addition to its other advantages outlined later, represents such an approach.

The goal of the present study is to contribute to this new and important research agenda by examining the relationship between individual values, using Schwartz's (1992, 1996) theory, and work outcomes. More specifically, the current study seeks to assess the interplay between individual values; exchange variables, represented by leadership and commitment; and in-role performance and OCB in a sample of Arab teachers in Israel. This study has several potential contributions. First, it applies a theory of values (Schwartz, 1992) that has not been sufficiently examined at the individual level in management and industrial psychology, though it is well-established overall as an approach to evaluating values (Lee et al., 2007). Second, examining the relationship between values, exchange variables, and performance in a culture very different from that of North American or Europe will enhance our understanding of this relationship. This contribution is important in light of the "cultural self-presenting theory," which suggests that values can account for differences in employees' reactions to managerial interventions (Erez and Earley, 1993). Accordingly, individual values may have different relationships with outcomes across different cultures, such as the individualist culture of North America or Western Europe vs the collectivist culture of the Arab world (Hofstede, 1980).

The setting

The hypotheses here are based on the specific sample examined in this study, Arab teachers employed in Arab schools operating in Arab-populated cities or villages in Israel. Arabs, representing about one-sixth of Israel's population, are a permanent, non-assimilating minority, clearly distinguished from Jews in place of residence and in culture, speaking their own language and adhering to their own traditions

(Cohen, 1999). Israeli Arabs have been described as a traditional collectivist culture. The collectivist orientation is expressed in ideals such as solidarity, cooperation, commitment, mutual trust, support, and a sense of belonging that are believed to be present in the Arab nuclear and extended family and in the community (Pines and Zaidman, 2003; Ronen and Shenkar, 1985; Yishai and Cohen, 1997). In traditional societies, commitment is a complex attitude influenced by the norms, sanctions, and pressures of the small group, family, and community (Pines and Zaidman, 2003). Values prized in such groups include a preference for more personal ties to supervisors, acceptance of more paternalistic treatment, and a sense that power relationships should be hierarchical. These factors may influence the attitudes and the behaviors of employees who are members of traditional societies, resulting in greater commitment to the firm and, potentially, a higher level of performance.

It is important to note that the compensation of Israeli teachers, including their salaries and benefits, is determined by national negotiations between the Israeli teachers' unions and the government. Compensation of teachers at a given rank and tenure is fixed. There is no relationship in the Israeli educational system, or indeed in the entire Israeli public sector, between performance and compensation. School principals have almost no control over how their teachers are rewarded for the work they do.

Conceptual framework and research hypotheses

Schwartz's individual values model

Schwartz and Sagiv (1995) defined human values as desirable, trans-situational goals. varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in people's lives (see also Schwartz, 2006, 2010). They identified 10 distinct value types structured in patterns of conflict and compatibility. The following list lists the ten value types as presented in Schwartz and Sagiv (1995), each defined in terms of its central goal and followed, in parentheses, by specific values that primarily represent it.

Definitions of motivational types of values in terms of their goals and the single values that represent them (Values in brackets were not used in computing indices for value types):

- power: social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources. (social power, authority, wealth) (preserving my public image, social recognition);
- achievement: personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards. (successful, capable, ambitious, influential) (intelligent, self respect);
- hedonism: pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself (pleasure, enjoying life);
- Stimulation: excitement, novelty, and challenge in life (daring, a varied life, an exciting life):
- self-direction: independent thought and action-choosing, creating, exploring (creativity, freedom, independent, curious, choosing own goals) (self-respect);
- universalism: understanding, appreciation, tolerance and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature (broadminded, wisdom, social justice, equality, a world of peace, a word of beauty, unity with nature, protecting the environment);

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- benevolence: preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom
 one is in frequent personal contact. (helpful, honest, forgiving, loyal, responsible)
 (true friendship, mature love);
- tradition: respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide the self (humble, accepting my portion in life, devout, respect for tradition, moderate);
- conformity: restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms (politeness, obedient, self-discipline, honoring parents and elders); and
- security: safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self. (family security, national security, social order, clean, reciprocation of favors) (sense of belonging, healthy).

Figure 1 presents the value system as conceived by Schwartz and Sagiv (1995). Competing value types emanate in opposing directions from the center; compatible types appear in close proximity around the circle. As shown in the figure, the values fall into higher-order dimensions: openness to change, conservation, self-enhancement, and self-transcendence. Evidence for this theoretical structure has been found in samples from 67 nations (Schwartz, 1992, 2005; Schwartz and Sagiv, 1995) as well as in recent data from 38 countries (Fontaine *et al.*, 2008). More recent studies have also confirmed the circular motivational continuum of ten values (Cieciuch *et al.*, 2013; Cieciuch and Schwartz, 2012). Finally, the robustness of the theory and its measurement scale, the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ; Schwartz, 2005; Schwartz *et al.*, 2001), have recently been confirmed in the consumer sphere, in research showing that tailor-made versions of the PVQ can reflect consumers' behavior towards differentiated products

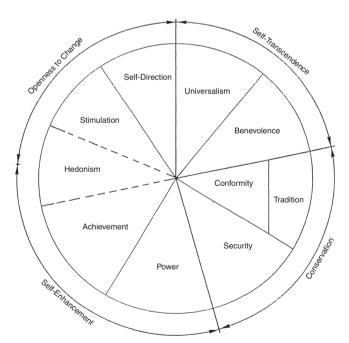


Figure 1.
Theoretical model of relations among ten motivational types of values

(Krystallis et al., 2012). Such findings provide substantial support for both the content and structure postulates of the theory, and specifically for the claim that tenmotivationally distinct value types are recognized across cultures and are used to express value priorities.

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Schwartz described several possible processes that might link people's value priorities to their attitudes and behaviors. To start with, high-priority values are enduring goals that guide people to look for and to pay attention to value-relevant aspects of a situation (Schwartz et al., 2000). Values can influence the attention given to, the perception of, and the interpretation of various situations; these, in turn, can affect attitudes and behaviors. Schwartz (1996) argued that to develop specific hypotheses regarding the relationship between values and attitudes and behaviors, one should closely analyze the consequences of a behavior or attitude for the expression or attainment of the motivational goals of the value types, leading to the identification of the most relevant type (Schwartz, 1996).

Values and OCB and in-role performance

We argue that performance, particularly in-role performance and organizational OCB, are rooted chiefly in values that represent openness to change and/or self-enhancement. Therefore, school principals who hold such values will transmit more performance-oriented messages in the school setting. Values – as noted above – play a key role in determining the fit between employees and the organization, meaning that people will be more motivated, satisfied, and committed when their values are congruent with those of the organization or group (Berings et al., 2004). Teachers who observe that their principals emphasize values that can be termed performance-oriented will thus be inclined to adjust to their work environment by demonstrating behaviors that show a better fit with performance-oriented values. The reasoning behind this contention follows Bandura's (1977) argument, based on social learning theory that individuals learn by observing the behavior of credible role models. In organizations, supervisors often have higher status and power than their followers and, thus, are influential sources of information to employees regarding what behavior is important and worth modeling. To the extent that followers respect their supervisors' status and performance within the organization, they will be more likely to emulate their leaders' behavior to attain similarly positive behavioral outcomes (Bandura, 1977; Walumbwa et al., 2010). In other words, they will demonstrate higher levels of in-role performance and organizational OCB. Therefore, we can expect that in the current sample, teachers will score higher in in-role performance and organizational OCB when their school principals show higher levels of openness to change and/or self-enhancement than when the latter place greater value on self-transcendence and conservation:

H1. When school principals have higher levels of openness to change and self enhancement, their teachers will score higher in organizational OCB and in-role performance.

Following the same conceptual argument, based on Bandura (1977) and Walumbwa et al. (2010), we expect that school principals who score higher in values that represent conservation and self-transcendence will be more likely to create a climate that encourages performance of altruistic OCB compared to principals who score higher in values representing openness to change and self-enhancement. This is because people whose values represent conservation and self-transcendence are likely to regard the group or collective as more important than the individual, and therefore will be more

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likely to demonstrate altruistic OCB – i.e., behaviors aimed at helping others – in their work relationships. Teachers who observe that their principal holds such values will respond with behaviors that demonstrate a better fit between themselves and the system, and so will engage at higher levels in altruistic OCB:

H2. When school principals have higher levels of conservation and self-transcendence their teachers will score higher in altruistic OCB.

Exchange variables and outcomes

Two variables that represent exchange will be examined here as determinants of OCB and in-role performance: transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment (Cohen *et al.*, 2012). The expectation is that these variables will contribute to the explanation of OCB and in-role performance above and beyond the effect of individual values.

Transformational leadership and in-role performance and OCB

Because, as mentioned above, school principals in Israel have almost no control over their teachers' salaries or other rewards, we decided in this study to exclude the transactional leadership dimension and to focus on transformational leadership. Transformational leadership theory has evolved to describe four dimensions of leadership behavior: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass, 1985). According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders provide constructive feedback to their followers, convince followers to put in extra effort, and encourage followers to think creatively about complex problems – all behaviors to which followers respond with greater in-role performance (Piccolo and Colloquitt, 2006) and OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1990). In addition, because transformational leaders are trusted and respected, they can persuade followers to forgo their own personal interest for the sake of the collective (Yukl, 1989). Followers come to identify with the goals and problems of the collective (the organization or work group), which are given meaning by transformational leader, and which then become the basis of a shared social identity (Boerner et al., 2007; Kark et al., 2003). This shared identity then stimulates followers to greater helping behavior and conscientiousness, as they work together to overcome obstacles that impede their common long-term goal.

In short, transformational leaders have the ability to raise followers' task performance while also encouraging OCB (Piccolo and Colloquitt, 2006). That is, they can effect a positive exchange relationship between followers and the organization (Cohen *et al.*, 2012). Indeed, three meta-analyses have found a consistent relationship between transformational leadership and in-role performance and OCB (Fuller *et al.*, 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Lowe *et al.*, 1996). We therefore hypothesized that when principals display greater transformational leadership, their teachers will respond with higher levels of OCB and in-role performance:

H3. Transformational leadership will be positively related to both dimensions of OCB and to in-role performance.

Commitment and in-role performance and OCB

Affective organizational commitment is hypothesized to lead to improved job performance (Somers and Birnbaum, 1998), and it has become recognized as among the more stable and consistent determinants of OCB, judging from the number of studies examining their relationship (Meyer *et al.*, 2002). Models by Scholl (1981) and Wiener (1982) have

provided theoretical support for a commitment – OCB relationship. Scholl suggested that because commitment maintains behavioral direction when there is little expectation of formal organizational rewards for performance, commitment is a likely determinant of OCB. Like Scholl's model, Wiener's suggests that commitment is responsible for behaviors that do not depend primarily on reinforcement or punishment (Uçanok and Karabatı, 2013).

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Elsewhere, it has been argued that commitment can be viewed as an attitudinal indicator of the extent to which an employee perceives him- or herself to be in a high-quality social exchange relationship with the organization (Cohen, 2003; Uçanok and Karabatı, 2013). Social exchange relationships are often described as subjective, relationship-oriented contracts between employers and employees characterized by a mutual exchange of socio-emotional benefits (Blau, 1964). As described by Blau (1964), social exchanges entail unspecified obligations. High-quality social exchange relationships thus prompt employees to greater citizenship because employees are likely to feel a relational obligation to engage in behaviors that have positive consequences for their relationship partners (Cropanzano and Rupp, 2008). That is, employees who experience positive exchanges with the organization will reciprocate with higher levels of commitment, which will motivate them to contribute to the organization in other ways, through, for example, better performance or higher levels of OCB (Cohen, 2003; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986).

Affective organizational commitment is based specifically on the exchange relationship between the employee and the organization. It is defined as "an affective or emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in the organization" (Allen and Meyer, 1990, p. 2). Thus, positive exchanges with the organization should motivate employees, through affective organizational commitment, to increase their formal contributions to the organization, namely in-role performance (Cohen *et al.*, 2012). It is likely, however, that this process will also encourage employees to contribute to the organization in more spontaneous, informal ways, chiefly through OCB (Meyer *et al.*, 2002):

H4. Employees' affective organizational commitment will be positively related to both dimensions of OCB and to in-role performance.

Method

Subjects and procedure

The target populations of this study were Arab teachers working in schools in Arab communities in central and northern Israel, and the principals of these schools. We focused on this particular group in order to minimize variations that might be caused by including members of other, less homogeneous groups, such as Jewish teachers. The teachers filled out questionnaires on transformational leadership (vis-à-vis their principals) and their own level of commitment. The principals filled out questionnaires on their own individual values and on the in-role performance and OCB behaviors of their teachers.

Questionnaires were distributed in 64 schools to teachers who were willing to participate in the study. Usable questionnaires were returned by 1,268 teachers from 64 schools. The returned questionnaires included 674 (53.2 percent) from teachers in 36 elementary schools, 307 (24.2 percent) from teachers in 13 middle schools, and 287 (22.6 percent) from teachers in 15 high schools. The number of these questionnaires collected in each school ranged from nine to 37.

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The principals of the 64 schools responded to the questionnaire on individual values. The principals also provided data on OCB and in-role performance for those teachers who returned usable questionnaires, in most cases a month or two after the questionnaires were collected. The teachers indicated their national identity numbers on the questionnaires to allow us to match their responses with the principals' evaluations. The questionnaires, which were in Arabic, were administered on-site and took about 20 minutes to complete. No compensation was provided.

Among the teachers, the final sample had the following demographic characteristics: 62.7 percent were female, the average age was 38.1, and the average tenure in the occupation and in the school was 14.7 years and 10.9 years, respectively. In total, 93 percent of the teachers were married, and 81 percent had one or more children under 18. With regard to religion, 85 percent of the teachers were Muslims and about 14 percent were Christians. About 95 percent had a university degree. Among the principals, 76.6 percent were male, all were married, their average age was 50.6, and their average tenure in the occupation and the school was 27.5 and 14.8 years, respectively. The principals averaged 11.6 years of experience in managerial positions, and 98 percent had an academic education. Their religious affiliation was Muslim for 89.1 percent and Christian for 9.4 percent.

Scales

Individual values. The PVQ (Schwartz, 2005; Schwartz et al., 2001) was applied to measure the ten basic values. The PVQ consists of short verbal portraits of 40 different people, gender-matched with the respondent. Each portrait highlights goals and aspirations that point implicitly to the importance of a particular value, without naming the value or referring to it directly. The portraits describe each person in terms of what is important to him or her; thus, they capture the person's values without explicitly identifying values as the topic of investigation.

For each portrait in the PVQ, respondents are asked "how much like you is this person?" Responses are given on a scale ranging from 1 (not like me at all) to 6 (very much like me). Sample items include: 1. "Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to her. She likes to do things in her own original way" (self-direction). 2. "It is important to her to live in secure surroundings. She avoids anything that might endanger her safety" (security). 3. "It's very important to her to help the people around her. She wants to care for their well-being" (benevolence). The number of portraits for each value ranges from three (stimulation, hedonism, and power) to six (universalism), reflecting the conceptual breadth of the values. The score for the importance of each value is the average rating given to these items. All the value items have demonstrated near equivalence of meaning across cultures in analyses using multi-dimensional scaling (Schwartz, 2005). Following Schwartz's model we aggregated the items into the four higher-order value types: conservation (conformity, tradition, and security; 13 items), self-transcendence (universalism and benevolence; ten items), self-enhancement (achievement and power; seven items), and openness to change (self-direction, stimulation, and hedonism; ten items).

Transformational leadership was measured using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Form 5x-Short) developed by Bass and Avolio (1991) (see also Avolio and Bass, 2004). The shorter version of the MLQ-5X includes 36 items providing descriptions of transactional and transformational behaviors; however, we used only the 20 questions regarding transformational leadership (see also Van Knippenberg and

Sitkin, 2013; Grant, 2012). This scale has four items for each subdimension of transformational leadership: idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. A seven-point response scale (1 = not at all, 7 = frequently, if not)always) was used for all items.

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Affective organizational commitment was measured using Meyer et al.'s (1993) affective commitment scale. This scale includes six items and was measured on a seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

OCB and in-role performance. The Williams and Anderson (1991) scale, a 21-item list, was applied in this study. The principals of the schools were asked to evaluate each of the teachers in the final sample on these items. The 21 items represent three dimensions, where seven items measure in-role performance, seven measure organizational OCB (impersonal OCB directed towards the organization in general), and seven measure altruistic OCB (helping a specific person). Each item is measured on a scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always).

Finally, data were also collected on three control variables: gender (dichotomous). education (ordinal), and age (ratio).

Data analysis

As the sample included teachers from 64 different schools, we analyzed the data using Hierarchical Linear Modeling (Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992, pp. 84-86). The advantage of HLM is that by modeling both individual and group-level residuals, they acknowledge that individuals within one group may be more similar to one another than to individuals in other groups (Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992). In other words, HLM allows us to control for variances among the different schools, and to determine whether the explained variances are affected by the schools, or whether the results represent only individual differences among the research participants. In addition, the use of different levels of data – individual values reported by the principals and commitment by the teachers – calls for the use of HLM. We used the SAS mixed-model procedure.

The HLM analysis was performed in three steps. First the control variables were entered, then the four individual values. Transformational leadership and affective commitment were entered in the third step.

Findings

We first wanted to establish the discriminant validity of the scales applied in the study. We performed an exploratory factor analysis on the 20 items of the transformational leadership scale using principal component analysis. The findings revealed a clear and strong one-factor solution explaining 53.5 percent of the variance. This finding strongly supports the one-dimensionality of the transformational leadership scale, bolstering the conclusion that "[...] the MLQ essentially assesses a single, overarching, second-order construct" (Carless, 1998, pp. 356-357). Indeed, similar findings were reported by Shin and Zhou (2003), Koh *et al.* (1995), Grant (2012), Curphy (1992), and Carless (1998).

Next, confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were performed for the research scales. The first analysis compared the fit for the two-factor model for transformational leadership and affective commitment to a one-factor model. The two-factor model revealed the following fit indices: $\chi^2 = 1272.96$ (df = 298; χ^2 /df = 4.27; GFI = 0.90; CFI = 0.93; IFI = 0.93; NFI = 0.91; and RMSEA = 0.057. These fit indices are quite high

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and much better than those for the one-factor model ($\chi^2 = 2,105.10$ (DF = 299; $\chi^2/\text{df} = 7.04$; GFI = 0.83; CFI = 0.88; IFI = 0.88; NFI = 0.86; and RMSEA = 0.078). A χ^2 difference test also indicated that the three-factor model fit significantly better than the one-factor model (χ^2 difference = 832.14; df = 1; $P \le 0.001$).

The second analysis compared the fit for the three-factor model for the performance dimensions (incorporating altruistic OCB, organizational OCB and in-role performance) to a one-factor model. The three-factor model produced $\chi^2=450.89$ (df = 187); χ^2 /df = 2.57; GFI = 0.91; CFI = 0.92; IFI = 0.87; NFI = 0.85; and RMSEA = 0.064. In the one-factor model, the fit indices were $\chi^2=4,072.86$ (df = 190); χ^2 /df = 21.44; GFI = 0.50; CFI = 0.66; NFI = 0.65; and RMSEA = 0.16. Again, the fit indices for the three-factor model are much better than those for the one-factor model. A χ^2 difference test again confirmed these results (χ^2 difference = 3,621.97; df = 3; $P \le 0.001$).

We did not perform CFA for the values scales because of the small sample size (n = 64). It should be noted, however, that Schwartz's scales are well-established and have been validated in numerous samples across the world (Fontaine *et al.*, 2008; Schwartz, 1992, 2005; Schwartz and Sagiv, 1995).

Table I presents the basic statistics of the variables and the inter-correlations among them. Results show acceptable reliabilities of the research variables, all of them 0.70 and above. The correlations among the independent variables were not high and preclude the possibility of multicollinearity.

Table II presents the HLM analysis of the control variables, individual values, and the two exchange variables on the three performance dimensions. H1, which postulated that teachers working for principals with higher levels of openness to change and self enhancement would score higher in organizational OCB and in-role performance, was not supported. As can be seen in Table II, higher levels of openness to change were associated with increased altruistic OCB, and self-enhancement was not related to any of the performance dimensions. H2, postulating that teachers working for school principals with higher levels of conservation and self-transcendence would score higher in altruistic OCB, was also not supported by the data. Table II shows that self-transcendence was positively related to in-role performance, and conservation had no significant relationship with any of the performance dimensions.

H3, which postulated that transformational leadership would be positively related to both dimensions of OCB and to in-role performance, was strongly supported by the data. The findings in Table II show a strong and positive effect of transformational leadership on all three dimensions of performance. H4, which claimed that employees' affective organizational commitment would be positively related to both dimensions of OCB and to in-role performance, was also strongly supported by the data. The findings in Table II show a strong and positive effect of organizational commitment on all dimensions of performance.

Two additional points should be mentioned. First, while it is not possible to obtain a true R^2 value in HLM, there are statistics that provide a value of the total variance that can be explained by the model, and they are often referred to as R^2 or pseudo R^2 values. We used one such formula, suggested by Kreft and de Leeuw (1998) and Singer (1998). The calculations showed that the HLM models explained 11 percent of the variance for in-role performance and organizational OCB, and 13 percent of the variance for altruistic OCB. Second, it is important to point out that, as can be seen in Table II, in all models the random variance of the group was significant. This significant variability between groups indicates that it was indeed appropriate to use these models, which

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Variables	Mean	SD	-	2	က	4	2	9	7	8	6	10	11	12
Demographics														
1. Gender	1.63	0.48												
2. Education	3.14	0.49	-0.12***											
3. Age	38.15	8.07	-0.44**	0.03										
4. Openness to Change	3.59	0.68	0.02	0.03	-0.41***	(0.76)								
5. Conservation	3.67	09.0	-0.28***	+90.0-	-0.03	0.21								
6. Self-Transcendence	3.30	09.0	-0.01	0.02	-0.38***	0.53		(0.70)						
7. Self-Enhancement	4.28	0.46	-0.12***	0.04	-0.11***	0.34	***0.49	***0.14	(0.70)					
8. Transformational leadership	2.60	1.03	-0.01	0.04	-0.14***	-0.16**		-0.14***	-0.10***					
9. Organizational commitment	5.70	1.07	0.02	-0.53	0.00	0.07		0.00	-0.02	0.51	(0.73)			
10. In-role performance		0.88	-0.01	0.07*	0.07	90.0		0.04	-0.14**	0.25**	* ***0.25	(06.0)		
11. Organizational OCB	5.70	0.85	-0.01	0.09**	0.01	-0.03		-0.10**		0.30**	0.26***	0.65***	(0.70)	
12. Altruism OCB	4.54	1.33	-0.04	0.01	90.0	-0.20***			0.20***	0.24**	0.29***	0.57***		(0.92)
Notes: $n = 1,145.1,202$ depend	ding or	n the 1	nissing va	alues. $1 =$	= Male; 2=	= female *	$p \le 0.05; **p$	ding on the missing values. $1 = \text{Male}$; $2 = \text{female } *p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le$	≤0.001					
														١

Table I. Descriptive statistics, reliabilities (in parentheses), and inter-correlations among research variables

Independent Variables	Sten 1	Altruism OCB	Sten 3	Org	Organizational OCB	CB Sten 3	In-1	In-role performance Sten 2	ce Sten 3
u	881	881	881	881	881	881	881	881	881
Intercept	4.07 (0.40)	4.06 (0.39)	3.87 (0.38)	5.48 (0.26)	5.49 (0.26)	5.34 (0.25)	5.71 (0.26)	5.71 (0.27)	5.58 (0.26)
Demographics (teachers) 1. Gender (1 = male; 2 - female)	-0.01 (0.09)	-0.01 (0.09)	-0.04 (0.08)	0.04 (0.06)	0.03 (0.06)	0.02 (0.06)	0.11 (0.06)	0.11 (0.06)	(90.0) 60.0
2. Education	0.21 (0.08)**	0.21 (0.08)** 0.21 (0.08)**	0.25 (0.07)	0.11 (0.05)*	0.11 (0.05)*	0.14 (0.05)*	0.12 (0.05)*	0.12 (0.05)*	0.15 (0.05)**
3. Age	-0.00 (0.01)	-0.00 (0.00)	-0.00 (0.00)	-0.00 (0.00)	-0.00 (0.00)	-0.00 (0.00)	-0.01 (0.00) **	-0.01 (0.00) **	-0.01 (0.00)*
Principal's level variables (values)		*600	6 6 6 7 %		610	9 0 0		(0) (0) (0)	610) 100
4. Openness to change5. Conservation6. Self-enhancement		$0.44 (0.22)^{\circ}$ -0.01 (0.24) -0.11 (0.23)	$0.44 (0.21)^{\circ}$ -0.01 (0.22) -0.12 (0.24)		0.12 (0.14) -0.04 (0.15) 0.20 (0.15)	-0.12 (0.14) -0.04 (0.15) 0.19 (0.14)		0.03 (0.13) -0.13 (0.14) 0.04 (0.14)	0.04 (0.13) $-0.14 (0.14)$ $0.03 (0.14)$
7. Self-transcendence		0.44 (0.32)	0.45 (0.31)		0.27 (0.21)	0.28 (0.20)		0.38 (0.20)	0.39 (0.19)*
Teachers level variables 8. Transformational leadership of principal.			0.18 (0.06)			0.16 (0.03)			0.14 (0.03)
9. Affective organizational commitment			0.24 (0.04)			0.11 (0.03)			0.11 (0.03)
Random variance of school	0.67 (0.82)	0.61 (0.78)	0.55 (0.74)	0.25 (0.50)	0.25 (0.50)	0.23 (0.48)	0.22 (0.46)	0.21 (0.46)	0.20 (0.45)
Notes: Standard errors appear in parentheses. * $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$	ear in parenth	eses. $*p \le 0.05$;	**p<0.01; ***	<i>p</i> ≤0.001					

Table II.
Hierarchical linear modeling analyses (and estimates) of demographics, values, leadership, and commitment on OCB and in-role performance

take the random variance of the group into consideration, rather than assuming that all groups on average perform the same (either in- or extra-role).

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Discussion

This study continues an important research agenda that has begun only recently, namely, examining the effect of individual values on employees' attitudes and behaviors at the individual level. Indeed, by examining the impact of values on OCB and in-role behaviors, this study expands this line of research significantly (Ang et al., 2003; Clugston et al., 2000; Farh et al., 2007). The study contributes to the literature in several ways. First, it examines the mutual effect of exchange variables, leadership, and commitment, together with individual values on important behaviors such as in-role performance and OCB. Second, the data for the study were collected from different sources (data on values and performance from the schools' principals and data on the exchange variables from the teachers). Such an examination provides interesting insights into the relationship examined, together with reducing common method errors. Finally, this study examined Arab teachers, who represent a culture unlike the Western (and largely English-speaking) cultures frequently examined in the literature. Examining such a culture provides us with different insights into the relationships examined here. For example, do theories examined primarily in Western societies hold when examined in a very traditional culture such as the Arab one?

The findings of this study, together with the findings of others (Cohen, 2007), support the need for further examination of individual values in the workplace setting. Individual values shape and affect employees' attitudes and behaviors not only across nations and cultures, but also within a given country or a given ethnic group. One important finding of this study is that the effect of individual values holds even when social exchange variables are included in the equations. The findings showed that openness to change and self-enhancement are related to two of the outcome variables even when their effect is evaluated after the inclusion of exchange variables. This finding strongly supports continuing to examine individual values as predictors of attitudes and behaviors in the workplace. It should be noted that the HLM analysis controlled for any variations that can be attributed to differences among the schools in the levels of commitment and outcomes. Thus, the findings here strongly reflect individual-level variations, not organizational ones.

However, the effect of individual values on the outcome variables was not as we expected. More specifically, the findings here show that values which represent openness to change were positively related to altruistic OCB, and values that represent self transcendence were positively related to in-role performance. We expected openness to change to be related to organizational OCB and in-role performance, and we expected self-transcendence to be related to altruistic OCB. However, our study was unusual in that we were not measuring values and outcomes in the same individual. Rather, we expected to find a relationship between values expressed by one individual in a leadership position and specific behaviors in that person's followers. Moreover, it must be remembered that the principals provided the data not only on their own values, but also on the teachers' performance and OCB. Could this fact have affected the nature of the relationship found here? This possibility cannot be precluded.

As it is, though, possible explanations for our findings suggest themselves. First, principals who hold strong openness-to-change values (namely, self-direction and stimulation) may in fact convey something to their teachers that encourages them to perform more altruistic OCB. Perhaps teachers whose principals promote autonomy

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ultimately develop a greater sense of confidence and freedom, which allow them to put in the time and effort needed to help others in the school. As for self-transcendence, it may be that principals who transmit benevolence and universalism receive more respect and attachment from their teachers, who then respond with greater effort and in-role performance in the school. Naturally, both the explanations offered here must be tested in future research with a similar design.

The findings of this study show that exchange is an important mechanism in enhancing in-role performance and, particularly, OCB. This exchange can operate through the stimulation provided by a more abstract factor such as felt commitment, or more tangible factors such as transformational leadership behaviors. The findings in Table II showed a strong, positive, and consistent effect of the two social exchange variables on all three outcomes. The findings here are consistent with those found in previous studies regarding transformational leadership (Fuller *et al.*, 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Lowe *et al.*, 1996) and affective organizational commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 2002). This finding shows that social exchange variables are very important in enhancing performance in a culture far different from the Western-oriented one.

This study has several limitations. First, it relied upon a snapshot-in-time survey design. Such a design consists of a single observation with no control group and limited control over the effects of variables. Second, only one professional group, teachers, was examined here, and one should be cautious about generalizing the results to other occupational groups. Third, the study was performed in one culture, namely the Arab school system in Israel, and its findings might be pertinent only to this particular culture. For example, the results of the exploratory factor analysis showing one strong factor for all items of transformational leadership may be attributable to the collectivist nature of the Arab culture examined here. Similar findings were reported by Shin and Zhou (2003) in a Korean sample and Koh *et al.* (1995) in Singapore, both representing collectivist cultures such as the one examined here. Therefore, this study must be replicated in other settings, particularly individualistic cultures, before firm conclusions can be drawn.

Despite these limitations, the findings of this study demonstrate the importance of individual values and social exchange variables in better understanding in-role performance and OCB in the workplace. The results suggest that many of the theories developed in western cultures can be generalized to a different and traditional culture such as the Arab one. The literature would benefit from further research into the role of values and exchange in psychological contracts – in particular, research exploring variables that mediate and moderate the relationship between values, social exchange variables, and performance.

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About the authors

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Ebrahem Abd El Majid passed away shortly after completing his dissertation. The paper is based on his work.

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