

**DIVERGENT TALES OF CITIZENSHIP:  
PERSPECTIVES, DISPLAY AND PROMOTION  
OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP  
BEHAVIOURS OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS' STAFF  
IN CHILE**

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*“Education is an act of love,  
and thus, an act of courage...”*

Paulo Freire (1969)

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## List of abbreviations

CCE	Civic and Citizenship Education
CCPS	Critical Case Purposive Sampling
CTP	Citizenship Training Plan
DEP	Direction of Public Education
DME	Departments of Municipal Education
DOJ	Distributive Organisational Justice
EMA	Educational management agreement
HRM	Human Resource Management
ICCS	International Civic and Citizenship Study
IOJ	Interactional Organisational Justice
GOCB	Group-level Organisational Citizenship Behaviours
LSPE	Local Services of Public Education
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
MCS	Multiple Case Study
NCCT	National Commission in Citizenship Training
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours
OD	Organisation Development
OJ	Organisational Justice
OJS	Organisational Justice Scale
PADEM	Annual plan of Municipal Educative development
PCT	Participation, and Citizenship Training
PEI	Institutional Educational Project
PEL	Local Strategic Plan
PGC	Parents and Guardians' Councils
PISE	School Safety Plan
PME	Educational Improvement Plan
POJ	Procedural Organisational Justice
SD	School District
SIMCE	National System for the Evaluation of Learning Outcomes
SLR	Systematic Literature Review
TPU	Technical Pedagogic Unit
UCA	Unit of Curriculum and Assessment
WoS	Web of Science

## **ABSTRACT**

Chile has been recognised as one of the most unequal societies in the world, and its educational system is one of the most segregated (OECD, 2012). It has been explained that historical and economic causes have influenced this. Indeed, a long and violent dictatorship that suppressed civic and civil rights and implemented a neoliberal system has been perceived as one of the most critical factors. Back to democracy, Chilean citizens had to learn to live in a democratic society again, showing disconformity towards the system. In this regard, experts have suggested that education is key to overcoming inequalities and encouraging engaged citizens. However, most research has been dedicated to the school level and teachers, failing to acknowledge the pivotal role that school districts, and their staff have in promoting and ensuring these.

Accordingly, this research aims to identify citizenship perspectives encouraged in Chile's educative policies. Also, to analyse the forms of OCB manifested by staff from the new (LSPE) and old (DME) school districts in Chile and their outcomes for the district.

The theoretical framework explores the construct, debates, and advantages of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours. Furthermore, when predictors of these behaviours are analysed, Organisational Justice emerges as a key factor that can impact them. Equally, different perspectives of citizenship are presented, reflecting on the need for a contextualised approach that considers the particularities of Latin American societies.

This qualitative research is developed through a Multiple Case Study in four school districts in Chile. The methods for data collection are mixed and include documents, textbooks, laws, semi-structured interviews, and surveys (Group Organisational Citizenship Behaviours and Organisational Justice scales). A total of 48 participants partook in the study.

The first objective is to examine how Citizenship Education has been encouraged in national educative policies. In this sense, the findings expose that the legislation promotes citizenship through different instruments (such as plans and programmes). Also, this is encouraged through participative organisms for educative governance and the (discontinuous) module of Citizenship Education. However, different regulations per type of school district are exposed, evidencing that private administration is less regulated and instances for the promotion of citizenship are limited or non-mandatory.

Following this, the curricular analysis unveils that the central encouragement during the Chilean dictatorship was National citizenship. Back to democracy, other conceptions have been introduced in the curriculum, including Post-national, Democratic and Social, Active, Multicultural, Intercultural, Ethnic and Digital citizenship.

The second objective is to examine different manifestations of citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE. Most citizenship perspectives are encouraged transversally, but only LSPE-2 unveils a genuine exercise of Intercultural citizenship. In terms of OCB, the findings unveil that participants manifest its five forms at the individual and group level. However, Civic virtue is mainly promoted at the school level.

Finally, the third objective is to examine the main factors influencing citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE. Barriers and facilitators at the societal and organisational levels are identified. Moreover, perceptions of unfair Distributive and Procedural Organisational Justice are exposed, but perceptions of fair Interactional Justice are mentioned and facilitated by the leaders.

Regarding outcomes or consequences of these barriers and facilitators, the lack of articulation and tensions in employment relations are mentioned at the group level. At the individual level, participants mention burnout due to heavy workload. Nevertheless, they feel engaged and manifest a long trajectory in the educative system.

This study constitutes a unique contribution to the Chilean and Latin American context, as scarce research in OCB and OJ has been developed in these contexts. Furthermore, considering that most studies have been centred on the school and teachers' level, this research presents the perspectives of school district staff.

Regarding methodological contribution, scholars have centred mainly on developing quantitative studies concerning OCB and OJ. In this regard, the present thesis advances to explore the voices and subjectivities of actors by developing a qualitative study.

**Keywords:** Citizenship; Participation; Organisational Citizenship Behaviours; Organisational Justice; School systems.

## DECLARATION

No portion of the work referred to in the thesis has been submitted in support of an application for another degree or qualification of this or any other university or other institute of learning.

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Her research interests focus on participation, citizenship, OCB, educative leadership, HR management, qualitative research and equality, diversity, and inclusion.

Finally, sections of this work are currently considered for publication or about to be published (in press, see Annexes). Also, findings of this study have been presented at the American Educational Research Association, AERA 2021 and 2022 Conferences.

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## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

One of the most significant challenges that developing societies are currently facing is how to overcome inequality. An example can be found in Latin America, where its countries share common historicity of colonisation (Freire, 1968) and dictatorships (Cuenca, 2012). This shared history has undoubtedly influenced the local cultures at several levels, including the accentuation of social inequalities and segregation among their citizens. An alternative that has been widely recognised to overcome global and local inequalities is through the development of a country's education. Indeed, the OECD (2012) proposes that education equity can contribute to social cohesion and economic competitiveness. Hence, this exposes the relevance of centring the focus of this research within the educational sector.

In addition, most Latin American societies are engaging in social and economic development strategies. However, one of its countries evidences the paradox of having the most significant economic development in the zone in the last years and one of the most unequal societies and segregated educational systems in the world (OECD, 2009). This is the case in Chile. Considering these antecedents, this thesis will focus on this particular country.

In light of the cited historical inheritance of Chile, which will be analysed in more detail in the chapters dedicated to the Literature Review (Chapter 2), this study acknowledges two pivotal antecedents: Chile has one of the most segregated educational systems, and the military dictatorship (1973-1989) contributed to this purpose (Marcel, 2009; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007). During this period, several neoliberal regulations were encouraged, such as policies that privatised public

education, through subsidies for private-owned schools (voucher system), introducing an offer of education based on the achievement of standards and competition between schools, where the parents and students became customers. Also, during this period, an ideologized curriculum was implemented, prohibiting any dissonant thinking, among other types of repression (Marcel, 2009; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007).

Following this, despite the Concertation<sup>1</sup> democratically governed Chile for 25 years after the military dictatorship, no significant reforms in education matters were proposed to change the basis of the system (1990-2015). In this regard, these governments superposed to the current system, other actions to improve education that accentuated the inequality and segregation within the Chilean society (Raczynski & Salinas, 2008). However, to overcome this sustained inequality and educational segregation, recently since 2016, the Chilean educational system has been immersed in one of the most significant reforms of its history. According to the Ministry of Education of Chile (Mineduc, 2018), this reform aims to strengthen the quality of public education by ending both the voucher system and the administration of public schools by municipalities (Departments of Municipal Education. Hereafter-abbreviated DME). Moreover, the reform creates a new organisational structure for school districts to encourage participation and decision-making of the schools' communities: the Local Services of Public Education (Hereafter- abbreviated LSPEs).

Hence, considering the work conducted in the field (Marcel, 2009; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007), it is reasonable to suggest that in Chile, the educational sector is still influenced by the ideologies implemented in a period of military dictatorship. Therefore, the workers that are part of this system are likely to still perpetuate Citizenship values and behaviours promoted in that period and sustained in the

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<sup>1</sup> Coalition of Centre-left political parties in Chile, founded to overturn the dictatorship.



following years. Despite this, Chile provides an interesting scenario considering that currently, two organisational structures coexist: the new school districts (LSPEs) that are in implementation and the old school districts (DMEs) created during the military dictatorship.

Among the characteristics that differentiate LSPEs from DMEs, it can be highlighted that the first formally encourages the participation of educative communities in a series of participative organisms (Local Council and a district's Directive Committee). The aim is to involve educative actors in managing their schools and other schools in the district to create collaborative communities (Mineduc, 2018). On the other hand, the DME management involves mainly the participation of the City's Mayor, the Town Council and the DME director or manager (Centro de Estudios Mineduc, 2017). Thus, this structure limits the participation of the school community to an "in-walls" activity, where these actors are informed about their schools' and territories' management. However, they do not participate in decision-making processes of their school and their district. Accordingly, as the Ministry of Education of Chile (Mineduc, 2018) declares, the new education system in Chile advances from informing the school community to "*encouraging their participation as citizens*" (p. 26).

Considering what has been presented in this introductory chapter, this research aims to explore and compare the Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (hereafter-abbreviated OCB) of staff from school districts (DME) created in Chile during the period of Dictatorship and the period of democracy (LSPE). In this regard, it must be considered that most of the research on OCB has failed to acknowledge that individuals, and the organisations they are part of, are influenced by their context (von Bertalanffy, 1956). This researcher considers that the analysis of an organisation's

context has pivotal importance for its understanding. Thus, among these pages, it will be explored the relevance of the socio-historical context in promoting ideologies on the public policies of a country.

Several authors have proposed that to understand what influences OCB; it is necessary to identify the perceptions of Organisational Justice (hereafter abbreviated OJ) since the literature states that OCB influences OJ and vice versa (Diehl et al., 2018; Gurbuz et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018; Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018; Schmidt et al., 2018; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Furthermore, since Organisational Justice has its roots in Social Justice, the Equity Theory (Adams, 1965) and the Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), it is possible to propose that the context permeates the organisational dynamics and how their members are treated. This antecedent acquires particular relevance in the case of organisations created during critical periods, such as dictatorships. For the exposed reasons, this research proposes as aims i) to identify perspectives of citizenship encouraged in the national educative policies in Chile, and ii) to analyse the forms of OCB manifested by staff from the new (LSPE) and old (DME) school districts in Chile and their outcomes for the district.

Finally, the present introductory chapter explains the background of this research, the rationale, aim and objectives, and states the structure of the Doctoral Thesis.

## **1.1 Research background**

Organisational Citizenship Behaviours have been studied for forty years since Dennis Organ coined the construct in 1983. OCB is also known as the “*good soldier syndrome*” that employees perform in an organisation (Bateman & Organ, 1983). It has been analysed in multiple industries and organisational settings, especially in the private sector as a strategy to improve organisational performance and attain

organisational goals (Koys, 2006; MacKenzie et al., 1991; Organ, 1997; Organ & Ryan, 1995). OCB has been generally understood as an individual's discretionary actions to support the social and psychological environment. It comprises five elements or dimensions: Altruism, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, Courtesy, and Civic virtue (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Bostanci, 2013; Neves, 2014; Organ, 1997). The concept of OCB and its dimensions will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.2 of this thesis.

In this regard, considering that the original roots of OCB are found in the Social Exchange Theory and social psychological experiments (Bateman & Organ, 1983), most studies still focus on the individual level. In consequence, as it will be argued in Chapter 2.2, most of the existent research is still failing to acknowledge that organisations are influenced by the context strains such as the political and social environment, and in turn, these influence the organisational members (Diehl et al., 2018; Oplatka, 2006). In this sense, among the commonly analysed individual variables influencing OCB, commitment, burnout, leadership, and personal traits can be mentioned (Abd El Majid, & Cohen, 2015; Abu Nasra & Heilbrunn, 2016; Arain et al., 2017; Bostanci, 2013; Kaya, 2015; Li & Hung, 2009; Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Tsemach, 2014; Shapira-Lishchinsky & Raftar-Ozery, 2018). Moreover, studies analysing OCB and district leadership or OCB in dictatorial and post-dictatorial contexts are limited.

Regarding the application of OCB to the educational context, as will be explained in Chapter 2.3, the first studies focusing on the educational sector were published only in the early 2000s. Since then, these have been mainly centred on teachers at the school level. Furthermore, as in the case of research on industries, these studies also analyse OCB at the individual level, relating it to factors such as emotions

management (Cheung & Lun, 2015; Oplatka, 2007), gender (Eres, 2010; Yilmaz et al., 2015), role breath towards the students (Belogolovsky, & Somech, 2010), career development (Ahmad et al., 2012), commitment (Bostanci, 2013), engagement (Cheung & Lun, 2015), burnout (Inandi & Buyukozkan, 2013; Somech, 2016), seniority (Yilmaz et al., 2015), trust (Thomsen et al., 2015), mobbing behaviour (Erturk, 2015), and empowerment (Altinkurt et al., 2016) among others.

Indeed, only a few research on OCB in the educational sector have recently advanced towards its study at the group level (Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007), seeking to relate it to superior and peer support (Somech & Ron, 2006), power sources (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012), organisational characteristics (Somech & Ron, 2006), and the contextual factors (Oplatka, 2006). Even fewer studies have involved different educational actors, such as the students (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010), parents (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010), school staff (Oplatka, 2006; Thomsen et al., 2015) and principals (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Oplatka, 2006; Thomsen et al., 2015; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). Nevertheless, there is still scarce research regarding OCB applied to educative actors and staff from school districts, aiming to understand their context and how school districts' policies and organisation.

Following this, international research on educational management suggests that, in front of processes of educative change (i.e., educative reforms), managing the organisational processes of school districts actively is fundamental to improving the quality of education and reducing social segregation and inequality (Anderson et al., 2010; Trujillo, 2013; Umekubo et al., 2013). In this respect, school districts are organisations that can connect the national policies with educational management at the local level. In addition, these can accumulate staff capabilities for local development (Ministerio de educación, 2018). For the exposed reasons, transferring

the attention from the schools as isolated organisations to organisms that are part of a context, becomes relevant in societies that seek to develop and overcome their disadvantages and challenges.

Besides, it can be argued that as the school districts connect national policies with the local level, these can also promote certain ideologies of Citizenship underpinning the political and social background.

There are different perspectives on understanding this construct and who should be considered a citizen. For instance, National Citizenship, Post-National Citizenship (Aneesh & Wolover, 2017; Hafner-Fink, Malnar, & Uhan, 2013), Multicultural or Ethnic Citizenship (Beaman, 2015), Cosmopolitan/Global Citizenship (Martín-Cabello, 2017; Moon & Koo, 2011; Nash, 2009; Wagner, 2004), among others. For instance, at the general level, Unesco (2017) explains that, from a Global Citizenship perspective, citizens can contribute to a more just, peaceful, tolerant, inclusive, and secure world and that citizenship is manifested in behaviours, cognitions, and socio-emotional acts. Furthermore, from a National Citizenship perspective, citizens are those who meet specific requirements to achieve membership, which evidences a tension between the inclusion and exclusion of individuals. Once these requirements are met, to legitimate the State, the system should enable citizens to actively participate in the social arena, such as the political decisions that affect them.

From this perspective, considering citizens' potential contribution to their society, it can be suggested that dictatorial systems, such as the one experienced in Chile, can influence Citizenship behaviours and conceptions. In fact, according to Luengo-Kanacri, and Jiménez-Moya (2017), Oliva (2010), Raczynski, and Salinas (2008), among other scholars, a dictatorship such as the Chilean (1973-1989) was

characterised by suppressing the civil values and the participation in political decisions, trespassing human rights and with this, perceptions of fair treatment. Furthermore, in the case of educative settings, the dictatorship controlled and limited the freedom of expression, teaching, and curriculum, among others. This can be considered critical considering that educative settings are places where civic and social skills should be promoted, in addition to the values of educating active citizens that will be politically and civically part of the society (Freire, 1968, 1970; Luengo-Kanacri & Jiménez-Moya, 2017). Following this, school districts promote specific civic values according to the political and social context. Thus, during a period of dictatorship, it is expected that the citizenship values promoted will be considerably different from those values of citizenship encouraged during democracy.

## **1.2 Rationale**

It can be proposed that the role of school districts is fundamental and strategic for developing education and citizenship. These are organisations capable of both; dialogue considering the local demands of the territory (bottom-up) and implementing the requests of the public policies (top-down) (Campbell & Fullan, 2006; Kowalski & Limber, 2007). Indeed, for the Chilean case, Raczynski (2012) proposes that the intermediate or district level works as a “hinge” between the base of the educative system (schools and educative communities) and the national level. Accordingly, these can help balance forces from the top (i.e., curriculum, standards, etcetera) with demands from the bottom (i.e., teaching, professional development, competencies, leadership, etcetera). Furthermore, the National School Boards Association (NSBA, 2017) provides research to support that school districts have a central role in improving schools and the students’ lives, particularly in chronically underperforming schools.

In this regard, since organisations such as School Districts are part of a social context that influences them, these issues have been relatively unexplored in the field of OCB. A plausible alternative to acknowledge the importance of the background's influence is through the perspective of Organisational Justice. The construct of OJ coined by Jerald Greenberg (1993, 1996) proposes that if members of an organisation are fairly treated, these are likely to manifest OCB. However, most studies in the field have analysed it through three dimensions: Distributive, Procedural and Interactional Justice (Diehl et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018; Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018; Schmidt; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Moreover, applied to the educational sector, research that analyses OJ and OCB has been limited to just a few studies conducted in Turkey and Israel (Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Cohen & Keren, 2008; Tastan & Yilmaz, 2008). Besides the analysis of variables acknowledging the impact of the political context (such as dictatorial and post-dictatorial contexts), it is still a gap in the literature that the present research aims to address.

Following this, Latin America was divided by both dictatorships that limited citizens' rights during the 70s and 80s. Also, a neoliberal system encouraged in this period has stimulated for decades the segregation and social inequality of its population (Cuenca, 2012). In particular, the case of Chile is an example of this, where neoliberalism has had a significant influence on Chilean society through the promulgation of profound free-market policies that privatised the public sector, shaping the society.

Furthermore, it can be suggested that this suppression of civil rights is still reflected in a notorious resistance of the Chilean citizens to participate in executing their civic duties in instances such as voting in the elections. Besides, among the consequences of these policies oriented toward individualist values, the trust of

Chilean citizens in political institutions has decreased (66% of the Chileans have low or no trust) (Luengo-Kanacri & Jiménez-Moya, 2017). In addition, there has also been a sustained decrease and significant voter turnout since the return to democracy. In fact, according to El Mercurio (2017), only 46,4% of the registered voters participated in the presidential election of 2017. In the field of education, the suppression of civic rights and emphasis on individualism promoted by neoliberal policies turned Chile into one of the most segregated educational systems in the world (OECD, 2009). Furthermore, the International Civics and Citizenship Survey-ICCS (Jara & Sánchez, 2018) expose that most Chilean students from 8<sup>o</sup> grade show more civic knowledge than behaviours. Besides, 57% of them would justify a dictatorship if this brought social security (Díazgranados & Sandoval Hernández, 2017).

Following this, it can be suggested that the challenges for democratic governments are significant. Indeed, recent policies promulgated in Chile aspire to overcome the inequalities and segregation intensified during the period of dictatorship (Marcel, 2009). However, as stated earlier, most of these have not touched upon the system's roots and have only intensified the impact of the imperative economic model (Moreno-Doña & Gamboa, 2014; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007).

For the reasons mentioned above, it is necessary to analyse the different educational public policies that have influenced Chilean society's citizenship behaviours (Luengo-Kanacri & Jiménez-Moya, 2017). An example of the pivotal relevance of analysing the Chilean educative policies is that to tackle the described problem, in 2016, Law 20.911 was promulgated. This policy creates mandatory plans for Citizenship Education in educative establishments (Biblioteca del Congreso Nacional, 2016). Furthermore, as mentioned before, a significant educative reform took place, which created LSPEs, replacing the system of districts created during the



dictatorship (DMEs). As the process of LSPEs' implementation organisations will continue at least until 2025, currently, in Chile coexist, two different types of school districts: those created during the period of dictatorship and created during democracy.

Following this, as previously mentioned, one of the key theoretical assumptions of this research is concerning the importance of socio-political contexts in organisations, including school districts. Different authors declare that organisations are open systems influenced by the strains of the context (Porter, 1979; von Bertalanffy, 1956). In this respect, it is reasonable to infer that the citizenship values and behaviours promoted by organisations created during democracy (LSPEs) will differ from those promoted by organisations created in a context where civil rights were suppressed (DMEs). This, is because the perceptions of fair treatment (OJ) and OCB in the latter could be reduced or discouraged.

In other words, the first hypothesis of this research is that the organisational structure and functioning of the school districts created during the Chilean dictatorship (DMEs) might limit the encouragement of citizenship and OCB in contrast to school districts created in democracy (LSPEs). From the first, educational actors (including district staff) are likely to expose less or limited OCB than their LSPEs counterparts.

A second hypothesis is that educative policies, throughout the years, have discouraged citizenship behaviours, diminishing the school district's staff manifestations of OCB (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Jimmieson et al., 2016).

Besides, as explained by national (Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007; Raczynski & Salinas, 2008) and international research (Campbell & Fullan, 2006; Kowalski & Limber, 2007; NSBA, 2017), one of the best alternatives to overcome inequalities and segregation in societies, it is through education. Consequently, the relevance of this research lies in studying the influence of OCB, acknowledging the historical and

contextual factors that influence these perceptions among educational actors in school districts. The context is pivotal in influencing citizens, especially in a post-dictatorial society such as Chile. Moreover, considering that most studies about OCB within school settings have focused mainly on applying questionnaires to teachers and have not attempted to understand their perspectives, the present research contributes to two aspects described next.

First, the study involves educational actors from the new (LSPE) and the old (DME) systems of School Districts in Chile, going beyond the study of teachers to advance toward school district staff. Second, this qualitative Multiple Case Study is developed through mixed methods, which allows a methodological contribution that provides complemented and triangulated results. In addition to applying a scale, as usually done by the researchers in this field, semi-structured interviews were conducted to advance towards an understanding of the participants' significations and manifestations of citizenship and OCB. Additionally, to understand the citizenship encouraged in Chile, a Thematic Analysis of citizenship in the educative legislation and history textbooks in Chile will be conducted, from the dictatorship to the present.

As a result, this research aims to provide a multi-level understanding of the factors impacting the OCB of members of school districts in Chile. Furthermore, the findings can provide practical information for policymakers, district leaders, educative communities, and school administrators not only from Chile but also from other contexts affected by the suppression of human rights or dictatorships.

### **1.3 Aims and objectives**

Considering what has been exposed as background and rationale, this research has two aims. First, to analyse the forms of OCB manifested by staff from the new

(LSPE) and old (DME) school districts in Chile and their outcomes for the district. Second, to identify citizenship perspectives encouraged in Chile's educative policies.

The researcher believes that the context has a relevant influence. For this reason, it is plausible to suggest that the socio-political environment has a role in influencing the promotion or limitation of OCB. Hence, the specific objectives proposed to answer the aim of this research are:

- 2 To examine how Citizenship Education has been encouraged in national educative policies.
- 3 To examine different manifestations of citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE.
- 4 To examine the main factors influencing citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE.

#### **1.4 Research structure**

This Doctoral Thesis is structured in six chapters, which are outlined below:

**Chapter 1: Introduction.** This chapter contains the research background, rationale, aim and objectives.

**Chapter 2: Literature Review.** Organised into different thematic sections mentioned as follows:

**Section 2.1: Understanding Citizenship.** This chapter revises the evolution of the concept and its application in the Latin American context, characterised by colonisations, civil wars, and dictatorships. Finally, a framework based on characterising Citizenship in the educational sector, the Latina American educational sector and in the specific context of Chile is reviewed.

**Section 2.2: Why Citizenship? Approaches and theories to understanding Organisational Citizenship Behaviours.** This chapter provides a revision of the theoretical roots that inspired OCB. Furthermore, the debates regarding its understanding and the dimensions involved are presented. Finally, the chapter revises the application of OCB to the educative sector.

**Section 2.3: Approaches and theories to Organisational Justice.** This chapter unveils the principal antecedents to the proposal of the concept. Thus, theories, debates and the dimensions involved are presented. Finally, a revision regarding applying the concept in the educative sector is provided. To conclude, a summary of the literature review is shown in section 2.4.

**Chapter 3: Research Methods.** This chapter presents the philosophical assumptions on the base of this study. The main methodology, methods, and ethical considerations are presented.

**Chapter 4: Findings.** This is organised in objectives and research questions per objective, presenting the results of each enquiry.

**Chapter 5: Discussion.** This chapter reflects on the findings concerning the research questions.

**Chapter 6: Conclusion.** This reflects on what was learned in this research journey by providing conclusions per objective. Following this, limitations and recommendations for research, practitioners, policymakers, and educative communities are provided.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Understanding citizenship**

#### **2.1.1 Conceptions of Citizenship**

To advance towards understanding OCB, it is necessary first to consider that these behaviours are delivered and manifested by people that belong to a context. Consequently, exploring what societies commonly understand and practice as “citizenship” is particularly relevant.

Accordingly, the present chapter explores the different conceptions and theoretical approaches to citizenship. In this regard, this revision aims to answer the question “Why citizenship?” by exposing the relevance and significant contributions that this may have in organisational settings. Among the topics presented in this and the following sections, it will be argued that organisations are influenced by contextual variables, such as the socio-political environment, and scholars should not ignore this (von Bertalanffy, 1956).

Thus, this chapter will first explore the conceptions of citizenship from classic to modern approaches. Following this, section 2.1.1.3 is a revision of the construct in the Latin American context. Afterwards, a theoretical framework regarding citizenship in the educative sector is exposed (section 2.1.2). Finally, to advance toward the mentioned situated understanding of citizenship, Chile's case will be analysed (section 2.1.2.2).

##### **2.1.1.1 Evolution of the concept of Citizenship**

The construct of citizenship has evolved since Aristotle (4<sup>th</sup> century BC) proposed a political perspective of citizenship. This philosopher suggested that

citizens were those members of the city-state or *polis*. This status of membership was given to people from a specific social class who were actively involved in the decisions of the polis and who would participate in reaching a common good (Aristotle, trans. 1999; Graham, 2000; Wagner, 2004). From this perspective, citizens are political actors (Riquelme-Muñoz, 2018) with responsibilities such as obedience to the established regulations, loyalty or identification with the system, and participation in the governance (Aristotle, trans. 1999; Graham, 1991). Following this idea, during the known Age of reason, the philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau in his work “*The social contract*”, published in 1762, explained that from the Greek perspective, citizenship could be interpreted as an association or membership within a society. Thus, it is not necessarily related to a geographical location (Rousseau, trans. 1968; Giddens, 1984; Wagner, 2004).

Furthermore, the author explains that a community of individuals defines its membership through the condition of citizenship. In this context, Hafner-Fink et al. (2013) and Wagner (2004) suggest that citizenship is a construct that acts on both sides, including and excluding members. This characteristic has been acknowledged as the base of contemporary societies.

Following this, Thomas Marshall has been recognised as one of the most influential authors in the understanding of citizenship in modern Western societies through his work “*Citizenship and social class*”, published in 1950 (Aneesh & Wolover, 2017; Antoniou & Anderson; 2015; Beaman, 2015; Graham, 1991; Nash, 2009; Tambini, 2001; Wagner, 2004). In this sense, Marshall (1950) proposed that the condition of citizenship involves rights and duties comprised of civil, political, and social elements. The civil component involves the rights that ensure the freedom of the individuals (e.g., freedom of opinion); the political dimension refers to the right to

participate in political power, such as the parliament. Finally, the social element refers to living in a society and accessing different rights that the Welfare State ensures. As the literature explains, this conception of citizenship historically evolved toward State-centred citizenship focused on welfare and as an answer to World War II (Aneesh & Wolover, 2017; Antoniou & Anderson, 2015; Graham, 1991; Wagner, 2004). Thus, despite the original Aristotelian idea of communitarian citizenship without geographical location, citizenship began to be geographically limited and understood as National Citizenship.

In this context, *National Citizenship* can be understood as the legal and formal status that defines an individual's membership in a nation. In this sense, members of a nation-State are entirely part of it when—civil, political, and social rights—are ensured (Beaman, 2015; Hafner-Fink et al., 2013; Martín-Cabello, 2017; Thornhill, 2018; Van der Ree, 2011). In this regard, it is relevant to propose a distinction between Nationality and National citizenship. Nationality can be understood as the status that recognises that an individual belongs to a specific nation or community, whereas National citizenship refers to the legal status that provides rights and duties (Beaman, 2015; Hafner-Fink et al., 2013; Martín-Cabello, 2017; Oxford University Press, 2019; Thornhill, 2018; Van der Ree, 2011).

Furthermore, as National citizenship is related to legal status, it entails the conception of including and excluding individuals. Thus, there are citizens and noncitizens (Graham, 1991). This tension between the inclusion/exclusion of individuals raised several controversies among societies, which in front of globalisation, faced a series of challenges such as migration and the presence of transnational or multinational organisations (Al-Nakib, 2011; Aneesh & Wolover, 2017). In front of this, as Antoniou, and Anderson (2015), Beaman (2015) and Martín-

Cabello (2017) explain, individuals can be less privileged or even marginalised within a particular society since they cannot access the same rights as National citizens.

In this respect, according to experts on the topic, there has been a consensus on the idea that National citizenship has declined in front of the demands carried with globalisation, where frontiers and borders between countries are more blurred than ever, and the interdependence among nations is crescent (Martín-Cabello, 2017; Moon & Koo, 2011; Tambini, 2001). In this context, the emergence of Post-national citizenship has occurred (Hafner-Fink et al., 2013; Tambini, 2001). *Post-national citizenship* has been proposed as a type of membership where nations adhere to international norms such as human rights, advancing to a duality of external and internal, nation-based norms. Moreover, central elements of Post-national citizenship are the conceptions of active political citizens that participate and manifest their opinions and the acceptance of shared, universal values (Aneesh & Wolover, 2017; Hafner-Fink et al., 2013).

Following this, it is relevant to highlight that this new conception of Citizenship alludes to the classical understanding of the construct. Thus, it goes beyond the geopolitical distribution and emphasises the sense of identity and belonging in a community (Beaman, 2015; Giddens, 1984; Nash, 2009). In this line, according to Beaman (2015) and Martín-Cabello (2017), Citizenship should overcome the inclusion/exclusion tension and emphasise the inclusion of everybody, regardless of their nationality, ethnicity, or any other characteristic, particularly, in light of growing multicultural societies. In this line, different perspectives on Citizenship have been proposed to encourage a global community. This is the case of Cosmopolitan or Global Citizenship, which for this thesis will be used as synonymous considering that the definitions of these constructs are similar.



Even though National Citizenship has not disappeared, *Cosmopolitan or Global Citizenship* emerged to counteract the described limitations regarding the inclusion/exclusion tension (Martín-Cabello, 2017; Moon & Koo, 2011; Nash, 2009; Wagner, 2004). However, in opposition to National Citizenship, Global Citizenship lacks legal status. In this sense, the concept appeals to the idea of fostering a global community, where individuals are conceived as citizens of the world, regardless of the nation where they were born (Aneesh & Wolover; 2017; Martín-Cabello, 2017; Moon & Koo, 2011). It operates as a sociological resource to overcome “*unjust social structures*” (Wagner, 2004, p. 284) and global problems (Hafner-Fink, 2013). Accordingly, Aneesh, and Wolover (2017), Baildon et al. (2016), and Hafner-Fink et al. (2013) propose that this approach seeks to encourage an identity based on universal values, responsibilities and rights, at the same time that recognises local particularities. To achieve this aim, transnational organisations such as the United Nations have worked in this line (Martín-Cabello, 2017), proposing international standards (Aneesh & Wolover; 2017) as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations, 2015).

Considering that Cosmopolitan or Global citizenship lack a formal status (Myers, 2010) and operates appealing to a sense of universal identity, this vision has been criticised. For instance, Martín-Cabello (2017) explains that this type of Citizenship operates more in the ideal sphere than in the practical, and to develop it, the transversal cooperation and commitment of the nations are needed. Moreover, Myers (2010) proposes that Global Citizenship promotes a conception of “*citizens of nowhere*” (p. 499) who hardly will share global values and integrate into a real community if their cultural differences are considered.

In front of the proposed impossibility of convening one common universal culture, and considering the criticisms that National Citizenship has received, theorists have proposed the notion of *Multicultural citizenship* (Beaman, 2015). Multicultural citizenship can also be identified in the literature as *Cultural citizenship* (Beaman, 2015) or *Ethnic citizenship*, which are focused on the paradigm of culture (Vandoninck et al., 2018). From this perspective, culture can be understood as the set of norms, values, practices, and beliefs shared by members of a community where different cultures coexist (CIPD, 2013; Griffin & Pustay, 2015; Elvira & Davila, 2005, House et al., 2004; Sweeney & McFarlin, 2015; Thomas & Peterson, 2015). Furthermore, other authors refer to Adela Cortina's approach to *Intercultural citizenship* which is proposes to advance from the coexistence of different cultures in society to the dialogue between these. In this sense, Intercultural citizenship alludes to respecting differences among cultures, acknowledging them, and deciding on joint agreements (Andía, 2006; Cortina, 2011b).

Furthermore, it has been suggested that Multicultural and Intercultural citizenship emerge as an alternative approach to answer to White-Eurocentric erected models of Citizenship (Beaman, 2015; Bashi & Boatcă; 2016; Tambini, 2001) and understands nations as communities where diverse cultures coexist, which is a differentiator element among societies (Beaman, 2015; Treviño et al., 2017; Vandoninck et al., 2018). Although Multicultural Citizenship also lacks legal status, this perspective aims to acknowledge the societies' complexity and protect the nation's social and cultural differences to guarantee societal inclusion (Beaman, 2015; Haste et al., 2017; Wagner, 2004). Likewise, as Paulo Freire (1968, 1974, 1985, 1990) and Da Matta et al. (2015) highlight, transforming societies can be achieved through

situated mechanisms that acknowledge its members' local, cultural, and contextual characteristics.

Hence, Citizenship can emerge as an alternative to overcome societal inequalities and achieve social cohesion (Hafner-Fink et al., 2013; Wagner, 2004). In this sense, authors suggest that to achieve this aim and advance toward social justice, it is necessary to encourage citizens' deliberation, equity, debate, negotiation, and exchange of opinions. This construct is called *Democratic Citizenship* (Cabrera, 2002; Cortina, 2011a). In addition, other scholars propose that the promotion of *Active citizenship* encourages a sense of belonging in communities that equip citizens with tools to exercise their citizenship in an active and civic manner in political, social and communitarian settings (Cabrera, 2000, 2002).

Finally, it is relevant to mention that the present research acknowledges the influence of the socio-cultural context on the citizens and their organisations. Accordingly, the following section explores these issues.

#### **2.1.1.2 Civic citizens in democratic contexts**

Considering the approaches to Citizenship exposed in the previous section, it is plausible to propose that there is no consensus regarding its understanding. However, the literature agrees that citizens are fundamental actors. For this reason, it is equally relevant to advance from the social and ideological perspective of Citizenship, examining what characterises a citizen and how these, by extension, can influence the organisational context. Besides, it has been suggested that the cultural context and geopolitical environment influence the organisations' governance and the individuals' participation (Elvira & Davila, 2005; Griffin & Pustay, 2015; Truss et al., 2012; Sweeney & McFarlin, 2015). Indeed, scholars have largely studied how host

cultures can influence organisational functioning. In this sense, Elvira, and Davila (2005), Griffin, and Pustay (2015), Truss et al. (2012), and Sweeney, and McFarlin (2015) propose that cultures impact both organisational performance and organisational outcomes. Thus, this section aims to explore what is understood as civic participation and knowledge in socio-political contexts.

Democracy has been one of the most diversified political systems in contemporary Western societies (Haste et al., 2017; Print, 2007; Riquelme-Muñoz, 2018). This system emerges as an alternative to conciliate and overcome conflicts to learn to coexist together in the *polis* (Riquelme-Muñoz, 2018; Treviño et al., 2017). In this line, Haste et al. (2017) and Riquelme-Muñoz (2018) propose that democratic systems guarantee certain civic rights, such as freedom of expression; these are assured by institutions of representative governments, a constitution and by the State. Following this, an essential characteristic of democratic systems is the provision of political participation for the citizens, such as being a political candidate or being able to vote in political elections (Luengo-Kanacri & Jiménez-Moya, 2017; Print, 2007; Riquelme-Muñoz, 2018).

However, despite the previously mentioned characteristics of these political systems, as Dalton (2004) and Print (2007) explain, democracies are currently facing several challenges. These are related to a questioned legitimacy, which has massified an increasing distrust, disillusion and scepticism towards the system and the politicians as a consequence of several corruption scandals, among others. In this sense, the scholar Murray Print (2007) highlights that “*healthy democracies are those where citizens participate*” (p. 330). Moreover, Jara, and Sánchez (2018), Haste et al. (2017), and Print (2007) propose that it is necessary to promote active civic participation of citizens in their social sphere to tackle the crisis of democracy and to encourage the

engagement and responsibility towards the society (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Haste et al., 2017; Print, 2007; Treviño et al., 2017).

Equally, civic participation is encouraged by the citizens' civic knowledge and the abilities and skills to think critically and propose (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Thornhill, 2018; Treviño et al., 2017). In this context, Kwok, and Selman (2017), and Díazgranados, and Sandoval-Hernández (2017) detail that civic knowledge encompasses an understanding of social justice and the historicity of the socio-political system and the nation. Furthermore, Haste et al. (2017) detail that effective civic behaviours must be learned by acknowledging the socio-cultural context. Thus, to summarise, it can be proposed that civic participation and behaviours encompass a set of skills/abilities, situated knowledge and attitudes (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Kwok & Selman, 2017; Treviño et al., 2017).

Finally, it is relevant to highlight that this understanding of citizens' civic behaviours is closely connected to the proposals presented in sections 2.1.1.1 and 2.2.2.2. These concern that citizens that are part of civic and democratic systems are likely to reproduce these behaviours within their workplaces, ensuring the protection of their rights and orientations towards justice for themselves and their colleagues. This assumption is particularly relevant for this research since it highlights the influence of the socio-political context in the workers' OCB.

### **2.1.1.3 Citizenship in the Latin American context**

Considering that this research is situated in the Latin American context, it acquires relevance to provide a revision regarding how the topic of Citizenship has been applied in this region. Thus, this section aims to advance toward a

contextualisation of the specific particularities and difficulties in the exercise of Citizenship.

In this regard, one of the most influential authors on Citizenship in Latin America is Paulo Freire. He exposed a thorough analysis of the emergence of Brazilian societies, a country that shares historicity with other Latin American cultures. The author explains that in the context of European colonisation during the XV and XVI century, colonies were not established to develop a civilisation of participative and critical citizens but with the mere purpose of exploiting the natural resources and enslaving the natives (Freire, 1968, 1974, 1985, 1990; House et al., 2004). Under these conditions, it became impossible to foster a democratic political climate where natives could participate in their country's governance. Indeed, according to the author, an anti-democratic society was developed (Freire, 1974, 1990).

Likewise, as the author explains, the consequence of this domination produced and reproduced for years in Latin America was the negligence of propitiating a democratic-conscious mentality since it was not permitted a dialogue between the authorities and the local communities (Freire, 1974, 1990). Instead, a paternalistic relationship was encouraged (and perpetuated until these days), which is referred to as a patronising attitude from the Landlord towards the worker, where the last is infantilised and his/her autonomy is limited (Browaeyns & Price, 2008; Davila & Elvira, 2012; Elvira & Davila, 2005; House et al., 2004; Martínez, 2005). Moreover, Freire explains that societies where dialogue is restricted become silent societies without civic rights (Freire, 1974); thus, self-government cannot take place. In other words, in contrast to the European origin of societies erected as eminently politic, Latin American societies were submitted to external, oppressive authoritarian regimes (Davila & Elvira, 2012; Elvira & Davila, 2005; Freire, 1974, 1990; House et al., 2004).

Moreover, as the population was not involved in the public-communal arena, it is explained that values such as individualism and lack of autonomy were encouraged (Browaeyns & Price, 2008; Davila & Elvira, 2012; Elvira & Davila, 2005; House et al., 2004; Martínez, 2005). Furthermore, it is possible to suggest that democracy was exported during the XX century from the Western experience and implemented in a decontextualised manner that did not consider the local particularities (Freire, 1974, 1990; Munck, 2010). This antecedent is particularly relevant considering that, as it was explained previously, democracy requires participation, civic knowledge/skills and responsibility of the citizens, characteristics that were not promoted in Latin America (Freire, 1974, 1990).

Following this revision, the modern history of Latin America has been marked by several ruptures to the already delicate democratic systems. In particular, these challenges have been connected to civil wars and military dictatorships in countries such as Argentina, Uruguay, Brazil and Chile, which reached an aligid moment during the XX century (Riquelme-Muñoz, 2018; Treviño et al., 2017). In this context, citizens of the region suffered human rights violations and corruption under authoritarian regimes, deepening social inequalities and limiting their freedom of thinking and participation in these countries (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Treviño et al., 2017; Van der Ree, 2011). Furthermore, Da Matta et al. (2015) explain that in this context, Citizenship Education was characterised by a strong emphasis on routine and obedience. This idea will be developed in more detail in the next section.

In addition, several experts have explained that in countries such as Chile and Brazil, the dictatorships fostered a perspective of rentier States (Moore, 2004), implementing a neoliberal economic system based on capitalism. This system increased the competency between the public and private sector and introduced

procedures based on private-management to the public sector (Bashi & Boatcă, 2016; Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Marcel, 2009; Raczinsky & Muñoz, 2007; Treviño et al., 2017; Van der Ree, 2011). Also, neoliberalism shaped the national policies and regulations in different sectors, such as health and education, developing a clientelist relationship with the citizens, and encouraging individualism instead of communitarian values (Marcel, 2009; Raczinsky & Muñoz, 2007; Treviño et al., 2017). Thus, the citizens became State-costumers (Treviño et al., 2017). Consequently, authors such as Bashi, and Boatcă (2016) and Treviño et al. (2017) explain that the deepened underdevelopment and inequality of the region can be attributed to this economic system. Indeed, according to these authors and the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (2016), Latin America is the world's most unequal region (Bárcena, 2016).

Finally, as was previously mentioned, it can be suggested that democracy is in crisis in several societies (Dalton, 2004; Print, 2007), and the Latin American region is not the exception. In this context, the roots of the crisis cannot only be found in the initial decontextualised implementation of the system but also in the low stimulation of participative citizens and their freedom of thought, summed to the neoliberal policies and scandals of corruption. Consequently, this has been reflected in low trust in the institutions and the reduced voting turnout (Luengo-Kanacri & Jimenez-Moya, 2017; Treviño et al., 2017).

### **2.1.2 Citizenship in the educational context**

Considering that this study is conducted in this setting, the purpose of this section is to unveil this construct's implementation in educational settings to advance towards theoretically answering the aims of the research, which are to analyse,



compare and contrast citizenship behaviours encouraged or inhibited in school districts.

In this sense, several scholars suggest that to strengthen democracies, it is necessary to enhance the populations' citizenship behaviours, civic engagement and understanding of the issue (Da Matta et al., 2015; Jara & Sánchez, 2018; Print, 2007). In this regard, the literature suggests that informed and engaged citizens are more likely to participate in civic issues and to support and reproduce democratic values and norms (Da Matta et al., 2015; Print, 2007).

In this context, although it has been explained that Citizenship Education concerns all the spheres of society, two instances have been highlighted for their role in this matter: the families and the schools (Baildon et al., 2016; Treviño et al., 2017). Regarding the families' influence, Baildon et al. (2016), Jara, and Sánchez (2018), Print (2007), and Treviño et al. (2017) explain that these first instances of socialisation are particularly relevant since these provide examples for their children, about developing a relationship with the State and society. Furthermore, Jara, and Sánchez (2018) and Treviño et al. (2017) provide evidence that associates the social capital and family background with the development of citizens. For example, families with high levels of civic participation, with supportive networks and significant social capital, are more likely to participate in political issues and to encourage these behaviours in their children, fostering active and informed citizens. On the other hand, the same direct relation is expected in families with less social capital, background, and networks.

Following this, Díazgranados, and Sandoval-Hernández (2017), in an analysis based on the Belgian educative context, found that formal education can compensate for and counteract the inequalities and lack of political and civic engagement provided

in the familiar context. Thus, formal education acquires particular relevance as a primary instance of political socialisation and as an alternative to foster citizens regarding the family background. Furthermore, education has been directly associated with encouraging participation, and as a predictor of engaged citizens, with attitudes and democratic practices (Gewirtz, 2000; Jara & Sánchez, 2018; Print, 2007; Slonimsky, 2016). Moreover, Freire (1974, 1990) and Da Matta et al. (2015) propose that transformative-social changes are only possible thanks to education. Indeed, it has been proposed that schools emerge to transform individuals into national citizens, who would learn norms, principles, and values through the formal curriculum (Liu, 2006; Luengo-Kanacri & Jimenez-Moya, 2017; Moon & Koo, 2011; Print, 2007).

In addition, regarding the aforementioned democratic crisis of disenchanting and disengaged citizens, it has been evidenced that this is significantly manifested by the young population of different regions, such as countries of the European Union, United States and Latin America (Schulz et al., 2018; García-Cabrero et al., 2017; Print, 2007). Hence, considering that it has been proposed that the engine of social change and social justice is the participation of engaged citizens (Baildon et al., 2016; Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Freire, 1974, 1990; Gewirtz, 2000; Print, 2007), it is plausible to suggest that it becomes more necessary than ever, to propitiate and encourage Civic and Citizenship Education (Hereafter-CCE) (Schulz et al., 2018; Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Print, 2007; Treviño et al., 2017).

CCE became popular during the '80s in European societies and the American continent, as an alternative to foster competent citizens and to introduce the students to the socio-political structure and values. In this sense, the first approaches to this education were the provision of civic knowledge to the students (Evertsson, 2015; Haste et al., 2017; Riquelme-Muñoz, 2018; Slonimsky, 2016; Treviño et al., 2017).

However, Print (2007), Riquelme-Muñoz (2018), and Slonimsky (2016) propose that this type of education has the potentiality to promote responsibility, autonomy, reflection, and awareness of citizens regarding the social arena. Thus, it becomes necessary to provide a Citizenship Education that not only informs about socio-political systems but also encourages the development of skills, values, habits, and attitudes in order to be involved and responsible in their community (Haste et al., 2017; Luengo-Kanacri & Jimenez-Moya, 2017; Treviño et al., 2017). It is relevant to mention that this approach follows the proposal of UNESCO (2015, 2018) regarding teaching for Global Citizenship in contemporary times, which purpose is to develop these competencies and apply them as citizens of the world, with critical thinking and awareness of both, local and universal issues.

Additionally, as Print (2007) and Treviño et al. (2017) propose, the informal curriculum is equally essential as the formal curriculum in developing critical, participative, and engaged citizens. Following this line, Citizenship should be taught transversally in all subjects and activities conducted in schools since citizenship is about learning to live together. In this context, OCB manifested by educational actors acquire particular relevance since Citizenship learning is inextricably connected to knowledge acquired in the praxis and connection with the social context (Da Matta et al., 2015; Freire, 1974, 1990; Haste et al., 2017; Riquelme-Muñoz, 2018).

Following this idea which considers that Citizenship can be learned in different spheres of the educative context (Da Matta et al., 2015; Haste et al., 2017), it becomes relevant to highlight the role of the organisational characteristics in this matter. In this sense, Baildon et al. (2016), Print (2007), and Treviño et al. (2017) emphasise that educative organisations such as (schools and school districts) play a significant role when they can encourage and support the development of civic knowledge and

attitudes. In this context, Jara, and Sánchez (2018) propose a potential influence between educative leadership (i.e., school principals) with the development of civic competencies among community members. This is through the provision of strategies, regulations and plans that encourage and support the participation of members from educative communities and the maintenance of democratic and caring environments (Print, 2007; Treviño et al., 2017). In this sense, although there is little evidence regarding the specific role of school districts in Citizenship Education, these organisations can set plans and propose strategies for the territory's schools. Accordingly, educative leaders and school districts also play a significant role in providing instances for developing these behaviours.

Moreover, the literature suggests that educative organisations, which promote caring, democratic environments and a favourable school climate, provide a fertile terrain to teach Citizenship since these encourage a civic culture where it can be learned about the issue and be aware of the societal challenges (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Luengo-Kanacri & Jimenez-Moya, 2017; Treviño et al., 2017). At the same time, caring and democratic environments in the school can be translated into ensuring open discussions, providing opportunities to participate in different matters (for both students and staff), and unveiling the relevance of democratic practices such as election and decision-making processes (Luengo-Kanacri & Jimenez-Moya, 2017; Print, 2007; Treviño et al., 2017). Furthermore, Treviño et al. (2007) propose that in schools with less authoritarian practices, where open discussions and democratic practices are promoted, the students are more likely to expose positive behaviours toward other groups, conflict management, and critical thinking. Thus, it is plausible to suggest that organisational policies that support these behaviours and the educative actors who promote and deliver civic instances are

fundamental for fostering citizens (Da Matta et al., 2015; Jara & Sánchez, 2018; Treviño et al., 2017). Equally, it is relevant to highlight that the literature has been focused mainly on analysing the role of schoolteachers in encouraging citizenship behaviours (Da Matta et al., 2015; Freire, 1974, 1990; Jara & Sánchez, 2018; Treviño et al., 2017). However, the author of this research proposes that considering the influence of the informal curriculum (Print, 2007; Treviño et al., 2017) implies that all the educational community's actors are fundamental for the development of citizens.

### **2.1.2.1 Citizenship Education in Latin America**

The literature explains that to achieve effective Civic and Citizenship learnings among the students, it is necessary to contextualise this education using the resources of the setting, such as the school climate, cultural narratives, the experiences of the community and socioeconomic factors (Haste et al., 2017; Slonimsky, 2016). Accordingly, this section focuses on providing information to contextualise how Citizenship Education has been developed in Latin America.

In this regard, Slonimsky (2016) explains that in contexts affected by repressive regimes, such as the experienced in countries of Latin America, the political changes affected the public policies and, in consequence, the educational sector and its curriculum. Furthermore, Baidon et al. (2016) and Slonimsky (2016) explain that these regimes emphasise the development of heteronomous coercive thoughts (opposite to autonomous citizens) to develop citizens that will be obedient and will not complain or question the system. Thus, research suggests that educative policies are expected to be repressive and discourage civic abilities such as the critical thinking, emphasising obedience, routines, and automatic learning of correct answers without questioning (Da Matta et al., 2015; Freire, 1968, 1974, 1985, 1990; Slonimsky, 2016).

Furthermore, it is plausible to suggest that in these periods of repression, the education of professionals is affected since their formative curriculum is disempowering (Freire, 1968, 1974, 1985, 1990; Niens et al., 2013; Slonimsky, 2016). Thus, as Niens et al. (2013) and Slonimsky (2016) observed in their research on education in post-authoritarian regimes, educational actors such as the teachers may face a curricular paradox. This paradox is related to being requested to teach in democratic contexts, with new curriculums that aim to develop autonomous and critical students without having the tools, skills, or knowledge for it. This, considering that these educators received an oppressive and controlled education during the authoritarian regimes centred on aspects such as obedience, dependence on authority and lack of questioning. However, it is relevant to expose that this assumption may not be generalised to all professionals since there are also cases of citizens evidencing opposition and desire for emancipation towards the regimes (Freire, 1968, 1974, 1985, 1990; Niens et al., 2013).

The proposal of Niens et al. (2013) and Slonimsky (2016) acquires particular relevance considering that this thesis aims to examine, compare and contrast the perceptions and citizenship behaviours of members from DME and LSPE school districts in a context affected by a repressive regime and its public policies in education. Indeed, these arguments are aligned with this research's hypothesis, which proposes a difference in OCB displays of professionals and organisations developed during a dictatorship in opposition to those developed in democracy. Furthermore, Slonimsky (2016) explains that if responsible authorities do not actively address the curriculum paradox, it could evolve into an educational crisis. In this sense, the author explains that in contexts where organisational leaders do not actively manage citizenship knowledge and behaviour among their staff, they are expected not to know

how to behave, deliver, or teach citizenship to other actors and students. Thus, it is plausible to propose the potential role that School Districts have in this regard.

Finally it is relevant to mention that in contemporary democratic Latin America, one of the most significant challenges that Citizenship Education faces is regarding Socio-Economic Status (hereafter abbreviated SES) (García-Cabrero et al., 2017). As explained in section 2.1.2, the background influences the Citizenship Education that children receive (Gewirtz, 2000; Jara & Sánchez, 2018; Print, 2007; Slonimsky, 2016). According to the literature, SES has been positively associated with civic learnings and outcomes. However, as Latin America is one of the most unequal regions of the world, the challenge is then related to improving Citizenship Education regardless of the students' SES (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Treviño et al., 2017). Additionally, the International Civic and Citizenship Study (ICCS) supports these findings, evidencing that students' inequalities based on SES are perpetuated by the schools (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Schulz et al., 2018).

The ICCS was applied in 2016 to students from eighth grade in 26 nations, and in Latin America, 140.000 students from Chile, México, Colombia, Dominican Republic, and Peru participated. The following dimensions were measured: democratic participation (i.e., collective decision-making), socio-emotional skills (i.e., capacity to develop healthy relationships), plurality and diversity (i.e., discrimination), and living together in peace (i.e., conflicts' resolution) (Haste et al., 2017). A significant finding of this study is that Citizenship Education cannot be achieved only through regulations and public policies but also through the organisational culture (Schulz et al., 2018; Treviño et al., 2017).

Among the ICCS' findings, two-thirds of the students from Latin America would support dictatorships if these would bring safety and economic and social benefits. However, students with more civic knowledge expose less support to dictatorial regimes. Also, most of them approved of using "out of the law" violence to punish delinquency. Furthermore, students with less civic knowledge expressed more trust in political institutions (Jara & Sánchez, 2018; Schulz et al., 2018). In this regard, it becomes evident that civic knowledge plays a fundamental role in determining the students' perceptions, beliefs, and behaviours.

Advancing towards the context of Chile, where this research is situated, in comparison to other Latin American students, the Chilean pupils gave medium priority to CCE (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017). Furthermore, they exhibited more civic knowledge but less civic attitudes and behaviours. Moreover, 57% of the participants justified a dictatorship if this brought security and order to the society, although this figure was lower than in other countries in the region (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Schulz et al., 2018). Regarding the acceptance of diversity and social cohesion, Chilean students exhibited more tolerance and acceptance (i.e., gay marriage) (Schulz et al., 2018). However, they expressed less agreement when asked about dialogue and negotiation as a medium to reach peace.

Furthermore, compared to other students from the region, Chilean students expressed less empathy than those from other regions (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Schulz et al., 2018). These findings expose the need for encouraging Citizenship in the Chilean educative sector. In this sense, Schulz et al. (2018) also exposed that the students from Chile with more civic knowledge also evidenced more levels of trust in their schools. This is a particularly remarkable result that supports not only the importance of these institutions for the students' lives but also positions the



idea that in these organisations, social change can be fostered (Baildon et al., 2016; Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Freire, 1974, 1990; Gewirtz, 2000; Print, 2007).

Indeed, there are still several challenges in this matter. For instance, Cox, and García (2017), Schulz et al. (2018), and Treviño et al. (2017) highlight that in opposition to other Latin American countries such as Peru and Mexico, until 2016, Chile did not provide a formal subject regarding CCE, but the issue is incorporated in other subjects such as History. Indeed, interestingly, the CCE specialisation is not provided for teachers during their undergraduate education (Jara & García, 2018; Schulz et al., 2018; Treviño et al., 2017). This antecedent could be counterproductive and promote the aforementioned curricular paradox proposed by Slonimsky (2016).

### **2.1.2.2 The construction of Citizenship in Chile**

As this research is located in Chile, it is relevant to provide a historical revision regarding how, in light of the theoretical framework exposed, Citizenship has been experienced in this context.

Chile is a society built on the roots of colonialism (as explained in section 2.1.1.3), and its conceptions of Citizenship have been constantly reformulated. In this regard, the last 55 years are an example of this, evidencing both moments of crisis and internal stability (Schulz et al., 2018; Van der Ree, 2011).

First, during Eduardo Frei's (1964-1970) government, communitarian citizenship was encouraged. This was centred on emancipating the population by extending citizens' rights (Freire, 1974, 1990), such as providing collective representation to agricultural workers and citizens from popular sectors. In this context, organisations such as neighbourhood committees were created (Jocelyn-Holt,

1998; Van der Ree, 2011). Following this government, President Salvador Allende (1970-1973) emphasised political and socialist citizenship based on the Marxist paradigm. The focus was to encourage the participation of working classes in decision-making processes. Hence, trade unions and other similar organisations were invited to be part of formal administrative and political bodies. Besides, the workers were in charge of administering most of the productive sector, which was nationalised to become a State able to guarantee social rights such as education. In this context, radical groups of citizens claimed to abolish the bourgeois through actions such as strikes and occupations, which evolved into significant levels of social agitation and pressure (Falcoff, 1991; Van der Ree, 2011).

In this agitated environment, the military-led a Coup d'état through the establishment of a dictatorship (1973-1990). During this period, human rights were violently suppressed, withdrawing citizens' rights. In this sense, the military dictatorship focused on the "de-politicisation" of society, limiting political rights and promoting Catholic and military values (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Lavín, 1987, Schulz et al., 2018; Van der Ree, 2011).

According to Schulz et al. (2018) and Van der Ree (2011), the dictatorship aimed to be validated through the establishment of a conservative social and legal order and through the implementation of neoliberal policies translated into practices of accountability that permeated all aspects of the society (Dardot & Laval, 2013; Mejias, 2012; Reyes, 1997; Sinha, 2005). Additionally, through neoliberal policies, individualistic market-oriented values were encouraged to replace the collective citizenship previously promoted. As Steger and Rabi state, neoliberalism can be understood as *"an ideology, a mode of governance, and a policy package emphasising the pivotal role of free markets and private enterprises [that seeks to] reshape their*

*respective societies [through] deregulation, liberalisation and privatisation”* (2010, p. 136).

In Chile, these policies are intended to transfer social responsibility and public values from the State to the market. As a consequence, the Chilean economy was re-activated and accelerated. However, political Citizenship suffered a profound withdrawal since the market was now conceived as fulfilling the citizens’ needs. In this context, the State was now socially responsible only in extreme cases such as extreme poverty (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Lavín, 1987, Schulz et al., 2018; Van der Ree, 2011).

Moreover, as was exposed in the introductory chapter of this research, education suffered a significant transformation during this period. In this sense, the State transferred the responsibility of administering public education to the Municipalities (also known as Town Councils), changing its role from “responsible” to “guarantor” in the provision of education. In other words, now, the role of the State was only to allocate the budget to education. In this context, it is relevant to highlight that up to this date, Municipalities are political organisations where the citizens of a locality elect the Mayor. Accordingly, Municipalities are not expert organisations in this particular field, and indeed, these are also responsible for the administration of other public values such as health. Thus, these organisations were not prepared to ensure quality in education (Marcel, 2009; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007).

In addition to these reforms during the dictatorship, and in line with the introduction of competition, a co-payment system of subsidised education was created, where private-owned schools received vouchers from the State to decrease the tuition fees for the parents. Thus, the educational system in Chile was divided into i) public, ii) private-subsided, and iii) private schools. Moreover, as expected in a free-market

context, schools developed a competence regarding their offer of educative projects and among students. These could be selected in admission processes conducted by the private and subsidised sector. Thus, access to education was now conditioned on the families' SES and payment capacity (Moreno-Doña & Gamboa, 2014; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007). In this co-payment system, which allocated public resources to a private sector that selected students, private and subsidised schools' academic results proved to be higher than the public schools (Marcel, 2009; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007). Consequently, public schools began to show lower results than private or subsidised, and their students' enrolment decreased, delegating access to public education to those who could not afford a private or subsidised educative establishment (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Mineduc, 2018; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007).

After this authoritarian period, democratic governments have taken place in the country (1990-present). The first years of this epoch are known as Transition (1990-2004), and although democratic rights (i.e., voting) were re-established, only specific aspects of social life were restored. In this sense, to preserve economic growth, the governments sustained the market-oriented neoliberal system and its logic of fulfilling the citizens' needs. As a result of this economic strategy, Chile experienced significant economic growth, emerging as one of the world's most competitive economies and a leader in Latin America (World Economic Forum, 2019).

In this context, the relationship between State-citizen continued to be characterised as a State-customers relation, where individualistic and consumerism values continued to be promoted (House et al., 2004; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007). Thus, the State created social programmes focused on particular needs, such as poverty

reduction. Moreover, the State was modernised to improve its efficiency through an accountability system based on outcomes (Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007; Van der Ree, 2011). However, Luengo-Kanacri, and Jimenez-Moya (2017) explain that Chile still lacks mechanisms to protect and ensure social justice and equity. As a result, social inequalities have been accentuated despite the significant poverty reduction during this period. Indeed, it has been suggested that the Chilean educational system is one of the most segregated in the world (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; OECD, 2009, 2012).

Such condition is re-affirmed by the 2015 Pisa 2015 results, which show a significant gap related to the students' SES, where better performance is related to a higher SES (Agencia de la Calidad, 2017; Mineduc, 2018; OECD, 2018). Furthermore, Chilean families' perception of public education is negative, observing that this education does not ensure their children's access to higher education. Also, parents declare that public schools do not always have a favourable school climate (Mineduc, 2018). Consequently, according to the Ministry of Education (2018), the enrolment of students in public schools has dropped by 33% during the last 14 years (600.000 students). Additionally, regarding the societal influence, Luengo-Kanacri, and Jimenez-Moya (2017) explain that segregation and inequality have been translated in a crescent disenchantment and disengagement of the Chileans towards their public institutions and authorities. The voter turnout reached its lowest level in the country's history in 2017, with only 46,4% of participation, from which only 30% of the young population participated (El Mercurio, 2017; Schulz et al., 2018; Treviño et al., 2017).

Considering these antecedents, Chilean education has been immersed since 2015 in one of its most significant reforms to tackle the described challenges. First, it was promulgated the "*Inclusion Act*" (Law 20.845), which prohibits profit, and ends

the selection and subsidies (co-payment) in private-owned schools (Aziz, 2018; Congreso Nacional de Chile, 2015). Later, in 2017, the Bill for de-municipalising education was approved, creating a new National System of Public Education (Law N° 21.040). This Law aims to strengthen the quality of public education by creating a new organisational structure of school districts that replaces municipal education: the Local Services of Public Education (LSPEs). A total of 70 LSPEs will be responsible for the administrative-operational and pedagogical processes of the public schools (Aziz, 2018; Congreso Nacional de Chile, 2018).

Thus, the educational reform aims to address the historical failure in improving the potential of school districts or LSPE. In specific, these are organisations capable of dialogue considering the local demands of the territory (bottom-up) and implementing the requests of the public policies (top-down) (Campbell & Fullan, 2006; Kowalski & Limber, 2007). In this regard, for the Chilean case, Raczynski (2012) proposes that School Districts can act as a “hinge” between the base of the educative system (schools) and the national level. This helps to balance the forces from the top (i.e., curriculum, standards, etcetera) with the demands from the bottom-level (i.e., teaching, professional development, competences, educative leadership, etc.) (p. 186). Furthermore, the NSBA (2017) provides research to support that school districts have a central role in improving schools and the students’ lives, particularly in chronically-under-performing schools. Additionally, international research on educational management suggests that, in front of processes of educative change, the organisational management of school districts is fundamental to implementing such transformation to improve the quality of education and reduce segregation and inequality (Anderson et al., 2010; Trujillo, 2013; Umekubo et al., 2013).

Applied to Citizenship Education, unlike the Municipalities, LSPEs are, in essence, participative, and democratic. This, since committees and boards are created to encourage the participation of members from educative communities in the governance and decision-making processes at the district and school levels (Mineduc, 2018). Finally, this antecedent is particularly relevant considering that, as it has been exposed in the previous sections, organisational structures, rules, and procedures are fundamental for the development of OCB (Graham, 1991, 2000). Thus, it is plausible to hypothesise that LSPEs are organisations that could encourage and promote OCB since these can foster staff capabilities for local development (Mineduc, 2018).

In this context, the role of educative leadership is fundamental as agents that could articulate to the community members and support the construction of identity (Jara & Sánchez, 2018). Indeed, Jara, and Sánchez (2018) expose as preliminary findings of their research that good leadership practices directly influence the development of a consolidated organisational culture. In addition, the seniority of the educational leaders was associated with the civic knowledge of the students (not the civic attitudes).

Concerning the students' civic attitudes (i.e., active participation in the school issues and the degree of openness to critical discussions), these were influenced by the relationships developed with their educators. Furthermore, in their study, Jara, and Sánchez (2018) also found that students' citizenship behaviours were influenced by the degree of consolidation of the educative projects implemented since these contribute to the cohesion of the educative community. Interestingly, the students' citizenship behaviours were also influenced by the perceptions of the practices and behaviours of the educative leaders.

Finally, it is relevant to highlight that regarding these results; scholars explain that in their discourse, educative leaders recognised the importance of CCE, but in practice, these leaders encouraged a formation centred on values more than practices. Indeed, the students and educators in Chile that are still administered by Municipalities count with instances of participation. However, these are not influential in their organisation's decision-making processes and governance (Jara & Sánchez, 2018). In this context, it becomes evident that the logic underlying school districts (i.e., LSPE versus DME) and the role of educative leaders at different levels (schools and school districts) is fundamental for the development of citizens (Riquelme-Muñoz, 2018).



## **2.2 Approaches and theories to understanding Organisational Citizenship Behaviours**

### **2.2.1 Introduction**

As it was exposed in Chapter 1, engaging in strategies to promote Organisational Citizenship Behaviours is fundamental for the development of organisations from different sectors (Altinkurt et al., 2016; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Somech, 2016; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000). Thus, the purpose of this section is to provide a conceptualisation of the construct to evidence its complexity.

Accordingly, section 2.2 conceptualises OCB, considering aspects such as the construct's evolution, which are the forms of OCB identified in the literature, as well as the factors that influence it. In addition, this section follows presenting the most frequent and relevant predictors identified in the OCB literature.

Finally, section 2.2.3 introduces the application of the construct to the educational context. Relevant research on the topic and the benefits or criticisms concerning its application in the educational field are presented.

This review of the specialised literature on OCB acquires relevance considering that this thesis aims to analyse the forms of OCB manifested by staff from LSPEs and DMEs school districts in Chile.

### **2.2.2 Approaches to Organisational Citizenship Behaviours**

This section explores the concept of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours. The aim is to provide a characterisation of OCB that considers the current debates that

contributed to the concept's evolution and the dimensions it involves. Afterwards, the theoretical roots that inspired the construct will be presented, as well as the associated benefits, determinants, and implications that active management of OCB could imply.

### **2.2.2.1 Evolution of the concept**

Dennis Organ coined the construct of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) in 1983 (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983) as an answer to his understanding of the links between performance and satisfaction in the workplace (Organ, 1977). In specific, this author intended to explain why an individual would voluntarily aid to other colleagues in the workplace (Goess & Smith, 2018; Graham, 2000). However, earlier than this, academics from the business literature, such as Chester Barnard (1938, 1956) and Katz, and Kahn (1966), highlighted the relevance of workers' discretionary behaviours to cooperate in their organisations' functioning and achievements' (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Lepine et al., 2002).

The first article introducing the concept of OCB was published in 1983 by Bateman and Organ and characterised it as the "*good soldier syndrome*". To introduce the concept, the authors acknowledged the influence of experiments in social psychology. Following this, they explain that OCB alludes to:

On supra-role behaviour- behaviour that cannot be prescribed or required in advance. These behaviours include any of those gestures (often taken for granted) that lubricate the social machinery of the organisation but that do not directly inhere in the usual notion of task performance (Bateman & Organ, 1983, p. 588).

Furthermore, scholars such as Graham (1991) and Bienstock et al. (2003) have complemented the definition of OCB, involving the following fundamental factors, i)

these are behaviours that go beyond the formal requirements of the role (extra-role behaviours), ii) these arise from the own initiative of the individual, and iii) these are functional to the organisation. Several studies were and still are developed following this conception over the years (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000).

Despite this, other studies criticised the lack of consideration of the people's influence on the contextual and social environment outside the organisation (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). In front of this debate, Dennis Organ redefined the description of the construct in his work "*Organizational Citizenship Behaviours: It's construct clean-up time*" (1997). Thus, OCB was now updated and proposed as the discretionary behaviours which go beyond the contractual requirements (Organ & Ryan, 1995) and that shape and "*support the social and psychological environment*" (p. 90) in the organisation. This last definition gained more acceptance among the academic community, and several scholars have used it since then (Altinkurt et al., 2016; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Jimmieson et al., 2010; Lepine et al., 2002; Neves et al., 2014; Somech, 2016; Somech & Ron, 2007).

Another controversy among the construct of OCB was related to the sole consideration of the extra-role behaviours. In this sense, the re-definition of OCB proposed by Organ (1997) does not formally mention the in-role behaviours (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Williams & Anderson, 1991). However, to answer this controversy, Jill Graham (1991, 2000) proposes -in concordance with his theory of the political heritage of OCB- that the dichotomy between in-role and extra-role behaviours should not be considered as a decisive element of the OCB construct. Instead, the focus should be on understanding OCB as the behaviours that are not mandated, highlighting the relevance of individual initiative. This proposal is

reinforced by the studies of Bienstock et al. (2003), Oplatka (2006) and Van Dyne et al., (1994), who support the idea that establishing this dichotomy oversimplifies the purpose of proposing the OCB construct. Thus, for this thesis, the author acknowledges the debate regarding in-role/extra-role behaviours. However, this thesis adheres to the argument that a working definition of OCB involves all the behaviours (Graham, 2000) that contribute to supporting the social and psychological environment of the workplace (Organ & Ryan 1995).

Continuing this review of the OCB construct, several authors- including Dennis Organ- have recognised the need to incorporate several levels of analysis to aid an understanding of OCB as a multidimensional concept (Organ & Ryan, 1995). In this perspective, scholars add that OCB is directed towards the individuals, the group, and the organisation (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Bogler & Somech, 2005; Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Oplatka, 2006; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Somech & Bogler, 2002; Somech & Ron, 2007; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). Furthermore, Organ, and Ryan (1995) suggest that culture should also be considered as another level of analysis. However, this last dimension has remained relatively unexplored in the field of research.

#### **2.2.2.2 The forms of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours**

As it was recently exposed, the concept of OCB has been largely debated, and there has been no consensus about whether these should comprise in-role, extra-role or both behaviours. A similar issue has been evidenced regarding what are the forms of OCB. Indeed, an even more significant debate has taken place among academics concerning this subject (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; DiPaola et al., 2005; Graham, 1991; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 1993; Van Dyne

et al., 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991). However, despite this debate, according to Jimmieson et al. (2010); Lepine et al. (2002) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al. (2000), the most frequently used and analysed in the literature are still the five forms originally proposed by Organ (1988, 1995). For this reason, these dimensions will be considered for the present research. These types of OCB are mentioned as follows:

First, *Altruism* is the expression of helping others if they have a problem or a task to accomplish. It can be directed to co-workers or stakeholders and will directly or indirectly improve their performance (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988, 1997; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). An example of altruism can be helping new colleagues to adapt to the organisation (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

Second, *Civic virtue* refers to responsible participation in the organisation's governance (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Graham, 1986; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1997; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Civic virtue refers to genuine knowledge and interest in the things that happen in the organisation, such as its policies and procedures (Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). This dimension has been profoundly studied by Jill Graham (1986, 1991, 2000), who proposed a political, theoretical framework for OCB. In this sense, the author proposes an *Organisational Civic virtue* was inspired by the Aristotelian idea of responsible citizen participation in governance. Thus, from this perspective, participation is a key characteristic of Civic virtue. His proposal was developed in collaboration with Dennis Organ (Graham & Organ, 1993), who included Civic virtue as a form of OCB when proposing the dimensions for this construct in 1988.

In this context, according to Graham (2000), Civic virtue can be expressed in behaviours such as being informed about organisational issues, critically analysing, and providing constructive suggestions. In other words, according to Organ (1988), it

is a constructive involvement in the organisational processes. However, as Graham (2000) explains, because citizen participation has been traditionally controversial, Civic virtue, to all its extent, might find some resistance in the organisational context. Primarily, political behaviours are not widely welcome, especially in autocratic and hierarchical contexts. This last idea represents a fundamental antecedent regarding the aims this thesis seeks to answer.

A third dimension proposed by Organ (1988) is *Conscientiousness*. This can be understood as the conduct that contributes to avoiding negative behaviours, which include forbearing inconveniences. This form of OCB can contribute to the efficiency of the group and the individuals' (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988, 1997; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Besides, Conscientiousness can also be described as a sincere and genuine interest or loyalty to the organisation (Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Indeed, an example of conscientiousness can be the efficient use of time (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Finally, this dimension has been susceptible to theoretical debates since scholars have tried to connect it to the famous "Big Five" personality factors. However, Organ, and Lingl (1995) unsuccessfully tried to propose a correlation between OCB and the Big Five. Indeed, Organ (1997) explained that the dimension of conscientiousness was not based on this theory, arguing, "*It invites confusion with a dimension of the Big Five group of personality factors*" (p. 95) since OCB is related to motivation rather than a personality trait.

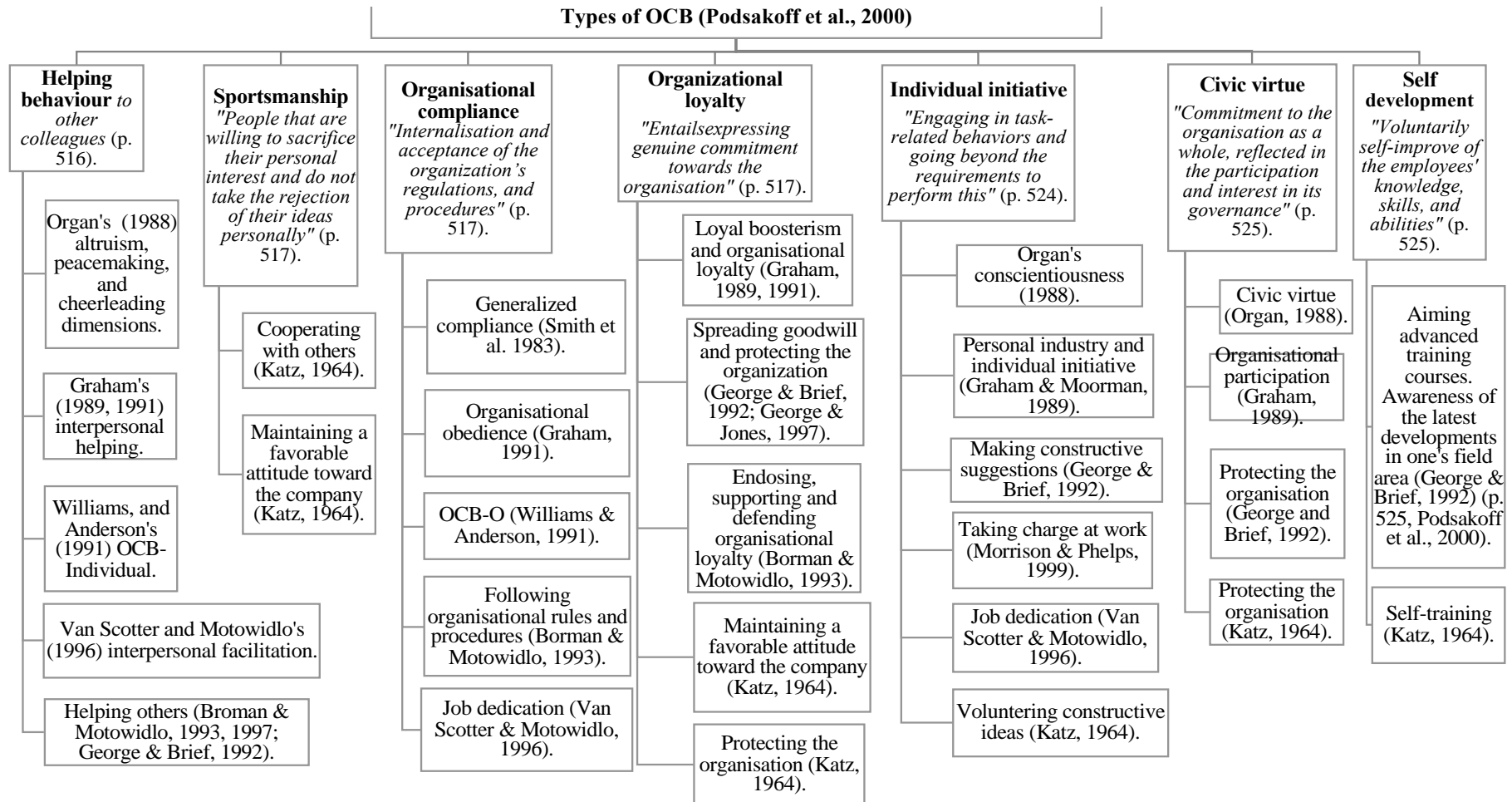
The fourth dimension, *Courtesy*, is related to the gestures or actions taken by an individual to prevent problems with his or her colleagues. Courtesy is also reflected in cooperating with others and being respectful (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Jimmieson et al., 2010; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988; 1997; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Yilmaz &

Tasdan, 2009). Finally, the dimension of *Sportsmanship* is referred to avoiding or tolerating negative behaviours such as complaining in case of problems and maintaining positive thinking (Altinkurt, & Yilmaz, 2012; Jimmieson et al., 2010; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988, 1997; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009).

Regarding debates in the specialised literature that propose other dimensions for OCB, it is reasonable to acknowledge and unveil them since this author considers it relevant to expose the different perspectives about OCB. In this context, one of the most comprehensive reviews conducted about the conceptualisations of the different forms of OCB was published by Podsakoff et al. (2000). These authors developed a thorough examination that considered most of the available literature about the construct (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Oplatka, 2006; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009).

Thus, Podsakoff et al. (2000) identified a total of 29 potential forms of OCB, grouped in seven dimensions after analysis and consideration that some of them overlapped. These seven dimensions are a) Helping Behaviours; b) Sportsmanship; c) Organisational Loyalty; d) Organisational Compliance; e) Individual Initiative; f) Civic Virtue, and g) Self-Development. Inspired by the results of Podsakoff and colleagues' research (2000), the author of this thesis developed a concept map including the 29 potential forms of OCB identified by Podsakoff et al., which were grouped to expose the multiple dimensions of OCB that scholars have proposed among the years and to reaffirm the complexity of the construct (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1.** Different dimensions and types of OCB identified in the literature



*Figure 1:* Adapted from: “Organizational Citizenship Behaviours: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research”, by P. Podsakoff, S. MacKenzie, J. B. Paine, and D. G. Bachrach, 2000, *Journal of management*, 26(3), 513-563. Copyright 2000 by Elsevier Science Inc.



### 2.2.2.3 The theoretical roots for Organisational Citizenship Behaviours

The purpose of this section is to provide a revision of the theories that inspired OCB. Organ and colleagues based the conceptualisation of the construct on two theoretical approaches. First, they were inspired by the findings of experiments in the field of social psychology, and second, from the cognitive proposal of the Exchange Theory (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Somech & Oplatka, 2015). Both theoretical approaches are presented in the following paragraphs.

Regarding the experiments of social psychology, Bateman, and Organ (1983) observed that prosocial behaviours are more likely to be manifested by people that express positive affections and motivation. According to these findings, Salovey et al. (1981) and Somech, and Oplatka (2015) propose that if people experiment positive moods, they will be in a condition to be helpful towards others and manifest social concern. At the same time, these behaviours will tend to reinforce and maintain their positive disposition. Furthermore, according to these authors, prosocial and positive behaviours will impact the workers' job satisfaction, commitment, and decision-making.

The second theoretical approach where OCB is based is related to the "Social Exchange Theory". Peter Blau first proposed the "*Exchange Theory*" in 1964 (Blau, 2017) to analyse microsocial aspects of the relations within the workplace. At the same time, this theory explains that relationships result from an exchange, which can be either economic or social. The economic exchange is characterised by specifying in advance the result of the interaction, which translated to the workplace, can be represented in the figure of an employment contract (Somech & Oplatka, 2015). Economic exchange can also be related to exchanges between colleagues or with the manager at the workplace. These interactions can take place if previous arrangements are made which are related to the transaction. Despite this, economic exchange can evolve into social exchange relations as a result of the interaction with colleagues or

managers (Thomsen et al., 2015). Graham (1991) adds that once the economic exchange has been set, appreciations of cost-benefits will take place.

In contrast to Economic Exchange, where trade is defined with anticipation, in Social Exchange relationships, the outcomes of this possible exchange are not specified previously since Social Exchange does not involve a strict formal contract (Blau, 2017; Moorman, 1991; Thomsen et al., 2015). Besides, Social Exchange, from Bateman, and Organ's (1983) perspective, is defined by reciprocity norms (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Somech & Oplatka, 2015). This is translated into a certain level of uncertainty and ambiguity where what is offered from one side is presented without knowing if it will be reciprocated (Thomsen et al., 2015). It is precisely in the context of ambiguity and uncertainty that discretionary behaviours can occur (Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988).

Thus, Bateman, and Organ (1983) were inspired by Social Exchange since it generates the space for and can help understand certain attitudes of reciprocity manifested by workers towards those who benefit or assist them. In addition, considering that Social Exchange is given in a context of uncertainty, Somech, and Oplatka (2015) propose that trust has a fundamental role. In this sense, trust can act as a way to reduce uncertainty and promote social exchange relationships. In other words, if positive, trusty attitudes are exchanged in a high-quality social relationship, it is more likely that these behaviours will be maintained.

According to scholars, creativity, innovation, organisational commitment, and OCB emerge as a mode of reciprocation and effect of these relationships of Social Exchange (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Thomsen et al., 2015; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). Thus, when these relationships are perceived as unfair or displeasing, the reciprocity is likely to be manifested in disconformity and decreased discretionary behaviours or OCB (Graham, 1991; Organ, 1990). Moreover, as section 2.2 explains, Organ (1988) connected the perception of fair treatment

with Social Exchange. In this sense, fair treatment will determine the relationship of Social Exchange and, thus, OCB (Moorman, 1991).

Following this conceptualisation, it is relevant to highlight that in the context of Social Exchange; research has given significant attention to the supervisor-subordinate relationship or Leader-Member Exchange (Hereafter- abbreviated LMX) (Inelmen et al., 2017; Qi Wang et al., 2017; Somech & Oplatka, 2015). LMX refers to the quality of this interpersonal relationship, which is translated into trust and reciprocity (Somech & Oplatka, 2015). In this sense, Bateman, and Organ (1983) highlighted the relevance of LMX to fostering OCB in organisations. In turn, when workers exhibit a low-quality LMX, they will likely perceive unfair treatment.

Finally, as it has been exposed, the roots of OCB are in an individual perspective that initially aimed to understand the microsystem of relationships within an organisational setting (Blau, 2017). For this reason, theorists such as Jill Graham (1991, 2000) and Somech, and Oplatka (2015) propose a philosophical and contingent approach to understanding citizenship in organisations. This approach seeks to locate individuals as part of a system and translates the focus from interpersonal relationships to the understanding of individuals as part of an organisational context and in interaction with it. In front of this, Graham (1986, 1991, 2000) proposes that individuals are organisational citizens with responsibilities. These responsibilities are a balance between organisational obedience, loyalty, and participation.

*Organisational obedience* is related to accepting the organisational structure and regulations. *Organisational loyalty* alludes to the sense of identification with the institution, and finally, *Organisational participation* refers to the genuine interest in being part and participating in the organisational governance (Graham, 1991). As it was explained in section 2.2.2.2, organisational participation was proposed as OCB's Civic virtue (Graham & Organ, 1993). Moreover, the purpose of organisational governance is justice, which is achieved when

citizens participate (Graham, 1986, 1991, 2000). Thus, in highly hierarchical contexts where participation is restricted, Graham (2000) -based on Aristotelian thought- explains that citizens are not such, but these are subjects.

As the present research aligns with this last idea of political citizenship and seeks to advance toward understanding OCB embedded in a socio-political context that permeates organisations, Graham's theoretical approach (1991, 2000) can be considered suitable for the purpose of this thesis. The Aristotelian perspective of political citizenship was exposed in more detail in section 2.1.1.

#### **2.2.2.4 The relevance of the Organisational Citizenship Behaviours**

After providing a conceptualisation for OCB and the debates regarding this, it becomes evident that it is a complex concept. This assumption is reaffirmed considering that OCB grows in a context and can be expressed in different practices and levels of the organisational environment (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Bogler & Somech, 2004; Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Oplatka, 2006; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Somech & Bogler, 2002; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004; Somech & Ron, 2007, Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). As this chapter seeks to answer the question "Why citizenship?" it is plausible to propose a response to this question if another enquiry is answered, "Why Organisational Citizenship Behaviours?". Thus, the purpose of this section is to disclose the relevance of studying OCB and its potential contribution.

Organ, and Ryan (1995) state that OCB can impact different levels of the organisation. Accordingly, individual, group and organisational levels can be positively influenced if a strategic OCB approach is adopted.

At the *Organisational level*, Lepine and colleagues (2002) propose that OCB contributes to the transformation of an organisation and its culture. As a matter of fact, research has found a positive impact the organisations' functioning, productivity, customer satisfaction

and success. In this sense, OCB can influence organisational efficiency, effectivity, and performance because it provides an intangible resource among the workers (Altinkurt et al., 2016; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Somech, 2016; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000). Graham (1991) also adds that in the case of organisations that provide services, the impact of OCB is reflected in the improvement of the quality of services.

At the *Group level*, Organ (1988) and DiPaola, and Tschannen-Moran, (2001) propose that OCB contributes to the improvement of collective performance, especially if the employees are part of the decision-making processes (Goess & Smith, 2018). These proposals are supported by a study developed in a manufacturing company in China conducted by Liu et al. (2017). The scholars found that OCB is related to the members' job efficacy at the group level. In addition, Graham (1991) states that employee relations could strengthen in organisations promoting OCB. Besides, it has been proposed the relevance of studying OCB at the group level as it emerges from the complex dynamics of group norms and social exchanges among organisational members (Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). Furthermore, research conducted in the hotel industry by Han et al. (2016) proposed that organisational strategies can reduce group conflict and contributes to the employees' OCB. Accordingly, it is possible to propose that teamwork be enhanced since OCB provides an appropriate scenario to manage interdependencies, cohesiveness, and connections between team members (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Oplatka, 2006).

At the *individual level*, it has been suggested that OCB can contribute to developing a sense of equality and fairness towards the organisation and, in turn, to positive emotions (Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013). Moreover, OCB can enhance the employee's performance and their feelings of contributing to their workplace (Bienstock et al., 2003; Graham, 1991). In consequence, scholars propose that employees' job satisfaction and commitment are benefited by OCB (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001) and that turnover (Cohen et al., 2017; Inandi &

Büyüközkan, 2013) and absenteeism (Goess & Smith, 2018; Podsakoff et al., 2000) can be reduced. In this regard, Berta et al. (2018), in their study conducted about Health Support Workers in Canada, found that OCB is directly related to work attitudes such as engagement, satisfaction, and commitment. In addition, Cohen et al. (2017), in their study conducted with auditors, found that employees with lower levels of OCB are more likely to leave their profession.

Finally, studies developed in the private sector regarding the connection between the group and individual level. For instance, Gonzalez-Mulé et al. (2014), in their study developed in a large manufacturing company in the United States, found a positive relationship between cooperative group norms and helping behaviours.

#### **2.2.2.5 Variables that influence Organisational Citizenship Behaviours.**

A significant amount of research has been developed in the field of OCB since Dennis Organ first coined it in 1983. In general, these studies have aimed to propose predictors of OCB, define the outcomes of adopting this approach, and design instruments to measure it among different industries. Accordingly, this section reviews the most significant predictors of OCB identified in the literature. With this aim, the author of this thesis conducted a Systematic Literature Review (Here-after SLR) of the total material published on the database Web of Science (Hereafter-abbreviated WoS), acknowledging that this is currently one of the most relevant and influential scientific databases<sup>2</sup>. In total, 746 articles were found. After the removal of duplicates (n=210), 536 articles were assessed. The articles' contents were catalogued in categories identifying the predominant dimensions that predicted OCB. Details about the SLR process and frequencies of predictors are presented in Annexe 1, but the most frequent predictors are detailed as follows:

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<sup>2</sup> In this sense, WoS is characterised for publishing articles that meet high standards, such as peer revision (Clarivate Analytics, 2018).

First, 20.3% (n=109) of articles assessed analysed *Leadership*, which was the most frequent. Specifically, scholars have focused on trust in the leader and supportive leadership styles promoting OCB. The most studied leadership styles proposed as beneficial for OCB are Transactional and Transformational leadership (Defee et al., 2009; Frazier et al., 2010).

A second dimension that has gained significant attention in the literature and has been proposed as a strong correlator to OCB is *Organisational commitment* (Bove et al., 2009; Nishii et al., 2008) (7.5%, n=40). This domain was catalogued within the category “*positive factors that influence OCB*” detailed in Annexe 1, which includes other dimensions such as the psychological contract (3.7%), and job satisfaction (5.6%).

Following this, *Organisational Justice* and *Fairness* received significant attention in the specialised literature, considering that authors have proposed the relevance of the latter to predict OCB (Organ & Moorman, 1993; Moorman, 1991). This is since employees’ behaviours could depend on their perception of whether they are fairly treated in their organisation (Lepine et al., 2002; Oplatka, 2006). In addition, the SLR conducted by the author of this thesis unveiled that those papers focusing on both OJ and fairness represented 11.2% (n= 60) of the total publications of OCB in WoS. Furthermore, this dimension was the second most frequent factor published. Therefore, the consideration of fairness and OJ as a predictor of OCB is a fundamental antecedent considering that the objectives of the present thesis consider the relation between OJ and OCB. This relation will be analysed in more detail in section 2.3.2.4.

Following this, the literature has significantly focused on *Role ambiguity* (Lam et al., 2016) and *Role conflict* (Brawley & Pury, 2017) as predictors of OCB. In this sense, authors suggest that ambiguity and conflict provide instability, limiting OCB. In addition, the SLR unveiled other negative predictors, including counterproductive behaviours, stressors, turnover, and burnout, among the most popular variables, representing 9% of the total (48 articles).

An interesting finding unveiled in the SLR is related to the influence of diverse personal characteristics with OCB. Specifically, 8.4% (n=45) of the total focused on race, gender, age/seniority, sexual orientation, and religion, among others.

Following this, 6% of the literature (n=32) focused on analysing OCB at the individual level, including topics such as employee performance and empowerment. Furthermore, 21 articles (3.9%) focused on OCB and the organisation's relation with the environment, including aspects such as corporate social responsibility. Finally, the influence of OCB in the customer relationship represented 3.5% of the total (n=19).

Furthermore, other studies analysing OCB at the group level represent 2.1% of the total (n=11). Moreover, studies assessing the organisational outcomes were nine (1.7%). The aggrupation of codes into categories is detailed in Annexe 1.1.

Finally, it is possible to suggest that the field of OCB has been widely developed, and several predictors and characteristics influence OCB. However, the predictors presented in this brief review are the most studied. Furthermore, considering that this research focuses on the educational sector, a review of the specific predictors of OCB in the educational context is developed in the following section.

### **2.2.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours in the educational context**

The purpose of this section is to provide a revision regarding studies about OCB in the educational sector. As will be explained, the relevance of studying OCB in this area lies in the assumption that OCB can contribute to the development of educational organisations. However, studies on the topic are scarce (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Somech & Oplatka, 2015; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Moreover, these have been limited to research focused on OCB within schools (Oplatka, 2006) and teachers' OCB (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Somech & Ron, 2007). Indeed, studies concerning OCB at the district level were not found in the authors' SLR. Only the book published by Anit



Somech and Izhar Oplatka (2015) attempts to advance educational systems. Furthermore, although this focused on the school level, acknowledging that these are part of a broader system. Considering this lack of research, it is necessary to understand the relevance of studying OCB in the educational sector and what has been done in the area, as this research aims to advance towards the analysis of OCB of members from LSPEs and DMEs in Chile.

### **2.2.3.1 Approaches to OCB in the educational sector**

Schools are fundamental organisations for a society and its members since these are primary instances of socialisation, which promote and strengthen learnings of all kinds, such as theoretical knowledge, social skills, habits, values and the empathy needed to develop interpersonal relationships among others. For these reasons, it has been suggested that schools are pivotal in preparing citizens since they have a central role in encouraging critical, participative, and civically engaged citizens (Luengo-Kanacri & Jiménez-Moya, 2017). Nevertheless, Miller (2002), Somech (2016) and Somech, and Ron (2007) explain that nowadays, educational systems are facing multiple challenges that require them to adapt with flexibility. Among these challenges, globalisation has encouraged an interconnected world which is more competitive, individualistic (Truss et al., 2012) and diverse (Kumra & Manfredi, 2013). In these terms, educational systems are required to be competitive, achieve high academic performance, and prepare students that will have to contribute to their society (Somech, 2016; Somech & Ron, 2007). This, when the quality of school life and the students' wellbeing are also priorities (Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009).

In this context, an alternative to support school communities and policymakers in facing the increasing contemporary demands is through understanding and managing OCB at the school (Altinkurt et al., 2016) and the school district level. In fact, scholars such as Altinkurt, and Yilmaz (2012) and Somech, and Oplatka (2015), suggest that in front of an environment

characterised by its uncertainty, it is fundamental that the members of educational systems display these behaviours since among the benefits of OCB, is expected the enhancement of participation, cooperation, and support among people. Additionally, Somech, and Drach-Zahavy (2000) express that in a context of educational reform, such as the case of the Chilean educational reform that will be explained in more detail in section 2.4- Citizenship Behaviours can be key for conducting these processes successfully. Furthermore, authors such as Belogolovsky, and Somech (2010), DiPaola, and Tschannen-Moran (2001) and Somech, and Drach-Zahavy (2000) explain that in order to survive in a complex environment, educative organisations should go beyond the minimum expectations and provide an added value to their service. Indeed, according to the authors, their service is expected to go beyond the job descriptions and formal bureaucratic requirements.

Thus, as was explained in section 2.2.2.1, this thesis acknowledges that a working definition for OCB involves all the behaviours that contribute to supporting the social and psychological environment of the workplace (Graham, 2000; Organ & Ryan 1995). Applied to the educational sector, Somech (2016) and Vigoda-Gadot et al. (2007) add to this understanding that OCB contribute to the schools' functioning. In this line, DiPaola, and Tschannen-Moran (2001) and Goess, and Smith (2018) propose that OCB are related to and influences school climate and student outcomes. At the same time, school climate impacts the trust and satisfaction of educative members, which are encouraged by the opportunities to participate in the school's decision-making. Consequently, it is possible to suggest that a healthy, safe, and positive school climate encourages OCB (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Goess & Smith, 2018).

### **2.2.3.2 OCB manifested by educational actors**

As it was previously explained in section 2.2.2.4, several authors have emphasised that OCB is a construct that can be directed to a variety of levels, such as the individual, group and organisational (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Bogler & Somech, 2005; Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Oplatka, 2006; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Somech & Bogler, 2002; Somech & Ron, 2007; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). Considering these levels, Somech, and Drach-Zahavy (2000) Oplatka (2006) and Neves et al. (2014) propose that, in the educational context, OCB can be directed towards the (i) students, (ii) colleagues and (iii) organisation (which for this research aims, comprise both, the school, and the school district). To complement this proposal, Somech (2016) and Somech, and Bogler (2002) suggest that these levels can be grouped into two dimensions: the individual and the organisational. At the individual level (hereafter-abbreviated OCBI), OCB is directed to the students and colleagues in the workplace. At the organisational level (hereafter OCBO), OCB is directed to the entire organisation, which for this research's purpose, comprises the school and the district where the school belongs.

Following this, OCB can be manifested by a multiplicity of actors from the school system. In this regard, despite the lack of research focusing on OCB manifested by educative actors, scholars recognise their potential contribution if OCB are displayed. In specific, Goess, and Smith (2018) and Inandi, and Büyüközkan (2013) propose that if educational staff manifest OCB, these behaviours are likely to have a positive impact in the schools by enhancing not only the students' learning and success but also the quality of life for members of the community. In this sense, Somech (2016) specifies that OCB can encourage socio-emotional and moral support among the members of the educative organisation.

Moreover, OCB can strengthen cohesion and cooperation among people and tackle burnout (Jimmieson et al., 2010; Neves et al., 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Considering the benefits of OCB in the educational context, different authors highlight that isolated displays of

OCB may not have an immediate or significant outcome (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Goess & Smith, 2018; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). However, if educative organisations engage in strategies that support, appreciate, and encourage OCB among all the actors (teachers, staff members, and administration, among others). In that case, the institutional results are likely to be significant and contribute to achieving institutional goals.

As it has been mentioned, the research focusing on OCB manifested by stakeholders in the educational sector has been scarce. Yet, a topic that has received significant attention from the specialised literature is the teachers' OCB (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Somech, & Ron, 2007). Research has acknowledged these actors' relevance for attaining educational goals (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Somech & Ron, 2007; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Furthermore, in the educational context, the role of teachers is critical and involves the need for an ongoing engagement and responsibility over the students (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Oplatka, 2006), and with this, a fundamental interaction and development of relationships with students, parents, and colleagues (Jimmieson et al., 2010; Neves et al., 2014). In addition, Altinkurt et al. (2016) and Belogolovsky, and Somech (2010) propose that in contexts of uncertainty, such as educational reforms, it is fundamental that teachers share educational values and goals and also that these actors display OCB to face these changes successfully.

### **2.2.3.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours' forms applied to the educational sector.**

As Vigoda-Gadot et al. (2007) propose, it is fundamental to consider the potentialities of engaging in strategies to encourage and develop OCB within the educational sector. This since OCB can contribute to attaining educational goals and values (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Somech & Ron, 2007; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009).

For these reasons, and considering the lack of research on the topic, it is equally relevant to advance towards a characterisation of the five forms of OCB applied to the educational context.

First, as *Altruism* can be manifested in attitudes such as helping other colleagues with their workload (Thomsen et al., 2015), voluntarily training and guiding to a new teacher or worker, or preparing special assignments for students with learning difficulties (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009).

Second, *Civic virtue* in the educational context can be manifested in participating in school boards, committees, or extra-curricular activities, and in activities such as engaging in training to improve their performance and be aware of the new knowledge in education (Jimmieson et al., 2010; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Specifically, this can be reflected in participating in decision-making processes (i.e., setting goals, values, mission, vision, educative plans, etcetera). Indeed, as the authors declare, participating in such instances can strengthen the commitment and identification with the organisation and enhance their perceptions of fair treatment and justice within the educational institution (Somech & Bogler, 2002). This aspect is particularly relevant since one of the hypotheses of this thesis is related to proposing a relation between organisational justice, and OCB among members of school districts in Chile, in order to examine how they perceive them.

In third place, *Conscientiousness* can be translated into helping others with tasks that are not part of the job requirements, such as teaching students outside working hours or participating in extracurricular activities. Moreover, Yilmaz, and Tasdan (2009) explain that these behaviours are common in educational settings.

The fourth form of OCB is *Courtesy*, which can manifest in actions such as behaviours from school principals or district leaders who, to encourage transparency, provide information that may not directly affect all the workers. For instance, to inform about new directions and strategies that will be applied in the district (Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Furthermore,

*Sportsmanship* can be expressed by keeping working for the students' learning even if a financial crisis compromises the wages (Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009).

Finally, considering the mentioned relevant benefits that strategic management of OCB in the educational context may carry, it is also relevant to highlight that the specialised literature has pointed out negative consequences if educative organisations do not actively engage in OCB management. For instance, Somech (2016) found in her study that parents usually expect teachers to manifest extra-role and discretionary behaviours, devoting their time and energy to the students. In turn, these expectations can derive from pressure on the educational staff. In addition, the author also found that workers from the educational sector usually tend to manifest OCB. However, in contexts with only a few resources available, these staff may engage in significant extra efforts to help the students attain their educational goals (i.e., excessively working extra hours or in extracurricular activities), which can derive from constraints. Consequently, these efforts could imply personal costs for the educational staff, such as burnout and compromise of their personal time and life. Finally, the next section explores relevant findings regarding studies conducted about OCB in the educational sector.

#### **2.2.3.4 Previous studies based on Organisational Citizenship Behaviours in the educational sector**

This section aims to offer a general picture of the research developed on OCB in the educational context. This revision acquires relevance considering that, as it has been mentioned in this chapter, the studies on OCB applied to this sector are few. In addition, it is plausible to consider the need to access this knowledge to advance towards answering this research's aims, which are to analyse the OCB of members from LSPEs and DMEs. For this purpose, this author developed an SLR that considered all the published articles and book chapters in the WoS up

to 2019 (Clarivate Analytics, 2018). The SLR contemplated the same procedures presented in section 2.2.2.5 and are detailed in Annexe 2.1.

The SLR’s findings are catalogued in two aspects: the actors that participated in the study and predictors of OCB. First, among the studied actors, five categories of these are presented according to their frequency of appearance: educators (71.37%), leaders (15.81%), other staff (5.56%), and stakeholders (7.26%). It is relevant to mention that teachers are the most studied educational actors (66.2% of the total or n=94) and that the other participants have received limited attention compared to them. The detail of the aggrupation of actors found in the studies is exposed in Table 1.

**Table 1.** *Frequency (%) of actors studied by researches of OCB in the educational sector*

<b>Educators</b> (71.37)	<b>Leaders and managers</b> (15.81)	<b>Other staff</b> (5.56)	<b>Other Stakeholders</b> (7.26)
Teachers (70.09)	School principals (8.55)	Workers/Employees (4.7)	Students (5.13)
Educators (0.85)	Managers (3.41)	Administrative or clerical staff (0.43)	Parents (1.28)
Sport coaches (0.43)	Supervisors (1.71)	School teams (0.43)	Stakeholders (0.43)
	School administrators (1.28)		Workers’ families (0.43)
	Authority (0.43)		
	School leaders (0.43)		

*Note:* N=142. Source: Own elaboration. Detail of the titles and authors of the articles can be found in Annexe 2.1. This analysis contemplates publications in WoS until 2019. Copyright 2000 by Elsevier Science Inc.

Second, concerning the most frequent predictors of OCB in the educational context, Annexe 2.2 details their frequency and the aggrupation of categories proposed by this author. These categories are (i) “positive factors” that influence OCB (26%); (ii) organisational management (25.9%); (iii) personal/individual characteristics (12.9%); (iv) “negative factors” that influence OCB (10.71%); (v) school performance/outcomes (10.71%); (vi) OCBI (4.9%); (vii) relation with the environment and the context (2.68%); (viii) school characteristics (2.68%); (ix) perceptions of organisational justice (2.23%), and (x) OCBO (1.34%).

An interesting finding of this review unveils that one of the most studied predictors of OCB is related to the commitment/engagement of the actor involved. Indeed, authors such as

Somech, and Bogler (2002) and Thomsen et al. (2015) associated professional commitment to OCB. Furthermore, Somech, and Drach-Zachavy (2000) propose that job satisfaction is positively related to all the levels of OCB: Towards the students, the colleagues, and the school as an organisation. In addition, similarly to the trend exposed in the SLR conducted about OCB in the general literature (see section 2.2.2.4), leadership received significant attention from research. In this sense, leadership styles (i.e., transformational leadership, transactional leadership, authentic leadership) and LMX were significantly frequent in this review.

Regarding leadership, Somech, and Drach-Zahavy (2000), Altinkurt, and Yilmaz, (2012) and Somech (2016) propose that leaders effectively influence their employees' OCB in the educational setting. In this line, Somech, and Oplatka (2015) highlight the relevance of the perceived leader and organisational support to encourage OCB. In addition, Altinkurt, and Yilmaz, (2012) and Belogolovsky, and Somech (2010) conclude that when performance appraisals were conducted, leaders considered OCB to assess their workers. Similar findings regarding the relationship leader-subordinated were reported in studies about OCB in other industries and sectors, such as higher education (Frazier et al., 2010) and supply chains in the private sector (Defee et al., 2009).

Another significant finding is regarding the high presence of personal characteristics (12.9%), such as personal traits, gender, and seniority. For instance, Altinkurt et al. (2016) and Altinkurt, and Yilmaz, (2012) found that gender is a determinant factor that predicts OCB. According to these studies, female teachers evidence more OCB than male teachers. These results are similar to the findings of Lin (2008), who, in research developed in the private sector, showed that women were more likely to exhibit OCB such as altruism in knowledge sharing. Equally, another interesting result can be related to the important impact of job characteristics. Altinkurt et al. (2016) propose that primary school teachers exhibit more OCB than secondary school teachers.



Regarding the educational outcomes, it has been proposed that OCB can influence both cognitive and non-cognitive outcomes. For example, among the cognitive outcomes, research suggests that school effectiveness, students' expectations, and student achievement are directly influenced by the manifestation of OCB (Goess & Smith, 2018). Indeed, several authors have acknowledged the central role of teachers in these cognitive outcomes since if these display OCB, the more engaged the students will be (Goess & Smith, 2018; Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Jimmieson et al., 2010). However, despite this positive influence on the cognitive outcomes, Somech, and Oplatka (2015) explain that when educational systems are focused on accountability (which are based on control systems based on outcomes), OCB may be inhibited. This, since educational staff will tend to focus on answering these requirements, undermining their motivation.

Second, concerning the non-cognitive outcomes, DiPaola, and Tschannen-Moran (2001) found a strong relation in the cultivation of OCB and school climate. Thus, the more displays of OCB, the most positive school climate and quality of life will be manifested (Goess & Smith, 2018; Jimmieson et al., 2010). In addition, Shapira-Lishchinsky, and Raftar-Ozery (2018) propose that, at the staff level, perceptions of ethical climate are likely to be influenced and encouraged by OCB. In addition, Somech, and Khotaba (2017) add that team innovation can be expected as an outcome when OCB are encouraged among team members in the educational context.

Following this, another significant dimension analysed by the literature on OCB applied to educational settings is related to the identification of job stressors and how these limit the manifestation of OCB. Among these are low job autonomy, role conflict, lack of support and burnout (Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Somech, 2016; Somech & Bogler, 2002; Somech & Ron, 2007), among others.

Besides, it is relevant to highlight two other findings that are crucial for this thesis's purposes. First, Yilmaz, and Tasdan (2009) propose a direct relation between the perceptions of OJ and the manifestation of OCB. Indeed, Somech, and Oplatka (2015) explain that climates of perceived injustice, which are toxic and destructive, emerge as inhibitors of OCB. These antecedents are pivotal; considering the enquiries of this research, it is expected to examine the influence of OJ in OCB. Other studies relating OJ to OCB will be analysed in more detail in section 2.3, dedicated to Organisational Justice.

Second, Somech, and Ron (2007), in their study of cultural characteristics, proposed that the values promoted by schools and educational systems influence the manifestations of OCB. These findings are supported by the study of Somech, and Oplatka (2015). They highlight that individualist/collectivist school cultures are determinants of the behaviours of the school community, considering that school culture can be understood as the system of shared values and beliefs within the institution. Thus, under this conception, individualistic settings (i.e., emphasising autonomy, own benefits, etcetera) constrain OCB in the educative community. In opposition, educational settings that promote collective values and goals, such as mutual support, loyalty, solidarity, and teamwork, tend to foster OCB.

#### **2.2.3.5 Managing Organisational Citizenship Behaviours in the educational sector**

To conclude this section, it is plausible to highlight specific recommendations that studies have proposed to manage OCB in educational settings. In this sense, it has been suggested that educational leaders are fundamental to engage actively and with strategies dedicated to this issue (Altinkurt et al., 2016; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Goess, & Smith, 2018). In fact, according to several findings reported in the specialised literature, educational leadership is a determinant of promoting or inhibiting OCB (Somech & Oplatka, 2015).

First, the authors propose that a favourable organisational climate should be protected and encouraged to facilitate fairness perceptions (Moorman, 1991), enhance wellbeing (Goess & Smith, 2018) and the development of OCB. For instance, by supporting collaborative and supportive environments (Altinkurt et al., 2016; Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Somech & Ron, 2007; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007).

In addition, several scholars have identified that job autonomy is a fundamental factor in the development of OCB. However, encouraging job autonomy can be challenging for highly structured and bureaucratic educational systems that appreciate more control over autonomy (Altinkurt et al., 2016; Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Somech, 2016; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009).

Moreover, Goess and Smith (2018) propose that several actions can encourage OCB in educational settings. For instance, institutionalising the recognition of achievements and milestones, planning professional development for the workers, and facilitating access to training opportunities.

Furthermore, Graham (2000), from his political approach, proposes strategies to foster OCB that can be applied in the educational sector. Among these, several actions related to developing Human Resource Management (HRM) functions, such as job design, allow employees' participation and collective sense of responsibility. In addition, providing training opportunities to staff members and access to resources is fundamental, according to Somech and Oplatka (2015). Furthermore, selection processes can target individuals that manifest a citizen trajectory and compensations, and rewards should be fair and transparent at all levels and interactions to encourage perceptions of organisational justice (Graham, 2000). Regarding this last idea, Yilmaz, and Tasdan (2009) advance proposing that in educational settings, organisational justice and OCB

can also be encouraged if rules, distribution of work and promotions are fair and transparent.

Finally, scholars also propose strategies to encourage OCB among the final users and protagonists of the educational system, the students. Goess, and Smith (2018) and Somech, and Ron (2007) explain that an education centred on values needs to be promoted at all levels. For instance, if values of collectivism, such as empathy and respect, are promoted, these will likely influence them. In addition, if educational actors engage in conflict management strategies, students will likely learn about conflict handling and resolution. However, to reach the students and foster these behaviours, as Somech, and Ron (2007) explain, it is necessary to engage in strategies that involve more educational actors than just the teachers, which is the main purpose and rationale behind this thesis.

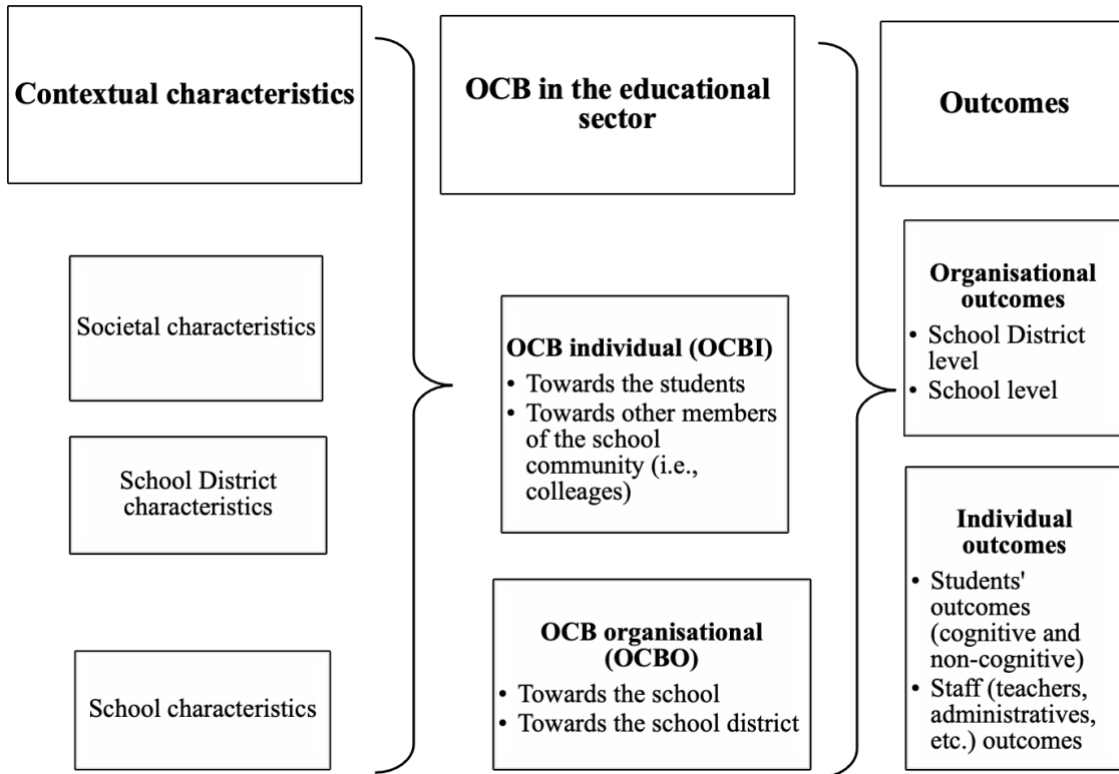
#### **2.2.4 Conceptual model for Organisational Citizenship Behaviours**

In concordance with the revision that has been presented in these sections and the variables that could impact OCB displays in the educational sector, this author proposes an integrative model (Figure 2) inspired by the proposal of Somech, and Oplatka (2015). This model aims to advance from the traditional perspectives on OCB at the individual and school level toward a comprehensive multilevel proposal involving all the educational system's actors. In this context, it is plausible to suggest a theoretical model that comprises these levels since, in the literature, the existent proposals fail to acknowledge the school system as a level and the influence that this system may exert. Indeed, Somech, and Oplatka (2015) suggest one of the most comprehensive models available in the literature. However, they adapted it to the teachers at the school level, excluding the educational system and other members of the school community. Thus, with the described purpose, the model proposed by this author is organised into three

variables: (i) contextual characteristics, (ii) OCB in the educational sector and (iii) outcomes.

The first determinant, related to contextual characteristics, comprises three systems that impact by inhibiting or promoting OCB: the societal, school district and school level (Somech & Oplatka, 2015; Somech & Ron, 2007). The societal level promotes regulations and policies such as accountability focused on outcomes and results with high stakes (see section 2.1). School districts implement these public policies (Marcel, 2009; Raczinsky & Muñoz, 2007). At the same time, school districts can promote bureaucratic and hierarchical structures within their organic and the schools from the territory. Additionally, as the literature suggests, school districts can promote regulations and strategies among the schools to achieve high academic outcomes. Finally, the schools ought to implement these regulations (Marcel, 2009; Raczinsky & Muñoz, 2007), fostering certain values and school culture (Somech & Oplatka, 2015).

**Figure 2.** Integrative model of OCB applied to the educational sector.



*Figure 2:* Own elaboration. Revised from: “Organizational citizenship behaviour in schools: Examining the impact and opportunities within educational systems”, by A. Somech, and I. Oplatka 2015, Routledge: New York. Copyright A. Somech and I. Oplatka.

As contextual characteristics can impact OCB, this can be translated in both OCBI, towards the students and colleagues, and OCBO towards the school and the school district (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Bogler & Somech, 2005; Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Oplatka, 2006; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Somech & Bogler, 2002; Somech & Ron, 2007; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). Finally, OCB can impact educational outcomes at the organisational and individual levels (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Goess & Smith, 2018; Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Jimmieson et al., 2010). The organisational outcomes can be reflected in the schools and the School District. This can be translated at the school level, in the attainment of educational goals, overall students’ cognitive performance (i.e., overall results in standardised tests) and non-cognitive performance (i.e., overall school climate, organisational climate and school culture) (Altinkurt et al., 2016; Belogolovsky

& Somech, 2010; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Somech & Ron, 2007; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). At the district level, it can be proposed that these outcomes are the result of strategies to manage and support the schools. Also, district outcomes can be reflected in the organisational or institutional performance regarding aspects such as the achievement of goals and strategies, organisational culture, turnover intentions and workers' commitment or engagement (Altinkurt et al., 2016; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Somech, 2016; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000).

Regarding the districts' staff individual outcomes (i.e. head teachers, principals, teachers, assistants, administrative personnel, etcetera), individual outcomes can be reflected in their job performance, turnover, stress, psychological contract, job satisfaction, perceptions of contribution to the organisational goals and autonomy, absenteeism, sense of equality and fairness towards the organisation, identification, positive emotions, commitment, participation, collective performance, cooperation and socio-emotional and moral support at the group level, among others (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Jimmieson et al., 2010; Neves et al., 2014; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Somech & Ron, 2007; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009).

Finally, this chapter has exposed the relevance of OCB in the educational sector and the need for advancing toward a situated understanding. Therefore, the next section presents a revision regarding a construct that has been suggested as influential for the perceptions and displays of OCB: Organisational Justice.

## **2.3 Approaches and theories to understanding Organisational Justice**

### **2.3.1 Introduction**

As mentioned previously, the socio-political environment has a pivotal role in the citizens' perceptions and behaviours. In this context, this section proposes that this background impacts the perceptions of Organisational Justice, which, in turn, can influence perceptions of OCB. Accordingly, a revision will be presented regarding the construct, its application to the educational context, and its relationship with OCB.

### **2.3.2 Antecedents to Organisational Justice**

It is proposed that to be fairly treated is a value aspired transversally by human beings, and for centuries, this issue has been discussed (Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Buluc, 2015). In this regard, Aristotle (trans. 1999; Graham, 2000) anticipated that justice alludes to the sense of proportionality and equal treatment in access to essential goods such as food and housing. Consequently, it can be suggested that a fundamental principle of justice is related to providing and receiving equal and fair treatment (Aytac, 2016; Bansal, 2017; Graham, 2000). In turn, research has proposed that perceptions of unfair treatment can lead to adverse effects, such as disappointment or offensive acts (Buluc, 2015).

Following this, to understand the phenomenon at the organisational level, Jerald Greenberg (1986, 1987, 1990) coined the concept of Organisational Justice (OJ), arguing that fairness is critical for organisational functioning and development. In this sense, OJ refers to the perceptions of organisational members regarding to what extent they perceive that receive fair and equal treatment (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Aydin & Karaman-



Kepenekci, 2008; Buluc, 2015; Capone & Petrillo, 2016; Ceylan & Sulu, 2011; Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016; Jakopec & Sušanj, 2014; Kwon-Choi et al., 2014; Moorman, 1991; Rodríguez-Montalbán et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017). Hence, OJ concerns to perceptions about all the spheres of the organisational life, including the activities, roles, performance, governance, rules, procedures, opportunities, payments, rewards, interactions, among others (Greenberg, 1990; Yilmaz & Altinkurt, 2012; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). In this regard, international literature specialised in topics such as HRM, Organisational Psychology and Organisational Behaviour, has analysed the organisational impacts and outcomes of OJ, as well as the factors that intervene in perceptions of it (Buluc, 2015; Capone & Petrillo, 2016; Demir, 2015; Gupta & Singh, 2013; Heidari et al., 2012; Yilmaz, 2010).

Hence, considering that engaging the members of an institution is a fundamental issue that can contribute to the achievement of organisational goals (Heidari et al., 2012; Poole, 2008; Truss et al., 2012), the literature proposes that perceptions of justice (or injustice) have a significant role in this aim. In this regard, OJ can contribute to the sense of belonging and attitudes towards an organisation (Altinkurt et al., 2015; Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008; Bansal, 2017; Cohen & Keren, 2008; Ferhat-Özbek, 2016; Kwon-Choi et al., 2014). Concerning this, OJ concerns with the governance of an institution since it considers the perceptions of fair treatment towards issues such as decisions, procedures, rules, and rewards among others (Aytac, 2016; Buluc, 2015). Indeed, Graham, and Organ (1993) suggest that the purpose of organisational governance is justice, which can be achieved when organisational citizens participate.

Furthermore, studies found that perceptions of unfair treatment decrease the commitment toward the organisation, members' wellbeing (Demir, 2015; Poole, 2008), self-esteem (Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018), job satisfaction (Yilmaz, 2010) and their

attitudes and willingness to collaborate with the organisation and other colleagues (Jafari et al., 2011; Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018; Schilpzand et al., 2013). Studies in OJ will be discussed in more detail in section 2.3.2.3.

Furthermore, in addition to the influences of OJ on the organisation and its members, the literature suggests that it can encourage OCB. Specifically, it has been proposed that when organisations support and promote fair and equal treatment, members will respond not only through their commitment but also through their citizenship behaviours (Demir, 2015; Ferhat-Özbek, 2016). Moreover, although research on the topic has been limited, certain studies have acknowledged the influence of the socio-cultural background on perceptions of OJ (Diehl et al., 2018; Lin, 2018). These subjects are exposed in more detail in section 2.3.2.5, considering their relevance for this study. The next section explores the theoretical background of OJ in order to advance toward its application to the educational sector.

### **2.3.2.1 Theoretical roots for Organisational Justice**

Although the issue of justice has been largely explored since the epoch of Aristotle (Adams, 1966; Rodríguez-Montalbán et al., 2014), the construct was also inspired by other theoretical proposals about social justice, which served as the basis for the modern understanding of OJ (Greenberg, 1990). In specific, Jerald Greenberg, based his proposal on the Equity Theory and theories of Social Exchange anticipated by Blau (1964) and Homans in 1961 (Altinkurt et al., 2015; Lim & Loosemore, 2017; Lin, 2018; Moorman, 1991; Rodríguez-Montalbán et al., 2014; Yilmaz & Altinkurt, 2012). Initially, the conceptual model of OJ proposed by Greenberg (1986; 1990) comprised two types of justice: (i) procedural, translated in satisfaction towards the system and (ii) distributive,

translated in satisfaction towards the outcomes obtained. Further details about the types and forms of OJ are presented in section 2.3.2.2.

Following this, it has been recognised that the most influential theory for the origin of OJ is the Equity theory, proposed by John Adams in 1965 (Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Altinkurt et al., 2015; Capone & Petrillo, 2016; Schilpzand et al., 2013). Adams inspired his theory of Distributive Justice in the ideas of Homans (1961), which from an economic perspective, explains that profits obtained for performing an action should be proportional to the investments made (Adams, 1966; Schilpzand et al., 2013). In this context, Adams proposed a relationship between the inputs made and the outcomes received. Consequently, these have significant effects on the employees' behaviours, attitudes, and performance in their workplace (Moorman, 1991; Schilpzand et al., 2013; Yilmaz & Altinkurt, 2012). Furthermore, the author proposes that "*justice is a curious mixture of equality within inequality*" (Adams, 1966, p. 273) since injustice or unfairness emerge from the perceived discrepancy between what is received and what is expected to be received (Adams, 1966; Bansal, 2017; Moorman, 1991). Moreover, Adams (1966) details that the possibility of perceiving injustice or inequality emerges every time two parts exchange anything.

Thus, from this perspective, perceptions of justice are present in different spheres of the individual's life, such as education and health (Adams, 1966; Bansal, 2017; Yilmaz, 2010). Furthermore, interestingly, Adams argues that inequity can emerge not only when an individual is "*relatively underpaid, but also when he is relatively overpaid*" (1966, p. 281). In other words, the perception of receiving the highest reward or outcome when it is perceived that the input or effort to achieve it was lower. Thus, a principle underlying this theory is concerning equity, which explains that what the members of an organisation

receive should be proportional to all extents (Adams, 1966; Greenberg, 1990; Hoy & Tarter, 2004).

In addition, as has been explained previously, Greenberg included Procedural Justice in his proposal of OJ. The author was based on the study by Thibaut, and Walker (1975). These authors contrasted courts of law with autocratic legal procedures with courts that gave more control to the users, findings that procedures were perceived fairer in the latter (Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016; Greenberg, 1990). In this regard, it is pertinent to emphasise that perceptions of fairness in front of autocratic systems acquire relevance for the present research. This, since this study, is focused on examining if the dynamics promoted during the dictatorship and post-dictatorship periods have influenced perceptions of OJ among school districts' staff and to understand if these are related to the significations of OCB.

To complement these assumptions, similarly to OCB's theoretical roots, the Social Exchange Theory also inspired the proposal of OJ (Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016). This theory is explained in more detail in section 2.2.2.3, and the proposed relationship between OJ and OCB will be presented in section 2.3.2.4. First, however, it is relevant to highlight that its theoretical connection to OJ lies in the primordial principle of Social Exchange which refers to reciprocity norms where an individual's input might or might not be reciprocated by the other (Blau, 1964). Accordingly, it is in this relationship of expected reciprocity that fairness and trust can be fostered and, in turn, perceptions of justice (Ferhat-Özbek, 2016; Guh et al., 2013; Jafari et al., 2011; Lin, 2018; Jakopec & Sušanj, 2014; Moorman, 1991).

To summarise, considering the nature of the theories that support the development of OJ, experts on the topic explain that justice has emerged as a social construction based on relationships and perceptions of equity towards them (Rodríguez-Montalbán et al.,

2014; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). In order to provide an understanding of these relationships and perceptions, the next section offers a revision regarding the types of OJ.

### **2.3.2.2 Dimensions of Organisational Justice**

Although a significant body of specialised literature has identified different types of OJ, there have been debates regarding whether the concept should be unidimensional or multidimensional (Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Colquitt, 2001; Lim & Loosemore, 2017). As argued by Colquitt (2001), this controversy originated when some studies were not able to find a correlation between the most popular dimensions of OJ, proposing, in consequence, an understanding of OJ as a unidimensional construct (Martocchio & Judge, 1995; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997). Nevertheless, other scholars found an association between the dimensions proposed by Greenberg in 1990 (Colquitt, 2001; Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016; Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018). Concerning this, Greenberg (1990), in his original conceptualisation of OJ, suggested two dimensions: Distributive and Procedural Justice. This, is to introduce perceptions of justice towards the achievements or outcomes (distributive) and regarding the process to achieve those outcomes (procedural) (Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008; Moorman, 1991; Yilmaz, 2010).

Later, Bies and Shapiro (1987) proposed with their research the need to incorporate a third dimension in order to acknowledge perceptions towards the relationships and interactions established within the organisations: Interactional Justice (Aytac, 2016; Bies & Shapiro, 1987; Yilmaz, 2010). In addition, other dimensions have been proposed, such as Informational Justice<sup>3</sup>, as suggested by Colquitt (2001),

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<sup>3</sup> Perceptions of inclusion in key decisions of the organisation or if adequate explanations are provided when decisions are made (Bansal, 2017; Colquitt, 2001; Rodríguez-Montalbán et al., 2014).

Rectificatory Justice<sup>4</sup>, and Interactive Justice<sup>5</sup> (Lin, 2018). However, it is relevant to mention that a substantial body of literature generally conceptualises OJ through the dimensions of Distributive, Procedural and Interactional Justice (Aytac, 2016; Cohen & Keren, 2008; Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016; Guh et al., 2013; Lin, 2018; Poole, 2008; Yilmaz, 2010; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009; Wang et al., 2017). In this regard, for the present thesis, the author acknowledges the existence of this debate and considers the significant contribution of presenting the most prevalent dimensions of OJ, as the sheer complexity of the concept requires a multidimensional understanding.

First, *Distributive Justice* (hereafter-abbreviated DOJ) emerge when organisational members of an organisation compare what they receive with what other colleagues receive, balancing the fairness of these gains (Buluc, 2015; Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). At the organisational level, DOJ can be translated into the perceptions of the members regarding payment promotions or bonuses (Altinkurt et al., 2015; Buluc, 2015; Heidari et al., 2012; Moorman, 1991; Sharoni et al., 2012; Yilmaz, 2010; Yilmaz & Altinkurt, 2012; Yilmaz, & Tasdan, 2009). For this reason, DOJ concerns with perceptions of administrative decisions (Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008).

Second, *Procedural Justice* (hereafter abbreviated as POJ) can be understood as the perception of fairness in decision-making policies and procedures (Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008; Greenberg, 1990; Heidari et al., 2012; İçerli, 2010; Moorman, 1991; Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018; Wang et al., 2017). The literature has proposed several criteria to understand POJ, such as the extent to which decisions are ethical, equal, accurate, objective, unbiased, and susceptible to correction (Buluc, 2015;

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<sup>4</sup> Rectificatory Justice can be related to the measures to correct injustice, unfairness or inequality at the organisational level (Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008).

<sup>5</sup> Interactive Justice can be understood as the perceptions of how the communication regarding decision-making processes is addressed (Heidari et al., 2012; Lin, 2018).

Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018; Tastan & Yilmaz, 2008). Likewise, Aydin, and Karaman-Kepenekci (2008) and Buluc (2015) propose that fair POJ should be representative, or in other words, that decision-making processes should involve the recipients of those decisions. At the organisational level, POJ can be reflected in the procedures that lead to outcomes, promotions, performance appraisals, among others (Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008; Aytac, 2016; Wang et al., 2017; Yilmaz, 2010; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Furthermore, Aydin, and Karaman-Kepenekci (2008) and Bansal (2017) detail that POJ can positively affect organisational commitment, turnover decrease, trust, and organisational citizenship, and decrease turnover, among others. The OJ and OCB relationship will be presented in more detail in section 2.3.2.4.

Finally, *Interactional Justice* (hereafter abbreviated IOJ) can be understood as the perception of fairness regarding how the members of an organisation are treated (Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008; Aytac, 2016; Bansal, 2017; Chan & Jepsen, 2011; Jakopec & Sušanĳ, 2014; Sharoni et al., 2012; Tastan & Yilmaz, 2008; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). In this regard, Bies, and Moag proposed that IOJ emphasises the relevance of the interpersonal approach during the enactment of procedures and decision-making processes (Bies, 2001; Bies & Shapiro, 1987; Buluc, 2015; Lin, 2018; Moorman, 1991; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Thus, IOJ can be translated into actions such as appreciation of organisational members, the development of quality relationships and being respectful (Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016; İçerli, 2010).

### **2.3.2.3 The relevance of Organisational Justice**

After providing a conceptualisation for OJ, and the debates regarding the construct, the complexity of the concept becomes evident. Moreover, several studies have been conducted to identify the influence of OJ at several levels: the individual, group,

leadership and organisational. Thus, the purpose of this section is to provide a review of these studies.

At the *individual level*, it has been suggested that OJ can influence attitudes and behaviours (Rodríguez-Montalbán et al., 2014; Yilmaz, 2010). For instance, OJ has been related to psychological wellbeing, anxiety, depression (Capone & Petrillo, 2016), stress (Jakopec & Sušanj, 2014), job performance (Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Diehl et al., 2018; Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018), absenteeism (Capone & Petrillo, 2016), job satisfaction, motivation, trust, assessment of the authority, turnover intentions (Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018), burnout, and feelings of alienation (Bansal, 2017) and OCB (Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Altinkurt et al., 2015; Aytac, 2016; Aydin & Karaman-Kepeneci, 2008; Heidari et al., 2012; Jafari et al., 2011; Jakopec & Sušanj, 2014; Kwon-Choi et al., 2014; Rodríguez-Montalbán et al., 2014). Interestingly, the study conducted by Molines, and Fall (2016) on a sample of police officers, suggested a relationship between perceptions of OJ and the participants' commitment. Moreover, the study of Wang et al. (2017) in the hospitality industry unveiled that perceptions of OJ predict turnover intentions.

At the *group level*, the literature suggests that OJ can influence group commitment, collective esteem, and feelings of inclusion (Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Ceylan & Sulu, 2011). In this regard, Bansal (2017) proposes that in organisational settings where members are not treated equally, feelings of social isolation are likely to be reproduced, which, in turn, can affect other organisational areas.

Additionally, it has been highlighted the relevance of leaders, managers, and supervisors in OJ (Jafari et al., 2011; Lim & Loosemore, 2017; Zapata et al., 2016). In this sense, the research of Jafari et al. (2011) positively associated transformational leadership as a predictor of OJ since leaders are more likely to be able to engage their



team members in decision-making processes. Moreover, Lim, and Loosemore (2017) found that when leaders promote IOJ, their followers are more likely to tolerate unfairness at other institutional levels. Furthermore, Jakopec, and Sušanj (2014) explain that adverse effects of unfairness are more evident when leaders are unfair, even if fair treatment is promoted at other organisational levels. This idea has been supported by the authors' study conducted with employees in different Croatian organisations from the private and public sectors and manufacturing services (Jakopec & Sušanj, 2014).

Finally, at the *organisational level*, research has proposed that OJ contributes to developing a positive “employer-employee” relationship (Gupta & Singh, 2013). In this regard, Jafari et al. (2011) and Thomsen et al. (2015) explain that trust in the institution is expected to be enhanced when organisations promote fairness and equality through participative decision-making processes. In this regard, the study conducted by Guh et al. (2013) on faculty members of public and private Taiwanese universities unveiled that OJ is positively related to institutional trust. Furthermore, the research developed by Lim, and Loosemore (2017), with a sample of professionals from the construction industry in Australia, unveiled that, when asked about their perceptions of fairness, participants highly valued their participation in decision-making processes. These findings acquire particular relevance in the context of this research, considering that in previous sections, the significance of workers' participation in organisational governance has been emphasised.

#### **2.3.2.4 The relationship between Organisational Justice and Organisational Citizenship Behaviours**

Considering that the present research is focused on analysing the OCB manifested by members of DMEs and LSPEs in Chile and to advance towards understanding if the

perceptions of OJ influence OCB, the purpose of this section is to explore an association between these variables. In this regard, several researchers have studied this relationship, evidencing a strong relation between OJ and OCB (Aytac, 2016; Buluc, 2015; Cohen & Keren, 2008; Demir, 2015; Heidari et al., 2012; Jafari et al., 2011; Jakopec & Sušanj, 2014; Kwon-Choi et al., 2014; Lim & Loosemore, 2017; Lin, 2018; Molines & Fall, 2016; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1997; Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018; Rodríguez-Montalbán et al., 2014; Schilpzand et al., 2013; Tastan & Yilmaz, 2008; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009).

Indeed, it has been suggested that to promote OCB in an organisation, it is necessary to promote justice and fairness (Heidari et al., 2012; Moorman, 1991). In this regard, as OJ and OCB share a theoretical root based on the Social Exchange Theory, it has been proposed that OJ influences OCB. This is because, in Social Exchange relationships, when organisational members perceive that they are treated fairly, they are likely to display OCB (Jakopec & Sušanj, 2014; Kwon-Choi et al., 2014; Lim & Loosemore, 2017). Indeed, Dennis Organ highlighted the relationship between fairness perceptions with OCB, explaining that OCB is displayed to reciprocate the fair treatment received (Gupta & Singh, 2013; Heidari et al., 2012; Organ & Moorman, 1993; Moorman, 1991; Rodríguez-Montalbán et al., 2014; Sharoni et al., 2012; Schilpzand et al., 2013).

Finally, research has associated the influence of OJ dimensions in displaying the five forms of OCB (Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008; Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016; Heidari et al., 2012; Lim & Loosemore, 2017). For instance, Ferhat-Özbek et al. (2016), in their research conducted in the private sector of Kyrgyzstan, suggested that IOJ, DOJ and POJ influence OCB. Similar findings are supported by the study of Kwon-Choi et al. (2014) on ten private companies in South Korea. In addition, the research by Gupta, and Singh (2013) in an oil refinery in India exposed that POJ and IOJ influence OCB.

### 2.3.2.5 The influence of culture on Organisational Justice

Considering that this research highlights the importance of the sociocultural context, it acquires relevance to evidence of the influence of this variable on OJ. Thus, the purpose of this section is to provide a revision regarding the mentioned topic.

It has been recognised that there is scarce research focused on the effects of culture and contextual variables in OJ (Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Diehl et al., 2018; Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016; Schilpzand et al., 2013; Thomsen et al., 2015). In this regard, scholars have explained that the few studies conducted on the topic have been developed in Western societies (Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Diehl et al., 2018; Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016; Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018). Thus, in light of this apparent gap in the literature, it acquires relevance to explore the influence of the socio-cultural context in OJ to advance towards an understanding based on Latin American societies. Moreover, the proponents of the theoretical pillars that support this thesis have argued the necessity of conducting further research that relates the context with OJ. For instance, Greenberg proposes that although OJ is a universal concern, its application, standards, and understanding are specific to the context (Gupta & Singh, 2013; Poole, 2008; Yilmaz, 2010). Furthermore, Organ, and Moorman (1993) highlight that “*organisations are a microcosm of a just world*” (p. 8), and for this reason, these are influenced by the contingencies of the societal environment (Moorman, 1991). Likewise, as explained in section 2.2.2.1, Graham (1991, 2000) proposes that the geopolitical and cultural environment influences the workers’ behaviours and the relationships they establish within their workplace.

Accordingly, researchers have proposed that cultural factors influence the three dimensions of OJ (DOJ, POJ and IOJ). In other words, what is accepted as fair in a particular society will not necessarily be accepted in other societies if the norms and values differ (Bansal, 2017; Cohen & Keren, 2008; Gupta & Singh, 2013). In this regard,

scholars have proposed that perceptions of reciprocity and fairness are more expected in societies characterised by low power distance. In opposition, when bureaucratic and authoritarian societies are analysed, it has been evidenced that the authoritarian characteristics are likely to be replicated in organisational management (Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016; Gupta & Singh, 2013). Moreover, studies propose that individualism can influence OJ (Cohen & Keren, 2008; Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016). In this regard, collectivist cultures are expected to develop an equal distribution of rewards and group-based control of organisational processes. In opposition, individualist cultures are expected to foster an individual-based control of organisational processes (Alkhadher & Gadelrab, 2016; Gupta & Singh, 2013). Furthermore, Gupta, and Singh (2013), Ferhat-Özbek et al. (2016), and Schilpzand et al. (2013) suggest that OJ promotes and encourages OCB and that cultural values such as individualism-collectivism could moderate this relationship.

In addition, it has been pointed out that the social environment influences the behaviours and perceptions of fairness in the workplace (Diehl et al., 2018; Rodríguez-Montalbán et al., 2014). For instance, socioeconomic inequality, low human development, and unsafe or characterised by social segregation are expected to promote high uncertainty and discourage autonomy among the population. In turn, this will affect the citizens' life, including the relationship they develop with their workplace and, consequently, their OJ (Diehl et al., 2018). Thus, from this perspective, it is plausible to propose that in segregated countries or contexts of dictatorship or post-dictatorship, such as the Chilean, perceptions of OJ are expected to be impacted negatively.

Likewise, it has been suggested that in front of constant exposure to social inequality, unfairness, and injustice, it is likely that citizens will normalise this reality, replicating it in the organisational context. For instance, when exposed to social violence,

individuals are more likely to engage in aggression in their workplace (Ashforth & Anand, 2003; Ashforth & Kreiner, 2002; Diehl et al., 2018). Indeed, Diehl and colleagues (2018) explain that OJ is particularly relevant in contexts of social inequality since, under these conditions, organisations –through the promotion of OJ–could act as “anchors” for their members. This, if these become a safe space in front of the reality of the context.

### **2.3.3 Organisational Justice in the educational context**

Similar to studies analysing the influence of the socio-cultural context in OJ, research on OJ in the educational sector has been limited and has predominantly focused on teachers’ perceptions (Addai et al., 2018; Altinkurt et al., 2015). Nonetheless, it has been acknowledged the pivotal role of OJ in educational settings (Addai et al., 2018; Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008; Buluc, 2015; Guh et al., 2013). In this regard, it has been highlighted that fairness perceptions of educational staff permeate the school climate and are associated with the students’ performance and wellbeing and the relationship they develop with their social environment (Capone & Petrillo, 2016; Elovainio et al., 2011). In this regard, it can be proposed that OJ influences different levels of the educational system. Indeed, Capone, and Petrillo (2016) and Lin (2018) suggest an association between the perceptions of OJ from teachers, and students, with their psychological wellbeing. Furthermore, the findings of a study conducted in the Finnish public educational sector by Elovainio et al. (2011) suggest that low POJ perceptions of school staff were associated with the students’ dissatisfaction, school attendance, truancy, a high risk of poor academic performance and depression.

Furthermore, it has been proposed that OJ is pivotal for the organisation’s social and psychological environment and that it can influence teachers’ performance, satisfaction and trust in their leaders (Addai et al., 2018; Capone & Petrillo, 2016; Elovainio et al., 2011; Jafari et al., 2011; Thomsen et al., 2015; Yilmaz, 2010). Moreover,

similar to the findings in other sectors, scholars have proposed a relationship between OJ and OCB in educational settings (Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008; Buluc, 2015; Demir, 2015; Diehl et al., 2018; Jafari et al., 2011; Thomsen et al., 2015).

In addition, as was exposed in section 2.1.2.2, the growing trend of several educational systems, such as the Chilean, towards accountability has negatively impacted the working conditions of the school staff (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Poole, 2008; Van der Ree, 2011). Accordingly, in contexts of market-oriented educational policies focused on competence, high-stakes testing and accountability, it has been proposed that these can have a disruptive impact on the identities and practices of educational staff. This, since the purpose of education, is now seen as serving neoliberal, individualistic ideologies (Demir, 2015; Hoy & Tarter, 2004; Poole, 2008). Furthermore, Poole (2008) suggests that in organisations with a significant focus on accountability, where decision-making processes of relevant issues are conducted externally, and the actors directly affected by these decisions are not involved, the staff's identity can be diminished perceiving a sense of injustice.

Besides, Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci (2008) propose that scenarios of unfair workload distribution, unfair performance appraisals, and failure to attain academic outcomes foster high levels of stress and conflict among teachers. Indeed, the study conducted by Addai et al. (2018) in the Turkish educative sector found that the three dimensions of OJ can contribute to reducing turnover intentions among teaching staff.

### **2.3.3.1 Educational leadership and Organisational Justice**

Research on the relationship between educational leadership and OJ has been scarce (Hoy & Tarter, 2004). Indeed, this author did not find studies analysing the relationship and role of district leadership in OJ. Despite this scenario, scholars have

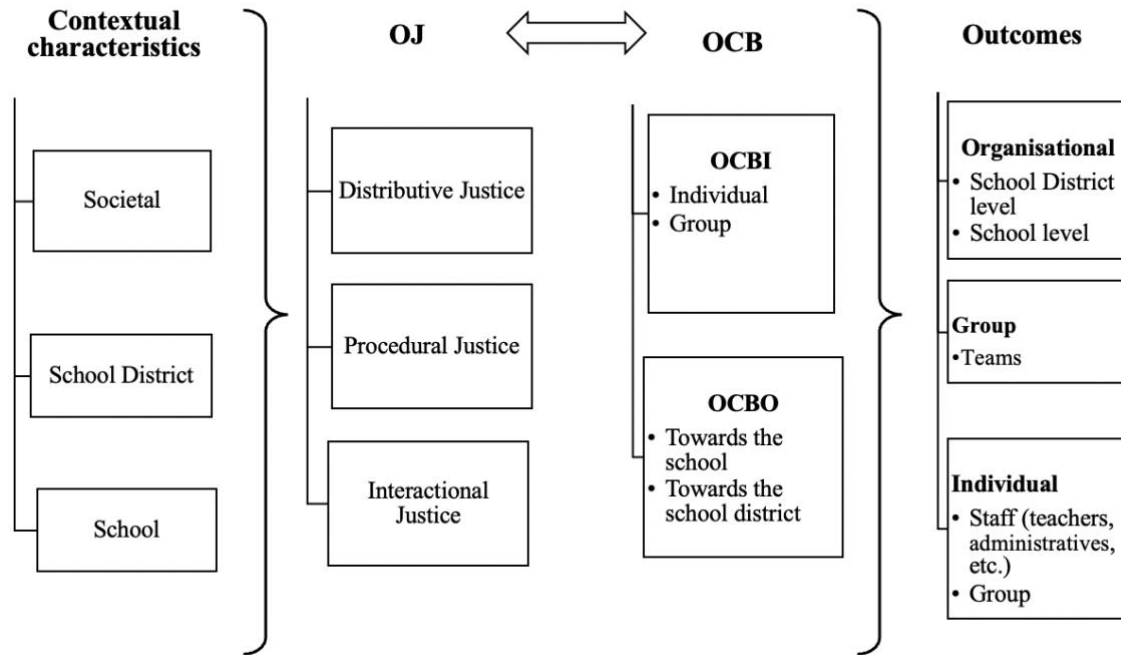
highlighted the pivotal role of educational leaders and administrators in promoting and encouraging a fair environment in the educational context as these actors can provide guidance and support at the time that they conduct and propose procedures, decisions, norms and rules (Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008; Çoğaltay & Karadağ, 2016; Jafari et al., 2011; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Moreover, the findings of Çoğaltay, and Karadağ (2016) suggest that educational leadership can positively influence the organisational climate, culture, commitment, trust, OJ and OCB. Interestingly, Thomsen et al. (2015) found in their study that in terms of POJ, teachers showed more trust in their leaders than in their team.

Furthermore, the literature suggests that behaviours and attitudes manifested by educational administrators, as well as their assessments (i.e., performance appraisals), influence the teachers' perceptions of justice (Çoğaltay & Karadağ, 2016). Indeed, it has been proposed that considering the responsibilities of the leaders' role (i.e., rewards, promotions, students' allocations, etcetera), school principals and administrators are more likely to focus on promoting DOJ (Aydin & Karaman-Kepenekci, 2008; Jafari et al., 2011). Furthermore, Jafari et al. (2011) explain that negative perceptions of OJ among staff are related to weak organisational structures, leadership, and decision-making styles.

For these reasons, the authors highlight several recommendations for educational leaders to promote OJ in their organisations. Among these are to involve educational staff in decision-making processes through formal and informal mechanisms and to be fair in the application of rules and procedures, as well as in the distribution of work (Hoy & Tarter, 2004; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). In addition, leaders should foster and manifest ethical principles to encourage fairness and, considering neoliberal educative policies, where they are called to implement these, can encourage members' identities towards the organisation (Hoy & Tarter, 2004; Poole, 2008; Yilmaz & Altinkurt, 2012).

Finally, in light of the theoretical proposal in this section, it is plausible to suggest an integrative model that includes the relationship between OJ and OCB, as shown in Figure 3.

**Figure 3.** Integrative model of OJ and OCB applied to the educational sector



*Figure 3:* Own elaboration. Revised from: “Organizational citizenship behaviour in schools: Examining the impact and opportunities within educational systems”, by A. Somech, and I. Oplatka 2015, Routledge: New York. Copyright A. Somech and I. Oplatka.

As Figure 3 suggests, this model considers that the contextual characteristics (societal, school district and schools) influence the perceptions of OJ (DOJ, POJ and IOJ). Following this, it can be suggested that there is a relationship between OJ and OCB, as previously described in section 2.2.4. Furthermore, these dynamics can be translated into organisational and individual outcomes. Finally, it is relevant to highlight that although this theoretical model was inspired by Somech and Oplatka’s (2015) proposal of the context’s influence in OCB, this proposal is original since the author of this research is unaware of further research suggesting a similar association.



## **2.4 Summary of the Literature Review and Research gaps identified**

The author of this thesis has presented a Literature Review aiming to understand how, in contexts of citizens' disenchantment, the encouragement of OCB by public policies and its management by School Districts can contribute to achieving different organisational outcomes and overcoming social inequalities.

In this regard, conceptions of Citizenship have evolved according to the socio-historical period. For this reason, it can be argued that the context strongly influences different spheres of society, including citizens and organisations. Indeed, it can be suggested that the social environment influences the citizens' perceptions of fair treatment in their society and organisations. In consequence, perceptions of fairness can determine how individuals behave in their organisations and accordingly in the display of OCB. Moreover, since organisations are pivotal in promoting fair treatment and citizenship behaviours, it can be proposed that these can encourage (or discourage) participative, responsible, and critical citizens who actively participate in their organisations' governance and their society. Considering these antecedents, the Literature Review presented in this research is organised into three topics: i) Citizenship, ii) Organisational Citizenship Behaviours, and iii) Organisational Justice.

Concerning the first topic, Citizenship, the literature review shows the evolution of the concept since the period of Aristotle. Following this, both the most traditional and new understandings of Citizenship are described, showing that the construct has multiple approaches. For example, National, Post-National, Cosmopolitan/Global, Multicultural, Intercultural and Ethnic citizenship are presented. Indeed, despite the lack of consensus, the literature does evidence a certain level of agreement when highlighting its relevance. In this sense, Citizenship can contribute to overcoming global problems such as social

inequalities and unjust structures and achieving social inclusion and cohesion to transform societies.

For this reason, a substantial body of literature suggests the need to advance from a perspective that understands Citizenship as a legal status (National citizenship), unveiling a tension between the inclusion/exclusion of individuals. Concretely, to advance towards other perspectives that appreciate and value local particularities such as contextual characteristics, historicity, cultural norms, and values. This theoretical proposal acquires relevance considering that the political environment and cultural values can influence the workers' behaviours and relationships that they establish in their workplaces. Equally, organisations are expected to replicate contextual characteristics (i.e., environment and culture) through normative rules, procedures, and overall regulations that these institutions set.

Following this, the Literature Review reveals that in most Western and Latin American societies, democracy emerges as an alternative to conciliate conflicts in the polis, guaranteeing certain civic rights and responsibilities to the citizens. From this perspective, it is assumed that citizens are political actors who have the right and duty to participate in their societies. However, in Chile, democracy is facing a period of questioned legitimacy translated into distrust, scepticism and disillusion towards the system and its political authorities, manifested in voter turnout and reduced participation of the citizens. The literature acknowledges that corruption scandals have contributed to the reasons for this crisis. However, also, in specific societies, this crisis can be attributed to the lack of citizenship skills and civic knowledge about issues such as social justice and the history or memory of the socio-cultural setting. To exemplify these assumptions and to advance toward the context where this research is focused, the Literature Review illustrates the case of Latin America.

Considering the Latin American context, it is proposed the need to advance from a traditional Eurocentric understanding of Citizenship towards a situated perspective that acknowledges Latin America's historicity. Since the origin of these societies, this was marked by submission to external, oppressive, and authoritarian regimes. Consequently, the literature suggests that “citizens” developed patronising, paternalistic relationships in contexts of domination. In turn, the lack of autonomy, critical thinking and individualism were normalised. Moreover, during the XX century, Latin America was marked by violent civil wars and military dictatorships, which deepened the social inequalities of this region. In addition, experts suggest that the implementation of neoliberal policies in countries such as Chile influenced the relationships that Citizens establish with the State, characterising it as a State-costumer relationship instead of a State-Citizen relationship.

In consequence, Latin America is one of the most unequal regions in the world, and Chile is one of the most socio-economically segregated countries. Thus, it is plausible to propose that Citizenship Education emerges as a key to overcoming these inequalities and difficulties. For this reason, it can be proposed that formal education can compensate for and counteract the inequalities and lack of political and civic engagement. Indeed, according to Paulo Freire (1974, 1990), transformative social changes are only possible thanks to education since citizens are their heart and engine.

Specialised literature proposes that CCE can promote responsibility, autonomy, reflection, social awareness, skills, values, habits, and attitudes. Moreover, research suggests that Citizenship should be taught transversally, in all spheres of school life (such as the formal and informal curriculum), and by all the involved actors. Thus, it is plausible to suggest that in this context, the manifestation of OCB by educational actors acquires particular relevance since students can learn about Citizenship from diverse actors and in different aspects of their school life.

Following this, the literature explains that during repressive regimes, such as the experienced in Latin America, educational curriculums are expected to be coercive and repressive, discouraging civic abilities such as critical thinking and participation. In turn, the emphasis is focused on teaching about obedience, routines, and automatic learning. Moreover, it has been proposed that educational actors trained during a dictatorship are expected to manifest a “*curricular paradox*”, which refers to teaching in a post-dictatorial context about democratic values without having the tools, experience or knowledge to do it. Thus, it is plausible to propose that the role of policymakers and School Districts acquire relevance in providing support to address paradoxes such as these and leading strategies to promote citizenship. The need to advance in this matter is evident when the case of Chile is presented.

The ICCS study conducted in Latin American societies evidenced that 8th-grade students display more civic knowledge than civic attitudes in Chile. Indeed, 57% justify a dictatorship if it brought society security and order. Moreover, in this country, research shows that Citizenship has been reformulated according to the historical moment. For instance, in Chile, Citizenship was communitarian, political-socialist, inhibited and finally, oriented to a State-Customer perspective. In this regard, it is plausible to suggest that educative policies have been supporting different understandings of Citizenship and have influenced the current disenchantment of citizens and students towards democracy. Thus, the need to suggest alternatives to address these challenges. In this sense, studies conducted in Chile highlight that although the role of educative leadership in influencing citizenship behaviours has been relatively unexplored, leaders do have a pivotal function in encouraging citizenship behaviours.

Regarding the second topic, OCB, section 2.2.2.3 provides a revision of the theoretical roots of OCB, which can be associated with the Social Exchange Theory, and

experiments in the field of Social Psychology. Moreover, debates regarding the definition and dimensions of OCB are presented. For instance, although there is no consensus about whether OCB should be understood as the in-role or extra-role behaviours, a substantial body of literature supports the assumption that OCB should involve all the acts that support the social and psychological organisational environment.

A similar debate about which forms that OCB involves has taken place. However, up to date, most of the literature acknowledges the five original dimensions proposed by Dennis Organ, Altruism, Civic virtue, Consciousness, Courtesy and Sportsmanship (Organ, 1988). Following this, the literature review exposes two interesting findings when analysing the studies on the issue and the variables that predict OCB in the organisational context. First, the studies conducted about OCB have been centred in three levels of analysis: the individual, group, and organisational. However, research focusing on the socio-cultural context and OCB is scarce, although its importance has been highlighted by Organ, and Ryan (1995).

Furthermore, regarding variables that predict OCB, most research has concentrated on identifying leadership as a variable that predicts OCB. Other relevant variables found are organisational commitment, OJ and fairness. Furthermore, most studies have been conducted from a quantitative perspective through questionnaires.

Following this, regarding OCB in the educational context, studies on the topic are scarce, and most of them have been centred on analysing teachers' OCB (individual level). Indeed, research regarding other educational actors or OCB in the schools, school districts (organisational level) or educational systems is limited. Additionally, when analysing OCB in education, the few existent studies do not analyse the socio-cultural level's influence. For this reason, this study aims to contribute by providing knowledge and evidence about the mentioned gaps. Moreover, it is relevant to highlight that most

studies conducted in educational settings are quantitative. In this regard, it becomes relevant to propose a methodological design that advances toward understanding perspectives about OCB.

Following this, the Literature Review aims to contribute to the knowledge by unveiling the gaps in research and what has been studied. Theoretical findings suggest that in the educational sector, OCB can be manifested towards the organisation (schools and School Districts) and the individuals (students and colleagues). Moreover, among the outcomes of OCB, it has been suggested that its strategic management by school districts is pivotal. This, since these can influence the organisational, group and individual levels through turnover, wellbeing, stress, absenteeism, commitment, burnout, achievement of organisational goals and students' cognitive and non-cognitive outcomes, among others.

Furthermore, the literature highlights the relevant role of educational leaders in influencing these behaviours through developing strategies that support OCB, such as encouraging and sustaining democratic and caring environments. However, studies provide limited evidence regarding the specific role of School Districts in this matter, exposing the need to conduct further research on this topic. Indeed, research developed in educative settings are mostly focused on evidencing the role of schoolteachers in encouraging OCB. Besides, these have proposed that students from schools with democratic practices such as open discussions are more likely to manifest positive perceptions of school climate conflict management and positive attitudes towards other groups. In this sense, although the literature has not focused yet on the role of other educational actors in encouraging citizenship behaviours, it is plausible to propose that these have a significant role in promoting and displaying them.

The third topic characterises OJ as the perceptions of fair and equal treatment within organisational settings. In this sense, it is offered a revision regarding the

theoretical roots of the construct (Equity Theory, the Social Exchange Theory, and experiments in courts of justice).

Following this, debates regarding the understanding of OJ as a unidimensional or multidimensional concept are presented, showing that although there is no consensus, frequently, the literature characterises OJ as a multidimensional construct with different dimensions, Procedural, Distributive, and Interactional. In addition, research has analysed the construct's influence on different levels, such as the individual, group, leadership and organisational. Among the most significant findings, it has been suggested that perceptions of unfairness can decrease commitment and wellbeing. Moreover, research conducted in different sectors exposes a relationship between OJ and OCB since perceptions of fairness encourage the manifestation of citizenship behaviours. Accordingly, it is suggested that to promote OCB, it is necessary to also encourage justice and fairness in the organisation.

Besides, as this study highlights the importance of the socio-cultural and political environment in organisations, the Literature Review attempted to advance on this issue. In this regard, most of the existent research has been focused on Western Societies, evidencing a gap in the literature. Concerning this, it has been suggested that contexts of socioeconomic inequality, low human development and social segregation are likely to discourage autonomy, collectivism, foster uncertainty, and perceptions of unfairness. Besides, bureaucratic and authoritarian societies are expected to replicate these practices in their organisations. Furthermore, studies explain that individualistic values emerge as moderators in the relationship between OJ and OCB in the described contexts. Consequently, these findings support the proposal of Organ, and Moorman, who argued that *“organisations are a microcosm of a just world”* (1993, p. 8).

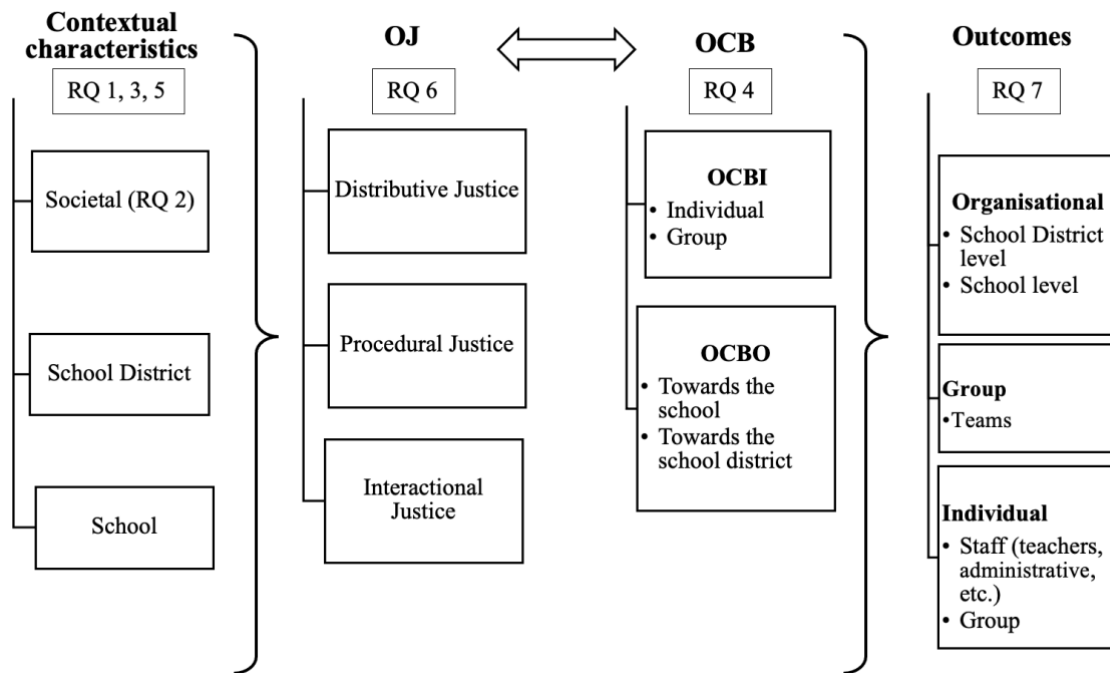
Following this, when analysing the application of OJ in the educational sector, research has been predominantly focused on teachers' perceptions, excluding other educative actors. Despite this, studies suggest that perceptions of fairness and OJ influence different levels and actors of the educative organisations. For instance, these perceptions permeate the school climate and influence students' performance, wellbeing, and the relationships that they develop with their social environment. These findings expose the importance of addressing OJ in educative settings. Indeed, it has been suggested that in contexts of accountability and high-stakes testing, perceptions of injustice and unfairness are expected to be promoted if organisational members do not participate in decision-making processes.

Regarding the role of Educational Leadership in promoting perceptions of OJ and OCB, although research focusing on School Districts is limited, it can be proposed that educative leadership is pivotal. For instance, studies relate negative perceptions of OJ among staff with weak organisational structures, leadership, and decision-making styles.

Finally, in light of the theoretical aspects exposed in the revision of the literature and the need to contribute by addressing the identified gaps, this research proposes the following model of relationships between the influence of the context in OJ and OCB in the educational sector.



**Figure 4.** Research questions in the proposed integrative model of OJ and OCB



Note: Own elaboration.

Thus, considering the presented issues and gaps that emerged from the Literature Review, it is plausible to propose the following research questions:

- I. How has citizenship been encouraged by the national educative policies and laws in Chile?
- II. What conceptions of citizenship have been encouraged by curricular guidelines and history textbooks since the Chilean dictatorship?
- III. What forms of citizenship are encouraged by the participant organisations?
- IV. What forms of OCB are displayed by employees from the participant DME and LSPE?
- V. What are the main barriers and facilitators to OCB perceived by DME and LSPE members?
- VI. What perceptions of OJ are manifested by the participants?
- VII. Are there any outcomes or consequences of these barriers and facilitators to OCB?

To advance towards answering the questions proposed, the next chapter introduces the methodological design of the present research.

## **CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODS**

### **3.1 Aims, objectives and research questions**

The theoretical revision supporting this research (Chapters 1 and 2) demonstrated that the literature centred on analysing OCB in the educational sector had been predominantly focused on the individual level of schoolteachers. This, without acknowledging the role of other educative actors or the organisational (schools and school districts) and socio-cultural context in these phenomena. Accordingly, it exposed the need for advancing to an integral comprehension of the phenomenon. Moreover, as most research has been predominantly quantitative, little attention has been given to exploring the significations of educative actors about OCB and OJ. Therefore, it is plausible to propose a suitable methodology that advances toward understanding perspectives of OCB.

Following the gaps identified and the research questions presented at the end of the literature review, this chapter is organised into three main sections: philosophical assumptions, methodology and the methods chosen to develop this study. Section 3.2 is dedicated to exposing the existing paradigms in research, justifying the worldview that guides this research. Section 3.3, dedicated to the methodology, exposes a characterisation and rationale for the proposed design. Following this, the methods segment (section 3.4) details the sampling strategy, the techniques to collect data (section 3.4.2), and the procedures to analyse the information gathered (section 3.4.3).

### **3.2 Philosophical assumptions**

It has been suggested that to propose an appropriate paradigm and methodological research design, it is necessary to formulate it according to the research aims, objectives and questions proposed (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006; Robson, 2011). Consequently,

Table 2 details these elements, which have been outlined considering the literature revision, research problem and rationale presented in Chapters 1 and 2.

**Table 2.** *Research aims, objectives and questions proposed for this study*

<b>Aims</b>	<b>Objectives</b>	<b>Research Questions (RQ)</b>
To identify perspectives of citizenship encouraged in the national educative policies in Chile.	1. To examine how Citizenship Education has been encouraged in national educative policies.	1. How has citizenship been encouraged by the national educative policies and laws in Chile? 2. What conceptions of citizenship have been encouraged by curricular guidelines and history textbooks since the Chilean dictatorship?
To analyse the forms of OCB manifested by staff from the new (LSPE) and old (DME) school districts in Chile and their outcomes for the district.	2. To examine different manifestations of citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE. 3. To examine the main factors influencing citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE.	3. What forms of citizenship are encouraged by the participant organisations? 4. What forms of OCB are displayed by employees from the participant DME and LSPE? 5. What are the main barriers and facilitators to OCB perceived by DME and LSPE members? 6. What perceptions of OJ are manifested by the participants? 7. Are there any outcomes or consequences of these barriers and facilitators to OCB?

*Note:* Own elaboration.

A key piece for conducting any research is related to its philosophical assumptions. These are also known as “paradigms” and represent basic belief systems or worldviews. These different perspectives are fundamental guidelines that set the context, logic and grounds where the research design and methods are developed (Creamer, 2018; Creswell, 2009; Crotty, 1998; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015; Sönmez, 2013).

In research, paradigms are informed according to conceptions about a) the nature of reality, known as *ontology*; b) the *epistemology* or nature of knowledge, and the researcher-participant relationship. In other words, how knowledge is constructed and what knowledge is possible to produce, leading to specific methodological assumptions and designs; c) the methodology, or the strategy to generate knowledge; and d) the axiology, or place for values and ethics in research (Creamer, 2018; Crotty, 1998; Guba

& Lincoln, 1994; Hesse-Biber & Johnson, 2015). What follows is the presentation of ontology and epistemology. Sections 3.3 and 3.4 detail points C and D.

A multiplicity of authors have identified different paradigms; moreover, these philosophical assumptions have received a variety of labels across the years (Tashakkori et al., 2015). Nevertheless, recent literature has suggested four existing paradigmatic orientations that are widely used. Creswell (2009, 2014), one of the most influential authors on the topic, has analysed these four orientations: post-positivism, constructivism, advocacy/participatory and pragmatic. Table 3 summarises these positions.

**Table 3.** *Summary of paradigms and philosophical assumptions*

<b>Paradigm</b>	<b>Main characteristics</b>	<b>Ontology</b>	<b>Epistemology</b>
Postpositivism	Reductionism and determinism. Verification of theories. Empirical observation and measurement. Objective.	Reality is probabilistically and statistically apprehendable.	Objectivist. The findings are probably valid.
Constructivism	Multiple meanings of individual experiences. Social and historical construction. Theory generation. Research relies on the participants' perspectives.	Relativism. Mental, social and experience-based constructions of reality. Reality is local and specific to social actors.	Transactional and subjectivist. Researcher and participant interact, so findings are "created" from this interaction.
Advocacy/participatory	Political. Empowerment. Change oriented. Collaborative. Focus on socially marginalised groups.	Reality is structured through conflictive tensions, such as political and social.	Co-production of knowledge derived from interventions.
Pragmatic	Problem-centred. Pluralistic. Real-world practice-oriented. The world is not seen as a unity, so research occurs in different contexts.	Reality is assembled through problems that are not structurally predetermined.	Problems and associations produce knowledge and truth.

Source: Adapted from Creswell (2009, 2014), Crotty (1998) and Guba, and Lincoln (1994).

Considering the exposed paradigms to conduct research and their conceptions about the nature of reality and knowledge, it is relevant to declare what philosophical assumptions guide this study.

This research has declared as its purpose to address the gaps identified concerning a predominant focus of the literature on the role of schoolteachers from an individual and reductionist perspective. This, through exploring the significations and meanings of educative actors from the district level about OCB and OJ. This is to identify their perspectives and significances of the phenomenon. Accordingly, it is pertinent to adopt multiple paradigms that value the perspectives of different actors, understanding that their construction of reality is based on their personnel, social and historical experiences, but also allow to explore different methods of data collection and hypotheses. Consequently, the predominant paradigm that better suits the purpose and focus of this study is the constructivist, followed by a postpositivist approach to propose hypotheses and use questionnaires (see section 3.4.2).

Adopting a predominant postpositivist paradigm would subtract relevance to the participants' subjective perceptions and would not address the gaps identified in the literature review. A participatory approach would suppose an emphasis on the empowerment of marginalised groups, which is not the focus of this study, that seeks to understand the significations and voices of different educative actors, including school district managers and workers that are not usually categorised as marginalised. Finally, a pragmatic paradigm entails approaching the problem by understanding different worldviews in order to approach the problem. For this research, it is fundamental to give relevance to participants' perspectives, understanding their viewpoints as constructed. Consequently, it is necessary to adopt a worldview suitable to this philosophical assumption, such as constructivism.

In this sense, constructivism or social constructivism is a paradigm that understands that there are as many realities and meanings as individuals. Indeed, these meanings are socially and historically constructed and built through interaction with others. Consequently, the researcher relies on the complexity of these views, focusing on the participants' specific historical and cultural contexts, understanding that these backgrounds influence their perspectives. Besides, the researcher acknowledges that his/her background influences the interpretation constructed (Creswell, 2009, 2014; Crotty, 1998; Howell, 2017). Considering the relevance that historical and cultural contexts have for the constructivist paradigm and that the focus of this research is precisely on understanding the various significances and perspectives of educative actors, from LSPEs and DMEs concerning citizenship and OCB in Chile, constructivism emerges as a suitable paradigm to guide this study.

Following this, critiques of this paradigm argue that reality is relativist and reduced and, thus, cannot be generalised (Howell, 2017). This research does not seek to provide generalisable findings but to study the reality constructed in specific particular cases of school districts in Chile. Accordingly, as it is presented in the next section, the strategy to conduct this study is precisely the denominated Case Study.

### **3.3 Methodology**

A research methodology can be understood as the strategy, plan or design that coherently and rationally encompasses and articulates the techniques or methods proposed to collect data to answer the research questions (Crotty, 1998). In this context, a substantial body of literature has traditionally recognised as the main methodological paradigms the Quantitative and Qualitative approaches and, recently, a third approach: The Mixed Methods.

Concerning these traditional methodologies, the Quantitative paradigm emerged as the first approach to research during the 19<sup>th</sup> century. This approach contemplated ontological, epistemological and methodological principles founded in a positivist perspective that seeks to generate knowledge through numerical data in order to propose cause and effect relationships, generalisability, or to test theories, among other purposes (Berman, 2017; Creswell, 2014; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Lund, 2012). Whereas, Qualitative research gained attention during the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and since then, it has been applied in diverse disciplines, such as education, psychology, management, and sociology, among others (Duncan et al., 1955). This approach emerged as an alternative to the quantitative positivist tradition. It aims to contribute to the knowledge by unveiling meanings, significations, discourses, and perspectives that emerge from the participants, acknowledging the influence of their context.

Furthermore, the process of developing qualitative methodologies is predominantly abductive. In other words, its objective is to understand a phenomenon from the perspective of social actors. Among the most popular research traditions sustained in this approach, Ethnographies, Grounded Theory Studies, and Case Studies can be mentioned (Berman, 2017; Creswell, 2009; Creswell, 2014; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Lund, 2012; Robson, 2011).

Ethnographies can be described as the studies that aim to analyse the mechanisms of a particular cultural group or society. Besides, Grounded Theory Studies allow the researcher to propose a theory from the particular social situation analysed (Creswell, 2014; Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006; Robson, 2011). On the other hand, Case Studies are a strategy to analyse a “*particular contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context*” (Robson, 2011, p. 136).



Case Studies can be based on individuals, groups or even organisations and allow the use of multiple techniques to collect data, including interviews, documents, and archives. Consequently, Case Studies include multiple perspectives within a particular context or setting, allowing an in-depth description and approach to the selected case (Creswell, 2014; Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006; Robson, 2011; Sönmez, 2013). Accordingly, Sönmez (2013) highlights four critical characteristics of Case Studies; these are “*particularistic, descriptive, heuristic and inductive*” (p. 310). In other words, this methodology is particular to a phenomenon and provides a detailed description thanks to the information collected. Besides, it is heuristic as it provides an advanced understanding of the studied case, “*while inductive refers to the form of reasoning used to determine generalisations or concepts that emerge from the data*” (p. 310).

In this regard, as previously explained in previous chapters, Chile is experiencing a unique historical moment. As a result, two organisational structures for school districts coexist, i) the new school districts or Local Services of Public Education- LSPE (in gradual implementation from 2018 to 2025) and ii) the old school districts or Departments/ Corporations of Municipal Education- DME (created during the dictatorship) (Mineduc, 2018). Accordingly, the situation of Chile is exceptional, and for this reason, studying the mentioned organisations can shed some light on exploring how citizenship is managed and encouraged in an organisation created during the civic-military dictatorship (DME) in contrast to an organism created in a democracy (LSPE).

In this sense, Case Studies emerge as the best strategy to explore such an exceptional and contemporary phenomenon, as DME will disappear in the next few years, and the implementation of LSPE began recently. Besides, studying the case of the latter arises as a unique opportunity that can provide information about how OCB, citizenship

and participation are encouraged in LSPEs, setting an antecedent for future studies, policymakers, and practitioners responsible for the implementation.

Furthermore, considering that the author seeks to explore both organisations (LSPE and DME) as independent cases, the type of Case Study design selected to conduct this research is known as Multiple Case Study (hereafter-MCS). The MCS aims to develop studies of multiple organisations and institutions, as proposed by Robson (2011) and Creswell (2014). Accordingly, this methodology allows the analysis of multiple cases to nurture the research' findings.

### **3.3.1 Selection of cases and participants: Context of the research**

During the civic-military dictatorship (1973-1989) in Chile, a neoliberal market-oriented approach was implemented through several policies. In the educative sector, a series of reforms were carried out, implementing State vouchers given to private-owned schools to decrease the tuition fees of these institutions. Consequently, private-owned education operated with a larger budget than public schools. (Marcel, 2009; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007).

In this context, public schools started to show lower academic results than private or subsidised establishments, conditioning the access to an education of quality to the income of the families (Marcel, 2009; Moreno-Doña & Gamboa, 2014; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007). Additionally, in 1986 the State transferred its administration of public schools to municipalities, which are not particularly specialised in education. Accordingly, Municipal Departments of Education or DMEs, were created (Falabella, 2020; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007). Consequently, the perception of families towards public education suffered significantly, as these felt that public education would not grant access to higher education due to its bad quality. Also, parents and guardians perceived that public schools' school climate is not favourable (Mineduc, 2018). Consequently, the

enrolment of students in public schools reflected a sustained decrease in the last 14 years, dropping by 33% (about 600.000 students) (Mineduc, 2018). In other words, if in 2004, 1.869.996 students attended municipal school, in 2019, only 1.236.988 did it. In contrast, subsidised and private education have shown a constant upward trend, reaching 2019 64.3% of the total enrolment.

Hence, considering these historical antecedents, the country has been immersed in one of the most significant reforms since the dictatorship to strengthen the quality of public education and reduce inequity within the system. Hence, the Bill for de-municipalising the administration of public education was approved, creating a new National System of Public Education (Law N° 21.040, 2017). This legislation created a new specialised organisational structure of school districts, or middle level responsible for public schools, the Local Services of Public Education (LSPEs) and gradually will eliminate DMEs. LSPEs will be implemented until 2025 (Congreso Nacional de Chile, 2018; Mineduc, 2018). Thus, four types of organisational structures for educative management currently exist in Chile: private-owned, private-subsidised, DMEs and LSPEs.

### **3.3.1.1 Sampling strategy**

As this research methodology is an MCS, the literature suggests that these designs must select the cases and participants carefully. In consequence, a sampling strategy that details the sampling scheme (strategy) and the sample size is fundamental (Collins & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007a).

In research, there are typically two types of sampling strategies, random and non-random, or in other words, non-purposive or purposive. This sampling election is based on the purpose of the research, where the latter can be helpful for studies that seek to

explore the particularities and significances of a phenomenon (Collins & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Creswell, 2014; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007a; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007b). Accordingly, the sampling election for this study followed the purposive strategy to explore cases that unveil the unique moment Chile is experiencing: the coexistence of two types of school districts (LSPE and DME). Therefore, this section aims to a) describe the procedure to select cases and b) participants within those cases.

#### **a) Selection of cases**

This study's aim involves analysing two types of organisations (LSPE and DME). Consequently, the sampling strategy was the Critical Case Purposive Sampling (Hereafter-CCPS), which emerges as the best approach for this research. Specifically, the CCPS is a type of scheme that allows the researcher to purposively choose a setting where it can be learned more about the particular and compelling phenomenon of interest (Onwuegbuzie & Collins & 2007; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007b). Applied to this research, this strategy is suitable for analysing the cases of LSPEs and DMEs.

The total of DME in Chile at the moment of screening (June 2019) was 345, whereas the total of LSPE was only four at the moment of data collection. Accordingly, it was necessary to propose a sampling criterion, summarised as follows.

- **Two “old” school districts or DME:** A principal axis is presented in sections 2.2.3.5, which unveil the influence of school districts on district outcomes and the students' citizenship behaviours. Accordingly, cases were selected considering their past four years' performance in the SIMCE (standardised test) and “*Participation, and Citizenship Training*” (Hereafter-PCT) national tests.

Initially, it was intended to select one SD from quartile 1 (low outcomes) and another from quartile 4 (high outcomes). However, DMEs with low outcomes,

invited to participate in the study, rejected the offer. Finally, after three rejections, the researcher and supervisory team agreed to extend the invitation only to DME with high academic outcomes (quartile 4). Table 4 provides information collected by the author detailing the score of the mentioned quartiles.

**Table 4.** School districts ordered by quartiles according to the national database from the Ministry of Education

Quartile	National surveys	
	SIMCE*	PCT**
1	151.1	60.09
2	178.2	70.51
3	201.8	78.76
4	319.0	101.76

*Source:* Own elaboration. Data retrieved from Base de Datos Mineduc (2019). \*The SIMCE scores contemplate the same years when the PCT was applied in Chile: 2014-2017 for the 2<sup>nd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup>, 8<sup>th</sup>, and 10<sup>th</sup> grades. \*\*The PCT scores consider the results from 2014-2017. 2014 was the first year when this test was applied. This test was answered by students from the 4<sup>th</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup>, 8<sup>th</sup>, and 10<sup>th</sup> grades.

A second criterion for selecting organisations was the number of schools they administered. It was established that for this study, the selected DME should administer at least five schools to acknowledge the complexity of their territorial influence and managerial practices concerning citizenship and OCB. Thus, two DMEs were selected: one of them in the central- interior (mountains) zone of Chile (DME-1) and the other on the central coast (DME-2). Both school districts administer urban and rural schools.

- **Two “new” school districts or LSPEs:** At the moment of the data collection, only four LSPEs were operating. Accordingly, the selection only followed a geographical criterion: one LSPE in the north (LSPE-1) and one LSPE in the south (LSPE-2) of the country. Table 5 summarises the main organisational characteristics of the participant cases.

**Table 5.** *Characterisation of participant cases*

Case ID	Location	Educational Establishments*			Number of Students*	Workers at SD level**
		Schools	Nurseries	Total		
DME-1	Central-interior	9	-	-	1,606	10
DME-2	Central-coast	6	3	9	1,182	19
LSPE-1	North	49	10	59	13,242	84
LSPE-2	South	77	15	92	8,682	129

Note: Own elaboration. Data retrieved from Base de Datos Mineduc (2019). \* Data from 2018. \*\* Central administration.

These criteria allow having representation of the main geographical zones in Chile. Finally, as the sampling was developed at the organisational level, Directors of LSPE and DME are contemplated as gatekeepers that accepted the collaboration of the school district in this study.

#### **b) Participants selected per case**

Regarding sample size (participants per case), the literature recommends that for Case Studies, at least three to five participants should be included (Collins & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Creswell, 2014; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007a). As this design is based on MCS, these numbers were applied per school district.

Accordingly, once the MCS were chosen (school districts) to select the number of participants per case, a subgroup sampling scheme was conducted to facilitate the analysis and comparison of participants' perspectives. For example, this scheme allows the researcher to compare the voices of different subgroups, such as men and women (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007a). Or, in the case of this research, to explore the significances of workers in the school district's central administration and staff working with or within the territory's schools.

Consequently, the sample size in this phase was divided into two subgroups within two groups. Specifically, the groups are the old (DMEs), and new (LSPEs) school districts

and the subgroups are staff working directly within the organisation and staff working in schools or with schools. The size calculation follows the “2 x 4 Subgroup Sampling Design” proposed by Onwuegbuzie, and Collins (2007, p. 246) and is expressed in the number of 12-20 participants. The details of the sampling size calculation are exposed in Table 6.

**Table 6.** *Sampling size for the Subgroup Sampling Design*

<b>Subgroups</b>	<b>Groups (School districts)</b>	
	<b>DME</b>	<b>LSPE</b>
Staff working within the organisation*	3 - 5	3 - 5
Staff working with or within schools	3 - 5	3 - 5
<b>Subtotal per case</b>	6 - 10	6 - 10
<b>Total per group</b>	12-20	12-20

*Note:* Own elaboration. \* Central administration only.

As Table 6 explains, following Onwuegbuzie, and Leech’s (2007a) proposal, it is expected to interview at least 6-10 participants per school district. As four school districts participate in this study, the total number of participants should fluctuate to at least 24-40 participants. Furthermore, Table 7 details the figures of participants per SD according to the nature of the work they develop. This distinction has been made to analyse experiences and meanings about how citizenship and OCB are encouraged in the entire school district.

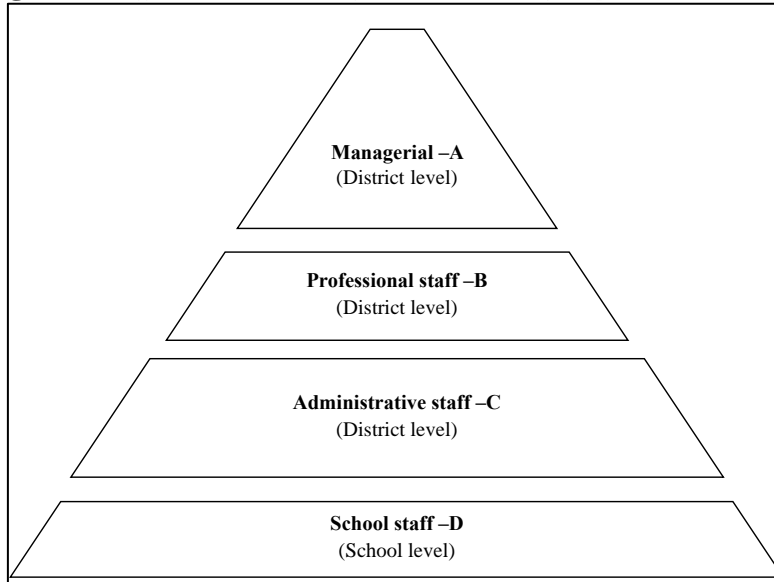
**Table 7.** *Actual number of participants for the Subgroup Sampling Design*

<b>Sub-Groups: Organisational affiliation</b>			
<b>Group</b>	Staff working within the organisation*	Staff working with or within schools	<b>Total</b>
DME-1	4	6	10
DME-2	7	4	11
LSPE-1	8	7	15
LSPE-2	7	5	12
<b>Total</b>	26	22	<b>48</b>

*Note:* Own elaboration. \* Central administration only.

Furthermore, once collected the data, a characterisation is provided to explore the phenomenon at different levels of responsibility within the organisation (Figure 5)

**Figure 5.** *Different roles identified in each subgroup.*



*Source:* Own elaboration.

Managers at the district level are allocated in group A. Following this, Professional staff is tagged as group B, administrative staff (i.e., clerical) as group C. Moreover, the participant school staff is identified as group D.

Considering the characterisation of subgroups provided, Table 8 expresses the total of participants per school district.

**Table 8.** *Total of participants per case*

Case	n	Role/ Position in the organisation			
		Manager- A	Professional- B	Administrative- C	School staff-D
DME-1	10	6	1	1	2
DME-2	11	3	3	1	4
LSPE-1	15	4	8	3	-
LSPE-2	12	4	7	1	-
<b>N</b>	48	17	19	6	6

*Source:* Own Elaboration.

For the case of the new school districts (LSPE-1 and LSPE-2), due to contextual reasons related to social upheaval in the country, traduced in social movements, curfew,



lootings, and other complexities, to interview school staff was difficult, considering that their primary focus was the students' safety. Moreover, in many cases, due to the looting risk, schools had to evacuate. Considering the uncertain circumstances, it was impossible to approach school staff in these cases. To replace the lack of these specific actors, the gatekeepers of LSPE-1 and LSPE-2 agreed with the researcher to increase the number of interviewees working in the central office.

Finally, to provide a complete characterisation of the participants, Table 9 provides detailed information on these.

**Table 9.** *Demographic characteristics of the participants (%)*

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>DME</b>	<b>LSPE</b>	<b>General</b>
<b>Age</b>	up to 30 years	10	7.69	8.7
	31-40	35	42.31	41.3
	41-50	30	23.08	26.1
	51-60	5	19.23	13.0
	61 or more	10	3.85	6.5
	Median	41.5	40	40
	$\bar{x}$	42.5	42.1	42.3
	Max. Min.	63 26	72 25	72 25
<b>Gender</b>	Male	20	57.69	41.3
	Female	80	42.31	58.7
	Other	0	0	0
	Prefer not to say	0	0	0
<b>Role</b>	A- Manager	42.9	29.6	35.4
	B- Professional staff	19.1	55.6	39.6
	C- Administrative staff	9.5	14.8	12.5
	D- School level	28.6	0	12.5
<b>Educative level</b>	Primary education	0	0	0
	High-school	10	3.8	6.5
	Technical studies	15	7.7	10.9
	Undergraduate	20	11.5	15.2
	Diplomate	10.0	30.8	21.7
	Postgraduate	45	42.3	43.5
	Doctorate	0	3.8	2.2
<b>Time working in the public system</b>	Less than 1 year	5	0	2.2
	1-5 years	15	23.1	19.6
	5-10 years	25	26.9	28.3
	10-20 years	30	30.8	28.3
	20-30 years	5	11.5	8.7
	> 30 years	20	3.8	10.9
	Median	10.5	9.5	10
	$\bar{x}$	15.03	11.8	13.1
<b>Contractual condition</b>	Max.	46	52	52
	Min.	.83	1	.83
	Indefinite	80	30.8	52.2
	Zero-hours	5	0	2.2
Fixed-term	15	65.4	43.4	
Other	0	3.8	2.2	

*Note:* Own elaboration.

### 3.3.2 Trustworthiness

A largely debated issue in qualitative studies is regarding validity, reliability, objectivity, and generalizability of the findings, as these indicate robustness in quantitative research. However, as qualitative research is not concerned with providing generalisable findings, the mentioned criteria can hardly be applied to such studies (Loh, 2013; Sönmez, 2013; Tobin & Begley, 2004). Researchers and experts on the topic have manifested at least three positions on the issue: those who support the adoption of the positivist validity criteria for qualitative studies; those who have proposed different criteria and third, and those who reject all predetermined criteria of validity for qualitative research (Rolfe, 2006). Consequently, the present author considers that it is necessary to adopt some of the criteria proposed by the expert literature to ensure the quality of the present study.

The criteria to ensure quality in qualitative studies is also known as trustworthiness and refers to “*the extent to which the data and data analysis are believable and trustworthy*” (Sönmez, 2013, p. 319). Authors such as Creswell (2009), Guba (1981), and Miller, and Brewer (2011) have suggested at least four criteria of trustworthiness: credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. Table 10 determines their features and compares these aspects in qualitative and quantitative research.

**Table 10.** *Comparison between aspects of trustworthiness in quantitative and qualitative research*

Feature	Trustworthiness criteria	
	Quantitative	Qualitative
<b>Truth value:</b> Confidence in the findings.	Internal validity	Credibility
<b>Applicability</b> to other contexts.	External validity Generalizability	Transferability

<b>Consistency:</b> Findings can be replicated in similar contexts.	Reliability	Dependability
<b>Neutrality:</b> To limit biases in the findings.	Objectivity	Confirmability

Source: Adapted from Guba (1981).

The four dimensions of trustworthiness in qualitative research are detailed as follows.

1. **Credibility:** According to Guba & Lincoln (1994) and Sönmez (2013), it refers to the extent to which the data and analysis are believable. In qualitative research, especially constructivist approaches, the reality is constructed according to the social and historical context; there is no objective truth. Accordingly, the credibility of the study is judged by the reader.
2. **Transferability:** This addresses whether the findings can be extrapolated to other contexts. For case studies, an “*inferential generalisation*” can be suggested, although this is not the aim of the present research. As this is a significant challenge for qualitative studies, the researcher can take several actions to ensure transferability, such as detailing methods and providing a detailed description of the contexts and settings involved (Sönmez, 2013, p. 320).
3. **Dependability:** Actions to ensure that research is documented and traceable (Tobin & Begley, 2004) to safeguard that similar findings can be replicated. Dependability is incredibly complex to be achieved in qualitative studies, as contexts, participants, and settings are not static, particularly in the constructivist paradigm (Sönmez, 2013).
4. **Confirmability:** The extent to which research findings can be corroborated by other researchers (Sönmez, 2013; Tobin & Begley, 2004).

Finally, various techniques have been associated with ensuring that the mentioned criteria are met. These are presented in Table 11.

**Table 11.** *List of techniques used to ensure trustworthiness criteria*

<b>Trustworthiness criteria</b>	<b>Techniques suggested in the literature</b>	<b>Techniques selected for this study</b>
Credibility	Prolonged engagement at the site Persistent observation Peer debriefing Triangulation (sources and/or methods) Collection of referential adequacy materials Member checks Reflexive journal	Triangulation Reflexive journal Member checks
Transferability	Stepwise replication Establish “audit trials” Reflexive journal	Reflexive journal
Dependability	Triangulation (sources and/or methods) Reflexive journal	Reflexive journal and triangulation
Confirmability	Triangulation (sources and/or methods) Reflexive journal	Reflexive journal and triangulation

Source: Adapted from Guba (1981) and Loh (2013).

Table 11 exposes that triangulation and reflexive journal are applicable and transversal to all the criteria to enhance trustworthiness. Accordingly, this author has decided to adopt both strategies. Furthermore, besides considering the variety of techniques to ensure credibility, the present research also uses the peer debriefing technique to expose questions and reflections to an expert (supervisory team of this study).

In terms of triangulation, this technique can be developed with the methods, analysis and/or findings. It aims to verify and cross-check interpretations, for instance, by providing supporting documentation for every claim made. In Case Studies, triangulation can be ensured by applying multiple and mixed methods for the collection of data, such as member checking (Guba, 1981; Loh, 2013; Sönmez, 2013; Tobin & Begley, 2004). In this research, multiple participants shared their perspectives on the SD. Furthermore, multiple methods complement research, such as interviews, documents, datasets, news,

videos, and surveys. More details about how triangulation is applied to this research are provided in section 3.4.2.

Following this, reflexive journals consist in keeping a daily record of reflections and introspections, which can be discussed in the peer debriefings in order to be tested and discussed (Guba, 1981; Loh, 2013). This journal was written by the author during the data collection process (fieldwork).

### **3.4 Methods**

Research methods can be understood as the set of techniques or/and procedures formulated to collect and analyse the data used to answer the research questions (Crotty, 1998). Thus, this section aims to review the following strategies: mixed methods, data collection techniques and data analysis.

#### **3.4.1 Mixed Methods**

Mixed Methods started gaining attention during the 1960s (Creswell, 2014; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). This approach is based on a pragmatic ground that involves different strategies to collect data and understand a determined phenomenon (Creswell, 2014; Robson, 2011). However, although the popularity of Mixed Methods has increased, there has been inevitable disagreement regarding this approach. For instance, research fundamentalists or “purists” argue that the combination of Qualitative and Quantitative focuses is incompatible since the ontological and epistemological assumptions underlying this approach are different. For this reason, the world and human beings are seen differently. On the other hand, the stream of “complementarity” or “pragmatists” propose that the quantitative/qualitative dichotomy is false and non-mandatory. Indeed, the authors propose that it is possible to integrate both perspectives, suggesting that Mixed

Methods are the future of social sciences (Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006; Johnson & Christensen, 2014; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005).

Mixed methods can be used as methodology and/or as methods and contemplate both Qualitative and Quantitative perspectives. However, experts propose that Mixed Methods research is not only about using both approaches (Quantitative and Qualitative), but also about integrating and complementing them to use their strengths. This integration can be conducted in multiple phases or levels, such as the design, methods, sampling and/or data analysis (Berman, 2017; Creswell, 2014; Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006; Johnson & Christensen, 2014; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Lund, 2012; Mengshoel, 2012; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006).

Moreover, Johnson, and Christensen (2014), Nastasi et al. (2015) and Onwuegbuzie, and Leech (2006) propose that the rationale of this approach is sustained when the research serves any of the following purposes: i) Triangulation, ii) Complementarity, iii) Development, iv) Initiation, and v) Expansion. The first, i) *Triangulation*, refers to integrating the information collected in order to seek corroboration or convergence within the data available. For instance, different data sources can be collected and analysed (Creswell, 2014; Greene et al., 2018; Johnson & Christensen, 2014; Robson, 2011). Indeed, several researchers have proposed that this is the most relevant aspect of Mixed Methods since these are based on the essence of triangulation (Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006; Lund, 2012).

The second element, ii) *Complementarity*, assumes that Quantitative and Qualitative methods provide different and diverse types of information that can clarify the results (Creswell, 2014; Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006; Nastasi et al., 2015; Lund, 2012; Robson, 2011). For instance, quantitative data can illustrate and complement qualitative information and vice versa (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). Following this, the

fourth aspect is iii) *Development*, which refers to using the results from one method to inform later phases of the other. A fourth element is iv) *Initiation*, which proposes that the information can be corroborated or contradicted once the data has been triangulated. In front of this, along with providing validated findings, alternatives for further research and analyses can emerge (Lund, 2012). Finally, the fifth element proposed by the literature is the v) *Expansion* of breadth and depth of the research.

In consequence, it can be suggested that Mixed Methods provide the opportunity of having a deeper understanding of the analysed phenomena by answering an ample range of research questions and providing information that could be missed if mono-methods were employed (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). Despite these clear advantages, some complexities in adopting Mixed Methods have also been identified. Proponents suggest that this approach can sometimes be more expensive, time-consuming or at least suppose issues when the proposed qualitative and quantitative techniques have different time implications (Johnson & Christensen, 2014; Robson, 2011).

Regardless of these complexities and considering the advantages, this research is conducted through a Qualitative methodology (MSC in organisations) informed by mixed methods, which provides the opportunity of using different sources of information to identify and triangulate perspectives of citizenship and the forms of OCB manifested by school districts' staff.

### **3.4.2 Data collection techniques**

The selected methods for this research are mixed. Accordingly, the data collection techniques can contemplate both numeric information (i.e., information from questionnaires or databases) and texts (i.e., interviews, documents, observations). In addition, different methods were combined within the same approach, for instance, qualitative research gathering data from interviews and observations (Creswell, 2014;



Robson, 2011). Therefore, this study contemplates quantitative and qualitative approaches to collect information.

The qualitative methods include i) interviews, ii) documents and iii) observations which are detailed as follows: i) *Interviews*; with this technique, the researcher aims to have first-hand experience with the participants to explore their particular views and perspectives about a phenomenon. Interviews can be conducted with different degrees of structuration, from open to semi-structured and structured interviews. Among the advantages of interviews, these offer flexibility and adaptability as these can be conducted face-to-face, online, by e-mail or by telephone. With this method, it is possible to discuss—sometimes conflictive— topics that participants would not discuss in other contexts. However, among their disadvantages, interviews can be time-consuming. Also, in the case of unstructured interviews, as the participants speak freely and in-depth about a topic, unexpected topics can emerge, and the primary focus can be lost since the researcher has less control (Creswell, 2014; Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006; Robson, 2011).

Consequently, semi-structured interviews were conducted since this degree of structuration permits elaborate guidelines or lists of topics/questions to be discussed, allowing more flexibility than the case of structured interviews (Creswell, 2014; Sönmez, 2013). These semi-structured interviews were conducted to answer all the research questions proposed in this research (RQ 1-7), which aims to advance towards analysing the forms of OCB and the perspectives of citizenship encouraged by the educative policies in Chile. Annexe 3.1 exposes the guide of questions for the semi-structured interview, which are organised according to research objectives.

In addition, ii) *Documents* were collected. These included archives, policies, News and reports. Documents are an essential source of information for the present study since these can add new data, provide a historical perspective, and complement the interviews

or other sources of data collection (Creswell, 2014; Desai & Potter, 2006; Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006; Robson, 2011). To examine what conceptions of citizenship have been encouraged by educative policies in Chile (RQ 1, 2 and 3), educative policies in education; history textbooks and relevant News, plans and programmes from the school districts were collected.

Also, the researcher conducted iii) *Observations*. The researcher recorded field notes about the activities, context and/or behaviours observed at the site (Creswell, 2014; Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006; Robson, 2011). In this sense, as this study seeks to identify the main factors influencing OCB and citizenship (Objective 3), the researcher observed the context surrounding participants (i.e., infrastructure, furniture, working conditions). Thus, contextual observations were related to the participants' workplaces. Here, it is relevant to highlight that school districts' offices were located in independent buildings, not in schools' dependences. Hence, there were no ethical constraints regarding possible interactions with students.

Regarding quantitative methods of data collection, scales were used. This method contributed to triangulating the information collected in the interviews and documents (RQ 4 and 6). Commonly, scales aim to assess the participants' attitudes or perceptions about a determined phenomenon (Creswell, 2014; Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006; Robson, 2011). For this purpose, two scales were applied: the scale of "*Group-level Organisational Citizenship Behaviours*" (Hereafter-GOCB) in the education system developed and validated by Vigoda-Gadot and colleagues (2007) and the "*Organisational Justice Scale*" (OJS) (Hoy & Tarter, 2004; Tastan & Yilmaz, 2008). These scales were validated in English and the school context, and the antecedents of applying this instrument in the Spanish language to other educational staff are scarce. Consequently, the instruments were translated and adapted to school districts. The detail

of items included in the scales of GOCB proposed by Vigoda-Gadot et al. (2007) is presented in Annexes 3.2 and 3.3.

Concerning these instruments and following the arguments exposed in section 2.2.4, Vigoda-Gadot et al. (2007) proposed the mentioned scale to highlight the need for advancing from an individual OCB to a systemic understanding of OCB towards the organisation and group. In this regard, the mentioned instrument was developed from the OCB scale proposed by Organ (1988). Consequently, the new version of the scale was adapted to the group and organisational and validated by ten expert judges and applied in 13 schools (n= 206) in Israel.

Regarding the construct's validity, the authors applied an Exploratory Factors Analysis that showed three significant factors: the first includes ten items and refers to the GOCB towards individuals (Cronbach's alpha .88), the second, GOCB towards the organisation (eight items, Cronbach's alpha .66) and third, the formal role requirements (Cronbach's alpha, .85). In addition, the authors conducted a Confirmatory Factor analysis to identify which internal constructs of the scale were faithful to reality. Furthermore, tests for concurrent validity between the OCB and GOCB scales were developed, showing that these were independent constructs (Pearson  $r=.27$ ) and did not influence each other.

Concerning reliability issues, *t*-tests and Cronbach's alpha values were developed. In this sense, Vigoda-Gadot et al. (2007) found that the GOCB scale shows internal consistency and equivalence reliability since the Cronbach's alpha of the overall scale ranged between .66 and .88, whereas the scale reliability was .86.

Regarding the OJS, this was tested in 75 middle schools in Ohio with approximately 2.600 staff. The scale was created considering DOJ, POJ and IOJ (section 2.3.2.2). To test the construct validity of the scale, Factor Analyses were conducted. These

suggest a strong factor (the total of 10 items); moreover, all items showed at least a score of .77. Also, the authors report that the alpha coefficient of reliability of the scale is adequate (.97).

Finally, the scales were adapted for teachers and school staff. Accordingly, this author adapted the items for school districts' staff. The modifications of both scales were limited to change in the items the word "school" for "school district". Following this, both scales were translated into Spanish. Afterwards, this was cross translated from the Spanish version to English (making the pertinent language adaptations). Two native Spanish speakers with advanced English collaborated in this process.

### **3.4.3 Data analysis**

A second part of the research methods is related to the analytical strategy (Crotty, 1998). Considering that this research is an MCS that aims to analyse the forms of OCB manifested by the members of LSPE and DME, the analysis was conducted through Cross-case. A cross-case analysis refers to examining, comparing, and contrasting MCS to understand a phenomenon (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007b). Thus, this section is structured, presenting the cross-case techniques to analyse the information gathered in the procedures described (interviews, documents, observations, and scales). Details of these, the methodology proposed for the research questions, objectives and aims are presented in Table 12.

**Table 12.** Summary of research questions, methodology, and methods

Aims	Objectives	Research Questions	Methodology Qualitative- Multiple Case study <b>Methods:</b> Partially Mixed.	
To identify perspectives of citizenship encouraged in the national educative policies in Chile.	1. To examine how Citizenship Education has been encouraged in national educative policies.	1. How has citizenship been encouraged by the national educative policies and laws in Chile? 2. What conceptions of citizenship have been encouraged by curricular guidelines and history textbooks since the Chilean dictatorship?	<b>Qualitative methods:</b> Documents. Educative policies in education since 1970 and the history textbooks that the students received during the dictatorship, transition, and democracy.	<b>Qualitative Procedures:</b> Thematic analysis (RQ 2, 3, 4 and 6). Grounded theory (RQ 1, 5 and 7). <b>Products:</b> Coded text (categories).
To analyse the forms of OCB manifested by staff from the new (LSPE) and old (DME) school districts in Chile and their outcomes for the district.	2. To examine different manifestations of citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE. 3. To examine the main factors influencing citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE.	3. What forms of citizenship are encouraged by the participant organisations? 4. What forms of OCB are displayed by employees from the participant DME and LSPE? 5. What are the main barriers and facilitators to OCB perceived by DME and LSPE members? 6. What perceptions of OJ are manifested by the participants? 7. Are there any outcomes or consequences of these barriers and facilitators to OCB?	<b>Qualitative method:</b> Semi-structured interviews and institutional documents. <b>Quantitative method:</b> GOCB and OJ Scales.	<b>Quantitative Procedures:</b> Descriptive statistics and t-test. <b>Products:</b> T-test.

Note: Own elaboration.

One of the purposes of MCS is to explore and develop an in-depth analysis of the case (Creswell, 2014). Accordingly, it is suitable to recur different analysis techniques to achieve this. As Table 12 exposes, semi-structured interviews, documents, and observations were assessed using different analyses per type of enquiry: Thematic and Grounded Theory. First, a thematic analysis was developed, considering that RQ 2, 3, 4 and 6 expect to explore, analyse, and interpret specific pre-defined topics. Next, Thematic Analysis is defined as a systematic and objective analysis of information (Creswell, 2014; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005; Robson, 2011) developed by coding different units of words pre-defined by the researcher (in this case, OCB, OJ and Citizenship). Afterwards, themes or categories are raised and interpreted in-depth (Creswell, 2014; Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006).

Following this, a Grounded Theory approach was developed to analyse the available data, considering that the nature of RQ 1, 5 and 7 is to discover different factors and outcomes. According to authors such as Creswell (2014) and Hernández-Sampieri et al. (2006), Grounded Theory is developed to raise theories from empirical data. Accordingly, no categories are pre-defined, but these emerge from the participants and information retrieved.

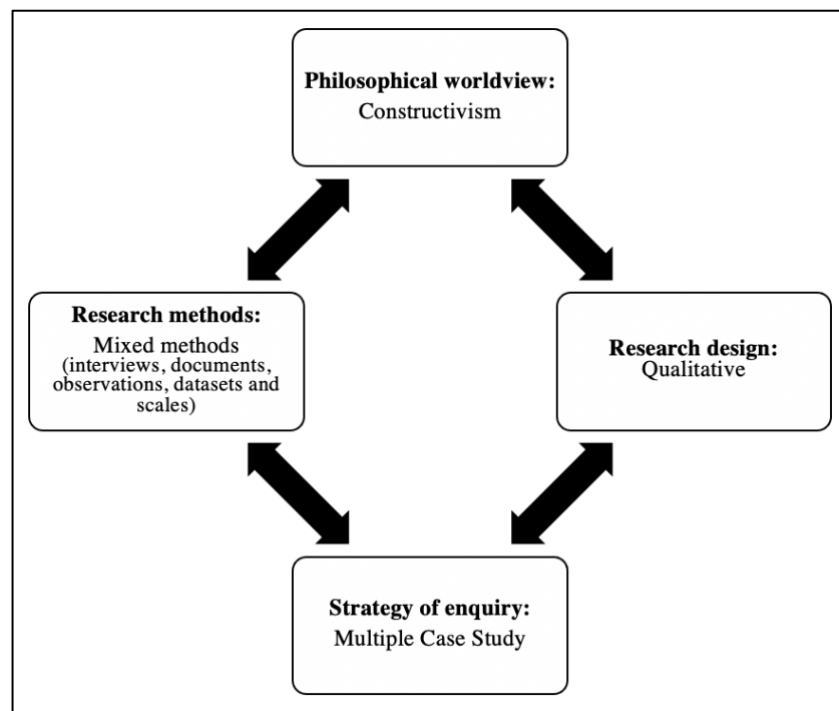
Following this, the literature suggests methods to corroborate the information to ensure the validity of the mentioned analyses and answer the criticisms that suggest that personal bias and interpretation can permeate them. For instance, developing a human (hand coding) and computerised analysis (software NVivo or others) (Creswell, 2014; Robson, 2011).

Regarding the quantitative methods employed in the study (scales), the analysis is explained as follows. As aforementioned, to answer RQ 4 and 6, the OCB and OJ scales were applied. In this regard, experts advise that when research questions are predominantly descriptive, then descriptive statistics are suitable to conduct the analysis. Among these, measures of central tendency (e.g., Mean, Median, Mode) and variability/dispersion (e.g.,

Confidence interval or Standard deviation) were considered. Following this, the literature proposes that when comparisons of groups are proposed, it is possible to develop analysis using techniques such as the t-test (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). In this case, DMEs (independent variable) results in both scales are compared to LSPEs.

Figure 6 summarises and illustrates all the topics discussed in this chapter, including the research design and interconnection between the chosen paradigm for this research and the strategy of enquiry (methodology) and methods.

**Figure 6.** *Research design*



*Source:* Own elaboration. Adapted from Creswell (2009).

#### **3.4.4 Ethical considerations**

The proposal to develop this study was submitted to The University of Manchester Ethics' Decision Tool in June 2019. As the research did not involve sensitive information, and the participants were not children or vulnerable populations, the outcome of the system showed that an ethical review was not required.

However, considering this is a qualitative study, the researcher's interaction with the participants is significant. Accordingly, this study follows the procedures of the Research Ethic guidelines from The University of Manchester; several measures were undertaken to protect ethical issues (Data Management Plan). Thus, following the suggestions of Sönmez (2013) and The University of Manchester regulations (2019), invitations, participant information sheets, and informed consent were provided to explain and ensure privacy, confidentiality, anonymity, and voluntary participation (these files can be found in Annexe 3.4, 3.5 and 3.6). Additionally, participants were explained that they could abandon the study at any time. Also, the data was stored in a private Dropbox Business account (an official repository utilised by the responsible institution), and only the research author and her supervisory team could access it.

Finally, to ensure that the study is approached both ethically and professionally, the researcher completed before data collection the following training: "*Research Integrity Training*"; "*Principles of risk assessment*", and "*Management of off-campus activities*" (The University of Manchester, 2019).



## **CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS**

Once established, the methodological strategy guides the data collection and the identification of cases and participants of this study; it is now necessary to present the research results. Accordingly, the structure of this chapter is organised following the order of the research objectives proposed for this study. Thus, this chapter aims to advance towards 1) analysing the forms of OCB manifested by members from the new and old school districts in Chile and their outcomes for the district, and 2) identifying perspectives of citizenship encouraged in the educative policies in Chile.

Consequently, as part of the first research objective, this section advances towards presenting the findings for objective 1 (RQ 1 and 2).

### **4.1 Objective 1. To examine how Citizenship Education has been encouraged in national educative policies.**

#### **4.1.1 RQ 1: How has citizenship been encouraged by the national educative policies and laws in Chile?**

The Grounded Theory analysis (section 3.4.3) of 32 educative laws and other 36 official documents unveils three types of mechanisms that encourage citizenship according to the legislation: 1) instruments for educative management (section 4.1.1.1), 2) participative organisms (section 4.1.1.2), and 3) modules of citizenship training (section 4.1.1.3). Finally, section 4.1.1.4 exposes the legislative principles that inspire the analysed set of laws.

#### 4.1.1.1 Instruments for educative management from the perspective of citizenship

##### *Characterisation of the instruments*

The Chilean educational system has created a series of devices that aim to support the management of educational establishments and school districts. These instruments can be characterised according to the operation level: a) district and b) school level, which are detailed below:

a) *District level*: These instruments seek to promote and articulate territorial strategies and visions for the educational management and development of the schools. First was identified the “*Annual plan of municipal educative development*” (PADEM, for its abbreviation in Spanish), an instrument created to set strategies for the educational development of the DME’s territory (Article 7, Decree FL-1, 2006). The PADEM should articulate the “*Institutional Educational Project*” (PEI, for its abbreviation in Spanish) of the dependent schools (Mineduc, 2015) with the district’s strategy.

For the case of LSPE, Law 21.040 introduces three managerial instruments: a) “*Local Strategic Plan*” (PEL, for its abbreviation in Spanish), which purpose is to establish educational objectives and priorities for six years through a territorial diagnosis (Article 45, Law 21.040); b) the “*Educational management agreement*” (EMA), is a contract between the LSPE’ director and the Ministry of Education, setting objectives, goals and indicators to be achieved during the director’s period (Article 39, Law 21.040). Finally, c) “*Annual plan*” is a planning instrument that establishes on an annual basis the objectives and goals contained in the PEL and EMA (Article 46, Law 21.040, 2017).

b) *School level*: The legislation establishes two key instruments: the PEI and the “*Educational improvement plan*” (PME, for its abbreviation in Spanish). The PEI’s objective is to set a common view among the educational community members through the definition of mission, vision, hallmarks, and shared goals to guide and fulfil the educative duty (Mineduc,

2016b, 2018, 2019). The PME's objective is to strategically plan transparent processes for educational improvement in schools that receive state funding. Consequently, the PME is designed based on the PEI (Article 26, Law 20.529). Likewise, at the school level, the legislation has created a set of specific plans and programmes to support specific issues. These are: a) Citizenship Training Plan (Here-after CTP); b) Plan for inclusion; c) Local professional development plan; d) School Coexistence Plan; e) Affectivity and Gender Plan; and f) Comprehensive School Safety Plan (PISE).

Table 13 details the legislative evolution of the mentioned instruments, showing significant efforts across the years in strengthening the PEI and PME. This emphasis is coherent with their aim as critical devices for the schools' management in articulating shared visions among community members.

**Table 13. Timeline of the creation of instruments in the Chilean educational system**

Level of operation	Legislative evolution				
	Instrument	Year	Specifications		
District	PADEM	1991	Regulation of the PADEM functions. Highlights relevance of the teaching staff to fulfilling the PEI (Law 19.070).		
		1995	Law 19.410 regulates PADEM and establishes that it is mandatory in all DME.		
		2006	Decree FL-1 defines the municipal development plan and its particular programmes (education) as a key part of municipal management.		
		2017	Law 21.040 creates the Annual Plan, PEL and EMA. All these instruments operate only in LSPE.		
	School	Annual Plan, PEL, and EMA	2017	Law 21.040 creates the Annual Plan, PEL and EMA. All these instruments operate only in LSPE.	
			PEI	1997	Law 19.532 highlights the PEI as a guiding instrument.
				2009	Law 20.370 states that PEI is an instrument that unifies the educational community.
				2015	Law 20.845 highlights its relevance.
		2017		Law 21.040 highlights the relevance of diverse PEI in the educational system.	
		PEI and PME	2011	Law 20.529 highlights that these managerial instruments are vital to ensuring the quality of education.	
PME			2008	Law 20.248 states that PME is key for schools to receive state subsidies.	
		2011	Law 20.550 introduces regulations.		
		2015	Law 20.845, school boards can be consulted about the PME.		
Security		1977	Creation of an evacuation and security program, “ <i>DEYSE</i> ” (D.S.N 155, 1977). Ratified in 2001 (Rex. 51).		
	2014	Rex. 156 establishes security requirements and protocols in schools.			
	2017	Rex. 381 introduces regulations reinforcing security in schools.			
	2018	Rex. 2515 derogates DEYSE and creates the Comprehensive School Safety Plan (PISE).			
Sexuality Teachers’ development	2010	Law 20.418 creates a Plan for sexuality and gender.			
	2011	Law 20.501 introduces regulations for the teachers’ Performance through the Plan for professional development (public schools).			
	2016	Law 20.903 creates a system for teachers’ professional development.			
School coexistence	2011	Law 20.536 creates this plan.			
	Inclusion	2015	Law 20.845 creates the Plan to support inclusion.		
Citizenship		2016	Law 20.911 creates this plan and the mandatory module for Citizenship Education (students in 11 <sup>th</sup> and 12 <sup>th</sup> grade in all the schools).		

Source: Own elaboration.

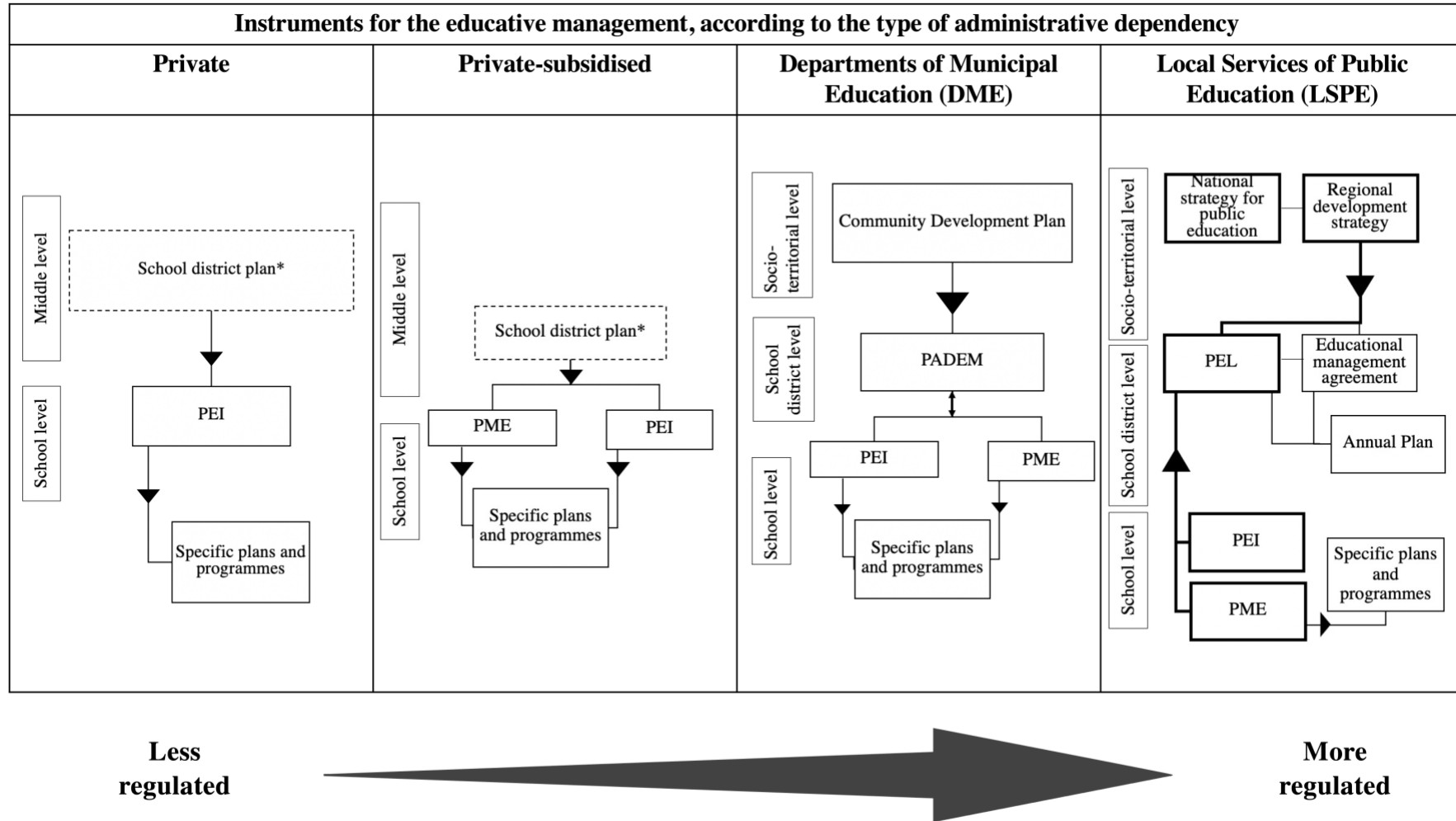
Equally, this table shows that most district management’ instruments operate in LSPE, unveiling that PADEM is the only plan available for DME management. From a citizenship

perspective, this is consistent with the inspiring principles of the regulations that regulate LSPE, where republican values, collaboration, networking, and citizen training stand out (section 4.1.1.4). Thus, it is possible to suggest that their creation unveils a legislative effort to democratise the participation of actors from the community in LSPE management. Likewise, as will be explained in section 4.1.1.2, the creation of these diverse instruments is consistent with the involvement and participation of the actors from educational communities.

Here, it is also relevant to notice that legislation does mandate the existence of similar managerial instruments in other types of school districts existent in Chile (private and private subsidised). In this regard, only ministerial documents broadly allude to and suggest that a “*School District Plan*” should exist (Mineduc, 2016b). These findings acquire relevance considering that 64.3% of the students are enrolled in private and private-subsidised schools (Centro de Estudios Mineduc, 2019; Mineduc, 2020).

To advance towards exploring the participation and consideration of educative communities, another essential aspect to consider about the operation of these instruments is their articulation at different system levels. Accordingly, in terms of alignment and articulation between instruments, these vary according to the school district type, showing consistency with the amount of existing legislation for each type of school district (Figure 7).

**Figure 7.** Alignment between instruments in the Chilean educative system



Note: Own elaboration. \*: Not mandatory. Source: Mineduc (2015, 2016a)

As Figure 7 shows, at the school level, regulations promote a predominantly vertical (top-down) articulation between PEI/PME with specific plans and programmes in all types of administrative dependency. However, when analysing whether horizontal coherence is promoted between specific plans and programs, the existing regulations do not emphasise this area.

At the territorial level, differences by type of educational dependency are accentuated. For example, for LSPE, the law promotes coherence and alignment between two levels of the system: the socio-territorial level (that is, the national strategy for public education and the regional development strategy) with the school level (PEI and PME) (Biblioteca del Congreso Nacional, BCN, 2018). In this scenario, LSPEs are called upon to act as a hinge in this articulation by implementing national and locally relevant instruments such as the PEL, EMA and Annual Plan. From a citizenship perspective, as the next section explains, these plans are designed and validated, adopting a participative approach in the school district (Article 52, Law 21.040, 2017).

In the case of DMEs, the school district's role is to articulate their PADEM with the locality's policies ("*Community Development Plan*") to ensure that the educational aspects are aligned with the town's political project. Accordingly, the DME's role acquires a political tint since two key actors emerge for the approval of the PADEM and, therefore, of the educational guidelines: the Town Mayor and the Municipal Council. These are the actors who have the last word in the PADEM's modification and approval, even though PADEM must be built considering the PEIs of the schools (Article 5, Law 19.410, 1995).

#### **4.1.1.2 Participative organisms from the perspective of citizenship**

##### **i) Characterisation of participative organisms in the Chilean educative system.**

Another relevant aspect in the analysis of how citizenship is encouraged in the Chilean legislation is the provision of participative instances for members of schools and school districts. In this regard, Table 14 provides a timeline of the legislation about these. A first moment can be associated with the immediate post-dictatorship in Chile or the return to democracy (since 1990), showing a significant improvement in regulation and creation of participative instances at the school level- for actors such as parents, guardians, and students. In terms of organisms summoning the territory's schools, the only instance created is the Microcenters for rural teachers and school principals.



**Table 14.** *Participative organisms in the Chilean educational system*

Level of operation	Legislative evolution		
	Actor	Year	Participative organism
<b>District</b>	Multiple educative actors	2017	<b>Local councils:</b> Law 21.040 creates it. Members are elected by all the actors from the district schools (LSPE only).
		1992	<b>Microcenter:</b> Created by the Ministry of Education through the “Educational improvement programme”. Decree 968 (2012) authorises and regulates its meetings.
<b>Summoning schools of the territory</b>	Teachers and school principals	2017	<b>“Conference of principals from schools, preschool, and high school education” and the “Local directive committee” (LDC)</b> are created in Law 21.040.
		2004	<b>School board:</b> Law 19.979 (2004) creates it. Decree 24 (2005) regulates it. Then, law 20.370 (2009) defines its objective. Finally, law 20.845 (2015) empowers the school board, which can now be consulted about the PME.
<b>School</b>	Multiple educative actors	2011	<b>Good coexistence Committee (GCC):</b> Law 20.536 introduced it as “homologation” of school boards for private schools.
		2018	<b>Preschool board:</b> Inspired on Law 19.979 (1990), Rex. 0860 creates this organism.
		1991	<b>Teachers’ councils:</b> The statute of education professionals describes the role of this body (Law 19.070). In 1992, Decree 453 approved general regulations. In 1996, Decree FL-1 systematised law 19.070. Afterwards, new modifications are introduced by Decree 215 (2011).
		1990	<b>Students’ Council:</b> Created in 1955 as a form of “micro government” for the students to experiment. Decree 524 (1990) and Decree 50 (2006) of education approve general regulations, organisation, and operation. Law 19.979 ensures participative instances for students, reaffirming the role of students’ councils. Law 21.040 (2017), for LSPE, introduces particularities in its functions and decision-making processes.
	Parents	1990	<b>Parents and guardians’ councils (PGC):</b> Decree 565 (1990) and Decree 828 (1995) approve general regulations. Afterwards, Decree 58 (1997) introduces new regulations. Finally, in 1998, Decree 732 approved statutes and allowed them to have legal personality.

*Source:* Own elaboration. Note: A complete glossary of these participative organisms, and their names in Spanish, is presented in Annexe 4.

Here, it is relevant to mention that one of the few instances, where community members can participate in district decisions is the Local Council (LSPE), unveiling a gap in participation for other types of school districts, such as the DME.

Following this, another fundamental aspect of citizenship and OCB applied to participative organisms is their capabilities and involvement in decision-making processes

(civic virtue) within their organisations. Accordingly, Table 15 classifies the types of capabilities-per organism and level- identified in the analysis of educative legislation.

**Table 15.** *Summary of capabilities/functions per participative organism*

Level	Organism	Capabilities/Functions			
		Informed	Consulted	Proposes	Resolutive
School	Students' Council:	-	-	X	OI*
	• General Assembly-GA	-	X	-	OI
	• Class delegates' council (students)	-	X	-	OI
	• Class council	X	-	-	OI
	• Electoral Committee	-	-	-	In electoral processes
	PGC:	-	X	-	OI
	• Class delegates' council (parents and guardians)	-	-	X	OI
	• Subcentre of parents and guardians	-	X	-	OI
	Teachers' Council	-	-	X	Internal and technical-pedagogical issues
	School board	X	X	X	Only in LSPE schools
Summon schools	GCC	X	X	X	Specific aspects
	Preschool Board	X	X	X	President will determine
	Micro-centre	X	X	X	Internal and technical-pedagogical issues
	District	Local Council	-	X	X
LDC		X	X	X	OI
Conference of principals from schools, preschool, and high school education		-	-	X	

*Note:* “-”: Not present. “X”: present. \*OI: Only internal. Source: Articles 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 12, Decree 524 (1990); Article 2, Decree 565 (1990); Article 15, Law 19.070 (1991); part B, Law 20.536 (2011); Article 2, Decree 968 (2012); Articles 11, 13, 30, and 52, Law 21.040 (2017); Secretary of preschool education (2019). Own elaboration.

As Table 15 shows, most organisms at the school level have either a role of informing, proposing, or advising concerning specific topics, unveiling that although there are multiple participative instances, their capabilities and influence at the organisational level (school) are limited. The main primary organism with these three combined capabilities in school settings

is the school board (and its homologues, the GCC and preschool board). These capabilities are coherent with the board's aim: to promote the participation of the educative community to improve the quality of education (Article 15, Law 20.370, 2009). Furthermore, in line with the democratic and participative principles determined in the creation of Law 21.040 (2017), only school boards depending on LSPE can resolve specific topics impacting the governance of the school and district, such as the election of candidates for the Local Council (Article 50).

Following this, most participative organisms can only resolve issues concerning their internal functioning, such as voting for the school uniform in the case of Students' Councils and the PGC (Article 12, Decree 524, 1990; Article 2, Decree 565, 1990). Finally, only the Teachers' Council can resolve aspects that genuinely impact the school's functioning regarding pedagogical issues (Article 15, Law 19.070, 1991).

Moreover, in terms of governance, the analysis reflects that the Students' Council and the PGC (including internal bodies) are the only organisms designed to have bottom-up decision-making processes, representing genuine democratic citizenship exercises. In both cases, proposals and decisions emanate from the classes and are discussed in an assembly. However, at the same time, this exposes that such democratic exercises do not significantly influence school life (or district).

Besides, considering the entire educational system, at the district level, the only existent participative organisms operate in LSPE. From those, just the LDC can advise, propose, and inform, as its role is to supervise the strategic functioning of the LSPE (Article 29, Law 21.040, 2017). However, it is essential to note that by law, the only members from schools are the representatives of the PGC. The other associates allowed to be part of the LDC are delegates from universities, municipalities, and the regional government. In other words, in line with an adult-centric perspective, at the district level, the legislation promotes participative organisms and effective decision-making for adults only.

From the perspective of governance at the district level, it is unveiled that bottom-up mechanisms for decision-making remain unclear on the legislation. It is suggested that representatives “should” consider the voices of their communities, but the legislation does not provide guidelines or standards about how to do so. Accordingly, decisions that can impact the entire district can or cannot be taken with a participative approach, leaving this mechanism to the willpower of the representatives.

**ii) Relationship between instruments for educative management and participative organisms**

Table 16 shows that at the school level, legislation and official documents advice a participatory construction of the instruments. In this sense, various actors from the educative communities are called to be involved in this task. However, when a thorough and detailed analysis is developed, it is possible to note that the law emphasises and protects the role of school principals and management teams from the educational establishments in the construction and accountability of all plans, projects and programmes. In this way, it is only suggested (but not mandated) the participation of educational communities to develop shared visions and hallmarks.

There are only a few exceptions to this legislative trend. For instance, Laws 19.979 (2004) and 20.845 (2015) grant the School board the capacity to be consulted about the PEI, PME and specific plans and programmes. Here, it is essential to note that this is the only body that includes students (along with other representatives from the educative community) mandated by legislation with such capability. In this way, the participation of these actors in such decision-making instances is reduced to a consultative sphere predominantly dependent on the will of school principals and their management teams.

Apart from the mentioned example, only in some specific cases, by law, plans and programmes can be actively formulated by other educative actors. For example, for the

elaboration of the “*Plan for Professional development*”, teachers play a fundamental role in its execution and design.

**Table 16.** *Participation of actors from the educational community, according to the plan or programme*

<b>Instrument</b>	<b>Organism or actor</b>				
<b>PADEM</b>	Municipal Council and Mayor approve it.	Parents and guardians' council.	Non-teaching staff.	High school students.	Teachers' Council.
<b>EMA</b>	LSPE Director.	Ministry of Education.	-	-	-
<b>PEL</b>	Local directive Committee.	Conference of principals from schools, preschools, and high schools.	Local Council.	-	-
<b>Annual Plan</b>	Management teams (schools).	Local directive committee.	Local Council.	-	-
<b>PEI</b>	The school principal leads it.	The School board is asked about the PEI.	Directive teachers conduct it.	Parents and guardians must be informed and contribute.	Educational community*
<b>PME</b>	The school principal elaborates on the PME.	Education professionals assess it.	The School board is consulted.	Educative community*.	-
<b>School coexistence</b>	The school principal and managerial team execute and lead.	The School board or GCC promote it and defines its objectives.	Responsible for school coexistence.	Self-diagnose of the educative community*.	-
<b>Inclusion</b>	The educational community reviews school instruments.	-	-	-	-
<b>CTP</b>	The school principal leads and summons educational communities.	The School board can modify it.	Educational community* reflects.	-	-
<b>PISE</b>	The school principal leads it.	School Safety Committee (representatives from different actors) responsible.	Educational community*.	-	-
<b>Professional Development</b>	Management team - Technical-pedagogical unit - Outstanding teachers, classroom teachers.	The school principal and members of the managerial team guide and implement it.	Mentor and early-career teachers.	Educational community* and teachers.	-
<b>Sexuality and Gender</b>	The School board must be consulted.	Parents and guardians' council.	Educational community*.	-	-

*Note:* Own elaboration. \*Formed by students, parents and guardians, education professionals, education assistants, managerial teams and educational supporters (Mineduc, 2015, 2018). *Sources:* Law 19.070 (1991); 19.410 (1995); 19.532 (1997); Rex. 51 (2001); Decree FL-1 1(2006); 20.248 (2008); 20.370 (2009); 20.418 (2010); 20.501 (2011); 20.529 (2011); 20.550 (2011); 20.536 (2011); 20.845 (2015); 20.903 (2016); 20.911 (2016); 21.040 (2017); Rex. 2.515 (2018); 21.152 (2019).

At the district level, a similar trend is found. Specifically, for formulating plans and programmes, the normative promote inter-school collaboration, propitiating the dialogue and opinion of different actors. This is not mandated for all types of school districts but is just suggested in the legislation.

#### **4.1.1.3 Legislation about the Citizenship Education module**

Regarding the modules of Citizenship Education, Table 17 shows that these have been eliminated and reincorporated several times in the last decades (this table assigns labels to identify the historical moment). Although RQ 2 addresses how citizenship has been encouraged in the textbooks, it is relevant to mention the following key curricular aspects.

First, when incorporated into the social sciences module in 1967, civic education had two objectives: to teach economy and introduce political sciences to the students. Also, during this period, civic education was promoted in other modules, such as mathematics, Spanish and sciences, promoting transversal teaching of citizenship in the curriculum. Also, the Students' Council was created and encouraged to be present in every school (BCN, 2013; Castro & Holz, 2016; Unit of Curriculum and Assessment [UCA], 2004).

Second, in 1980, during the civic-military dictatorship (1973-1989), a new constitution was created to promote it. Civic education was reincorporated as a module (BCN, 2013; Castro & Holz, 2016; UCA, 2004).

Third, during democracy, the module disappeared in 1997. Instead, the new curriculum considered civic education as the knowledge about how the State and political system works, and the concept of "*Citizenship Training*" was introduced. The Citizenship Training concept refers to the development of cognitive knowledge and skills regarding critical thinking, participation, democracy, pluralism and human rights (BCN, 2013; Castro & Holz, 2016) and represents an advance toward new perspectives of citizenship.

**Table 17.** *Historic timeline about the creation of modules oriented to citizenship and label assigned for this study*

Year	Milestone	Label assigned to the period
1912	“Civic education” module is created.	X
1967	“Civic education” is eliminated and incorporated as a theme/topic in the social sciences module.	X
1980	“Civic education and economy” was reincorporated as a module for 9 <sup>th</sup> and 10 <sup>th</sup> grades.	1980-1989: Dictatorship.
1984	Module renamed “Civic education”.	
1997	The module is eliminated and incorporated as part of the transversal curriculum.	Transition: a) Return to democracy or transition (1990-2004), b) End of the transition (2005)*.
2016	Law 20.911 creates a plan for citizenship training and the mandatory module for Citizenship Education (11 <sup>th</sup> and 12 <sup>th</sup> grade).	Social movements (2006-2015). Citizenship reform: Contemporary period (2016-present).

*Source:* Own elaboration. Adapted from BCN (2013) and Castro & Holz (2016). Note: “X”: Not considered, as this is a pre-dictatorship period that goes beyond the scope of this study. “\*”: Some authors acknowledge that the end of Chile's transition occurred in 2005 when significant reforms to Pinochet's constitution were promulgated (Flores, 2016).

Finally, Law 20.911 reintroduces the module of Citizenship Education and creates a mandatory plan for all the schools in the country. However, their main guidelines follow the constitutional principle of “*freedom of teaching*”. In other words, the schools are free and independent to set their plans and choose what citizenship orientations will be encouraged (Article 11, Constitución de la República de Chile, Constitution of the Republic of Chile). Indeed, the only “guidelines” provided are regarding the objectives and inspiring principles of the law, which are presented in the next section.

#### **4.1.1.4 Principles inspiring the existent legislation that encourages citizenship**

The legislative body that regulates the Chilean educational system is based on the constitutional principles promulgated in 1980, during the period of civic-military dictatorship, which despite a series of subsequent modifications and updates, has maintained its original spirit. Among its principles, the Constitution guarantees in its eleventh article freedom of education, which “*includes the right to open, organise and maintain educational*



*establishments*". Also, it is detailed that *"freedom of education has no other limitations than those imposed by morals, good habits, public order and national security"* (Article 11, Constitution of the Republic of Chile, 1980). In other words, the constitution ensures the liberty to propose educational projects, setting fertile grounds for private and subsidised institutions.

Back to democracy, although the enacted laws followed these constitutional principles, promoting democratic values began to be introduced. For instance, the Students' Councils were created to promote schools as auspicious fields for students *"to learn to live 'in', and 'for' democracy"* (Decree 524, 1990, p. 1). Whereas the PGC was created, highlighting that families are essential actors in children's moral and ethical formation. Accordingly, the PGC's purpose is to enrich communication channels to strengthen the relationships between schools and families and propitiate the organised participation and collaboration of parents and guardians in school life (Decree 565, 1990, p. 1).

A second moment occurred in the following years because of social movements that demanded improving education (the early 2000s). Consequently, essential reforms were conducted, and the legislation started to expose new guiding principles, highlighting not only the role of democracy but also of citizenship and participation of all the educative actors (Decree 24, 2005, p. 1). For example, Law 20.845 (2015) empowers the School Board. The law's guiding principles declare that this normative body seeks to promote and ensure participation, diversity, integration, and interculturality (Article 3, Law 20.370, 2009). Another example is Law 20.536 (2011), which creates the school coexistence plan. In this case, the Ministry of Education declares that such an instrument (and other plans and programmes) are the basis for citizens' training (Mineduc, 2019).

Likewise, Law 20.529 (2011) declares that the education's framework must show the *"respect and appreciation of human rights and fundamental freedoms (...) to live together and participate in a responsible, tolerant, supportive, democratic, and active way in the*

*community*” (Article 1). After this, with the creation of the Citizenship Training Plan (CTP) (2016), the following guiding objectives are declared:

a) Promote the understanding and analysis of the concept of citizenship and rights and duties associated with it; b) Encourage students to exercise critical, responsible, respectful, open and creative citizenship; c) Promote knowledge, understanding of the law, and local, regional and national institutions, and the formation of civic virtues in the students; d) Promote the knowledge, understanding and commitment of students with Human Rights, with particular emphasis on the rights of the child; e) Encourage in the students, appreciation for the social and cultural diversity of the country; f) Encourage the participation of students in matters of public interest; g) Guarantee the development of a democratic and ethical culture in the school; h) Foster a culture of transparency and probity; i) Encourage tolerance and pluralism in the students (Law 20.911, 2016).

As detailed in Law 20.911, the focus is on encouraging citizenship at the students' level. Furthermore, with the creation of the new school districts, or LSPE, the legislation declared guiding principles to promote equity, diversity, and freedom, as well as the collaboration and networking of educative actors. Besides, the promotion of inclusive and laic projects of citizenship training, local pertinence, republican values, and integration with the environment and the community, as well as justice, participation, and democracy in educative communities (Article 5, Law 21.040, 2017). Accordingly, from a citizenship viewpoint, it is possible to propose that this normative advances in including other educative actors. Indeed, participative organisms are created, such as the CPSPH and LDC. In addition, this law gives exceptional capabilities to the students' councils.

Finally, considering that this research question has attempted to advance towards the objective of examining the Citizenship Education encouraged in the Chilean public policies, what is left is to advance to how history textbooks have promoted this.

#### **4.1.2 RQ 2: What conceptions of citizenship have been encouraged by curricular guidelines and history textbooks since the Chilean dictatorship?**

The data collection of relevant documents and textbooks for this section was developed in a presential (search in markets and libraries in Chile) and online style. Two hundred sixty-seven textbooks were retrieved and assessed for the modules of 1) civic education, 2) history (geography) and social sciences, and 3) Citizenship Education. Besides, 50 ministerial educative resources (i.e., activities), and other 68 additional documents, such as curricular bases and teacher guidelines, were collected. Consequently, the total of retrieved documents was 385. Table 18 provides details for each of the figures, organised per historical period.

**Table 18.** *Detail of history textbooks collection presented by period categorised for this research's purpose*

Period	Educative level			Total of textbooks collected per period	Educative resources	Other documents
	Basic		High-school (9 <sup>th</sup> to 12 <sup>th</sup> grade)			
	Primary*	Secondary**				
Dictatorship (1980-1989)	0	7	4	11	0	0
Transition (1990-2005)	0	18	25	43	0	2
Social movements (2006-2015)	5	51	57	113	0	10
Contemporary period (2016-present)	20	38	42***	100	50	58
<b>Subtotal</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>128</b>	<b>267</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>68</b>
	<b>Total</b>			<b>385</b>		

Note: Own elaboration. Distribution of educational level according to the organisation of the Chilean educative system. \*: 1<sup>st</sup> to 4<sup>th</sup> grade. \*\*: 5<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> grade. \*\*\*: Includes three textbooks for the new module Citizenship Education.

Through a thematic analysis (section 3.4.3), this section presents different perspectives of citizenship identified in the retrieved documents. These are organised as follows: 1) Perspectives of Citizenship in the curriculum (section 4.1.2.1), and 2) in the textbooks (section 4.1.2.2). Furthermore, within the latter, the following types of citizenship were identified: a) National, b) Democratic, c) Active, d) Global or cosmopolitan, e) Multicultural, Intercultural and Ethnic, f) Digital, and g) OCB. Here, it is relevant to mention that Digital citizenship is the only category that emerged from the empirical data and was not proposed in advance. However, as the data related to this was robust, Digital citizenship was not ignored but considered an emergent category.

The section ends by presenting a table summarising the main topics covered within each type of citizenship per historical and curricular moment.

#### **4.1.2.1 Perspectives of citizenship in the curriculum**

Throughout the years, Citizenship Education has evolved in the curriculum, demonstrating a variety of approaches according to the historical moment. Specifically, during the dictatorship, the module had a constitutional focus, following the line promoted by National citizenship. Furthermore, during democracy, this was eliminated in 1997 (see Table 20), followed by a series of curricular adjustments (BCN, 2013; Castro & Holz, 2016), starting with the 2005 curricular reform, which

Broadens the concept of civic education, from knowledge about the State and the political system to that of Citizenship Training, which includes knowledge, skills, and attitudes necessary to participate (...). It provides the objectives and contents related to Citizen Training, not in a specialised subject - as it was in the case of civic education (...) but in subjects of History and Social sciences (Mineduc, 2004; UCA, 2004, p. 16).

Furthermore, this reform considered citizenship training as part of the fundamental objectives and mandatory content for all grades (UCA, 2004). Also, “*transversal fundamental objectives*” were introduced to encourage knowledge in the entire school experience. Nevertheless, it was declared that the topic would be encouraged in the specific modules of History and Social Sciences (HSS), Literature, Orientation, and Philosophy (UCA, 2004). Moreover, the guidelines for Citizenship Education in 2005 declared that the aim was for students to

Understand the rights and duties that life in a democracy implies, including responsible participation in community activities, recognise the legitimacy of different points of view (...) principles of freedom, equality, justice, pluralism, and respect for human rights, to strengthen national identity and democratic coexistence (UCA, 2004, p. 16).

Furthermore, that year, and due to the negative results in international surveys about civic education applied in 1999, the Ministry of Education created the National Commission in Citizenship Training (NCCT). The NCCT diagnosed, among other issues, the growing distancing from youngers towards the political system. Also, the NCCT's report examined the situation in the Chilean schools, including recommendations to enhance the educative curriculum (Castro & Holz, 2016). This document was vital for the design of the curricular adjustment that took place in 2009. That year, the Ministry of Education developed a tool titled “*learning progress' maps*”, which, in terms of citizenship training, were related to 1) society from a historical perspective and 2) democracy and development (Castro & Holz, 2016). These maps considered Citizenship Education as “*an assessment of democracy and the development of skills that favour participation*”, adding that abilities such as debating, use of information, empathy, and commitment to solving social problems are significant components of coexisting in pluralistic societies (UCA, 2009, p. 4).

During this curricular adjustment, Citizenship Education continued to be part of the fundamental transversal objectives, fundamental objectives, and minimum mandatory contents. Also, it was sustained the role of teaching about citizenship in the modules pointed out in the 2005 curricular reform (UCA, 2009). Following this, with the promulgation of the General Law of Education (20.370), the curricular bases published in 2012 and 2013 introduced significant changes, such as new learning objectives for each module organised in knowledge, attitudes and abilities (Castro & Holz, 2016). In addition, now “*transversal learning objectives*” were incorporated, explaining that their achievement depended on the complete educative experience, including classes, breaks, parties, and other instances (Mineduc, 2012). However, Citizenship Education was still taught in the module of History, Geography and Social Sciences (HGSS) (Mineduc, 2012; UCA, 2013). Additionally, in 2012, new standards for training history teachers were set (Castro & Holz, 2016).

Afterwards, with the publication of the 2019 curricular bases, it was explained that the aim for the new module of Citizenship Education was for students to “*understand the democratic system so that they develop in it. Participating actively and co-responsively construct a society oriented towards the common good, social justice and sustainable development*” (UCA, 2019, p. 16).

Table 19 compares the different curricular reforms and their citizenship training approaches since the issue was explicitly addressed after the paradigmatic switch from civic education to citizenship training in 1997. This table is divided into the three main perspectives encouraged since 2005: knowledge, attitudes, abilities, and understanding that contents can be taught and learnt multi-dimensionally.

**Table 19.** Comparison of the approaches to Citizenship Education in the curricular bases (1<sup>st</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> grade)

Citizenship training in HSS (2005) <sup>1</sup>	Citizenship training in HSS (2009) <sup>2</sup>	(current) HGSS and citizenship training (2012-2013) <sup>3</sup>	General education and Module Citizenship Education in 2019 (11 <sup>th</sup> and 12 <sup>th</sup> grade) <sup>4</sup>
<b>Knowledge</b>			
	Democracy and human rights Social cohesion and diversity	Democracy and human rights Norms, rights, and responsibilities Political and institutional organisation	Democracy and citizens' participation Human rights and respect for others Political ethics
	Environmental education Political economy National identity and international relations (focus on peaceful conflict resolution)	Civic values and virtues Active citizenship, participation in teamwork and elaboration of projects	Environment, territory and public space Development models Learning-based in projects and conflict resolution Digital citizenship
<b>Abilities</b>			
	Use of public information Expression and debate Critical thinking and moral judgement Formulation and resolution of problems Relationships with others and skills to handle new situations Organisation and participation	Analysis and work with sources Critical thinking Temporal and spatial thinking (effective) Communication	Research Critical thinking  (effective) Communication
<b>Attitudes</b>			
Personal	Social and personal responsibility A vision of the other Social integration Pacific and democratic coexistence	Self-efficacy and analytical capacity Empathy and tolerance Participation Value the rights and duties of citizens	Abilities for the 21 <sup>st</sup> century*: Ways of thinking: Creativity and innovation; Critical thinking; Metacognition Ways of working: Communication; Collaboration Working tools: Digital alphabetisation; use of information Local and global citizenship; life and career; personal and social responsibility

Note: Own elaboration based on 1) UCA (2004); 2) Mineduc, & UCA (2009); 3) Mineduc (2012); 4) UCA (2019). \* The curricular bases compile abilities and attitudes within the abilities for the 21<sup>st</sup> century. According to the Ministry of education, 1) knowledge is understood as comprehensive concepts and information; 2) abilities are the capacities to perform tasks and to solve problems with precision and adaptability and 3) attitudes are the dispositions learned to respond favourably or unfavourably, in front of objects, ideas or people. These include affective, cognitive, and evaluative components.

Finally, recently in 2019, the “*abilities for the 21<sup>st</sup> century*” were introduced in the curricular bases for 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grade. It was argued that these were introduced because technologies in the global and multicultural world have determined new ways for citizens to coexist and participate in their societies (UCA, 2019a, p. 25). Additionally, during the COVID-19 pandemic, the Ministry of education released a curricular prioritisation of contents for all the modules, including Citizenship Education. These guidelines seek to keep encouraging the abilities of research, critical thinking, and communication. Furthermore, in terms of knowledge, identifying attributes for democracy (institutionalist) and citizenship and the diverse forms of participation, the common good, cohesion, social justice and social movements and organisations (UCA, 2020a).

#### **4.1.2.2 Perspectives of citizenship in the textbooks**

The analysis of textbooks (civic education, HSS, HGSS, and Citizenship Education) and documents unveil various perspectives on citizenship. As section 4.1.2.1 expresses, across the years, these different approaches have been included in the formal educative curriculum and, consequently, in the textbooks. In this line, the textbook for 9<sup>th</sup> grade in 2009 declares that “*the concept of citizenship has been transformed in recent decades, due to changes experienced in society as a result of its multicultural and multi-ethnic development, due to constant migrations*” (Valdés et al., 2009, p. 257). To exemplify these assumptions, the textbook revises democratic, social, parity, intercultural, and environmental citizenship (Valdés et al., 2009, p. 257).

Thus, considering the changing and evolving nature of citizenship, this section explores such evolution.

##### **a) National citizenship**

The assessed textbooks unveil a robust body of content based on National citizenship.



Although the concept is not explicitly used, this type of citizenship is widely presented as “*Nationality and citizenship*” in the contents, including 8<sup>th</sup> (Duchens & Schmidt, 1993; Krebs et al., 1995), 9<sup>th</sup> (Milos et al., 2000, 2002, 2007) and 12<sup>th</sup> (Latorre et al., 2013, 2016). Indeed, these were the most predominant topics revised in the modules of Civic Education and HSS during the dictatorship and the early 90s (the period before the 2005 curricular reform).

In this line, the civic education textbook from 1991 to 1994 explains that the module is grounded “*on the notion of a constitutional State of rights, based in the respect, promotion and guarantee of fundamental rights, and based in a conception of democracy as governmental regime and lifestyle*” (Nogueira, 1994, p. 7).

Indeed, constitutional knowledge, citizens' rights and the State's organisation are predominant subjects in citizenship training across the years and grades. Also, textbooks describe requirements to become Chilean citizens, including being 18<sup>th</sup> years old and not being condemned to an afflictive penalty. Some textbooks that include such themes are, 6<sup>th</sup> (Álvarez & Barahona, 2012c, 2013a, 2014; Fernández & Giadrosi, 2015b; Garrido & Olate, 2019), 8<sup>th</sup> (Domínguez & Díaz, 1996; Duchens & Schmidt, 1993; Krebs et al., 1995; Krebs et al., 1998), 9<sup>th</sup> (Milos et al., 2000, 2002, 2007), 10<sup>th</sup> (Valencia et al., 2003, 2005), 11<sup>th</sup> (Almeyda et al., 2007; Mineduc, 2015), 12<sup>th</sup> grade (Latorre et al., 2016), and Citizenship Education module for 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grade (Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b).

Other topics covered include the origins of citizenship in Greece and Rome, explaining the main differences and similarities with citizenship's current understanding. Some examples are in the textbooks for 7<sup>th</sup> (Hanisch et al., 2012a; Landa & Pinto, 2016; Silva & Ramírez, 2009, 2011; Toro, 2014; Toro & Sepúlveda, 2009), and 11<sup>th</sup> grade (Santibañez et al., 2013).

Besides, political regimes and the State of Chile from an institutional (9<sup>th</sup> grade in Milos et al., 2007; 10<sup>th</sup> grade in Valencia et al., 2003, 2005) and mercantile point of view (Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b) are revised.

Furthermore, it is relevant to mention that in the textbooks' sample, from 2006 onwards, the concept of “political citizenship” was included. This concept shares similarities with the common understanding of National citizenship since it is defined in the 12<sup>th</sup>-grade textbook for 2017 as “*a condition that allows individuals to exercise their political rights within the framework of constitutional democracy (...). The normal and regular thing is that political rights are exclusive to citizens*” (Latorre et al., 2016, p. 74). Finally, in the following years, the use and presentation of political citizenship are presented in connection to political participation, as the section dedicated to active citizenship presents.

### **b) Democratic and social citizenship**

Although the concept of Democratic citizenship was formally introduced in 2005, with the reform, the analysis unveils a strong focus on democracy in the curriculum since 1991, which coincides with the return to democracy. To illustrate this point, the 1991 “*Handbook for civic education*” discusses the issue from a theoretical perspective in the chapter “*political regimes and forms of democratic government*” (Nogueira, 1994).

Additionally, democracy is presented with different depths according to the students' level. For instance, from 5<sup>th</sup> to 8<sup>th</sup> grade, the students learn about the definition of democracy as a form of government; the breakdown of democracy in Chile, and the return to democracy (i.e., chapter “*the long road to democracy in Chile*” in Donoso et al., 2006) and to learn to live in a democracy (UCA, 2004). Similar topics are explored in the following grades (9<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> grade) but with more depth depending on the grade.

Concerning this, the 2009 HSS textbook for 9<sup>th</sup> grade specifies that “*democratic citizenship implies recognising the dignity of all human beings and fostering peace as an essential part of civic culture, through dialogue and negotiation*” (Valdés et al., 2009, p. 254). In this line, although the knowledge taught about democracy is predominantly theoretical, subjects aiming to revise social justice issues and equal opportunities are presented in high

school textbooks. These include the 11<sup>th</sup>-grade HSS textbook for 2008-2012 (Almeyda et al., 2007, 2011), and the Citizenship Education module (Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b; UCA, 2020b), among others.

Other topics related to social justice and equal opportunities presented are a) poverty and marginality in the HSS textbooks for 10<sup>th</sup> grade in 2018 (Honeyman et al., 2018a, 2019b) and 12<sup>th</sup> grade from 2009 to 2013 (Milos et al., 2009, 2010, 2012); and b) rights for historically discriminated groups, such as indigenous, migrants, women, LGBTQ+, and disabled people. For example, these topics are present in the HSS textbooks for 8<sup>th</sup> grade in 2007-2008 and 2013 (Espinoza et al., 2006; Giadrosić et al., 2006), 9<sup>th</sup> grade in 2004, and 2009-2010 (Álvarez et al., 2010; Valdés et al., 2009; Valencia et al., 2003), the HGSS textbook for 10<sup>th</sup> grade in 2018 (Honeyman et al., 2018a, 2019b, p. 284), and the 12<sup>th</sup>-grade HSS textbooks in 2005, 2009 and 2013 (Álvarez & Barahona, 2012c; Iturriaga et al., 2005; Milos et al., 2009). Also, these topics are presented in the 4<sup>th</sup>-grade HGSS textbook for 2018 (Fernández et al., 2017) and the module for Citizenship Education (Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b; UCA, 2020b).

Finally, recently the topic of democratic citizenship has been presented with a more personal perspective in the module for Citizenship Education, as this directly addresses the students by presenting reasons to participate. For example, among the contents that are part of the presented unit declare “*I am interested in a democratic State that protects and promotes the people's rights, and duties*” (Fernández-Niño et al., 2020, p. 76) and “*I am interested in democracy, and I protect it*” (p. 90). This textbook analyses issues such as labour rights (p. 204), and child labour (p. 205), among others (Fernández-Niño et al., 2020).

### **c) Active citizenship**

From a historical perspective, the topic is introduced during democracy. The relevance of including participation as a subject has been explained, arguing that “*a healthy society needs the participation of its citizens*” (Flores, 2019, p. 194). In this line, textbooks revise the Chilean

State's role and duty in ensuring citizens' participation (Fernández & Giadrosić, 2015a, p. 32).

In this sense, it is explained that *“to participate is to be 'part of', to be part of everything, our family, our neighbourhood, our class, our country”* (Cembrano et al., 2005, p. 225).

In this way, *“students are encouraged to develop an active citizenship, getting involved in their communities (...) recognising their rights, responsibilities and the norms of coexistence, at the time students put into practice democratic values”* (Araya, 2018, p. 152).

For these reasons, some textbooks dedicate sections to analysing and encouraging youth participation in different areas (Fernández-Niño et al., 2020; Garrido & Olate, 2019; Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b; Iturriaga et al., 2005; Latorre et al., 2013; Milos et al., 2000, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2007). These areas are described as follows:

***i) Political participation***

This topic is presented in direct relation to subjects of National Citizenship (constitutional and legislative rights). For these reasons, political participation is understood in the textbooks as *“political activities carried out by citizens, such as registering for a political party, running for public office or voting in elections”* (Fernández & Giadrosić, 2015a, p. 214).

Indeed, democratic elections and the right to participate in political parties are critical components of political participation. Textbooks that include this information are the HGSS textbook for 4<sup>th</sup> grade for 2018-2020 (Fernández et al., 2017), 5<sup>th</sup> grade in 2020 (Flores, 2019), 6<sup>th</sup> grade in 2014 (Álvarez & Barahona, 2013), HSS textbooks for 9<sup>th</sup> grade in 1998 (Mineduc, 1998) and 2003-2009 (Cembrano et al., 2004, 2005; Valencia et al., 2003, 2005), 10<sup>th</sup> grade in 2002 (Almeyda et al., 2001), 12<sup>th</sup> grade in 2014-2020 (Latorre et al., 2013). Also, this is included in the Citizenship Education textbook (Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b).

Additionally, some textbooks explore the phenomenon of no-participation, providing different explanations. In older books, this is associated with cultural changes and their impact on the sense of belonging to society (Cembrano et al., 2005, p. 243). More recent textbooks

explain it is as political disaffection expressed in the lack of electoral turnover (Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b; Fernández-Niño, 2020).

*i) Social and communitarian participation*

According to the textbooks, this alludes to citizens' actions to promote and/or defend collective groups or organisms (Hidalgo 2020a). Examples of these collectives are neighbours' councils (Domínguez & Díaz, 1996; Hidalgo 2020a), sports clubs, labour unions, student organisations, foundations, and NGOs (Cembrano et al., 2004, 2005; Fernández & Giadrosi, 2015a; Nogueira, 1994). Some of the textbooks that analyse these organisations are the material for 5<sup>th</sup> grade from 2014 to 2018 (Álvarez & Barahona, 2012a; Fernández & Giadrosi, 2016); 8<sup>th</sup> grade for 1994 (Domínguez & Díaz, 1996) and 1996 (Duchens & Schmidt, 1996); 9<sup>th</sup> grade from 2004 to 2009 (Cembrano et al., 2004, 2005; Milos et al., 2009); 11<sup>th</sup> grade from 2013-2015 (Quintana et al., 2012, 2013, 2014) and the Citizenship Education textbook (Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b).

*ii) Civil participation*

This alludes to citizens' actions, as individuals or as part of organisms, that seek to impact decision-making processes and public affairs to address their needs (Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b). For example, the guidelines about citizenship training from 1<sup>st</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> grade in 2005 (UCA, 2004) revised the civil participation of underrepresented groups (i.e., women) in structures of power and decision-making instances to potentiate their leadership (Almeyda et al., 2001).

Besides, the subject of social movements was included in many textbooks. For instance, 6<sup>th</sup> grade in 2013, 9<sup>th</sup> grade in 2001-2002 (Milos et al., 2001, 2002) and 2016 (Gárate et al., 2014), 11<sup>th</sup> grade in 2013-2015 (Quintana et al., 2012, 2013, 2014) and 12<sup>th</sup> grade in 2014-2020 (Latorre et al., 2013).

The main social movements presented are the students' manifestations in Chile (penguin

revolution) and the world in 5<sup>th</sup> grade from 2016 (Fernández & Giadrosi, 2016), 10<sup>th</sup> grade in 2018-2020 (Honeyman et al., 2018a, 2018b), 11<sup>th</sup> grade in 2015-2019 (Quintana et al., 2015) and 12<sup>th</sup> grade in 2013 (Álvarez & Barahona, 2012a). Also, the labour movement in textbooks for 6<sup>th</sup> grade in 2016 (Fernández & Giadrosi, 2015b), 10<sup>th</sup> grade 2010-2013 (Álvarez et al., 2012; Méndez et al., 2009), and 11<sup>th</sup> grade in 2011-2014 (Álvarez et al., 2010; Latorre & Henríquez, 2013).

Additionally, feminist movements are presented in 11<sup>th</sup>-grade HGSS textbooks from 2013 (Latorre & Henríquez, 2013); 12<sup>th</sup>-grade textbooks from 2002-2008 (Almeyda et al., 2001, 2007). Besides, indigenous movements were mentioned in textbooks for 11<sup>th</sup> grade in 2015-2018 (Quintana et al., 2015), and 12<sup>th</sup> grade (Iturriaga et al., 2005, p. 127; Milos et al., 2009; 2012).

Moreover, a series of textbooks examine civil movements against human rights violations during the dictatorship in Chile. Interestingly, these are rarely included in the course units about active citizenship but those about dictatorship (Garrido & Olate, 2019). Finally, although it was not significantly addressed, it was possible to find allusions to social movements in textbooks from the dictatorship period, explaining that citizens' manifestations took place as a response to the crises lived during Salvador Allende's government and as justification for the coup d'état in 1973 (Cheix & Gutiérrez, 1986, p. 155).

### c) **Global or cosmopolitan citizenship**

“Globalisation” as a theme has been reviewed since the early 2000s, incorporating, throughout the years, sections dedicated to “global culture”. For instance, the 2005 HSS textbook for 12<sup>th</sup> grade explains that “*Globalisation should lead to multicultural diversity, not homogenisation, forced integration or static conservation. It must be a process*” (Iturriaga et al., 2005, p. 241).

Consequently, in the following years, globalisation and its relationship with citizenship

started to be addressed in some textbooks. For instance, the 11<sup>th</sup>-grade HGSS textbook for 2014-2017 mentions it in the section “*doing citizenship*”, with the activity titled “*Chile in a globalised world: sociocultural transformations*” (Quintana et al., 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016, p. 274).

Furthermore, Global Citizenship has been included in the new module for Citizenship Education. Its study programme revises the differences and similarities between global and local citizenship, explaining that

The awareness of being a citizen promotes a sense of belonging and the appreciation and exercise of democratic principles. It also implies assuming responsibilities as a local and global citizen (...) exercising respect for others, their privacy, and differences in values, religion and ethnicity are of great importance (UCA, 2020b, p. 9).

#### **d) Multicultural, Intercultural and Ethnic citizenship**

Multicultural citizenship has been addressed with different intensities across the years. For instance, initially, the HSS textbook for 1983-1993 did not address Multicultural Citizenship, but it did recognise the ethnic diversity of the territory (Duchens, 1993, p. 119).

In the following years and after the curricular reforms, it was possible to identify perspectives of recognition and appreciation towards indigenous groups. For instance, the HSS textbook for 9<sup>th</sup> grade (2004-2005) includes a lesson titled “*let’s recognise and value our ethnic diversity*” (Cembrano et al., 2004). Also, the HSS textbook for 12<sup>th</sup> grade dedicates a lesson about the complex and diverse ethnic composition in Latin America (Iturriaga et al., 2005, 2009, 2010).

Furthermore, the guidelines from the 2005 reform mention in a 4<sup>th</sup>-grade activity that “*for the exercise of citizenship founded on fundamental democratic values, the students (...) must become aware of the rights of immigrants and the different ethnic groups and indigenous*

*people that are part of our country*” (UCA, 2004, p. 62).

The same guidelines promote the revindication of the historically oppressing treatment that indigenous groups have received. For instance, the guidelines for 10<sup>th</sup> grade include the topic *“indigenous people: the right to a new treatment”* (UCA, 2004, p. 167).

Moreover an example of ethnic diversity and migration is found in the section *“I am a citizen”* in the HGSS textbook for 2<sup>nd</sup> grade in 2013, which encourages welcoming and respecting immigrants in the educative community (Moreno et al., 2012, p. 92).

Furthermore, the HSS material for 9<sup>th</sup> grade in 2009 introduces *“intercultural citizenship”* as respecting different cultures and their rights (Valdés et al., 2009, p. 254). The 6<sup>th</sup>-grade HGSS textbook for 2016-2019 includes descriptions of multicultural and intercultural citizenship, explaining that the first alludes to collective rights and the latter to the dialogue between cultures (Luque & Torrejón, 2015, p. 42).

Finally, the Citizenship Education textbook (2020) explicitly mentions the relation between citizenship and interculturality, explaining the need to *“overcome prejudices, stereotypes and any form of discrimination, racism and xenophobia”* (Hidalgo, 2020a, p. 326).

#### **e) Digital citizenship**

Digital citizenship appears in the analysed textbook towards 2009 when new forms of citizenship are presented. It is declared that it alludes to the *“exercise of rights and duties in a new dimension: digital”* (Valdés et al., 2009, p. 255). However, the revision of “digital” topics in the following years gained more attention than the “citizenship” aspect. In 2017, after the promulgation of Law 20.911 (2016), Digital citizenship was formally included as a subject for citizenship training. Therefore, the *“digital citizenship guidelines for citizen training”* argue that *“incorporating a broad and critical view of what it means to be citizens of the 21st century, where public space is no longer the territory in which we live but also the digital spaces in which we operate daily”* (Peña, 2017, p. 5).



Accordingly, key points are explored, including human rights, democracy on the internet, e-rights for children and digital abilities (i.e., communication, collaboration, and digital coexistence) (Peña, 2017, p. 3).

#### **f) OCB in the textbooks: Getting involved in the educative community**

In the analysis developed, it was possible to find information dedicated to encouraging OCB in the students. Rather than being expressed in theoretical terms, this information is promoted in practical activities and projects for the students. For instance, the HGSS textbook for 6<sup>th</sup> grade in 2013-2014 informs that *“being a ‘good citizen’ is not only participating in politics but also living together in harmony (...). It is to actively participate in different social organisations such as the Class council or the Students Council”* (Álvarez & Barahona, 2012c, p. 22). This section is organised by presenting the diverse forms of OCB identified in the textbooks.

##### ***i) Civic virtue***

A large body of information about civic virtue was identified in textbooks when these addressed citizenship and participation. For example, teacher guidelines for citizenship training explain that civic participation can be promoted in the school culture when democratic elections for representative organisms occur (UCA, 2004, p. 23).

Concerning the promotion of democratic instances, multiple documents encourage students' participation in representative governance organisms throughout the years. For instance, the HSS textbook for 9<sup>th</sup> grade (2004-2005), in its unit *“participation, our right and duty”*, includes the following reflection:

In the educative community, how do you perceive that a participative culture is stimulated? In your class, is there a class council? How do you elect them? Do you have the possibility to express initiatives, and are these accepted by the school

administration? Do you have a Students' Council that represents you at the global level and with the capacity to make changes in the educative environment? (Cembrano et al., 2004, p. 234).

In this sense, the 9<sup>th</sup>-grade HSS textbook for 2006-2007 explains that “*as citizenship is a condition that allows people to execute their political rights, to be attending high school education is the condition that allows students to execute their right to students' participation. (...) in Students' Councils*” (Valencia et al., 2005, p. 216). Similarly, the 8<sup>th</sup>-grade HSS textbook for 2007-2008 includes in its unit “*citizens' rights*” a section dedicated to the students' councils (Espinoza et al., 2006, p. 41).

Moreover, the curricular bases for 1<sup>st</sup> to 6<sup>th</sup>-grade highlight that participating in the community by electing representatives for the Class Council is one of the purposes of citizenship training (Mineduc, 2012).

Also, similar content was found in the 2018 HGSS textbooks for 4<sup>th</sup> grade (Fernández et al., 2017), 5<sup>th</sup> grade (Álvarez & Barahona, 2013) and 6<sup>th</sup> grade in 2016 (Fernández & Giadrosić, 2015b) and 2020 (Garrido & Olate, 2019). Citizenship Education textbooks in 2020 explore other participative organisms beyond the class and school councils. Specifically, these also analyse the role of the Electoral Committee, Course Delegates Council, Parents and guardians' Council, Teachers Council, and the General Assembly (Hidalgo, 2020a).

Finally, a crucial aspect of civic virtue is for members to be informed about what happens in the organisation. The Citizenship Education textbook for 2020 includes the section “*to inform ourselves about the school*”. It is explained that this is key for citizenship, and highlighted through school newspapers, “*students have sought to fulfil this function*” (Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b, p. 71).

## **ii) Altruism**

Different sections of the textbooks encourage collaboration and teamwork in the

students (UCA, 2004), such as the HSS material for 7<sup>th</sup> grade in 2009-2014 (Toro & Sepúlveda, 2009). The teachers' guidelines and textbooks for Citizenship Education in 2020 include specific activities to encourage teamwork and foster a collaborative way to solve problems (Hidalgo, 2020a; Fernández-Niño et al., 2020). Additionally, these textbooks provide an example of developing projects to improve the relationship among members of the educative community, such as debates and fairs. A specific activity specifies “*what is a school? Walls and a blackboard? (...) In some schools, it is not enough for them to conceive the educational community this way, and they live another way*” (Fernández-Niño et al., 2020, p. 111).

Another perspective of altruism is helping others if they have a problem (Organ, 1988, 1997; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Concerning this, it was possible to find different activities aiming to encourage this attitude. For instance, the section “*I am a citizen*” in the HGSS textbook for 2<sup>nd</sup> grade in 2013 encourages empathy in the students regarding the inclusion of immigrant students in the educative community (Contreras & Vargas, 2013, p. 140-141). Equally, other textbooks include activities to encourage empathy as a citizen's value to live in a community, such as the 2<sup>nd</sup>-grade HGSS textbook for 2018 (Riquelme & Quiñones, 2017), the teachers' guide for 3<sup>rd</sup> grade in 2020 (Mineduc, 2020, p. 5) and the 4<sup>th</sup>-grade HGSS textbook for 2016 (Fernández & Giadrosić, 2015b).

### *iii) Conscientiousness*

Aspects of conscientiousness, such as respect and responsibility in the educative community, have been presented throughout the years. Among its guidelines for 1st grade, the Ministry of Education explains, “*the teacher motivates a conversation about taking care of the objects in the classroom and the school*” (UCA, 2004, p. 42). The 1<sup>st</sup>-grade HGSS textbook for 2018 (Peña & Vargas, 2017) and the 2<sup>nd</sup>-grade HGSS textbook for 2020 include activities related to taking care of the classroom and the school (Quiñones et al., 2019, p. 76). Similarly, other textbooks address this, such as the HGSS textbooks for 3<sup>rd</sup> grade from 2018-2020 (Latorre

et al., 2019) and 5<sup>th</sup> from 2013-2016 and 2020 (Álvarez & Barahona, 2012b; Fernández & GiadrosiĆ, 2015a; Flores, 2019).

In the latter, the section “*I integrate knowledge to be a better citizen*” includes the activity which encourages teams of students to find a problem in their school and develop a plan to solve it (Álvarez & Barahona, 2012b, p. 166).

Furthermore, the connection between conscientiousness in school and citizenship is clearly outlined in examples across the years. Indeed, the programme for HSS in 1998 includes a unit for political organisation, which contemplates social-action projects oriented toward tackling problems in the students’ community (Mineduc, 1998, p. 83). Similar projects are included in other textbooks, including the Citizenship Education material (Hidalgo, 2020a, 2020b; Fernández-Niño et al., 2020) and the HGSS textbook for 5<sup>th</sup> grade in 2020 (Flores, 2019, p. 200).

Furthermore, teachers’ guidelines include the promotion of conscientiousness through participative instances that include volunteering and “*service-learning*” (UCA, 2004, p. 23).

Regarding the latter, the programme for HGSS in 5<sup>th</sup> grade (2013) informs that it “*is progressively expanded towards the development of team projects at school and in the community*” (Mineduc, 2013b, p. 37). Besides, the curricular bases for citizenship training for 1<sup>st</sup> to 6<sup>th</sup> grade (Mineduc, 2012) are set as learning objective, to “*design and participate in a project that solves a problem in the school community*” (Mineduc, 2012, p. 212).

#### *iv) Sportsmanship*

Although the retrieved documents do not directly address sportsmanship as a concept, these encourage attitudes to support and maintain a positive climate in the school. For instance, the curricular bases for 1<sup>st</sup> to 6<sup>th</sup> grade in 2012 explain that participation is a mechanism that contributes to the positive coexistence and climate in the school (Mineduc, 2012, p. 205). In the same line, the 4<sup>th</sup> grade textbook for 2013 proposes a project to solve problems in the class

by assigning tutors responsible for helping classmates with difficulties in certain subjects (Gamucio & Ponti, 2012, p. 34).

The HGSS textbook for 5<sup>th</sup> grade in 2013-2015 provides another example that advances sportsmanship. In the section *“I integrate knowledge to be a better citizen”*, the activity *“pacific resolution of conflicts”* encourages the students to reflect and elaborate a plan to resolve their problems as a class at the time that they analyse negotiation and mediation, as mechanisms that contribute to supporting the students’ coexistence (Álvarez & Barahona, 2012c, p. 130). A similar example is presented in the HGSS textbook for 4<sup>th</sup> grade from 2016 to 2018, which in its chapter *“girls and boys are citizens”* explains that conflicts *“can be a constructive learning instance that allows the community to understand their problems, stimulate participation, develop collaboration and seek for solutions”* (Fernández et al., 2017, p. 38).

Following the line of pacific resolution of conflicts in the school, the activity proposed in the unit *“learning to live in community”* in the 5<sup>th</sup>-grade HGSS textbook for 2016 provides orientations to elaborate the students’ Plan of Coexistence (p. 25) and the school’s regulation about the subject (Fernández & Giadrosić, 2015a). Similar activities are included in the textbook for 1<sup>st</sup> grade from 2018-2020 (Peña & Vargas, 2017), 2<sup>nd</sup> grade in 2018 (Riquelme & Quiñones, 2017), 4<sup>th</sup> grade in 2018 (Fernández et al., 2017), 5<sup>th</sup> grade in 2015-2018 (Álvarez & Barahona, 2012b, 2013) and 2020 (Flores, 2019), and 6<sup>th</sup> grade in 2016 and 2020 (Fernández & Giadrosić, 2015b; Garrido & Olate, 2019). Besides, the curricular bases for Citizenship Education include objectives that include strengthening the construction of agreements and conflict resolution (Mineduc, 2019, p. 54).

Here, it is important to note that activities alluding to encouraging conflict resolution in the educative context are presented after the 2012-2013 curricular update. Older textbooks address the issue from a more external and abstract perspective. For example, the HSS textbook

for 12<sup>th</sup> grade in 2005, in the chapter “*political scenario in the modern world*”, presents a workshop about the subject, which analyses what a conflict is and how to overcome it at the global level (Iturriaga et al., 2005, p. 108).

v) ***Courtesy***

It was possible to find evidence to propose that courtesy is encouraged in the material retrieved. For example, the HGSS textbook for 4<sup>th</sup> grade in 2013 mentions that “*good peer relationships help you at school, as they make for a more pleasant environment, which favours a good classroom climate and benefits everyone*” (Gamucio & Ponti, 2012, p. 34).

Additionally, textbooks attempt to discourage negative behaviours and bullying, including the 6<sup>th</sup>-grade HGSS textbooks for 2016 (Fernández & Giadrosić, 2015b) and 2020 (Garrido & Olate, 2019, p. 39). Besides, the 5<sup>th</sup>-grade HGSS textbook for 2013-2015 includes an activity that analyses violent situations in the school and the importance of overcoming conflicts to protect school climate and coexistence (Álvarez & Barahona, 2013, p. 62).

Similarly, the HGSS textbook for 12<sup>th</sup> grade in 2014 includes an activity to analyse the frequency of violent situations in the school and why these occur. For example, to participate in a group that bullies a classmate, start a fight, and is part of a group that physically assaults another student (Latorre et al., 2013, p. 102). Besides, other textbooks promote respect towards others as a desirable attitude in Citizenship Education (Garrido & Olate, 2019; Flores, 2019). Furthermore, the teacher’s didactic guide for 3<sup>rd</sup> grade in 2013 encourages to

Reflect civic values and virtues, such as tolerance and respect for others (examples: respecting opinions other than one’s own, showing a willingness to dialogue, [and to] respect diversity, such as different customs, beliefs, ethnic origin, nationality, etcetera) (Mineduc, 2013a, p. 5).

Besides, as part of the basic norms of coexistence, respect is part of the objectives in the subject of rights and duties in citizenship training (Mineduc, 2013b, 2020b). Similar

evidence was found in other textbooks, such as the material for 5<sup>th</sup> grade in 2020, which considers that respect for others' space, others' time, others' property, and others' privacy are civic values (Flores, 2019, p. 182).

Finally, Table 20 compares the main contents related to citizenship found in the documents and textbooks and their presence according to the historical and curricular moment.

**Table 20.** *Summary of approaches to citizenship in the history textbooks*

Citizenship approach/ Curricular moment	Topics covered	Dictatorship (1973-1989)	Transition (1990-2005)		Social movements (2006-2015)		Contemporary period
			Transition (1990-2004)	End of transition (2005)	2009 adjustment	2013-2013 reform	
<b>National</b>	Nationality.	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Constitutional knowledge.	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Citizenship in Greece and Rome.	X	X	X	X	X	X
<b>Democratic and social</b>	Political regimes.	X	X	X	X	X	X
	State of Chile and market.	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Political citizenship.				X	X	X
	Political organisms.			X	X	X	X
	Social organisations.	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Definition of democracy and to learn to live in a democracy.	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Social justice and equal opportunities.			X	X	X	X
	Poverty and marginality.			X	X	X	X
	Human rights.	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Rights of the child.	X	X	X	X	X	X
<b>Active</b>	Rights for historically discriminated groups (indigenous, migrants, women, LGBTI, disabled).		X	X	X	X	X
	- Political participation		X	X	X	X	X
	Registering for a political party; Running for public office; Voting in elections.			X	X	X	X
	No participation.			X	X	X	X



- Youth participation	Social movements, political elections, volunteering activities.		X		X		X	X	X
- Social and communitarian participation	Neighbours' councils, sports clubs, labour unions, student organisations and foundations.	X	X		X		X	X	X
-Civil participation	Social movements.	X	X		X		X	X	X
	Students' movements.	X	X		X		X	X	X
	Labour movement.	X	X		X		X	X	X
	Feminist movements.		X		X		X	X	X
	Indigenous movements.				X		X	X	X
<b>Global</b>	Local and global citizenship.				X		X	X	X
	Globalisation.				X		X	X	X
<b>Multicultural, intercultural, or ethnic</b>	Ethnic diversity.	X	X		X		X	X	X
	Migration.								
	Revindication of indigenous groups.				X		X	X	X
	Intercultural citizenship.								X
	Multicultural citizenship.								
<b>Digital</b>	E-rights, digital abilities, democracy.						X		X
<b>OCB (school)</b>									
- Civic virtue	Participation in democratic instances.				X		X	X	X
	Service-learning and volunteering; school projects.		X		X		X	X	X
- Altruism	Collaboration and teamwork.		X		X		X	X	X
	Help others.							X	X
	Empathy.				X		X	X	X
- Conscientiousness	Respect and responsibility.		X		X		X	X	X
	Communitarian projects.		X		X		X	X	X

- Sportsmanship	Support a positive climate.	X	X	X	X
	Pacific resolution of conflicts.		X	X	X
- Courtesy	Avoid harmful behaviours and bullying.	X	X	X	X
	Respect.	X	X	X	X

---

Note: Own elaboration.

## **4.2 Objective 2. To examine different manifestations of citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE.**

This section examines how school districts promote citizenship (section 4.2.1) and what forms of OCB are displayed by the participants (section 4.2.2).

### **4.2.1 RQ 3: What forms of citizenship are encouraged by the participant organisations?**

The data and thematic analysis developed unveil different types of citizenship perceived and promoted in the participant school districts. Table 21 provides a sample of quotations illustrating such approaches.

Regarding *National citizenship*, there is a solid orientation toward constitutional knowledge and rights, as it is unveiled by participant A3 at DME-1 and approaches presented at the PEL from LSPE-2 unveil. This focus is similar to what is encouraged concerning *Post-national citizenship*, which is oriented toward promoting children's rights. Examples from participants A3 at DME-1, D2 at DME-2 and the Citizenship Training Plan (CTP) at School 3 from LSPE-2 are provided. This focus on rights' follows the Ministerial and curricular guidelines whose purpose is to encourage this aspect (BCN, 2013; Castro & Holz, 2016) which is consequent with the reality of many students. For example, according to the participants, many times, the socially vulnerable context where the schools operate sets the need for school districts to focus on particular aspects: “[In] *Those schools* [small, rural], *what* [children] *have the most, is a violation of rights in their homes*” (A3, DME-1).

Concerning *Democratic citizenship*, the data unveils an orientation toward promoting civic culture in the students at DME-2 civic ceremonies and other activities (participant D2). In addition, the other school districts include issues related to teaching democracy, negotiation

skills and social justice. For instance, participants A6 (DME-1), A-1 (LSPE-1) and the CTP at School 1 from LSPE-2 mention debates and discussions about contingent issues.

Following this, similar perspectives are presented regarding *Active Citizenship* and its three types of participation: Political, Social and communitarian, and Civil. Concerning *a) Political participation*, participants from DME-2 and both LSPEs highlight the relevance of teaching about voting and its impact on their daily lives at the school and their future. Furthermore, aspects of *b) Social and communitarian participation* are promoted to encourage in the students an awareness of the community where they live and to contribute positively to this.

The third aspect, *c) Civil participation*, is recognised transversally by the participants, who refer to the existence of trade unions and the development of different strikes. Interestingly, DME-1 refers to the lack of strike action in the district (see the example from participant C1). In DME-2, strike action is perceived as a detrimental factor; as the PADEM 2020 explains, “*During 2015 there was a decrease in enrolment due to the migration of students and families, to other educational establishments as a result of a teachers’ strike that lasted 51 days*” (p. 30). Furthermore, in the past, a strike in this school district led to the resignation of the previous district manager as participant C1 unveils (see Table 21).

Equally, one of the managers from LSPE-2 considers the adverse effects on the students' education when trade unions take strike action: “*Sometimes (...) these trade unions, are dedicated only to seeking an increase in income in the fewest possible hours, with the least possible sacrifice*” (A1, LSPE-2).

**Table 21.** *Forms of citizenship that are encouraged by the school districts*

Citizenship' perspective	Quotation' samples			
	DME-1	DME-2	LSPE-1	LSPE-2
<b>National</b>	<i>"It is super important, the issues surrounding rights and duties" (A3).</i>	<i>"It is essential to know the functions of the State and the fundamental institutions that compose it" (CTP, School 1).</i>	<i>In our schools (...) it is important what the protagonism of the students means and to share with everybody the values that the State of Chile projects and that are enshrined in the constitution (B4).</i>	<i>"Citizen training and republican values, whose purpose is education in social values (...) to be aware of our duties and rights as a citizen of the knowledge society" (PEL 2020-2025, p. 35).</i>
<b>Post-national</b>	<i>"The district' school coexistence works from there, the issue of children's rights. Watching over that" (A3).</i>	<i>"We work hard on children's rights (...) and duties" (D2). "Action: Review of children's rights and associated duties. Associate the manual of coexistence to the rights and duties of the child" (School 2).</i>	<i>"That the children of [School 1] have an environmental hallmark, and in that hallmark, they develop activities such as an organic garden or things like that, that activity that the child does with the teacher around the environmental sustainability is already citizenship in itself" (B5).</i>	<i>[Get to know] "Human Rights and Rights of the Child: Set of elements and values that constitute the identity of the individual and that comes from birth" (CTP, School 3).</i>
<b>Democratic</b>	<i>"Participation, debate, the elections of the students' Council. There were schools that did not have a students' Council (...) These were incorporated from the Citizenship Training plan" (A6).</i>	<i>"We have made them participate in debates... in parades, in a lot of civic things, such as civic events... also give importance to the civic act" (D2). "To develop it (...) in what way they collaborate in social peace (...) in the governance" (B5).</i>	<i>"We are making (...) all things very participatory, where everyone can have a say in what is happening in our schools (...) it costs the schools a lot and the teachers too, but they are also learning little by little" (A1).</i>	<i>"Objective: [To] encourage the participation of students in issues of public interest. Action: debates on national contingency issues, for example civil union, abortion, legalisation of marijuana, among others" (CTP, School 1, p. 7).</i>
<b>Active</b>	-	-	<i>"It is something that has to be defended (...) High levels of participation and connection with the environment, the development of civic education, the development of students and</i>	<i>"We aim that (...) they feel part of something and that they feel that they are listened to, that they can have an opinion, [that] this new education is becoming more participatory" (B5).</i>

<b>a) Political Participation</b>	<p><i>"We vote, but after that strike, we had conflicts between schools, because we were independent schools, each school voted whether to strike or not"</i> (A6).</p>	<p><i>"One of the first things we did was elect the Student Council. Students from preschool to eighth grade voted"</i> (D1).</p> <p><i>"We explained to them that there was going to be a democratic voting process to elect the candidates [for the Students' Council], that they were going to have a public space to make their ideas known"</i> (D4).</p>	<p>[becoming] <i>more integral human beings"</i> (B2).</p> <p><i>"I told the team of the Technical-Pedagogical Unit, "talk to the people in charge of Citizenship Training, work with the children, make them participate, make them see what the process is like" [For the Local Council] (A1).</i></p> <p><i>"I have worked with the teachers of Citizenship Training to make voting an experience for the kids"</i> (B8).</p>	<p><i>"The Local Council of which we have elections, commits all the educative actors (...) all represented to function. We have elections this month"</i> (A1).</p> <p><i>"[School] Board election process by class of students, Students' Council, and guardians"</i> (CTP School 1, p. 8).</p>
<b>b) Social and communitarian participation</b>	<p><i>"Projects are generated for community participation, such as 'Sustainability', 'Encountering with Art' and 'Beautifying my school'"</i> (School 1, PADEM 2019, p. 143).</p>	<p><i>"That is Citizenship Training. I must know (...) where I live, and from there to the outside, right? I must know that I have a Neighbourhood Council, that there is a Mothers' Center and older adults. There are children who don't even know these"</i> (D2)</p>	<p><i>"Through education, we can really contribute to training people who can understand the society in which they inhabit, and the time they are [living in]. Be aware of your own needs and those of others, and participate, let's say, effectively"</i> (B1).</p>	<p><i>"Getting involved in the local community. Action: [student representatives] participate in citizen activities organised by the local community (...) citizens' consultations on topics of interest"</i> (CTP, School 2).</p>
<b>c) Civil participation</b>	<p><i>"Technical teams, the assistants have their union, they meet once a month, they are given all the logistical facilities to meet in a school, they are given transportation"</i> (A1).</p> <p><i>"It was a long time ago and it was due to the old bond, the district was</i></p>	<p><i>"The teachers went on strike. They wanted her to leave [Previous DME manager], that's why she ended up leaving, resigning"</i> (C1).</p> <p><i>"Here nothing, here we have not joined any of [the] strikes. At one point (...) I was questioned and everything"</i> (D1).</p>	<p><i>"The education that we try to promote is (...) to train people who are capable of identifying a problem, recognising it, working with it, seeking solutions, and contributing collaboratively with others as well, in order to find a solution to those problems"</i> (B1).</p> <p><i>"In this service, there are eight unions (...) there is an issue of how the local service assumes</i></p>	<p><i>"We have an association of civil servants, and we decided to mobilise and made a day paralysation"</i> (B2).</p> <p><i>"We had internal mobilisations (...) they were paralysed for about 15 days. The demands were internal; they were a matter of bonuses, a matter of salaries, a matter of projections, of fears, of uncertainty about how the Service was being administered"</i> (B4).</p>

<b>Multi-cultural</b>	<p><i>paralysed, but from then on it has never been paralysed again" (C1).</i></p> <p>[We have the] <i>"Chilean Day, all children are taken into account, they all participate (...) they do a Latin American show at the high school, not just the national dance show" (C1).</i></p>	-	<p><i>control of working with trade unions" (B5).</i></p>	<p><i>"Valuation of diversity: Promote respect and tolerance towards the diversity of students. They must be welcomed regardless of cultural, religious, ethnic differences, among others" (PEL).</i></p> <p><i>"In strategic terms, our schools have accepted [positively] this demand for immigrants" (B4).</i></p>	<p><i>"Objectives. Encourage in students the appreciation of social and cultural diversity" (CTP School 2).</i></p>
<b>Intercultural</b>	<p><i>"We have not had a greater presence [of foreign students] (...) It has not impacted our community" (D1).</i></p>	<p><i>"Value interculturality: Learn to know and live with the culture of native peoples through pedagogical practices and intercultural institutional management, strengthening the participation of families" (PADEM 2020).</i></p>	<p><i>"Another hallmark present in many schools is the appreciation of the Cultural Heritage that is shared by at least six schools in the territory with different emphasis. This is expressed in the valuation of the cultural heritage of native peoples, knowing and linking the school with local history, knowing, and integrating local artistic and cultural expressions, among others" (PEL).</i></p>	<p>[We have] <i>"Two people in charge of the intercultural area (...) through an intercultural network where they work with traditional educators" (A3).</i></p> <p><i>"For us, it is transversal, the hallmark of this interculturality, multiculturalism that we have in our territory (...) that generates a very rich and complex starting point for us, we have to articulate our entire way of being, and doing, in order to do that" (B2).</i></p>	
<b>Ethnic</b>	-	-	<p><i>"We have more heritage schools, which have to do with the issue of cultural evaluation, indigenous cultural heritage, the Diaguitas, etcetera, that also has a citizen value" (B5).</i></p>	<p><i>"Practically all schools have something of that, the workshops we do are based, for example, on Mapuche crafts, Mapuche music, Mapuche songs, Mapuche dances, Mapuche sports" (A1).</i></p> <p><i>"We established a cultural program (...) a bilingual intercultural education system, language management" (B2).</i></p>	

In addition, aspects of *Multicultural citizenship* are present only in the school districts where participants have witnessed the increment of migrant students. For example, the public accountability for 2019 at LSPE-2 details: “*The enrolment of immigrant students increased by 45.5% compared to 2018, which shows that the territory's schools have installed intercultural education with an inclusive approach, valuing diversity as a learning opportunity*”. Accordingly, school districts intend to promote the valuation and appreciation of cultural diversity, as stated by participant C1 (DME-1), who mentions an activity where international students shared their national traditions.

Regarding *Intercultural citizenship*, quotes from DME-2 and both LSPEs give an account of actions to encourage the dialogue between different cultures. However, it is only in LSPE-2 where systematic strategies take place. Indeed, as multiple participants from LSPE-2 explain, due to their cultural characteristics and location in the territory of the Mapuche indigenous group, interculturality is one of their main hallmarks for the district and school management: “*We are a Mapuche territory, and our identity is related to this*” (A1, LSPE-2). However, despite this influence, a participant recognises that they still face challenges in adopting interculturality:

Concerning the intercultural area, we must refine that concept because we speak of citizenship, and we speak of native peoples, and we speak of people with the right to vote. I don't know; we do not have a consensus on what words we can use... (B2, LSPE-2).

Furthermore, quotes from LSPE-1 and 2 unveil efforts to encourage *Ethnic citizenship* oriented to the promotion and awareness of ethnicity in their territories. However, no quotes or information regarding this aspect were manifested at DME-1 or 2. Finally, it is important to mention that participants did not refer to the promotion of Global or Cosmopolitan citizenship.



#### **4.2.2 RQ 4: What forms of OCB are displayed by employees from the participant DME and LSPE?**

Considering that this research aims to advance from traditional perspectives of OCB at the individual level to a comprehensive, multilevel proposal that includes the group and organisational spheres, this section presents the mentioned aspects. Accordingly, the findings are presented as follows: Section 4.2.2.1 introduces OCB at the individual level, section 4.2.2.2 exposes OCB at the group level towards the individual and the organisation, and section 4.2.2.3 presents perspectives of OCB per dimension.

##### **4.2.2.1 OCB at the individual level**

The results for the OCB survey (Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007) applied to participants from DMEs (n=20) and LSPEs (n=26) unveil that, in general, they have a positive evaluation of their personal display of OCB, towards the organisation, colleagues and in-role performance. To explore whether there was a difference between both groups, a t-test with 95% of confidence level was conducted. Table 22 details the results of the procedure.

Interestingly, the dimension of OCB towards colleagues was the only dimension that showed differences between DMEs and LSPEs. This dimension comprises items such as *“takes time to listen to co-workers’ problems and worries”* (Z value= -2.08); *“goes out of his or her way to help new employees”* (Z value= -3.78); *“passes along information to co-workers”* (Z value= -2.05). In all of these, the results of the t-test were negative, showing how in this dimension, perceptions from LSPEs are less optimistic than DMEs.

**Table 22.** *Results of the OCB measure at the individual level*

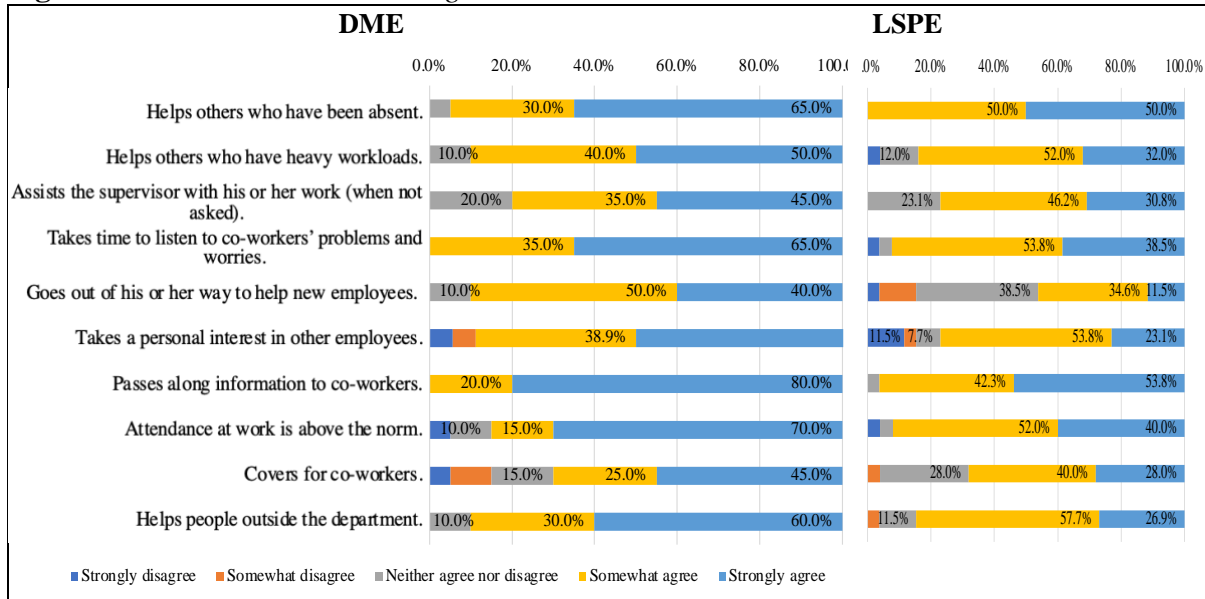
Item	Hypothesis Testing (Ho: $\bar{X}$ LSPE - $\bar{X}$ DME = 0)							Hypothesis testing
	$\bar{X}$ LSPE	$\bar{X}$ DME	SD LSPE	SD DME	N LSPE	N DME	Z (t-test)	
<b>The worker...</b>								
Completes assigned duties adequately.	4.54	4.6	0.58	0.75	26	20	-0.30	Non-reject
Fulfils responsibilities specified in his or her job description.	4.65	4.65	0.56	0.49	26	20	0.02	Non-reject
Fulfils the supervisor's expectations.	4.35	4.5	0.63	0.61	26	20	-0.84	Non-reject
Meets the formal performance requirements of the job.	4.65	4.75	0.56	0.44	26	20	-0.65	Non-reject
Engages in activities that will directly affect his or her performance evaluation.	4.46	4.3	0.65	1.22	26	20	0.54	Non-reject
Neglects aspects of the job he or she is obligated to perform (r).	1.85	1.4	1.19	0.75	26	20	1.55	Non-reject
Performs essential duties successfully.	4.62	4.6	0.50	0.50	26	20	0.10	Non-reject
Helps others who have been absent.	4.50	4.6	0.51	0.60	26	20	-0.60	Non-reject
Helps others who have heavy workloads.	4.08	4.4	0.91	0.68	26	20	-1.37	Non-reject
Assists the supervisor with his or her work (when not asked).	4.08	4.25	0.74	0.79	26	20	-0.76	Non-reject
Takes time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries.	4.23	4.65	0.86	0.49	26	20	-2.08	Reject
Goes out of his or her way to help new employees.	3.38	4.3	0.98	0.66	26	20	-3.78	Reject
Takes a personal interest in other employees.	3.73	4.22	1.22	1.11	26	18	-1.38	Non-reject
Passes along information to co-workers.	4.50	4.8	0.58	0.41	26	20	-2.05	Reject
Attendance at work is above the norm.	4.24	4.45	0.88	1.05	25	20	-0.72	Non-reject
Gives advance notice when unable to come to work.	4.65	4.7	0.63	0.66	26	20	-0.24	Non-reject
Takes undeserved work breaks.	1.54	2.05	0.76	1.28	26	20	-1.59	Non-reject
Spends a great deal of time on personal phone conversations (r).	1.28	1.65	0.46	0.88	25	20	-1.71	Non-reject

Complains about insignificant things at work (r).	1.58	1.6	0.81	0.75	26	20	-0.10	Non-reject
Conserves and protects organisational property.	4.69	4.55	0.47	0.60	26	20	0.87	Non-reject
Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.	3.92	4.15	0.93	1.14	26	20	-0.72	Non-reject
Covers for co-workers.	3.92	3.95	0.86	1.23	25	20	-0.09	Non-reject
Helps people outside the department.	4.08	4.5	0.74	0.69	26	20	-1.99	Non-reject
Makes innovative suggestions to improve the department.	4.38	4.45	0.57	0.60	26	20	-0.37	Non-reject
Coasts toward the end of the day (r).	2.72	2.35	1.02	1.31	25	20	1.04	Non-reject

Note: (r): Reversed item;  $\bar{x}$ = Mean; SD: Standard Deviation. Z value:  $-2.091 < Z < 2.091$ . Confidence level: 95%.

Following this, this section develops a descriptive analysis per scale dimension to understand the main trends and complement the previous results. In terms of OCB toward colleagues, the items that showed the most substantial agreement in DMEs are: “*passes along information to co-workers*” (80%) and “*attendance at work is above the norm*” (70%) (see Figure 8). In addition, LSPE members were slightly less optimistic by selecting the “somewhat agree” option more frequently. In this sense, the most important figures were presented in the items “*helps outside the department*” (57.7%), followed by “*takes a personal interest in other employees*” (53.8%).

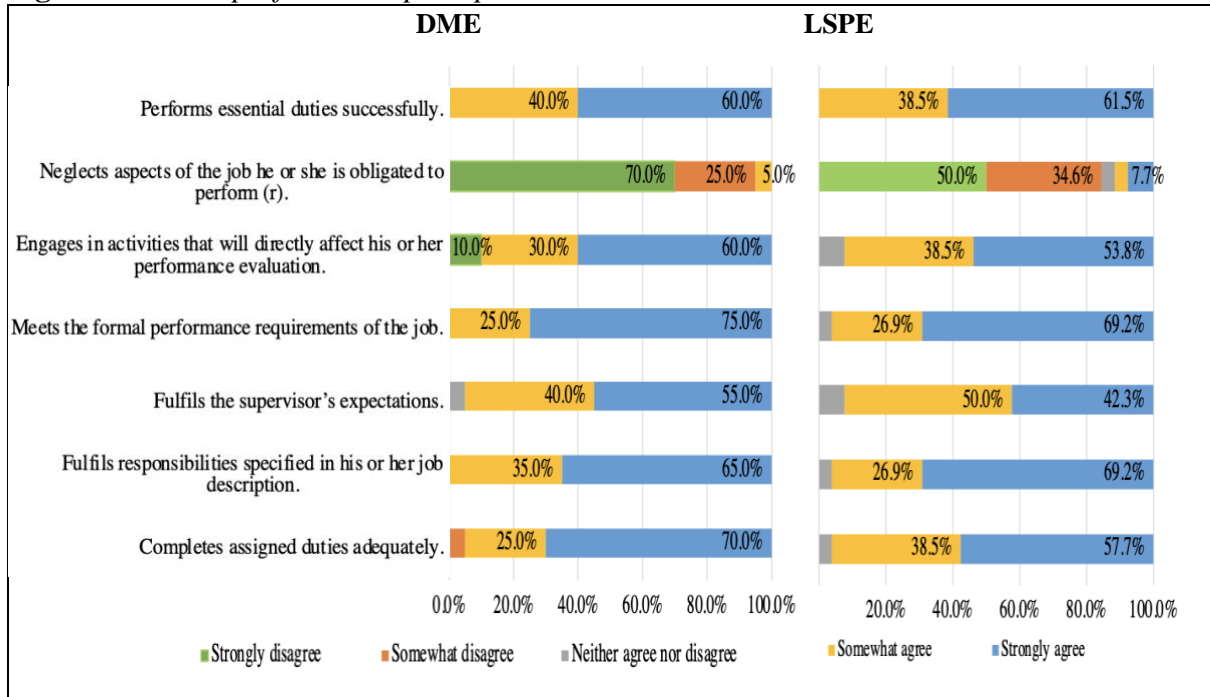
**Figure 8. OCB towards the colleagues**



Regarding the individuals' evaluation of their in-role performance, DME participants strongly agreed with the OCB descriptors. The items with the most substantial agreements are “meets the formal performance requirement of the job” (75%) and “completes assigned duties adequately” (70%), reaffirming their positive self-evaluation (see Figure 9).

LSPE participants presented similar results and manifested a positive perception of this dimension. Indeed, likewise, for DME workers, the most noteworthy results are presented in the items “meets the formal performance requirement of the job” (69.2%) and “fulfils responsibilities specified in his or her job description” (69.2%).

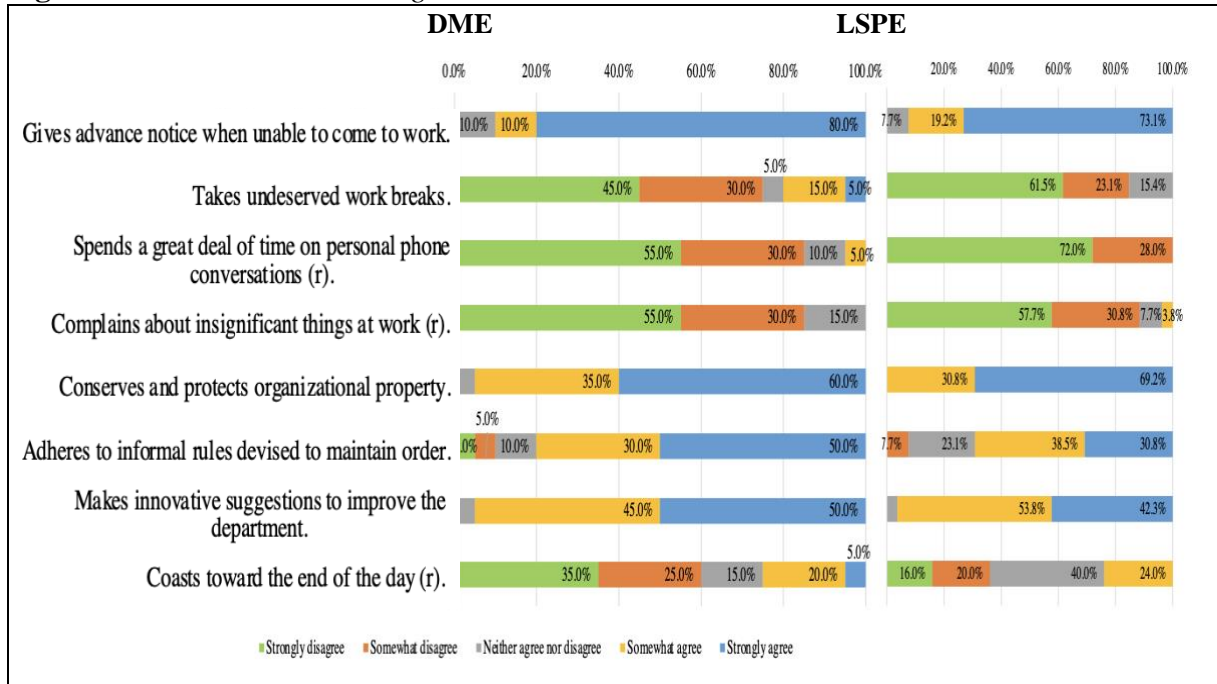
**Figure 9. In-role performance perceptions**



Concerning OCB towards the organisation, participants from both types of school districts manifested positive evaluations. However, DME members generally showed a slightly more positive self-assessment than workers from LSPEs. For instance, regarding the item “gives advance notice when unable to come to work”, 80% of the DME respondents strongly agreed, whereas 73.1% of LSPE respondents manifested this level of agreement.

Another item with similar trends between DME and LSPE respondents is that the worker “makes innovative suggestions to improve the department”, with 50% of solid agreement from DME participants versus 42.3% from LSPE. Further details are presented in Figure 10.

**Figure 10. OCB towards the organisation**



Other items with positive responses were “*adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order*”, with 50% of a strong agreement by DME members and 30.8% by LSPE workers. Also, it “*conserves and protects organisational property*”, with 60% of a strong agreement at DMEs and 69.2% by LSPE participants.

#### 4.2.2.2 OCB at the group level

Interestingly, perceptions of group OCB are less optimistic than the conceptions of personal OCB presented in section 4.2.2.1. This is manifested in the Means, which are substantially lower than perceptions of personal OCB.

Following this, when a t-test to understand if important differences between groups are presented, it is unveiled that although most of the items do not show a significant difference between DME and LSPE perceptions, one dimension shows a difference between these. This dimension is in-role performance, unveiling more agreement towards the constructs at DMEs than LSPEs. In specific, the items that showed this trend are: “*complete assigned duties adequately*” (Z value= -2.58); “*fulfil responsibilities specified in their job description*” (Z

value= -2.32); and “fulfil the supervisor’s expectations” (Z= -2.43). Results of the t-test are presented in Table 23.

**Table 23.** Results of the GOCB measure (perceptions towards the group or team)

Hypothesis Testing (Ho: $\bar{X}$ LSPE - $\bar{X}$ DME = 0)								
Item	$\bar{X}$ LSPE	$\bar{X}$ DME	SD LSPE	SD DME	N LSPE	N DME	Z (t- test)	Hypothesis testing
<b>The workers here...</b>								
Complete assigned duties adequately.	3.35	3.95	0.89	0.76	26	20	-2.48	Reject
Fulfil responsibilities specified in their job description.	3.42	4	0.81	0.86	26	20	-2.32	Reject
Fulfil the supervisor’s expectations.	3.50	4	0.65	0.73	26	20	-2.43	Reject
Meet the formal performance requirements of the job.	3.54	4	0.90	0.79	26	20	-1.84	Non-reject
Engage in activities that will directly affect his or her performance evaluation.	3.96	3.65	0.72	1.14	26	20	1.07	Non-reject
Neglect aspects of the job he or she is obligated to perform (r).	2.65	2.35	0.94	1.04	26	20	1.03	Non-reject
Perform essential duties successfully.	3.77	4	0.82	0.92	26	20	-0.89	Non-reject
Help others who have been absent.	3.54	3.7	0.90	1.03	26	20	-0.56	Non-reject
Help colleagues who have heavy workloads.	3.73	3.65	0.72	1.23	26	20	0.26	Non-reject
Assist the principal with his or her work (when not asked).	3.35	3.85	0.89	0.93	26	20	-1.85	Non-reject
Take time to listen to co-workers’ problems and worries.	3.85	3.95	0.73	0.94	26	20	-0.41	Non-reject
Go out of his or her way to help new employees.	3.12	3.35	0.86	1.27	26	20	-0.71	Non-reject
Take a personal interest in other employees.	3.35	3.8	1.02	1.11	26	20	-1.43	Non-reject
Pass along information to co-workers.	3.73	3.85	0.72	0.93	26	20	-0.47	Non-reject
Workers’ attendance at work is above the norm (for example, staying after school hours to help students).	3.73	3.2	0.92	1.20	26	20	1.65	Non-reject

Give advance notice when unable to come to work.	3.69	3.7	0.74	1.26	26	20	-0.02	Non-reject
Arrive at work on time and do not return late after work breaks.	3.73	3.4	0.60	1.27	26	20	1.07	Non-reject
Spend a great deal of time on personal phone conversations and issues irrelevant to work (r).	2.84	2.37	0.85	1.01	25	19	1.64	Non-reject
Complain about insignificant things at work (r).	3.12	2.63	1.28	1.12	26	19	1.35	Non-reject
Conserve and protect organisational property.	3.92	4.05	0.89	0.69	26	20	-0.55	Non-reject
Help other teachers and parents who have no formal interactions with them.	3.72	3.8	0.61	1.01	25	20	-0.31	Non-reject
Have a strong volunteer orientation.	3.50	3.74	0.81	1.15	26	19	-0.77	Non-reject
Make innovative suggestions to improve school life.	3.65	3.65	0.89	0.93	26	20	0.01	Non-reject
Coast toward the end of the day (r).	2.72	3.05	1.10	1.15	25	20	-0.98	Non-reject

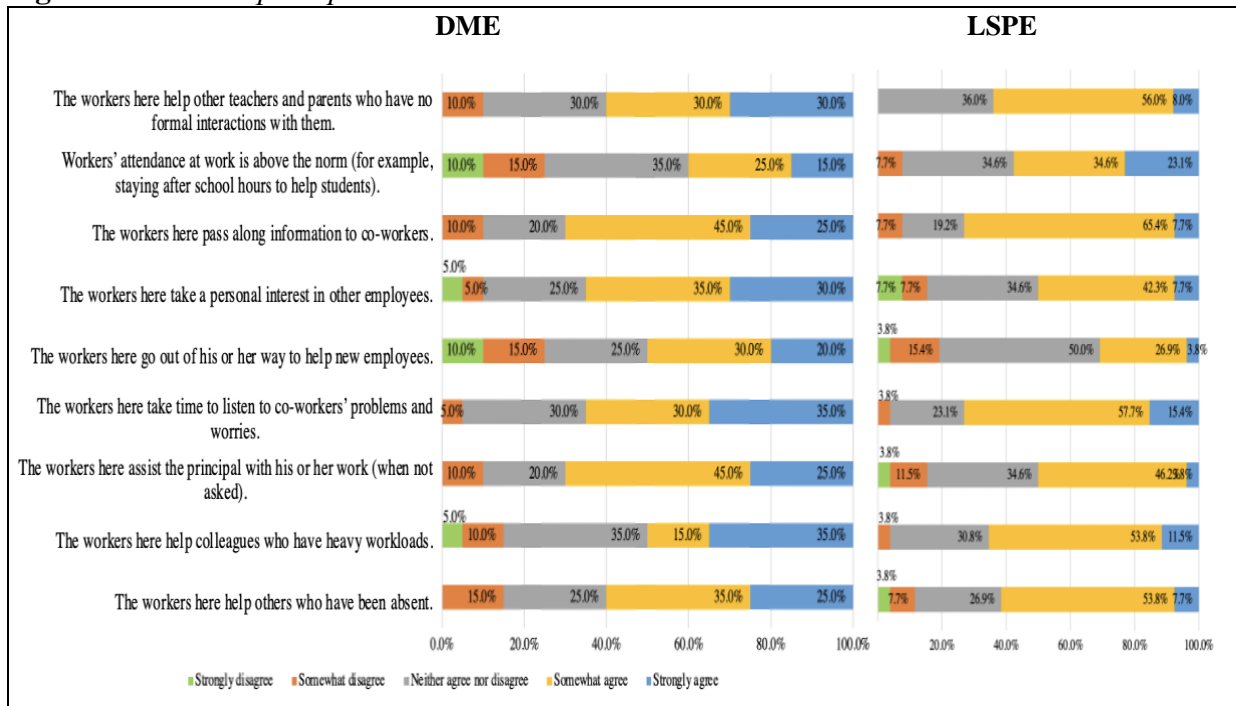
Note: (r): Reversed item;  $\bar{x}$  = Mean; SD: Standard Deviation. Z value:  $-2.091 < Z < 2.091$ . Confidence level: 95%.

Following this, this section develops a descriptive analysis of trends per dimension to understand the main trends and complement the previous results. In this sense, the items with the highest agreement at DMEs were “*the workers here take time to listen to co-workers’ problems and worries*” and “*the workers here help colleagues who have heavy workloads*”, with 35% of strong agreement from DME.

Concerning LSPE responses, although a smaller percentage manifested strong agreement, most of the items were answered, selecting the option “*somewhat agree*”. The most agreed item was “*the workers pass along information to co-workers*” (65.4%) (See Figure 11).

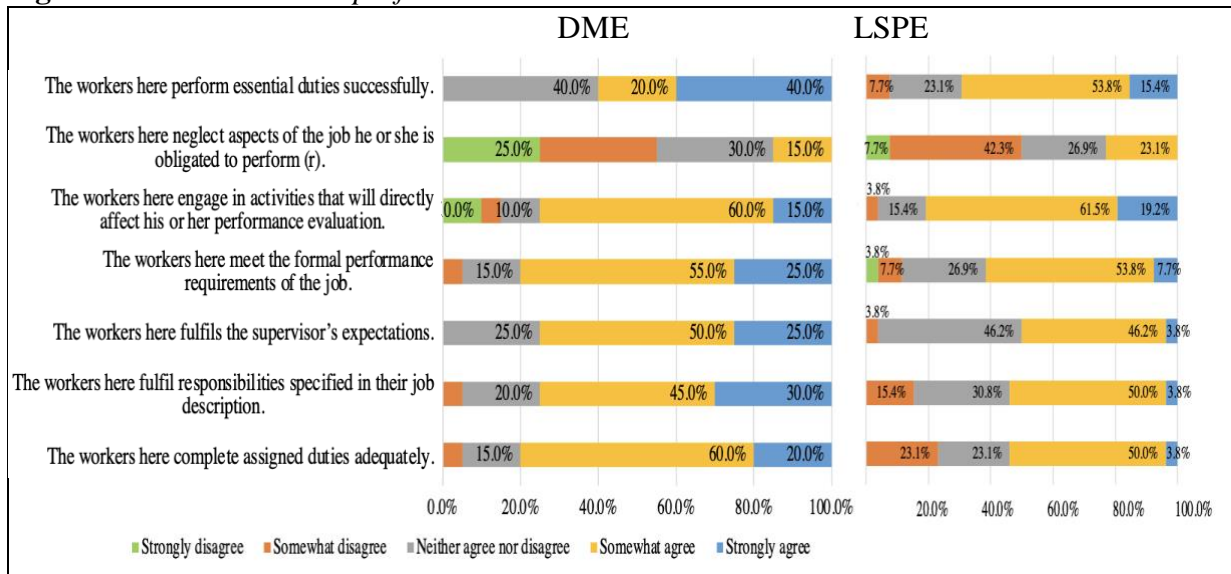


**Figure 11. GOCB' perceptions**



Regarding perceptions of the group's in-role performance, as explained before, workers from DME manifested more substantial agreement about the items than participants from LSPEs. On the other hand, respondents from LSPE manifested the most substantial frequency of the “somewhat agree” statement in the items “*the workers here engage in activities that will directly affect his or her performance evaluation*” (61.5%). This was followed by “*the workers here perform essential duties successfully*” and “*the workers here meet the formal performance requirements of the job*” (53.8%). Further details of this dimension are provided in Figure 12.

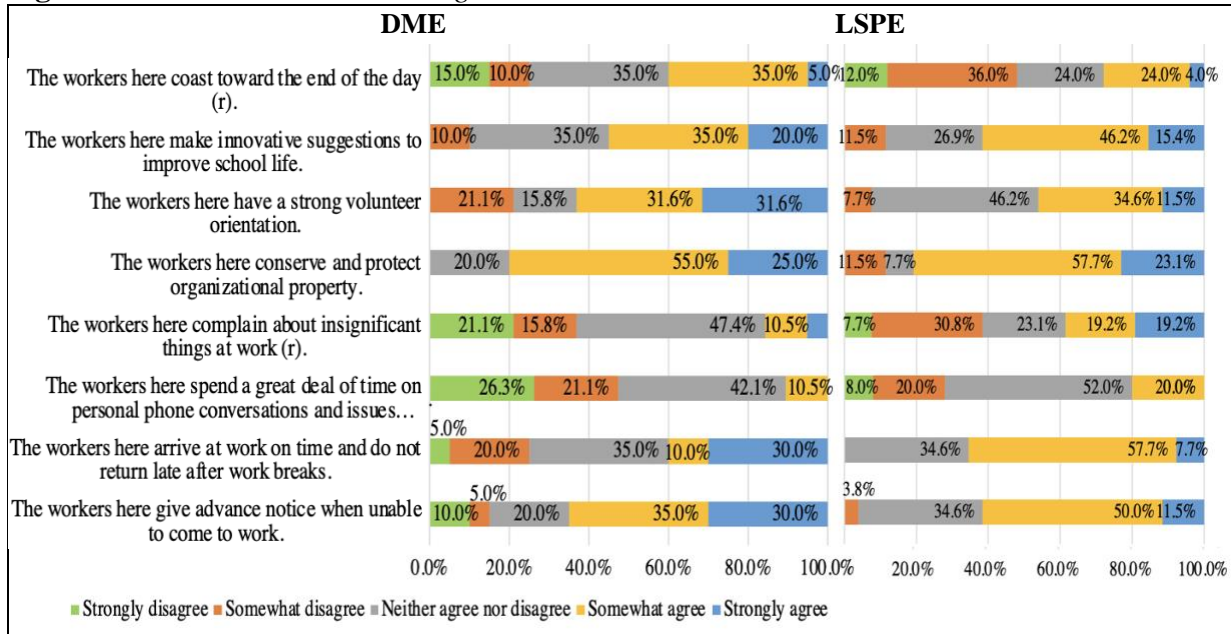
**Figure 12. GOCB: in-role performance**



Following this, Group OCB directed towards the organisation exposed diverse answers from workers in DMEs and LSPEs. For instance, “neither agree nor disagree” obtained important figures in the items “the workers here complain about insignificant things at work” (47.4%) and “the workers here spend a great deal of time on persona phone conversations and issues irrelevant to work” (42.1%).

Interestingly, in comparison to the DMEs’, workers from LSPE “somewhat agreed” to the items with more frequency, especially for “workers here conserve and protect organisational property” and “workers here arrive at work on time. They do not return late after work breaks” (57.7%). The results of this dimension are presented in Figure 13.

**Figure 13. GOCB: Towards the organisation**



Furthermore, strong disagreement shows more frequency for the first time than other levels of agreement on this scale.

Considering the nature of these findings, it acquires relevance to explore the significances, perceptions and meanings underlying the presented results. As mentioned in section 3.4.1, the main purposes of mixed methods are triangulation and complementarity in the integration of information (Creswell, 2014; Greene et al., 2018; Johnson & Christensen, 2014; Robson, 2011). Accordingly, section 4.2.2.3 pursues to triangulate and complement the information from a qualitative perspective.

#### 4.2.2.3 OCB per dimension

This section explores qualitatively the different dimensions of OCB described in the framework proposed by Organ and colleagues (Organ, 1998, 1997; Organ & Ryan, 1995): a) Altruism, b) Civic virtue, c) Conscientiousness, d) Courtesy and e) Sportsmanship.

### a) Altruism

Regarding the expression of helping others if they have a task to accomplish (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001), members of the DMEs, manifested a series of altruist actions regardless of their role.

According to the participants, a key factor influencing these behaviours at DME-1 is the teams' experience, as these have been consolidated for decades, developing cohesion and altruist behaviours towards each other. One of the team members alludes to their trajectory, explaining: *"The old ones, we all know how to do everything (...) I sympathise with my partner, [I cover her] "don't worry anymore" (...) so one goes on learning and learning"* (B2, DME-1).

A genuine personal interest to help colleagues is also manifested in DME-2 by a member of the professional staff, who explains that thanks to this dynamic: *"I can make a contract or process medical licenses, and make purchases anyway, yes, in that sense, I am like super open, and they tell me 'Help'. For me all knowledge that comes, it's welcome"* (B3, DME-2).

However, as team trajectory seems to be a strength for DME-1, it appears as a weakness for DME 2, where the integration and induction of a new (foreigner) colleague showed some difficulties for the group, who did not know how to react to the cultural differences:

There were no foreigners here (...) I remember that at some point, I told her ... "ah because you are Venezuelan," and that hurt her (...) suddenly, one [side] does not feel that they affect the other (...) So, just like me, there were a couple more that were even tougher, I don't know, for example, "here in Chile we say hello" (A3, DME-2).

Another key aspect of team cohesion is generating supportive conditions despite any possible limitations. From a manager's perspective, it is explained: *"I have tried to give a lot of (...) freedom of action, autonomy, they have their opinion, they gather, [they show]*

*solidarity when someone is sick (...) I give them permission 'don't worry'” (A1, DME-1).*

Moreover, a participant explains about her manager: *“She will always believe in you, show solidarity with you, give you all the facilities” (B2, DME-1).*

Another relevant aspect of altruism is regarding training opportunities that are taken to enhance in-role performance. Participants highlight their genuine interest in embarking on such activities, as well as the support that the DME gives them in pursuing these objectives: *“[Training has been according] to our preferences and needs, to what we are doing mainly” (A5, DME-1).* Concerning DME support, it is explained that *“colleagues who are studying and all that, they get accommodations on schedule” (A5, DME-1).*

At the school level, participants from DME-1 mention providing adequate support to staff, as these directly influence the students. Participants A3 and A4 at DME-1 detail an initiative towards providing psychological support and wellbeing workshops to teachers: *“We have certain foci that are related to more exhausted teachers (...) And that affects children, and as for us the most important thing is (...) the issue of children, we need that person to be balanced” (A3, DME-1).* Additionally, experiences from altruistic actions in the schools are recorded in the PADEM, where one of the schools highlights among its strengths the support given to new members of the educative community (PADEM 2019, DME-1).

Following this, from the perspective of LSPE workers, as these are new organisms, the focus for them seems to be centred on building meaningful and loyal relationships among team members and leaders. For instance, a participant from LSPE-2 manifests a trusting relationship with his manager *“I love him very much, I support him to the end, but I also say ‘boss...’, part of loyalty is to make him see what is real, what is not right, what needs to be improved” (B6, LSPE-2).* A member from LSPE-1 explains that reflective meetings have been developed to build their main hallmark *“here we reflect a lot” (B4, LSPE-1).*

One of the participants provided a noteworthy example of how training was used as a resource to foster internal relationships, which refers to an opportunity pursued by the team to learn sign language to improve communication with a deaf colleague.

The change was noticed when arriving here on Monday (...) being able to greet my colleague correctly and ask him how he is [gestures in sign language] (...) before that, how did we do it? We did it almost instinctively (...) via e-mail or WhatsApp, so it was an outrageous way (...) Everybody went. Us [and] people from other units (B6, LSPE-2).

#### **b) Civic virtue**

Due to the complexity of this dimension, it was possible to identify at least three levels where Civic virtue operates: 1) School district (central administration); 2) School district (educative communities) and, 3) School level.

##### ***CV in the school district (central administration)***

In terms of effective participation in the organisational governance and decision-making processes, both DMEs unveil the lack of institutionalised instances for administrative workers. Despite this, team members do recognise that they can manifest their opinions. One of the managers explains, “*We all have the right to reply; we all have the right to kick*” (A2, DME-1). Moreover, another participant answered the question, “*do you feel listened?*”: “*With the boss, yes... We have never had the need to go talk to the [Town Mayor], the doors are open for anything*” (B2, DME-1).

Despite this feeling, meetings with participation in decision-making processes are only available on a systematic basis to workers whose tasks are directly related to school management, such as psychosocial coordinators: “*Every week I have a meeting with the psychosocial team*” (A1, DME-1). At the same time, these workers organise systematic

meetings with members of the team that works in the schools: *“In the DME, we have constant meetings (...) And lower than this, we have technical meetings. We get together every Tuesday, with all the TPU<sup>6</sup> heads of the district (...), and if problems emerge, we raise them”* (A6, DME-1).

Following this, participants from DME-2 (A1, A2 and B3) explain that weekly technical meetings with team members occur. At the same time, participants of these meetings manifest that they feel included in decision-making processes: *“Our director is always willing to listen (...) he, for example, has held meetings for us proposing things (...) Also to give our opinion, to do new things ‘I am open to receive any type of opinion and proposal’”* (B2, DME-2).

However, these meetings do not usually include administrative staff. This decision can carry out difficulties for the daily work of these members: *“The technical team [meets] weekly. I don't go to that meeting. Agreements are made, but I don't find out... Then, afterwards, they ask for answers that I cannot give because I had not even found out”* (C1, DME-2).

For the case of LSPEs, similar involvement of workers is unveiled, where managers and heads of areas are invited to relevant team meetings. However, LSPE-1 unveils a remarkable difference compared to DMEs, related to the existence of a systematic, institutionalised instance called *“Strategic Committee”*. This is set to design and agree on fundamental aspects beyond administrative or routine matters. A participant explains the Committee's purposes: *“We have a Strategic Committee (...) it is mainly about the hallmark, the mission, the vision”* (A3, LSPE-1). A professional staff member refers to his participation, saying: *“I am the secretary and record-taker of that committee (...) we meet every Wednesday to discuss the strategies that the Local Service is going to follow around different topics”* (B5, LSPE-1). Moreover, it is highlighted how they gave voice to former DME workers at the Committee to learn about their experience: *“I want to know their experience (...) what do they*

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<sup>6</sup> Technical Pedagogical Unit.

*think of what they had in their different provinces and what do they see here and now? (...)*  
*Here we are all getting involved because everyone participates in one way or another” (A2, LSPE-1).*

At the team level, managers and heads of areas tend to meet weekly to coordinate and communicate information to their teams:

We meet with our team, we plan, evaluate, propose, and these are spaces of participation (...) in the group it's different because it's more effective there, let's say, participation.

At the managerial level, not all of us, we don't know, nor do we have the possibility of knowing if what we have said, or proposed, influences a decision (B1, LSPE-1).

Nevertheless, some voices (especially at the administrative level), argue that due to the process of implementation of the LSPE and the incorporation of new leaders, they have not had genuine instances of participation or Civic virtue yet:

There are meetings of bosses, many bosses, and sometimes they pass the information to you and sometimes they don't pass the information on to you (...) We all must contribute, so this is transversal. So that situation worries me a little (...) It is not enough, there are no examples of participation, there are no work meetings (C2, LSPE-1).

Concerning LSPE-2, a technical committee with the heads of areas takes place weekly *“with the executive director; the three subdirectors meet weekly” (A1, LSPE-2).*

In addition to this committee, it is recognised the relevance in decision-making processes of the Local Directive Committee recently created by Law 21.040 (section 4.1.1.2):

[The Committee] is resolute (...) prepares a shortlist to send to the president of the republic, to elect the executive director (...) the Directive Committee has the power to request the resignation of the executive director (...) this is another world from the point of view of participation (A4, LSPE-2).



Nevertheless, another participant explains that the LSPE efforts are oriented towards encouraging participation of the educative communities, but not their own (at central administration): *“Our work is mainly oriented around the School Board since it is where the representatives of each level of the educational community go. But we are in debt [with ourselves]. I feel that we are in debt, and we have talked about it”* (B8, LSPE-2).

Indeed, another member in his *“monitoring role”* provides a demonstration of genuine interest in the organisation when developing a study to analyse reasons for absenteeism, which failed to communicate:

I created research about the students' attendance in the schools of the territory. I drew important conclusions, I wanted to present that research on more than one occasion to the manager. However, I never could, I never had the opportunity to show it, and from my point of view, data collection is important (A3, LSPE-2).

#### *CV at the district level (educative communities)*

Another relevant aspect that emerged in the interviews was regarding the participation of educative communities (i.e., teachers, parents, students, etc.) in the school district's governance. For the case of DME-1, participants recognise that although some incipient instances attempt to encourage it, this is still a challenge that needs to be attended to. For instance, one of the participants refers to an activity to collect the parents' opinions regarding transportation services, unveiling that this was an isolated activity: *“Some time ago a query was made regarding school transportation (...) the parents were asked directly, the parents who benefited from transportation for their children”* (C1, DME-1).

Moreover, school staff express the need to improve participative instances at the district level: *“I believe that our leader must provide more space for participation”* (D1, DME-1). Interestingly, this participant manifests that she feels that the lack of participative opportunities is due to the low expectations the district leader has of them and the lack of propositions coming

from school principals: *“She also needs to have higher expectations for us (...) Perhaps she needs to believe more, but we also need to have more opinion on our side. Raise your hand and criticise with perspective, be more participatory indeed”* (D1, DME-1).

In this sense, when asked about whether these instances were informative or resolute, the interviewee explained: *“They ask us for our opinion, but those are more specific situations. I feel that there is a need for a more participatory management team with more, more contribution. Well, I think we all have something to say”* (D1, DME-1).

On the other hand, DME-2 shows an attempt to institutionalise efforts to encourage educative communities' participation in the district's decision-making processes. For instance, the managers narrate an activity to build the Communal Strategic Plan (PADEM) considering opinions from educative actors through SWOT analysis in the schools of the territory: *“In 2016 we started with SWOT, this year the SWOT was much larger, the SWOT involved people from the urban area, the rural area and different actors”* (A2, DME-2). Invited participants were: *“Communities of students, teachers, educative assistants, to think about the education they want for the district, by those who integrate the education of the district”* (A1, DME-2).

In addition to this opportunity, the school district sets systematic instances to meet with school principals, aiming to: *“Hopefully analyse, around a multi-systemic set of factors, the progression and development of the district is education”* (A1, DME-2). A school principal explains regarding these meetings: *“Initially, it was once a month, but from October to [the present] date we have been meeting every Friday (...) there we realised with the boss, that it was super necessary (...) to give us this space to work together”* (D1, DME-2).

Concerning participation in decision-making processes promoted by LSPEs, due to their recent creation, interviewees describe how most of the efforts were dedicated to the elections of the Local Council. For example, in LSPE-1, one of the participants explains that thousands of members from educative communities were involved in such an election: *“From*

*5th graders upwards, they vote all (...) 13,000 parents and guardians, it is a lot of people, plus all the managers and all the [educative] assistants” (A1, LSPE-1). Furthermore, the importance of this organism for the district governance is highlighted in LSPE-2: “This Council will be fundamental to guide this director in what he wants, what the schools want and how they want to move forward” (A1, LSPE-2).*

In the same vein, a manager explains the relevance of participation for the district management: *“An important focus is participation, giving opportunities... that children have different opportunities for participation and construction (...) everyone can contribute” (A2, LSPE-1). Indeed, participative-action research in all the territory schools was conducted to elaborate the Strategic Educative Plan of this LSPE (PEL, LSPE-1, p. 9). Furthermore, this was elaborated in collaboration with the Conference of School Principals, who participated in a dedicated workshop to reflect on questions such as “What do I like about the current education of the territory?” and “How would I like the education of the territory to be in six more years?” (PEL, LSPE-1, p. 12).*

Furthermore, participants explain that *“territorial dialogues”* were developed to hear the voices of educative communities about the district’s education and management. These instances were an initiative at LSPE-1: [Our] *“dialogues are not part of this regulation”* [the law] (B7, LSPE-1). In specific: *“There were talks [in the towns] with the representatives, where everybody could expose their problems” (B5, LSPE-1). According to one of the interviewees, this opportunity was perceived positively by the attendants “The parents... there were many. Most of them grateful for the instance” (B8, LSPE-1). Moreover, another interviewee adds, “I am at the [same] level of parents, teachers, I kind of receive feedback from them. And I have realised that, that they do feel involved” (C1, LSPE-1).*

In contrast, LSPE-2 decided to elaborate their PEL by inviting staff representing all the Units from the central office and school (and nurseries’) principals: *“Here we said ‘you know*

*what? We are going to do a big thing, all the Units and everybody'... so now, we invite the school principals” (A4, LSPE-2).*

Equally, the Conference of school principals is valued for its contribution to the district management: *“There are proposed improvements, new processes, new work processes are proposed. To be able to be in communication and on the same line, because working with five towns is hard” (B7, LSPE-2).*

Additionally, to enhance communication channels with the communities, the department of citizens' participation elaborated a form where educative actors can write their concerns and suggestions. *“In this roadmap, all the concerns of the educational community are taken (...) we have a computer system where we process them, the executive director is informed, and he designates the person who has to answer that question” (B5, LSPE-2).*

However, one of the participants explains that participation is still a challenge for the case of indigenous communities. In specific, according to him, the Mapuche cosmovision is participative by essence. Meanwhile, the LSPE follows an institutionalist perspective that is not familiar or widely accepted by these communities:

In decision-making, an administrative [trend] is clearly seen, which is related to the institutional framework of the Chilean State (...) It is autocratic. It is as it is said by law (...) [according to] the Mapuche vision how things work (...) education must be participatory [by essence] (B4, LSPE-2).

### ***CV at the school level***

According to the participants, one of the most important instances for participation and Civic virtue at the school level is the School Board. This allows educative actors to participate in school governance. Members from DME-1 explain how School Boards operate: *“Each educative actor is represented (...) all the information is shared (...) There, the president [of*

the Students' Council] *immediately calls a meeting with the delegates to each class and there the information is shared, agreements are made*" (D2, DME-1).

Despite this, DME School boards have their limitations: *"It is not resolute either, in Chile it is propounding, it is not resolute, but it is a space for communication, for participation"* (D3, DME-2).

In contrast, School Boards operating in LSPEs are resolute in aspects of the school governance: *"You must define what the full-school-day workshops are going to be, for example. It is no longer what the school principal wants, but it has to go through a consultation with the students, with the parents, with the teachers, etcetera"* (B5, LSPE-1).

In LSPE-2, considering the ethnic context where the district is embedded, "traditional educators" of Mapuche culture are recruited. They must be validated by the Mapuche communities and School Board: *"We have more than 95 teachers who teach Mapudungun classes in schools. These teachers are chosen by the community (...) At the school level and validated by the School Board"* (A1, LSPE-2).

Following this, a second participative instance that interviewees from DMEs mention are the Students' Councils and PGC:

For us, the Students' Council is vital (...) when you tell them, "You are going to come to the School Board because you are important here at the high school" (...) We start from there, in an environment, let's say, where they feel taken into account (D2, DME-1).

However, participants recognise challenges related to enhancing these councils. For instance, the PADEM at DME-1 acknowledges that one of its critical knots is *"the need to increase the participation and commitment of actors from the educative communities"* (PADEM 2017, DME-1, p. 124). A manager illustrates this knot by explaining that protocols and regulations are only informed at the beginning of the school year: *"At the end of the year*

(...) [schools] *have to leave the protocols reviewed and updated, and in March [these] are delivered to all the parents*” (A1, DME-1).

Accordingly, efforts are made towards this objective: *“We give participation to the Parent’s Council, which takes an active role within the school (...) I present the educational project. She [PGC’s president] leads, I have taught her leadership (...) Participation must be active”* (D1, DME-1).

Concerning DME-2, participation of educative actors is highly valued by school staff *“the school is a body that has a life of its own and each one contributes”* (D3, DME-2). Another participant adds: *“Where do the objectives come from? from us, from the people who form it (...) [Other] school principals told me, ‘How do you generate a sense of belonging in the parents, in the family, in the children?’ – ‘building the school together’”* (D2, DME-2).

Differently from the case of DME-1, a school staff member from DME-2 shows how internal regulations and protocols are not only informed but proposed and consulted to the educative actors: *“Every year, in March, we work in the parents’ meetings (...) our focus is the vision, mission, hallmarks, institutional values, ok? We review them and see (...) ‘Do you think that is what we work on? Do you think it is necessary to modify them?’”* (D2, DME-2).

Indeed, the PGC and the Students’ Council are valued by school staff at DME-2: *“The Parents’ Council, the Students’ Council or the School Board were instances that we were not strengthening. In fact, this year we just formed a parents’ Council and the Students’ Council (...) it was very important to have them recognised by the community”* (D3, DME-2).

Despite this, in DME-2, participants declare that only the “bigger” schools count with the Students’ Council and School Board. For the case of smaller schools, which are usually rural, members participate in scientific or folklore fairs, unveiling certain pseudo-participation, as these actors do not have an active or institutionalised form of Civic virtue in their school governance: *“The biggest schools, all of them have their Students’ Council active. Ok? School*

*Boards operate in all educational establishments in the town*” (A2, DME-2). When asked about participative instances for small rural schools, it is explained: *“We have rural Olympics, we have scientific fairs, the communal cueca shows”* (A2, DME-2).

Following this, at LSPEs, the consideration of school actors in decision-making processes is highly valued. For example, a participant from the TPU at LSPE-1 explains: *“It is not just enough to inform him, but it is also to ask him, ‘do you agree? Do you share it? Do you feel it should regulate our coexistence?’ so there are several important processes there (...) it makes it democratic”* (A2, LSPE-1).

A similar perspective is provided at LSPE-2, where although participative organisms at the school level have significative participation in decision-making processes, this participation should be expanded in the legal framework: *“That should be registered in law, that every year the educational community will restructure the PEI, it will have the possibility of, let's say, discuss it and modify it”* (A4, LSPE-2).

Efforts to encourage Civic virtue are reported in a school's CTP, which includes: *“A program that strengthens the participation of all actors of the educational community to reflect, [and] analyse different initiatives that you can present and that are oriented to the benefit of the community as a whole”* (CTP School 4, LSPE-2, p. 9).

### **c) Conscientiousness**

Different experiences alluding to conscientiousness were narrated by the interviewees. Participants in the four school districts manifested that they usually tend to help with tasks that are not part of the job requirements. For example, a common issue, regardless their operational level, was working extra hours to accomplish urgent and relevant tasks. For instance, a manager from DME-1 illustrates that such instances are common when the school year is about to begin or when they are designing projects to obtain extra funding:

After 4 o'clock in the afternoon, I know that parents will not arrive (...) I lock myself up and there I advance until 7, 8:30, 9 o'clock at night (...) Believe it or not, I have left at 2 in the morning because I can't leave if it's not fixed (A1, DME-1).

Moreover, the same participant explains that such actions are taken due to commitment: “*The commitment they have (...) [a colleague] tells me ‘Teacher, I came all day on Saturday’*” (A1, DME-1).

In the case of LSPE-1 and 2, the context of installation of these new organisations led to the display of a series of Conscientiousness’ behaviours. For instance, an administrative worker from LSPE-1 explains that when the LSPE opened, due to their trajectory, it was common for former DME employees to work extra hours:

We brought everything so organised and with things so clear that we tried to support the rest. And that's where we would stay until one or two in the morning, Saturday and Sunday, a full month coming to work to try to make this work (C2, LSPE-1).

Equally, a participant from LSPE-2 narrates similar experiences of working extra hours due to their commitment (i.e., “*shirts on*” for the organisation): “*We have our shirts on because there are colleagues who have had to leave late, super late (...) and many times arrive early*” (C1, LSPE-2). Another participant explains how he helps with tasks that are not part of his specific role requirements: “*From any area that they ask me, I will always support (...) I have a contract as a psychologist, I do not have an organisational psychologist contract, but I have to take care for all the areas of the psychology, of the OD<sup>7</sup>*” (B6, LSPE-2).

Participants from the four school districts shared different experiences that give an account of how they forbear inconveniences. For instance, one of the managers at DME-1 explains that considering the limited office space, she usually transforms her office into a storage room “*small space as you saw, very small, it is complicated, I have an office that is*

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<sup>7</sup> Organisational Development.



*now a warehouse (...) so I barely fit on my desk” (A1, DME-1). A similar issue of adaption to limited office space was experienced in LSPE-2: “The school principals come suddenly to discuss very delicate issues... and she [manager] was sitting in the back, so everyone would be here, or we would go out so that she could talk quietly” (B2, LSPE-2).*

Other behaviours such as the efficient use of time are manifested by participants at DME-1 and 2: *“I have been [working for] 30 years, I am very worried, I am a workaholic, I am very responsible (...) I don't like to be late, uh, I like to get my work done within the appropriate time and if I can give more (...) I do it” (B2, DME-1). Interviewee C1 explains her own experience unloading heavy loads from deliveries: “Many drivers don't like to unload. And I tell them ‘I'm a secretary and even if I don't like it, I have to do it’, and we must start helping. That is, we don't step back from the rest” (C1, DME-1).*

Moreover, a participant from DME-2 narrates that due to the uncertainty during the Chilean upheaval in 2019, she decided to collect her work material to avoid problems if the town connectivity was compromised the next day: *“I came at night to look for the computer, I took it home (...) in case they closed [the road], so I could keep working” (B3, DME-2). At the school level, one of the workers narrates how she planned to overcome the usual disruptions of water supply: “In March, the first two weeks of classes, I was two weeks without water (...), but I did not miss any classes (...) We bought drums of water for the children to drink, and in the kitchen, we cooked with drums” (D1, DME-2).*

Following this, at the strategic level in DME-2, a vision that seeks to be shared among all workers is concerning being conscious of the impact that their work has on the students' education: *“We are part of the education of the children too, and we are involved because if the acquisitions' person does not buy the notebooks, does not buy the pencils, we are harming the child and the teacher and their learning” (A2, DME-2). This vision is shared by workers from DME-1 “There are so many needs to be covered by families that they don't have enough*

*(...) that's why the school has such an important role now. We are key now, and that is why we must be the best teachers in the school"* (D1, DME-1).

This idea of how work impacts the students' learning is shared by workers from LSPE-1: *"I say to everyone 'Why are we here? (...) do you know how important it is that you don't pay a bill? Do you know what it means? That a school can't buy'"* (A1, LSPE-1). A member demonstrates conscientiousness about the issue adding:

If you don't pay a teacher his salary (...), he will not go with the same disposition or with the same spirit for delivering the contents to the children (...) this is a chain, a circle that we must care for and protect and strengthen (C2, LSPE-1).

Equally, interviewees from LSPE-2 show consciousness about the impact of their work. For instance, a participant reflects on the need to improve the internal processes and describes a concrete action to foster employee awareness.

I found it interesting to go [with the LSPE employees] and observe the children in the classroom, and the children began to speak, and people began to cry (...) they said 'hey, but the purchase order for school transport... I have it tucked there in a drawer of my desk' (...) it connected them with that reality (A4, LSPE-2).

Following this, participants transversally recognise experiences that can be interpreted as loyalty actions to help the school district. For instance, due to the political influence that Town Mayors have in DMEs, one of the managers at DME-1 explains how she has faced tensions related to losing her job for not taking "politically correct" decisions.

There was a crisis, and I was on the verge of leaving or resigning, or her sacking me (...) here I have defended my work with claws, through thick and thin (...) but in pursuit and improvement of the children, of the teachers, of the schools, so sometimes the decisions are not the best from the political point of view, but they are correct and better from the pedagogical point of view (A1, DME-1).

Equally, DME-2 workers declare that their priority is to provide the best service for the education of students:

Do what we must do, in the best possible way (...) and for that, the commitment of the Department of Education is to provide them [students] with the tools, training, furniture, you will have everything you need to be able to carry out the task (A1, DME-2).

Following this, workers from LSPE-1 and 2 manifest loyalty toward the LSPE's main goal: *“There is an objective as a public service, which is to improve the quality of education, and we have to work towards it”* (B7, LSPE-1).

Moreover, workers from LSPE-2 refer to their loyalty to the organisation: *“I think most of the people here have their shirts on”* (B7, LSPE-2). Other participants expand on this saying:

What is the culture of this Service [LSPE]? A culture that is 100% linked to educational establishments (...) [we are trying to] add value to the continuous improvement of public education in the country. Literally here, there are colleagues who say, “hey, we are making history” (...) that gives you a sense of belonging (B6, LSPE-2).

#### **d) Courtesy**

Testimonials give an account of courtesy behaviours towards members of the educative community at the district and school levels. A topic mentioned transversally alluded to preventing problems with colleagues. Specifically, managers explain that it is vital to have an articulated team, approaching it sensibly when solving problems. For instance, in DME-1, it is declared: *“When there is someone from the team who is in urgent need, hey, we just look at each other and say “Ok, let's support each other”* (A2, DME-1). In DME-2, a manager explains: *“As a team, quite close, quite concerned about that. I always ask them ‘how are we?’ and we talk, we have a coffee (...) ‘what's wrong with you? Can I help you?’”* (A2, DME-2).

For the case of LSPE-1, a similar approach to prevent problems is followed:

The mood of people is the main thing (...) I always try to communicate with the people, see their emotional state (...) if the position is good with their skills, it is a semi-evaluation, after that, I can keep him in office, I can give him another position, or I try to support him with knowledge (A3, LSPE-1).

Furthermore, members from the four school districts manifest courtesy behaviours to prevent problems with school staff and the students. For example, a participant from DME-1 explains that when she needs to request information from them, she tries to design the task more efficiently: *“I prefer that they lean on me and do it well (...) if a table has to be made, I make the table myself, send it to them by e-mail, and they fill it out (...) I try to make everything easier for them”* (C1, DME-1).

In the same vein, a manager from LSPE-2 highlights the relevance of not giving heavy workloads to school staff, so they can focus on the students’ pedagogical processes: *“Do they have the conditions to focus on the pedagogy? the time? Or are we overloading them with administrative work?”* (A3, LSPE-2).

Equally, a member of school staff at DME-1 explains the relevance of preventing problems among colleagues and how she has taken measures to support interpersonal relationships:

We are very concerned about workers' interaction. We have managed some talks, self-care of that style because we realise that the personal relationship if it is not well established, there can be no collaborative work, then I will not have what I want in the classroom (D1, DME-1).

This vision is shared by school staff from DME-2:

Their wellbeing [the students] and of each person in the school is essential. If I have a team who is mentally and physically well... And understand the team from the kitchen

[staff] to the cleaning [staff], to the teachers. If I have them well, well emotionally and physically, they will be able to teach well (D2, DME-2).

Following this, participants manifested actions related to cooperating with others and being respectful despite possible difficulties. For instance, in DME-1, interviewees declare: *“There are very marked differences between one and the other, but that does not take away from the fact that we greet each other, that we establish a good relationship”* (A2, DME-1). Moreover, one of the workers explained: *“[It’s about] how you ask for things and how you deliver things, because you may be giving a ‘no, it can’t be done now, but could we see this other solution? Do you see this alternative?’ (...) It’s how you ask for things”* (B2, DME-1).

Such behaviours are also demonstrated in DME-2. A participant explains her relationship with a colleague: *“She is super open to listening to any type of proposal, claim or any initiative that I can think of”* (B2, DME-2). However, despite these positive perceptions, other workers have experienced un-respectful treatment from colleagues: *“The date of this activity is approaching, and they begin ‘how is our requirement going?’ I say, but ‘Why? When? I had no idea’ (...) I did not find out, it did not reach me, so they assume that I must know everything”* (C1, DME-2).

In LSPE-1, one of the managers narrates his courtesy approach to workers, which makes them feel valued: *“[Some people] are more serious, more introverted (...) and you get closer ‘excuse me, just a minute? I want to know if this information has reached you, because it is very important information and I need to know your opinion’, the person feels important”* (A3, LSPE-1). Another worker from the same district explains that such behaviours are expected of them *“the administrative statute by which public servants are governed (...) indicates what is the way in which the public servant should attend to the person who goes to the Service [LSPE], right? Cordial, responsible, kind”* (B5, LSPE-2).

A final relevant aspect of Courtesy is related to encouraging transparency in the workplace. In DME-1, it is explained how in contrast to the previous administration, the district management is now open: *“The schools were like hidden, nobody talked about education, so all the activities were done behind closed doors (...) I wanted... my ideal, I opened it to the town”* (A1, DME-1).

A similar approach is manifested by one of the managers at DME-2:

Being transparent, being eloquent, constantly showing where we want them to go helps people to get involved in the processes (...) it has been difficult to move from an administrative, administrative control approach to a more collaborative, helpful, and supportive approach of involvement, right? But today we are (...) more and more involved, more and more collaborative, more and more participatory with our communities (A2, DME-2).

#### **e) Sportsmanship**

Participants in the four school districts manifested a series of examples of avoiding or tolerating negative behaviours such as complaining in case of problems and conflicts. In DME-1, it is argued that whenever it is needed, team members are willing to stay at work until late without complaining, as they know the relevance of the task they need to accomplish: *“Sometimes, as a team, we have left at ten at night, we have closed [the town hall] (...) because we have to deliver (...) so I am grateful for that”* (A1, DME-1).

On the other hand, at DME-2, Sportsmanship was hardly displayed by some staff members, who narrated inconveniences. For instance, one of the interviewees explained how she felt undervalued *“there were first and second category workers at this DME, because of the fact that they did not feel listened to, valued in their work (...) There is no accolade to tell them ‘good job, it's on time’ or ‘congratulations’”* (A3, DME-2).

Following this, LSPE participants manifest willingness to avoid complaints and maintain positive thinking: *“Come on, we can, we keep on paddling and come on, come on, we can!”* (B6, LSPE-1). Moreover, another interviewee explains: *“This is pioneering, so we started with all the batteries charged (...) We have been sick, and we have had to come (...) there are some who postponed their vacations to get everything ready... there have been many colleagues who have been very committed”* (C1, LSPE-2).

A similar case is manifested by workers from LSPE-1, who describe how despite being in the process of team adaptation, they believe in the contribution they are making to public education: *“I do not know if we are at 100% collaborative work yet (...) We have tried to generate harmony and calibrate ourselves (...). We are at a stage, believing a lot the story about [our] effective contribution to public education”* (B6, LSPE-1).

### **4.3 To examine the main factors influencing citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE.**

#### **4.3.1 RQ 5: What are the main barriers and facilitators to OCB perceived by DME and LSPE members?**

Following the grounded theory analytical approach presented in section 3.4.3, participants from the four school districts mention a series of factors that can be considered barriers and facilitators to display citizenship behaviours. These are organised into two main topics and sub-categories. First, societal and contextual factors are presented in a) Pressure from the system and unprecedented guidelines, b) Political factors and DME inheritance, and c) Culture of the territory. The second topic refers to the organisational factors presented in a) Strategic alignment, b) Working conditions and c) Human resource management, and d) Organisational culture.

#### 4.3.1.1 Societal and contextual factors

##### a) Pressure from the system and unprecedented guidelines

Participants from DME-1 and both LSPEs perceive the pressure from the system as a barrier. Some explain how the many regulations and accountability processes impact them: *“One gets entangled in the thousands of laws, norms and decrees that we have in education, so many rules”* (A1, LSPE-1). In this context, according to them, usually, they are caught up answering the system requests rather than dedicating time to advance to long-term strategic processes:

We don't finish with the administrative [issues] when a new law appears, and then another law appears, and new controls appear and then oops! And we cannot advance to what I would like to achieve as a human resources subject. There are so many demands, so many demands (A2, LSPE-2).

Hence, participants perceive that these demands impact their in-role performance and impede them from going the extra mile, stressing them out: *“You stop, reflect, try to improve, but you have the Department of Public Education and the Ministry of Education bombarding you with other things that make you fall behind and stress you out, they are rather stressful agents”* (B6, LSPE-2). Indeed, according to them, it is not possible to go beyond the ministerial guidelines, limiting their autonomy or proactivity to propose further actions: *“You have to follow the guidelines requested by the Mineduc (...) from there you cannot leave”* (A3, DME-1). An LSPE participant agrees in this aspect: *“It is said that we are an autonomous Service, but we are pretty limited to be autonomous, because there are things that do not depend on the Service itself, that we have to have authorisation from above, from the DEP<sup>8</sup>, so it is not about [having an idea] and doing it”* (B5, LSPE-1).

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<sup>8</sup> Direction of Public Education



Nevertheless, a participant from LSPE-2 reflects that participation and citizenship are addressed in the educative communities because of mandatory guidelines (i.e., Citizenship Training Plan and the Local Council).

There is a regulation, okay? That quotes, obliges us to have Citizenship Training Plans. In practice (...) [It's all] obviously, declarative, okay? They have not managed to take the central essence of citizen training (...) the election of Local Advisory Councils (...) is by law. I mean, what if we didn't have that regulation? (B2, LSPE-1).

Following this, LSPEs have seen a series of unprecedented guidelines perceived as detrimental factors that impact the service provided due to their recent creation. *“Until now, no one had taken charge of 93 establishments from one day to another. So, installing the processes for that was difficult, and mistakes were made at the beginning... To this day, we still make them”* (B3, LSPE-2). Another participant adds:

We must live through all the heaviest... because nobody knows, it's all new, all new, the [Local Council's] election ... what are we going to know about elections? If we have never faced a tremendous election, we are going to make mistakes many mistakes (A1, LSPE-1).

Moreover, according to participants, the lack of information impacted their in-role performance, as they did not know in detail what was expected from them: *“Today, here, still, there is no separation of roles and tasks”* (B3, LSPE-2).

Additionally, the work design has been impacted, as procedures are perceived as more bureaucratic than before. Consequently, according to LSPE participants, these issues have distanced them from educative communities, threatening the display of certain OCB forms such as Courtesy: *“Most of the complaints that the Service has are due to bureaucratic issues”* (C1, LSPE-1). Another participant adds: *“The change is negative. We take longer; before, when I was in the DME, I could eventually get a signature from the Mayor or the administrator*

*in 10 minutes. Now it takes me two days*” (A3, LSPE-2). Concerning this, bureaucracy has been perceived as limiting the display of behaviours such as Altruism or Courtesy:

Formerly there was trust; there were situations that one could solve (...) there was more closeness, absolutely. I feel that now there is a structure, they try to make everything more orderly (...), but it takes time and bureaucracy, and it means that a document that could be ready in a week sometimes takes a month or more (B2, LSPE-1).

### **b) Political factors and DME inheritance**

Another relevant aspect perceived by the interviews is the political influence in the district’s management and workers’ performance. However, the perception of such influence varies per type of school district. For example, whereas at LSPEs, the perception is negative, at DMEs, this is positive.

First, as DMEs are part of a political project led by the Mayor, such influence is perceived as a facilitator factor in both cases. Moreover, they perceive beneficial cooperation (Courtesy and Altruism): *“We have a Mayor who is all-terrain, that is, 100% ground, 100% participation, 100% accompaniment, so you are not alone, I am one of the gears, but there is a Mayor who stamps that hallmark on me”* (A1, DME-1).

Today a large part, and I should say 70% of the large projects that have been promoted in the locality in recent times, have been thanks to the contribution of the Municipality, thanks to the Mayor, the Municipal Council... [they] have made on improvements in the schools (A2, DME-2).

Despite this positive perception, managers do recognise the existence of political influence in their operations: *“The DME director is in a structure in which he still has to make political decisions. So, the link with the Mayor is extremely important”* (A2, DME-2). Furthermore, it is recognised that their continuity in the role (and thus, the educative project) depends on this. Accordingly, many roles are subject to the political elections, creating

uncertainty and anxiety and threatening the display of OCB forms such as conscientiousness by presenting inconveniences to their role. For example, at DME-1, it is explained: *“We have the election of another colleague, who may be elected, may not (...) that change causes a situation that does not give the managers, perhaps the necessary period, the necessary time for their project to be positioned”* (A1, DME-1).

In contrast, at DME-2, managers express that they have had autonomy in decision-making processes:

In the almost four years that I have been working here, the Mayor has never suggested that I hire someone in a school for returning a political favour (...). On the contrary, he has given me the autonomy to decide regarding educational projects (A1, DME-2).

Nevertheless, in the case of LSPEs, participants from LSPE-1 recognise difficulties in cooperation with Mayors during the transition and implementation process, limiting the display of courtesy. For example, at LSPE-1 during the Chilean upheaval in 2019:

We said there would be classes, and the Mayor said “no”. That he had informed the school principals that they were not going to hold classes, and there was enormous confusion because people asked me, “Well, what's going on? There is or is not?” (C1, LSPE-1).

Precisely, the DME legacy or inheritance has negatively impacted the district functioning of both LSPEs. This has been reflected in threats to Courtesy and Sportsmanship due to problems during the transition and implementation process, traduced in over-dotation and salaries that are higher than they should be (carrying out budgetary consequences).

Concerning over-dotation, in both school districts, participants narrate: *“There are people who applied and who also stayed because of (...) political affinities. There are people who came from behind the door, as they say”* (C1, LSPE-1).

Many people were working in educational establishments depending on the DME, who were there for political reasons, and now we have an overpopulation in educational establishments. So, we need to remove people because they are consuming unnecessary resources. For example, we had a school where there were four secretaries for the principal (...) what are they talking about? (B6, LSPE-2).

Another identified difficulty of this legacy is related to the overpayment. According to the participants, some workers coming from DMEs earn a higher wage than they should, considering the public system's pay grade.

One of the things that were promised to us, which was fulfilled, was that... they would transfer us with the same salary from the DME. For many people, the salaries were very high. In fact, they had salaries that were inflated before coming here. So, they came with a very high salary compared to what they should earn here according to the grade they have (C1, LSPE-1).

In LSPE-2, a similar situation is narrated:

If you compare the salaries of former DME officials and LSPE officials, you will see a significant gap. Why? For two reasons. First, because (...) many people who were hired there [DME], are here [LSPE] permanently and with high [pay] grades, therefore, their remuneration went up (B6, LSPE-2).

The third challenge of this DME inheritance is allocating former DME workers in roles that they are not prepared for, threatening their in-role performance: *"This was politically permeated. That allowed people to arrive who perhaps did not have the skills to work in a certain area and were put in one unit, and their profile is for another"* (B2, LSPE-2). Another participant mentions:

All the people who worked in the DME could enter (...) the problem is that it was not controlled (...) you got what you got, but not because of skills, not because of training...

[Now, here there are] administrative errors in the procedures (...) that a procedure that could take a week has taken two months (A3, LSPE-1)

### **c) Culture of the territory**

The cultural characteristics of the territory are recognised by its strong influence on the staff's performance. Indeed, a participant argues that school staff adopts or reflects cultural characteristics from the sector where the school is embedded: *"The principals have mentioned it (...) 'you are with these teachers who are like that, and it is the same as the sector. I see the principals, and they are very similar to the sector'"* (D1, DME-1).

Furthermore, at DME-1, one of the participants refers to sexism and "machismo"<sup>9</sup> as traits that characterise people from the locality. This permeates the district at the school and office level, threatening forms of OCB such as Courtesy or Sportsmanship, as such discourses disrespect the labour of females:

There is machismo in the locality (...), and the schoolteachers are sexist. [So] I feel there is a discomfort with female leadership [DME director]. And verbally, it has been said without saying it, in a symbolic way... those horrible, gendered jokes are made, and one listens to them. But, behind that joke is a macho discourse. There is a macho conception of life. So having a boss, I think, a woman, very empowered, with a lot of strength and character, can create a lot of stress (D1, DME-1).

In LSPE-1, a similar perception is shared: *"Patriarchy is super marked. So, the teachers, or part of the management team who are women, go with us... But there is the school principal and his henchmen, who find it hard to let go of power"* (B6, LSPE-2).

At DME-2, participants recognise a dichotomy when comparing urban to rural schools. According to them, the main differences are reflected in how educative actors act, relate,

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<sup>9</sup> In Spanish, Machismo refers to strong or aggressive masculine pride (Merriam-Webster, 2022).

commit, and participate in their schools: *“Collaborating people [rural] Not here, nothing here [urban] (...) if they make an activity in one of the rural schools, right? You see, all the parents, dad and mom are participating. Here [urban] not even the mom comes”* (C1, DME-2).

In the same way, members from LSPEs recognise that different cultural identities in their territories are a challenge for pertinent-local district management: *“That has been one of the issues that have had to be faced, the differences in identities of the two territories. The population here is very diverse”* (B1, LSPE-1). Interestingly, as LSPE-2 is embedded in Mapuche territory, the district management has an intercultural approach:

We have territorial linkage departments here (...) And those units have a lot of communication with these communities, and we also have professionals who are Mapuche, who know how to speak the language very well and integrated professionals, right? Purely Mapuche. Therefore, they can reach these communities directly (B7, LSPE-1).

#### **4.3.1.2 Organisational factors**

##### **a) Strategic alignment**

Considering the multiple plans, programmes and organisms operating in the Chilean school system (see section 4.1.1), the strategic alignment of such tools can contribute to achieving different educational goals and become an in-role performance facilitator. In this sense, participants from the four school districts recognise their efforts to articulate these multiple instruments. For example, at DME-1, it is argued:

There is a community guideline, and all the educational projects should be linked to this, because the PADEM is like an umbrella, and then comes the Educational Project, the PEI (...) then comes its PME, its Educational Improvement Plan, so in the long run,

we have achieved that in recent years there has been a cascade of PADEM, PEI and PME (A1, DME-1).

In the case of DME-2, one of the managers explains their efforts to align the town's vision -led by the Mayor-, with the PADEM:

There are guidelines (...) in the municipality it is yes or yes, a transversal axis in relation to the environment, so we lack that, but we are seeing what happens (...) Because we do not get anything out of declaring it if we do nothing for it (A2, DME-2).

Following this line, participants at LSPE-2 expose challenges in terms of aligning their processes:

There is a lack of better articulation (...) here, one would arrive and find out that an X-process had to be carried out, [but] they did not know which Unit of the Service had to carry it out (...). There was the discussion, and it still exists, if it corresponds to the People Unit, if it corresponds to Pedagogical if it corresponds to the Administration and Finance Unit... (A3, LSPE-2).

Equally, in LSPE-1, a diagnosis developed explains how only a few schools count with aligned instruments: *“Only in 30% of the PME, there is coherence both between the analysis of the results with the strategic objectives and their respective goals, as well as with the strategic objectives and the improvement strategy”* (Informe de avance 2018, p. 29).

Despite these challenges and considering the law that created LSPEs (Law 21.040, 2017), interviewees argue that they aim to design plans and instruments in a participative and articulated manner. So, all educative members can have a voice in building the district's strategic vision. Accordingly, by aligning strategies with a participative approach, forms of OCB such as Civic virtue can be promoted as organisational members are provided with effective participation in decision-making processes: *“We got together [all the officials] (...)*

*here all the ideas belong to everyone... among all, we built this*” (A1, LSPE-1). Moreover, at LSPE-2, it is explained:

Law 21.040 installs another form of power of how to think about the participation of educational communities, then also in the construction of our, of the Local Education Plan, the PEL (...) for its construction considers the participation of the educational community (...) through School Councils, where all the actors are represented (B2, LSPE-2)

### ***Networks***

Participants from LSPEs recognise the need to establish articulated networks within their territories and other school districts, as these can become a source of collaboration to achieve district goals. Accordingly, collaboration networks can also encourage displaying OCB forms such as Altruism, Civic virtue, and Courtesy.

At the internal level, members from LSPEs value internal networks to articulate the schools of the territory and to use them as a mechanism to raise the needs of educative communities: *“We have the mathematics network for the mathematics teachers. Those who participate in that network channel their demands through it, and we can then reach the deputy director or eventually the executive director to be able to cover that demand”* (B2, LSPE-2).

Not conventional networking where one says, “oh, [we]work with the health network, the social network”. It is a network of learning communities through the internal network. For example, all those in charge of coexistence have a network called coexistence, and there, in those spaces, they stress their reality (...) theory is stressed with practice (A2, LSPE-1).

Participants recognise efforts to open discussions at the external level and begin collaborative work with other public organisms and LSPEs in Chile. These are examples of



how the establishment of networks facilitates the display of Courtesy by sharing knowledge and collaboration with other staff:

I created a WhatsApp with all the personnel managers from LSPEs, okay? And that, and that meant that I raised a need to be able to get all the personnel managers together and each [one] makes a presentation of some powerfully good tool and be able to share it (...) because each one has a different experience (...) to be able to get together and start giving feedback and passing on information (A2, LSPE-2).

Indeed, participants value such instances: *“The Civil Service has a network, and we met in 2018... In a conference, which was convened by the Civil Service to be all related education services, where we had a very good experience”* (A4, LSPE-1).

Furthermore, at DME-1, an interviewee explains how external networks are established to answer the demands raised by participative bodies such as the Students’ Council:

When they hold [Course] delegate meetings, then they bring us their concern (...) for example, we have a concern about talking (...) about contraceptive methods, a talk about sexuality (...) So, we look for support networks; we go to the office. And we talked to the midwife (D2, DME-1).

## **b) Working conditions**

### ***Uncertainty: Contractual conditions and de-municipalisation***

A significant barrier to OCB is uncertainty, which according to the participants, emerges as a job stressor experienced in different aspects, such as their contractual condition and the de-municipalisation process. At the same time, the exposed examples manifest the lack of actions or change management strategies to counteract these.

First, the contractual condition emerges as a barrier for most studied cases. Participants from LSPEs explain how the great variety in the types of contracts entails significant complexities for HR management, challenging their role-performance: *“There are Full-time,*

*Fixed-term (...) Zero-Hours (...) We have teaching regulation for the teachers, and we have a labour code for education assistants (...) We navigate various seas of codes and... [the contractual quality of our officials]*” (A4, LSPE-1). Indeed, as Table 9 unveils, 65.4% of the LSPE participants have a fixed-term contract.

Moreover, this contractual diversity entails that those workers have different rights, such as membership in trade unions and other participative instances, representing a threat to Civic virtue itself *“Those who are by labour code no... so far, they cannot join [the union]”* (B7, LSPE-2).

Additionally, contracts provide different and unequal benefits for participants from LSPEs, who declare, *“I have acquaintances who are in zero-hours for fifteen years. Pure receipt. And there are no impositions [pension deductions], nothing”* (B7, LSPE-2). Equally, contracts are a source of job uncertainty and can threaten the display of OCBs:

Nobody guarantees you the contract the next year. The situation is complex. I’m on a fixed term. It is complex for the people who are hired. You don't know if you're going to stay, you don't know if you're going to go. It's difficult (B7, LSPE-2).

Interestingly, members from DME-1 share a similar vision, as they have not been offered permanent contracts at the municipality where they work, *“No, we are not municipal indefinite (...) we have never been permanent”* (A1, DME-1). Their only option to access a permanent role would be to apply directly to a position, risking a change of roles, functions, and area, therefore losing their years of service (seniority). Doing so could detriment the workers’ and teams’ trajectory, which has been perceived as one of the main strengths at DME-1. Consequently, forms of OCB such as Sportsmanship could be impacted negatively: *“If I wanted to go to the Municipality, I have to resign from the DME”* (C1, DME-1). Furthermore, this lack of permanent contract emerges as a shadow of uncertainty considering the implementation of the new LSPEs: *“We are going to close the DME from the outside when*

*there is de-municipalisation because we are not municipal officials, so 'night night' (...) it's another damage, they're going to terminate us, and we have to leave" (A1, DME-1).*

By contrast, workers from DME-2 illustrate a different situation, as they do have the status of municipal workers. Therefore, they are treated equally: *"All municipal officials, not just teachers, we all have that benefit" (B2, DME-2).*

Following this, another barrier is the process of de-municipalisation, which has been a source of stress for DME and LSPE workers. At DMEs, participants unveil the lack of knowledge about this new institution and uncertainty concerning what will happen to them. In contrast, LSPE participants narrate how stressful this experience was- and still is- for them. For example, participants from DME-1 narrate their confusion: *"These Local Councils, Councils, no, Local Education Services, basically it is an entity that is a hybrid, it is unknown" (A5, DME-1).* In addition, the lack of support in this transition has been pointed out: *"Uncertainty. It's the first word that I give you, I feel a little confused because I am very interested in knowing how we will work (...) The [communication] has been insignificant and very theoretical" (D1, DME-1).*

Nevertheless, managers at DME-2 perceive new LSPEs as an opportunity rather than a threat and unveil active efforts to provide information and support for this transition.

Here we have an expiration date (...). But the team is still young, so create skills for them so that they can apply for Local Services, and they can have some option of getting a full-time [position]. So, we [are] accompanying them and [giving] knowledge for those who want (A2, DME-2).

Despite these efforts, participants from DME-2 mention the confusion and lack of clear information from the authorities. Consequently, the de-municipalisation is conceived as a threat to the workers' careers: *"Uncertainty... if you look at our SWOT... de-municipalisation, I tell you that most people see it as a threat, right? Today they don't see it as an opportunity" (A1,*

DME-2). Another participant adds: *“A threat, indeed, because there is an issue of loss of employment”* (A2, DME-2). Consequently, a shared wish about the arrival of LSPEs is manifested by participant A6 (DME-1): *“We still have the hope that they don’t appear, that they don’t come [the LSPEs]”*.

Following this, at LSPE-1, their PEL’ identifies the uncertainty created in educative communities during the de-municipalisation. In this regard, certain change management actions are conducted to address these challenges by propitiating dialogues with the educative communities: *“[The] uncertainty in the installation process of the (...) LSPE indicated the need to install some actions to better communicate both the meanings of the Public Education System, as well as ground the changes (...) through a more open dialogue [with the educative communities]”* (LSP, LSPE-1, p. 16). However, despite this support to educative communities in the transition, such support was not provided to workers from former DMEs. At LSPE-1, a participant remembers how the lack of information and uncertainty damaged the personal relationships among colleagues, threatening the display of OCB forms such as Courtesy, Sportsmanship, and Altruism: *“[It] triggered this, that we show our worst faces. It was a war, in addition to war against the Ministry, because they were not clear in the information, and they had us for a long time with pure lies”* (C1, LSPE-1).

Furthermore, participants at LSPE-2 unveil how abrupt was the end of DMEs and the lack of support they received: *“We were there, one day in February, and they told us ‘You have a job until July’, and voilà, that’s what they told us. So hard... And we had to learn as we went along”* (B4, LSPE-2). Another interviewee adds:

They had no desk; they had nothing. I knew that they were requested to come to work on-demand. I knew that they were informed from time to time that this was going to be de-municipalised from the central level. I saw them cry (...) when they thought they

were going to lose their job and that they were not going to find another one (B6, LSPE-2).

Moreover, it expressed the lack of transparency and how former DME workers felt overlooked and obsolete when applying to the new LSPEs:

From one day to the next, we found that there was a weekend contest [job offer]. For example, one Friday, a contest was opened to apply for team positions (...) with a status that not even the most professional of our service could opt for. So, the contest started on Friday at six in the afternoon, and it was already closed on Monday. It gave us no choice at all (...) looking at us as if we were almost obsolete and that it was the new people who came with all the ideas, with all the professionalism (C1, LSPE-1).

### ***Resources: Economic, HR and infrastructure***

Regarding economic resources, participants from the four school districts perceive that these are insufficient *“The resources (...) are scarce”* (B2, LSPE-2). Yet, at DME-1, they describe efforts to use them efficiently and, with this, show forms of Conscientiousness:

We do not limit ourselves to the fact that we do not have enough money. We do not limit ourselves to the fact that intellectually we cannot generate more quality in the delivery, but we are fully challenged by what the community proposes to us (A2, DME-1).

In addition, at DME-1 and LSPE-1, the school staff refers to the lack of transparency in assigning these, which can hinder aspects such as Civic virtue and effective participation in decision-making processes: *“The problems linked resources are related to the lack of autonomy of schools in the management of resources (...) the little information of the resources for planning [their] purchases”* (PEL 2020, LSPE-1, p. 17). Another participant adds:

They don't tell you what amount your school has allocated (...). [It] generates mistrust. They see it as “what do they do with the money?” (...) Teachers are angry with the

Department of Education. (...) In the rest of the locality, mistrust is smelled in the environment—little transparency (D1, DME-1).

This vision contrasts the perspective of DME-1 managers, who affirm the opposite: “*Open, transparent management (...) Transparency of expenses, monthly reports, I show [them] spreadsheets*” (A1, DME-1).

Following this, the case of LSPEs unveils a more participatory approach (Civic virtue) in managing resources, which allows them to allocate them pertinently: “*Resource management with a territorial approach: Generate effective communication channels between schools and the LSPE to ensure resource management that responds to the needs and desires of the communities*” (PEL 2020, LSPE-1, p. 17).

Likewise, an LSPE-2’ participant explains how when providing a specific platform to inform the schools about the student’s learning. They attempted to democratise the process and encourage Civic virtue when consulting the school principals, who were able to select the supplier:

We did not decide on the platform as a Service. It was presented to the principals (...). After the presentation of each of the companies, they made their election, okay? And most of the principals voted for the platform that we have today. So, they decided that (A3, LSPE-2).

Secondly, in terms of HR and in line with what was explained in section 1.2 concerning DME legacy, at the moment of data collection, both LSPEs were dealing with an over-dotation of workers in the schools, mainly teaching staff: “*The DMEs had a lot of political components, in the sense that, for example, we are over-endowed. We have more people than necessary in the schools...*” (A4, LSPE-1). An LSPE participant agrees: “*We have a staff of both teachers and education assistants, which exceeds what we need (...) and in some cases the functions they are fulfilling... are duplicated, let's say*” (B2, LSPE-2).

By contrast and despite this over-dotation (predominant in schools), participants recognise that at the main LSPE headquarters, they do not have enough staff to cover everything, which entails a threat to in-role performance: *“A basic problem is staffing because it is too small for a large number of people one has to serve”* (A4, LSPE-1). A member adds:

In this Service, there are so many chiefs, and there are so few workers that the manager must organise and articulate, but even if it organises us, articulates us and puts us from one side to another, we are the same ones who have to organise and run, and it's not enough, it's not enough (C2, LSPE-1).

At LSPE-2, it is explained: *“There are Units where there is a lot of personnel, there are others where there are not so many, here [in my Unit] it is empty”* (B6, LSPE-2).

In addition to these challenges, participants from LSPE-2 explain that many professionals working in their schools do not have accurate preparation:

Poorly trained professionals are arriving in the localities, especially the rural ones. For example, the teachers have poor reading comprehension. The other day a teacher told me, “Good luk” [sic.] so, where does she go [to work]? To the indigenous communities (B1, LSPE-2).

Finally, concerning infrastructure, participants express multiple challenges. For example, workers in the four school districts had to deal with the lack of office space and privacy, which impacted their role performance and created tension in employee relations (Fieldnotes Álvarez-Figueroa, 2020). Accordingly, participants narrate their experiences in these conditions *“small group in an almost crowded place”* (A1, DME-1).

In the same line, interviewees from both LSPEs narrate how at the beginning, they did not have the resources to develop their work, facing multiple challenges but forbearing inconveniences despite this (Conscientiousness): *“First, we worked only with our resources. With our cars to get around... so that things would work out. And in the next two bosses we*

*didn't have resources either, nothing” (B8, LSPE-1). Similarly, at LSPE-2, “They didn't know each other, they got here [and] luckily, they met the first day... They told them what they had to do. They got here. They didn't have a desk. They didn't have chairs, they didn't have a computer, they didn't have anything” (B6, LSPE-2).*

Furthermore, a member from LSPE-1 details how the lack of propitious spaces threatens Courtesy:

I'm in a tiny space, we don't have an office, and this is my first job where I don't have my own office, right? For me, within my communication strategy with my team, it's primary to have an approach, but behind closed doors. Because there you achieve like a peace, a certain feeling of protection that no one else is listening to you, the person with whom you are interacting, relaxes... (A3, LSPE-1).

Similarly, at LSPE-2, the lack of office space threatened the staff's role performance, as they could not correctly receive users. Consequently, to solve this issue, it was decided to send half of the team to new office space, only available in a town 20 minutes away from the headquarters. In turn, such division could hinder teamwork, articulation, and OCB aspects such as Altruism and Courtesy.

Twelve people went (...) to work at a location in the municipality [nearby] (...) because here they don't give us the space. So, we were overcrowded... here we were so overcrowded that the internet connection is horrible because we have many computers connected, we could not serve the public in an adequate, more dignified way (B6, LSPE-2).

Such a situation is not new for LSPE-2. Another participant explains that due to the lack of office space, different departments are renting offices across the town, which has carried out difficulties in conducting processes efficiently and also has led to personal consequences such as tiredness:



Our secretary goes out many times to get a signature. So, there is an abysmal misuse of resources, and of HR, let's say, that ultimately you are wearing yourself out, "Shit, I have to go back there again", and suddenly (...) it is raining, there is a downpour, and you have to go there because you have to get the signature (B2, LSPE-2).

The only school district where participants manifested efforts to improve the current infrastructure was DME-2.

We have schools that did not have internet (...) they were given internet (...) You go and their computers, [are] almost all new—complete new furniture, of the latest generation. So, regarding infra[structure], we have tried to give the best to each school so that the teacher can focus and have the tools to teach (A2, DME-2).

Furthermore, a manager narrates a plan to expand the office spaces and provide better conditions to the users and workers:

We now have a financed project, to make the second floor, it is more space, a larger kitchen to have lunch, improve conditions for ourselves (...). We are going to improve that in this DME. We want the offices in a certain way, that people who have sensitive issues do not have people very close to them so that the information does not leak and stuff... (A2, DME-2).

### **c) Human Resource Management (HRM)**

LSPE-2 was the only school district that explicitly manifested institutionalised HRM strategies' design and implementation. Indeed, a professional team is dedicated to Organisation Development.

The development of people goes along the side of Organisation Development. Everything that goes in People Management (...) is recruitment, selection perhaps, human talent and maintenance (...) there is a whole issue of keeping him [the worker] happy in the Service through certain motivational actions, performance evaluations (...)

Aspirations to determine a work environment and/or moral index of the organisation, and training that is related to (...) the management of officials, to lead them to better efficiency at work (A2, LSPE-2).

By contrast, participants from the other districts explain how their efforts have been oriented almost mainly on supporting the schools rather than the central office staff: *“I have focused more on the schools than on the Department itself”* (A1, DME-2). Another participant adds: *“Mainly our work is oriented to the School Councils since it is where the representatives of each sector of the educational community go. But we are on debt. I feel that we are on debt”* (B8, LSPE-1).

Furthermore, participants from DME-1 narrate limitations for the HRM when hiring specific key roles, such as the school principals. According to them, they do not have a real voice in this decision, which by law, needs to be developed through a national hiring system that seeks to ensure the transparency of the process: *“[The system] failed. It was not the profile of what I needed, they left me with people who were not what I needed, for this locality, for these students and this project”* (A1, DME-1).

Similarly, according to an LSPE-2 participant, role profiles emanate from the national Direction of Public Education (DEP) rather than the LSPE, threatening the local pertinence of their project: *“Those are profiles that come from the DEP, [these are], not profiles that we have created”* (B6, LSPE-2). Indeed, no participants at DME-1 or LSPE-2 referred to any active efforts to solve this issue or to advance towards permanent role profiles. By contrast, DME-2 and LSPE-1 created Role Profiles to define the much-needed specificity for their workers' roles: *“[We are] Working with a consultancy to be able to make the catalogues of the positions. okay? such as profiles, a job profile catalogue, and the organisational chart”* (A2, LSPE-1).

Interestingly, at DME-2, role profiles were created in a participative instance that encouraged reflection and dialogue with the workers, facilitating issues such as Civic virtue.

We developed some role profiles with an external consultant. They were validated by the workers, the Department [DME], and the schools, all of them (...) It was an instance of reflection and feedback to know if [they] had something else to add, share or rectify (A2, DME-2).

### ***Training***

Participants share their training experiences at the district and school level, unveiling that this is an opportunity for members to participate and have a voice, encouraging Civic virtue.

First, at the district level, in DME-1, training for workers is oriented to generic areas that can provide knowledge about issues that all workers can cover. Such training instances are seen as a democratic space where workers can select the course, and at the same time, as an opportunity to improve and protect employee relations: “*She [DME director] tells us about a training course, and she asks us directly (...) [it has served] to learn more. And, as a group. Yes, we all go. Even her*” (C1, DME-1).

Equally, at DME-2, participants have access to different training opportunities “*They are doing training all the time*” (B1, DME-1), including instances to support employee relations:

The DME has participated this year in three...and with the schools, I think that about five or six [times], for principals, for civil servants. But these have different approaches (...) teamwork, that has to do with their area of expertise, I don't know, the technicians, the inspectors, conflict management... Organisational climate (A3, DME-2).

LSPE-2 follows a similar training approach: “[We were requested] *To seek for a training process in relational skills, to be able to get together, to be able to analyse everything that had happened and see areas for improvement*” (B6, LSPE-2).

Nevertheless, at LSPE-1, participants narrate unequal access to training, where such opportunities have been provided to specific areas and workers. For example, an administrative worker explains: *“I think there was training. We didn't have training spaces, we had an Excel course... but it's like everything has been concentrated in the Technical Pedagogical Unit”* (B7, LSPE-1). Such a decision can emerge as a threat to Sportsmanship or courtesy for workers who are not invited to participate and might feel excluded.

Following this, at the school level, DME-1 unveils that training opportunities for school staff are based on their needs: *“The training courses that the DME does, have to do with the needs that you detect”* (A6, DME-1). Equally, at LSPEs, training for school staff is managed, prioritised, and supported thanks to a legal body that regulates it: *“The law instructs us that we can coordinate, organise, [and] intend training for teachers, managers, classroom teachers and education assistants”* (B2, LSPE-2). Furthermore:

Our main function is to generate instances of training and professional development according to the most significant problems that exist and affect the quality of education in the territory. So that fundamentally implies surveying the training needs (B1, LSPE-1).

In contrast, LSPE-2 has been advancing to a series of institutionalised participative strategies to raise training needs for the school staff: *“Diagnosis through participatory surveys with teachers, where they indicated their training needs”* (B3, LSPE-2).

### ***Leadership***

Participants transversally recognise the role of leaders at the district level as key for developing the territory's education.

[The] Intermediate pedagogical leadership (...) is essential to ensure good public education policy in the locality, I believe that we lay the foundations of quality (...) An

administration focused on student learning, teachers' professional development, and the installation of capacities (A1, LSPE-1).

Indeed, one of the aspects that participants value is their leaders' expertise in education. In both DMEs, district leaders are teachers by profession, which according to the participants, gives them pertinent knowledge about their work: *"As a high school teacher, she privileges the technical-pedagogical part, which is fundamental in school (...) even though the Ministry is giving, let's say, economic and resource guidelines, the first thing is the children, to understand them"* (A5, DME-1). Equally, at DME-2, the district leader: *"As a teacher (...), managing this area is very important for us"* (A2, DME-2).

Equally, participants value their leaders' characteristics, observing all OCB forms. For instance, the leader at DME-1 displays Civic virtue: *"She is proactive, more participatory. She is dynamic"* (D2, DME-1). At DME-2, Altruism, Courtesy, and Conscientiousness are highlighted: *"He is more conciliatory, he has more capacity to listen... he integrates more with the DME team and also with the principals"* (A3, DME-2). At LSPE-1, similar features are noted: *"She is very approachable and "let's talk, and you can do it!" it's good motivation (...) One goes there and immediately find the doors open"* (B4, LSPE-1). Furthermore, at LSPE-2, the district leader also displays Conscientiousness and Courtesy: *"He is always willing to talk, to listen (...) The door is open for any person that comes"* (C1, LSPE-2).

Another aspect is concerning how district leaders organise the work. In this regard, giving autonomy in role performance can be associated with promoting Civic virtue and Altruism, which is a shared aspect by DME-1 and 2, leaders: *"She has given this freedom, just as I am here now, this freedom has been all the years that she has been in the Department of Education. She has trusted first"* (A2, DME-1). Whereas, at DME-2: *"He places a lot of trust, he lets us work in our area freely if there is something he has to add, comment or correct, he does it"* (A3, DME-2). School staff also recognise such traits:

He gives us autonomy at school, and that is very important. The autonomy in schools [allows] you to work in peace and make decisions. It is essential for a management team because he is a director who is a facilitator (...) and never traps the processes (D2, DME-2).

Nevertheless, members from LSPE-1 and 2 explain that even though they have tried to give autonomy to make their own decisions (promotion of Civic virtue and Altruism), school principals are still showing resistance to this new approach:

I have given them autonomy, but they don't know how to use it, they are afraid, because now they have autonomy (...) 'what do you want to do? What do you need? For me to support it' because that's it, they have that autonomy (...) [But] it has been difficult (A1, LSPE-1).

At LSPE-2, a participant recognises this resistance: *"The law empowers principals much more, but in practice, we still have no difference, that is, they have greater freedoms to be able to manage, to be able to do more things, but the logic that we are following that we maintain is the same"* (B2, LSPE-2).

Despite these efforts to encourage autonomy and participation in the school staff, workers at the central office in DME-2 and LSPE-1 do not perceive the same. For instance, at DME-2, one of the participants mentions that although she feels heard and involved at her workplace because she is one of the managers: *"The boss asks, 'what do you think? What do they propose? Do you have any perspective? '(...) But I do feel that this happens with those of us who are heads of the area, downwards I don't know if people feel heard"* (A3, DME-2).

Equally, at LSPE-1, such participation depends directly on the leaders' style, which threatens their opportunities to feel involved and to participate: *"These changes of leadership undermine professional security, because they suddenly consider you for activities, but then*

*they don't, so it's frustrating because you feel like you're capable of collaborating, but you also feel a little unpriced” (B7, LSPE-1).*

Additional challenges were identified at LSPEs, including the high rotation of managers during the installation process and the lack of clear and permanent guidelines: *“We are still lacking that strategic definition. There have been (...) three directors” (A4, LSPE-2).* Equally, at LSPE-1: *“There are many chiefs here, there are many sultans, but there is a lack of leadership” (B6, LSPE-1).*

#### **d) Organisational culture**

Regarding the organisational culture, also referred to as how things are done daily or the organisation's personality (Huczynski & Buchanan, 2013), different perceptions are manifested by the participants.

At DME-1, interviewees describe how they feel trespassed in their role by a parents' common practice. As a result, they tend to ignore the procedures when they have a problem, seeking their superior's help: *“One feels a bit overlooked, and I have seen it here, [and with] my colleagues a lot. It has happened to me. They have called me about three times from the DME because guardians have gone to speak” (D1, DME-1).* Another member adds: *“People are like (...) “ahh if the principal doesn't solve it, I'll go to the DME” (B2, DME-1).*

Following this, at DME-2, participants identify challenges related to managing staff with significant age differences and sub-cultures, which is translated into the actors' resistance to change: *“[In the school] We have not only the culture but also different ages. We have teachers who are about to retire and young teachers, that's a super-wide gap (...) there is a resistance to change” (D3, DME-2).* This is also perceived at DME-1, where it is recognised that this resistance to change hinders the staff's effective participation and Civic virtue:

Resistance is noticeable. They've been many years doing the same. Therefore, getting out of that paradigm is difficult very difficult. You must hold their hands, like children

(...) most of them are waiting to be told what to do. And they are going to do it... But not with conviction. Not that they had participated, but they only said “okay” and that is not real participation (D1, DME-1).

Following this, at LSPE-1, interviewees recognise different sub-cultures among staff, especially regarding the culture of some DME workers: *“Their origin is different. Therefore, they come with different organisational cultures, mainly, very strong, municipal”* (A4, LSPE-1). Another participant adds that such culture threatens cooperative work, and potentially, OCB’s Courtesy:

This role of the landlord (...) is a super important inheritance. It is a very bad inheritance, but it happens, so this resistance to change is generated. The principals used to go to a municipal council to ask for more resources, and they probably approved more resources, and now it is not like that (B7, LSPE-1).

Furthermore, according to the interviewees, school principals have shown resistance to this new LSPE culture: *“The principals, perhaps have shown a little more resistance. [It] can also be generational, perhaps, that they have been in the DME system longer”* (B8, LSPE-1). In LSPE-2, it is explained a similar matter: *“There are some [school principals] who maintain practices that they have had for years. So, we can’t change those kinds of practices from one day to the next”* (B4, LSPE-2).

In this sense, similarly to the case of DMEs, this resistance to change is reflected in the limited participation that school principals give to their educative communities, which can threaten Civic virtue:

The principal still closes certain gates, and there are issues that he likes to handle, issues of power. There are cultural issues which have to do with machismo (...). The schools work in a very hierarchical way. The community does not have as much power to make



decisions. So, we are heirs to a super hierarchical, super patriarchal culture (B6, LSPE-1).

Despite these challenges, LSPE participants share an ethos or a mystique related to being making history: “[We want] *people to understand that public education is super important (...) try to do the job well (...) we can't repeat history*” (A1, LSPE-1).

What is the Service’s culture? A culture that is 100% linked to the schools (...) to add value to the continuous improvement of public education in the country. There are literally colleagues here who say, “hey, we're making history” (...) they see it as a beautiful pilot project and that everything we're making history. I find it great because that gives you a sense of belonging (B6, LSPE-2).

In the same vein, at LSPE-1, it is explained that a mechanism to advance toward sharing their values and vision at the school district is the encouragement of participative instances (promotion of Civic virtue):

To have processes of participatory construction of equity, citizen construction... and that everyone is a part, that they are represented in all the decisions made by the Service (...) Why? Because when there are shared meanings, when you feel part of something, you work for them, you make an effort, and you achieve goals (A2, LSPE-1).

Equally, at DME-2, a member of school staff explains that participation from educative actors is key to promoting a shared vision and values in her school:

How do I generate a sense of belonging, roots, and affection for the place? (...) It's building this together. It's the only way (...) every year, in March we work at the parents' meetings. In the first meeting, we read the vision, the values, the educational hallmarks, right? The profiles (...) ‘Dad, until last year this was... Do you think that's what we work on? Do you think it should be changed?’” (D2, DME-2).

### *Organisational climate*

This aspect showed discrepant appreciations among the participants, who perceived it in some cases as a facilitator and, in others, as a barrier to OCB. At DME-2 and both LSPEs, efforts to support it are mentioned: “[For] us, to work on the organisational climate is important, because that is super valuable. Our imprint, as managers, is to be close to the workers, to worry about them first as people, and then as professionals” (A2, DME-2). At LSPE-1, it is mentioned as objective: “[To] develop an organisational culture that actively promotes relationships of coexistence and participation and recognises the diversity of the actors involved” (Informe de Avance 2018, LSPE-1, p. 21). Whereas, at LSPE-2: “Coexistence, group work, soft skills, for example, that is what I want to set up here (...) we need people to understand that we need not only to say but also to listen, live together, share, teach, lead, mature” (A2, LSPE-2).

Despite these perceptions, at DME-1, DME-2, and LSPE-1, it was possible to observe the lack of institutionalised strategies to manage the organisational climate at the central office: “We, as a Service, have not had anything because we have worked as day to day, seeing the immediacy. But I do understand that in schools they have held a reflective conversation” (B8, LSPE-1).

Indeed, at DME-2, the lack of efforts to actively support the central office's organisational climate is acknowledged. Participants reflect on the lack of pertinence of the few quasi-intuitive reactive and isolated instances created:

These are isolated. For example, I don't know, twice a year, if it happens at all... it has been little, and the results have been the same. Nothing. We come back and nothing, we stayed the same, so every time they call him to do a day of teamwork, it's entertaining [but] we get here, and everything works the same as always (C1, DME-2).

Following this, at LSPE-1, although these were not formal climate strategies, the Technical-Pedagogical Unit advanced to creating systematic instances where workers reflect and discuss in a participative manner the issues that impact them. Such participative opportunities contribute to encouraging civic virtue: *“Kind of days of reflection that we try to do at least once a week and that has allowed lowering the anxiety levels and starting to participate in another way, from a more propounding way”* (B2, LSPE-1).

Despite the efforts to support a strategic HRM, at LSPE-2, perceptions of heavy workload are present in the four school districts, threatening the organisational climate and displays of OCB: *“You cannot have a climate where people perceive that it is an organisation that [is not] caring about us because there is no time. So, it's a changeable climate, it's a stressful climate”* (B6, LSPE-2).

Equally, at DME-1, one of its members explains: *“When we close [with] the graduation in December, it's like “please, stop this bus” that is, I want to stop it, because really from March to December it's like that, a rollercoaster and we don't stop”* (A1, DME-1). Similarly, at DME-2, workers explain how they must deal with more demands than what they expect: *“I think that it happens to many [of us]. Apart from having a job, perhaps they ask you a lot [of other things]”* (B3, DME-2).

At LSPEs, a similar scenario is presented. For example, one of the participants from a former DME explains how due to their previous experience, former municipal workers had to work extra hours when the LSPE was installed, threatening their wellbeing: *“We stayed until one or two in the morning, Saturday and Sunday, a whole month Saturdays and Sundays coming to work to try to make this work (...) we are 50 doing the work of 80”* (C2, LSPE-1). Indeed, LSPE-2 interviewees explain that due to the heavy workload, they do not have time to create participative instances, which can be a barrier to displaying Civic virtue and

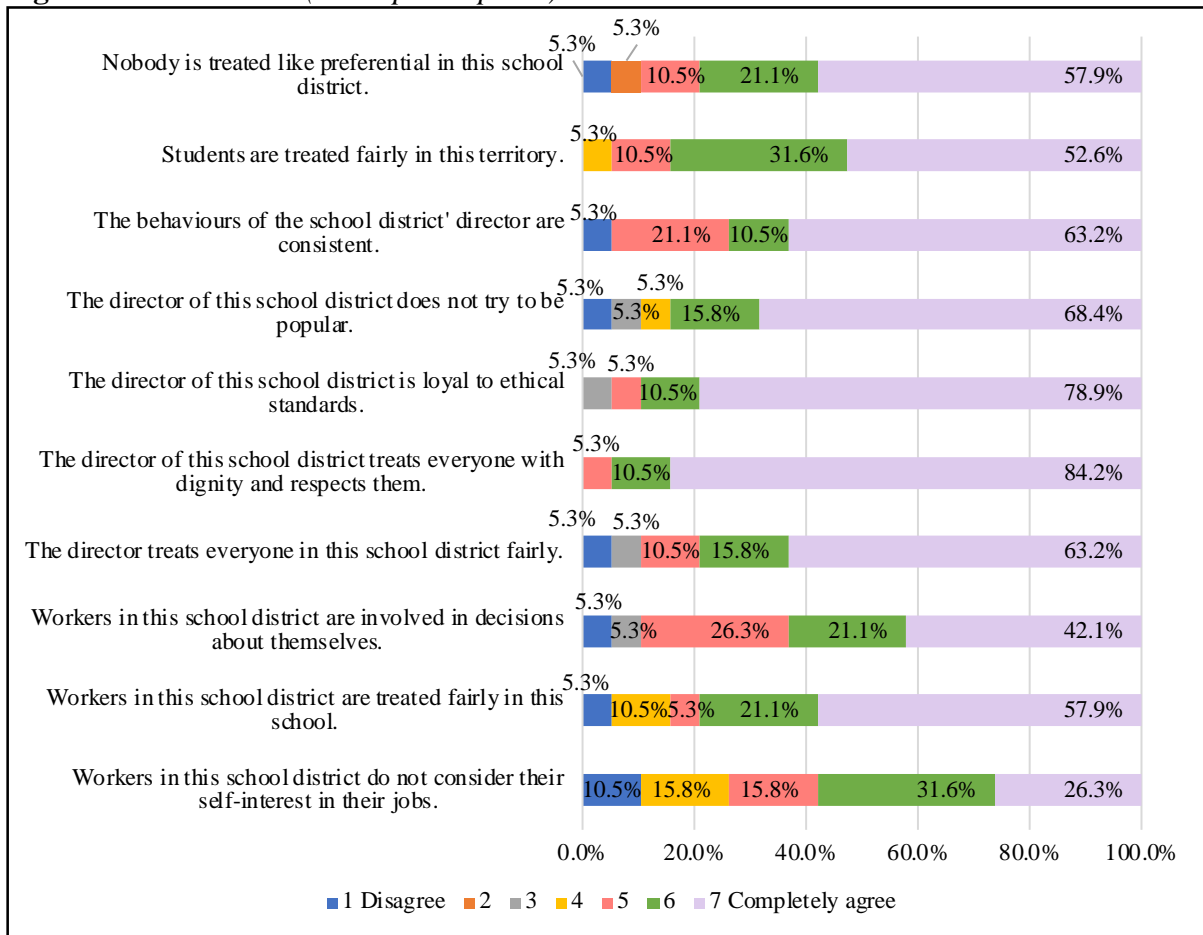
collaboration: *“Because of the workload, [You] join a wheel that goes so fast that you don't have much time to think”* (B6, LSPE-2).

Time does not give the instances to make more participatory decisions (...) There is a lack of space for discussion because of the maelstrom (...) the public service does not provide them. We are asked to participate, and it's hard due to the demands (B4, LSPE-2).

#### **4.3.2 RQ 6: What perceptions of OJ are manifested by the participants?**

The OJ Scale (OJS) unveils that most participants from DME-1 and 2 have positive perceptions of OJ in their school district. Interestingly, the items that showed more substantial agreement were related to perceptions about the district leader. These are: The director of this school district *“treats everyone with dignity and respects them”* (84.2%) and *“is loyal to ethical standards”* (78.9%). In addition, *“workers in this school district do not consider their self-interest in their jobs”* is the only item that shows more disagreement. The answers are widespread throughout the Likert scale without showing a clear trend (7= 26.3%; 6= 31.6%). Further details are provided in Figure 14.

**Figure 14. OJS results (DME participants)**

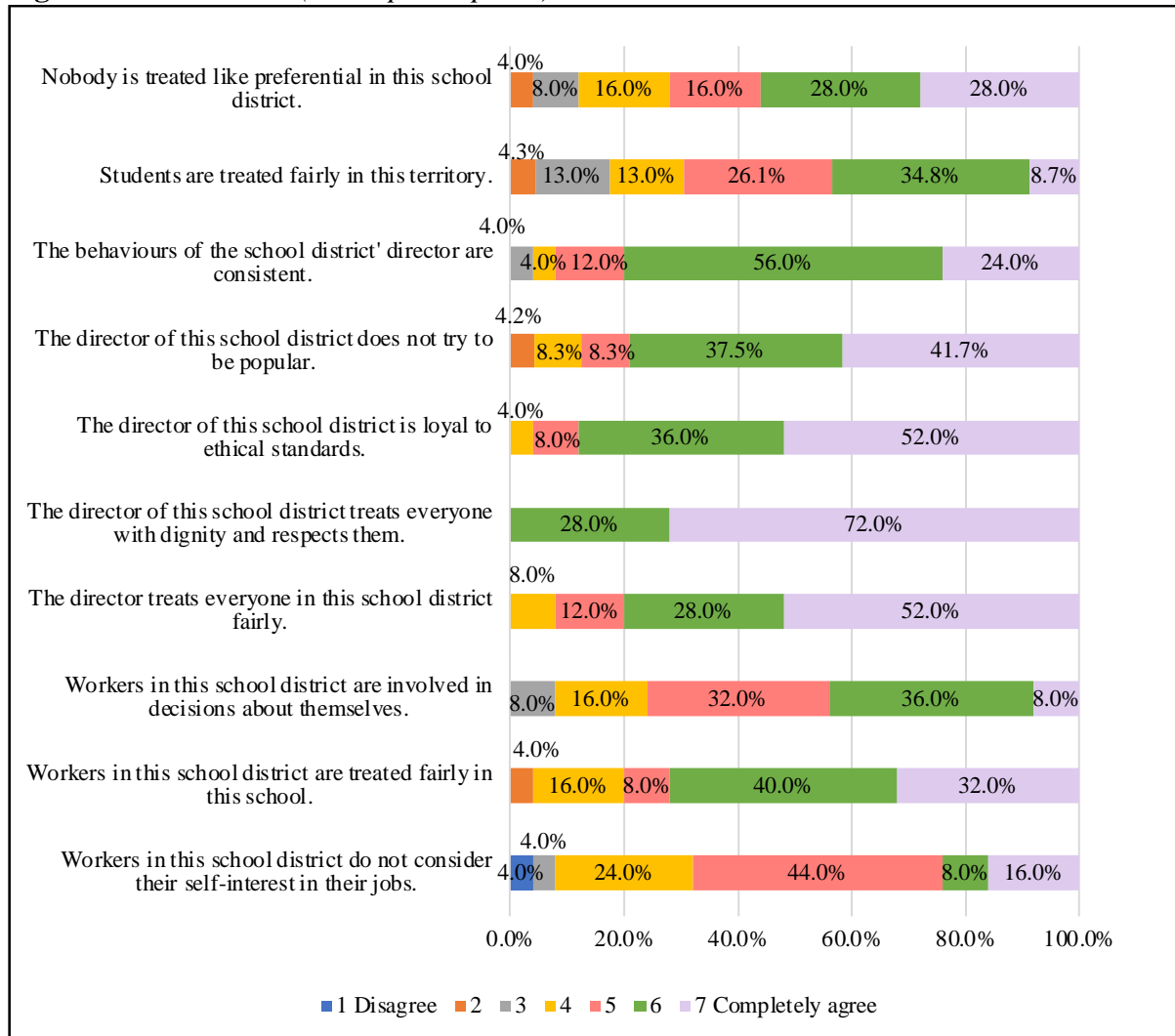


Source: Own elaboration (n=19).

By contrast, participants at LSPE-1 and 2 (n=25) show less agreement with the items than DMEs'. However, likewise DMEs, the only two items where most answers showed complete agreement concerning perceptions about the district leader. In specific, both items examine whether the director of the school district “*treats everyone with dignity and respects them*” (72%) and “*is loyal to ethical standards*” (52%).

Following this, the item that showed less agreement and a larger distribution of answers is “*students are treated fairly in this territory*” (8.7% strongly agreed). Further details are provided in Figure 15.

**Figure 15. OJS results (LSPE participants)**



Source: Own elaboration (n=19).

Besides, Table 24 provides details of the t-test developed to explore if there are differences between the two groups (DMEs and LSPEs). Interestingly, although the Means show more agreement about the constructs at DMEs than LSPEs, the t-test results' do not expose significant differences between these school districts.

Interestingly, the only item that showed an important difference in the participants' perceptions is "students are treated fairly in this territory" (Z value= -3.79), exposing more agreement with the item at DMEs than LSPEs.

**Table 24. OJS results by school district**

Hypothesis Testing (Ho: $\bar{X}$ LSPE - $\bar{X}$ DME = 0)								
Item	$\bar{X}$ LSPE	$\bar{X}$ DME	SD LSPE	SD DME	N LSPE	N DME	Z (t- test)	Hypothesis testing
The behaviours of the school district's director are consistent.	5.92	6.16	0.95	1.50	25	19	-0.60	Non-reject
Students are treated fairly in this territory.	5	6.32	1.35	0.89	23	19	-3.79	Reject
The director of this school district does not try to be popular.	6	6.16	1.25	1.68	25	19	-0.34	Non-reject
The director of this school district treats everyone with dignity and respects them.	6.72	6.79	0.46	0.54	25	19	-0.45	Non-reject
Nobody is treated like preferential in this school district.	5.4	6.00	1.47	1.73	25	19	-1.21	Non-reject
The director treats everyone in this school district fairly.	6.24	6.11	0.97	1.63	25	19	0.32	Non-reject
Workers in this school district do not consider their self-interest in their jobs.	4.92	5.26	1.35	1.82	25	19	-0.69	Non-reject
The director of this school district is loyal to ethical standards.	6.36	6.58	0.81	1.02	25	19	-0.77	Non-reject
Workers in this school district are involved in decisions about themselves.	5.2	5.74	1.08	1.59	25	19	-1.26	Non-reject
Workers in this school district are treated fairly in this school.	5.76	6.05	1.30	1.58	25	19	-0.66	Non-reject

Note: (r): Reversed item;  $\bar{x}$ = Mean; SD: Standard Deviation. Z value:  $-2.091 < Z < 2.091$ . Confidence level: 95%.

Considering the quantitative evidence presented, and in line with the purpose of complementarity and triangulation of Mixed Methods (section 3.4.1), what follows is a presentation of the qualitative perceptions and significances regarding OJ in the voice of the participants from LSPEs and DMEs. Such findings, developed through thematic analysis

(section 3.4.3), are presented following the three main types of OJ: Distributive, Procedural and Interactional.

#### **a) Distributive**

Perceptions of DOJ varied across the four-participant school districts. For example, at DME-1, interviewees perceive an equal distributive treatment: *“Here everything is paid, it is paid accordingly”* (A5, DME-1). Likewise, according to the managers, schools are treated equally and receive the same resources:

We are all the same, it doesn't matter if one generates more than the other, okay? But when it's needed, it is Solomonic. It is Solomonic. If we have the chance to buy a pot of paint, we buy nine pots of paint, even though the high school needs twenty and the smallest school over there needs half a pot, but we buy all the same (A2, DME-1).

However, such a distributive approach is sometimes perceived as a constraint for the development of specific educative projects:

I would love (...) To decide when, how and what. Because until now, I can postulate “what”, but the “when” and “how” slow down, and that limits the internal processes of the school (...) educational projects are also slowed down because although they follow the line of the locality, they [also] have local relevance in each community (D1, DME-1).

By contrast, at DME-2, perceptions of unfair distribution of resources are manifested by workers, who explain how, although they got promotions, they maintained their old wages.

I was support for the personnel [Unit], so I was earning a salary (...) I was studying engineering. And in the end, I stayed with the same salary. However, there was no recognition for having that profession either (...) one wants, an economic reward (...) one feels, and says “I deserve a little bit more” (...) for example, [a guy] who is



accountant... He arrived last year, no, this year and he is ten thousand pesos<sup>10</sup> less than me (B3, DME-2).

Concerning the educative communities, DME-2 promotes a hallmark related to equity by giving to each school what they need, and not the same to everybody (unlike DME-1):

Our smallest school has four students. Our largest school has 900. Therefore, they are very different schools, with different endowments, with different budgets. We do not believe in the issue that the cake should be distributed equally for these two schools. We do think of giving more to those who need it most (A1, DME-2).

Despite this stated hallmark, members from rural communities manifest that the students do not receive what they need, which according to them, is an opportunity to receive high-school education in their own localities. Such opportunity is only provided for students in the urban area: *“Here in the countryside there is no high school, the children have to leave (...) to continue their high school studies (...) it is a debt with the people from the countryside”* (D1, DME-2).

Following this, LSPEs, participants perceive an unequal distributive treatment, mainly related to their former DME employees' status: *“They came with that salary that is very high compared to what they should earn here according to the pay grade they have”* (C1, LSPE-1). Furthermore: *“Ideally, that equality is generated within the same Service, both functions, as well as remuneration, rights, and obligations. But it doesn't happen. Unfortunately, it doesn't happen. And professionals here earn differently”* (B7, LSPE-2).

Equally, former DME workers recognise that they may not have the studies requested to access specific roles. However, due to their long experience, usually, they are asked to do the same work as professionals who receive twice their own salary: *“[They fulfil] the same*

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<sup>10</sup> About £9.

*functions. There are even some who fulfil more roles and functions and earn much less than others”* (B7, LSPE-2). Furthermore:

The work that I do and the responsibility that I have in the work that I do, belongs to a higher-level professional than my technical title. Then I see that suddenly there is a professional next to me ... that he earns twice what I earn, and I also help and support him. So, what I'm telling you about happens to me, it happens to several [of us] from different areas, then you begin to say, “shucks! is it worth so much sacrifice, so much effort?” (C2, LSPE-1).

Finally, at LSPE-2, even the members from educative communities perceive an unfair distribution of wages: *“There was a lot of hatred against the Local Service and mainly because here, as a new institution, those of us who arrived have salaries that do not correspond to what a teacher would earn”* (B4, LSPE-2).

## **b) Procedural**

Participants from DME-1 recognise that different procedures have been set to ensure transparency, fairness, and order. However, it is common for members of educative communities to skip them, which can threaten displays of OCB such as Courtesy of Altruism. This aspect is embedded in their organisational culture: *“We have all the protocols [but] many parents skip it, they come to make a claim about a teacher, and they skip all our internal steps (...) and go to speak with the DME director”* (C1, DME-1).

Following this, at DME-2, efforts are described as attempting to democratise the creation of regulations and protocols, encouraging participation and Civic virtue in the educative communities: *“The protocols aim to be participatory (...) the issue of having that fair defence, I say, in all processes, it must be heard, and there has to be a reply. One cannot be dictatorial”* (A2, DME-2).

We made a SWOT analysis with people from all the schools, with the parents, with the students (...) the principals and the management teams of each school, to see their vision (...) all the assistants, service assistants, professionals, teachers (...) plus the complete DME team (A2, DME-2).

Despite these efforts, similarly to DME-1, staff emphasises how procedures are easily skipped by members, carrying out negative consequences for their role performance, and perceptions of unfair treatment towards them:

[The DME director] goes to an activity, and it's typical that the teachers or guardians come and [say] "we need to go to the beach", for example - "yes, yes, yes"- (...) That annoys me, and it always happens the same. So, I say, "why am I coordinating buses?" I find it ridiculous... If they make direct agreements (...) I know that he does it with the best will to try to solve the problem that they have at the school, but the proper way is not followed (C1, DME-2).

Following this, at LSPEs, procedures are still in the process of creation, which considering the lack of clear information and guidelines (see section 4.3.1), has led to tensions with the educative actors:

You make the procedure for the director, and you hope that the director will do it, but you never have an answer (...), and it remains there in the nebula since there is no response to something. So, we do what we believe is correct (...) there are already very negative consequences, we are dissatisfied right now (...) I don't like to talk about percentages, because I don't I know a lot about statistics, but I think that at this moment there is almost 90 per cent of dissatisfied people (C2, LSPE-1).

Following this, malpractices are identified at LSPE-2 related to the lack of transparency in the bonuses' allocation, which has led to dissatisfaction and a gossip environment, negatively impacting perceptions of POJ:

There was a bond for critical functions of 500,000 pesos<sup>11</sup>. Monthly (...), several people fought for that, and that same day a particular person was appointed (...) They showed me the photo of the original documents by phone, so if that bonus was assigned to a person who meets all the requirements... perhaps if there was an internal application to win it, and that is justified, “that's good, colleague, I congratulate you”. But that was not so. So, if I get those comments, obviously, the crew is upset (...). Whom do I have to be friends with then? Or what do I have to do to have that bonus? (B6, LSPE-2).

### **c) Interactional**

Participants manifest different perceptions and experiences regarding IOJ. For instance, at DME-1, managers and workers express that they are treated fairly: *“It’s an internal issue, it’s a code that sometimes, I even jump the legal basis because suddenly, she has had five days [of administrative leave], but if her son got sick, I will not be counting the five days”* (A1, DME-1).

Indeed, according to a manager at DME-2, such treatment can lead to job promotions: Within the same officials that we have, I tell them, “all right, you are going to be in charge of remuneration, and we are going to support you”, so everyone knows that at some point, if they are efficient and effective in their work, they have the [chance] of assuming greater responsibility, so they try to acquire knowledge in order to be able to advance (A2, DME-2).

Such positive perceptions toward the district leader are coherent with the results presented in Figure 15.

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<sup>11</sup> About £455.

Similarly, concerning educative actors: *“The door is always open. And there’ fluid communication between director and staff, teachers. There is no like a distinction. Everyone is treated in the same way”* (C1, DME-1).

Following this, at LSPE-1, interviewees perceive that the district leader treats fairly all members, regardless of their role: *“[The district leader] Her treatment is transversal. If she must call a direct boss to a meeting and the maintenance [staff], she treats them (...) all people are considered”* (C1, LSPE-1). Such perceptions align with the OJS results regarding positive perceptions toward district leaders (see Figure 16). However, this vision contrasts with what is exposed in section 4.3.1.2c regarding employee involvement and managerial style, as administrative workers expressed that they do not feel listened.

Following this, an LSPE-2 participant explains that regardless of the political inheritance from DME workers, everybody has been treated fairly:

Officials who were transferred and new ones who joined are accepted (...) I haven’t seen any differentiation in treatment or camaraderie. They are all colleagues (...) I have not seen any mistreatment or differences there (B7, LSPE-2).

In the same vein, educative communities are treated equally, regardless of their ethnic background: *“Practically all our rural schools are Mapuche (...) No, I cannot make that difference because that difference does not exist. We are all Chileans and brothers, but I cannot make that difference between so many Mapuche and so many non-Mapuche”* (A1, LSPE-2).

Finally, Table 25 summarises the barriers and facilitators to OCB identified per school district. This contrasts perceptions and exposes that some factors can be considered facilitators for one case but a barrier for the other (i.e., types of contracts provided to the staff).

**Table 25. Summary of barriers and facilitators**

	DME-1		DME-2		LSPE-1		LSPE-2	
	B*	F**	B	F	B	F	B	F
<b>Societal</b>								
• Pressure from the system	X				X		X	
• Unprecedented guidelines (bureaucracy)					X		X	
• Political		X		X	X		X	X
• Culture of the territory	X							
<b>Organisational</b>								
• Alignment		X		X	X	X	X	
○ Networks		X		X		X		X
• Working conditions	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
○ Uncertainty	X			X	X		X	
▪ Contracts	X			X	X		X	
▪ End of DMES	X		X	X	X		X	
○ Resources	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
▪ Economic	X		X		X		X	X
▪ HR		X		X	X		X	
▪ Infrastructure	X			X	X		X	
▪ Networks		X		X		X		X
• HRM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
○ Recruitment	X							
○ Role profiles				X		X		
○ Training		X		X	X	X		X
○ Leadership		X		X	X	X	X	X
○ Organisational climate	X		X		X		X	X
▪ Workload	X		X		X		X	
• OJ	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
○ Distributive	X	X	X	X	X		X	
○ Procedural		X	X	X				
○ Interactional		X		X		X		X
• Organisational culture	X		X		X	X	X	X
○ Shared vision and values		X		X		X		X

Note: Own elaboration. \*B: Barrier or threat; \*\*F: Facilitator.

### **4.3.3 RQ 7: Are there any outcomes or consequences of these barriers and facilitators to OCB?**

Although, in this qualitative research, it is not possible to determine a direct causal relation between OCB and outcomes, it is plausible to propose certain associations between the context and particularities of each case studied (i.e., perceptions of OCB and OJ; barriers and facilitators) with possible consequences or outcomes. Thus, through a Grounded Theory analysis (section 3.4.3) this section explores such narratives, presenting them at the group and individual levels.

#### **4.3.3.1 Group level**

At the group level, outcomes or consequences related to a) team's articulation and b) employee relations were identified. These are presented as follows.

##### **a) Team's articulation**

At DME-1, participants mention that they have achieved an important level of coordination as a team, which they highly value: *"There needs to be consistency. Yes, of course, it is very necessary that among us we establish certain operating guidelines"* (D1, DME-1).

In the opposite, at DME-2, participants recognise multiple challenges in terms of articulating the team: *"We sometimes do not see ourselves as very interconnected, they don't have the clarity of whom to talk to, about certain issues"* (A2, DME-2).

Following this, participants from LSPE-1 agree on the lack of articulation and communication and the need to improve these: *"We have worked a lot as islands. We have worked on the contingency"* (B8, LSPE-1). Another participant adds:

For a long time in the Service, there has been an internal communication problem that is very big. First, the lack of knowledge regarding the role that my colleague or the person from another unit plays (...) we must constantly be worried about the work teams and how we are getting feedback on how we improve some actions and that does not happen (B7, LSPE-1).

Similar issues are identified at LSPE-2: *“I think that we are quite self-absorbed in our own task, right? this service still hasn't been able to... weave a network, let's say”* (A4, LSPE-2). Another participant remembers: *“We left from right here, and we had no idea that we were going to the same place, so there is little communication”* (B5, LSPE-2). These shared perceptions are expressed in the diagnosis developed for the LSPE:

Transversally, it is manifested by professionals from different sub-directions [that] there is a lack of knowledge between the teams (...) few collaborative workspaces, with no shared understanding of the need to work in coordination. The foregoing has a direct impact on the existence of a lack of articulation and work protocols between the sub-directions [and] a low level of coordination of initiatives and processes to reach the schools (Estudio 2018, LSPE-2, p. 12).

## **b) Employee relations**

At DME-1, employee relations are described as positive but not exempt from problems, according to participants, do not impact performance:

It's a tremendous team, it's very supportive, that doesn't mean that they don't have difficulties between them because, well, the feelings, suddenly one becomes complicated, one has a stronger character than another, others are softer, and it upsets them, but it's normal in a coexistence (A1, DME-1).

Differently, at DME-2, it is recognised that relations need to improve, especially regarding the inclusion of a foreign worker who has been treated as an alien since her arrival:



*“We are missing instances [to] share more with the other person. It generates friction”* (B3, DME-2). Indeed, those difficulties are described explicitly as xenophobic by the alluded worker: *“In my country there are Chileans, there are Chinese, Japanese, Arabs, and Portuguese, and (...) there is no such crazy xenophobia there as there is here”* (B1, DME-2).

Following this, at LSPE-1, frictions between former DME workers versus non-DME’s have been identified: *“I think it existed, at least until recently, perhaps the municipal versus the people who did not work in the municipality (...) perhaps they continue to identify more with the municipality than with this new public education”* (B7, LSPE-1).

In contrast, at LSPE-2, these differences are not manifested; indeed, the employee relations are perceived as positive. Therefore, the diagnosis developed specifies: *“From a relational dimension, a key facilitator to build trust in an installation period is the good treatment of the team”* (Estudio 2018, p. 13).

#### **4.3.3.2 Individual level**

Positive and negative outcomes or consequences are identified, including perceptions of a) burnout, b) feeling valued and challenged in the workplace, c) engagement and d) trajectory and turnover.

##### **a) Burnout**

Participants manifest a series of burnout signals, which according to their own words, is a consequence of the lack of conditions that ensure the workers' wellbeing. For example, at DME-1, a participant expresses:

It has happened to me that sometimes I wake up at night around four in the morning and I can't fall asleep... and I begin to recount everything that is going to happen the next day (...) so I think that I don't always rest (C1, DME-1).

Equally, members from LSPEs agree that the lack of protective conditions has led to negative consequences: *“There is significant physical wear and emotional wear, and several officials have that, we have it”* (C2, LSPE-1). In addition, at LSPE-2: *“We all realised that we needed to stop (...) There are signs and symptoms and tired colleagues, colleagues who did not have vacations because they are not taking them”* (B6, LSPE-2).

At DME-2, an interviewee narrates an episode when she could no longer cope with the stress: *“That day I shouted that they must do training here so that people can learn to work under pressure because it seems that they don't know how (...) And I shouted at them. Everyone heard it (...) [it is] exhaustion”* (B1, DME-2). Equally, this is experienced by schoolteachers: *“The teachers complain about overwork, they use the word “overwhelmed” a lot. ‘We feel overwhelmed’. There are many things to do”* (D1, DME-1).

Indeed, such burnout experiences, in many cases, have been translated into a high number of psychiatric medical leaves (i.e., stress) in the four school districts: *“The number of psychiatric leaves in the community is high in teachers”* (D1, DME-1). Another participant adds:

The other day I was talking with an HR manager from a mining company that has 10,000 workers, and [he] has three [medical absences] a month...and here we have 40 [medical absences] a day (...) we have a number signed by psychiatrists, which one could infer what are those problems, of course, stress and all that (A4, LSPE-1).

## **b) Feeling valued and challenged**

Regardless of the mentioned challenges, participants in DMEs express that they feel valued in their workplace, which gives them a meaningful sense of citizenship at the organisation and the locality:

It satisfies me or makes me proud to be a citizen within this locality (...) it satisfies you to arrive at a school... Although I am the intermediary, the child's happy face “ah auntie

who brings me a computer!” (...) that is like a personal satisfaction that you somehow intervened or helped to make it happen. So, all those tasks that I do with pleasure are part of my function as a citizen (B2, DME-1).

A similar perception is shared by a member from DME-2: *“I think they love us very much from the schools, there is a very powerful affection”* (A3, DME-2). However, despite this feeling, some participants explain how they often feel overlooked within the office: *“[They need to] strengthen the issue of recognition, which at the end that also affects... Well, here sometimes they say, “oh you did well”, but perhaps not constantly as one would like. Or the bad things are more noticeable”* (B3, DME-2).

Similarly, a participant from LSPE-1 narrates:

Suddenly they consider you for activities, but then they don't, so it's frustrating because you feel that you are capable of collaborating, but you also feel a little contempt that you are left aside in activities that are part of our functions (B7, LSPE-1).

In addition, a factor shared transversally in the four school districts is that participants feel challenged in their roles. Such feeling motivates them to stay in their work and not to seek other job opportunities. For instance, participant A2 at DME-1 explains that when he got a job offer for a higher position in another DME, his answer was, *“I will not be able to accept, the truth is that where I am (...) I am full of challenges”* (A2, DME-1). Indeed, when deciding to apply for a position at the school district, participants explained that it was precisely the challenging feeling that fascinated her: *“I feel that the school can be among the best schools in Chile (...) for me a municipality with resources came together, with a technical DME and a school with high possibilities for improvement”* (D3, DME-2).

Furthermore, at LSPEs, this feeling relates to being part of an unprecedented educational service: *“Here is everything to do, everything to build, and that is the challenge, and that is how I arrived”* (A4, LSPE-2). Other participants explain:

As a new Service, I believe that we have been building this Service to be able to move it forward. The expectations that one has are big (...) To do something that will mark history, so what one aspires to what was being done before, now we improve it (B5, LSPE-2).

When I talk with officials from different areas, I feel that there is a concern and an idea that we are doing something here that is important, that is going to impact people, and that we are going to close gaps with that, okay? So therefore, I feel that this mystique still exists (A4, LSPE-1).

Specifically, one of the managers illustrates how she encourages the perspective of making history in the workers: *“I tell them ‘We are marking a historical milestone, all of us, all of us who are here, all of us, we are making history. You are going to say when you are older’- ‘Damn, I... I was one of the firsts’”* (A1, LSPE-1).

### **c) Engagement and motivation**

Despite all the challenges, participants transversally manifest that they feel engaged and satisfied with their work. At DME-1, this is manifested by managers, district staff and school staff. For instance, one of the managers explains regarding her team: *“I feel engaged to them, and I feel that they are committed to me”* (A1, DME-1). Equally, at DME-2: *“I have a team that is quite committed to community development and student learning, that believes that we are agents of change, that believes that what I do has an impact on [the] students’ learning”* (A1, DME-2).

At the workers level, at LSPE-1, participants manifest their engagement: *“They all have a mystique and the t-shirt<sup>12</sup> put on for public education. So that we can generate changes let’s say, for the benefit of our students (...). Here is the challenge of being able to make*

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<sup>12</sup> In Chile a common saying is to ‘wear the t-shirt’ which refers to be fully engaged with your organisation.

*improvements in education*” (A4, LSPE-1). Meanwhile, at LSPE-2: *“We do have the shirt on because there are colleagues who have had to leave late, super late, taking everything out (...) I think that the majority, I don't know if all, is with the shirt on. [We are] motivated by this”* (C1, LSPE-2).

Similar perceptions are provided by DME staff:

I really like what I do, I put a lot of heart into everything, and shopping is nice, it allows you to meet many [people], that is, apart from what you achieve as a final product, which is to satisfy the needs of schools to buy things that the children are happy (B2, DME-1).

We all have a clear engagement to the department I think we are all very clear (...) the focus is very clear. That is the children, their learning, their wellbeing, so we do not do the work [just because we ought], but because there is something else (A3, DME-2).

In this sense, participants narrate their engagement with public education, which motivated them to apply to their current position. For example, *“Why did I jump to public education? commitment to public education, wanting to improve education in the country, okay? To realise that the children have access to [the best] public education”* (D2-DME-1).

A similar perception is manifested at DME-2: *“I work because the education of the locality is the one that shines”* (D1, DME-2). Equally, at LSPEs, it is explained: *“I join the [challenge]. For me, personally, it has an important subjective value. Being part of a project to improve the quality of education for the poorest children in this country”* (B5, LSPE-1). Another participant adds: *“I believe that public education can be improved (...) I like working with the public, I like working with people, having that closeness (...) that is why I accepted the challenge”* (C1, LSPE-2).

Furthermore, at LSPE-2, a participant manifests that his engagement is precisely given the fact that he comes from the same community and was educated in one of the locality's schools:

[I was] Born and raised here (...) There is an engagement to the community, yes. As they say, "blood pulls", the people also pull (...) a double meaning because you grew up here, know the people, and you can help them too. It is also part of personal social work (...). Everyone knows me! (...) there is a connection. It's different with the people from the locality (B7, LSPE-2).

#### **d) Trajectory and turnover**

In most cases, participants from DMEs narrate different experiences related to the turnover at their offices and a longstanding trajectory in the district. In this regard, such issues have been influenced by their leader and the instances they have facilitated, unveiling the relevance of LMX. For instance, at DME-1, it is explained: *"Here they mostly retire with me (...) I keep 80% of the staff from the previous team because, obviously, I couldn't get them out. Most of them were between 10 and 15 years with the other DME [director]"* (A1, DME-1).

By contrast, at DME-2, participants explain how after the decease of their former district leader, many colleagues left the department due to the lack of conflict management, increasing the turnover:

After that [Death of former DME director], there was a process in which the Department was turned off (...) [many] emigrated because they were perhaps not in agreement with the next director or with the next subrogation... it also caused an internal movement, few of us remained, others left (...) I remember that every six months, I had a different boss (A3, DME-2).

Consequently, workers at the central office have less trajectory than DME-1: *"The team is young"* (A2, DME-2). However, that is not the case for the school communities, as multiple

participants narrate how many generations have been part of the schools. Even in some cases, students have returned to work in their former schools, unveiling a sense of belonging.

We have a teacher who has been working for 33 years (...) Like three generations. So, you are educating the children of the students you had before. So, it's super nice in that aspect. In addition, the same teacher has had children, and their children are teaching with us, so it is like another generation that is developing in the community (A2, DME-2).

Furthermore, members from DME-1 give an account of long trajectories working at the school district and how they have cultivated personal relationships with their colleagues. It is precisely this collaboration, Altruism and Courtesy that linked them: *“She treated me very well when I arrived for an internship 24 years ago. We are friends and comrades because she is [now] my daughter's godmother”* (C1, DME-1).

Finally, considering the recent creation of LSPEs, teams do not have the same trajectory as DMEs. However, as Table 11 unveils, Participants show an important trajectory as public servants. In specific, 23,08% of them have been in the public system between 1 to 5 years, 26,92% between 5 to 10 years and 30,77% from 10 to 20 years. Also, 11,54% from 20 to 30 years. Table 26 summarises the outcomes revised in this section.

**Table 26.** Summary of outcomes

Level	DME-1		DME-2		LSPE-1		LSPE-2	
	+	-**	+	-	+	-	+	-
<b>Group</b>								
Team's articulation	X			X		X		X
Employment relations	X			X		X	X	
<b>Individual</b>								
Burnout		X		X		X		X
Trajectory and turnover	X			X		X		X
Engagement	X		X		X		X	
Feeling valued	X		X	X				

Note: \* Positive; \*\* Negative.

#### **4.4 Summary of findings**

Chapter 4 unveiled a series of relevant findings that advance towards i) analysing forms of OCB manifested by staff from LSPE and DME in Chile and their outcomes, and ii) identifying perspectives of citizenship encouraged by educative policies in Chile. To achieve these aims, three main objectives were proposed and answered through specific research questions, which are summarised as follows.

##### **Objective 1: To examine how Citizenship Education has been encouraged in national educative policies**

This objective is answered through RQ 1 and 2. The first research question explores how education policies encourage citizenship in Chile. Findings revealed a great variety of instruments (plans and programmes) and organisms that encourage and seek to ensure the participation of educative communities.

Instruments can be differentiated by their operation level: district or school. Most of these operating at the district level are designed for LSPEs. Concerning school-level instruments, a predominantly vertical (top-down) articulation is promoted (see Figure 9).

Regarding participative organisms, one of the few instances where community members can participate in district decisions, is at the Local Council (which operates in LSPEs), unveiling a gap in participation for other types of school districts. Furthermore, when their functions are analysed, the findings suggest that in school settings, the only organism that can inform, propose, and resolve is the School Board in LSPEs. Following this, participative organisms whose members are adults are those considered for effective decision-making instances. Despite this scenario, the legislation promotes the formulation of instruments through a collaborative approach to propitiate the dialogue between schools.



Concerning the legislation regarding Citizenship Education, the findings suggest that modules about the subject have been eliminated and reincorporated several times since its introduction in 1912.

The second research question investigates what conceptions of citizenship have been encouraged by history textbooks since the Chilean dictatorship. The findings suggest that since the return to democracy, there have been several curricular reforms and adjustments (2005, 2009 and 2019). Furthermore, there was a switch from providing only cognitive knowledge to promoting skills and abilities in recent years.

Moreover, the textbooks exposed various approaches and emphasis on citizenship. During the dictatorship and the first years after the return to democracy, National citizenship was predominantly encouraged. However, other conceptions of citizenship have been introduced through the years. For example, 1) Post-national, 2) Democratic and social. 3) Active (political, social, communitarian, and civil participation). Also, 4) Multicultural, intercultural, ethnic, and 5) Digital.

Finally, concerning the encouragement of OCB in the textbooks, it was possible to identify its five forms, which have appeared more frequently since the return to democracy.

## **Objective 2: To examine different manifestations of citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE**

This objective is answered through RQ 3 and 4. The third research question explores the forms of citizenship encouraged by participant DMEs and LSPEs. Concerning this, it exposed a significant encouragement of National, Post-national and Democratic citizenship in the four school districts. Active citizenship is promoted in LSPE-1 and 2, but political participation and Social and Communitarian Citizenship are mentioned in all participating school districts. Concerning Multicultural citizenship, this is only revealed in those school

districts where they have witnessed the increment of migrant students to the point that it cannot be longer ignored. Finally, concerning Intercultural and Ethnic citizenship, only LSPE-2 shows a genuine awareness and exercise of these.

Following this, RQ 4 investigates the forms of OCB displayed by the participants. The findings suggest a positive perception; however, the results of GOCB are less optimistic. Significant differences between groups are exposed in the OCB scale towards the colleagues and the GOCB concerning in-role performance (more optimistic in DMEs).

Finally, concerning forms of OCB, these vary in each organisation. However, in most cases, participants manifested the five traditional forms. Furthermore, Civic virtue is promoted (unequally) in the central administration (for managers) and schools (mainly in LSPEs).

### **Objective 3: To examine the main factors influencing citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE**

This objective is answered through RQ 5, 6 and 7. RQ 5 enquires about the main barriers and facilitators to OCB. It was possible to identify these at the societal and organisational levels.

The system's pressure and unprecedented guidelines were perceived at the societal level as threats. Political influence was perceived as a barrier for both LSPEs; it was conceived as a facilitator in both DMEs. Finally, the territory's culture was perceived as challenging.

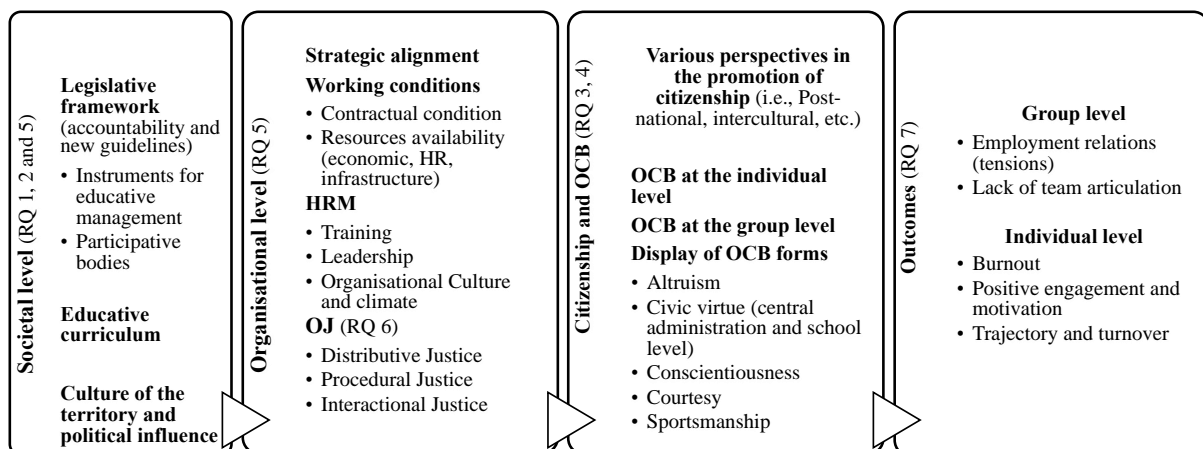
At the organisational level, issues related to a) strategic alignment, b) working conditions, c) HRM and d) organisational culture are discussed. Concerning strategic alignment, establishing external and internal networks was a factor contributing to this purpose. In addition, most participants mentioned uncertainty about the working conditions due to their contractual conditions, the ghost of the de-municipalisation process, and the perceived insufficient resources (economic, HR and infrastructure).

Regarding HRM, participants valued the critical role of leaders as a facilitator for their performance and possible displays of OCB. Concerning the organisational culture, they identified challenges but highlighted efforts to promote a shared vision, hallmark, and values.

RQ 6 explores perceptions of OJ. Regarding DOJ, they perceived an unequal distribution of resources. In terms of POJ, unclear (LSPE-1 and LSPE-2) or bypassed (DME-1 and 2) procedures were recognised. Yet, regarding IOJ, participants transversally perceived a fair interactional treatment.

RQ 7 enquires whether there are any outcomes or consequences of the identified barriers and/or facilitators to OCB at the group and individual levels. Only DME-1 showed perceptions of articulated teams at a group level, whilst participants from other organisations expressed their perceptions of disarticulation (“islands”). At the individual level, participants mentioned burnout due to the perceived heavy workload. However, they manifested a challenging feeling in their role, which gave them a sense of belonging to their organisation. Finally, Figure 16 summarises the exposed findings in line with the integrative theoretical model proposed earlier in this study (see section 2.4).

**Figure 16.** Summary of findings



Note: Own elaboration.

## **CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION**

This final chapter discusses the revised theoretical approaches and empirical results to advance toward answering the objectives and aims proposed.

### **5.1 Discussion**

This section discusses the research questions concerning the gaps and themes presented in the literature review. The aim is to analyse the forms of OCB manifested by staff from LSPE and DME and their outcomes and to identify citizenship perspectives encouraged by Chile's legislation.

#### **5.1.1 RQ 1: How has citizenship been encouraged by the national educative policies in Chile?**

An extensive legislative body has attempted to introduce a series of opportunities for citizens' participation and involvement through developing plans, programmes, participative organisms, and CCE. Nevertheless, several constraints for the effective promotion of citizenship were identified in the analysis of educative policies.

For example, the elimination and reincorporation of the CCE module unveiled how the formal curriculum has not followed a continuous trajectory in the Chilean educative system. Considering that the literature has emphasised the pivotal role of formal education in encouraging participative citizens (Gewirtz, 2000; Jara & Sánchez, 2018), these findings contribute to extending the body of knowledge by providing empirical information to understand the possible factors that could have contributed to the crisis of democracy and citizens' disenchantment described in Chapter 1 and 2 (Dalton, 2004; Print, 2007).

Accordingly, the interrupted provision of civic knowledge and skills in the Chilean context could have influenced the current crisis.

Furthermore, despite the existence of participative bodies at the school and district level, it is unveiled that those who have a resolute influence in decision-making operate only in LSPEs (i.e., Local Council). This situation unveils a gap in the provision of participative instances for members from other administrative dependencies. Moreover, when analysing these specific capabilities and degrees of influence, the results suggest that adults mostly conform to organisms with a resolute voice, whilst bodies led by students are either informed or consulted, and these can propose or advise on specific matters. From the perspective of the ladder of participation, authors have defined that being informed or consulted has been associated with tokenism or pseudo-participation and not with exercises of genuine involvement and participation (Arnstein, 1969, 2019). Accordingly, these findings contribute to research by providing evidence from a specific context and unveiling that it is not enough to create participative mechanisms if these do not ensure effective participation for educative actors.

Likewise, it is unveiled that the legal framework follows an ideological coherence with neoliberal principles (Dardot & Laval, 2013; Sinha, 2005), as instruments and participative bodies promote an agenda where the focus is the individual and immediate peers, eschewing interactions and alignment within and between the school system. Such findings contribute to and extend the body of research in at least three aspects. First, sustaining that during the Chilean dictatorship, individualistic and market-oriented values were promoted in all aspects of society (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Lavín, 1987, Schulz et al., 2018; Van der Ree, 2011).

Second, as it has been suggested, individualistic values become a constraint to displaying OCB (Somech & Oplatka, 2015). Therefore, these findings extend the body of

knowledge by adding evidence from a legislative framework that promotes individualism and limited citizenship behaviours. Third, these results contribute to research by exposing how even though over 30 years have gone by since the end of the dictatorship, neoliberal values and logics still operate and permeate the educative system. Hence, from a systemic point of view (Adams et al., 2014; Luhmann, 1986; Seidl, 2004), it is exposed how the contextual level, through its legislation, has the power to influence, produce and reproduce its logic and dynamics in different levels of the school system.

### **5.1.2 RQ 2: What conceptions of citizenship have been encouraged by the curricular guidelines and history textbooks since the Chilean dictatorship?**

The findings provide empirical information concerning curricular guidelines and citizenship content. The analysis contributes to the literature by exposing a historical coherence with international approaches to CCE in the '80s, which mainly focused on providing civic knowledge (Evertsson, 2015; Haste et al., 2017; Riquelme-Muñoz, 2018; Slonimsky, 2016; Treviño et al., 2017). Further analysis of the curricular evolution indicates that after the 2005 curricular reform, Citizenship training advanced to promote attitudes and abilities (UCA, 2004, 2009, 2019). This switch contributes to research by providing a specific example of a national context that follows the approach of scholars who argue that CCE is encouraged through the provision of civic knowledge, abilities and skills (Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Haste et al., 2017; Luengo-Kanacri & Jimenez-Moya, 2017; Thornhill, 2018; Treviño et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, such efforts were insufficient considering the 2016 ICCS findings, which exposed how Chilean students exhibited more civic knowledge but less civic attitudes and behaviours than other students from Latin America (Treviño et al., 2017). Consequently, the empirical data adds to research by providing an example of a context where extending CCE to

knowledge, skills and attitudes was not enough. A possible explanation of this can be found in the lack of transversality and articulation of the subject in other modules, other aspects of school life, and other actors apart from the teachers. Consequently, this can negatively impact the promotion of citizenship attitudes and behaviours, as stated by several scholars (Da Matta et al., 2015; Freire, 1974, 1990; Haste et al., 2017; Riquelme-Muñoz, 2018).

Following this, the analysis of textbooks unveils that the focus during the dictatorship was on encouraging knowledge about the State and its institutions and other subjects related to national citizenship, as during these years, a new Constitution was promulgated. These findings contribute to research by corroborating authors' suggestions that explain how repressive tend to encourage obedience, routines and learning without questioning, which can threaten the development of autonomous and critical citizens (Da Matta et al., 2015; Freire, 1968, 1974, 1985, 1990; Slonimsky, 2016).

During democracy, other types of citizenship gained relevance, including Post-national, Democratic, Social and Active. In addition, the findings show initial efforts to advance toward Multicultural, Intercultural, and Ethnic Citizenship, contributing to existing research that suggests the need to overcome White, Eurocentric erected models (Beaman, 2015; Bashi & Boatcă; 2016; Tambini, 2001) by providing examples from a context where efforts to advance towards local approaches to citizenship are taken. Furthermore, through the analysis of OCB forms promoted in textbook activities, this research contributes to addressing research gaps related to the expansion of the analysis of OCB, mainly on schoolteachers, to the analysis of its promotion in the students, through educative material.

Finally, the analysis of multiple curricular changes and discontinuous encouragement of citizenship in textbooks contribute to research by providing a contextual example of how the curricular paradox described by Niens et al. (2013) and Slonimsky (2016) can take place (section 2.1.2.1). In this regard, generations of educators and workers from the educative

system were trained in the described scenario. Thus, it can be suggested that requesting them to teach, display and promote citizenship in a new curriculum (and with a new approach) can become a challenge that needs to be addressed by policymakers and educative leaders.

### **5.1.3 RQ 3: What forms of citizenship are encouraged by the participant organisations?**

Considering the findings of RQ 2 that allude to a despairing evolution of CCE in Chile, this question explores what forms of citizenship are promoted in the participant school districts. In this sense, the results contribute to research by adding specific examples of approaches to promoting citizenship in territories. In this regard, citizenship was promoted from multiple perspectives, including National, Post-national, Democratic and Active citizenship (Beaman, 2015; Cabrera, 2000, 2002; Cortina, 2011a Hafner-Fink et al., 2013; Martín-Cabello, 2017; Thornhill, 2018).

Interestingly, and despite international and national curricular efforts to encourage it (Aneesh & Wolover; 2017; Martín-Cabello, 2017; Moon & Koo, 2011), participants did not address the promotion of Global citizenship. These findings contribute evidence to scholars dedicated to the area by showing that further efforts need to be made in this approach.

Following this, Multicultural, Ethnic, and Intercultural citizenship were scarcely promoted in DMEs. Interestingly, this absence is coherent with the evidence collected from the textbooks, where Multicultural and Intercultural citizenship was not significantly encouraged until recently (Hidalgo, 2020a; Luque & Torrejón, 2015; Valdés et al., 2009).

On the other hand, both LSPEs were coherent with the needs of their context (i.e., LSPE-2 located in Mapuche territory) and with the spirit of Law 21.040 (2017), which seeks to promote inclusive projects with local pertinence. Therefore, it is particularly interesting to examine the case of LSPE-2, which designs and supports actions to foster Intercultural citizenship at the school and district levels. For example, Mapuche professionals are



responsible for the intercultural network. Such efforts follow the line suggested by Andía (2006) and Cortina (2011b), who refer to Intercultural citizenship as acknowledging different cultures and active dialogue between these to reach agreements and decisions. Consequently, these findings contribute to the literature that follows a systemic approach (Adams et al., 2014; Luhmann, 1986) by giving examples of how the context and characteristics of the territory where organisations are embedded clearly impact the type of education provided. Furthermore, these can enlighten research dedicated to intercultural education to understand better contexts and circumstances where this is facilitated or limited.

#### **5.1.4 RQ 4: What forms of OCB are displayed by employees from the participant DME and LSPE?**

Participants narrated examples of displays of the five traditional forms of OCB proposed by Organ (1988, 1995). Through these examples, the findings address the research gap associated with the lack of studies approaching the phenomenon from a qualitative and mixed-methods perspective.

In this sense, although there was evidence of displaying the five forms of OCB, the results unveil that one of the dimensions that had significant resistance was Civic virtue. In all cases, SDs provided institutionalised spaces for managers' participation. Hence, their perceptions were positive. However, when analysing roles with lower levels of responsibility, it was expressed that participative spaces were discretionary to the line managers. Indeed, clerical staff perceived limited opportunities to participate. Besides, Civic virtue at the school level unveiled an important provision of participative instances, showing that efforts were mainly oriented towards educative communities but not towards members of the central administration. These findings contribute to the literature by adding a specific example of Jill Graham's (2000) proposals, which refer to the likelihood of effective participation to find

resistance at the organisational level, especially in hierarchical contexts. Indeed, here is relevant to note that at DME-1, a less hierarchical and complex organisation than LSPEs, workers felt listened to, regardless of the lack of formal instances.

This research contributes to the literature by providing the unique and unprecedented visions, conceptions, meanings, significances, and points of view of scarcely researched actors from the educative system: school district staff. In addition, the findings from this RQ advance to analysing OCB displays at the individual and group level, complementing quantitative and qualitative information. Indeed, most studies about OCB in the educative system have focused their attention on teachers (individual level) in the schools (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Oplatka, 2006; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Somech & Ron, 2007). Besides, the visions and perceptions provided contribute to the literature by giving voice to educative actors from an under-researched context, as scarce studies about OCB have been developed in Latin America.

Furthermore, several authors suggest the need to advance from measuring OCB at the individual level to incorporating its study at the system and group level as OCB flourishes in a context (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). For this reason, this study complements existent research by exploring OCB and GOCB through the application of a scale that unveiled positive perceptions from the participants towards the individual and collective OCB (GOCB). However, despite these optimistic general findings, a t-test unveiled that at DMEs, there was more agreement than in LSPEs, concerning OCB towards the colleagues and GOCB about in-role performance.

Hence, these findings contribute to addressing the research gap related to the lack of studies reporting the application of the OCB and GOCB scales (Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007) in Spanish-speaking contexts, in the specific region of Latin America and school district staff.

### **5.1.5 RQ 5: What are the main barriers and facilitators to OCB perceived by DME and LSPE members?**

This qualitative enquiry allows this research to contribute to the existent body of knowledge by providing a unique perspective that explores barriers and facilitators to citizenship and OCB. As it has been explained in previous chapters, studies dedicated to the latter have been mainly based on a quantitative enquiry, lacking exploration of the barriers and facilitators to promote and display OCB from the voice of the participants (section 2.2.2). In addition, the study of OCB in educational systems has been mainly dedicated to the school level (section 2.2.3). These findings contribute to these research gaps by exploring an organisation scarcely addressed: school districts.

Furthermore, scholars suggest the need to analyse OCB at different levels, such as the individual, group and organisational (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Oplatka, 2006; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007). Besides, Somech, and Ron (2007) highlight the need to advance to the contextual (societal) determinants that impact OCB, as this has been scarcely studied. Consequently, RQ 5 contributes to extend this body of research by presenting the factors that impact the display of OCB of school district staff, considering the societal and organisational levels.

At the *Societal level*, scholars propose that systems can inhibit or promote OCB (Somech & Oplatka, 2015; Somech & Ron, 2007). In line with these assumptions, the findings complement these studies by unveiling that, in a neoliberal context, participants perceived that those multiple demands, accountability and regulations from the system were pressuring factors that prevented them from going the extra mile.

Interestingly, there was no agreement regarding the perceptions of political influence, which were positive for DMEs and negative for LSPEs. Although the impact of political influence on OCB has been scarcely researched, these findings contribute to the study of role

autonomy and OCB (Altinkurt et al., 2016; Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Somech, 2016; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Indeed, these suggest that those participants who perceived support from the Town Mayors, and autonomy to develop their roles, conceived political influence as a facilitator.

Moreover, participants recognised the influence of different cultures in their territory. For example, rural communities were more participative than urban, which was explained by their sense of belonging to a community where everybody knew each other. These findings extend the body of knowledge proposed by authors such as Somech and Oplatka (2015), who suggest that collectivist cultures in educative settings are expected to foster OCB. A second cultural trait identified was concerning the machismo and patriarchy manifested particularly by senior male staff from schools. Considering that few studies have been developed in this area, these findings extend the research dedicated to gender differences in the display of OCB (Altinkurt et al., 2016; Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Lin, 2008) by identifying a factor that could influence this and suggesting the need to explore it further.

At the *Organisational level*, four main areas emerged as facilitators or inhibitors to OCB. First, concerning Strategic Alignment, both LSPEs manifest that there are trying to advance towards this; nevertheless, they expected to advance towards it in a participative manner. However, only DME-2 seemed to be advancing towards this alignment participatively through a SWOT analysis developed in the entire school district. Indeed, this participative approach provides an example of how a school district propitiated Civic virtue instances for its community (Jimmieson et al., 2010; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Besides, establishing internal and external networks allowed SDs to share experiences, help and learn from others. Consequently, these findings contribute to research exploring factors influencing OCB (Belogolovsky & Somech, 2010; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009) by suggesting that networks can emerge as facilitators and tools to exhibit OCB.

Second, in terms of Working Conditions, participants perceived two main sources of uncertainty for their role performance: a) unequal contractual conditions and b) the de-municipalisation process, conceived as a threat to jobs and local pertinence. These findings contribute to research dedicated to exploring role conflict and ambiguity as threats to OCB (Brawley & Pury, 2017; Lam et al., 2016; Podsakoff et al., 2000). In specific, by providing a unique example of an educative context where although organisations are transitioning to improve their actions but, certain practices such as the lack of job stability (contracts) are sustained in both new and old SDs.

Another aspect of Working Conditions was the lack of resources (HR, economic and/or infrastructure). Yet, both LSPEs reported conflicts associated with an over-dotation of school staff, inherited from the former DMEs. In this sense, the findings somehow contradict the body of research that has been dedicated to analysing the relationship between the adequate provision of resources and the display of OCB (Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013; Somech & Oplatka, 2015; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). In particular, these demonstrate how despite resource constraints, participants still manifested OCB, especially in the form of Conscientiousness.

The third aspect at the organisational level was the HRM factor. The literature suggests that actively engaging in HRM strategies, such as providing training resources or selection and recruitment processes, influence organisational citizen's trajectory by enabling perceptions of fairness and OJ (Graham, 2000; Somech & Oplatka, 2015). However, the analysed cases unveil how in general, their HRM efforts were predominantly oriented to school members rather than central administration. Consequently, these findings complement the literature by sustaining how the lack of HRM can be detrimental to OCB displays (Inandi & Büyüközkan, 2013).

Another aspect of HRM was the positive perception of leaders, characterised by their openness to listen to different opinions and perspectives. Accordingly, in the analysed cases, leadership was crucial for encouraging different OCB forms, including Civic virtue,

Conscientiousness, and Altruism. Such findings complement the proposals of different authors who recognise the pivotal influence of leadership in the manifestation of OCB (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Somech, 2016).

The fourth aspect at the Organisational level was Organisational Culture (OC). In this sense, participants narrated how they perceived that educative actors resisted adapting to new strategies and plans (DME-1 and DME-2) or a new type of administration for educational management (LSPE-1 and LSPE-2). Moreover, the results suggest that such resistance limits the displays of Civic virtue due to the lack of interest in effective participation and the manifestation of opinions (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Graham, 1986; Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1997). These findings open the question for further research about how (the lack of) change management strategies could become an inhibitor to the display of OCB. Indeed, it is relevant to note that in the SLR developed by this author, scarce studies exploring this subject were identified (section 2.2).

Despite these OC challenges, both LSPEs manifested efforts to promote shared organisational values, a hallmark and vision related to their valuable contribution to education. Accordingly, these findings extend the body of research that has explored how values promoted in educational systems can directly influence OCB (Somech & Ron, 2007).

Concerning perceptions of Organisational Climate, the four school districts lacked institutionalised strategies to support it. These findings can contribute to research by providing specific examples of the lack of management of this aspect. As the literature suggests, perceptions of unjust, toxic, or destructive climates have been identified as inhibitors to the display of OCBs (Somech & Oplatka, 2015; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). In opposition, when the organisational climate is perceived as positive (i.e., collaborative, and supportive), OCB is more likely to be developed (Goess & Smith, 2018; Moorman, 1991).

Finally, considering the lack of research analysing the influence of the societal level in OCB, these unprecedented findings suggest that pressure for participants did not come only from parents and guardians. Indeed, this pressure also came from the societal and organisational level due to a divergent legislative body, new normative guidelines, political influence, and the territory's culture.

#### **5.1.6 RQ 6: What perceptions of OJ are manifested by the participants?**

Several authors explain that perceptions of fair treatment in their organisations can determine social exchange and, in turn, OCB (Graham, 1991; Moorman, 1991; Oplatka, 2006; Organ, 1990; Somech & Oplatka, 2015; Yilmaz & Tasdan, 2009). Thus, the findings presented in this section are key to understanding the display and dynamics of OCB in the analysed cases. Furthermore, this can contribute to addressing the research gap mentioned in section 2.3 concerning the lack of studies dedicated to analysing these factors, in the educative sector, in a Latin American context and by school district staff.

Results from the scale showed positive perceptions of OJ, especially regarding the district leader. Considering that most research has focused on the role of school principals in promoting OJ, such results contribute to the literature by providing perceptions regarding the scarcely studied district leader. Indeed, these findings complement the literature that studies leaders' relevance at the district level in ensuring and promoting fairness in their organisations (Jafari et al., 2011; Lim & Loosemore, 2017; Zapata et al., 2016). As Jafari et al. (2011) explain, OJ can be negatively impacted when weak organisational structures and leadership are perceived.

Following this, regarding DOJ, actors transversally perceived unfair distribution of resources either for the schools (DME-1 and DME-2) or in allocating wages, promotions and bonuses for staff (DME-2, LSPE-1 and LSPE-2). Such findings contribute to extending the

literature, which has suggested that perceptions of DOJ emerge precisely when organisational members contrast what they receive with what their colleagues receive (Buluc, 2015; Ferhat-Özbek et al., 2016).

Concerning POJ, although procedures were set, educative communities skipped them, questioning whether these should exist. Moreover, at LSPE-2, perceptions were negative as procedures were unclear and non-transparent. In contrast, DME-2 was advancing towards setting procedures in a participative manner. These cases expand the body of knowledge that suggests that to ensure POJ, actors whom such procedures will impact should be involved in their design (Aydin & Karaman-Kepeneci, 2008; Buluc, 2015). Furthermore, these contribute to expanding the body of research dedicated to individualistic values and OJ (Demir, 2015; Pool, 2008). Specifically, these provide an example from a neoliberal context where decision-making about procedures tends to be set externally rather than by the concerning actors, diminishing their participation and impacting negatively on perceptions of POJ.

Concerning IOJ, participants unveiled positive perceptions. Interestingly, a key actor to ensure it was the district leader. These findings emerge as an unprecedented contribution to research dedicated to analysing this aspect by providing evidence of the perceived positive influence of school district leaders in ensuring IOJ. This suggests that a positive IOJ promoted by the leader could allow followers to tolerate unfairness in other areas, as suggested by authors (Lim & Loosemore, 2017).

#### **5.1.7 RQ 7: Are there any outcomes or consequences of these barriers and facilitators to OCB?**

The results contribute to the scarce body of research dedicated to OCB in Latin American school districts by exposing possible outcomes or consequences at the group and individual level of the mentioned dynamics of facilitators and inhibitors (RQ 5 and 6).



Teams were articulated at the group level, only in DME-1, whilst members from the other three school districts perceived the opposite. Besides, although employment relations were positively perceived, several tensions were identified by participants. These findings can contribute to the literature that has proposed that OCB can improve collective performance and team efficacy (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Liu et al., 2017; Organ, 1988) by exposing how despite the display of OCB, other factors can hinder team performance. For instance, research has proposed organisational strategies' key role in supporting OCB and reducing group conflict (Han et al., 2016). These findings extend this body of knowledge by reporting cases where such strategies did not exist.

Besides, at the individual level, positive and negative outcomes were identified. Participants manifested burnout due to the heavy workload. Paradoxically, despite this, they transversally mentioned their high motivation and engagement with the role they are developing. Moreover, at DME-1 it was unveiled low turnover. Interestingly, in all SDs, participants showed long trajectory in the educative sector. These findings extend the scarce body of knowledge dedicated to the negative consequences of staff not managing OCB in school districts.

Equally, similar to research developed in the educative sector (Potipiroon & Rubin, 2018; Somech, 2016; Yilmaz, 2010), these results suggest that in contexts where resources are limited, staff might engage in extra efforts and energy to attain educational goals. For instance, excessively working extra hours, deriving in burnout and compromising their personal and private time.

Finally, Table 27 summarises and highlights the main findings of this multiple case study developed in LSPEs and DME.

**Table 27. Summary of the findings**

RQ	Findings
1. How has citizenship been encouraged by the national educative policies and laws in Chile?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Instruments (plans and programmes):</b> Great variety, yet, at the district level, most of these operate in LSPEs. School-level: in all types of administrative dependency, regulations promote a predominantly vertical articulation (top-down).</li> <li>• <b>Participative organisms:</b> Great variety for all educative actors. However, in terms of capabilities (functions), only at LSPEs have a particular influence on decision-making processes. Effective participation is still limited for educative communities and district staff. Most organisms concentrate on adults rather than students.</li> <li>• <b>Module for Citizenship Education:</b> Eliminated and reincorporated several times. Contents and focuses have changed.</li> </ul>
2. What conceptions of citizenship have been encouraged by curricular guidelines and history textbooks since the Chilean dictatorship?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>National:</b> Strongly promoted during the dictatorship and first years of democracy.</li> <li>• <b>Other conceptions</b> were introduced through the years, including citizenship as Post-national, Democratic and social; Active (political, social, communitarian and civil participation). Multicultural, intercultural and/or ethnic and digital.</li> <li>• Different projects and activities encourage the five OCB forms.</li> </ul>
3. What forms of citizenship are encouraged by the participant organisations?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>National and post-national:</b> All SDs.</li> <li>• <b>Democratic:</b> Debates (DME-1, DME-2, LSPE-2); Social justice (DME-2, LSPE-2); Participation (All SDs).</li> <li>• <b>Active</b> (LSPE-1, LSPE-2). A) Political participation (i.e., voting in elections. All SDs). B) Social and communitarian: Getting involved in the community (DME-1, LSPE-2) and informing them about their community's organisations (DME-2, LSPE-1). C) Civil participation: Workers' participation in trade unions and strikes (all SD). Negative perceptions regarding strike action by managers (DME-1, LSPE-2).</li> <li>• <b>Multicultural:</b> Respect, tolerance, and appreciation for cultural diversity. Only present in SDs where there has been an increment of migrant students.</li> <li>• <b>Intercultural:</b> DME-2 and LSPE-1 declare it in their district instruments (PADEM and PEL). Only in LSPE-2 unveiled is a genuine exercise of interculturality.</li> <li>• <b>Ethnic:</b> Indigenous heritage (LSPE-1) and ethnic identity (LSPE-2).</li> </ul>

4. What forms of OCB are displayed by employees from the participant DME and LSPE?
- **OCB at the individual level:** Positive evaluation of personal display of OCB, including in-role performance and towards the organisation and colleagues. OCB towards the colleagues: significative differences between both groups. DME has more agreement.
  - **OCB at the group level:** Perceptions are less optimistic than individual OCB. In-role performance: significative differences between both groups. DME has more agreement.
  - **Forms of OCB:** Displays in all SDs of the five forms. Civic Virtue at the district and school level.
5. What are the main barriers and facilitators to OCB perceived by DME and LSPE members?
- **Societal level:** a) Pressure from the system and unprecedented guidelines are barriers for LSPEs and DME-1. B) Political influence of Town Majors is perceived as a facilitator at DMEs and a barrier for LSPEs. C) Culture of the territory, such as sexism (DME-1, LSPE-1), rurality (versus) urbanity challenge participation.
  - **Organisational level:** DMEs strategically aligned their territory, but the participation of educative communities was limited. At LSPEs, alignment was an aim and planned to be achieved participatively (Internal networks helped). Barriers to working conditions include uncertainty (unequal contractual conditions at DME-1, LSPE-1, and LSPE-2). Also, the de-municipalisation process and lack of resources (economic, HR and infrastructure). Regarding HRM, training opportunities facilitated DME-1, DME-2, and LSPE-2, and a barrier due to its unequal provision for LSPE-1. Leadership was recognised transversally as a facilitator. Organisational Culture was a threat due to resistance to change (all SDs) and DME inheritance (both LSPEs), limiting participation and civic virtue. The lack of strategies to support organisational climate threatened wellbeing. Most efforts were oriented only towards the schools.
6. What are the perceptions of OJ manifested by participants from DME and LSPE?
- Positive perceptions of OJ provision from the district leader.
- **DOJ:** Unfair distribution of salaries (DME-2, LSPE-1 and 2). Unfair payment to former DME workers (both LSPEs).
  - **POJ:** Procedures were bypassed by staff (DME-2) and educative communities (DME-1, DME-2, LSPE-1). Unclear and unfair (LSPE-2).
  - **IOJ:** Transversally positive.
7. Are there any outcomes or consequences of these barriers and facilitators to OCB?
- **Group level:** Lack of articulation among teams (DME-2, LSPE-1, and LSPE-2). Tensions in employment relations (DME-1, DME-2, LSPE-1). At LSPE-2, there were attempts to develop strategies to support organisational climate.
  - **Individual-level:** Transversally, participants expose burnout due to heavy workload. However, they felt engaged and motivated with their contribution to education. At DME-1, workers had a long trajectory and low turnover (school and district level). In both LSPEs, this is comparatively minor due to their recent creation.
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## **CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION**

This chapter presents the conclusion of this study, which reflects on the objectives, research problem and rationale that inspired it (section 6.1). Following this, theoretical and practical implications (section 6.2) are presented, in addition to limitations and suggestions for future research.

### **6.1 Concluding words**

This doctoral thesis was conducted with the purpose of studying the Chilean context. Due to a series of neoliberal regulations implemented during the Chilean dictatorship, the country became one of the most unequal societies in the world, and its educational system is one of the most segregated (Marcel, 2009; OECD, 2012). This situation is critical, considering that a country's education is key to overcoming inequalities and achieving social cohesion (OECD, 2012). Moreover, the country has faced a series of crises related to citizens' disenchantment with the current system, demanding more participation and less segregation (Rifo, 2013; Silva, 2007). These antecedents acquire importance considering that engaged citizens are the engine for social change (Baildon et al., 2016; Díazgranados & Sandoval-Hernández, 2017; Freire, 1974; Print, 2007).

Besides, school districts have been recognised for their key role as “hinges” that can connect demands from the top (i.e., Ministry of Education) and bottom (i.e., schools) of the system (NSBA, 2017; Raczynski, 2012). Despite this, research has failed to explore the role of school districts in promoting and encouraging citizenship and OCB. Nevertheless, it can be suggested that these can replicate certain approaches underpinning the political and social background.

Consequently, and pondering the potential dictatorial inheritance, when this research began, the author expected to explore the legislative context by analysing if educative policies

encouraged or discouraged citizenship. Further, assuming the influence of the context in the organisations' functioning (von Bertalanffy, 1956), the second aim was to examine what forms of OCB were manifested by participants. This follows the hypothesis in Chapter 1 that school districts created during the dictatorship (DMEs) limited the promotion and encouragement of citizenship and OCB in contrast to school districts created during democracy (LSPEs). Accordingly, this section presents the following conclusions of the enquiries that led this research journey.

### **6.1.1 Objective 1: To examine how Citizenship Education has been encouraged in national educative policies.**

The findings suggest that citizenship is promoted through instruments (plans and programmes), participative bodies and Citizenship Education modules. However, despite the existence of these instances, genuine participation is limited.

In line with the free-market' individualistic principles promoted by neoliberalism and embedded in the Chilean society (Dardot & Laval, 2013; Sinha, 2005). The legislative framework predominantly promotes the pseudo-participation of educative actors where the conditions of this participation vary according to the actor's age, his/her role in the community, and the type of administrative dependency of the school.

Furthermore, the discontinuous emphasis on CCE and Citizenship Education in the curriculum creates a perfect stage to promote weak conceptions of citizenship, primarily characterised by cognitive knowledge rather than skills and abilities to become authentic citizens.

### **6.1.2 Objective 2: To examine different manifestations of citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE.**

The findings unveil a coherence with the legislative and curricular framework, where National and Post-national citizenship were promoted transversally in the four school districts. Following this, SDs that were embedded in circumstances that demanded it actively promoted Ethnic, Multicultural and Intercultural citizenship. Accordingly, it is possible to conclude that SDs hardly went beyond “*the extra mile*” (Somech, 2016, p. 428), meeting only the legislative or curricular requirements.

Following this, and in opposition to this study's hypothesis that DMEs were less participative because they were created in a dictatorship, perceptions of participation and display of OCB were more positive in DMEs than LSPEs.

In conclusion, following the legislative framework and the system's requirements, SD efforts were mainly oriented on ensuring the (mandatory) participation of educative communities, with scarce efforts to themselves or to go beyond the system's checklist. Such a conclusion opens questions of: how genuine participative instances are? Do they exist because the legislation orders them?

### **6.1.3 Objective 3: To examine the main factors influencing citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE.**

These findings constitute an unprecedented contribution to the literature by examining the influence of scarcely researched levels (societal and organisational) in OCB. Thus, it unveiled the relevant impact of societal, organisational, and OJ contexts in developing OCB.

Furthermore, when exploring the group and individual consequences of these dynamics, it is possible to suggest the need to advance from studying OCB at the individual

level to an integrated multilevel systemic approach. Considering that the proposed outcomes and consequences were not direct results of one single factor, this is the outcome of a composition of dynamics, conditions and intertwined relations and factors. Here lies the main contribution of this study, which constitutes a unique enquiry that pictures dynamics from two different organisations, DMEs, which have an expiry date and LSPEs, which are just beginning their journey through education.

Furthermore, considering that research about OCB has been traditionally focused on schoolteachers at the school level, these findings highlight the need to consider the individuals that make possible the “hinge” metaphor of SDs: the school district staff. These are responsible for implementing and channelling ideologies, demands and needs from all system levels. Table 28 summarises the main results per objective.

**Table 288.** Findings in relation to the research objectives

Aims	Objectives	Findings
To identify perspectives of citizenship encouraged in the national educative policies in Chile.	1. To examine how Citizenship Education has been encouraged in national educative policies.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Legislation promotes citizenship through instruments for educative management and participative organisms for educative governance, but these have limited capacities and predominantly operate in LSPEs. Organisms with resolutive functions are adult-centric. The more private the educative administration, the less regulated the legislative body regarding participation and citizenship.</li> <li>• CCE and the module for Citizenship Education have been discontinuous and, until 2005, promoted cognitive knowledge rather than skills and abilities.</li> <li>• In terms of citizenship promotion, during the dictatorship and early '90s, a predominant national orientation. Other perspectives were introduced throughout the years.</li> </ul>
To analyse the forms of OCB manifested by staff from the new (LSPE) and old (DME) school districts in Chile and their outcomes for the district.	<p>2. To examine different manifestations of citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE.</p> <p>3. To examine the main factors influencing citizenship and OCB among DME and LSPE.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Predominant promotion of National and Post-national citizenship, but other forms are also promoted, including Democratic and Active. In addition, however, Multicultural, Ethnic and Intercultural Citizenship is promoted when the sociodemographic context demands it.</li> <li>• Five forms of OCB are manifested, but Civic virtue is mainly promoted for educative actors rather than SD staff. Yet, perceptions of OCB at the group level are less positive than perceptions of OCB at the individual level.</li> <li>• Barriers and facilitators at the societal (pressure from the system, political influence, culture of the territory) and organisational level (strategic alignment: networks. Working conditions: Resources. HRM: Training and leadership. Organisational culture and climate).</li> <li>• Perceptions of unfair DOJ and POJ, but fairness in IOJ. Key role of leaders in promoting the latter.</li> <li>• Outcomes at the group (lack of team articulation and tensions in employment relations) and individual level (motivation, engagement, long trajectory in education and low turnover).</li> </ul>



## **6.2 Implications**

This research analysed the forms of OCB manifested by staff from LSPE and DME and their outcomes for SDs, and identified perspectives of citizenship encouraged in the educative policies in Chile, supposing theoretical and practical implications for educative communities, practitioners, policymakers, and researchers. Such implications are presented in the following sections.

### **6.2.1 Theoretical implications**

By developing a Multiple Case Study through a selection of mixed methods with a predominantly qualitative approach, this research contributes to the field by exploring the meanings and perspectives by giving voice to the participants. This methodological approach has been scarcely developed in OCB studies, which have predominantly explored the phenomenon from a quantitative perspective through questionnaires.

Furthermore, as exposed in the literature revision, studies of OCB in the educative field are relatively recent and have been predominantly oriented toward teachers at the school level. Indeed, few studies have been developed looking at School Districts. For these reasons, rather than following the trend of previous studies, which mostly looked at individual and group levels, this research assumes the influence of acknowledging that all levels of the system impact OCB. Accordingly, it advances to propose its study at the societal, organisational, group and individual levels.

In addition, this study contributes to extending the body of knowledge about how citizenship and OCB are encouraged and manifested in a Latin-American society. Indeed, such topics have been under-researched despite the relevance of studying them in a context where

citizens' rights were repressed. Accordingly, this analysis provides localised, contingent knowledge to advance from traditional euro-centric perspectives of citizenship and OCB.

### **6.2.2 Practical implications**

This work constitutes a novel study in the Chilean context, which seeks to contribute to the debate on how to foster and support citizenship by exploring its displays. Moreover, in light of the evolving organic of school districts in Chile (de-municipalisation process), the role of an often-overlooked member of the educative system is highlighted: the district staff. This research makes a real contribution to district managers concerning the relevance of supporting, encouraging, and appreciating OCB in their staff (Altinkurt & Yilmaz, 2012; Goess & Smith, 2018; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007).

Indeed, in front of challenging conditions, OCB can hardly flourish. Accordingly, the pivotal role of setting institutionalised strategies to support the users (i.e., school' communities) and the people responsible for delivering the service is suggested. Indeed, functions of HRM can serve this purpose. For example, establishing supportive and meaningful networks, organisational climate management, fair provision of training opportunities, team building, employment relations and wellbeing support, and auditing of working conditions (i.e., including workload, provision of resources, hygienic variables, etcetera), among others.

Furthermore, the distribution of resources and procedures is key to OCB development to ensure fairness in treatment. Consequently, paying attention to and managing these conditions is critical, as educative organisations cannot rely on their workers' engagement without ensuring minimum working conditions and resources for their staff.

Following this, the study contributes to policymakers by exposing the need to revisit the legislative body to ensure the promulgation of contextualised policies that equally reach all educative system members, regardless of their type of funding (i.e., private and private

subsidised) or role. In terms of the latter, this work exposes how, despite the robust legislative body, participation of educative communities is limited to specific spaces and actors and conditioned to certain functions, transmitting certain illusions rather than genuine instances. Accordingly, it is suggested not only to empower and enhance the existing spaces but also to ensure representativity in the participation of all members of the educative system, including district staff. To do so can contribute to the provision of genuine inclusive mechanisms for citizen participation in educative settings that can advance to articulate members of the educative system and ultimately achieve fairness and social justice.

### **6.2.3 Implications for educative communities**

This study was developed *because of* and *for* educative communities and aimed to highlight the role each actor from the school system can have towards social justice, achieving education of quality and overcoming segregation and inequalities.

Thus, by exploring how citizenship and OCB are promoted and displayed, the objective is to emphasise how relevant these are and why educative actors not only should have the right, but the duty to demand and ensure that they have a voice, a safe space, and mechanisms to effectively participate in decision-making processes about issues that will impact them.

From students to parents, from assistants of education to schoolteachers, from school principals to members of managerial teams, and from administrative staff to district leaders. As this study highlighted, each member matters and is part of a bigger engine that only works when all its parts are acknowledged. For this purpose, participative mechanisms must be ensured, protected, used, and reimagined by the concerned parts. Displays of citizenship and OCB are only possible when citizens perform their role in their organisations and the society they are embedded, which is a challenge. As Paulo Freire stated, “*education is an act of love, and thus, an act of courage*” (1969).

#### **6.2.4 Limitations and suggestions for future research**

Despite the contribution this research can make to educative communities, practitioners and policymakers, the study has certain limitations. For instance, initially, the researcher sought to explore the cognitive and non-cognitive outcomes of the students. However, this objective was impossible due to the COVID-19 pandemic, as measuring instruments such as the SIMCE measurement for educative quality were not applied.

Furthermore, the conditions generated during the pandemic constrained interaction spaces to virtual spaces, making it impossible to focus on any outcomes, as the challenge was the process itself. Future research can explore those cognitive and non-cognitive results to explore if all the dynamics presented impact the students' learning.

Moreover, considering the forthcoming post-pandemic context, other studies could analyse displays and encouragement of citizenship and OCB, exploring whether there is an impact on how organisational citizens relate to each other after a long period when organisational relations and dynamics were conducted through a screen and during the lockdown. Would there impact how organisational citizens behave and experience their organisations? Would our participation in society and our organisations be compromised after this unique experience? Do we still have the same concept of citizenship and organisational citizenship?

Another limitation is the short trajectory both participant LSPEs had at the moment of data collection. Consequently, this research explores their experiences in promoting citizenship and OCB in a moment when LSPEs were young and still in implementation. Future research could address the same aspects once these organisms are fully implemented and in execution. Furthermore, and in light of the findings, other studies could explore the phenomenon in other types of administrative dependency: the private and private-subsidised, which, as the

legislation unveils, are scarcely regulated compared to the public sector. Furthermore, other sectors and industries in Chile and the Latin American context could be considered in future research.

In addition, given the novelty of the study of OCB in the Chilean context, future research could precisely explore the topic at the school level to advance understanding of what these actors experience. Moreover, considering that this research adopted an emergent categories analytical approach, findings concerning district alignment (top-down/bottom-up) and systemic barriers and facilitators suggest the need for future research to adopt these approaches when studying the encouragement of citizenship and OCB.

Finally, concerning methodology, the need to work on a national validation of the OCB and OJ scales is proposed, as these instruments have not been validated in Spanish-speaking contexts yet.

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## ANNEXE

### Annexe: Literature review

#### Annexe 1.1 Variables that predict OCB and possible outcomes of OCB in educative settings.

<b>Contextual characteristics as predictors</b> 17.88%	<b>Predictors at the individual level</b> 46.64%	<b>Predictors at the group level</b> 3.7%	<b>Leadership/Managers as predictors</b> 17.88%	<b>OCB</b> 3.63%	<b>Outcomes</b> 10.9%
<b>Societal characteristics (1.96%)</b>	<b>Personal/Individual characteristics (10.61%)</b>	Team innovation 0.56%	Leadership 5.31%	OCBI 1.96%	<b>Expected School outcomes (1.4%)</b>
Cultural values 0.56%	Personal Traits 1.96%	Group-level 0.28%	Transformational leadership 3.07%	Civility 0.28%	Service quality 0.56%
Collectivism 0.56%	Gender 1.68%	Interpersonal trust 0.28%	Trust 2.79%	OCBI towards students: 0.28%	High-performance 0.28%
Contextual variables 0.28%	Age/Generational difference/Seniority 0.84%	Knowledge-sharing 0.28%	Leader-member exchange 2.23%	OCB transference to students 0.28%	Quality of school life 0.28%
Production-based education 0.28%	Individual values 0.84%	Mobbing 0.28%	Leadership style 1.40%	OCB towards colleagues: 0.28%	School-ethical climate 0.28%
Patriotism 0.28%	Personal initiative 0.84%	Social loafing 0.28%	Transactional leadership 0.84%	OCB towards colleagues: 0.28%	<b>Students' outcomes (3.63%)</b>
<b>School characteristics (3.35%)</b>	Career aspirations 0.28%	Teachers' relationships 0.28%	Authentic leadership 0.56%	Group OCB (GOCB) 0.56%	
Social networks 0.56%	Career satisfaction 0.28%	Team learning 0.28%	Organisational silence 0.28%		
social desirability 0.28%	Emotional Ethics 0.28%		Shared leadership 0.28%		
Parents involvement 0.28%	Ethnicity 0.28%				
Work-family culture 0.28%	Dispositional characteristics 0.28%				
Socioeconomic status 0.28%	Emotional aspects 0.28%				
School size 0.28%	intelligence 0.28%				
Adult education 0.28%					

Classroom management 0.28%	Health 0.28%	Teamwork	Spiritual leadership	OCBO	Academic/Student achievement
School violence 0.28%	Over-education 0.28%	0.28%	0.28%	0.56%	1.12%
Learning climate 0.28%	Perceptions of personal health	Workplace	Supervisor support		School climate
Immigrant's education 0.28%	0.28%	friendship	0.28%		0.84%
	Personal accomplishment 0.28%	0.28%	Trust in the principal		Academic performance
<b>Organisational characteristics (8.66%)</b>	Professional education 0.28%		0.28%		0.28%
Organisational support 1.12%	Self-management 0.28%		Trust in the supervisor		Drug and alcohol prevention 0.28%
System's structure (bureaucratic) 0.84%	Work-family conflict 0.28%		0.28%		Intention to participate in physical activities 0.28%
Work values 0.84%	<b>The individual towards the Organisation (32.4%)</b>				Student bullying 0.28%
Conflict management 0.28%	Commitment 10.06%				Student counterproductive behaviours 0.28%
Developmental experiences 0.28%	Job satisfaction 5.87%				Student satisfaction 0.28%
Effective resource allocation 0.28%	Burnout 2.23%				
Emotion management 0.56%	Engagement 1.68%				<b>Staff outcomes (5.87%)</b>
HR management 0.28%	Empowerment 1.40%				Job performance 1.68%
Management by values 0.28%	Psychological empowerment 1.40%				Self-efficacy 1.12%
HR practice 0.28%	Academic optimism 1.12%				
New technologies 0.28%	Psychological contract 1.12%				
Organisational climate 0.56%	Organisational identification 1.12%				
Organisational culture 0.28%	Emotional exhaustion 0.56%				
Organisational learning 0.28%	Motivation 0.56%				
Organisational virtuousness 0.28%	Psychological capital 0.56%				
Participation in decision-making 0.56%	Turnover intentions 0.56%				
Politics 0.28%	Absenteeism 0.28%				
Power sources 0.28%	Affective commitment 0.28%				
	Counterproductive behaviours 0.28%				
	Dissatisfaction 0.28%				
	Exhaustion 0.28%				
	Job attitudes 0.28%				

Strategies to engage the school community 0.28%	Job embeddedness 0.28%	Work/Task performance 1.12%
Time-based facilitation 0.28%	Organisational loyalty 0.28%	Collective-efficacy 0.84%
Workplace deviance 0.28%	Proactivity 0.28%	Contextual performance 0.28%
<b>Role characteristics (3.91%)</b>	Role behaviours 0.28%	Effectiveness 0.28%
Job characteristics 0.84%	Stress 0.28%	Teachers' efficacy 0.28%
Career development 0.28%	Teacher protection 0.28%	Work performance 0.28%
Job autonomy 0.28%	Teachers' innovative practices 0.28%	
Job insecurity 0.28%	Volunteerism 0.28%	
Organisational socialisation 0.28%	Work-holism 0.28%	
Pressure 0.28%	<b>Organisational Justice as Predictor (3.63%)</b>	
Role ambiguity 0.28%	Organisational Justice 2.23%	
Role overload 0.28%	Procedural Justice 1.12%	
Role stressors 0.28%	Interactional Justice 0.28%	
Teachers' merit salary 0.28%		
Teachers' role breadth 0.28%		
Underemployment 0.28%		

*Note:* N=358 variables identified in the assessed literature.

**Annexee 1.2 Systematic literature review of “Organisational citizenship behaviours” published on the Web of Science until 2018**

<b>N</b>	<b>Authors</b>	<b>Title</b>	<b>Journal</b>	<b>Year</b>
1	Adebayo, DO; Sunmola, AM; Udegbe, IB	Workplace fairness and emotional exhaustion in Nigeria police: the moderating role of gender	Anxiety stress and coping	2008
2	Agnihotri, R; Krush, M; Singh, RK	Understanding the mechanism linking interpersonal traits to pro-social behaviors among salespeople: lessons from India	Journal of business & industrial marketing	2012
3	Akan, OH; Allen, RS; White, CS	Equity Sensitivity and Organizational Citizenship Behavior in a Team Environment	Small group research	2009
4	Alfonso, L; Zenasni, F; Hodzic, S; Ripoll, P	Understanding The Mediating Role of Quality of Work Life on the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Psychological reports	2016
5	Alt, E; Spitzbeck, H	Improving environmental performance through unit-level organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment: A capability perspective	Journal of environmental management	2016
6	Altinkurt, Y; Anasiz, BT; Ekinici, CE	The Relationships between Structural and Psychological Empowerment of Teachers and Their Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Egitim ve bilim-education and science	2016
7	Altinkurt, Y; Yilmaz, K	Relationship between School Administrators' Organizational Power Sources and Teachers' Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Kuram ve uygulamada egitim bilimleri	2012
8	Altuntas, S; Baykal, U	Relationship Between Nurses' Organizational Trust Levels and Their Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Journal of nursing scholarship	2010
9	Anand, S; Vidyarthi, P; Rolnicki, S	Leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behaviors: Contextual effects of leader power distance and group task interdependence	Leadership quarterly	2018

10	Andiappan, M; Trevino, LK	Beyond righting the wrong: Supervisor-subordinate reconciliation after an injustice	Human relations	2011
11	Avey, JB; Luthans, F; Youssef, CM	The Additive Value of Positive Psychological Capital in Predicting Work Attitudes and Behaviors	Journal of management	2010
12	Baba, VV; Tourigny, L; Wang, XY; Liu, WM	Proactive Personality and Work Performance in China: The Moderating Effects of Emotional Exhaustion and Perceived Safety Climate	Canadian journal of administrative sciences- revue canadienne des sciences de l administration	2009
13	Babakus, E; Yavas, U	Customer orientation as a buffer against job burnout	Service industries journal	2012
14	Babakus, E; Yavas, U; Karatepe, OM	Work engagement and turnover intentions Correlates and customer orientation as a moderator	International journal of contemporary hospitality management	2017
15	Babcock-Roberson, ME; Strickland, OJ	The Relationship Between Charismatic Leadership, Work Engagement, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Journal of psychology	2010
16	Bal, PM; Chiaburu, DS; Diaz, I	Does Psychological Contract Breach Decrease Proactive Behaviors? The Moderating Effect of Emotion Regulation	Group & organization management	2011
17	Bal, PM; Chiaburu, DS; Jansen, PGW	Psychological contract breach and work performance Is social exchange a buffer or an intensifier?	Journal of managerial psychology	2010
18	Balliet, D; Ferris, DL	Ostracism and prosocial behavior: A social dilemma perspective	Organizational behavior and human decision processes	2013
19	Bamberger, PA; Geller, D; Doveh, E	Assisting Upon Entry: Helping Type and Approach as Moderators of How Role Conflict Affects Newcomer Resource Drain	Journal of applied psychology	2017
20	Banks, GC; McCauley, KD; Gardner, WL; Guler, CE	A meta-analytic review of authentic and transformational leadership: A test for redundancy	Leadership quarterly	2016
21	Baranik, LE; Eby, L	Organizational citizenship behaviors and employee depressed mood, burnout, and satisfaction with health and life The mediating role of positive affect	Personnel review	2016
22	Barksdale, K; Werner, JM	Managerial ratings of in-role behaviors, organizational citizenship behaviors, and overall performance: testing different models of their relationship	Journal of business research	2001

23	Barr, CD; Spitzmuller, C; Stuebing, KK	Too stressed out to participate? Examining the relation between stressors and survey response behavior	Journal of occupational health psychology	2008
24	Barraud-Didier, V; Henninger, MC; Triboulet, P	Participation Members In Their Agricultural Cooperatives: An Exploratory Study of the French sector Cerealier	Canadian journal of agricultural economics- revue canadienne d agroconomie	2014
25	Battistelli, A; Galletta, M; Portoghese, I; Pohl, S; Odoardi, C	Promoting organizational citizenship behaviors: the mediating role of intrinsic work motivation	Travail humain	2013
26	Bellou, V; Stylos, N; Rahimi, R	Predicting hotel attractiveness via personality traits of applicants: The moderating role of self-esteem and work experience	International journal of contemporary hospitality management	2018
27	Belschak, FD; Jacobs, G; Den Hartog, DN	Feedback, emotions, and action tendencies: Emotional consequences of feedback from one's supervisor	Zeitschrift fur arbeits-und organisationspsychologie	2008
28	Bentley, JR; Treadway, DC; Williams, LV; Gazdag, BA; Yang, J	The Moderating Effect of Employee Political Skill on the Link between Perceptions of a Victimized Work Environment and Job Performance	Frontiers in psychology	2017
29	Bernerth, JB; Aguinis, H	A Critical Review and Best-Practice Recommendations for Control Variable Usage	Personnel psychology	2016
30	Bernerth, JB; Taylor, SG; Walker, HJ; Whitman, DS	An Empirical Investigation of Dispositional Antecedents and Performance-Related Outcomes of Credit Scores	Journal of applied psychology	2012
31	Berta, W; Laporte, A; Perreira, T; Ginsburg, L; Dass, AR; Deber, R; Baumann, A; Cranley, L; Bourgeault, I; Lum, J; Gamble, B; Pilkington, K; Haroun, V; Neves, P	Relationships between work outcomes, work attitudes and work environments of health support workers in Ontario long-term care and home and community care settings	Human resources for health	2018
32	Bhal, KT; Dadhich, A	Impact of Ethical Leadership and Leader-Member Exchange on Whistle Blowing: The Moderating Impact of the Moral Intensity of the Issue	Journal of business ethics	2011

33	Bharadwaja, S; Lee, L; Madera, JM	Customer evaluations of service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors: Agentic and communal differences	International journal of hospitality management	2018
34	Birkeland, IK; Buch, R	The dualistic model of passion for work: Discriminate and predictive validity with work engagement and workaholism	Motivation and emotion	2015
35	Bloemer, J	The psychological antecedents of employee referrals	International journal of human resource management	2010
36	Bohle, SL; Bal, PM; Jansen, PGW; Leiva, PI; Alonso, AM	How mass layoffs are related to lower job performance and OCB among surviving employees in Chile: an investigation of the essential role of psychological contract	International journal of human resource management	2017
37	Boiral, O	Greening the Corporation Through Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Journal of business ethics	2009
38	Boiral, O; Talbot, D; Paille, P	Leading by Example: A Model of Organizational Citizenship Behavior for the Environment	Business strategy and the environment	2015
39	Bolino, MC; Turnley, WH; Gilstrap, JB; Suazo, MM	Citizenship under pressure: What's a "good soldier" to do?	Journal of organizational behavior	2010
40	Bolino, MC; Varela, JA; Bande, B; Turnley, WH	The impact of impression-management tactics on supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behavior	Journal of organizational behavior	2006
41	Bostanci, AB	The Prediction Level of Teachers' Organizational Citizenship Behaviors on the Successful Practice of Shared Leadership	Egitim arastirmalari-urasian journal of educational research	2013
42	Bourdage, JS; Goupal, A; Neilson, T; Lukacik, ER; Lee, N	Personality, equity sensitivity, and discretionary workplace behavior	Personality and individual differences	2018
43	Bourdage, JS; Lee, K; Lee, JH; Shin, KH	Motives for Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Personality Correlates and Coworker Ratings of OCB	Human performance	2012
44	Bourne, KA; McComb, SA; Woodard, MS	Towards an understanding of the relationship between family-oriented benefits and employee behaviors: Does coworker support matter?	Journal of management & organization	2012
45	Bouzari, M; Karatepe, OM	Test of a mediation model of psychological capital among hotel salespeople	International journal of contemporary hospitality management	2017

46	Bove, LL; Pervan, SJ; Beatty, SE; Shiu, E	Service worker role in encouraging customer organizational citizenship behaviors	Journal of business research	2009
47	Bowling, NA	Effects of Job Satisfaction and Conscientiousness on Extra-Role Behaviors	Journal of business and psychology	2010
48	Bowling, NA; Burns, GN; Beehr, TA	Productive and Counterproductive Attendance Behavior: An Examination of Early and Late Arrival to and Departure From Work	Human performance	2010
49	Boyd, NM; Nowell, B	Psychological Sense of Community: A New Construct for the Field of Management	Journal of management inquiry	2014
50	Brandis, S; Fisher, R; McPhail, R; Rice, J; Eljiz, K; Fitzgerald, A; Gapp, R; Marshall, A	Hospital employees' perceptions of fairness and job satisfaction at a time of transformational change	Australian health review	2016
51	Braunstein-Bercovitz, H	A Multidimensional Mediating Model of Perceived Resource Gain, Work-Family Conflict Sources, and Burnout	International journal of stress management	2013
52	Brawley, AM; Pury, CLS	Little things that count: A call for organizational research on microbusinesses	Journal of organizational behavior	2017
53	Brenner, BR; Lyons, HZ; Fassinger, RE	Can Heterosexism Harm Organizations? Predicting the Perceived Organizational Citizenship Behaviors of Gay and Lesbian Employees	Career development quarterly	2010
54	Britt, TW; McKibben, ES; Greene-Shortridge, TM; Odlé-Dusseau, HN; Herleman, HA	Self-Engagement Moderates the Mediated Relationship Between Organizational Constraints and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Via Rated Leadership	Journal of applied social psychology	2012
55	Brown, DJ; Keeping, LM	Elaborating the construct of transformational leadership: The role of affect	Leadership quarterly	2005
56	Burke, RJ; Astakhova, MN; Hang, HL	Work Passion Through the Lens of Culture: Harmonious Work Passion, Obsessive Work Passion, and Work Outcomes in Russia and China	Journal of business and psychology	2015
57	Burt, CDB; Banks, MD; Williams, SD	Safety risks associated with helping others	Safety science	2014
58	Burton, JP; Sablynski, CJ; Sekiguchi, T	Linking justice, performance, and citizenship via leader-member exchange	Journal of business and psychology	2008



59	Cantor, DE; Terle, M	Applying a voluntary compliance model to a proposed transportation safety regulation	International journal of physical distribution & logistics management	2010
60	Carr, JC; Gregory, BT; Harris, SG	Work Status Congruence's Relation to Employee Attitudes and Behaviors: The Moderating Role of Procedural Justice	Journal of business and psychology	2010
61	Carvalho, A; Areal, N	Great places to work (r): resilience in times of crisis	Human resource management	2016
62	Cavazotte, F; Hartman, NS; Bahiense, E	Charismatic Leadership, Citizenship Behaviors, and Power Distance Orientation: Comparing Brazilian and US Workers	Cross-cultural research	2014
63	Celik, V; Karakus, M	Emotional intelligence and affect based job outcomes: a multilevel study on school administrators and teachers	Energy education science and technology part b-social and educational studies	2012
64	Cetin, SS; Guney, S	Role of Culture on the Relationships between Trust, Commitment and Corporate Citizenship	Revista de cercetare si interventie sociala	2017
65	Chan, KW; Gong, T; Zhang, RX; Zhou, MJ	Do Employee Citizenship Behaviors Lead to Customer Citizenship Behaviors? The Roles of Dual Identification and Service Climate	Journal of service research	2017
66	Chan, KW; Lam, W	The trade-off of servicing empowerment on employees' service performance: examining the underlying motivation and workload mechanisms	Journal of the academy of marketing science	2011
67	Chan, SHJ; Lai, HYI	Understanding the link between communication satisfaction, perceived justice and organizational citizenship behavior	Journal of business research	2017
68	Chang, CH; Rosen, CC; Levy, PE	The relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and employee attitudes, strain, and behavior: a meta-analytic examination	Academy of management journal	2009
69	Chang, CH; Rosen, CC; Siemieniec, GM; Johnson, RE	Perceptions of Organizational Politics and Employee Citizenship Behaviors: Conscientiousness and Self-monitoring as Moderators	Journal of business and psychology	2012
70	Chang, CS	Moderating Effects of Nurses' Organizational Justice Between Organizational Support and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors for Evidence-Based Practice	Worldviews on evidence-based nursing	2014
71	Chang, CS; Chang, HC	Motivating Nurses' Organizational Citizenship Behaviors by Customer-Oriented Perception for Evidence-Based Practice	Worldviews on evidence-based nursing	2010
72	Chang, CS; Chang, HC	Moderating Effect of Nurses' Customer-Oriented Perception Between Organizational Citizenship Behaviors and Satisfaction	Western journal of nursing research	2010

73	Chang, CS; Chen, SY; Lan, YT	Raising Nurses' Job Satisfaction Through Patient-Oriented Perception and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Nursing research	2011
74	Chang, CS; Chen, SY; Lan, YT	Motivating medical information system performance by system quality, service quality, and job satisfaction for evidence-based practice	Bmc medical informatics and decision making	2012
75	Chang, CS; Chen, SY; Lan, YT	Service quality, trust, and patient satisfaction in interpersonal-based medical service encounters	Bmc health services research	2013
76	Chang, ML; Cheng, CF	A mediation model of leaders' favoritism	Personnel review	2018
77	Charbonneau, D; Wood, VM	Antecedents and outcomes of unit cohesion and affective commitment to the Army	Military psychology	2018
78	Chen, CHV; Kao, RH	Work Values and Service-Oriented Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: The Mediation of Psychological Contract and Professional Commitment: A Case of Students in Taiwan Police College	Social indicators research	2012
79	Chen, CHV; Kao, RH	A Multilevel Study on the Relationships Between Work Characteristics, Self-Efficacy, Collective Efficacy, and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Case of Taiwanese Police Duty-Executing Organizations	Journal of psychology	2011
80	Chen, CT; Hu, HH; King, B	Shaping the organizational citizenship behavior or workplace deviance: Key determining factors in the hospitality workforce	Journal of hospitality and tourism management	2018
81	Chen, CY; Yang, CF	The Impact of Spiritual Leadership on Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Multi-Sample Analysis	Journal of business ethics	2012
82	Chen, G; Ployhart, RE; Thomas, HC; Anderson, N; Bliese, PD	The power of momentum: a new model of dynamic relationships between job satisfaction change and turnover intentions	Academy of management journal	2011
83	Chen, PK	Impacts of investment attitude in service innovation	Total quality management & business excellence	2015
84	Chen, YS; Wen, ZL; Ye, ML	Exploring profiles of work regulatory focus: A person-centered approach	Personality and individual differences	2017
85	Cheng, JW; Chang, SC; Kuo, JH; Cheung, YH	Ethical leadership, work engagement, and voice behavior	Industrial management & data systems	2014
86	Cheng, MM; Coyte, R	The effects of incentive subjectivity and strategy communication on knowledge-sharing and extra-role behaviours	Management accounting research	2014

87	Chernyak-Hai, L; Rabenu, E	The New Era Workplace Relationships: Is Social Exchange Theory Still Relevant?	Industrial and organizational psychology-perspectives on science and practice	2018
88	Chernyak-Hai, L; Tziner, A	Organizational citizenship behaviors: Socio-psychological antecedents and consequences	Revue internationale de psychologie sociale-international review of social psychology	2012
89	Cheung, M; Peng, KZ; Wong, CS	Supervisor attribution of subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior motives	Journal of managerial psychology	2014
90	Cheung, MFY	The mediating role of perceived organizational support in the effects of interpersonal and informational justice on organizational citizenship behaviors	Leadership & organization development journal	2013
91	Chiaburu, DS; Byrne, ZS	Predicting OCB Role Definitions: Exchanges with the Organization and Psychological Attachment	Journal of business and psychology	2009
92	Chiaburu, DS; Chakrabarty, S; Wang, JX; Li, N	Organizational Support and Citizenship Behaviors: A Comparative Cross-Cultural Meta-Analysis	Management international review	2015
93	Chiaburu, DS; Lim, AS	Manager Trustworthiness or Interactional Justice? Predicting Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Journal of business ethics	2008
94	Chiaburu, DS; Lorinkova, NM; Van Dyne, L	Employees' Social Context and Change-Oriented Citizenship: A Meta-Analysis of Leader, Coworker, and Organizational Influences	Group & organization management	2013
95	Chiaburu, DS; Oh, IS; Berry, CM; Li, N; Gardner, RG	The Five-Factor Model of Personality Traits and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: A Meta-Analysis	Journal of applied psychology	2011
96	Chiaburu, DS; Oh, IS; Wang, JX; Stoverink, AC	A bigger piece of the pie: The relative importance of affiliative and change-oriented citizenship and task performance in predicting overall job performance	Human resource management review	2017
97	Chiaburu, DS; Sawyer, K; Smith, TA; Brown, N; Harris, TB	When Civic Virtue isn't Seen as Virtuous: The Effect of Gender Stereotyping on Civic Virtue Expectations for Women	Sex roles	2014

98	Chiaburu, DS; Smith, TA; Wang, JX; Zimmerman, RD	Relative Importance of Leader Influences for Subordinates' Proactive Behaviors, Prosocial Behaviors, and Task Performance A Meta-Analysis	Journal of personnel psychology	2014
99	Chiaburu, DS; Stoverink, AC; Li, N; Zhang, XA	Extraverts Engage in More Interpersonal Citizenship When Motivated to Impression Manage: Getting Along to Get Ahead?	Journal of management	2015
100	Chiang, HH; Han, TS; McConville, D	The attitudinal and behavioral impact of brand-centered human resource management: Employee and customer effects	International journal of contemporary hospitality management	2018
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445	Tepper, BJ; Dimotakis, N; Lambert, LS; Koopman, J; Matta, FK; Park, HM; Goo, W	Examining follower responses to transformational leadership from a dynamic, person-environment fit perspective	Academy of management journal	2018
446	Terrier, L; Kim, S; Fernandez, S	Who are the good organizational citizens for the environment? An examination of the predictive validity of personality traits	Journal of environmental psychology	2016
447	Thau, S; Aquino, K; Bommer, WH	How employee race moderates the relationship between non-contingent punishment and organizational citizenship behaviors: A test of the negative adaptation hypothesis	Social justice research	2008
448	Thau, S; Bennett, RJ; Stahlberg, D; Werner, JM	Why should I be generous when I have valued and accessible alternatives? Alternative exchange partners and OCB	Journal of organizational behavior	2004
449	Tolentino, LR; Garcia, PRJM; Restubog, SLD; Scott, KL; Aquino, K	Does Domestic Intimate Partner Aggression Affect Career Outcomes? The Role of Perceived Organizational Support	Human resource management	2017
450	Top, M; Akdere, M; Tarcan, M	Examining transformational leadership, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational trust in Turkish hospitals: public servants versus private sector employees	International journal of human resource management	2015

451	Travaglianti, F; Babic, A; Pepermans, R; Hansez, I	Needs-supplies fit and behavioral outcomes: The mediating role of organizational identification	Journal of management & organization	2017
452	Trevor, CO; Nyberg, AJ	Keeping your headcount when all about you are losing theirs: Downsizing, voluntary turnover rates, and the moderating role of HR practices	Academy of management journal	2008
453	Trougakos, JP; Beal, DJ; Cheng, BH; Hideg, I; Zweig, D	Too Drained to Help: A Resource Depletion Perspective on Daily Interpersonal Citizenship Behaviors	Journal of applied psychology	2015
454	Tsai, CT; Su, CS	Leadership, job satisfaction and service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors in flight attendants	African journal of business management	2011
455	Tsai, MT; Cheng, NC	Understanding knowledge sharing between IT professionals - an integration of social cognitive and social exchange theory	Behaviour & information technology	2012
456	Tsarenko, Y; Leo, C; Tse, HHM	When and why do social resources influence employee advocacy? The role of personal investment and perceived recognition	Journal of business research	2018
457	Tse, HHM; Chiu, WCK	Transformational leadership and job performance: A social identity perspective	Journal of business research	2014
458	Tung, J; Lo, SC; Chung, TT	Service sabotage and behavior: the performance of fast food service in taiwan	Pakistan journal of statistics	2013
459	Ucanok, B; Karabati, S	The Effects of Values, Work Centrality, and Organizational Commitment on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: Evidence from Turkish SMEs	Human resource development quarterly	2013
460	Uen, JF; Chien, MS; Yen, YF	The Mediating Effects of Psychological Contracts on the Relationship Between Human Resource Systems and Role Behaviors: A Multilevel Analysis	Journal of business and psychology	2009
461	Uslusoy, EC; Alpar, SE	Developing scale for colleague solidarity among nurses in Turkey	International journal of nursing practice	2013
462	Van Dyne, L; Ang, S; Botero, IC	Conceptualizing employee silence and employee voice as multidimensional constructs	Journal of management studies	2003
463	van Prooijen, JW; De Cremer, D; van Beest, I; Stahl, T; van Dijke, M; Van Lange, PAM	The egocentric nature of procedural justice: Social value orientation as moderator of reactions to decision-making procedures	Journal of experimental social psychology	2008

464	van Schie, S; Guntert, ST; Oostlander, J; Wehner, T	How the Organizational Context Impacts Volunteers: A Differentiated Perspective on Self-determined Motivation	Voluntas	2015
465	Vatankhah, S; Darvishi, M	An empirical investigation of antecedent and consequences of internal brand equity: Evidence from the airline industry	Journal of air transport management	2018
466	Verdorfer, AP; Peus, C	The Measurement of Servant Leadership Validation of a German Version of the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS)	Zeitschrift fur arbeits-und organisationspsychologie	2014
467	Verleye, K; Gemmel, P; Rangarajan, D	Managing Engagement Behaviors in a Network of Customers and Stakeholders: Evidence From the Nursing Home Sector	Journal of service research	2014
468	Vigoda-Gadot, E	Leadership style, organizational politics, and employees' performance - An empirical examination of two competing models	Personnel review	2007
469	Vilela, BB; Gonzalez, JAV; Ferrin, PF	Person-organization fit, OCB and performance appraisal: Evidence from matched supervisor-salesperson data set in a Spanish context	Industrial marketing management	2008
470	Vlachos, PA; Panagopoulos, NG; Rapp, AA	Employee judgments of and behaviors toward corporate social responsibility: A multi-study investigation of direct, cascading, and moderating effects	Journal of organizational behavior	2014
471	von Wangenheim, F; Evanschitzky, H; Wunderlich, M	Does the employee-customer satisfaction link hold for all employee groups?	Journal of business research	2007
472	Waismel-Manor, R; Tziner, A; Berger, E; Dikstein, E	Two of a Kind? Leader-Member Exchange and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: The Moderating Role of Leader-Member Similarity	Journal of applied social psychology	2010
473	Walsh, M; Dupre, K; Arnold, KA	Processes through which transformational leaders affect employee psychological health	Zeitschrift fur personalforschung	2014
474	Walumbwa, FO; Cropanzano, R; Goldman, BM	How leader-member exchange influences effective work behaviors: social exchange and internal-external efficacy perspectives	Personnel psychology	2011
475	Walumbwa, FO; Wang, P; Wang, H; Schaubroeck, J; Avolio, BJ	RETRACTED: Psychological processes linking authentic leadership to follower behaviors (Retracted article. See vol. 25, pg. 1071, 2014)	Leadership quarterly	2010



476	Wang, G; He, QH; Meng, XH; Locatelli, G; Yu, T; Yan, X	Exploring the impact of megaproject environmental responsibility on organizational citizenship behaviors for the environment: A social identity perspective	International journal of project management	2017
477	Wang, G; He, QH; Xia, B; Meng, XH; Wu, P	Impact of Institutional Pressures on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors for the Environment: Evidence from Megaprojects	Journal of management in engineering	2018
478	Wang, G; Seibert, SE	The Impact of leader emotion display frequency on follower performance: Leader surface acting and mean emotion display as boundary conditions	Leadership quarterly	2015
479	Wang, HJ; Demerouti, E; Le Blanc, P; Lu, CQ	Crafting a job in "tough times": When being proactive is positively related to work attachment	Journal of occupational and organizational psychology	2018
480	Wang, J; Wong, CK	Understanding organizational citizenship behavior from a cultural perspective: An empirical study within the context of hotels in Mainland China	International journal of hospitality management	2011
481	Wang, L; Hinrichs, KT; Prieto, L; Howell, JP	Five dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior: Comparing antecedents and levels of engagement in China and the US	Asia pacific journal of management	2013
482	Wang, T; Jiang, HB	The Mediating Effects of Organizational and Supervisor Identification for Interactional Justice: The Case of Sichuan Civil Servants in China	Public personnel management	2015
483	Wang, YD; Sung, WC	Predictors of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Ethical Leadership and Workplace Jealousy	Journal of business ethics	2016
484	Wat, D; Shaffer, MA	Equity and relationship quality influences on organizational citizenship behaviors - The mediating role of trust in the supervisor and empowerment	Personnel review	2005
485	Way, SA; Sturman, MC; Raab, C	What Matters More? Contrasting the Effects of Job Satisfaction and Service Climate on Hotel Food and Beverage Managers' Job Performance	Cornell hospitality quarterly	2010
486	Weaver, ST; Ellen, PS; Mathiassen, L	Contextualist Inquiry into Organizational Citizenship: Promoting Recycling Across Heterogeneous Organizational Actors	Journal of business ethics	2015
487	Wech, BA; Kennedy, KN; Deeter-Schmelz, DR	A multi-level analysis of customer contact teams	Journal of services marketing	2009
488	Weng, HC; Chen, TM; Lee, WJ; Chang, CS; Lin, CT; Wu, ML	Internal Marketing and Its Moderating Effects between Service-Oriented Encounter and Patient Satisfaction	Acta paulista de enfermagem	2016
489	West, B; Hillenbrand, C; Money, K	Building Employee Relationships Through Corporate Social Responsibility: The Moderating Role of Social Cynicism and Reward for Application	Group & organization management	2015

490	Whitaker, BG; Levy, P	Linking Feedback Quality and Goal Orientation to Feedback Seeking and Job Performance	Human performance	2012
491	Whiting, SW; Podsakoff, PM; Pierce, JR	Effects of task performance, helping, voice, and organizational loyalty on performance appraisal ratings	Journal of applied psychology	2008
492	Whitman, DS; Van Rooy, DL; Viswesvaran, C	Satisfaction, citizenship behaviors, and performance in work units: a meta-analysis of collective construct relations	Personnel psychology	2010
493	Wiernik, BM; Ones, DS	Ethical employee behaviors in the consensus taxonomy of counterproductive work behaviors	International journal of selection and assessment	2018
494	Wiertz, C; de Ruyter, K	Beyond the call of duty: Why customers contribute to firm-hosted commercial online communities	Organization studies	2007
495	Wieseke, J; Ahearne, M; Lam, SK; van Dick, R	The Role of Leaders in Internal Marketing	Journal of marketing	2009
496	Wieseke, J; Homburg, C; Lee, N	Understanding the adoption of new brands through salespeople: a multilevel framework	Journal of the academy of marketing science	2008
497	Wilkins, S; Butt, MM; Annabi, CA	The Effects of Employee Commitment in Transnational Higher Education: The Case of International Branch Campuses	Journal of studies in international education	2017
498	Wu, CH; Liu, J; Kwan, HK; Lee, C	Why and When Workplace Ostracism Inhibits Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: An Organizational Identification Perspective	Journal of applied psychology	2016
499	Wu, TY; Lee, SJ; Hu, CY; Yang, CC	When Supervisors Perceive Non-Work Support: Test of a Trickle-Down Model	Journal of psychology	2014
500	Wu, W; Liu, JL; Shang, XP	Gain without pay causes lazybones' loss: The influence of formal and informal leader-member relationships on customer service performance	Chinese management studies	2018
501	Wu, W; Wang, HH; Lu, L	Will my own perception be enough?: A multilevel investigation of workplace ostracism on employee voice	Chinese management studies	2018
502	Wu, XF; Kwan, HK; Wu, LZ; Ma, J	The Effect of Workplace Negative Gossip on Employee Proactive Behavior in China: The Moderating Role of Traditionality	Journal of business ethics	2018
503	Wu, XY; Sturman, MC; Wang, CB	The Motivational Effects of Pay Fairness: A Longitudinal Study in Chinese Star-Level Hotels	Cornell hospitality quarterly	2013
504	Xu, B; Jones, DR	Volunteers' Participation in Open Source Software Development: A Study from the Social-Relational Perspective	Data base for advances in information systems	2010

505	Xu, E; Huang, X; Lam, CK; Miao, Q	Abusive supervision and work behaviors: The mediating role of LMX	Journal of organizational behavior	2012
506	Yaffe, T; Kark, R	Leading by Example: The Case of Leader OCB	Journal of applied psychology	2011
507	Yakovleva, M; Reilly, RR; Werko, R	Why Do We Trust? Moving Beyond Individual to Dyadic Perceptions	Journal of applied psychology	2010
508	Yam, KC; Klotz, AC; He, W; Reynolds, SJ	From good soldiers to psychologically entitled: examining when and why citizenship behavior leads to deviance	Academy of management journal	2017
509	Yang, C; Ding, CG; Lo, KW	Ethical Leadership and Multidimensional Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: The Mediating Effects of Self-Efficacy, Respect, and Leader-Member Exchange	Group & organization management	2016
510	Yang, F; Qian, J; Liu, J	Priming employees' promotion focus: How and when servant leadership enhances customer service behaviors	Management decision	2018
511	Yang, JT	Antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction in the hotel industry	International journal of hospitality management	2010
512	Yang, YC	High-involvement human resource practices, affective commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors	Service industries journal	2012
513	Yang, YF	Leadership and change commitment in the life insurance service context in taiwan: the mediating-moderating role of job satisfaction	Perceptual and motor skills	2011
514	Ye, J; Cardon, MS; Rivera, E	A mutuality perspective of psychological contracts regarding career development and job security	Journal of business research	2012
515	Ye, JH	The Impact of Organizational Values on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Public personnel management	2012
516	Yee, RWY; Yeung, ACL; Cheng, TCE	An empirical study of employee loyalty, service quality and firm performance in the service industry	International journal of production economics	2010
517	Yen, CH; Teng, HY	The effect of centralization on organizational citizenship behavior and deviant workplace behavior in the hospitality industry	Tourism management	2013
518	Yen, HR; Hu, PJH; Hsu, SHY; Li, EY	A Multilevel Approach to Examine Employees' Loyal Use of ERP Systems in Organizations	Journal of management information systems	2015

519	Yildirim, Y	Evaluation Of The Correlation Between Organizational Citizenship, And Organizational Stress And Exhaustion Levels Of The Physical Education Teachers	Life science journal-acta zhengzhou university overseas edition	2013
520	Yilmaz, K; Altinkurt, Y	Relationship between Management by Values, Organizational Trust and Organizational Citizenship	Technics technologies education management-ttem	2011
521	Yoo, JJE; Kim, TT; Lee, G	When Customers Complain: The Value of Customer Orientation in Service Recovery	Cornell hospitality quarterly	2015
522	Yoon, C	The effects of organizational citizenship behaviors on ERP system success	Computers in human behavior	2009
523	Yoon, C; Wang, ZW	The role of citizenship behaviors and social capital in virtual communities	Journal of computer information systems	2011
524	Yoon, D; Jang, J; Lee, J	Environmental management strategy and organizational citizenship behaviors in the hotel industry The mediating role of organizational trust and commitment	International journal of contemporary hospitality management	2016
525	Yuan, BJC; Hsu, WL; Shieh, JH; Li, KP	Increasing emotional intelligence of employees: evidence from research and development teams in taiwan	Social behavior and personality	2012
526	Yue, YM; Wang, KL; Groth, M	Feeling bad and doing good: the effect of customer mistreatment on service employee's daily display of helping behaviors	Personnel psychology	2017
527	Zagenczyk, TJ; Restubog, SLD; Kiewitz, C; Kiazad, K; Tang, RL	Psychological Contracts as a Mediator Between Machiavellianism and Employee Citizenship and Deviant Behaviors	Journal of management	2014
528	Zhang, WH; Wang, H; Pearce, CL	Consideration for future consequences as an antecedent of transformational leadership behavior: The moderating effects of perceived dynamic work environment	Leadership quarterly	2014
529	Zhang, Y; Chen, CC	Developmental leadership and organizational citizenship behavior: Mediating effects of self-determination, supervisor identification, and organizational identification	Leadership quarterly	2013
530	Zhao, YF; Yan, L; Keh, HT	The effects of employee behaviours on customer participation in the service encounter: The mediating role of customer emotions	European journal of marketing	2018
531	Zhong, JA; Lam, W; Chen, ZG	Relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behaviors: Examining the moderating role of empowerment	Asia pacific journal of management	2011

532	Zhou, SY; Zhang, DP; Lyu, C; Zhang, HF	Does Seeing "Mind Acts Upon Mind" Affect Green Psychological Climate and Green Product Development Performance? The Role of Matching Between Green Transformational Leadership and Individual Green Values	Sustainability	2018
533	Zhu, WC; Newman, A; Miao, Q; Hooke, A	Revisiting the mediating role of trust in transformational leadership effects: Do different types of trust make a difference?	Leadership quarterly	2013
534	Zoghbi-Manrique-De- Lara, P	Inequity, conflict, and compliance dilemma as causes of cyberloafing	International journal of conflict management	2009
535	Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, P; Ding, JMT	The influence of corporate culture and workplace relationship quality on the outsourcing success in hotel firms	International journal of hospitality management	2016
536	Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, P; Suarez-Acosta, MA	Employees' Reactions to Peers' Unfair Treatment by Supervisors: The Role of Ethical Leadership	Journal of business ethics	2014

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*Note:* N=536. Source: Own elaboration.

**Annexe 2.1** Systematic literature review of studies on OCB in the educational context.

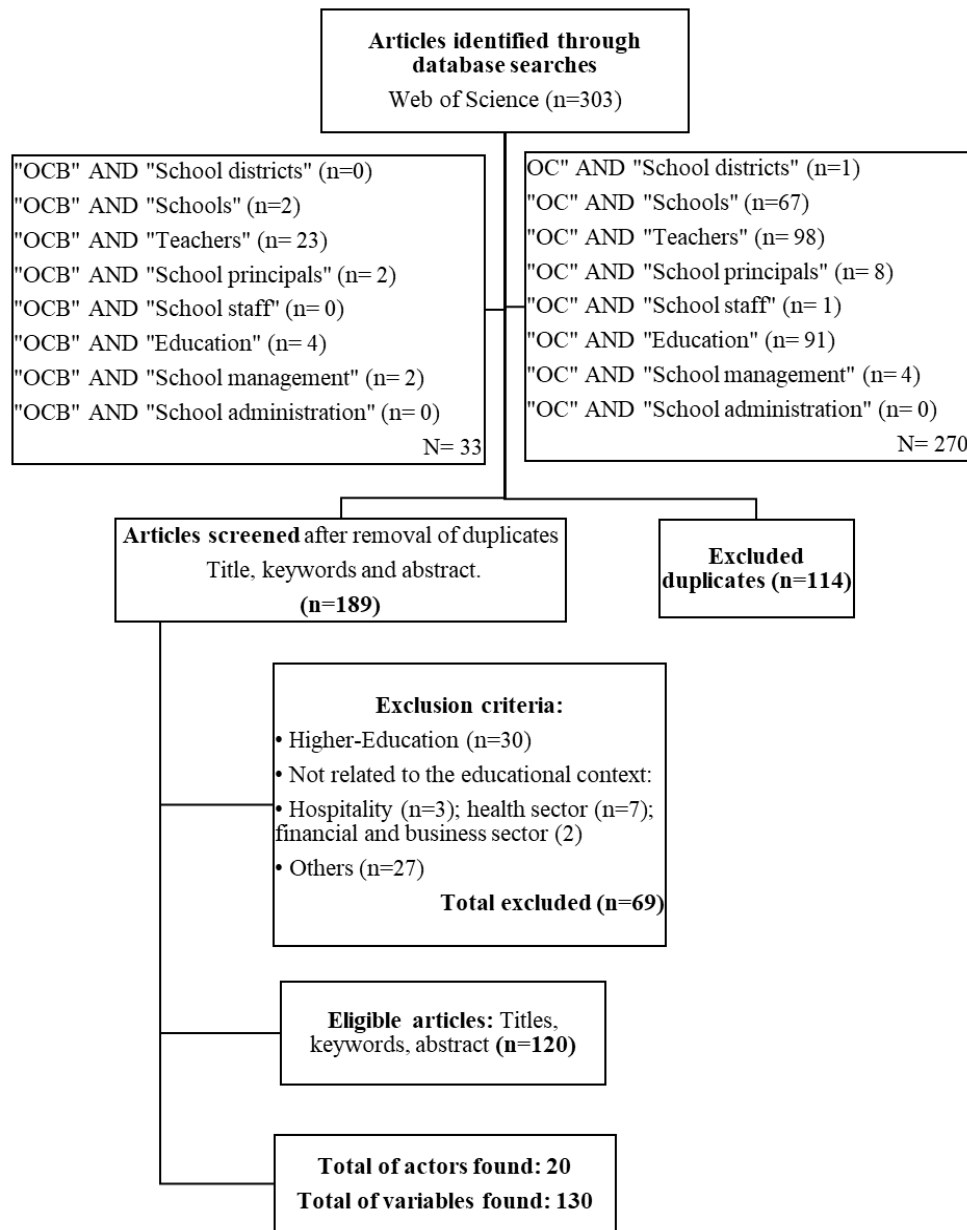


Figure 3: Source: Own elaboration.

**Annexe 2.2** Frequency of principal predictors of OCB in the educational sector published in the database “Web of Science” until 2018

“Positive factors” that influence OCB 26%	Organisational management 25.9%	Personal/ individual characteristics 12.9%	“Negative factors” that influence OCB 10.71%	School performance/ Outcomes 10.71%	OCBI 4.9%	Relation with the environment and the context 2.68%	School characteristics 2.68%	OJ 2.23%	OCBO 1.34%
Commitment 11%	Leader-member exchange 3.57%	Personal traits 2.68%	Burnout 3.13%	Job performance 1.34%	Group organisational citizenship behaviour 0.9%	Social Networks 0.89%	Cultural values 0.89%	Procedural Justice 1.34%	Knowledge-sharing 0.45%
Job Satisfaction 4.9%	Leadership 2.23%	Gender 2.23%	Emotional exhaustion 0.89%	Organisational climate 0.89%	OCBI 1.3%	Contextual variables 0.45%	Adult education 0.45%	OJ 0.89%	OCBO 0.45%
Psychological empowerment 1.8%	Transformational leadership 2.23%	Individual values 1.34%	Absenteeism 0.45%	School climate 0.89%	Collectivism 0.4%	Patriotism 0.45%	Immigrant’s education 0.45%		Organisational learning 0.45%
Engagement 1.3%	Leadership style 1.79%	Dispositional characteristics 0.45%	Counterproductive behaviours 0.45%	Academic performance 0.45%	Group-level OCB 0.4%	Social desirability 0.45%	Socioeconomic status 0.45%		
Academic optimism 0.9%	System's structure (bureaucratic) 1.34%	Emotional aspects 0.45%	Exhaustion 0.45%	Achievement 0.45%	Perception 0.4%	Work-family culture 0.45%	School size 0.45%		
Organisational identification 0.9%	Work values 1.34%	Emotional intelligence 0.45%	Job insecurity 0.45%	Collective-efficacy 0.45%	Teamwork 0.4%				
Affective commitment 0.4%	Emotion management 0.89%	Ethics 0.45%	Mobbing 0.45%	Contextual performance 0.45%	Teachers’ relationships 0.4%				
Career satisfaction 0.4%	Authentic leadership 0.45%	Ethnicity 0.45%	Pressure 0.45%	High-performance OCB transference to the students 0.45%	Workplace friendship 0.4%				
Effective resource allocation 0.4%	Career development 0.45%	Health 0.45%	Over education 0.45%						
Job autonomy 0.4%	Conflict management 0.45%	Over education 0.45%	Perceptions of personal health 0.45%						
	Developmental experiences 0.45%	Perceptions of personal health 0.45%	Role ambiguity 0.45%						

Job embeddedness 0.4%	HR management 0.45%	Personal initiative 0.45%	Role overload 0.45%	Performance 0.45%
Motivation 0.4%	HR practice 0.45%	Professional education 0.45%	Role stressors 0.45%	Quality of school life 0.45%
Proactivity 0.4%	Management by values 0.45%	Self Esteem 0.45%	Stress 0.45%	Role behaviours 0.45%
Psychological contract 0.4%	Organisational culture 0.45%	Volunteerism 0.45%	Turnover 0.45%	School-ethical climate 0.45%
Personal accomplishment 0.4%	Organisational socialization 0.45%		Underemployment 0.45%	School violence 0.45%
Supervisor support 0.4%	Participation in decision-making 0.45%		Workplace deviance 0.45%	Self-efficacy 0.45%
Teacher empowerment 0.4%	Politics 0.45%		Work-family conflict 0.45%	Student bullying 0.45%
Teacher protection 0.4%	Power sources 0.45%		Work holism 0.45%	Student counterproductive behaviours 0.45%
	Role breath 0.89%			Task performance 0.45%
	Shared leadership 0.45%			Teacher's efficacy 0.45%
	Spiritual leadership 0.45%			Work performance 0.45%
	Strategy to engage school community 0.45%			
	Teachers' role breadth 0.45%			
	Transactional leadership 0.45%			
	Trust in the principal 0.45%			
	Trust in the supervisor 0.45%			

*Note:* N=224. Source: Own elaboration. Detail of the titles and authors of the articles can be found on Annexes 2. Copyright 2000 by Elsevier Science Inc.



**Annexe 2.3** Systematic literature review of “Organisational citizenship behaviours” in the educational sector, published on the Web of Science until 2018

<b>N</b>	<b>Authors</b>	<b>Title</b>	<b>Journal</b>	<b>Year</b>
1	Abd El Majid, E; Cohen, A	The role of values and leadership style in developing OCB among Arab teachers in Israel	Leadership & organization development journal	2015
2	Abu Nasra, M; Heilbrunn, S	Transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior in the Arab educational system in Israel: The impact of trust and job satisfaction	Educational management administration & leadership	2016
3	Agut, S; Peiro, JM; Grau, R	The Effect of Overeducation on Job Content Innovation and Career-Enhancing Strategies Among Young Spanish Employees	Journal of career development	2009
4	Ahmad, S; Khan, MA; Alam, HM	Organizational citizenship behavior on schoolteachers' career development	Actual problems of economics	2012
5	Akbari, M; Kashani, SH; Chajjani, M	Sharing, Caring, and Responsibility in Higher Education Teams	Small group research	2016
6	Alkhadher, O; Gadelrab, HF	Organizational Justice Dimensions: Validation of an Arabic Measure	International journal of selection and assessment	2016
7	Altinkurt, Y; Anasiz, BT; Ekinci, CE	The Relationships between Structural and Psychological Empowerment of Teachers and Their Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Egitim ve bilim-education and science	2016
8	Altinkurt, Y; Yilmaz, K	Relationship between School Administrators' Organizational Power Sources and Teachers' Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	Kuram ve uygulamada egitim bilimleri	2012
9	Arain, GA; Sheikh, A; Hameed, I; Asadullah, MA	Do as I Do: The Effect of Teachers' Ethical Leadership on Business Students' Academic Citizenship Behaviors	Ethics & behavior	2017
10	Avanzi, L; Cortini, M; Crocetti, E	When age matters: The role of teacher aging on job identity and organizational citizenship behaviours	Revue internationale de psychologie sociale-international review of social psychology	2012
11	Belogolovsky, E; Somech, A	Teachers' organizational citizenship behavior: Examining the boundary between in-role behavior and extra-role behavior from the perspective of teachers, principals and parents	Teaching and teacher education	2010

12	Bendek, ZM	Citizens of the future: Beyond normative conditions through the emergence of desirable collective properties	Journal of business ethics	2002
13	Berkovich, I	Typology of trust relationships: profiles of teachers' trust in principal and their implications	Teachers and teaching	2018
	Bligh, MC; Kohles, JC; Pearce, CL; Justin, JEG;		Applied psychology-an international review-psychologie appliquee-revue internationale	
14	Stovall, JF	When the romance is over: Follower perspectives of aversive leadership		2007
15	Bogler, R; Somech, A	Influence of teacher empowerment on teachers' organizational commitment, professional commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in schools	Teaching and teacher education	2004
16	Bostanci, AB	The Prediction Level of Teachers' Organizational Citizenship Behaviors on the Successful Practice of Shared Leadership	Egitim arastirmalari-eurasian journal of educational research	2013
	Bragger, JD; Rodriguez-Srednicki, O; Kutcher, EJ; Indovino, L; Rosner, E			
17	E	Work-family conflict, work-family culture, and organizational citizenship behavior among teachers	Journal of business and psychology	2005
18	Brunette, Charles	Feeling healthy: how teacher personal health beliefs influence roles for promoting student health	International journal of health promotion and education	2017
	Canrinus, ET; Helms-Lorenz, M; Beijaard, D;			
19	Buitink, J; Hofman, A	Self-efficacy, job satisfaction, motivation and commitment: exploring the relationships between indicators of teachers' professional identity	European journal of psychology of education	2012
20	Cavus, MF	Socialization and organizational citizenship behavior among Turkish primary and secondary school teachers	Work-a journal of prevention assessment & rehabilitation	2012
			Energy education science and technology part b-social and educational studies	
21	Celik, V; Karakus, M	Emotional intelligence and affect based job outcomes: a multilevel study on school administrators and teachers		2012
22	Cerit, Y	The mediating effect of LMX in the relationship between school bureaucratic structure and teachers' proactive behavior	Leadership & organization development journal	2017
	Chang, K; Nguyen, B; Cheng, KT; Kuo, CC;			
23	Lee, I	HR practice, organisational commitment & citizenship behaviour A study of primary school teachers in Taiwan	Employee relations	2016
	Cheung, FYL; Cheung, Ryh			
24	Ryh	Effect of Emotional Dissonance on Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Testing the Stressor-Strain-Outcome Model	Journal of psychology	2013
25	Cheung, FYL; Lun, VMC	Relation Between Emotional Labor and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: An Investigation Among Chinese Teaching Professionals	Journal of general psychology	2015

26	Choi, JN	Collective Dynamics of Citizenship Behaviour: What Group Characteristics Promote Group-Level Helping?	Journal of management studies	2009
27	Cohen, A	One nation, many cultures - A cross-cultural study of the relationship between personal cultural values and commitment in the Workplace to in-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior	Cross-cultural research	2007
28	Cohen, A	The relationship between multiple commitments and organizational citizenship behavior in Arab and Jewish culture	Journal of vocational behavior	2006
29	Cohen, A; Keren, D	Individual values and social exchange variables - Examining their relationship to and mutual effect on in-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior	Group & organization management	2008
30	Cohen, A; Liu, Y	Relationships between in-role performance and individual values, commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior among Israeli teachers	International journal of psychology	2011
31	Coyle-Shapiro, J; Kessler, I	Consequences of the psychological contract for the employment relationship: A large scale survey	Journal of management studies	2000
32	de Andrade, T; Costa, VF; Estivaletes, VDB; Lengler, L	Organizational citizenship behaviors: a glimpse in the light of values and job satisfaction	Rbgn-revista brasileira de gestao de negocios	2017
33	Devos, G; Hulpia, H; Tuytens, M; Sinnaeve, I	Self-other agreement as an alternative perspective of school leadership analysis: an exploratory study	School effectiveness and school improvement	2013
34	Dumay, X; Galand, B	The multilevel impact of transformational leadership on teacher commitment: cognitive and motivational pathways	British educational research journal	2012
35	Dussault, M	Teachers' self-efficacy and organizational citizenship behaviors	Psychological reports	2006
36	Ekinci, A	Development of the School Principals' Servant Leadership Behaviors Scale and Evaluation of Servant Leadership Behaviors According to Teachers' Views	Egitim ve bilim-education and science	2015
37	Elstad, E; Christophersen, KA; Turmo, A	Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Among Educators in Language Education for Adult Immigrants in Norway	Adult education quarterly	2013
38	Elstad, E; Christophersen, KA; Turmo, A	Exploring antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviour among teachers at Norwegian folk high schools	Studies in continuing education	2012
39	Enwereuzor, IK; Onyishi, IE; Onyebueke, IF; Amazue, LO; Nwoke, MB	Personality as a moderator between emotional exhaustion and workplace deviance among teachers	Journal of psychology in africa	2017

40	Eres, F	Organizational Citizenship Behaviors of Teachers in Vocational High Schools	Egitim arastirmalari-urasian journal of educational research	2010
41	Erturk, A	Organizational Citizenship and Mobbing Behavior of Secondary School Teachers	Anthropologist	2015
42	Esnard, C; Jouffre, S	Organizational citizenship behavior: Social valorization among pupils and the effect on teachers' judgments	European journal of psychology of education	2008
43	Feather, NT; Rauter, KA Feuerhahn, N; Stamov-Rossnagel, C; Wolfram, M; Bellingrath, S;	Organizational citizenship behaviours in relation to job status, job insecurity, organizational commitment and identification, job satisfaction and work values	Journal of occupational and organizational psychology	2004
44	Kudielka, BM	Emotional Exhaustion and Cognitive Performance in Apparently Healthy Teachers: A Longitudinal Multi-source Study	Stress and health	2013
45	Goess, DE; Smith, PA	CROSSING BOUNDARIES Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Protecting Students from Bullying	Elementary school journal	2018
46	Gokturk, S	Assessment of the quality of an organizational citizenship behavior instrument	School effectiveness and school improvement	2011
47	Golzari, AA; Montazeri, M; Paktinat, E	Relationship between Work holism and Organizational Citizenship Behavior among Schools Employees in Sirjan-Iran	Life science journal-acta zhengzhou university overseas edition	2012
48	Gregory, A; Ronan, M	Insights into the development of strategy from a complexity perspective	Journal of the operational research society	2015
49	Hannam, R; Jimmieson, N	The relationship between teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors and job burnout	International journal of psychology	2004
50	Hopkins, KM	Organizational citizenship in social service agencies	Administration in social work	2002
51	Hoy, AW; Hoy, WK;	Teacher's academic optimism: The development and test of a new construct	Teaching and teacher education	2008
52	Kurz, NM Imer, PH; Kabasakal, H;	Personality and contextual antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior: A study of two occupational groups	Journal of management & organization	2014
53	Dastmalchian, A Inandi, Y; Buyukozkan, AS	The Effect of Organizational Citizenship Behaviours of Primary School Teachers on Their Burnout	Kuram ve uygulamada egitim bilimleri	2013
54	Ishaq, MI; Hussain, NM; Nawaz, MM; Asim, AI;	Assessment of LMX as Mediator in Procedural Justice - Organizational Citizenship Behavior Relationship	New educational review	2012
55	Cheema, LJ Islam, S; Permezadian, V; Choudhury, RJ; Johnston, M; Anderson, M	Proactive personality and the expanded criterion domain of performance: Predicting academic citizenship and counterproductive behaviors	Learning and individual differences	2018

56	Jain, AK	Volunteerism and organisational culture Relationship to organizational commitment and citizenship behaviors in India	Cross cultural management-an international journal	2015
57	Jiang, JY; Law, KS	Two parallel mechanisms of the relationship between justice perceptions and employees' citizenship behaviour: A comparison of the organizational identification and social exchange perspective	European journal of work and organizational psychology	2013
58	Jimmieson, NL; Hannam, RL; Yeo, GB	Teacher organizational citizenship behaviours and job efficacy: Implications for student quality of school life	British journal of psychology	2010
59	Jo, SH	Teacher commitment: Exploring associations with relationships and emotions	Teaching and teacher education	2014
60	Jouffre, S; Esnard, C; Taillandier-Schmitt, A	When declaring respect for school rules leads pupils to be perceived more positively: Consequences of academic organizational citizenship behaviors on teachers' judgments	Revue internationale de psychologie sociale-international review of social psychology	2012
61	Kaya, A	The Relationship between Spiritual Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors: A Research on School Principals' Behaviors	Educational sciences-theory & practice	2015
62	Koh, wl; steers, rm; terborg, jr	The effects of transformational leadership on teacher attitudes and student performance in singapore	Journal of organizational behavior	1995
63	Lau, DC; Lam, LW; Salamon, SD	The Impact of Relational Demographics on Perceived Managerial Trustworthiness: Similarity or Norms?	Journal of social psychology	2008
64	Lau, DC; Lam, LW; Wen, SS	Examining the effects of feeling trusted by supervisors in the workplace: A self-evaluative perspective	Journal of organizational behavior	2014
65	Le Blanc, PM; Gonzalez-Roma, V	A team level investigation of the relationship between Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) differentiation, and commitment and performance	Leadership quarterly	2012
66	Lee, AN; Nie, YY	Understanding teacher empowerment: Teachers' perceptions of principal's and immediate supervisor's empowering behaviours, psychological empowerment and work-related outcomes	Teaching and teacher education	2014
67	Lev, S; Koslowsky, M	On-the-job embeddedness as a mediator between conscientiousness and school teachers' contextual performance	European journal of work and organizational psychology	2012
68	Lev, S; Koslowsky, M	Teacher Gender as a Moderator of the On-the-Job Embeddedness-OCB Relationship	Journal of applied social psychology	2012
69	Li, CK; Hung, CH	The influence of transformational leadership on workplace relationships and job performance	Social behavior and personality	2009
70	Li, X	Research on organizational citizenship behavior of elementary and secondary school teachers in China	International journal of psychology	2004
71	Lin, BL; Law, KS; Zhou, J	Why is underemployment related to creativity and ocb? A task-crafting explanation of the curvilinear moderated relations	Academy of management journal	2017

72	Mao, HY; Chen, CY; Hsieh, TH	The relationship between bureaucracy and workplace friendship	Social behavior and personality	2009
73	Mazzer, KR; Rickwood, DJ	Teachers' and coaches' role perceptions for supporting young people's mental health: Multiple group path analyses	Australian journal of psychology	2015
74	Meriac, JP	Work ethic and academic performance: Predicting citizenship and counterproductive behavior	Learning and individual differences	2012
75	Muller, A; Weigl, M	SOC Strategies and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors toward the Benefits of Co-workers: A Multi-Source Study	Frontiers in psychology	2017
76	Nahum-Shani, I; Somech, A	Leadership, OCB and individual differences: Idiocentrism and allocentrism as moderators of the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and OCB	Leadership quarterly	2011
77	Neves, PC; Paixao, R; Alarcao, M; Gomes, AD	Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools: Validation of a Questionnaire	Spanish journal of psychology	2014
78	Ngidi, DP	Academic optimism: an individual teacher belief	Educational studies	2012
79	Nguni, S; Slegers, P; Denessen, E	Transformational and transactional leadership effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior in primary schools: The Tanzanian case	School effectiveness and school improvement	2006
80	Oplatka, I	Emotional aspects of extra-role behaviours in prevention education: insights from interviews with exceptional teachers and school principals	Teachers and teaching	2012
81	Oplatka, I	Managing emotions in teaching: Toward an understanding of emotion displays and caring as nonprescribed role elements	Teachers college record	2007
82	Oplatka, I	Going beyond role expectations: Toward an understanding of the determinants and components of teacher organizational citizenship behavior	Educational administration quarterly	2006
83	Oplatka, I; Golan, R	The teacher's extra-role behaviors: some illuminations from a study of the israeli religious state education system	Religious education	2011
84	Park, HI; O'Rourke, E; O'Brien, KE	Extending Conservation of Resources Theory: The Interaction Between Emotional Labor and Interpersonal Influence	International journal of stress management	2014
85	Park, S; Jo, SJ	The impact of proactivity, leader-member exchange, and climate for innovation on innovative behavior in the Korean government sector	Leadership & organization development journal	2018
86	Philipp, A; Kunter, M	How do teachers spend their time? A study on teachers' strategies of selection, optimisation, and compensation over their career cycle	Teaching and teacher education	2013
87	Power, RL	Leader-Member Exchange Theory in Higher and Distance Education	International review of research in open and distance learning	2013

88	Qureshi, JA; Shahjehan, A; Zeb, F; Saifullah, K	The effect of self-esteem and organizational identification on organizational citizenship behavior: A case of Pakistani public sector university	African journal of business management	2011
89	Runhaar, P; Konermann, J; Sanders, K	Teachers' organizational citizenship behaviour: Considering the roles of their work engagement, autonomy and leader-member exchange	Teaching and teacher education	2013
90	Sahin, S	Examining Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) of Teacher Candidates at the Faculty of Education	Croatian journal of education- hrvatski casopis za odgoj i obrazovanje	2013
91	Sekerdej, M; Roccas, S	Love versus loving criticism: Disentangling conventional and constructive patriotism	British journal of social psychology	2016
92	Sesen, H; Basim, NH	Impact of satisfaction and commitment on teachers' organizational citizenship	Educational psychology	2012
93	Shapira-Lishchinsky, O; Raftar-Ozery, T	Leadership, absenteeism acceptance, and ethical climate as predictors of teachers' absence and citizenship behaviors	Educational management administration & leadership	2018
94	Shapira-Lishchinsky, O; Tsemach, S	Psychological Empowerment as a Mediator Between Teachers' Perceptions of Authentic Leadership and Their Withdrawal and Citizenship Behaviors	Educational administration quarterly	2014
95	Shen, J; Benson, J; Huang, BH	High-performance work systems and teachers' work performance: the mediating role of quality of working life	Human resource management	2014
96	Siciliano, MD	Professional Networks and Street-Level Performance: How Public School Teachers' Advice Networks Influence Student Performance	American review of public administration	2017
97	Singh, M; Sarkar, A	The Relationship Between Psychological Empowerment and Innovative Behavior A Dimensional Analysis With Job Involvement as Mediator	Journal of personnel psychology	2012
98	Somech, A	Managing conflict in school teams: The impact of task and goal interdependence on conflict management and team effectiveness	Educational administration quarterly	2008
99	Somech, A	The cost of going the extra mile: the relationship between teachers' organizational citizenship behavior, role stressors, and strain with the buffering effect of job autonomy	Teachers and teaching	2016
100	Somech, A	Participative Decision Making in Schools: A Mediating-Moderating Analytical Framework for Understanding School and Teacher Outcomes	Educational administration quarterly	2010
101	Somech, A; Bogler, R	Antecedents and consequences of teacher organizational and professional commitment	Educational administration quarterly	2002
102	Somech, A; Drach-Zahavy, A	Exploring organizational citizenship behaviour from an organizational perspective: The relationship between organizational learning and organizational citizenship behaviour	Journal of occupational and organizational psychology	2004
103	Somech, A; Drach-Zahavy, A	Understanding extra-role behavior in schools: the relationships between job satisfaction, sense of efficacy, and teachers' extra-role behavior	Teaching and teacher education	2000

104	Somech, A; Oplatka, I	Coping With School Violence Through the Lens of Teachers' Role Breadth The Impact of Participative Management and Job Autonomy	Educational administration quarterly	2009
105	Somech, A; Ron, I Swider, BW;	Promoting organizational citizenship behavior in schools: The impact of individual and organizational characteristics	Educational administration quarterly	2007
106	Zimmerman, RD	Born to burnout: A meta-analytic path model of personality, job burnout, and work outcomes	Journal of vocational behavior	2010
107	Tang, TLP; Weatherford, EJ	Perception of enhancing self-worth through service: The development of a Service Ethic Scale	Journal of social psychology	1998
108	Tastan, M; Yilmaz, K	Organizational Citizenship and Organizational Justice Scales' Adaptation to Turkish	Egitim ve bilim-education and science	2008
109	Terzi, AR	Organizational Commitment and Citizenship Behaviors among Teachers	Anthropologist	2015
110	Thomsen, M; Karsten, S; Oort, FJ	Social exchange in Dutch schools for vocational education and training: The role of teachers' trust in colleagues, the supervisor and higher management	Educational management administration & leadership	2015
111	Tschannen-Moran, M; Hoy, WK	A multidisciplinary analysis of the nature, meaning, and measurement of trust	Review of educational research	2000
112	van Dick, R; Wagner, U; Stellmacher, J; Christ, O	Multilevel analyses in organizational psychology: A pleading and an example	Zeitschrift fur arbeits-und organisationspsychologie	2005
113	Vashdi, DR; Vigoda-Gadot, E; Shlomi, D	Assessing performance: the impact of organizational climates and politics on public schools' performance	Public administration	2013
114	Vigoda-Gadot, E	Redrawing the boundaries of OCB? An empirical examination of compulsory extra-role behavior in the workplace	Journal of business and psychology	2007
115	Vigoda-Gadot, E; Beeri, I; Birman-Shemesh, T; Somech, A	Group-level Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the education system: A scale reconstruction and validation	Educational administration quarterly	2007
116	Yildirim, Y	Evaluation Of The Correlation Between Organizational Citizenship, And Organizational Stress And Exhaustion Levels Of The Physical Education Teachers	Life science journal-acta zhengzhou university overseas edition	2013
117	Yilmaz, K; Altinkurt, Y	Relationship between Management by Values, Organizational Trust and Organizational Citizenship	Technics technologies education management-ttem	2011
118	Yilmaz, K; Altinkurt, Y; Yildirim, H	The effects of gender, seniority and subject matter variables on teachers' organizational citizenship behaviors in Turkey: A meta-Analysis	Egitim ve bilim-education and science	2015
119	Zhang, JF; Zhou, MJ; Zhang, JX	The interactive effects of personality and burnout on knowledge sharing among teachers	Social behavior and personality	2016



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An Analysis of the Effects of Teacher-Teacher Trust on Teacher's Efficacy and  
Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The Journal of Korean Teacher  
Education

2013

*Note:* N=120. Source: Own ellaboration.

## Annexe: Methodology

### Annexe 3.1 *Questions for the semi-structured interview, and their relationship with the research objectives*

Objective	Question
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• What do you understand as “Citizenship”? Do you think that students are citizens?</li><li>• Considering the diversity of cultures in Chile, do you think that there must be only one understanding of what citizenship is? Is it possible to include cultural differences in this conception?</li><li>• Considering that the number of immigrant students is raising, how do you think that citizenship training should treat this issue? How is currently treated?</li><li>• What do you think of the new law that creates a mandatory citizens’ training plan in the schools?</li><li>• Are the schools’ representatives invited to dialogue and share experiences? What about the other members of the educative communities?</li><li>• Are there any networks within the community, established to support the promotion of citizenship?</li></ul>
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Current and previous roles. How did you get here?</li><li>• In terms of rewards, incentives, training, development, etc., Do you think that you receive what you deserve? And your colleagues?</li><li>• Do you think that procedures in this organisation are fair? Are they fair to your colleagues?</li><li>• Do you think that you are fairly treated in this organisation? And your colleagues?</li></ul>
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• What has been the role/involvement of the school district (and its schools) in the recent social movements? Such as the national teachers’ strike developed during June of 2019</li><li>• During decision-making processes, can you participate? Do you feel that you can give your opinion? And your other colleagues, can they participate?</li><li>• Can you remember an occasion where the opinions of the district workers were not listened to by the authorities? How was it? How did you feel?</li><li>• Do you remember any actions where educative communities were asked to give their opinion about a relevant issue? How was it? Did it work?</li></ul>

*Note:* Own elaboration.

**Annexe 3.2** *Scale for OCB in the educational context*

<b>Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. “The specific employee...”</b>	<b>Group-level Organisational citizenship Behaviour. “In this school...”</b>
1. Completes assigned duties adequately.	1. The teachers here complete assigned duties adequately.
2. Fulfils responsibilities specified in his or her job description.	2. The teachers here fulfil responsibilities specified in their job description.
3. Fulfils the supervisor’s expectations.	3. The teachers here fulfils the supervisor’s expectations.
4. Meets the formal performance requirements of the job.	4. The teachers here meet the formal performance requirements of the job.
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his or her performance evaluation.	5. The teachers here engage in activities that will directly affect his or her performance evaluation.
6. Neglects aspects of the job he or she is obligated to perform (r).	6. The teachers here neglect aspects of the job he or she is obligated to perform (r).
7. Performs essential duties successfully.	7. The teachers here perform essential duties successfully.
8. Helps others who have been absent.	8. The teachers here help others who have been absent.
9. Helps others who have heavy workloads.	9. The teachers here help teachers who have heavy workloads.
10. Assists the supervisor with his or her work (when not asked).	10. The teachers here assist the principal with his or her work (when not asked).
11. Takes time to listen to co-workers’ problems and worries.	11. The teachers here take time to listen to co-workers’ problems and worries.
12. Goes out of his or her way to help new employees.	12. The teachers here go out of his or her way to help new employees.
13. Takes a personal interest in other employees.	13. The teachers here take a personal interest in other employees.
14. Passes along information to co-workers.	14. The teachers here pass along information to co-workers.
15. Attendance at work is above the norm.	15. Teachers’ attendance at work is above the norm (for example, staying after school hours to help students).
16. Gives advance notice when unable to come to work.	16. The teachers here give advance notice when unable to come to work.
17. Takes undeserved work breaks.	17. The teachers here arrive at work on time and do not return late after work breaks.
18. Spends a great deal of time on personal phone conversations (r).	18. The teachers here spend a great deal of time on personal phone conversations and issues irrelevant to work (r).
19. Complains about insignificant things at work (r).	19. The teachers here complain about insignificant things at work (r).
20. Conserves and protects organisational property.	20. The teachers here conserve and protect organisational property.
21. Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order.	21. –
22. –	22. The teachers here help other teachers and parents who have no formal interactions with them.

23. Covers for co-workers.	23. The teachers here cover for co-workers.
24. Helps people outside the department.	24. –
25. –	25. The teachers here have a strong volunteer orientation.
26. Makes innovative suggestions to improve the department.	26. The teachers here make innovative suggestions to improve school life.
27. Coasts toward the end of the day (r).	27. The teachers here coast toward the end of the day (r).

*Note:* R refers to reversed items. Five item scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). It was adapted from "Group-level organisational citizenship behaviour in the education system: A scale reconstruction and validation" by E. Vigoda-Gadot, I. Beeri, T. Briman-Shemesh and A. Somech, 2007, *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 43(4), P. 462-493.

### **Annexe 3.3 OJS in the educational context**

<b>Scale</b>	<b>Items</b>
<b>Organisational Justice items</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The behaviours of the principal are consistent.</li> <li>2. Students are treated fairly in this school.</li> <li>3. Principal does not try to be popular.</li> <li>4. Principal treats everyone with dignity and respect them.</li> <li>5. Nobody is treated like preferential in this school.</li> <li>6. Principal treats everyone in this school fairly.</li> <li>7. Teachers in this school do not consider their self-interest in their jobs.</li> <li>8. Principal is loyal to ethical standards.</li> <li>9. Teachers in this school are involved in decisions about themselves.</li> <li>10. Teachers are treated fairly in this school.</li> </ol>

*Note:* Seven-point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Adapted from "Organisational justice in schools: no justice without trust" by W. K. Hoy and J. Tarter, 2004, *International Journal of Educational Management*, 18(4), p. 250-259. Copyright by Hoy, 2004. Adapted from "Organizational Citizenship and Organizational Justice Scales' Adaptation to Turkish" by M. Tastan and K. Yilmaz, 2008, *education and science*, 33(150), p. 87-96.

### **Annexe 3.4** *Invitation to participate.*

#### **INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN DOCTORAL RESEARCH**

My name is María Francisca Álvarez Figueroa and I am a PhD researcher from the Global Development Institute/ School of Environment, Education and Development, The University of Manchester.

The reason for this email, is because the case of your school district is unique in terms of Citizenship Education. In this sense, I would like to invite you to take part in a research study that **aims to analyse the forms of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours of members from school districts in Chile and their outcomes for the district. This study constitutes a Doctoral Research to obtain the Degree PhD Development Policy and Management at The University of Manchester.** Before you decide whether to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully before deciding whether to take part and discuss it with others if you wish. Please ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Thank you for taking the time to read this.

#### **The title of the research is:**

“Building Citizenship in Chile: Analysing the impact of dictatorial and post-dictatorial educative policies in the citizenship behaviours manifested by school districts’ staff”.

#### **The Background of the study:**

Chile has had the most significant economic development in Latin America in the last years, but also, the most unequal and segregated educational system in the world. In this context, it has been recognised that an alternative to overcome these challenges is through education (OECD, 2012; OECD, 2009). Furthermore, it has been evidenced that to strengthen democracies; it is necessary to enhance the populations’ citizenship behaviours, civic engagement, participation and understanding of the issue (Da Matta, Richards & Hemphill, 2015; Jara & Sánchez, 2018; Print, 2007). In this regard, the literature suggests that informed and engaged citizens are more likely to participate in civic issues and to support and reproduce democratic values and norms (Da Matta, Richards & Hemphill, 2015; Print, 2007).

In this context, citizenship education acquires more relevance than never, since the Chilean democratic system is facing many challenges related to reduced voter turnout, and disenchantment towards institutions. Accordingly, the role of education is fundamental. Indeed, the new public policies promulgated in Chile aspire to overcome the inequality and segregation intensified in the last years.

For the reasons above, this research believes that if the educational policies that have influenced the citizenship behaviours of the Chilean society are analysed, this could enlighten

the understanding about the democratic crisis that Chile is facing. In this regard, although the country has advanced in promulgating a Law that creates the mandatory plan in Citizenship Training, the challenges for the educative staff in implementing these and encouraging citizenship are significant. As this level of the educative system is crucial but has received scarce attention, the purpose of this study is to explore the citizenship behaviours and values of staff from school districts' in Chile (Municipal Departments of Education and Local Services of Education).

**Thus, you have been invited to participate in the current study since the case of your school district has proved unique outcomes for the schools of the district.** In this study, three other districts will be invited, and between 6 and 10 participants from each organisation will be interviewed.

### **The invitation**

If you decide to take part in this study, you will be interviewed on one occasion, during 40-60 minutes (the interview will be recorder for analyses' purposes). Within this time, you will also be asked to fill and informed consent and to complete a short survey, which is voluntary. The participant and the researcher will convene the date and location of the interview, but it is expected to be on the premises of the school district where you work.

This research does not suppose any risk for you since your confidentiality will be ensured in all the stages of the process. Among the benefits of participating, you will contribute to developing research in an unexplored topic in Chile.

### **Will I be compensated for taking part?**

Once that the study has finished, you will receive a report detailing the principal findings of the study and, if required, the researcher will share these in a seminar with the educative community of the participant school district.

### **Annexe 3.5** *Participant Information Sheet*

**“Building Citizenship in Chile: Analysing the impact of dictatorial and post-dictatorial educative policies in the citizenship behaviours manifested by school districts’ staff”**

#### **Participant Information Sheet (PIS)**

You are being invited to take part in a research study that **aims to analyse the forms of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours of members from school districts in Chile and their outcomes for the district. This study constitutes a Doctoral Research to obtain the Degree PhD Development Policy and Management at The University of Manchester.** Before you decide whether to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being conducted and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully before deciding whether to take part and discuss it with others if you wish. Please ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Thank you for taking the time to read this.

#### **About the research**

➤ **Who will conduct the research?**

This research is conducted by the PhD researcher María Francisca Álvarez Figueroa, from the Global Development Institute/ School of Environment, Education and Development, The University of Manchester.

➤ **What is the purpose of the research?**

Chile has had the most significant economic development in Latin America in the last years, but also, the most unequal and segregated educational system in the world. In this context, it has been recognised that an alternative to overcome these challenges is through education (OECD, 2012; OECD, 2009). Furthermore, it has been evidenced that to strengthen democracies; it is necessary to enhance the populations’ citizenship behaviours, civic engagement, participation and understanding of the issue (Da Matta, Richards & Hemphill, 2015; Jara & Sánchez, 2018; Print, 2007). In this regard, the literature suggests that informed and engaged citizens are more likely to participate in civic issues and to support and reproduce democratic values and norms (Da Matta, Richards & Hemphill, 2015; Print, 2007).

In this context, citizenship education acquires more relevance than never, since the Chilean democratic system is facing many challenges related to reduced voter turnout, and disenchantment towards institutions. Accordingly, the role of education is fundamental. Indeed, the new public policies promulgated in Chile aspire to overcome the inequality and segregation intensified in the last years.

For the reasons above, this research believes that if the educational policies that have influenced the citizenship behaviours of the Chilean society are analysed, this could enlighten the understanding about the democratic crisis that Chile is facing. In this regard, although the country has advanced in promulgating a Law that creates the mandatory plan in Citizenship Training, the challenges for the educative staff in implementing these and encouraging citizenship are significant. As this level of the educative system is crucial but has received scarce attention, the purpose of this study is to explore the citizenship behaviours and values of staff from school districts' in Chile (Municipal Departments of Education and Local Services of Education).

Thus, you have been invited to participate in the current study since the case of your school district has proved unique outcomes for the schools of the district. In this study, three other districts will be invited, and between 6 and 10 participants from each organisation will be interviewed.

➤ **Will the outcomes of the research be published?**

Although the purpose of this research is to develop a Doctoral Thesis to obtain the PhD in Development Policy and Management, the findings of this research are expected to be published in scientific journals and shared in conferences and congresses.

➤ **Who has reviewed the research project?**

The project has been reviewed by the School of Environment, Education and Development Ethics Committee, The University of Manchester.

**What would my involvement be?**

➤ **What would I be asked to do if I took part?**

If you decide to take part in this study, you will be interviewed on one occasion, during 40-60 minutes (the interview will be recorder for analyses' purposes). Within this time, you will also be asked to fill and informed consent and to complete a short survey, which is voluntary. The participant and the researcher will convene the date and location of the interview, but it is expected to be on the premises of the school district where you work.

This research does not suppose any risk for the participant since his/her confidentiality will be ensured in all the stages of the process. Among the benefits of participating, you will contribute to developing research in an unexplored topic in Chile.

➤ **Will I be compensated for taking part?**

Once that the study has finished, you will receive a report detailing the principal findings of the study and, if required, the researcher will share these in a seminar with the educative community of the participant school district.

➤ **What happens if I do not want to take part or if I change my mind?**



It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. Just send an email to [Francisca.alvarezfigueroa@manchester.ac.uk](mailto:Francisca.alvarezfigueroa@manchester.ac.uk). If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and will be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part, you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to yourself. However, it will not be possible to remove your data from the project once it has been anonymised as we will not be able to identify your specific data. This does not affect your data protection rights. If you decide not to take part, you do not need to do anything further.

As the interview will be recorded, you are free to decline the recording, although this is essential to their participation in the study. Furthermore, as the most important part of this research is that you feel comfortable with the recording process at all times, you are free to stop recording at any time of the interview.

## **Data Protection and Confidentiality**

### **➤ What information will you collect about me?**

To participate in this research project, we will need to collect information that could identify you, called “personal identifiable information”. Specifically, we will need to collect:

- Age
- Gender
- Level of studies
- Date and place of Bachelor’s studies (and postgraduate studies if applicable).
- Information about other school districts where the participant has worked (if applicable)

Note: the recordings will be voice only audios, and will be obtained during the interview.

### **➤ Under what legal basis are you collecting this information?**

We are collecting and storing this personal identifiable information in accordance with data protection law which protects your rights. These state that we must have a legal basis (specific reason) for collecting your data. For this study, the specific reason is that it is “a public interest task” and “a process necessary for research purposes”.

### **➤ What are my rights in relation to the information you will collect about me?**

You have a number of rights under data protection law regarding your personal information. For example, you can request a copy of the information we hold about you, including audio recordings.

If you would like to know more about your different rights or the way we use your personal information to ensure we follow the law, please consult our [Privacy Notice for Research](#).

Link: <http://documents.manchester.ac.uk/display.aspx?DocID=37095>

### **➤ Will, my participation in the study, be confidential, and my personal identifiable information be protected?**

In accordance with data protection law, The University of Manchester is the Data Controller for this project. This means that we are responsible for making sure your personal information is kept secure, confidential and used only in the way you have been told it will be used. All researchers are trained with this in mind, and your data will be looked after in the following way:

- You will be assigned an anonymised ID number. Thus, your data will be fully anonymised. Only the study team at The University of Manchester will have access to your personal information, but they will anonymise it as soon as possible. Your name and any other identifying information will be removed and replaced with a random ID number. Only the research team will have access to the key that links this ID number to your personal information. Your consent form and contact details will be retained for 5 years (digitalised copy in a private Dropbox Business) since future studies conducted by the same team can emerge for this research. The private data will not be shared with other organisations. After the 5 years, the private and confidential data will be discarded.

#### **For audio recordings:**

- The recordings will be used to create transcripts. These will be performed by the PhD researcher.
- The personal identifiable information will be removed in the final transcript
- The recordings/photographs will be destroyed or digitally altered to remove personal information by voice masking software.
- Only the PhD researcher, María Francisca Álvarez Figueroa, will have access to the information.

Please also note that individuals from The University of Manchester or regulatory authorities may need to look at the data collected for this study to make sure the project is being carried out as planned. This may involve looking at identifiable data. All individuals involved in auditing and monitoring the study will have a strict duty of confidentiality to you as a research participant.

#### **What if I have a complaint?**

##### **➤ Contact details for complaints**

If you have a complaint that you wish to direct to members of the research team, please contact:

**MARÍA FRANCISCA ÁLVAREZ FIGUEROA**  
**PhD Researcher, Global Development Institute,**  
**The University of Manchester**  
Phone number: +44 (0)161 306 6000  
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**If you wish to make a formal complaint to someone independent of the research team or if you are not satisfied with the response you have gained from the researchers in the first instance, then please contact**

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If you wish to contact us about your data protection rights, please email [dataprotection@manchester.ac.uk](mailto:dataprotection@manchester.ac.uk) or write to The Information Governance Office, Christie Building, The University of Manchester, Oxford Road, M13 9PL at the University and we will guide you through the process of exercising your rights.

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Link: <https://ico.org.uk/make-a-complaint/>

**Contact Details**

If you have any queries about the study or if you are interested in taking part, then please contact the researcher(s)

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**Annexe 3.6 Consent Form**

**“Building Citizenship in Chile: Analysing the impact of dictatorial and post-dictatorial educative policies in the citizenship behaviours manifested by school districts’ staff”**  
  
**Consent Form**

If you are happy to participate please complete and sign the consent form below

	<b>Activities</b>	<b>Initials</b>
1	I confirm that I have read the attached information sheet ( <b>Version 1, 05/29/2019</b> ) for the above study and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask questions and had these answered satisfactorily.	
2	I understand that my participation in the study is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and without detriment to myself. I understand that it will not be possible to remove my data from the project once it has been anonymised and forms part of the data set.  I agree to take part on this basis.	
3	I agree to the <b>interviews</b> being <b>audio / video recorded</b> .	
4	I agree that any data collected may be published in anonymous form in <b>academic books, reports or journals</b> .	
5	I understand that data collected during the study may be looked at by individuals from The University of Manchester or regulatory authorities, where it is relevant to my taking part in this research. I give permission for these individuals to have access to my data.	
6	I agree that any <b>personal/anonymised</b> data collected may be shared with <b>researchers/researchers at other institutions</b> .	

9	I agree that the researchers may retain my contact details in order to provide me with a summary of the findings for this study.	
10	I understand that there may be instances where during the course of the <b>interview/focus group</b> information is revealed which means that the researchers will be obliged to break confidentiality and this has been explained in more detail in the information sheet.	
11	I agree to take part in this study.	

### Data Protection

The personal information we collect and use to conduct this research will be processed in accordance with data protection law as explained in the Participant Information Sheet and the [Privacy Notice for Research Participants](#).

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of Participant                      Signature                      Date

\_\_\_\_\_  
Name of the person taking consent      Signature                      Date

[1 copy for the participant, 1 copy for the research team (original)]

## Annexe: Findings

### Annexe 4.1 *Translation from original titles in Spanish to English*

<b>Original title in Spanish</b>	<b>English translation</b>
Centro de alumnos	Students Council
Asamblea general	General Assembly
Consejo de delegados de curso (estudiantes)	Class delegates' Council (students)
Consejo de curso	Class council
Junta electoral (no sé si dejarla)	Electoral Committee
Centro de padres y apoderados	Parents and guardians' Council
Consejo de delegados de curso del Centro de Padres y Apoderados	Class Delegates Council (parents and guardians)
Sub-centro padres y apoderados	Subcentre of parents and guardians
Consejo de Profesores	Teachers Council
Microcentro	Micro-centre
Consejo escolar	School board
Consejo de educación parvularia	Preschool board
Comité de Buena convivencia	Good coexistence committee
Consejo Local	Local Council
Conferencia de Directores de Escuelas, Jardines y Liceos	Conference of principals from schools, preschool and high school education
Comité Directivo local	Local directive Committee

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## Publications

Álvarez-Figueroa, F. & Díaz, D. (in press). ¿Formando ciudadanos? Instrumentos para la Participación Ciudadana en el Sistema Escolar Chileno [Forming citizens? Instruments for Citizen Participation in the Chilean School System]. *La ciudadanía en tiempos constituyentes [Citizenship in constitutional times]*. P. Ascorra, K. Cárdenas, C.G. Núñez, M. Morales (Eds.). Ediciones Universitarias de Valparaíso: Valparaíso, Chile.

### CAPÍTULO 10

#### ¿Formando ciudadanos? Instrumentos para la participación ciudadana en el sistema escolar chileno por Francisca Álvarez-Figueroa y Daniel A. Díaz

**D**urante y después del período de la dictadura cívico-militar en Chile (1973-1989), se llevaron a cabo una serie de reformas en el sector educativo, privatizándolo a través de la implementación de un sistema de subvención a los colegios privados con el fin de aumentar el acceso a dichas instituciones (Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007). Por su parte, la responsabilidad de la administración de las escuelas y liceos públicos fue transferida desde el Estado a los municipios (Falabella, 2020; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007). Con esta última medida, el Estado pasó a convertirse de un estado “responsable”, a uno “garante” de la educación, el cual, durante estos años, no aportó significativamente con estrategias nacionales de responsabilización de la gestión de la educación pública (Ilabaca et al., 2020; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007).

Dichas reformas contribuyeron a fomentar una educación basada en estándares, rendición de cuentas y competencia, donde los padres, apoderados y estudiantes pasaron a convertirse en “clientes” que podían elegir dentro una supuesta amplia variedad de “ofertas” en educación basada en rendimientos académicos (Marcel, 2009; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007). Se ha propuesto que lo anterior alentó la segregación

Álvarez-Figueroa, F. & Díaz, D. (2022). *The spectrum of participation and citizenship in Chile: Divergent legislation in a neoliberal context*. AERA 2022 Conference. San Diego, CA. doi: 10.3102/IP.22.1891161

**The spectrum of participation and citizenship in Chile: Divergent legislation in a neoliberal context**

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**Forthcoming publication of this extended work:**

Álvarez-Figueroa, F. & Díaz, D. (2022). *¿Formando ciudadanos? Instrumentos para la Participación Ciudadana en el Sistema Escolar Chileno [Forming citizens? Instruments for Citizen Participation in the Chilean School System]*. *La ciudadanía en tiempos constituyentes [Citizenship in constitutional times]*. P. Ascorra, K. Cárdenas, C.G. Núñez, M. Morales (Eds.). Ediciones Universitarias de Valparaíso: Valparaíso, Chile.

**Abstract**

**Purpose:** Participation is critical in any society. Nonetheless, the spaces for its expression may vary. We examine how citizenship has been encouraged by educative legislation in the Chilean school system.

**Design/Methodology/Approach:** Thematic analysis of educative policies.

**Findings:** Legislation promotes participative bodies, but these tend to lack the power to exert meaningful influence. The framework's impact is even cruder for private institutions for which the laws serve to consolidate their autonomy.

**Limitations:** This research has been conducted in Chile, limiting its reach to this context.

**Originality/value:** Chile has been described as an example of economic development but at the cost of high inequality. Hence the examination of legal frameworks sheds light on their alignment with citizenship and participation in educational contexts.

**Contextual background**

Chile has experienced significant economic development over recent years but remains one of the world's most unequal societies and segregated educational systems (OECD, 2009, 2012). During the civic-military dictatorship (1973-1989), a neoliberal approach was implemented, whereby the State actively encouraged private entrepreneurial initiatives in different societal areas, including education (Moreno-Doña & Jiménez, 2014; Poyanco, 2017).

Thus, education was privatised by implementing State vouchers given to privately-owned schools to decrease tuition fees. The State transferred the administration of public schools to municipalities or town councils, creating the Departments of Municipal Education (DME) (Falabella, 2020; Raczynski & Muñoz, 2007). This scenario encouraged segregation and unequal access to education, as subsidised and private schools tended to operate with larger

## Press releases

- Álvarez-Figueroa, F. & Díaz, D.** (2022, June 29). *Cómo hacer más efectiva la participación en los sistemas educativos [How to make participation in education systems more effective]* [Press release]. <https://www.ciperchile.cl/2022/06/29/como-hacer-mas-efectiva-la-participacion-en-los-sistemas-educativos/>
- Álvarez-Figueroa, F. & Díaz, D.** (2022, April 4). *El vínculo entre educación cívica y violencia escolar [The link between civic education and school violence]* [Press release]. <https://www.ciperchile.cl/2022/04/04/el-vinculo-entre-educacion-civica-y-violencia-escolar/>