

# Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Teaching Performance: Their Influence on Institutional Productivity

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## Abstract

This descriptive-correlational study investigated the influence of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and teaching performance on the institutional productivity of faculty members in State universities and Colleges (SUCs) in Panay Island, Philippines, for Academic Year 2024-2025. Using proportionate random sampling, 277 faculty members participated in the survey, using a researcher-modified, validated, reliability-tested data-gathering instrument. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics (means, percentages, and rankings) and inferential statistics (ANOVA and Multiple regression). The significance level was set at  $\alpha = 0.05$ . Results showed that respondents reported “high levels” of OCB, teaching performance, and institutional productivity. Correlation analysis indicated that both OCBs were significantly associated with institutional productivity, although teaching performance had a stronger association. Regression results confirmed that teaching performance significantly influenced institutional productivity, whereas OCB did not. Data revealed that organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and teaching performance significantly influence institutional productivity. The results showed that the regression model was statistically significant, indicating that the combined predictors (OCB and teaching performance) explained a substantial portion of the variance in institutional productivity. The study concludes that faculty teaching performance is the primary determinant of institutional productivity, whereas OCB is a complementary factor.

## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background of the Study

Recent developments in higher education have brought new challenges for college instructors and professors. New policies on accessibility and inclusivity have made the teachers' roles, duties, and responsibilities more demanding. Clearly, recent transformations in higher learning teaching platforms have made college instructors' work more stressful and challenging; hence, the need to develop and maintain highly committed and resilient teachers who can perform beyond expectations and survive in times of uncertainties and complexities.

Moreover, the success of educational institutions hinges on the effective utilization of their human capital, particularly their members of faculty. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), encompassing voluntary and cooperative actions beyond formal job requirements, is posited to create a positive organizational climate conducive to enhanced performance, reflecting the quality and effectiveness of instructional delivery, which directly impacts student learning outcomes and institutional reputation.

In ensuring quality performance and school effectiveness, and in these times of challenges, committed teachers play a significant role. More so, with pressures from top to bottom of curriculum reforms, quality assurance and accreditation programs, and other national and institutional policies affecting the personal and professional lives of college instructors, becoming resilient is also difficult. Pama (2023) stated that, as one of the most important elements that contribute to the growth of society, it serves as a vehicle for passing on culture from one generation to the next because of its effectiveness and quality. Besides, a productive school system is exemplified by the quality of its education through excellence in instruction, research, production, and community extension services. The crucial task of empowering learners to become independent is placed in the hands of teachers (Paz, 2021). While it is known that proficiency, commitment, and performance all go hand in hand, these qualities inspire and propel teachers to always give their utmost to their work. Teachers that showed these qualities are more likely to achieve better outcomes in terms of their classroom teaching performance.

Educational institutions today face increasing demands for accountability and efficiency amidst resource constraints and evolving student needs. In this context, maximizing institutional productivity often focuses on quantifiable outcomes; the role of faculty behavior and engagement is frequently overlooked. Moreover, now, institutions of higher education face pressure from stakeholders to provide evidence of productivity and efficiency of their operations (CHED 2003). Research also highlights potential gaps and challenges in these relationships. Studies have found that excessive OCB can lead to teacher burnout and decreased performance. Additionally, institutional factors such as inadequate resources, heavy workloads, and a lack of support can hinder the positive impact of OCB and teacher performance on productivity. Another gap that is being researched is the effects that a negative work environment can have on OCB, and also the effects that perceived job insecurity can have on OCB. It is, therefore, crucial to sustain the goals and mission of the government organization in terms of teaching and improving teachers' performance. The professional evaluation of teachers' effectiveness and ability in carrying out their duties includes standards for evaluation.

In light of the foregoing claims, this study aims to examine the organizational citizenship behaviors and teaching performance of college instructors/professors of State Universities and Colleges in Panay Island and their influence on institutional productivity.

### **Statement of the Problem**

This study aimed to determine the organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance of faculty members and their influence on institutional productivity among State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) in the island of Panay for the Academic Year 2024-2025.

Specifically, this study sought answers to the following questions:

1. What is the level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when taken as a whole and when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
2. What is the teaching performance of the respondents when taken as a whole and when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
3. What is the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when taken as a whole and when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
4. Are there significant differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?

5. Are there significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
6. Are there significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
7. Do the organizational citizenship behavior and the teaching performance of faculty members significantly influence institutional productivity?

### Null Hypotheses

Relative to the specific problems mentioned, the following null hypotheses were formulated:

1. There are no significant differences in the level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level.
2. There are no significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level.
3. There are no significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level.
4. The organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance of the faculty members do not significantly influence institutional productivity

### Theoretical Framework

This study explores the relationship between organizational **citizenship** behavior (OCB), teaching performance, and institutional productivity. To understand this complex interplay, several theoretical frameworks were employed, each offering a distinct lens for analyzing the study's dynamics.

The basis for this study is the understanding that employee behavior affects institutional productivity. This notion is grounded in social-exchange theory (SET), introduced by George C. Homans (1958) and later expanded by Peter Blau (1964), which posits that individuals contribute more effort to relationships they deem as positive, and withdraw or withhold effort from negative relationships (Deluga, 1994). In organizations, this means that employees may work harder or exhibit more positive behaviors (such as organizational citizenship) in workplaces in which they are more satisfied. This includes both in-role and extra-role behaviors. Employee efforts or behaviors (both formal and extra-role) then contribute to organizational performance. Birnbaum (1988) described social-exchange theory as “one orientation to leadership particularly suited to higher education”. The focus of this study is the behaviors that are not a part of the formal employee role and are not formally rewarded as such.

The second theory is the self-efficacy theory. According to Bandura (1994), perceived self-efficacy theory is about an individual's gauge of their capability to perform what is expected of them. Organizations can encourage higher performance goals from employees who have high levels of self-efficacy. People with high self-efficacy are more likely to set challenging goals, persist in the face of difficulties, and achieve higher levels of performance. This will lead to higher levels of job performance from employees, which is critical for many organizations in an era of high competition. Self-Efficacy applies to teachers as well as students. Teachers (or instructional self-efficacy) should influence teachers' activities, effort, and persistence.

The third theory is Walberg's Theory of Educational Productivity (1981). This theory is one of the few empirically tested theories of school learning, which posits that psychological characteristics of students

and their environments influence educational outcomes (cognitive, behavioral, and attitudinal). Another theory is the Utility Maximization Theory by Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill (1789), which points that individuals and institutions will strive to maximize their utility, which in the context of education, could mean focusing on activities that yield the most positive outcomes. In Education, the utility maximization theory suggests that individuals, including students and educators, make choices and allocate resources (time, effort, etc.) to maximize their perceived satisfaction or “utility” from educational activities. Teachers might select teaching methods, curriculum, or assessment techniques that they believe will lead to greater student engagement, learning outcomes, and overall satisfaction. While Obsolescence Theory, proposed by Donald Super (1957) and later expanded by Saul W. Ginzberg (1966) and Harris (1970s), suggests that institutions need to constantly adapt and innovate to remain relevant and productive in a changing world. In the context of education, “Obsolescence Theory” refers to the idea that knowledge, skills, and even educational practices can become outdated or irrelevant over time, necessitating continuous learning adaptation. This theory highlights the importance of lifelong learning and continuous professional development for educators and learners alike.

In the Philippines educational context, theories related to institutional productivity often focus on improving the effectiveness of institutions in achieving their goals, such as instruction, research, and extension, with a focus on factors like faculty research productivity, leadership styles, and the role of external pressures and institutional requirements.

### **Conceptual Framework**

As illustrated, this study aimed to find out the influences of the organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance on the institutional productivity of the college instructors/professors in state universities in Panay Island.

Certain identifiable personal factors were included in the study, such as age, educational attainment, years in service, academic rank, and SUC level. These demographics are factors that might influence the relationships between the other variables; hence, they are included in the study. These variables are important to control for, or to examine if they alter the strength of the relationships between the other variables. The organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance were the independent variables, and institutional productivity was the dependent variable. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) refers to voluntary behaviors of teachers that go beyond their formal duties. It is hypothesized that higher OCB will positively influence teaching performance and, consequently, institutional productivity. Teaching Performance encompasses the effectiveness of teachers in delivering instruction, managing classrooms, and engaging students. It is assumed that effective teaching performance directly contributes to institutional productivity. Institutional productivity represents the overall effectiveness and efficiency of the educational institution. It is the outcome variable, reflecting the success of the institution. Effective teaching performance is a key driver of institutional productivity. High-quality instruction leads to improved student learning outcomes, increased retention and graduation rates, and a positive reputation for the college. OCBs indirectly influence institutional productivity through their impact on teaching performance. Instructors who engage in OCBs not only improve their own teaching but also contribute to a more productive and supportive environment for all faculty members.

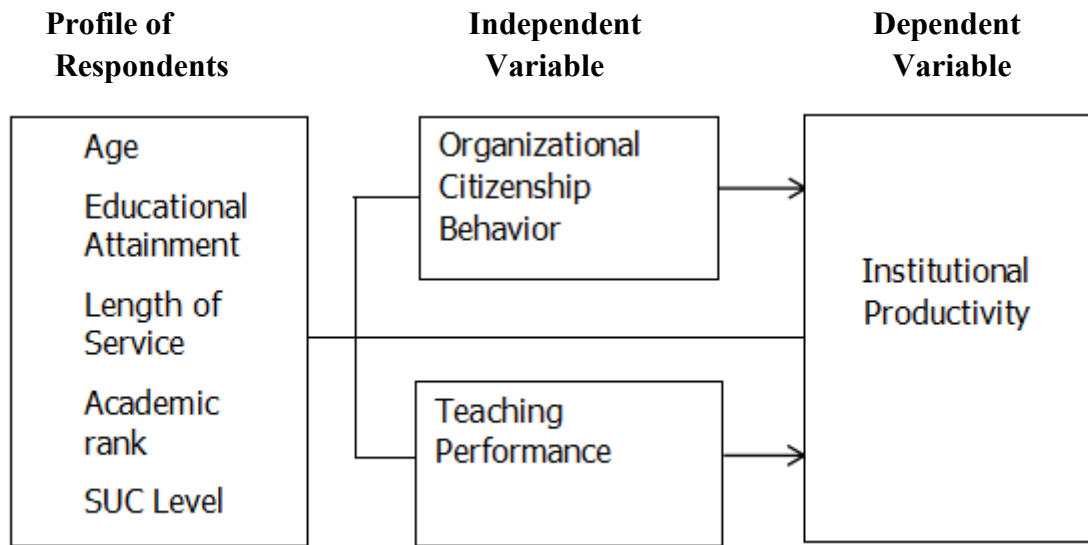


Figure I. Schematic diagram showing the interrelationships among the variables in the study.

### Significance of the Study

The result of this investigation holds significant implications for a wide range of stakeholders within and beyond the following groups of people:

#### The Commission on Higher Education (CHED) Officials. CHED

officials may benefit from the study's results by providing basic information necessary for policy formulation, specifically by designing the Performance Assessment of teachers and employees, thereby improving the quality of education in higher education institutions. This study can pinpoint how OCB directly correlates with enhanced teaching performance. This is crucial for CHED and SUC's, as quality education is a primary goal. Understanding the specific OCBs that contribute to effective teaching can inform targeted training and development programs for faculty. By quantifying the impact of OCB and Teaching Performance on Productivity, the study can provide evidence-based strategies for State Universities and Colleges to optimize their resources and achieve their objectives. This includes improvements in research output, student graduation rates, and overall institutional efficiency.

**State universities and Colleges (SUCs) Presidents.** The SUC presidents and administrators can use the research to inform their strategic planning, focusing on initiatives that cultivate OCB and improve teaching outcomes. This can lead to more efficient resource allocation and improved institutional performance.

**Human Resource Managers.** Human Resource managers may utilized the findings of this study as baseline data in planning and setting up new programs for the development of employees. The study can inform Human Resource practices by highlighting the importance of OCB in faculty and staff selection. The findings may also be useful to human resource managers in reviewing performance measures and hiring practices to ensure that new employees understand their duties and responsibilities and are ready for the new challenges of their jobs. Understanding the factors that foster OCB can help SUC's create a positive work environment, reducing employee turnover.

**School Administrators.** School administrators may provide relevant information in motivating employees to perform to the best of their abilities in order to achieve the goals and objectives of the organization.

**Teachers and Employees.** Teachers and employees likewise find the research findings beneficial. Having been informed of the results, the teachers and employees may be able to assess their values, weaknesses, and strengths to support their heads and school managers in attaining the institutional goals. Through the findings of this study, they may be able to assist their administrators to become effective in responding to the needs of every member of the organization, so that, despite some drawbacks, they may find an opportunity to grow and develop.

Moreover, the results may provide teachers with information that cooperation within an organization is important in handling issues that would greatly affect their work, and therefore, they can make certain adjustments in providing support and commitment to each other, to their instructional leaders, and school managers, leading to improved interpersonal relationships and teaching performance.

**Students.** The students may benefit from the results of the study through the quality of instruction to be given to them by their professors. Students will now be exposed to rich educational experiences and opportunities in an educational organization whose teachers and employees are effective and committed to their work. Learning is effective when there is a harmonious relationship between school administrators and faculty and staff.

**Stakeholders.** Stakeholders like parents, municipal officers, barangay officials, community leaders, and residents may be informed of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and emotional intelligence. They can now appreciate the importance of the role each individual in the organization plays in order to achieve the quality of education that is due to each student in their community. Through this, they can also provide assistance and support to schools in their locality, which will lead to improved services and educational opportunities for their children.

**Researcher** can gain a lot from undergoing the study. As this study requires patience and understanding that includes strenuous activity. In the course of the study, the researcher gained an in-depth knowledge of the different research techniques and methodologies, and being involved in the study helped enhance the researcher's ability to be more systematic and research-oriented.

**Future Researchers.** The findings of this study may also be beneficial to the researchers who may be interested in investigating or pursuing further studies on organizational citizenship behavior, emotional intelligence, and faculty performance. The result of this study may further contribute to the development of theories and concepts in OCB, thereby encouraging the community to join hands and support the school affairs in relation to quality education and in achieving the objectives, goals, mission, and vision of the institution.

### **Definition of Terms**

For purposes of clarity and precision, the following terms are given their conceptual and operational meanings.

**Institutional Productivity** refers to the output or effectiveness of an institution, typically measured in terms of its contribution to society, its impact on individuals, or its efficiency in achieving its goals. It is the degree to which a university meets its stated mission. It is based on an impact-oriented philosophy of continuous organizational improvement. It also refers to the factors and processes related to positive or negative effects on such an outcome. (Oxford Dictionary, 2024). "Institutional productivity is a key metric for assessing how efficiently higher education institutions convert inputs (funds, staff, infrastructure) into

outputs (graduates, research, societal contributions), with implications for policy and funding models.” (OECD, 2021).

In the context of this study, it refers to the overall effectiveness and efficiency of the state Universities and Colleges (SUC’s) in Panay Island in achieving their core objectives, particularly those related to the quality of education, student outcomes, and the efficient utilization of their resources in achieving their mission and goals.

**Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)** is defined as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and promotes the effective functioning of the organization as a whole.” (Organ, 1988; Fein et al., 2023)

As used in this study, organizational citizenship behavior refers to the range of voluntary and discretionary actions and behaviors exhibited by instructors and professors within the State Universities and Colleges in Panay Island that go beyond their formal job responsibilities and are explicitly mandated or rewarded by the formal system.

**Teaching Performance** is the result of the teacher’s work in the process of interaction with students in the classroom in providing knowledge to improve the quality of teaching (Pido, et al., 2023)

As used in this study, it refers to the performance of the instructors and professors of State Universities and Colleges in Panay Island which is most often expressed in terms of teaching, research, original creative work, and service.

### **Scope and Limitation of the Study**

This study aimed to determine the organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance of faculty members and their influence on the institutional productivity among State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) in Panay Island for the academic year 2024-2025.

This descriptive research utilized the 277 instructors and professors of the different state universities in Panay Island, namely: University of Antique, Aklan State University, Capiz State University, Iloilo State University of Fisheries, Science and Technology, and Northern Iloilo State University. A proportionate random sampling method was employed in the selection of respondents who were classified according to age, educational attainment, years in service, academic rank, and SUC level. The organizational citizenship behavior and

teaching performance was an independent variable, and institutional productivity was the dependent variable. The data-gathering instruments on OCB were adopted from Fox and Spector (2009), the Institutional Productivity Questionnaire was adapted from the AACCCUP (Accrediting Agency of Chartered Colleges and Universities in the Philippines), and the Teacher Performance Evaluation was tailored for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs and SUCs). These instruments were subjected to face and content validation to ensure their validity and reliability, and eventually subjected to factor analysis, and were pilot tested among the 30 University and College Professors and Instructors of Iloilo Science and Technology University's main campus, who were not included as respondents in this study.

For the descriptive analysis of the study, descriptive statistical tools such as means, frequency count, ranks, and percentages were used, while the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), or F-test, and Multiple regression were used for inferential analysis. The level of significance was set at .05 level.

## Chapter 2

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND STUDIES

This chapter presents the literature and studies relevant to the present investigation. This includes the conceptual literature and related studies.

#### Conceptual Literature

##### On Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) are discretionary, beyond-role behaviors and gestures that are not explicitly recognized by the formal reward system but are considered important in promoting organizational effectiveness (Organ, 2018; Somech & Oplatka, 2015). Contextually viewed and valued, these behaviors maintain and enhance the social and psychological contexts that support performance in the organization (Pickford & Joy, 2016). They help create social capital, increase efficiency, enhance productivity, and ensure overall success in the organization (Mallick, Pradhan, Tewari, & Jena, 2014; Wei, 2014).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) refers to voluntary actions that go beyond prescribed job duties but contribute significantly to organizational effectiveness. Organ (1988) categorized OCB into dimensions. These include *altruism*, which involves behaviors helping co-workers, *generalized compliance*, which consists of more impersonal *conscientious* behaviors, and *courtesy*, which comprises gestures preventing problems for colleagues at work. These OCB categories can help an organization promote efficiency through reduced need for supervision, training, and crisis management costs (Pickford & Joy, 2016). Another type of OCB is *sportsmanship*, which refers to the willingness to forbear minor inconveniences without appeal or protest. This allows organizations to sustain efficiency and effectiveness by focusing on more important job functions. Finally, the last type of OCBs is *civic virtue*, which includes constructive involvement in issues of governance. This helps organizations save costs by providing constructive suggestions. OCB is found to help promote quality and innovation in an organization (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). It facilitates knowledge sharing and promotes job satisfaction, mental health, physical health, job retention, and service-oriented behaviors among employees (De Geus, Ingrams, Tummers, & Pandey, 2020). Display of OCBs also fosters organizational efficiency as it can reduce the need for supervision, training, and crisis management costs, allow managers to focus on important job functions, and encourage employees to get involved in giving constructive suggestions that may help improve the organization (Hazzi, 2018). In the educational setting, teachers who exhibit OCB tend to assist colleagues, volunteer for extra duties, and promote a positive school climate.

According to Gkorezis and Petridou (2021), teachers with high OCB levels significantly influence school effectiveness by creating a supportive work environment that benefits both staff and students. In general, OCBs are found to be important in promoting higher levels of organizational productivity, quality, and effectiveness (Organ, 2018; Somech & Oplatka, 2015).

Age has consistently emerged as a significant demographic variable associated with organizational behavior (OCB). Numerous studies suggest that as employees age, they tend to demonstrate stronger OCB across various dimensions such as altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Ng and Feldman (2020) conducted a meta-analysis examining work behaviors across different age groups. Their results showed that older employees are more likely to engage in helping behaviors and civic participation, which are core dimensions of OCB. The authors attribute this to the higher levels of emotional stability, job experience, and organizational loyalty typically found in older individuals. Similarly, Mahmoud, Reisel, and Maloles (2021) found that in the Middle Eastern context, age was positively correlated with OCB. Their study

concluded that older workers were more inclined toward discretionary behaviors that benefited both coworkers and the organization, likely due to increased job tenure and internationalization of organizational values. Bakshi and Sharma (2022) explored the impact of age diversity on OCB in Indian organizations. They reported that older employees consistently exhibited higher levels of citizenship behaviors, particularly conscientiousness and organizational loyalty. This trend was attributed to greater maturity and professional commitment. In the public sector, Lee and Park (2023) observed that age significantly influenced extra-role behaviors. Older public servants were more likely to exhibit OCB, which was explained by the development of strong intrinsic motivation and alignment with public service values over time. Furthermore, Wang and Wang (2024) examined generational differences in the service sector across Asia. Their findings supported the notion that employees from other generations — specifically Gen X and Baby Boomers — displayed significantly higher levels of OCB than their younger counterparts. The study highlighted the role of life and work values in shaping pro-social organizational behavior.

Overall, the growing body of evidence suggests a positive relationship between age and OCB, indicating that as employees mature, they tend to adopt more cooperative, responsible, and organizationally beneficial behaviors. This reinforces the need to consider age-related factors when developing human resource interventions to enhance OCB.

### **On Faculty Teaching Performance**

Performance is the result of work behavior that has been achieved in order to complete the tasks and responsibilities that have been given within a certain period of time. For a long time, scientists and the government have considered teachers as a major asset.

Teaching performance is a critical factor in student learning outcomes and overall institutional effectiveness. It typically includes elements such as instructional planning, delivery, assessment, and classroom management. Numerous studies have emphasized that teacher effectiveness is one of the strongest predictors of student achievement (Stronge, 2018). Previous studies have shown that one of the factors that influences student learning success is the collaboration between students, teachers, and other parties involved in school activities (McKnight et al., 2016)

Evaluating faculty effectiveness is important in every institution of higher education. Assessing teaching performance enables one to gauge the quality of instruction represented by the institution and facilitate better learning among students. In addition, assessing the effectiveness with which various functions of the faculty members are performed is essential to a variety of important administrative recommendations and decisions. The evaluation system also provides feedback, which influences the faculty member's self-image and professional satisfaction. Evaluation performance affects employee productivity; this is in line with research conducted by (Abdelwahed et al., 2022); (Zeeshan et al., 2021); (Assoratgoon & Kantabutra, 2023); (Benton et al., 2017); (Alqudah et al., 2022); (Dinh et al., 2021). Thus, systems or processes for measuring teaching have been increasingly recognized as an important part of the instructional improvement puzzle.

Relatively, several studies were conducted to determine the variables in teachers' performance. For instance, Cebreros (2011) found that age, civil status, highest educational attainment, teaching experience, and monthly salary were significant predictors of faculty members' teaching performance. In like manner, Abarro (2018) found out that the teaching performance of teachers is affected by civil status, highest educational attainment, and local seminars attended and scholastic performance. In contrast, Durrani (2019) found that training and development, workload, and organizational identification had no positive

impact on teachers' performance. On the other hand, gender had no significant relationship with the teaching performance of the faculty members. Teaching performance also extends to continuous professional development, curriculum innovation, and collaboration with stakeholders.

### **On Institutional Productivity**

Institutional productivity is the term that describes the ongoing, comprehensive, and institutionally integrated system that colleges and universities use to achieve their mission priorities and goals and to measure how well they accomplish their goals and purposes as a result of their planning efforts. In the Philippines, institutional productivity is a multifaceted issue, particularly within higher education, involving research output, teaching effectiveness, and overall institutional performance. In higher education, institutional productivity is an institution's effort to organize evaluation, assessment, and improvement initiatives so that the institution can determine how well it is fulfilling its mission and achieving its goals. Institutional productivity identifies processes that an institution uses to determine how well it's accomplishing its mission. One process contributing to effectiveness is outcomes assessment, an approach for measuring academic, student support, and administrative unit success.

According to Richard et al. (2009), institutional productivity captures organizational performance plus the myriad internal performance outcomes normally associated with more efficient or effective operations and other external measures that relate to considerations that are broader than those associated with economic valuation (either by shareholders, managers, or customers), such as corporate social responsibility

Researchers generally lack consensus on what constitutes an effective school. Effectiveness is dependent on people and the resources available, according to Reynolds et al. (1996). Hence, Stoll and Fink (1996) argue that the difficulty in defining school effectiveness is dependent on people who are forced to choose from competing values. Another argument by Reynolds states that a school is effective if its processes result in observable (not always quantifiable) positive outcomes among its students and are sustained over time. This implies that the effectiveness of a school is dependent more on its process and gauged by its outcomes on its intake. Intake plays only a marginal role in school effectiveness. (Drever, 1991).

Although regional accrediting bodies provide suggested guidelines for institutional effectiveness, each college and university determines what institutional productivity looks like and how it is implemented on its campus. To be meaningful, the productivity process should be integrated into the work of the college or university and not be an add-on activity (Cistone & Bashford, 2002). The institutional productivity process exists to benefit the institution and provide comprehensive information about the institution's performance. It encompasses the work of the college, its departments, and individual units. There are three levels of accountability methods: (a) college-wide assessment, (b) program review, and (c) student learning outcomes. "Institutional productivity" refers to how well an institution is achieving its mission and goals. As stated by Middaugh (2010), an effective institution is characterized by a clearly defined mission that articulates who it serves, what it aspires to be, and what it values. Likewise, a productive institution has clear goals that are broadly communicated to its stakeholders, and decision-making is evidence-based and mission-focused. Rooted in the method of scientific inquiry, institutional productivity is the systematic collection, analysis, organization, warehousing, and dissemination of quantitative and qualitative information concerning the characteristics and performance of the University. The goal of institutional productivity is to provide quality information such that informed decisions and effective planning can be accomplished by the University, faculty, staff, and administrators.

## Related Studies

### Foreign Studies

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) has been widely studied in relation to employee performance and institutional outcomes across educational settings. Abidin and Hadi (2022) investigated the influence of OCB and work motivation in teacher performance and revealed that teachers who exhibit higher OCB demonstrate stronger classroom engagement and instructional effectiveness. Similarly, Garcia-Cabrera and Garcia- Soto (2022) explored OCB in higher education institutions and found that faculty members who displayed organizational citizenship behaviors contributed significantly to collaboration, institutional quality, and productivity.

Meta-analytic evidence also supports these findings. Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009) synthesized research on OCB and demonstrated that such discretionary behaviors not only improve individual performance ratings but also enhance organizational effectiveness at large. Complementing these findings, Somech and Ron (2007) emphasized that OCB in schools promotes effective teamwork, cooperation, and school productivity, highlighting the importance of both individual and organizational characteristics in fostering these outcomes. Celik, H. (2020), showed that OCB fosters collaboration, reduces conflict, and enhances institutional efficiency. Collectively, these foreign studies provide strong evidence that OCB serves as a driver of teacher performance and, ultimately, institutional productivity in the global context.

### Local Studies

In the Philippine setting, studies similarly confirm the role of OCB and teaching performance in enhancing institutional productivity. Limpin and Calicdan (2021) examined public secondary schools and found that altruism and conscientiousness -two major dimensions of OCB - were significant predictors of teacher performance, suggesting that discretionary behaviors directly contribute to instructional quality. Likewise, Bulaong and Mendoza (2020) studied State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) in the Philippines and revealed that teaching performance strongly influenced institutional productivity, particularly in research, extension, and accreditation outcomes.

Focusing on higher education institutions, Cabading (2019) reported that OCB among faculty enhances teamwork, organizational effectiveness, and institutional success. In a similar vein, Pascual (2022) highlighted that faculty performance in SUCs is a critical determinant of productivity, particularly in instruction, research, and extension services- the three core functions of higher education. These local studies affirm the international evidence base by showing that OCB and teaching performance are essential factors that drive institutional productivity, especially in the context of Philippine SUCs, where resource constraints and accreditation requirements demand extra-role contribution from faculty members.

### Relevance of Related Literature Cited

The reviewed literature and studies provided a solid theoretical and empirical foundation for examining the relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), teaching performance, and institutional productivity in State universities and Colleges (SUCs). International studies (e.g., Organ, Podsakoff, and Mackenzie, 2019; Farh, Zhong, and Organ, 2017) consistently highlight OCB as a voluntary behavior that enhances organizational effectiveness, aligning with this study's finding that faculty members with high OCB contribute to the operational and developmental success of their institutions. Local studies, such as those by Dela Cruz and Lopez (2021) and Austria (2020), confirm that in the Philippine SUC context, OCB fosters collaboration, knowledge sharing, and improved service delivery.

Teaching performance literature also substantiates the current study's results. Works by Darling-Hammond et al. (2020) and Danielson (2013) underscore that high-quality instruction directly impacts student achievement and instructional outcomes. Philippine-based studies, such as Reyes et al. (2022), emphasize the role of continuous professional development in enhancing faculty competence, paralleling this study's finding that teaching performance is a strong predictor of institutional productivity.

The literature on institutional productivity- both foreign (Slami, 2019) and local (Combalicer and Dela Cruz, 2021)- frames productivity not only in terms of outputs (e.g., graduates, research, extension services) but also in terms of the processes and behaviors that sustain them. This perspective aligns with the present findings that OCB and teaching performance are integral to achieving high productivity levels in SUCs. Foreign studies consistently show that OCB positively influences teacher performance and broader institutional outcomes. Local studies validate these findings in the Philippine SUC context, emphasizing that OCB and teaching performance drive accreditation, research, and extension productivity.

Overall, the reviewed studies collectively reinforce the premise that faculty behaviors beyond contractual obligations, combined with strong teaching competence, play a critical role in sustaining SUC productivity. This supports the study's conclusion that fostering OCB and enhancing teaching performance should be strategic priorities for SUC administrators.

### **Chapter 3**

#### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This chapter provided and discussed the details about the research design, respondents of the study, data gathering instruments, validity and reliability of the instrument, data gathering procedure, and statistical tools used.

##### **Research Design**

This study determined the organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance, their influence on the institutional productivity of the college instructors/professors in a state university in Panay Island. This study utilized the descriptive-correlational design to investigate the influence of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and Teaching Performance on Institutional Productivity. Descriptive-Correlational research, according to Bhat (2020) is a technique that defines and forecasts how variables are logically linked without investigator manipulation. This type of research allows for a variety of methods to recruit participants, collect data, and utilize various methods of instrumentation. While a correlation design is a study design for examining the relationships between two or more variables in a single group, it can occur at several levels. (Barkha, Devi et.al. 2023). Copeland's work highlights that a descriptive correlational design seeks the link between variables without attempting to manipulate any of them (Copeland, 2022). Moreover, correlational research employs correlation analysis. It attempts to determine whether, and to

what degree, a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables.

The personal factors that were included in the study were age, educational attainment, length of service in the institution, and academic rank, while organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance are the independent variables, and institutional productivity is the dependent variable. Descriptive methods summarized the characteristics and behaviors of the respondents, while inferential methods test relationships and differences among variables.

##### **Respondents of the Study**

The respondents of the study were 277 randomly selected instructors/ professors of the main campuses of different state universities and colleges in Panay Island, Philippines, for the Academic Year 2024-2025. A proportionate simple random sampling method was employed in the selection of the sample participants in the study.

This method is commonly used in research studies to ensure that the sample accurately represents the population being studied and to minimize bias (Makwana, 2023). The lottery technique was used in the selection of the teacher participants. Slovin's formula was used to determine the sample size of the participants from the total number of teachers in all state colleges and universities' main campuses included in the study. In order that each campus was well represented, the sample size was distributed proportionally among the state universities and colleges included in the study.

### **Sampling Procedure**

First, a sample frame consisting of a list of the target participants for each state university was prepared. After determining the number of the target participant, the researcher obtained the sample size using Slovin's formula. The number of participants from each campus was ascertained. Once the sample size for each school is ascertained, survey questionnaires were prepared. By randomly selecting participants, researchers can increase the likelihood that their findings will be generalizable to the larger population. In this sampling methodology, the selection of sample members is based solely on chance and randomization (Makwana, 2023). The participants were classified according to certain identified personal factors: (a) age, (b) educational attainment, (c) length of service, (d) academic rank in the institution, and (e) SUC level. From the population of 904, 277 were computed as the sample of the study. They were distributed as follows: There were 135 faculty members from Aklan State University and Capiz State University, and 41 were selected as a sample comprising 15%. From the 241 faculty members from ISUFST, 74 or 27 % were selected, 51 or 18% from the 165 faculty members from NISU, and 70 or 25% from the 228 faculty members from the University of Antique.

The distribution of the respondents based on the total number of faculty members per SUCs as presented in Table 1.

*Table 1. Distribution of Respondents*

<b>SUC (Main campus only)</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
ASU	135	41	15.00
CAPSU	135	41	15.00
ISUFST	241	74	27.00
NISU	165	51	18.00
UA	228	70	25.00
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>904</b>	<b>277</b>	<b>100.00</b>

### **Data-Gathering Instruments**

The data-gathering instruments that were utilized to collect data needed for the investigations were: The three (3) published and validated questionnaires on Organizational Citizenship Behavior checklist (OCB-C) by Fox and Spector, (2009), the Teacher Performance Evaluation questionnaire for teaching performance, and the Institutional Productivity Questionnaire for the data on institutional productivity. The original Organizational Citizenship Behavior Checklist (OCB-C) was a 20-item instrument designed to assess the frequency of organizational citizenship. The OCB-C uses a 5-point frequency scale ranging

from 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4=agree, 5= strongly agree. The scale comprises 5 domains, such as Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, Altruism, Civic Virtue, and Courtesy. Scores are computed by summing responses across items. A total score is the sum of responses to all items. Subscale scores are the sum of items within each subscale.

The scores for the OCB are converted into mean scores as follows:

Mean Range	Description	Interpretation
4.21-5.00	Very High	Faculty <i>consistently</i> demonstrate OCB; extra-role behaviors are well-embedded
3.41 - 4.20	High	Faculty <i>frequently</i> demonstrate OCB; extra-role behaviors are evident but not always consistent.
2.61 - 3.40	Moderate	Faculty <i>sometimes</i> demonstrate OCB; extra-role behaviors are situational or occasional.
1.81 - 2.60	Low	Faculty <i>seldom</i> demonstrate OCB; extra-role behaviors are rare.
1.00- 1.80	Very Low	Faculty <i>almost never</i> engage altruistic acts in the workplace

The Teacher Performance Evaluation used the 5-point scale with the descriptions O=Outstanding, VG=Very Good, G=Good, F=Fair, and P=Poor. With an equivalent rating scale of 4.50-5.00 for outstanding, 3.50-4.49 for Very Good, 2.50-3.49 for Good 1.50-2.49 for Fair, and 1.00-1.49 for Poor. In addition, the IPCR rating of the faculty Teaching Performances were also considered.

Shown below is the description and interpretation of a 5-point Likert scale:

<b>Mean Range</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
4.50 -5.00	Outstanding	Faculty consistently demonstrate excellent teaching performance; highly effective in planning, delivery, assessment, and student engagement.
3.50 - 4.49	Very Satisfactory	Faculty often demonstrate strong teaching performance with minor areas for improvement.
2.50- 3.49	Satisfactory	Faculty sometimes demonstrate strong teaching performance with minor areas for improvement.
1.50-2.49	Fair	Faculty rarely demonstrate effective teaching performance; significant improvements are needed.
1.00-1.49	Poor	Faculty seldom demonstrate effective teaching practices; performance is inadequate.

For institutional productivity, the results of the survey, in a 5-point Likert frequency scale, were used to measure the responses of the faculty members. The weighted mean scores were interpreted based on the following scales: The scores for the institutional productivity were converted into a mean range with the following interpretation:

Mean Range	Description	Interpretation
4.21- 5.00	Very High	The institution consistently exceeds productivity expectations. It demonstrates exemplary performance in all key areas such as research, teaching, service, innovation, and resource utilization.
3.41- 4.20 often	High	The institution frequently meets and surpasses productivity benchmarks. Strong performance is observed with occasional areas of improvement.
2.61- 3.40 room steady	Moderate	The institution meets minimum productivity standards but shows for improvement. Performance is but not exceptional.
1.81- 2.60	Low	The institution falls short of expected productivity levels in several areas. Improvements are needed to reach acceptable standards.
1.00-1.80 intervention	Very Low	The institution shows significant underperformance across areas, indicating an urgent need for and strategic improvement.

The questions represent 7 domains such as: Student Learning, Institutional Goals, Progress Assessment, Planning Process, Assessment Result, Planning and Resource Allocation, and Program Review.

### Validity of the Research Instrument

Validity of the research instrument accurately measures the concept it is intended to measure, ensuring that the inferences, interpretations, and conclusions drawn from the data are sound and justifiable. Validity is the fundamental consideration in promising the quality of the instrument and is vital to be examined (Wang et.al 2023). According to Anggaraini et. Al., (2023), validity represents the extent to which specific items on a tool accurately assess the concept being measured in the research study and ensure that the questions being asked permit valid inferences to be made. Recent studies emphasize content, construction, and criterion-related validity as essential for ensuring methodological rigor and meaningful outcomes. The adopted data-gathering instruments were subjected to jury validation by experts in terms of their relevance, clarity, and suitability in the Philippine setting. There were suggestions given to improve the instruments, such as using appropriate words to eliminate cultural bias and improving the format. All suggestions were consolidated in the final draft (APA, 2021).

### Reliability of the Data-Gathering Instrument

Reliability refers to the consistency and stability of the results obtained from a research instrument over

time and across various conditions. Establishing the reliability and validity of the measures and instruments used to collect data is necessary for program effectiveness. According to Zohrabi (2022), a reliable instrument yields similar outcomes when administered repeatedly under the same conditions, indicating that the tool is dependable and free from random errors. He emphasizes that reliability is a prerequisite for validity but not vice versa. The reliability and validity analysis indicated that the instrument was good. Thirty faculty (30) members of the SUCs who were not included in the sample were requested to do the reliability test, and the results yielded .89 for Organizational Citizenship Behavior and .98 for Institutional Productivity. These showed that the data-gathering instruments were reliable.

### **Data Gathering Procedure**

Permission to conduct the study was secured through letters from the University President and the Campus Administrator/Head of the campuses involved in the study. Upon approval, a list of the names of instructors/professors was obtained from the Office of the Vice President for Academic Affairs (VPAA) of the university.

The reproduced data-gathering instrument was personally distributed and administered by the researcher and/or a research assistant. Institutional policy on research ethics has been observed throughout the duration of the study. The data-gathering instruments contained directions for completion. To avoid confusion, the direction for completion was also explained by the researcher and/or the research assistant to all the participants.

Upon retrieval of the accomplished instruments, scores were tallied, computer-processed, and interpreted using appropriate statistical tools.

### **Statistical Tools Used**

To effectively analyze the data gathered, a combination of descriptive and inferential statistical tools was employed. For the descriptive analysis, statistical tools such as mean, frequency count, ranks, and percentage played a crucial role in analyzing and interpreting the data gathered from respondents.

**Mean** was useful for comparing data sets, identifying shifts or changes over time, and evaluating trends. Mean scores were calculated for Likert-scale items measuring OCB and teaching performance to determine the average perception or behavior of teachers. In this study, higher means for OCB dimensions suggest a strong presence of such behaviors in the institution, while the mean scores for teaching performance indicators can reveal overall instruction quality. The means were also used to determine the participants' levels of organizational citizenship behavior and institutional effectiveness in relation to age, years of experience, academic rank /position, and SUC level.

**Frequency count** was used to determine the distribution of the participants based on the information sheet items. It is used to determine how often specific behaviors or responses occur among teachers. Similarly, it is used to describe demographic characteristics and summarize categorical responses of the respondents.

**Percentage** allows for a clearer comparison of data across groups. This is used to summarize demographic profiles of respondents, such as age, sex, years of service, or academic rank, to OCB practices and levels of teaching performance.

**Ranking** was used to determine the participants' dominant organizational citizenship behaviour. This is utilized to prioritize items or dimensions (which OCB indicators are most practiced) based on mean scores. To explore relationships and test hypotheses, inferential analysis is needed, and the following parametric tests were employed:

**One-way ANOVA** (Analysis of Variance or F-test) was used when comparing more than two groups. To identify significant differences in OCB or Teaching Performances among various teacher subgroups.

## Chapter 4

### PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter presents, analyzes, and interprets the data to determine the organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance and their influence on institutional productivity of faculty members among State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) in Panay Island for Academic Year 2024-2025.

#### **Profile of Respondents in Terms of Age, Sex, Educational Attainment, Length of Service, Academic Rank, and SUC Level.**

Table 2 presents the demographic profile of the respondents in terms of age, sex, educational attainment, academic rank, length of service, and SUC level. The demographic profile of the respondents revealed a balanced distribution across various categories. The respondents' age ranged from 22 to 65 years, with the largest group falling within 40 years and below, indicating a generally mid-career teaching population. In terms of sex, the majority were females (59.2%), while males comprised (40.8%) of the participants. As for educational attainment, most respondents held a master's degree (58.1%), followed by those with a doctoral degree (33.2%), and a smaller proportion with a bachelor's degree (8.7%), reflecting the faculty's alignment with the advanced academic requirements of state universities and colleges (SUCs).

In terms of length of service, a significant portion had been teaching for 20 years or less (80.1%), while 19.9% had 21 years or more of service. This suggests a well-experienced teaching workforce. The distribution of respondents according to academic rank shows that the majority were Instructor I to III (55.6%), indicating that a large portion of the faculty members were in the entry-level academic positions. This suggests that many of the respondents are either early in their academic careers or have not yet advanced to higher academic ranks. A substantial number also held positions as Assistant Professors I to IV (23.1%), and Associate Professors I to V (19.1%), reflecting a strong presence of faculty members in mid-level ranks who likely possess advanced degrees and moderate teaching experience. Notably, only 2.2% of the respondents were Professors I to VI, suggesting a relatively small proportion of faculty at the highest academic ranks. This could imply limited vertical mobility, a developing research culture, or an emerging institutional maturity level among the participating SUCs.

As for the SUC Level, the majority of respondents came from Level II SUCs (52.3%), followed by those from Level III (47.7%), indicating a broad representation across different institutional development stages. According to the Accrediting Agency for Chartered Colleges and Universities of the Philippines (AACUP) and similar accrediting bodies like PAASCU and PACUCOA, a Level II accredited institution is considered a "Good, mature institution." This suggests that the institution has demonstrated consistent adherence to quality standards over a period of time. Often, Level II is a re-accredited status, meaning the institution has previously achieved Level I (initial accreditation) and has successfully undergone a subsequent evaluation to maintain and further enhance its quality. It also suggests that the institution demonstrated quality and compliance. Achieving Level II indicates that the institution has met a comprehensive set of standards across various areas, which typically include Governance and Management, Teaching, Learning, and Evaluation, Faculty and Staff, Research, Extension Community Linkages, Support to Students, Library and Learning Resources, Infrastructure and Facilities, and Quality Assurance Culture.

<b>Table 2. Profile of the Respondents</b>		
<b>Profile Variables</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Age</b>		
40 Years and Below	172	62.1
41 Years and Above	105	37.9
Total	277	100
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	113	40.8
Female	164	59.2
Total	277	100
<b>Educational Attainment</b>		
Bachelor's Degree	24	8.7
Master's Degree	161	58.1
Doctorate Degree	92	33.2
Total	277	100
<b>Length of Service</b>		
20 Years and Below	222	80.1
20 Years and Above	55	19.9
Total	277	100
<b>Academic Rank</b>		
Instructor I-III	154	55.6
Assistant Professor I- IV	64	23.1
Associate Professor I-V	53	19.1
Professor I-VI	6	2.2
Total	27	100
<b>SUC Level</b>		
Level II	145	52.3
Level III	132	47.7
Level IV	0	0
Total	277	100

**The level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when taken as a whole**

Table 3 presents the mean scores, standard deviation, level and rank of Organizational Citizenship Behavior of the respondents when taken as a whole. The analysis of the faculty responses on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) revealed generally high mean scores across all items, indicating a strong presence of positive discretionary behaviors among teaching personnel. Among the indicators, Conscientiousness, under Dimension 1 “I believe in giving an honest day’s work for an honest day’s pay,” recorded the highest mean of 4.72, suggesting it is both widely practiced and consistently observed among respondents. Followed by “I obey the organization’s rules and regulations even when no one is watching,” also of Dimension I. On the other hand, the item under Dimension 2, Sportsmanship “I always focus on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side,” and “I am the classic squeaky wheel that

always needs greasing (I.e., I make the loudest noise with my problems) both had the lowest mean score, 1.72. This suggests a weaker inclination of the respondents towards this discretionary behavior. This indicates variability in participation and is possibly influenced by personal priorities or institutional culture. The overall mean for OCB was 3.82, as reflected in a high level, which the respondents agree on, suggesting that they frequently engage in behaviors that go beyond their formal job requirements to benefit the organization. This also indicates that the faculty members of the state universities and colleges in Panay Island perceived that they engage in a high level of OCB. In other words, the respondents perceive that they perform activities and behave in a manner not required of them as specified in their job descriptions. These behaviors, often voluntary, reflect a strong level of collegiality, initiative, and commitment beyond assigned duties among faculty members.

**Table 3. Level of Organizational Citizenship Behavior of the Respondents When Taken as a Whole**

<b>OCB Indicators</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Rank</b>
believe in giving an honest day’s work for an honest day’s pay.	4.74	Very High	1
obey the organization’s rules and regulations even when no one is....	4.72	Very High	2
Do not abuse the rights of others.	4.69	Very High	3
Try to avoid creating problems for co-workers	4.68	Very high	4
I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people’s jobs.	4.64	Very High	5
I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.	4.64	Very High	5
read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on...	4.54	Very High	6
willingly help others who have work-related problems.	4.45	High	7
I am one of the organization’s most conscientious employees.	4.43	High	8
keep abreast of changes in the organization.	4.42	High	9
Help orient new people, even though it is not required.	4.37	High	10
Help others who have heavy workloads.	4.35	High	11
attend meetings that are not mandatory but considered important.	4.26	High	12
attend functions that are not required, but help the organization’s...	4.23	High	13
Help other who have been absent	4.21	High	14
consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.	1.98	Low	15
tend to make “mountains out of molehills.	1.82	Low	16
always find fault with what the organization is doing.	1.75	Very Low	17
always focus on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side	1.72	Very Low	18

I am a classic “squeaky wheel” that always needs greasing,....	1.72	Very Low	18
Total	3.83	High	

Legend: 4.21 – 5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41 – 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL)

**Level of Organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age**

Table 4 presents the level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age. Data revealed that the overall mean score for Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) was (Mean= 3.83), indicating that faculty respondents generally exhibit high levels of OCB across items. This means the respondents frequently go above and beyond their formal duties to contribute to the organization. When classified by age, results showed varying OCB means: 22-34 years old (M=3.87), 35-44 years old (M=3.84), 45-54 years old (M=3.76), 55-65 years old (M= 3.78). The results revealed that by age, younger faculty members showed higher levels of OCB as compared to older faculty members. These findings are in contrast with the results found by Santos, M.V (2021), where older faculty members showed higher levels of OCB, particularly in altruism and conscientiousness, possibly due to maturity and experience. The same result was found by Lopez, C.J (2020) in his study, where mid-to-late-career faculty were more likely to demonstrate civic virtue and sportsmanship, suggesting OCB increases with age. While the mean scores differed slightly among age groups, the differences were not significantly meaningful. Thus, faculty across age groups exhibited comparable levels of organizational citizenship behavior.

**Table 4. Level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age**

Age Group of Respondents	N	Mean	Description
22-34 years old	107	3.87	High
35-44 years old	87	3.84	High
45-54 years old	54	3.76	High
55-65 years old	29	3.78	High
Total	277	3.83	High

Legend: 4.21 – 5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41 – 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL)

**Level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to educational attainment**

Table 5 presents the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to educational attainment. Educational attainment refers to the highest level of formal education an individual has completed. The respondent’s educational attainment was classified into a bachelor’s degree, a master’s degree, and a doctorate. Specifically, faculty with bachelor’s degrees recorded the highest OCB mean score (M=3.94), followed by those with master’s degrees (M=3.84), and those with a doctorate (M=3.79). On the other hand, Ramirez and Tan (2023) discovered that faculty with higher degrees (master’s and doctoral) displayed stronger OCB, particularly in helping behavior and voluntary engagement in institutional programs.

**Table 5. Level of organizational citizenship behavior when respondents are classified according to educational attainment**

Educational Attainment	N	Mean	Description
Bachelor’s Degree	24	3.94	High
Master’s Degree	161	3.84	High
Doctoral Degree	92	3.79	High
Total	277	3.83	High

Legend: 4.21 – 5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41 – 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL)

**Level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to length of service**

As depicted in Table 6, faculty with 1-10 years of service had the highest average OCB score (M=3.87), followed closely by those with 21-30 years (M=3.86), while the lowest mean was recorded among faculty with 31-40 years (M=3.68). These findings are consistent with the result found by Espinosa, M.L. (2020) that faculty with moderate tenure (6-15years) showed more consistent engagement in OCB dimensions than newly hired or nearing-retirement faculty. However, this is not consistent with the result found by Mahmoud, et.al, (2021) that age was positively correlated with OCB. According to their findings, older employees were more committed and more likely to engage in discretionary behavior benefiting the organization.

**Table 6. Level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to years in service**

Years in Service	N	Mean	Description
1-10 years	140	3.87	High
11-20 years	82	3.79	High
21-30 years	35	3.86	High
31-40 years	20	3.68	High
Total	277	3.83	High

Legend: 4.21 – 5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41 – 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL)

**Level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to academic rank**

Table 7 showed the level of OCB of the respondents across the various academic ranks. This means that the faculty members’ OCB levels are generally comparable regardless of academic position. Although Associate Professor III recorded the highest OCB mean (M=4.04), and Professor VI had the lowest mean (M=3.55), the observed differences were not large enough to reach statistical significance.

This result is consistent with the result found in the study of Agustin (2023) that Assistant and Associate Professors tend to exhibit more visible OCB, such as mentoring and volunteering, compared to Full Professors, who may be more focused on administrative responsibilities.

**Table 7. Level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to academic rank**

Academic Rank	N	Mean	Description
Instructor 1	102	3.86	High
Instructor 2	29	3.84	High
Instructor 3	23	3.75	High
Assistant Professor 1	24	3.85	High
Assistant Professor 3	12	3.85	High
Assistant Professor 4	18	3.74	High
Associate Professor 1	11	3.85	High
Associate professor 2	4	3.70	High
Associate professor 3	4	4.03	High
Associate Professor 4	13	3.75	High
Associate Professor 5	21	3.79	High
Professor 1	3	4.00	High
Professor 4	2	3.67	High
Professor 6	1	3.55	High
Total	277	3.83	High

Legend: 4.21 – 5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41 – 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL)

**Level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to SUC Level**

Table 8 revealed that the overall mean was Mean=3.83. Comparing the group means, respondents from SUC Level II had a mean OCB score of M=3.91, indicating a slightly higher average OCB score compared to those in Level III, with a moderate spread of scores. In contrast, respondents’ SUC Level III had a mean OCB score of M=3.74, suggesting a lower average OCB but with scores that are more tightly clustered around their mean.

On the contrary, Mendoza and Alvarado (2023) found an opposite result in their study, where faculty in Level III SUCs had higher OCB scores, particularly in organizational loyalty and civic virtue, attributed to better institutional culture and faculty development programs.

**Table 8. Level of organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to the SUC level**

SUC Level	N	Mean	Description
Level II	145	3.91	High
Level III	132	3.74	High
Total	277	3.83	High

Legend: 4.21 – 5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41 – 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M),

1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL)

**The teaching performance of the respondents when taken as a whole**

Table 9 presents the respondents' teaching performance as a whole. Results revealed that the teaching performance of the respondents was outstanding (M=4.77). The results further showed teaching performance of the respondents, and indicators depict high ratings, with the item “responsibly meet professional obligations as regards punctuality, attendance, and assigned routine duties, policies and guidelines in performing professional responsibilities” ranking first with (Mean= 4.72), implying that faculty members are generally perceived to demonstrate strong adherence to institutional expectations and professional conduct.

This suggests that most respondents consistently arrive on time, maintain regular attendance, and carry out their assigned tasks in accordance with institutional policies and guidelines. Such behavior reflects a high level of accountability and professionalism, which is essential in maintaining instructional quality and administrative efficiency.

These results support the conclusions of recent studies, such as those by Reyes and Manlapig (2022), which emphasize that faculty who not only excel in teaching but also engage in voluntary institutional activities contribute meaningfully to institutional effectiveness and growth. While the relatively low standard deviation further suggests consistency across respondents, indicating that punctuality and compliance are common and well-practiced values among faculty members. This finding aligns with the institutional goal of promoting discipline and responsibility among educators as role models for students. As shown in the table, among the teaching performance indicators, the item that received the lowest (mean = 4.18) was “*communicate with parents regarding curriculum and instruction and student progress towards meeting learning goals,*” suggests that this aspect is less frequently practiced or given lower emphasis by faculty members. An overall mean (mean=4.77, SD=0.61) for teacher performance suggests a very strong overall performance of the faculty member in the SUCs of Iloilo Province. The overall teacher performance is clearly leaning towards “*outstanding*” (O). This indicates that respondent faculty members of the SUC consistently demonstrate outstanding teaching performance, highly effective in planning, delivery, assessment, and student engagement. On average, instructors/professors perform at an extremely high level, consistently exceeding expectations. The mean is very close to 5, implying that the collective perception or evaluation of teacher performance is overwhelmingly positive and aligned with the highest possible descriptor.

Results indicate that while teachers are highly engaged in instructional planning and classroom responsibilities, parental communication is not consistently prioritized, possibly due to institutional culture, teaching level, or workload constraints. In the context of higher education institutions, particularly in SUCs, direct communication with parents may be perceived as less integral to the instructional process compared to basic education settings. Nonetheless, the finding suggests an area for improvement, particularly in programs in which parental engagement can support student performance.

**Table 9. Teaching Performance of the Respondents When Taken as a Whole**

Teacher Performance Indicator	Mean	Description	Rank
responsibly meet professional obligations as	4.72	Outstanding	1
regard....	4.63	Outstanding	2

make learning goals clear to students. maintain appropriate standards of behavior, mutual respect, and .....	4.63	Outstanding	2
demonstrate appreciation for, and sensitivity to,.....	4.63	Outstanding	2
engage in school and community-based professional ..	4.62	Outstanding	3
create an environment that is positive for student learning.....	4.61	Outstanding	4
strive to ensure equitable opportunities for student learning.	4.61	Outstanding	4
am a reflective and continuous learner.	4.61	Outstanding	8
Use appropriate instructional strategies.	4.60	Outstanding	9
promote confidence and perseverance in students to.....	4.59	Outstanding	10
monitor students' understanding of the curriculum effectively.....	4.58	Outstanding	11
Use appropriate questioning strategies.	4.57	Outstanding	12
evaluate, try innovative approaches, and refine...	4.57	Outstanding	13
follow the curriculum that reflects university frameworks and ....	4.52	Outstanding	14
effectively plan the assessment of students' learning.	4.52	Outstanding	15
effective plan structure	4.51	Outstanding	16
am up to date regarding curriculum content	4.42	Very Good	17
Communicate high standards and expectations to students.	4.39	Very Good	18
am constructive and cooperative in interactions with.....	4.30	Very Good	19
Communicate with parents regarding curriculum and instruction .....	4.18	Very Good	20
Total	4.77	Outstanding	

Legend: 4.50 – 5.00 Outstanding (O), 3.50 – 4.49 Very Satisfactory (VS), 2.50 – 3.49 Satisfactory (S), 1.50 – 2.49 Fair (F), 1.00 – 1.49 Poor (P)

### The teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to age

Table 10 presents the overall mean teaching performance across all age groups is 4.54. Results showed that the age group 22-34 years old exhibits the highest teaching performance, with a mean score of 4.57. This indicates a consistently high level of performance within this age group, with relatively little variability. On the other hand, the age group 55-65 years old shows the lowest teaching performance with a mean of 4.42. This implies that the performance of the respondents in this age group is below that of the other groups and also below the overall mean. The higher mean for the 22-34 age group (4.57) suggests

that this younger demographic is performing above average. The findings provided an interesting result that goes against some common assumptions that experience always leads to higher performance. In consonance with the result of the study in Vietnamese higher education, which found that teaching performance does not significantly vary with age, experience matters more than chronological age. (Tuy and Nguyen, 2022). However, De Leon (2020) found that mid-career faculty, particularly those aged 35-50, received the most favorable student evaluations, highlighting a balance between energy and pedagogical expertise. A contrasting result was found by Jamili (2021), where he emphasized that older instructors tend to exhibit higher teaching performance due to accumulated experience, maturity, and refined classroom management.

**Table 10. Teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to age**

Age Group of Respondents	N	Mean	Description
22-34 years old	107	4.56	Outstanding
35-44 years old	87	4.54	Outstanding
45-54 years old	54	4.54	Outstanding
55-65 years old	29	4.42	Very Satisfactory
Total	277	4.54	Outstanding

Legend: 4-50 – 5.00 Outstanding (O); 3.50 – 4.49 Very Satisfactory (VS); 2.50 – 3.49 Satisfactory (S); 1.50 – 2.49 Fair (F); 1.00 – 1.49 Poor (P)

**The teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to educational attainment**

Table 11 presents the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to educational attainment. Results revealed that respondents with Doctoral degrees had the highest mean teaching performance score of 4.58, indicating an outstanding level of performance. This supports the findings of Reyes and Manlapig (2022) that teachers with doctorate degrees often perform better in research and instruction. Respondents with bachelor’s degrees had a mean score of 4.57, which is slightly lower than those with Doctoral degrees, yet still within the outstanding -performance range. Respondents with a Master’s degree had a mean score of 4.515, which is the lowest among the three groups, although still in the outstanding category. The overall mean teaching performance across all educational levels was 4.54. Similarly, Flores and Lising (2023) also noted the positive correlation between educational attainment and teaching performance.

**Table 11. Teaching Performance of the Respondents when classified according to Educational Attainment**

Educational Attainment	N	Mean	Description
Bachelor	24	4.57	Outstanding
Masteral	161	4.51	Outstanding
Doctoral	92	4.57	Outstanding
Total	277	4.54	Outstanding

Legend: 4-50 – 5.00 Outstanding (O); 3.50 – 4.49 Very Satisfactory (VS); 2.50 – 3.49 Satisfactory (S); 1.50 – 2.49 Fair (F); 1.00 – 1.49 Poor (P)

**The teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to length of service**

Table 12 presents the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to length of service. The results showed that the mean teaching performance score across all service length groups is relatively very satisfactory, all above 4.39 on a 5-point scale. This suggests that respondents, regardless of their length of service, demonstrate a generally favorable level of teaching performance. Faculty with 21-30 years of service reported the highest mean score of 4.59, indicating that mid-career teachers may have accumulated enough experience and professional maturity to achieve optimal performance. This is followed closely by those with 11-20 years of service. Faculty with 31-40 years of service had the lowest mean teaching performance (M=4.39). This might reflect factors such as nearing retirement, changes in motivation, or adaptation to newer teaching methods and technologies. Those with 1-10 years of service had a mean of 4.54, which is *outstanding*, suggesting that newer teachers are performing well, possibly due to recent training, enthusiasm, or modern educational preparation.

The results implied that teaching performance does not linearly increase with longer service; instead, mid-career faculty (11-30 years) seem to show slightly higher performance than both newer and nearing-retirement faculty. This is consistent with the finding of Cruz, C.B. (2021), that teachers with 11-20 years of experience performed better than novices or those nearing retirement. This finding is also supported by Omar and Celis (2020), who observed that teachers with 10-25 years of experience in Philippine senior high schools demonstrated higher teaching effectiveness than their more senior counterparts. Similarly, Basuil and Tan (2021) found that length of service was not a strong predictor of teaching performance, and faculty with over 30 years of experience did not consistently outperform those in mid-career stages. These are consistent with the broader review by Kini and Podolsky (2016), who reported that gains in teacher effectiveness are most significant in the first few years and tend to plateau after around 20 years of experience.

However, this result contrasted with the study by Villanueva and Mercado (2020), which reported that college faculty with longer service of over 30 years showed higher ratings in instructional performance, attributed to their accumulated mastery and content expertise. Likewise, Garcia (2022) found a positive linear relationship between length of service and pedagogical competence, suggesting that experience consistently enhances performance. These contrasting findings highlight that while experience is an essential factor in teaching performance, it must be complemented by ongoing professional development, adaptability to educational trends, and engagement in reflective teaching practices to sustain high performance throughout one’s career.

**Table 12. Teaching Performance of the Respondents when classified according to Length of Service**

Length of Service	N	Mean	Description
1-10 years	140	4.53	Outstanding
11-20 years	82	4.56	Outstanding
21-30 years	35	4.59	Outstanding
31-40 years	20	4.39	Very Satisfactory
Total	277	4.54	Outstanding

Legend: 4-50 – 5.00 Outstanding (O); 3.50 – 4.49 Very Satisfactory (VS); 2.50 – 3.49 Satisfactory (S); 1.50 – 2.49 Fair (F); 1.00 – 1.49 Poor (P)

**The teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to academic rank**

Table 13 presents the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to academic rank. As shown, the highest mean teaching performance score was observed among Assistant Professor 3 (M=4.767), followed by Associate Professor 2 (M=4.72). The lowest mean was observed among Professor 4 (M=3.97). This finding deviates from the usual assumption that higher academic rank corresponds to higher teaching performance. This confirms the findings of De la Cruz (2023) that Assistant Professors and Associate Professors often have higher performance scores than Full Professors, possibly due to greater workloads and engagement. One possible explanation is that Assistant Professors are often more involved in direct classroom instruction, which makes them more visible and more consistently evaluated by students. In contrast, those in higher ranks, such as Professor 4, may carry more administrative, supervisory, or research responsibilities, which may reduce their teaching load and affect evaluation scores. It is also possible that increased expectations from higher-ranked faculty lead to stricter evaluation by students or peers. Similar trends were noted by Aguino and Balila (2020), who found that mid-level faculty members (Assistant/ Associate Professors) had higher teaching effectiveness compared to full professors. Professors tend to focus on research, extension, and administration, reducing classroom exposure. Younger or mid-career faculty are more engaged in innovative instruction. Similarly, Garcia (2022) and Manalo & Villamor (2021) emphasize that as faculty members advance in their careers, their responsibilities often shift toward research and administration, resulting in reduced teaching exposure and lower evaluation scores. Garcia also stated that promotion often leads to administrative responsibilities, which may slightly reduce teaching focus.

**Table 13. Teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to academic rank**

Academic Rank	Mean	Description
Instructor 1	4.52	Outstanding
Instructor 2	4.65	Outstanding
Instructor 3	4.51	Outstanding
Assistant Professor 1	4.60	Outstanding
Assistant Professor 2	4.68	Outstanding
Assistant Professor 3	4.76	Outstanding
Assistant Professor 4	4.45	Very Satisfactory
Associate Professor 1	4.42	Very Satisfactory
Associate Professor 2	4.72	Outstanding
Associate Professor 3	4.67	Outstanding
Associate Professor 4	4.45	Very Satisfactory
Associate Professor 5	4.44	Very Satisfactory
Professor 1	4.21	Very Satisfactory
Professor 4	3.97	Very Satisfactory

Professor 6	4.70	Outstanding
Total	4.54	Outstanding

Legend: 4-50 – 5.00 Outstanding (O); 3.50 – 4.49 Very Satisfactory (VS); 2.50 – 3.49 Satisfactory (S); 1.50 – 2.49 Fair (F); 1.00 – 1.49 Poor (P)

**The teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to SUC level**

As reflected in Table 14, the mean teaching performance of faculty from SUC Level II (M=5.66) was slightly higher than that of those from Level III (M=5.57). While the difference in mean scores is minimal, both levels exhibited high performance, suggesting that SUC classification does not strongly influence teaching effectiveness. This is in contrast to the findings of Torres and Villanueva (2022) that faculty in Level III SUCs tend to score higher due to better resources, training, and institutional support. Moreover, Bautista and Gonzales (2021) highlighted the uniform implementation of faculty evaluation systems across SUCs. Similarly, Flores and Rosales (2022) emphasized that higher institutional classification may increase workload diversity but does not necessarily compromise teaching quality.

**Table 14. Teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to SUC level**

SUC Level	Mean	Description
Level II	4.65	Outstanding
Level III	4.57	Outstanding
Total	4.61	Outstanding

Legend: 4-50 – 5.00 Outstanding (O); 3.50 – 4.49 Very Satisfactory (VS); 2.50 – 3.49 Satisfactory (S); 1.50 – 2.49 Fair (F); 1.00 – 1.49 Poor (P)

**The level of institutional productivity, as assessed by the respondents when taken as a whole**

Table 15 presents the level of Institutional Productivity of the SUC as assessed by the respondents. The highest mean score was observed in “is valued as a provider of extension programs that develops people empowerment and self-reliance ”(M=4.61), indicating strong alignment with productivity metrics. The result reveals key insights into how faculty members perceive their contributions to the institution’s mission. It also suggests that faculty members strongly identify with their role in community engagement and service. It reflects the significant emphasis placed by faculty on extension programs as a vital part of institutional productivity. It indicated that respondents feel effective and recognized in their outreach efforts, which aligns with the mandate of state universities and colleges (SUCs) to contribute to people empowerment, livelihood, and sustainable development beyond the classroom. Followed by the statement, “demonstrates probity, strategic vision, accountability, awareness, and management of risk,” which received the second highest mean score (mean=4.59, Very High), indicating that faculty members may feel engaged or competent in areas related to Institutional Leadership, Ethical Governance, and Strategic Planning.

This result supports the observation of Dela Cruz and Santos (2023) in their study of Philippine higher education institutions, in which SUCs demonstrated consistent productivity levels attributable to strengthened faculty development programs and quality assurance mechanisms. Similarly, Hassan et al. (2022) in a Malaysian context reported that institutional productivity in higher education tends to remain high when supported by effective governance and adequate resources.

In contrast, “has an adequate number of faculty with the appropriate expertise and competence to teach the course offered by the institution” got the lowest mean score (M= 4.38), however described Very High suggests that respondents perceive a gap between the institution’s academic program offerings and the availability of faculty members with the specialized qualifications or competencies required to deliver them effectively.

The total mean score (M=4.31) and all indicators were found to be *very high*, indicating that the level of Institutional productivity of SUCs in Panay Island is generally *very high*. It suggests that the institution consistently exceeds productivity expectations. It demonstrated exemplary performance in all key areas such as research, teaching, service, innovation, and resource utilization.

**Table 15. Level of Institutional Productivity, as assessed by the respondents when taken as a whole**

Institutional Productivity Indicators	n	Description	Rank
is valued as a provider of extension programs that develop....	4.61	Very High	1
demonstrate probity, strategic vision, accountability,.....	4.59	Very High	2
is valued as a partner by other higher education institutions.....	4.58	Very High	3
is valued by its local community as a provider of..	4.57	Very High	4
has programs that allow students to practice their learned.....	4.56	Very High	5
provides effective monitoring performance.	4.55	Very High	6
operates effective arrangements to direct scholarships and ...	4.53	Very High	7
has programs that promote innovation in science and.....	4.52	Very High	8
sets the objectives and learning outcomes of its program	4.51	Very High	9
offers programs that take into consideration the social,....	4.51	Very High	9
has programs for student services to support the.....	4.49	Very High	10
offers programs that address the need for the country to....	4.49	Very High	10
has effective mechanisms to ensure that its program.....	4.48	Very High	11
has a research community of faculty, students, and.....	4.48	Very High	11
has an established system for student recruitment,....	4.48	Very High	11
has a program that fosters and supports creative research...	4.48	Very High	11
displays effective management, financial control, and....	4.47	Very High	12
has programs that promote creative work in the arts....	4.47	Very High	12
utilizes effective use of learning resources, such as....	4.45	Very High	13
has established a system to support those from indigenous....	4.45	Very High	13
has effective arrangements that enable graduates to.....	4.45	Very High	13
has enabling features such as the use of information and ...	4.43	Very High	14
exhibits a viable, sustainable, and appropriate resource ....	4.42	Very High	15
takes effective action to address weakness, build on.....	4.41	Very High	16
has an adequate number of faculty with the appropriate .....	4.38	Very High	17
<b>Total</b>	<b>4.31</b>	<b>Very High</b>	

Legend: 4.21-5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41- 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL).

**The level of institutional productivity, as assessed by the respondents, when classified according to age**

Table 16 presents the level of institutional productivity, as assessed by respondents, classified by age. The results indicated that all respondents assessed the institutional productivity of their institution as *very high*, and a gradual decline in the mean of institutional productivity ratings with increasing age. Respondents aged 22-34 years showed the highest mean score (M=5.70), followed by those aged 35-44 years (M=5.62) and 45-54 years (M= 5.55), while the lowest mean score was observed among respondents aged 55-65 years (M=5.42).

This result aligns with Nguyen and Tran (2022), who explained that standardized institutional policies and evaluation criteria result in similar productivity perceptions across age groups. Although the differences are modest, the trend suggests that younger faculty members perceive institutional productivity more positively than their older counterparts. This could be attributed to younger faculty’s greater adaptability to technological innovations, enthusiasm for institutional initiatives, and active engagement in teaching, research, and extension activities--often driven by career advancement motivations.

This result is supported by the finding of Ramos and Prasetyo (2024) that younger faculty (millennials) tended to report higher engagement in institutional initiatives, particularly in technology-driven programs, while older faculty excelled in administrative leadership. Kwiek, M (2020) also reported that early-career academics are often more active in high-output collaborations, especially in emerging research areas, due to higher mobility and adaptability. The same finding was reported by Delos Santos and Javier (2020) in their study, which showed that age significantly predicted variations in faculty performance scores, with younger faculty obtaining slightly higher ratings in teaching innovation and community extension.

**Table 16. Level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to age**

Age group	Mean	Description
22-34 years old	4.70	Very High
35-44 years old	4.62	Very High
45-54 years old	4.54	Very High
55-65 years old	4.41	Very High
Total	4.61	Very High

Legend: 4.21-5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41- 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL).

**The level of institutional productivity, as assessed by the respondents when classified according to educational attainment**

Table 17 presents the level of institutional productivity, as assessed by respondents, classified by educational attainment. The results showed minimal variation among the groups. Doctoral degree holders assessed the level of institutional productivity as very high (M=4.68), followed by bachelor’s degree holders (M=4.64) and master’s degree holders (M= 4.58) as very high. Although the differences are slight, the trend suggests that respondents with doctoral qualifications tend to assess institutional productivity as

higher. This could be attributed to their greater involvement in research, leadership roles, and access to broader academic networks, all of which can enhance their contributions to institutional objectives.

This finding aligns with Brew and Boud (2021), who reported that faculty members with doctoral degrees often engage more actively in scholarly output and academic leadership, thereby influencing institutional performance positively. Similarly, Alonso-Garcia et al. (2019) and Dizon (2021) found that doctoral degree holders contribute more to institutional productivity through high-impact research, mentoring, and participation in extension programs. This is consistent with Pascual (2021), who highlighted the contribution of advanced qualifications to institutional productivity, particularly in research and extension. However, it contradicts Rahman and Ali (2022), who found that educational attainment did not influence productivity perception when institutional support systems were equally distributed. Vera-Cruz and Sulaiman (2018) observed no significant difference in performance across qualification levels, suggesting that institutional support, workload, and resource allocation can level productivity regardless of academic degree. Likewise, Abao (2017) noted that in some Philippine SUCs, master’s degree holders reported productivity levels comparable to, or even higher than, those of doctoral holders, owing to heavier teaching responsibilities and frequent engagement in community extension work.

Overall, the results of the present study indicate that while higher educational attainment may offer certain advantages that contribute to institutional productivity, these advantages do not produce substantial differences in the assessment among faculty members in SUCs. This suggests that factors beyond academic qualifications- such as institutional climate, workload balance, and access to resources—play equally important roles in shaping productivity outcomes.

**Table 17. Level of Institutional Productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to Educational Attainment**

<b>Educational Attainment</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Description</b>
Bachelor	4.63	Very High
Masteral	4.57	Very High
Doctoral	4.68	Very high
Total	4.61	Very high

Legend: 4.21-5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41- 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.0– 1.80 Very Low (VL).

**The level of institutional productivity, as assessed by the respondents when classified according to length of service**

Table 18 presents the respondents' assessment of institutional productivity, classified by length of service. When classified by length of service, respondents with 11-20 years of service gave the highest assessment of institutional productivity (M=4.83), followed by those with 21-30 years (M=4.71), 1-10 years (M=4.38), and 30 years or more (M=4.28). The overall mean for all groups was 4.82, which falls under the *very high* category. This indicates that, regardless of length of service, faculty members strongly perceive their institution as highly productive, although mid-career faculty (11-20 years) tend to give slightly higher ratings. The consistently high ratings across tenure groups reflect that institutional productivity is upheld across varying faculty experiences.

This aligns with the findings of Villanueva (2020), who noted that faculty members, regardless of years in service, generally evaluate productivity positively when there is a culture of performance excellence.

Similarly, Hassan et al. (2022) observed in Malaysian universities that organizational systems and performance indicators are uniformly implemented, resulting in consistent productivity ratings across seniority levels. However, slight variations in means may suggest that mid-career faculty, often at peak professional engagement, are more attuned to institutional accomplishments, a view supported by Nguyen and Tran (2022), who reported higher organizational commitment and performance perceptions among mid-tenured faculty.

**Table 18. Level of Institutional Productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to Length of Service**

Length of Service	Mean	Description
1-10 years	4.38	Very High
11-20 years	4.82	Very High
21-30 years	4.71	Very High
30+years	4.28	Very High
Total	4.61	Very High

Legend: 4.21-5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41- 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL).

**The level of institutional productivity, as assessed by the respondents, when classified according to academic rank**

Table 19 presents the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to academic rank. The results revealed that those with Instructors I-III ranks had the highest assessment of the level of institutional productivity (M=4.67, 4.88, 4.60), respectively. This means that the institution consistently exceeds productivity expectations. It demonstrates exemplary performance in all key areas such as research, teaching, service, innovation, and resource utilization.

These findings contradict the findings of Morales and Castillo (2022), who observed that faculty members in higher academic ranks often have greater influence on institutional decision-making, are more engaged in strategic initiatives, and thus perceive institutional productivity more favorably. Lower ratings from some middle ranks may reflect differences in workload distribution or engagement in institutional projects. These results also run counter to those of Morales and Castillo (2022), who noted that senior academic ranks often have more direct involvement in strategic planning and decision-making, fostering more positive perceptions of institutional productivity.

**Table 19. Level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to academic rank**

Academic Rank	mean	Description
Instructor 1	4.67	Very High
Instructor 2	4.88	Very High
Instructor 3	4.60	Very High
Assistant Professor 1	4.48	Very High
Assistant professor 2	4.53	Very High

Assistant Professor 3	4.39	Very High
Assistant Professor 4	4.36	Very High
Associate Professor 1	4.43	Very High
Associate professor 2	4.02	Very High
Associate professor 3	4.05	Very High
Associate Professor 4	4.56	Very High
Associate Professor 5	4.52	Very High
Professor 1	4.41	Very High
Professor 4	4.37	Very High
Professor 6	4.05	Very High
Total	4.61	Very high

Legend: 4.21-5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41- 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL).

**The level of institutional productivity, as assessed by the respondents, when classified according to the SUC level**

Table 20 presents the level of institutional productivity, as assessed by respondents, classified by SUC level. Results revealed the mean institutional productivity ratings as assessed by faculty members were slightly higher in SUC classified as Level II (M=4.65) than those classified as Level III (M=4.58). The overall mean for both groups combined was 4.61, which suggests generally *Very High* institutional productivity across both SUC levels. The small difference in respondents' assessments indicates that SUC level may have only a minimal effect on institutional productivity, implying that faculty performance and institutional outputs are relatively consistent regardless of SUC classification.

This finding is consistent with Salazar and Dela Cruz (2022), who noted that differences in productivity across SUC levels are often small, as institutional support mechanisms and faculty initiatives more strongly influence faculty outputs, instruction, research, and extension. Similarly, Garcia and Mendoza (2021) found that while higher accreditation levels can enhance productivity through improved quality assurance systems, these effects are not always statistically significant without adequate resource allocation and incentives. CHED (2020) also emphasizes that faculty productivity is shaped by accreditation, leadership, workload policies, and available funding. International research echoes these observations, with Ntim and Wiafe (2023) and Harris and Ellis (2021) reporting that accreditation provides a framework for improvement but is not a decisive factor in productivity unless complemented by supportive institutional environments. This aligns with Lopez and Ramirez (2021), who found that SUC accreditation level did not significantly affect perceptions of productivity in the Philippines because performance metrics are standardized by the Commission on Higher Education (CHED).

**Table 20. Level of Institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to SUC level**

SUC Level	Mean	Description
Level II	4.65	Very High
Level III	4.57	Very high
Total	4.61	Very High

Legend: 4.21-5.00 Very High (VH), 3.41- 4.20 High (H), 2.61 – 3.40 Moderate (M), 1.81 – 2.60 Low (L), 1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL).

1.00 – 1.80 Very Low (VL).

### **Significant differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level**

Table 21 presents the significant differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level. The results revealed that there were no significant differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age ( $F=1.200$ ,  $p=.310$ ), educational attainment ( $F=1.674$ ,  $p=.189$ ), length of service ( $F=1.993$ ,  $p=.115$ ), and academic rank ( $F=.529$ ,  $p=.915$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, and academic rank was not rejected. This means that the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents did not significantly vary when their age, educational attainment, length of service, and academic rank were considered.

This indicates that age did not appear to significantly determine the level of organizational citizenship behavior exhibited by the faculty members. In contrast, Mahmoud et al. (2021) contradicted the result of this study, as age was positively correlated with OCB in their findings. Older employees were more committed and more likely to engage in discretionary behavior benefiting the organization. Bakshi and Sharma (2022) also found in their study on exploring the relationship between age diversity and organizational citizenship behavior that employees in higher age brackets displayed more consistent OCB behaviors, possibly due to maturity, loyalty, and job stability. In the meta-analysis done by Ng and Feldman (2020) on age and work behaviors, it was found that older employees tend to exhibit higher levels of OCB, particularly in areas like helping behaviors and civic virtue. Age positively influences OCB through stronger intrinsic motivation and public service values, according to Lee and Park (2023).

The result suggests that educational attainment did not significantly determine the faculty members' levels of organizational citizenship behavior. This result affirms the findings of Arif and Chohan (2022) and Rahman and Akter (2021) that OCB is more strongly shaped by organizational climate and job satisfaction than by formal education. Similarly, Garcia and Mendoza (2020) and Santos (2022) found no variation in OCB among faculty members of different educational backgrounds in the Philippine setting, suggesting that shared professional culture and organizational expectations may override differences in formal qualifications. However, the result of this study contrasts with the findings of Yadav and Kumar (2021), Maubeen and Qurat-ul-Ain (2020), and Villanueva (2023), who all concluded that higher educational qualifications foster stronger OCB, particularly in altruism, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Magno and Sison (2020) and De Leon and Erese (2021) likewise highlighted the role of advanced education in enhancing professional engagement and collegial participation. Taken together, these contrasting findings indicate that while educational attainment may enhance OCB in certain institutional contexts, it is not the sole determinant of such behavior.

The results in the table indicated that length of service alone did not determine organizational citizenship behavior among faculty members at SUC in Panay Island. This may indicate that OCB is more closely linked to individual attitudes, institutional leadership, or organizational culture rather than tenure. These findings are consistent with previous research (Liu & Li, 2022), which suggests that contextual and motivational factors may better explain variations in OCB than demographic attributes.

The findings suggest that academic rank or advancement does not directly influence how faculty members engage in organizational citizenship behaviors. This supports previous literature (Podsakoff, 2021; Jain & Singh, 2021), which proposes that OCB is more influenced by institutional climate, leadership support, and personal commitment rather than rank or position. However, the findings of Tolentino (2020) contradicted this result, where OCB levels varied significantly by rank, with mid-rank faculty demonstrating higher collegiality and institutional support behavior

However, results revealed that significant differences existed in the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to SUC level ( $F=15.476, p=.000$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to SUC level was rejected. This means that the level of OCB of the respondents varies significantly when their SUC level is considered.

This finding is consistent with the results of Magno and Sison (2020), who reported that OCB varied significantly across SUCs, with higher-level institutions cultivating stronger governance, performance-based incentives, and a more research-oriented culture that fosters voluntary behaviors. According to Caballero (2022), higher SUC levels were linked to better organizational support structures, which positively affected OCB among faculty members. However, the findings of this study contradict other research, which reported no significant differences in OCB across institutional types. Garcia and Mendoza (2020), for instance, concluded that OCB among faculty members of SUCs in the Philippines did not vary by SUC level, suggesting that organizational citizenship is more strongly influenced by personal motivation and values rather than institutional classification.

**Table 21. Differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level**

Variables		Sum of Square	df	Mea Square	F - value	P - value	Remarks
Age	Between Group	.484	3	.161	1.200	.310	Not Significant
	Within Group	36.721	273	.135			
	Within Group	37.205	276				
	Total						
Educational attainment	Between Group	.449	2	.225	1.674	.189	Not Significant
	Within Group	36.756	274	.134			
	Within Group	37.205	276				
	Total						
Length of service	Between Group	.797	3	.266	1.993	.115	Not Significant
	Within Group	36.408	273	.133			
	Within Group	37.205	276				
	Total						
Academic Rank	Between Group	1.023	14	.073	.529	.915	Not Significant
	Within Group	36.183	262	.138			
	Within Group	37.205	276				
	Total						

SUC Level	Between	1.982	1	1.982	15.47	.000	Significant
	Group	35.223	275	.128	6		
	Within						
	Group	37.205	276				
	Total						

**Significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level**

Table 22 presents the significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level. The results revealed that no significant differences existed in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to age ( $F=.977, p=.404$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to age was not rejected. This means that the teaching performance of the respondents was similar when their age was considered.

This indicates that faculty members, regardless of their age group, tend to exhibit similar levels of teaching performance. This result aligns with the findings of Tayan et al. (2022), who noted that age does not significantly influence teaching effectiveness among higher education faculty in the Philippines. Similarly, Binu, et al. (2021) reported that generational significant disparities in teaching outcomes, highlighting that professional training, institutional culture, and pedagogical skills contribute more to teaching success than age itself. Furthermore, Altun (2020), emphasized that sustained teaching performance is maintained through continuous professional growth and adaptability rather than chronological age. In other words, faculty members- whether younger or older-tend to demonstrate similar teaching performance levels.

Similarly, no significant differences were also noted in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to educational attainment ( $F=.748, p=.474$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to educational attainment was not rejected. This means that there is no sufficient evidence to conclude that teaching performance significantly differs among the three groups (Bachelor’s, Master’s, and Doctorate degrees). It suggests that the level of education- whether Bachelor’s, Master’s, or Doctoral- did not significantly influence the teaching performance ratings of the respondents. In other words, educational attainment did not significantly affect teaching performance. This result is aligned with the research study conducted by Santiago and Balanon (2021), which reported that there is no consistent difference in performance between master’s and doctoral degree holders. This further implies that qualification alone does not ensure better teaching quality. Consistently, Ramirez and Reyes (2023) also found no significant difference in student-rated teaching performance across academic ranks.

Further, the results showed that there were no significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to length of service ( $F=1.147, p=.331$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to length of service was not rejected. This suggests that the length of service does not have a significant effect on the teaching performance of the respondents. While experience can contribute to professional development, it may not automatically translate into higher teaching performance. This finding is supported by the study conducted by Mendoza (2020), which revealed no significant differences in teaching performance based on years of service, aligning with the idea that professional development and institutional support matter more than seniority alone. Another study conducted by Bayani and

Bonotan (2021) found that experience influences teaching strategies and student engagement, but effectiveness plateaus after a certain point. This relationship between years of service and teaching performance suggests that effective teaching depends more on adaptive strategies and continued learning than tenure alone.

When classified according to academic rank, the result showed that there were no significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents ( $F=1.311, p=.202$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to academic rank was not rejected. This suggests that academic rank does not have a significant effect on teaching performance among the respondents. This means that while average performance may differ slightly between ranks, these differences are not large enough to statistically say that academic rank has an effect on teaching performance. This result supports the findings of Pascual and Torres (2020), who noted that higher academic rank does not necessarily reflect superior teaching performance, as promotion criteria often include research, community service, and tenure.

Parallel to this, a study conducted about “Faculty development and academic performance in a state university” (2020) by Cruz, found that academic rank was not a significant predictor of teaching performance. Results suggested that teaching effectiveness is more influenced by pedagogical training than by position or seniority. However, significant results were obtained in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to SUV level ( $F=9.662, p=.002$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to academic rank was rejected. This means that the teaching performance of the respondents significantly differed when their SUC level was considered.

The finding suggests that faculty members from different SUC Levels may experience different institutional conditions that influence their teaching performance. Those from higher-level SUCs (e.g. Level III) may have access to more professional development programs, better facilities, and stronger performance monitoring systems. On the other hand, lower-level SUCs might have fewer support mechanisms, which could impact faculty performance.

This is consistent with the premise that institutional classification, such as SUC Level, reflects not only the maturity of the institution but also its resource capacity, which can shape teaching practices and expectations. As supported by Garcia (2022), institutional context and organizational resources significantly affect faculty performance outcomes, particularly in Philippine Higher Education Institutions. He found that faculty in higher-level SUCs (Level III and IV) tend to perform better in teaching due to greater access to resources, professional development, and institutional support mechanisms.

According to the Commission on Higher Education (CHED, 2016)-NBC 461 SUCs with higher levels (Level III/IV) are classified as such based on criteria like program accreditation, faculty qualifications, research output, and instructional quality-all of which contribute to better teaching performance metrics. Reyes & David (2021) pointed out that teaching quality varies across SUCs partly due to institutional differences in funding, leadership, and capacity development programs- all of which are embedded in SUC level classification.

**Table 22. Differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level**

Variables	Sum of	df	Mean Square	F value	P value	Remarks
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		Square					
Age	Between	.507	3	.189	.977	.404	Not Significant
	Group	47.244	273	.173			
	Within Group	47.751	276				
	Total						
Educational attainment	Between	.259	2	.130	.748	.474	Not Significant
	Group	47.492	274	.173			
	Within Group	47.751	276				
	Total						
Length of service	Between	.594	3	.198	1.147	.331	Not Significant
	Group	47.157	273	.173			
	Within Group	47.751	276				
	Total						
Academic Rank	Between	3.126	14	.233	1.311	.201	Not Significant
	Group	44.625	262	.170			
	Within Group	47.751	276				
	Total						
SUC Level	Between	1.621	1	1.621	9.662	.002	Significant
	Group	46.130	275	.168			
	Within Group	47.751	276				
	Total						

**Significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level**

Table 23 presents the significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level. The results revealed that there were no significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to age ( $F=2.061, p=.106$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to age was not rejected.

The findings showed that the respondents' age does not meaningfully determine their assessment of the institutional productivity of their institution. This finding is consistent with the study of Alvarado (2021), who reported no significant relationship between age and faculty work performance in selected Philippine state universities. Similarly, Ng and Feldman (2010) concluded that age is only weakly related to performance and is not a reliable predictor of productivity in academic environments. Gonzalez and Magno (2020) also supported this, noting that productivity is more influenced by institutional and structural factors than by age.

A similar result was obtained when respondents were classified according to educational attainment ( $F=.863, p=.423$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to educational attainment was not rejected. In other words, respondents with different levels of educational attainment (e.g., bachelor's, master's, doctorate) did not significantly differ in how they assessed institutional

productivity. This finding is consistent with studies such as that of Gonzales and Magno (2020), who found that educational attainment did not significantly affect faculty perceptions of productivity, suggesting that institutional context, policies, and work environment may be more influential than educational credentials in shaping such assessments. De Jesus and Corpus (2021) also found no statistically significant difference in academic productivity based on educational attainment in their study, but differences were observed based on job role and institutional type (e.g., SUC Level).

When respondents were classified according to length of service, the results revealed that there were significant differences in their assessment of institutional productivity ( $F=1.635$ ,  $p=.018$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to length of service was rejected. This result suggests that the number of years the respondents have served in the institution affects how they assess institutional productivity. In other words, at least one length- of-service group perceives productivity differently than others. The findings implied that length of service may determine how employees assess institutional productivity outcomes, potentially due to differences in experience, familiarity with institutional goals, or engagement levels over time. In support of these findings, De los Santos and Mateo (2022), in their study about faculty productivity across length of service and academic profiles in Philippine State Universities, found that faculty with longer service tend to perceive institutional productivity more critically, possibly due to accumulated experiences with internal processes and governance, consistent with the idea that length of service affects institutional assessment. Furthermore, when respondents were classified according to academic rank, their assessment of institutional productivity did not significantly differ ( $F=.863$ ,  $p=.423$ ) when grouped according to academic rank. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to academic rank, was not rejected. It also means that respondents—regardless of whether they are Instructors or Assistant Professors, Associate Professors, or Professors—do not differ significantly in how they assess institutional productivity.

This showed that the assessment of institutional productivity is consistent across different academic ranks. Whether the respondents are junior or senior faculty members, their perceptions of institutional productivity do not differ to a statistically meaningful degree. Similarly, Lopez and Javier (2021), in their study, also found no significant differences in performance ratings or institutional assessments based on academic rank, indicating that faculty members, regardless of position, tend to have shared views on organizational productivity.

Finally, when respondents were classified according to SUC level, the result showed that there were no significant differences in the institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents ( $F=1.185$ ,  $p=.277$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to academic rank, was not rejected. The result implied that faculty members from SUC Level II and SUC Level III institutions have comparable assessments of institutional productivity. Despite structural or resource differences among SUCs, their faculty may experience similar institutional practices and operational conditions.

In other words, whether respondents belong to SUC Level II or SUC Level III, their assessment of institutional productivity does not differ significantly. In support of this claim, another study conducted by Reyes and Pacheco, (2022) noted that SUC level is not always a determinant of perceived institutional

productivity from faculty perspectives, especially when faculty roles and workloads are similar across institutions.

**Table 23. Differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level**

Variables		Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F value	P value	Remarks
Age	Between Group	2.219	3	.740	2.061	.106	Not Significant
	Within Group	97.981	273	.359			
	Between Group	100.200	276				
	Total						
Educational attainment	Between Group	.627	2	.314	.863	.423	Not Significant
	Within Group	99.673	274	.363			
	Between Group	100.200	276				
	Total						
Length of service	Between Group	19.255	35	.550	1.635	.018	Significant
	Within Group	80.946	241	.336			
	Between Group	100.200	276				
	Total						
Academic Rank	Between Group	.627	2	.314	.863	.423	Not Significant
	Within Group	99.573	274	.363			
	Between Group	100.200	276				
	Total						
SUC Level	Between Group	.431	1	.431	1.185	.277	Not Significant
	Within Group	99.770	275	.363			
	Between Group	100.200	276				
	Total						

**Significant influence of organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance on institutional productivity**

Table 24 shows the significant influence of organizational citizenship behavior and the teaching performance of the respondents on institutional productivity. The regression analysis revealed that the model was statistically significant ( $F = 26.51, p < .001$ ), explaining 16.2% of the variance in the dependent variable. Among the predictors, teaching performance significantly influenced the outcome ( $\beta = 0.388, p < .001$ ), indicating a moderate positive effect. In contrast, organizational citizenship behavior did not significantly predict the dependent variable ( $\beta = 0.053, p = .353$ ). This suggests that teaching

performance is a more important determinant of the outcome compared to organizational citizenship behavior.

This finding supports the study of Abun et al. (2021), who emphasized that instructional competence and effectiveness directly enhance the institutional performance of higher education institutions. Similarly, Darling-Hammond et al. (2020) argued that high-quality teaching is a cornerstone of institutional outcomes, as it influences student learning, accreditation success, and overall institutional reputation. In line with these, Carrinus et al. (2021) highlighted that teaching performance significantly contributes to institutional achievements, particularly in productivity indicators such as research, extension, and instruction.

On the other hand, while OCB did not emerge as a significant predictor in the regression model, it still showed a weak positive correlation with institutional productivity. This aligns with Somech and Ron (2021), who noted that OCB indirectly contributes to organizational outcomes by fostering collaboration and collegiality, but its impact is often weakened compared to task-related performance. Likewise, Chinomona and Chinomona (2022) observed that although OCB enhances workplace harmony and culture, its measurable effect on institutional productivity may be less direct, particularly in academic settings where performance indicators are heavily tied to teaching outcomes.

**Table 24. Significant Influence of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Teaching Performance of the Respondents on Institutional Productivity**

Variable	Multiple R	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>2</sup> Change	F	Sig. F	SEB	Beta	t	Sig
<b>Organizational citizenship behavior</b>	.403	.162	.162	26.51	.000	.093	.053	.931	.353
<b>Teaching performance</b>	.403	.162	.162	26.51	.000	.082	.388	6.85	.000

## Chapter 5

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary, findings, conclusions, and recommendations based on the results of this investigation on the influence of the teachers’ organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance on institutional productivity.

#### Summary

This study aimed to determine the organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance of faculty members and their influence on the institutional productivity among State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) in Panay Island for the Academic Year 2024-2025. This descriptive research utilized the 277 instructors and professors of the different state universities in Panay Island, namely: University of Antique, Aklan State University, Capiz State University, Iloilo State University of Fisheries, Science and Technology, and Northern Iloilo State University. A proportionate random sampling method was employed in the selection of respondents who were classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level. The organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance were independent variables, and institutional productivity was the dependent variable. The

data-gathering instruments on OCB were adopted from Fox and Spector (2009), the Institutional Productivity Questionnaire was adapted from the AACCCUP (Accrediting Agency of Chartered Colleges and Universities in the Philippines), and the Teacher Performance Evaluation was tailored for Higher Education Institutions (HEIs and SUCs). These instruments were subjected to face and content validation to ensure their validity and reliability, and were pilot tested among the 30 faculty members of SUCs in Panay Island who were not included as respondents in the final sample.

For the analysis of the study, descriptive statistical tools such as means, frequency count, ranks, and percentages were used, while Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), or F-test, and Multiple regression were used for inferential analysis. The level of significance was set at .05 level.

Specifically, this study sought to answer the following:

1. What is the profile of the respondents in terms of age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
2. What is the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when taken as a whole and when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
3. What is the teaching performance of the respondents when taken as a whole and when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
4. Are there significant differences in the organizational citizenship behavior of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
5. Are there significant differences in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
6. Are there significant differences in the level of institutional productivity as assessed by the respondents when classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level?
7. Do organizational citizenship behavior and teaching performance significantly influence institutional productivity?

### **The findings of the Study**

1. After thorough analysis, the following findings were obtained:
2. As a whole, the Instructors and Professors of State Universities in Panay Island had a high level of organizational citizenship behavior ( $M=3.83$ ). When classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level, their organizational citizenship behavior was high.
3. As a whole, the teaching performance of the Instructors and professors of SUCs in Panay Island was Outstanding ( $M=4.77$ ). They also had an outstanding teaching performance when classified according to their age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level.
4. When taken as a whole, Instructors and professors of SUCs in Panay Island assessed their institutional productivity as very high ( $M=4.31$ ). The same results were obtained when they were classified according to age, educational attainment, length of service, academic rank, and SUC level.
5. Significant differences were noted in the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior when classified according to SUC level ( $F=15.476$ ,  $p=.000$ ). However, no significant differences were noted when the respondents were classified according to age ( $F=1.200$ ,  $p=.310$ ), educational attainment ( $F=1.674$ ,  $p=.189$ ), length of service ( $F=1.993$ ,  $p=.115$ ), and SUC level ( $F=.529$ ,  $p=.915$ ).

6. Significant differences were noted in the teaching performance of the respondents when classified according to SUC level ( $F=9.662$ ,  $p=.002$ ), However, there were no significant differences when respondents were classified according to age ( $F=.977$ ,  $p=.404$ ), educational attainment ( $F=.748$ ,  $p=.474$ ), length of service ( $F=1.147$ ,  $p=.331$ ), and academic rank ( $F=1.311$ ,  $p=.201$ ).
7. When classified according to length of service, there were significant differences in the assessment of the respondents of institutional productivity ( $F=1.635$ ,  $p=.018$ ). However, no significant differences were noted in their assessment of institutional productivity when classified according to age ( $F=2.061$ ,  $p=.106$ ), educational attainment ( $F=.863$ ,  $p=.421$ ), academic rank ( $F=.863$ ,  $p=.423$ ), and SUC level ( $F=1.185$ ,  $p=.277$ ).
8. Finally, regression analysis revealed that teaching performance significantly influences institutional productivity, while organizational citizenship behavior did not.

### Conclusions

Based on the findings, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The faculty members of SUCs in Panay Island Faculty frequently demonstrate Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB); extra-role behaviors are evident but not always consistent.
2. The faculty members of SUCs in Panay Island demonstrate excellent teaching performance, highly effective in planning, delivery assessment, and student engagement.
3. The faculty members of SUCs in Panay Island assessed that their institution consistently exceeds productivity expectations. It demonstrates exemplary performance in all key areas such as research, teaching, service, innovation, and resource utilization.
4. The SUC level determines their organizational citizenship behavior, while their age, educational attainment, length of service, and academic rank do not.
5. The age, educational attainment, length of service, and academic rank did not determine their teaching performance. However, this is determined by their SUC level.
6. The assessment of faculty members' institutional productivity is determined by their length of service. However, this is not determined by their age, educational attainment, academic rank, or SUC level.
7. The faculty members assessed that their teaching performance significantly influences institutional productivity. However, they assessed that their institutional productivity is not influenced by their organizational citizenship behavior.

### Recommendations

In light of the findings, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. The SUC Presidents promote a culture of collegiality, volunteerism, and institutional loyalty through recognition programs, mentorship schemes, and collaborative projects.
2. Supportive Policies- Align institutional policies with faculty welfare, workload balance, and performance incentives to encourage sustained productivity.
3. Experience Sharing- Facilitate inter-campus or inter-SUC sharing of best practices, especially between higher and lower performing SUCs, to address differences in OCB and teaching performance.
4. Targeted Interventions- implement specific interventions for demographic groups where performance gaps are observed, such as early-career faculty or those at certain academic ranks.

**The Commission on Higher Education (CHED) Officials.** They may utilize the findings of this study to inform policies that can support collaborative projects among SUCs in the Region.

**State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) Presidents** may develop Faculty Development programs that may enhance continuous professional development opportunities, focusing on innovative teaching strate-

gies, research capability, and community extension work to sustain high performance.

**Human Resource Managers.** The Human Resource Managers may improve OCB in the institution by promoting a culture of collegiality, volunteerism, and institutional loyalty through recognition programs, mentorship schemes, and collaborative projects.

**School Administrators.** School administrators may provide relevant information in motivating employees to perform to the best of their abilities in order to achieve the goals and objectives of the organization.

**Teachers and Employees** may be able to assess their values, weaknesses, and strengths to support their heads and school managers in attaining the institutional goals. Through the findings of this study, they may assist their administrators to become effective in responding to the needs of every member of the organization, so that, despite some drawbacks, they may find an opportunity to grow and develop.

Moreover, teachers may be provided with information that cooperation within an organization is important in handling issues that would greatly affect their work, and can make certain adjustments in providing support and commitment to each other, to their instructional leaders, and school managers, leading to improved interpersonal relationships and teaching performance.

**Students** may be exposed to rich educational experiences and opportunities in an educational organization whose teachers and employees are effective and committed to their work. Learning is effective when there is a harmonious relationship between school administrators and faculty and staff.

**Stakeholders** can also commit their assistance and support to the schools in their locality by closely collaborating with the administration to come up with projects that will contribute to improving the services and educational opportunities for their children.

**Researchers** may be more active in engaging in research projects because of the in-depth knowledge of the different research techniques and methodologies she had gained in doing this endeavor.

**Future Researchers** may be interested in pursuing further studies on organizational citizenship behavior, emotional intelligence, and faculty performance. The result of this study may further contribute to the development of theories and concepts in OCB, thereby encouraging the community to join hands and support the school affairs in relation to quality education and in achieving the objectives, goals, mission, and vision of the institution.

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