



Altruism and Professional Performance of Teachers in Ugandan Private Secondary Schools

Muwaga Musa¹, Fuad Nashori^{2*}

¹ Kampala University, Uganda

² Universitas Islam Indonesia Yogyakarta, Indonesia

* Email correspondence : 953200102@uii.ac.id

Abstract

Article Information:

Received

September 10, 2024

Revised

December 14, 2024

Accepted

December 30, 2024

Keywords:

Altruism
Performance
Teacher

This study investigates the relationship between altruism and teacher performance in private secondary schools in Iganga District, Uganda—a context that remains underrepresented in existing literature. While previous research has explored altruism within corporate and public service sectors, limited attention has been paid to its role in non-profit educational environments, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa. To address this contextual and content-related gap, a mixed-methods approach was employed, combining a cross-sectional survey design with both quantitative and qualitative techniques. Data were collected from 88 respondents, including head teachers and teachers with administrative responsibilities, using validated questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Quantitative data were analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation, while qualitative insights were interpreted through content analysis. The results reveal a statistically significant and strong positive relationship ($r = .644$, $p < .01$) between altruism and teacher performance. Qualitative findings further illuminate how altruistic behaviors—such as empathy, collaboration, and voluntary support—contribute to sustained performance and institutional cohesion. The study offers a novel contribution by demonstrating how altruism functions as a critical behavioral factor in enhancing teacher effectiveness in resource-constrained school settings. These findings underscore the importance of cultivating altruistic values in school management practices and teacher development programs. Future research should explore comparative analyses between school types and examine institutional support mechanisms that sustain altruism.

INTRODUCTION

According to Chavan (2014), key performance metrics for educators include curriculum design, development, and review. Throughout the teaching and learning process, instructor effectiveness is evaluated based on their ability to understand student needs, create curricula and schedules that address those needs, and employ various effective evaluation measures. Chavan further asserts that teacher performance encompasses lesson planning, instructional implementation, assessment of student learning outcomes, behavior management, and supervision of extracurricular activities.

Voss et al. (2011) emphasize the significance of pedagogical knowledge and skills, including classroom management, assessment practices, and effective use of instructional resources. Kiriri and Gathuthi (2009) expand on this by highlighting the importance of effectively delivering assigned workloads, developing professional competencies, pursuing academic growth, attending relevant workshops and seminars, producing instructional materials, and publishing scholarly outputs such as books and articles. Olatomide and Oluwatosin (2014) contend that teacher performance should be assessed based on maintaining proper records, conducting regular and practical assessments, keeping accurate evaluation documentation, understanding diverse student learning styles, preparing detailed teaching notes, and offering accessible consultation, guidance, and counseling, as well as participating actively in school programs and activities.

Teacher performance in Uganda faces notable challenges. Data from the Uganda Teachers' Union (2022) reveal that approximately 30% of teachers demonstrate poor school administrative management, which significantly impacts their overall performance. Additionally, the Uganda Teachers' Union (2021) reports that only about 30% of teachers are actively involved in school planning and management at the local level, with limited participation in decision-making and long-term strategic planning.

Performance and altruism are inherently linked, as altruistic behavior can influence job effectiveness. Moorman et al. (2018) associate altruism with social reputation, fairness, socially desirable behavior, and self-presentation, all of which may contribute to enhanced performance. Although the literature is rich with studies on altruism and its implications for performance, Örtqvist (2020) specifically examined the influence of altruistic behavior on performance across multiple levels in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in Swedish strategic networks. The study found that firms with highly altruistic employees outperformed those lacking such traits, at both the individual and group levels. However, due to the distinct nature of profit-driven corporate enterprises and nonprofit institutions like schools, a contextual gap remains in the literature. Therefore, it is essential to investigate how altruism impacts teacher performance within the educational sector.

Zubair et al. (2021) employed a self-administered questionnaire to collect data from 405 randomly selected public officials, examining the relationships among motivation, altruism, and organizational performance in public service. Utilizing covariance-based structural equation modeling, they found a positive correlation between benevolence and organizational success. Nonetheless, this study presents both contextual and content-related gaps. In terms of content, the present study focuses exclusively on altruism and teacher performance, whereas Zubair et al. (2021) examined multiple variables in a single study, potentially diluting the validity of their conclusions. Contextually, their study evaluated performance at a broader organizational level,

whereas this research targets teacher-specific performance, which is critical to the success of educational institutions.

Rohman et al. (2022) used a descriptive method to assess the relationship between model altruism and organizational performance in A-certified child welfare institutions in Indonesia, surveying 185 respondents. Their data, analyzed using structural equation modeling via Partial Least Squares 3.0, indicated that altruistic behavior, when well-directed, can enhance organizational performance. However, a significant contextual difference exists, as their research setting—child welfare institutions—differs substantially from the secondary school environment examined in this study.

In addition, Corrêa et al. (2020) conducted a longitudinal study in Brazil to explore the association between altruism and cognitive functioning (as a performance indicator) among 291 older adults. Through a baseline survey and follow-up assessments, they found a sustained positive correlation between altruistic behavior and cognitive performance. However, the longitudinal design limits generalizability due to potential temporal fluctuations. In contrast, the current study adopts a cross-sectional approach to address this methodological limitation. Furthermore, unlike the multi-level analysis used by Corrêa et al. (2020), this study utilizes Pearson product-moment correlation analysis. Taking these distinctions into account, the current study seeks to determine the relationship between altruism and teacher performance in private secondary schools.

While previous studies have explored the influence of altruism on organizational performance in corporate, public service, and welfare settings (e.g., Örtqvist, 2020; Zubair et al., 2021; Rohman et al., 2022), there is a limited body of empirical research examining how altruism specifically impacts teacher performance within non-profit educational institutions, particularly in developing country contexts like Uganda. Existing literature tends to focus either on generalized organizational outcomes or contexts that differ structurally and functionally from schools. Moreover, studies such as that by Corrêa et al. (2020) investigated altruism in relation to cognitive functioning in older adults, rather than task-specific professional performance. These limitations present both content-related and contextual gaps, as current findings are not readily transferrable to the dynamics of teacher performance in private secondary education.

In light of these gaps, this study contributes by explicitly focusing on the relationship between altruism and teacher performance in private secondary schools in Iganga District, Uganda, a context largely overlooked in the literature. By employing a mixed-methods approach, the study seeks to offer a nuanced understanding of how altruistic behavior among teachers may serve as a vital contributor to educational effectiveness. This inquiry is timely and relevant, given the pressing challenges faced by Ugandan schools in terms of teacher engagement, administrative participation, and performance outcomes (Uganda Teachers' Union, 2021, 2022).

METHOD

Research Design

As a blueprint for the entire research conceptualization, the research design outlines a general strategy for linking conceptual research concerns to relevant and feasible empirical studies (Bhattacherjee, 2012). This study adopted a cross-sectional survey design, which examines different categories of a population at a single point in time (Pallant, 2007). In this study, various categories of the population (head teachers and teachers with administrative responsibility) were studied simultaneously without repeated observations. The design incorporated a mixed-methods approach, utilizing both quantitative and qualitative techniques. While the qualitative approach explored underlying beliefs and opinions shared by participants, the quantitative approach aimed to quantify the association between altruism and teachers' performance. Although other factors were considered in the study, the primary focus was on determining the relationship between these two variables, thus positioning quantitative methods as predominant.

Population and Sample

To prevent including volunteers who meet the study needs and inaccurately reflect the population of interest, the target population must be sufficiently exclusive (Casteel & Bridier, 2021). The researcher carefully selected the appropriate population categories to address this challenge. This study's research population comprised teachers in private secondary schools within the Iganga District of Uganda. Specifically, the study focused on head teachers and teachers with administrative responsibilities, as the concepts of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and teacher performance revolve around head teachers as chief executives and teachers with administrative responsibilities as implementers of activities.

To ensure the sample accurately reflects the characteristics of the population, the researcher adhered to the principle that the sample should possess the same characteristics as the population (Zikmund, 2003). Consequently, all four head teachers were included in the sample, while 84 teachers with administrative responsibilities were selected, resulting in a total sample size of 88 respondents. The researcher utilized the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table to determine sample size, a trusted method for scientifically obtaining a representative sample from the population. Sample sizes were determined for each school independently to simplify the process and avoid complications in calculating sample means.

Simple random sampling was employed as the sampling technique, ensuring that each member of the population had an equal chance of being selected for the sample, thus minimizing bias (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). A lottery technique was implemented to guarantee that the selected sample accurately represented the entire population. This involved creating a set of papers, with some representing the required sample size and others representing the remaining population members. The selection process involved randomly drawing papers, and those selected were included in the study. This technique

was specifically applied to the selection of teachers with administrative responsibilities, given their larger population size.

Research Procedures

Data collection for this study was conducted in Iganga District, Uganda. Before commencing fieldwork, the researcher obtained the necessary ethical approvals, including securing approval of the research proposal from the relevant office of postgraduate studies and obtaining written permission for data collection from the appropriate field authorities. To facilitate data collection, the researcher collaborated with a research assistant, established local contacts within each school, finalized sampling procedures, and scheduled appointments for data collection. The research assistant assisted with collecting quantitative data, which was completed within approximately one week. The researcher conducted interviews as per the scheduled appointments. Upon completion of data collection, the researcher meticulously reviewed the collected data for completeness and accuracy before proceeding with data cleaning, coding, and analysis. A draft research report was then developed for further revision and refinement.

Research that disregards ethical considerations cannot withstand the scrutiny of time, as ethics form the bedrock of research, encompassing professional, legal, and social obligations towards participants (Salkind, 2018). This study upheld the following ethical principles: originality, informed consent, respect for respondent rights, and anonymity. Originality was ensured by adhering to the rules of academic writing outlined in the APA 7th edition style manual, and the work was further subjected to plagiarism checks. An informed consent form was developed to inform respondents about the study's purpose, potential benefits, and associated risks before obtaining their voluntary participation. Respect for respondent rights was ensured by prioritizing respondent interests throughout the study. These rights included the freedom to withdraw from the study at any time, the right to decline to answer specific questions, and the right to choose the interview location. Anonymity was maintained by ensuring that research findings could not be traced back to individual respondents, thus safeguarding their identities. Pseudonyms and coded identifiers were used to maintain confidentiality for both institutions and individuals involved in the study.

To mitigate the potential for demographic composition bias, as cautioned by Landy et al. (2018), the researcher carefully collected data on several key demographic characteristics, including gender, academic qualification, and service duration, while ensuring appropriate representation. The results of these demographic characteristics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N = 88)

Demographic Element	Forms	f	%
Gender of Respondents	Male	51	58
	Female	37	42
Academic Qualification	Diploma	15	17
	Bachelor's Degree	60	68.2

Duration of Service	Master's Degree	13	14.8
	5 Years & Below	13	14.8
	6 – 10 Years	59	67
	11 – 15 Years	13	14.8
	16 Years & Above	3	3.4

Source: *Field Data (2024)*

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the 88 respondents. In terms of gender, 58% of the respondents were male, while 42% were female, demonstrating a reasonably balanced gender distribution. This representation enhances inclusivity and objectivity in the research findings. As noted by Cislak et al. (2018), equitable gender inclusion is essential to avoid biased conclusions and ensure fair representation of perspectives in educational research.

Regarding academic qualifications, 17% of respondents held diplomas, 68.2% held bachelor's degrees, and 14.8% held master's degrees. The predominance of respondents with bachelor's degrees suggests a solid academic foundation, likely enabling participants to understand and interpret the research instruments accurately. Moreover, the presence of varied academic qualifications among respondents strengthens the credibility and depth of the data.

Concerning teaching experience, 14.8% had served for five years or less, 67% for six to ten years, 14.8% for eleven to fifteen years, and 3.4% for over sixteen years. The fact that the majority had more than five years of experience suggests that most respondents were well-acquainted with their school environments and likely provided reliable information. This aligns with Lutwama (2009), who stressed that professional experience enhances the accuracy and relevance of responses in educational research. Furthermore, including participants from a broad range of service durations contributes to the overall diversity and robustness of the study's findings.

Data Collection Instruments

This study employed a mixed-methods approach, utilizing both questionnaires and interviews to collect data from the targeted respondents. Given their large number and relatively flexible work schedules, teachers with administrative responsibilities were administered a questionnaire. This self-administered questionnaire, developed by the researcher, comprised closed-ended questions to standardize responses and allow respondents flexibility in completion. The questionnaire included items on respondent demographics, altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and teacher performance. A 4-point Likert scale (strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree) was used to assess responses.

The study adopted the 10-item Short Version of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Checklist (OCB-C) developed by Spector et al. (2009) to measure altruism, courtesy, and conscientiousness. Teacher performance was assessed using a researcher-developed instrument, based on performance indicators outlined by Chavan (2014).

To ensure the validity of the instruments—referring to their appropriateness for collecting the desired data and their alignment with the constructs under investigation

(Polit et al., 2008)—independent expert judgment was sought. This involved seeking input from experts within and outside the institution who possessed relevant expertise in the research topic (DeVellis, 2016). These experts were asked to evaluate each item on the instruments for relevance. Items deemed irrelevant were removed, and a content validity index (CVI) was calculated accordingly.

$$\text{CVI} = \frac{\text{Number of items declared relevant by the judges}}{\text{Total number of items in the instrument}}$$

The researcher aimed for a high validity index, as Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggest a threshold of 0.70 or higher for acceptable validity, recognizing that a higher validity index enhances the credibility of both the findings and the study. Individual content validity was assessed for each element (altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and teacher performance), as general CVIs can sometimes be misleading. Prior to data collection, the researcher obtained approval from the faculty to utilize the validated instruments. The specific values for each construct's CVI are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Validity Indices

Element	Total Items	Valid Items	CVI
Teacher Altruism	6	5	.83
Teacher Courtesy	6	5	.83
Teacher Conscientiousness	5	5	1
Teacher Performance	8	6	.75
Overall	25	21	.84

Source: Researcher's Computation (2024)

Furthermore, reliability—defined as the internal consistency or degree of relatedness among items (Cronbach, 1951)—was assessed through a pilot test involving 13 teachers with administrative responsibilities. The pilot was conducted in a secondary school with similar characteristics to those in the main study, but which was excluded from the final sample. Pretesting was necessary to ensure measurement consistency, in line with George and Mallory (2003), who advocate for pilot testing to determine response stability.

Data from the pilot were analyzed using SPSS to compute Cronbach's alpha coefficients. Following Azwar (2015), a coefficient value of 0.70 or higher was considered acceptable, although the researcher aimed for higher values to ensure robust reliability. Reliability was calculated separately for each construct—altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and teacher performance—to provide a detailed picture of measurement accuracy. The interpretation of the reliability coefficients follows the scale in Table 3.

Table 3

Interpretation of Reliability

Scale	Rating
0.9-1	Excellent
0.8-0.89	Good
0.70-0.79	Acceptable

0.60-0.69	Questionable
0.50-0.59	Poor
0.0-0.5	Unacceptable

Source: *George and Mallery (2003)*

The obtained reliability figures in the study were as follows in Table 4:

Table 4

Reliability Statistics

Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach alpha
Teacher Altruism	05	.86
Teacher Courtesy	05	.83
Teacher Conscientiousness	05	.88
Teachers' Performance	06	.89
Overall	21	.86

Source: *Field Data (2024)*

An interview guide was employed to collect qualitative data from head teachers of the selected secondary schools. Given their limited number and mobile schedules, interviews were deemed more appropriate than a questionnaire. The semi-structured instrument, titled “Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Teachers’ Performance Interview Guide,” featured open-ended questions designed to elicit in-depth insights that would not be easily captured through closed-ended formats. While the guide mirrored the structure of the questionnaire, it also allowed for flexibility to explore emergent themes and follow-up questions based on the responses given.

Interviews were conducted at locations convenient for the participants, and with their permission, the sessions were audio-recorded. Each interview lasted approximately 15 minutes, balancing the time constraints of the respondents with the information required. To preserve anonymity, participants were assigned unique identification codes, and no names or personally identifying details were recorded in the data set.

RESULTS

Descriptive Analysis of Teachers’ Performance

This subsection presents descriptive statistics—including the mean and standard deviation—to characterize teacher performance, the dependent variable, in the selected schools. Qualitative findings are also included to complement the quantitative data. Mean scores were interpreted using the legend in Table 3.5. A standard deviation of less than 1 indicates high response consistency, while a value greater than 1 suggests greater variability among responses. The results related to teacher performance are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics Responses on Teachers’ Performance (N=88)

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Teachers in this school make adequate preparation for teaching	88	3.3636	.62848

Teachers in this school deliver lessons appropriately	88	3.3409	.86949
Teachers in this school assess learners adequately	88	3.1023	.78842
Teachers in this school supervise learners' discipline	88	3.3977	.61662
Teachers in this school supervise co-curricular activities	88	3.1364	.71409
Teachers in this school generate ideas for school improvement	88	3.3636	.76085

Source: Field Data (2024)

Table 5 shows that respondents reported a mean score of 3.36 for the item “Teachers in this school make adequate preparation for teaching,” indicating general agreement among participants. The low standard deviation of 0.63 suggests strong consistency in responses. Teacher preparation typically involves the development of schemes of work, lesson plans, and instructional materials.

A mean score of 3.34 was recorded for the item “Teachers deliver lessons appropriately,” with a standard deviation of 0.87, again indicating general agreement with some variability. This suggests that teachers typically deliver their lessons using relevant instructional methods, set clear goals, and work toward achieving learning outcomes. Where challenges arise, school administrators provide necessary support.

Regarding student assessment, a mean score of 3.10 was obtained, indicating that most respondents agreed that learners are assessed adequately. The standard deviation of 0.79 shows consistent responses. Assessment methods likely include classroom tasks, integration activities, and project assignments.

A mean score of 3.40 was recorded for teachers' supervision of student discipline, accompanied by a standard deviation of 0.62, reflecting strong agreement and consistency. This suggests that teachers actively monitor student behavior and enforce clear expectations and consequences.

The mean score for the supervision of co-curricular activities was 3.14, with a standard deviation of 0.71, showing that most respondents agreed that teachers are engaged in extracurricular supervision. Activities may include sports, clubs, debates, and other school-sponsored programs.

Finally, the item “Teachers generate ideas for school improvement” also yielded a mean of 3.36 with a standard deviation of 0.76, suggesting that teachers contribute meaningfully to institutional development through mechanisms such as staff meetings and parent-teacher association (PTA) forums.

Descriptive Analysis of Altruism among Teachers

The main objective of this study was to examine the relationship between altruism and teacher performance in private secondary schools in Iganga District, Uganda. To support this, the study first assessed the level of altruism among teachers by computing mean scores and standard deviations for questionnaire responses. These self-reported items reflect teachers' personal experiences in their respective schools. The results are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics Responses on Altruism among Teachers (N=88)

Item	N	Mean	Std Deviation
Teachers in this school help other teachers without any coercion	88	3.2841	.58622
Teachers in this school have a direct behavior to help others	88	3.2841	.60551
Teachers in this school care about the welfare of others	88	2.7841	1.01085
Teachers in this school go beyond job requirements in offering help to others	88	2.9318	.78485
Teachers in this school feel concern and empathy for the welfare and rights of others	88	3.0909	.72137

Source: Field Data (2024)

Table 6 shows that the highest mean score (3.28) was recorded for two items: “Teachers help other teachers without coercion” and “Teachers have a direct behavior to help others.” The low standard deviations (0.59 and 0.61, respectively) indicate high consistency in responses, suggesting a strong culture of peer assistance and collaboration in teaching tasks, such as preparing lessons or sharing materials.

The item “Teachers care about the welfare of others” recorded a mean of 2.78 and a high standard deviation of 1.01, indicating variability in responses. While many agreed, some disagreed—suggesting a potential divide between altruistically inclined teachers and those less involved in others’ welfare.

Teachers’ willingness to go beyond job requirements had a mean of 2.93, with a standard deviation of 0.78, reflecting moderate agreement and consistency. This implies that teachers sometimes offer extra support even when it’s not part of their formal responsibilities.

Finally, the item on empathy—“Teachers feel concern and empathy for the welfare and rights of others”—had a mean score of 3.09 and a standard deviation of 0.72, showing strong agreement and response consistency. This finding suggests that empathetic behavior is a common feature among the teaching staff.

Correlation Analysis

A Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between altruism and teachers’ performance in private secondary schools in Iganga District, Uganda. This analysis involved calculating the average mean scores for all questionnaire items related to altruism and teacher performance. The Pearson correlation coefficient was then used to determine the direction, strength, and statistical significance of the relationship between these two variables.

According to Akoglu (2018), a correlation coefficient ranging from 0.0 to 0.3 is considered “weak,” 0.4 to 0.6 is considered “moderate,” and 0.7 to 0.9 is considered “strong.” A 99% confidence level ($p < .01$) was set to determine the statistical significance of the results. The findings of the correlation analysis are presented in Table 7.

Table 7
Correlation Between Altruism and Teachers' Performance

		Altruism	Teachers' Performance
Altruism	Pearson Correlation	1	.644 **
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	88	88
Teachers' Performance	Pearson Correlation	.644 **	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	88	88

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 7, the correlation coefficient between altruism and teachers' performance is $r = .644$, $p < .01$, based on $n = 88$. This indicates a strong, positive, and statistically significant relationship between the two variables. The correlation value falls within the "strong" range as defined by Akoglu (2018), confirming the study's hypothesis that increased altruism is associated with improved teacher performance.

This result aligns with the study's primary objective and reinforces the importance of altruistic behavior as a predictor of professional effectiveness within the school context. The statistically significant p -value ($< .01$) further confirms the reliability of the observed relationship, suggesting that it is unlikely to have occurred by chance.

DISCUSSION

Altruism and Teachers' Performance

Based on the findings, the null hypothesis—which posited that there is no statistically significant relationship between altruism and teachers' performance in private secondary schools in Iganga District, Uganda—is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. The results demonstrate a strong and significant positive relationship between altruism and teacher performance. This finding supports Örtqvist (2020), who found that firms with a strong strategic network rooted in altruistic behavior tend to perform better than those without such behavior, both at individual and organizational levels. Similarly, this result aligns with Zubair et al. (2021), who reported a positive association between altruism and organizational performance.

Several studies from Indonesia also support these findings. For instance, Fauzianti et al. (2020) revealed that altruism accounted for 25% of performance variance among teacher supervisors—senior teachers responsible for mentoring junior colleagues. Similarly, Batubara et al. (2023) found that altruistic behavior positively correlated with performance among Islamic elementary school teachers.

From the qualitative data, interview responses also indicated that head teachers perceived altruism as positively influencing teacher performance. Although perspectives varied, a shared view emerged that altruism strengthens professional collaboration and maintains performance continuity during staff absences. One respondent notably stated:

"It would bridge the gap; learners do not feel the impact that the other

teacher is not there. It bridges that gap there, and performance will not be affected. It also promotes teamwork, that is, working together. When you are not there, the work continues" (RS1).

These qualitative insights reinforce the statistical findings, illustrating that altruistic actions—such as voluntarily assisting absent colleagues—help maintain instructional quality and institutional stability. As Head Teacher RS3 noted, positive interpersonal relationships fostered by altruism ultimately enhance teacher effectiveness.

Responses on Teachers' Performance

The high level of agreement across performance indicators—such as lesson preparation, instructional delivery, learner assessment, discipline supervision, and contributions to school improvement—suggests a consistently strong performance culture. These findings are consistent with Taylor and Tyler (2012), who emphasized the centrality of well-prepared schemes of work and lesson plans in effective teaching.

A mean score of 3.35 for lesson delivery indicates general agreement that teachers are effective in their classroom instruction. The relatively low standard deviation (0.87) supports the consistency of responses. This suggests that teachers not only use appropriate instructional strategies but also receive administrative support when challenges arise. These results corroborate Oryema's (2017) recommendations for continuous professional development to enhance instructional delivery.

Regarding learner assessment, a mean of 3.10 and a standard deviation of 0.79 reflect agreement that assessment practices are appropriate and consistent. Teachers reportedly use a variety of methods—such as classroom exercises and integration activities—which aligns with Kandula's (2008) observations on the centrality of assessment in daily instructional practice.

For discipline supervision, the mean score of 3.39 and standard deviation of 0.62 suggest strong agreement that teachers are proactive in managing student behavior. These findings are consistent with Zikanga et al. (2021), who underscored the crucial role of teachers in shaping student discipline through close supervision.

In the area of co-curricular engagement, the mean score of 3.14 suggests that teachers are actively involved in extracurricular supervision, including sports and student clubs. The consistency in responses ($SD = 0.71$) supports Kitavi's (2005) view that such engagement is integral to school culture and student motivation.

A mean score of 3.36 was obtained regarding teacher contributions to school improvement, indicating that most respondents strongly agreed that teachers actively generated ideas for school improvement. These ideas were typically shared during staff meetings and Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) meetings. The low standard deviation of 0.76 suggests high consistency among responses. These findings align with Sinha (2022), who highlighted the importance of teacher contributions to school growth, including career counseling, empathy, active participation, supporting school clubs, and mentoring students.

Meanwhile, the qualitative data also provided valuable insights. Headteachers identified several key teacher performance indicators within their respective schools when interviewed. These perspectives primarily focused on student results, teacher preparation, and other relevant factors. One head teacher remarked:

“There is feedback we get from learners. Normally, as we move around, we talk to the learners and engage them in some health discussions, but the target may be to find out whether teachers are doing the work so the learners can give us a picture of whether the teachers are performing. Then continuous assessments and activities of integration” (RS1).

Another head teacher emphasized the importance of availability and punctuality:

“First of all, if I am to gauge if my teachers are performing, 1] I look at the availability if my teachers are available, I always say that if you are always good, your availability shows. Even if you are good and unavailable, that means you are not good and the other way round. So, availability is always key. Then 2] I look at the output in terms of performance in class” (RS2)

Teacher performance, therefore, was evaluated through a variety of lenses—student feedback, assessment results, teacher attendance, and compliance with instructional expectations.

“We can see the performance being done through adequate preparation by teachers to see whether a teacher is prepared in everything; having the lesson plans, instructional materials, schemes of work, all that preparation triggers performance. Second, you know the time given to an activity and can achieve what you want. So, time management is essential. The teacher ensures that he manages time properly” (RS4)

A comprehensive understanding of teacher performance requires consideration of various factors, including collaboration with colleagues, engagement in non-teaching activities such as school assemblies, and the provision of guidance and counseling services. These qualitative observations align with the quantitative findings regarding teacher performance.

Head teachers offered diverse perspectives when asked about their methods for evaluating teacher performance. One head teacher remarked:

“We appraise our teachers every term, at every end of the term. Teachers have appraised many aspects, not only academic aspects but also many co-curricular aspects because a teacher is not only supposed to be in class but also to be all-around to engage in all school activities” (RS1).

Another response described the use of multiple monitoring mechanisms: *“We would use the monitoring tools like the arrival books and attendance for classes, and we give the class captains [the representatives]. Then, at times, we also use the appraisals; we rate them using the appraisals” (RS3)*

Another head teacher emphasized the role of formal performance appraisals, specifically citing end-of-term examination results—particularly those from the Uganda National Examinations Board (UNEB)—as a key evaluation criterion. Additionally,

another respondent highlighted lesson planning as a critical indicator of teacher performance, stressing the use of a lesson monitoring tool to assess factors such as time management, adherence to the bell schedule, and the quality of the classroom environment.

Responses on Altruism among Teachers

The findings suggest that teachers in the selected schools collaborate effectively to enhance their professional development. This aligns with the view of Olatomide and Oluwatosin (2014), who argued that teacher performance evaluation should consider factors such as effective record-keeping, continuous assessment practices, accurate evaluation records, sensitivity to student learning styles, preparation of comprehensive teaching notes, availability for consultation, guidance and counseling, and active participation in school events and programs.

The study also examined whether school teachers demonstrated direct behaviors that support others. A mean score of 3.28 was obtained for this item, indicating that most respondents strongly agreed that teachers showed direct helping behaviors—for example, treating colleagues with respect and dignity. The low standard deviation of 0.61 suggests a high level of agreement among responses. Treating colleagues and stakeholders with dignity contributes to a positive school climate and organizational harmony. These findings are consistent with Ridwan et al. (2020), who identified consistent fulfillment of job duties, initiative in process improvement, and proactive problem-solving as key markers of conscientiousness.

The extent to which teachers showed concern for the welfare of others was also investigated. A mean score of 2.78 was recorded, suggesting agreement among most respondents, although a notable proportion disagreed. The relatively high standard deviation of 1.01 indicates considerable variation in responses. This suggests that while some teachers actively care for others' well-being, others may focus primarily on their formal responsibilities. Caring for colleagues fosters supportive relationships and contributes to a more inclusive and comfortable work environment. These findings align with Sadeghi et al. (2016), who defined organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as actions that extend beyond formal job duties and benefit others in the organization.

When asked whether teachers go beyond job requirements to help others, respondents reported a mean score of 2.93, indicating agreement with moderate consistency ($SD = 0.78$). This suggests that teachers occasionally take initiative to support colleagues outside their official duties. These findings align with Unal (2013), who identified conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue as four core dimensions of OCB. Conscientiousness represents going above required expectations; sportsmanship reflects tolerance for inconvenience; courtesy involves proactive effort to avoid problems for coworkers; and civic virtue entails active, responsible participation in school life.

The item regarding concern and empathy for others' welfare and rights received

a mean score of 3.09, reflecting general agreement. The standard deviation of 0.72 confirms consistency among responses. This implies that teachers regularly exhibit empathy toward colleagues and students alike. Demonstrating empathy and moral concern is a key marker of altruism. These results align with Moorman et al. (2018), who associated altruism with social reputation, fairness, socially desirable conduct, and moral self-presentation.

Qualitative findings reinforced these observations. When asked about the prevalence of altruism in their schools, head teachers cited several specific practices. One respondent noted:

“Like in a school setting or any organization, we are normal human beings; we have very many hindrances/problems, but in a situation where one teacher is unable to make it on that particular day or a week or month, take an example of us women during our maternity leaves, we are not at the workplace, this calls for helping one another in times of need” (RS1).

Another head teacher emphasized the importance of proactive planning and communication to ensure instructional continuity:

“I am not going to be around, but this so and so is going to cover up my lesson” (RS2).

A further reflection highlighted the importance of mutual support in strengthening workplace relationships:

“The interpersonal social interaction relationship between the teachers because one teacher may not know because when a teacher knows that somebody stood in for him when I was away, they will have many relationships. That one shows altruism among teachers” (RS4).

Based on both quantitative and qualitative findings, it is evident that altruism among teachers manifests in several key behaviors: mutual support, collaborative planning, emotional concern, interpersonal respect, and willingness to assist others beyond formal job requirements. These behaviors not only enhance collegiality but also contribute to sustained performance and institutional resilience.

These findings not only validate a statistically significant relationship between altruism and teacher performance but also directly address the research gap highlighted in the introduction. Prior studies (e.g., Örtqvist, 2020; Zubair et al., 2021; Rohman et al., 2022) explored altruism in profit-oriented or public service contexts; however, this study uniquely contributes context-specific evidence from private, non-profit educational institutions in Uganda—an underrepresented domain in existing literature. By focusing solely on altruism and teacher performance, this research offers a targeted understanding of how altruistic behavior fosters educational effectiveness within resource-constrained school environments. This contribution is timely and important for scholars, policymakers, and school leaders seeking behavior-based strategies to improve teacher performance and institutional culture.

CONCLUSION

The key finding of this study, aligned with the stated objective, revealed a significant and strong positive relationship between altruism and teacher performance, as demonstrated by Pearson product-moment correlation analysis. This finding suggests that schools where teachers exhibit high levels of altruism are likely to experience higher overall teacher performance. Given the strong association between altruism and teacher performance, fostering and nurturing altruistic behaviors among teachers should be a central focus of effective school management. Acknowledging that altruism is an intrinsic quality that requires conscious effort and appreciation from teachers and school administrators to be effectively cultivated and sustained within the school environment is crucial.

Teachers should recognize the importance of caring for one another's welfare, particularly because school systems may not be adequately equipped to monitor or respond to every teacher's needs. Peer-based concern becomes a practical and moral complement to formal structures of support.

School administrators should encourage teachers to undertake tasks beyond their routine duties, thereby fostering a sense of commitment and responsibility. One example of such proactive behavior includes showing concern for students' well-being outside of school hours—such as their health, religious practices, and family life.

Importantly, this study contributes new evidence to an underexplored area of research by examining altruism within private, non-profit educational institutions in Uganda. Unlike previous studies that focused on corporate or public service contexts, this research provides a context-specific understanding of how altruistic behavior among teachers relates directly to professional performance. The findings help bridge a literature gap by highlighting the behavioral and cultural dimensions of teacher effectiveness in developing country settings.

To enhance the robustness of these findings, future research should utilize a larger sample size, ideally including at least 200 participants. Moreover, future studies could expand the contextual scope by comparing public and private schools or investigating the role of institutional support in shaping altruistic behavior.

REFERENCES

Akoglu, H. (2018). *User's guide to correlation coefficients*. Turkish Journal of Emergency Medicine, 18, 91-93. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tjem.2018.08.001>

Azwar, S. (2015). *Reliabilitas dan validitas*: Edisi 4. Pustaka Pelajar.

Batubara, R.U., Darwin, D. & Bintang, S. (2023). Pengaruh ketulusan (altruisme), etos kerja, dan kepuasan kerja terhadap kinerja guru MI Negeri di Kota Medan. *Jurnal Serambi Ilmu*, 24 (1), 148-163. <https://mail.ojs.serambimekkah.ac.id/serambi-ilmu/article/view/5611>

Bhattacherjee, A. (2012). *Social science research: Principles, methods and practices*. Creative Commons Attribution-Non-commercial Share Alike.

Casteel, A. & Bridier, N.L. (2021). Describing populations and samples in doctoral student research. *International Journal of Doctoral Studies*, 16 (1), 339. DOI: 10.28945/4766

Chavan, R.L. (2014). Performance indicator for teachers. *Reseach Font*, 1, 23-28. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/335728033_PERFORMANCE_INDICATORS_FOR_TEACHERS

Cislak, A., Formanowicz, M. & Saguy, T. (2018). Bias against research on gender bias. *Scientometrics*, 115, 189-2000. <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s11192-018-2667-0>

Corrêa, J.C., Avila, M.P.W., Lucchetti, A.L.G., & Lucchetti, G. (2020). Altruism, volunteering and cognitive performance among older adults: A 2-year longitudinal study. *J Geriatr Psychiatry Neurol.*, 35(1), 66-77. doi: 10.1177/0891988720964260

Creswell, J.W. & Creswell, J.D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage Publications.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16, 297–334. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02310555>

DeVellis, R.F. (2016). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. Sage Publications.

Fauzianti, I., Natuna, D.A., & Miharty, M. (2020). The influence of interpersonal intelligence and altruism on the supervisor performance of Bengkalis regency. *Jurnal JUMPED (Jurnal Manajemen Pendidikan)*, 8(2), 139-145. <https://jmp.ejournal.unri.ac.id/index.php/JMP/article/view/5473>

George, D., & Mallery, P. (2003). *SPSS for Windows Step by Step: A Simple Guide and Reference. 11.0 Update (4th ed.)*. Allyn & Bacon.

Kandula, S.R. (2008). *Performance management*. Prentice Hall of India Private.

Kitavi, M. J. (2005). Investigation of the factors influencing performance in KCPE in 120 Kathonzweni division, Makueni district, Kenya. *Unpublished M Ed Thesis*, University of Nairobi Kenya.

Kiriri, P. & Gathuthi, E. (2009). Managing performance in Kenyan higher education institutions. *Application of the Balanced Scorecard, Management Digest*, 1, 514-526.

<https://www.sciencepublishinggroup.com/article/10.11648/j.jhrm.20180603.12>

Krejcie, R.V., & Morgan, D.W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30, 607-610.

Landy, D., Guay, B., & Marghetis, T. (2018). Bias and ignorance in demographic perception. *Psychonomic bulletin & review*, 25(5), 1606-1618. <https://link.springer.com/article/10.3758/s13423-017-1360-2>

Lutwama, E.E.M. (2009). *The implementation of the performance management program*. University of South Africa.

Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative researching. 2nd Edition*. Sage Publications.

Moorman, R., Bower, H., & Grover, S. (2018). Organizational citizenship behavior and trust: The double reinforcing spiral. In Philip M. Podsakoff, Scott Bradley MacKenzie, Nathan P. Podsakoff (eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Organizational Citizenship Behavior* (page 285-296). Oxford University Press.

Mugenda, O.M. & Mugenda, A.G. (2003). *Research methods: Quantitative and qualitative approach*. Center for Technology.

Olatomide, O.O. & Oluwatosin, S.A. (2014). Class teachers' continuous assessment input in the primary six leaving certificate (PSLC) in Akoko South-West Local Government Area, Nigeria. *Journal of Psychology and Behavioral Science*, 2(1)107-118. https://jpbs.thebrpi.org/journals/jpbs/Vol_2_No_1_March_2014/10.pdf

Örtqvist, D. (2020). Performance outcomes from reciprocal altruism: a multi-level model. *Journal of Small Business & Entrepreneurship*, 32(3), 227–240. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08276331.2019.1661616>

Oryema, F. (2017). *Supervision of teaching and teachers' performance in government-aided secondary schools in Moyo district, Northern Uganda* (Doctoral dissertation, Uganda Management Institute).

Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS Survival Manual: a Step-by-Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS for Windows*. Open University Press.

Polit, D.F., Beck, C.T., & Owen, S.V. (2007). Is the CVI an acceptable indicator of content validity? Appraisal and recommendations. *Research in Nursing & Health*, 30(4):459-67. DOI: 10.1002/nur.20199

Ridwan, M., Mulyani, S. R., & Ali, H. (2020). Improving employee performance through perceived organizational support, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. *Systematic Reviews in Pharmacy*, 11(12). <http://repository.upiptyk.ac.id/3808/>

Rohman, F., Noermijati, N., Soelton, M., & Mugiono, M. (2022). Model altruism in improving organizational performance in social welfare institutions ministry of social affairs of the republic of Indonesia. *Cogent Business & Management*, 9(1), 2151678. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2022.2151678>

Sadeghi, G., Ahmadi, M., & Yazdi, M. T. (2016). The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and organizational performance (case study):

Agricultural Jihad Organization of Mazandaran Province). *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 14(3), 317-324. [http://dx.doi.org/10.21511/ppm.14\(3-si\).2016.03](http://dx.doi.org/10.21511/ppm.14(3-si).2016.03)

Salkind, N. J. (2018). *Exploring Research* (9th ed.). Pearson.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business student*. 5th ed. Pearson Education Limited.

Sinha, P. (2022). What is the role of teachers in growth of a school? <https://classplusapp.com/growth/what-is-the-role-of-teachers-in-growth-of-a-school/?session=ondemand>

Spector, P. E., Bauer, J. A., & Fox, S. (2010). Measurement artifacts in the assessment of counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior: Do we know what we think we know? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(4), 781-790. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0019477>

Taylor, E. S., & Tyler, J. H. (2012). The effect of evaluation on teacher performance. *American Economic Review*, 102(7), 3628-3651. <https://www.aeaweb.org/articles/pdf/doi/10.1257/aer.102.7.3628>

Uganda Teachers' Union (UTU). (2021). *Teacher management and challenges in Uganda*. Uganda Teachers'Union (UTU).

Uganda Teachers' Union (UTU). (2022). *Teacher management and challenges in Uganda*. Uganda Teachers' Union (UTU).

Unal, A. P. Ö. F. (2013). *Relationship between the facets of job satisfaction and the dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior: Mediating role of organizational commitment*. Suleiman Demirel Universities.

Voss, T., Kunter, M., & Baumert, J. (2011). Assessing teacher candidates' general pedagogical/psychological knowledge: Test construction and validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 103(4), 952-969

Zubair, S. S., Khan, M. A., & Mukaram, A. T. (2021). Public service motivation and organizational performance: Catalyzing effects of altruism, perceived social impact and political support. *Plos one*, 16(12), e0260559. <https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0260559>

Zikanga, S. K., Anumaka, B. I., Tamale, M. B., & Mugizi, W. (2021). Remuneration and job performance of teachers in Government Aided Secondary Schools in Western Uganda. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Education Research*, 3(2), 10-22. <https://doi.org/10.51986/ijer-2021.vol3.02.02>

Zikmund, W.G. (2003). *Business research methods*. 7th Edition, Thomson/South-Western.