

A STUDY INTO THE EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON EMPLOYEES BEHAVIOUR OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA

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Abstract

The objectives of this study were two-fold. These were to examine the effect of leadership styles on: citizenship behaviour towards individuals (OCBI); and citizenship behaviour towards the organisation (OCBO). The study adopted the correlational research design. The study adopted positivism research philosophy. The deductive research approach and the survey research strategy were also used. The population of the study was permanent employees of five selected public universities in Ghana. These Universities were UMaT, KNUST, University of Ghana, UCC, and UDS. The total sample size used was 100. Questionnaire was used to collect the primary data from the respondents. Data were analysed using inferential quantitative techniques like regression analysis, correlation coefficient, and t-test were used. The standardized correlation coefficient was the reported beta in the study. The statistical results of the study show that there are positive and significant relationships between the entire leadership styles and both the citizenship behaviour towards individuals (OCBI), and citizenship behaviour towards the organisation (OCBO). The study has therefore confirmed the two hypotheses tested. However, when the individual leadership styles were analysed independently, the study revealed mixed results on both the OCBI and OCBO. Leadership of the studied Universities should put in place measures to make employees flexible and objectives-oriented rather than rigid rule-conscious people. Some of the recommendations made are: Leadership should encourage employees to drive home creativity and innovation; the symbiotic relationship between the universities and the employees should be hammered on so as to enable employees to understand why they should

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voluntary exhibit positive behaviour in workplace; and leadership should try to do away with the environment of fear and panic in the work place.

1.0 Introduction

Managers and corporate entities are not oblivious of the fact that the future is daunted with complex and rapid change (Mester, et.al, 2003). This wave of future oriented uncertainty, coupled with individual demands for increased participation at all levels of the organisation, has dramatically changed perceptions of leadership, specifically with regard to the respective roles played by the leader and the follower. Almost all leadership theory is based on the relative importance assigned to the leader versus the follower in mission accomplishment (Mester, 2003). Irrespective of how leader-follower relationship is defined, the question that every observer might ask is “what is really the effect of leadership style on followers or employees behaviour and performance?”

Few leaders understand the full significance of how influential their leadership style is on the behaviour and performance of their employees. Leaders control both interpersonal and material rewards and punishments that often shape employee behaviour and influence an employee’s performance, motivation, and attitude (Warrick, 1981). In line with this, many researches have been carried out to find out the effect of leadership style on employees’ behaviour and on performance (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006).

Various researches have looked at different leadership styles and their impact on employees’ behaviour, job satisfaction, commitment, and other performance indicators (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006). For, example, leadership theory suggests a positive relation between transformational or transactional leadership and other constructs such as organisational commitment, job involvement, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour (Mester, et.al, 2003). University of Mines and Technology (UMaT), Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), University of Ghana (UG), University of Cape Coast (UCC), and University of Development Studies (UDS) are government funded public universities in Ghana that have witnessed many different leaders with their own leadership styles. This obviously will have differing effect on employees’ behaviour.

1.2. Problem Statements.

There are various leadership styles that can be exhibited by leaders. These leadership styles can span from autocratic styles to democratic styles, transactional style to transformational style, and paternalistic style to charismatic styles. This proves that, there is no one single way of leading people. This does not imply that organisations should be adopting different leadership styles from now and then. This does not also mean that corporate entities do not need to change their leadership styles. However, what this implies is that every organisation must try to adopt a prevalent leadership style that conforms to its philosophy and culture over a long period of time. Over the years’ staff of the selected universities have had to deal with different leaders, many of whom come with their leadership style which impact differently on the work behaviour of staff in the universities. This may create confusion in the minds of the employees as they may need to deal with different leadership styles. Many researches have been carried out to establish the relationship between leadership styles and employees’ behaviours (Mester, et.al, 2003). However, the results have been varied (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Mester et al, 2003; and Walumbwa et al., 2010). The implication is that the type of leadership styles exhibited by leaders of an organisation induce the kinds of behaviour portrayed by employees. Since the selected universities have experienced different leaders, their leadership styles might have affected their employees’ corporate citizenship

behaviour differently. This study will thus assess the effect of leadership styles on the employees' behaviour of the selected case study.

1.3. Research Objectives.

Deducing from the problem statements, the following specific research objectives will be achieved

1. To examine the effect of leadership styles on employees' citizenship behaviour towards individuals (OCBI)
2. To examine the effect of leadership styles on employees' citizenship behaviour towards the organisation (OCBO)

1.4. Research Questions.

1. What is the effect of leadership styles on employees' citizenship behaviour towards individuals (OCBI)
2. What is the effect of leadership styles on employees' citizenship behaviour towards the organisation (OCBO?)

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Leadership Define.

According to Nyberg, et.al (2005), there is no universally agreed consensus upon the definition of leadership among scholars. Yukl (1994) agree and added that definitions differ in terms of emphasis on influence relationships, personality traits, leader abilities, individual versus group orientation, appeal to self versus collective interests, and cognitive versus emotional orientation.

BPP (2001) define leadership in terms of influence relationships. BPP (2001) define leadership as "the process of influencing others to work willingly towards goals, to the best of their capabilities, perhaps in a manner different to that which they would otherwise have chosen". This definition sees leadership in terms of influence relationship but rejects the use of coercive force to compel others to achieve outcomes. This means that dictators may not be considered as leaders. However, BPP definition failed to account for natural born leaders and the fact that dictatorship is recognised as leadership style.

Nyberg, et.al (2005) seems to accept the constraints found on the BPP (2001) definition and gave rather an elaborate summary of some definition. According to Nyberg, et.al (2005), leadership is a: reciprocal process. Any aspect of the leader, group member or setting can influence and be influenced by every other variable in the system. They added that an interactional view assumes that leadership is a fluid, dynamic process involving continual adjustments. They continued that the leader/member relationship is a form of social exchange, transformational process, and cooperative process. The right to lead is, in most instances, voluntarily conferred on the leader by some or all members of the group; and an adaptive, goal-seeking process, for it organizes and motivates group members' attempts to attain personal and group goals Nyberg, et.al (2005).

The major problem with the Nyberg, et.al (2005) summary of definitions as asserted by other Authors is that none of the purported procedural definitions given above explicitly solve very important controversial area of leadership. That is, whether leaders are born or made. The definitions as highlighted by Nyberg, et.al (2005) suggest that Leaders are made, thus anybody can become a leader. This deviates from assertion that leaders can also be born (that is Natural leaders). Northouse (1997) accepts that certain people are born with special traits that make them great leaders, and these include intellectual, personality, self-confidence, determination, and physical traits. However, the trait theory failed to delimit a definitive list of leadership and even some of the list ascribed to leadership may not be strongly grounded in a reliable research.

From, the above, it is clear that there cannot be a definitive description of what leadership entails. Thus leadership can be explained based on one's perspective or theory from which the speaker may be coming from.

2.2 Types of Leadership Theories.

There are various theories of leadership (BPP, 2001). Some are Leaders point of view theory, Follower and context theories, Leader-Member Exchange theory, transformational and transactional theories, team-leadership approach, and psycho-dynamic approach (Akuoko, 2016).

2.2.1 Leaders point of view theory

Most Leadership theories emphasize leadership from the point of view of the leader; examples are trait, functional and style approaches (Akuoko, 2016). The trait approach is a leadership theory that suggests that certain people are born with special traits that make them great leaders, and these include intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability (BPP, 2001). This theory seems to have advantage that it can be used for personal awareness and development. This theory is also intuitively appealing because it portrays leaders as “out-from” in society. However, this theory failed to take account of the impact of situation, thus indicating that leadership cannot be learned. The functional theory solves the failure of the trait theory by emphasizing that leadership is an art of performance, thus emphasizing that leadership cannot be created or promoted but can be learned or taught (Pedler, et.al, 2003). However, the functional approach ties the leader into performing against specific categories and does not allow for much flexibility beyond these (Akuoko, 2016). A more fluid approach is provided in the options offered by the style theory. The style approach focuses on what leaders do rather than who leaders are. Here leaders engage in two types of behaviour-tasks and relationship. The style approach tends to broaden the scope of leadership to include behaviour, however, it failed to take into account the fact that certain situations may require different leadership styles.

2.2.2. Follower and Context (place) Theories.

These theories look at leadership from the subordinate perspective and the place where leadership is being practice (BPP, 2001). Examples of such theories are situational leadership, contingency and path-goal theories (Akuoku, 2016). The situational model advocates that effective leadership occurs when the leader can accurately diagnose the developmental level of subordinates in a task situation and exhibit the prescribed leadership style that matches the situation (Blanchard, et.al, 1993). This approach is very important because it sets forth a clear set of prescriptions for how leaders should act if they want to enhance effectiveness of supervision. This approach however, does not provide guidelines for how leaders use the approach in group settings as opposed to one-to-one contexts. The contingency approach solves the limitations of the situational model by looking at the leader in conjunction with the situation in which he works. Thus, it matches the leader’s style with the demands of the situation (BPP, 2001). This approach is predictive of leadership effectiveness meaning that, it does not allow leaders to be effective in all situations, thus denoting that leaders are human beings after all. One problem with the contingency approach is that, it does not fully explain how organisations can use the theoretical results in situational engineering. The path-goal theory answers the criticism of the contingency approach by suggesting that employees will be motivated if they feel competent, think their efforts will be rewarded and find that they payoff for their work is valuable (Akuoku, 2016). This path-goal theory provides a theoretical framework that is useful for understanding how directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented supervisory styles affect productivity and satisfaction of subordinates. The Problem with the path-goal theory is that it does not promote the subordinate involvement in the leadership process and fails to recognise the full abilities of subordinates (Northouse, 1997).

2.2.3. Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX).

This theory is also known as “vertical dyad linkage theory (VDL). The LMX addresses leadership as a process that centred on interactions between leaders and subordinates. It makes the leader-member relationship the pivotal

concept in the leadership process, and determines how he will respond to an accepting or rejecting group atmosphere (Amstrong, 2001). LMX which was viewed as a series of vertical dyads was categorized into two different types as leader's in-groups and out-groups (Akuoko, 2016). Subordinates become in-group members depending on how well they get along with the leader and whether they are willing to expand role responsibilities. They receive extra influence, opportunities and rewards. On the other hand, subordinates who maintain only formal hierarchical relationships with the leader are out-group members. They only receive standard job benefits (Akuoko, 2016). The advantage with this approach is that it explains how leaders utilize some subordinates more than others to effectively accomplish organisational goals. One major demerit of this approach is that it runs counter to the principles of fairness and justice in the work place because some workers receive special attention.

2.2.4 Transformational and Transactional Leadership Theories.

The transformational leadership approach stresses that leaders need to understand and respond to the needs and motives of subordinates. The transformational leaders are recognised as change agents who are good role models, create and articulate a clear vision for an organisation, empower subordinates to achieve higher standards, and act in ways that make other want to trust them and give meaning to organisational life (Nyberg, et.al, 2005). Bass (1990) mentions a few personality traits that characterize transformational leaders: self-confidence, determination, understanding of subordinate needs and freedom from inner conflicts. Nyberg, et.al (2005) stated that, it is acknowledged that there are four various types of transformational leadership behaviours: Idealized Leadership- This is the behaviour that arouses followers to feel a powerful identification and strong emotions toward the leader; Inspirational Motivation- A leadership behaviour that models high values as an example and includes communication of an inspiring vision. It also promotes powerful symbols to arouse greater effort and a feeling of belonging; Individualized Consideration. -This behaviour provides coaching, support and encouragement of specific followers; and Intellectual Stimulation- A behaviour that influences followers to view problems from a fresh perspective and with a new increased awareness. The positive thing about this approach is that, it emphasis on the importance of subordinates in the leadership process and goes beyond traditional transactional process and broaden leadership to include the growth of subordinates. The problem with the transformational approach is that, it lacks clarity in terms of its parameters and its creates a framework that implies that transformational leadership has trait-like quality.

On the other hand, Transactional leadership, in contrast, seeks to motivate followers by appealing to their own self-interest. Its principles are to motivate by the exchange process. For example, business owners exchange status and wages for the work effort of the employee (Nyberg, et.al, 2005). They added that, transactional behaviours focus on the accomplishment of task and good worker relationships in exchange for desirable rewards. Transactional leadership can encompass four main behaviours. These are: Contingent Reward-To influence behaviour, the leader clarifies the work needed to be accomplished. The leader uses rewards or incentives to achieve results when expectations are met; Passive Management by Exception- To influence behaviour, the leader uses correction or punishment as a response to unacceptable performance or deviation from the accepted standards; Active Management by Exception. To influence behaviour, the leader actively monitors the work performed and uses corrective methods to ensure the work is completed to meet accepted standards; and Laissez-faire Leadership-The leader is indifferent and has a hands-off approach toward the workers and their performance. This leader ignores the needs of others, does not respond to problems or does not monitor performance. It must be noted that both the transactional and transformational approaches are complementary to each other.

2.2.5 Team-Leadership Approach.

According to Akuoku (2016), this model provides a framework within which to study the systematic factors that contribute to group outcomes or general effectiveness. He continued that, the leader's critical function is to assist the group in accomplishing goals by monitoring/diagnosing the group and taking the requisite action. He added that, this model explains the relationship between inputs (individual factors, context factors, group design, and material resources) and outputs (group effectiveness measures) and process measures (effort, knowledge, strategies, and group dynamics). One major strength of the team-leadership model is that, it focuses on real organisations workgroups and what makes them effective. However, this approach might be frustrating, complex and long term.

2.2.6 Psycho-Dynamics Approach.

The basic assumption of this approach is that an individual can change behaviours and feelings by obtaining insight into his upbringing, prior relationships and psychological development. This can be achieved by providing mechanisms such as workshops, counselling sessions or personality assessments (Northouse, 1997). The strength of this approach includes the emphasis on analysing the relationship of the leader to the subordinate, and an attempt at the universality of human experience. The problem with this approach is it is based on the treatment of persons with serious emotional difficulties.

Even though various theories have been enumerated, the purpose of this study is to find out leadership behaviour exhibited in the supervision of employees. Since, supervision of employees is the focus of this study, leadership styles will be the most appropriate approach to be adopted. These leadership styles are explained below:

2.3 Types of Leadership Styles.

Akuoku (2016) stated that different approaches to supervision in established organisations have been propounded. The best known eight supervisory styles that have attracted scholarly attention are democratic, autocratic, laissez-faire, employee-centred, job-centred, close, general, and paternalistic styles. Akuoku (2016) explained them below:

2.3.1 Democratic Leader.

This approach is consultative, which allows all the organisation's policies to be derived from group action or decision or decision. In this style, although the leader participates in its formulation of worker plans, it is the workers who decide together with the leader, the division of tasks to be accomplished by the workers. In other words, there is involvement of workers in the decision making process of the organization. The leader is seen to be objective in his praise and criticism of the performance of the workers because he participates in group activities as deemed appropriate. In democratic style, the leader is seen as egalitarian, facilitative, group-centred, permissive, participative, and responsive to the needs of his followers and geared to consent and consensus. Delegation is a democratic principle that gives a subordinate the authority and responsibility for making a decision but usually specifies the limits within which the final choice must fall.

2.3.2 Autocratic Leader.

In autocratic styles, the leader determines policy and assigns tasks to workers without first consulting them. According to Greenberg, et.al (2000), in this style there are no group inspired decisions. The leader decrees what should be done and others have no choice but to accept it. The leader thus makes decisions unilaterally. The authoritarian leader is perceived as self-insistent, dictatorial, harsh, punitive, threatening, power conscious, restrictive and all too eager to seek scapegoats.

2.3.3 Laissez-Faire Leader.

This type of leadership style grants complete freedom to workers and makes individual decisions without leader participation or direction. The leader merely supplies materials, remains apart from the workers and participates

only when asked to do so. The laissez-faire style is a leaderless social situation. It allows things and activities of the group to take their own course without any control or direction from the leader. As Mullins (2006) observes, every individual worker does as he or she pleases and there is often confusion over this style of leadership.

2.3.4 Employee-Centred Leader (Human Relations-Oriented).

This is a style, which places strong emphasis on the welfare and motivation of subordinates. Leadership thus establishes trust, mutual respect and rapport with the workers and show concern, warmth, support and consideration for subordinates (Mullins, 1999). Leaders with style are more sensitive to the needs and feelings of the employees. This type of leader is supportive of his subordinates, helpful to them and concerned for their well-being. The leader is perceived as interested in all human aspect of the work and he/she is likely to have three characteristics- a strong regard for employees as human beings, a commitment to high production and a contagious enthusiasm for good quality of work (Hellriegel, et.al, 1999).

2.3.5 Job-Centred Style or Production-Centred (Task-Oriented).

This style stresses on getting the work done, group interaction towards attainment of formal goals and organize group activities, rather than the welfare and motivation of the workforce. It is associated with efforts to achieve organisational goals (Mullins, 1999). Leaders with this style emphasize direction of group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, assigning tasks, emphasizing deadlines, and giving directions.

2.3.6 Paternalistic Leader.

This type of leadership styles focuses on providing specific guidance, establishing work schedules and rules. Subordinates are over protected and may lack opportunities to be placed in challenging or risky situations that may be disadvantage (Akuoko, 2016). He continued that, in this style, the leader represents a low concern for task accomplishment with a high concern for interpersonal relationship. Thus the leader stresses the attitudes and feelings of people making sure that the personal and social needs of subordinates are met and agrees to organisational demands, eager to help subordinates, comforting and uncontroversial. At the same time, the leader lays more emphasis on task and job requirements and less emphasis on people. He communicates with subordinates only when giving instructions for the job to be done. The leader therefore uses any of the two styles but does not integrate them (Northouse, 1997). Indeed, this is the “benevolent dictator” who acts graciously but does so for the purpose of goal accomplishment. Thus the parental image is highlighted when organisations are referred to as paternalistic (Northouse, 1997).

2.3.7 Close Leadership Styles.

The supervisor tends to spend more time with his subordinates but the time is broken into many short periods in which leaders give specific instructions, for example, do this, do that and do it this way and thus put pressure on the workers to work under strict control (Akuoko, 2016). Apparently close supervision can interfere with the gratification of some strongly felt needs.

2.3.8 General Style of Leadership.

This style makes clear to subordinates what the objectives of the organisation are, and what needs to be accomplished, and then gives them freedom to do the job. The subordinates can pace themselves and use their own ideas and experience to do the job in the way they find works best (Akuoko, 2016).

2.4 Employees/Organizational Citizenship Behavioural Dimensions.

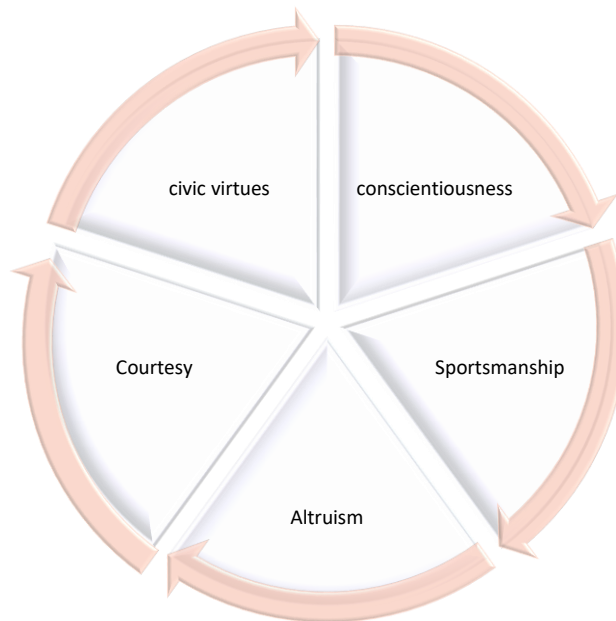
The behaviour exhibited by employees in organisations is referred to as Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). Organizational citizenship behavior (employee behaviour) represents a human conduct of voluntary action and mutual aid without request for pay or formal rewards in return and now become quite a relatively new concept in performance analysis (Lian & Tui, 2012). Mester, et.al (2003) accepted and explain that Organisational

citizenship behaviour (OCB) is a type of discretionary job performance in which employees go beyond prescribed job requirements (in-role behaviours) that are not explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and engage in helping behaviours aimed at individuals and the organisation as a whole.

According to Podsakoff, et.al (2000), these behaviours affect the efficacy and efficiency of organizations, a) increasing managerial and co-worker productivity; b) freeing resources so they can be used for more productive purposes; c) reducing the need for the use of scarce resources in maintenance functions; d) helping to coordinate activities through work teams; e) strengthening the ability of the organization to attract and retain the best employees; f) increasing performance stability of the organization; and g) enabling the organization to adapt more effectively to changes in the environment.

There is no consensus about the number or forms of OCBs (Valsania, et.al, 2012). Organ (1988) identified the following five dimensions: Altruism, which refers to helping behaviours aimed at specific individuals; Conscientiousness, which refers to helping behaviours aimed at the organisation as a whole; Sportsmanship, which refers to the willingness on the part of the employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining; Courtesy, which refers to actions aimed at the prevention of future problems; and Civic virtue, which refers to a behaviour of concern for the life of the organisation. Organ (1988) dimensions can be represented as follows:

Figure 1. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Dimensions

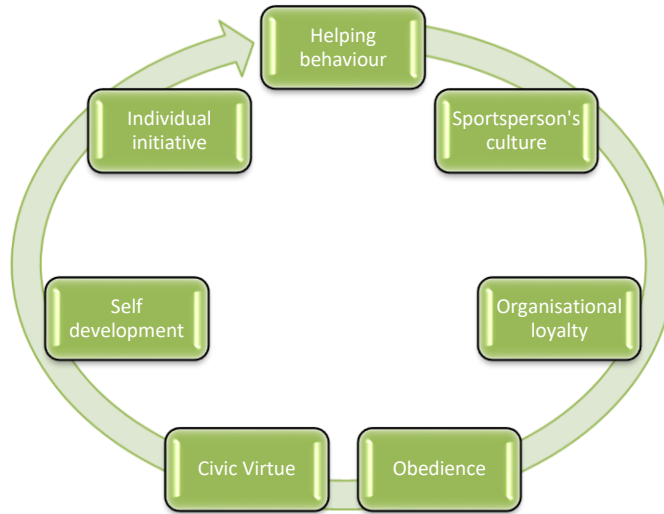


(Source: adapted from Organ,1998)

However, Podsakoff et al., (2000) highlighted seven (7) employees' behavioural dimensions. These are: (a) *helping behaviour*, which implies helping co-workers to resolve difficulties at work; (b) a *sportsperson's attitude*, understood as the act of maintaining a positive attitude when things do not turn out as desired; (c) *organizational loyalty*, which consists of protecting the organization, supporting and upholding its goals; (d) *obedience*, understood as the internalization and acceptance of the person, the rules, norms, and procedures of the organization; (e) *civic virtue*, characterized by employees' participation and active interest in the life of the organization; (f) *self-development*, which includes workers' behaviours to engage in processes of improvement that allow them to better perform their job; and (g) *individual initiative*, which implies creativity and innovation

to improve personal performance in the tasks of the organization. These 7 behavioural dimensions are represented diagrammatically as follows:

Figure 2. Podsakoff et al., Organisational Citizenship Behavioural Dimensions



(Source: Adapted from Podsakoff et al., (2000))

Podsakoff et al., (2000) behavioural dimensions seems to be related to Organ (1988) five employees' behavioural dimensions. Thus the behavioural dimensions enumerated above can be reclassified as; Sportsmanship/sportsperson attitude, Altruism/helping behaviour, conscientiousness/organisational loyalty, obedience/courtesy, civic virtue, self-development, and individual initiative.

Recently, various investigators have focused on a bi-dimensional approach of the OCBs, based on the consideration of two different receivers of the behaviour (Finkelstein, 2006). In this sense, they propose, on the one hand, organizational citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals (hereafter, OCBI). These are **pro-social** behaviours directed towards specific people within the organization. The help may be related to work or to personal problems. Among this type of behaviours are helping behaviours and sportsperson. On the other hand, rest of the aforementioned types of OCB are directed towards the organization (hereafter, OCBO), because they are preferentially directed to benefit the organization as a whole.

2.5 Effect of Leadership Style on Employees Behaviour.

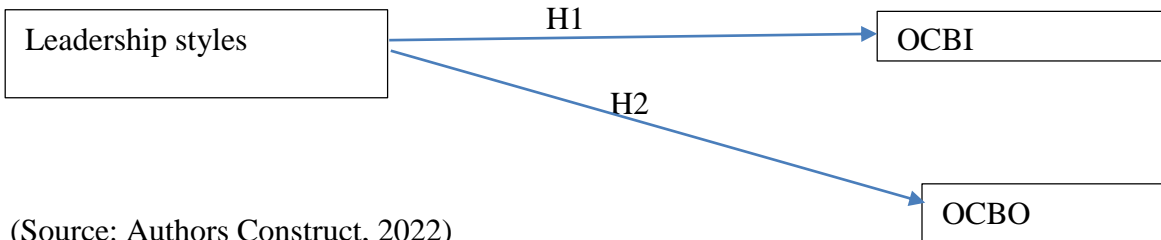
Meta-analytical studies have shown that leadership behaviours correlate positively (ranges .09 to .35) with employees' OCBs (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Mester, et.al (2003) agrees and stated that employee attitudes and behaviour are affected by leadership style. Walumbwa et al., (2010) added that in a study of 397 employees and their 129 immediate supervisors, authentic leadership behaviours were positively related to employees' OCBs ($\beta = .20, p < .01$), and that relation was mediated by the level of the employees' identification with their supervisor and their feelings of empowerment. The issue with the findings from Walumbwa, et.al (2010) is that, authentic leadership can have direct effect on OCBs only when employees can identify themselves with the leader and they feel empowered. Thus an out-group membership may not respond positively to authentic leadership style since they may not identify themselves with the supervisor.

In an attempt to further understand the organisational citizenship behaviour variable, Hodson (1999) hypothesized that just as an employee is expected to perform beyond ordinary expectations, management should also engage in such behaviours. The results of the study indicate that management citizenship behaviours (behaviours that meet a minimum set of workplace norms) are a crucial determinant of worker citizenship behaviour (Hodson, 1999), and that management citizenship behaviours are positively associated with bilateral systems (work

involving at least some input by workers into decisions about the organisation) and job autonomy. However, a study by Mester, et.al (2003) shows mix results. According to Mester, et.al (2003) although transformational and transactional leadership did not correlate significantly with job involvement and job satisfaction, their study provides evidence of a significant relationship between transactional leadership and affective commitment, transformational leadership and affective commitment (to a lesser degree), normative commitment as well as organisational citizenship behaviour.

2.6 Conceptual Framework of the study

Figure 3. The conceptual framework of the study



(Source: Authors Construct, 2022)

Figure 3 shows leadership styles as the independent variable and employees' dimensions as the dependent variable. Per Akuoku (2016), there are eight leadership styles that could be practiced by a leader. These are democratic, autocratic, laissez-faire, employees centred, task-oriented, paternalistic, close leadership, and general leadership styles. Based on Podsakoff et al., (2000) and Organ (1998), employees' behaviour dimension could be divided into seven items. Finkelstein (2006) analysis of OCBs divided the seven behavioural dimensions into two categories. Finkelstein (2006) indicated that the first category relates to organisational citizenship behaviour towards the individual (pro-social behaviour/OCBI). The OCBI comprises of sportsmanship (sportsperson attitude) and altruism (helping behaviour). The second category is the organisational citizenship behaviour towards the organisation (OCBO). The OCBO elements comprise of conscientiousness/organisational loyalty, obedience/courtesy, civic virtue, self-development, and individual initiative. Per Figure 3, two hypotheses were proposed as follows:

H1: There is a significant relationship between leadership styles and OCBI

H2: There is a significant relationship between leadership styles and OCBO

3.0. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

This research adopted the correlational research design. This means that the study sought to establish the relationship between the studied variables through the application of inferential statistics like Pearson correlation coefficient. The study also adopted positivism research philosophy. In terms of ontology, the study adopted objectivism. The deductive research approach and the survey research strategy were also used. The cross-sectional time horizon was also used in the study. The population of the study was permanent employees of five selected public universities in Ghana. The public universities purposefully selected were University of Mines and Technology (UMaT), Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), University of Ghana (UG), University of Cape Coast (UCC), and University of Development Studies (UDS).

3.2. Sampling

The total sample size used was 100. Twenty employees were conveniently selected from each of the five universities. Quota sampling was used to determine the sample size from each branch of the University. Convenience sampling technique was then used to administer the questionnaire. That is the researchers administer the questionnaires to respondents they conveniently located at the study sites.

3.3. Data Collection Instrument and Measures

Questionnaire was used to collect the primary data from the respondents. The data provided were then analysed. The leadership styles and employees' behavioural dimensions were measured using eight items respectively. The respondents were made to answer the items using the 5-point Likert scale as follows; 5 - Strongly agree, 4 - Agree, 3 - Neutral, 2 - Disagree, and 1 - Strongly disagree. Sample leadership item styles asked are: Policies and tasks are most often determined by both staff and leaders; leaders determine policies and assign tasks to staff without consulting them first; Workers often do what pleases them without management (leadership) involvement; Leaders are more sensitive to the needs and feelings of the employees; and Leaders stresses more on getting work done rather welfare of workers. On the other hand, some of the sampled OCB dimensions tested are: My co-workers will quickly help me to resolve my difficulties at work; Workers generally tolerate one another when things do not turn out as desire; Workers generally protect, support and uphold the University's goals; Workers generally obey the university's rules and procedures without infringing on them; and Workers frequently engage in self-development to better their job performance

3.4. Validity, Reliability, and Pilot Testing

The questionnaire developed was pilot tested to twenty staff of UMaT. The comments made by these respondents helped in reshaping the questionnaire before actually submitting them for the actual data collection. In addition, the response from the pilot test was subjected to Cronbach analysis. Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1. However, there is actually no lower limit to the coefficient. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale (Gliem and Gliem, 2003). The leadership style constructs recorded Cronbach alpha 0.8571 which indicates great internal consistency of the items in the scale. The employees' behavioural dimension constructs also recorded Cronbach alpha of 0.875 also depicting great internal consistency of the items in the scale.

3.4. Data Analysis

Data were analysed using inferential quantitative techniques like regression analysis, correlation coefficient, and t-test were used. The standardized correlation coefficient was reported beta in the study. Since, the standardized coefficient beta does not report the constant value, the impact of the constant value was not reported in the study. In analysing the effect between leadership styles and employees' behaviour, leadership styles were treated as the independent variable (x) whilst employees' behaviour variables were treated as dependent variables (y).

4.0. FINDINGS

4.1. Leadership styles on employees' citizenship behaviour towards individuals (OCBI)

Table 1. Leadership styles and OCBI

Leadership Styles.	OCBI			
	Sportsmanship		Altruism	
	R	T- test	R	T-test
Democratic	0.53 [2.53]	6.21	0.88 [2.53]	18.26
Autocratic	0.06 [4.56]	0.56	0.24 [4.56]	2.48
Laissez-Faire	-0.64 [1.13]	8.34	-0.62 [1.13]	7.72
Employees-centred	0.43 [1.05]	4.71	0.85 [1.05]	15.69

Task-oriented	-0.40 [1.24]	0.56	0.07 [1.24]	0.70
Paternalistic	-0.49 [1.01]	5.55	-0.19 [1.01]	1.91
Close Leadership	0.21 [3.01]	2.11	0.09 [3.01]	0.90
General Leadership	0.41 [1.17]	4.44	0.94 [1.17]	26.16
Durbin-Watson	1.81		2.11	
R	0.58		0.63	
R ²	0.34		0.40	
P _(0.05)	(0.000)*		(0.003)*	
* p< 0.05	p–values in parenthesis			
VIF > 10 indicates possibility of multicollinearity. VIF in bracket				
Durbin-Watson: 1.5< Durbin-Watson<2.5 indicates No autocorrelation				
df = 98 Tail = 2 Tail, Margin of Error = 0.05, Tabulated T-test = 1.984; R = Correlation Coefficient; R ² = Correlation of determination.				

(Source: Fieldwork, 2022)

Table 1 shows positive association of five leadership styles on sportsmanship. Four of these leadership styles show positive and significant association with sportsmanship but one leadership style recorded positive but insignificant association with sportsmanship. The recorded correlation coefficient and t-test values are: democratic (r = 0.53, t = 6.21); employees-centred (r = 0.43, t = 4.71); close leadership (r = 0.21, t = 2.11); general leadership (r = 0.41, t = 4.44), and autocratic (r = 0.06, t = 0.56). Even though these leadership styles positively influence the sportsmanship behaviour of the staff of the selected universities, their levels of impact were not significantly high. With the exception of the democratic styles with an r-value of 0.53, the remaining four variables recorded R-values below 0.50. Additionally, the t-test values for the democratic, employees-centred, close leadership, and general leadership were all greater than the critical value of 1.98 at 5% margin of error. The implication is that democratic, employees-centred, close leadership, and general leadership styles are significantly associated with sportsmanship behaviour of the staff. However, the autocratic style though is positively correlated to sportsmanship, the relationship is insignificant (t-value < 1.98). The democratic style recorded the strongest positive association with sportsmanship

On the other hand, laissez-faire (r = -0.64, t = 8.34) and paternalistic (r = -0.49, t = 5.55) recorded negative but significant association with sportsmanship, whilst task-oriented (r = -0.40, t = 0.56) style is negatively but insignificantly associated with sportsmanship). On the OCBI altruism dimension; democratic (r = 0.88, t=18.26), autocratic (r = 0.24, t = 2.48), employees-centred (r = 0.85, t = 15.69), and general leadership (r = 0.94, t = 26.16) were all positively and significantly associated with the altruism behaviour of staff of the selected universities. Task-oriented (r = 0.07, t = 0.70), and close leadership (r = 0.09, t = 0.90) styles were also positively but insignificantly associated with altruism behaviour. Laissez-faire and paternalistic all recorded negative relationship with altruism but whilst laissez-faire relationship was significant, that of paternalistic relationship was insignificant. The VIF values (in brackets) were all less than the critical value of 10. The interpretation is that there is no evidence of multicollinearity among the leadership style variables. Moreover, the Durbin-Watson values for each of the two dependent variables falls within the acceptable range of 1.50 – 2.50. This also indicates

evidence of no autocorrelation. The R-values of 0.58 and 0.68 show that when put together, all the leadership styles have positive effects on the sportsmanship and altruism behaviour of the staff. However, the strongest effect is with the altruism behaviour as shown by the high r-value of 0.68.

The R²-values recorded show that leadership styles of the selected universities account for 34% and 40% variations in the sportsmanship and altruism behaviour of the staff respectively. Other random factors may explain the remaining variations. The significant values show that leadership styles were significantly associated with both sportsmanship ($p = 0.000 < 0.05$) and altruism ($p = 0.003 < 0.05$). In view of this, the study has confirmed the hypothesis (H1): there is a significant relationship between leadership styles and OCBI. In effect the study has confirmed that the leadership styles at the selected universities determines the staff pro-social behaviours. The study has confirmed earlier reported findings by authors like Podsakoff et al., (2000), Mester et al (2003), and Walumbwa et al., (2010) who all discovered that employee's attitudes and behaviour are affected by leadership style.

4.2. Leadership styles on employees' citizenship behaviour towards the organisation (OCBO)

Table 2. Correlation of leadership styles and OCBO

Leadership styles	OCBO									
	Org. Loyalty		Courtesy		Civic Virtue		Self. Dev't		Ind. Initiative	
	R	T-test	R	T-test	R	T-test	R	T-test	R	T-test
Democratic	0.68 [1.60]	9.25	0.53 [1.60]	6.17	0.01 [1.60]	0.0 8	0.7 [1.60]	9.68	0.8 [1.60]	13.1 3
Autocratic	0.22 [1.46]	2.24	0.1 [1.46]	0.97	0.08 [1.46]	0.8 3	0.77 [1.46]	11.82	0.17 [1.46]	1.71
Laissez-Faire	-0.69 [1.24]	9.44	-0.59 [1.24]	7.23	-0.49 [1.24]	5.6	-0.18 [1.24]	1.76	-0.71 [1.24]	10.0 7
Employees-centred	0.63 [1.86]	8.13	0.4 [1.86]	4.37	0.06 [1.86]	0.5 8	0.85 [1.86]	15.65	0.83 [1.86]	14.5
Task-oriented	-0.21 [1.86]	2.13	-0.36 [1.86]	3.82	-0.47 [1.86]	5.3 2	0.81 [1.86]	13.51	-0.06 [1.86]	0.56
Paternalistic	-0.39 [1.21]	4.00	-0.51 [1.21]	5.81	-0.31 [1.21]	3.1 9	0.35 [1.21]	3.64	-0.16 [1.21]	1.64
Close Leadership	0.15 [1.63]	1.55	0.25 [1.63]	2.57	0.03 [1.63]	0.2 9	-0.09 [1.63]	0.91	0.02 [1.63]	0.71 [1.63]]
General Leadership	0.6 [1.50]	7.42	0.35 [1.50]	3.74	-0.12 [1.50]	1.1 7	0.72 [1.50]	10.18	0.93 [1.50]	25.9 3
Durbin-Watson	1.69		1.72		2.13		1.90		1.58	
R	0.21		0.34		0.28		0.30		0.44	
R ²	0.04		0.12		0.08		0.09		0.19	
P _(0.05)	(0.026) *		(0.000) *)		(0.000) *)		(0.000) *)		(0.000) *)	
*p< 0.05	p-values in parenthesis									
VIF > 10 indicates possibility of multicollinearity. VIF in bracket										

Durbin-Watson: $1.5 < \text{Durbin-Watson} < 2.5$ indicates No autocorrelation	
df = 98 Tail = 2 Tail, Margin of Error = 0.05, Tabulated T-test = 1.984; R = Correlation Coefficient; R^2 = Correlation of determination.	

(Source: Fieldwork, 2022)

Democratic leadership style recorded positive and significant correlations with four OCBO variables. Table 2 depicts the positive and significant correlations as follows: Organisational loyalty ($r = 0.68$, $t = 9.25$); courtesy ($r = 0.53$, $t = 6.17$); self-development ($r = 0.7$, $t = 9.68$); and individual initiative ($r = 0.8$, $t = 13.13$). In terms of civic virtue, the relationship was positive but insignificant ($r = 0.01$, $t = 0.08$). Democratic style recorded the strongest positive effect on individual initiative. Autocratic style also recorded positive association with all the tested OCBO variables but varied significant effect. The statistical impact of the autocratic style on the OCBO variables were: org. loyalty ($r = 0.22$, $t = 2.24$); courtesy ($r = 0.1$, $t = 0.97$); civic virtue ($r = 0.08$, $t = 0.83$); self. Dev't ($r = 0.77$, $t = 11.82$); and ind. Initiative ($r = 0.17$, $t = 1.71$). In other words, autocratic style recorded significant and positive correlation with only organisational loyalty and self-development. The variables; courtesy, civic virtue, and individual initiative though were positive, the relationships were insignificant. The autocratic style recorded the strongest effect on self-development. Autocratic style has the least effect on civic virtue.

Laissez-faire leadership on the other hand does not promote any of the OCBO variables. In other words, the statistical results of the field study show a negative and significant relationships with; org. loyalty ($r = -0.69$, $t = 9.44$), courtesy ($r = -0.59$, $t = 7.23$), civic virtue ($r = -0.49$, $t = 5.6$), and ind. Initiative ($r = -0.71$, $t = 10.07$) but negative and insignificant relationship with self-development ($r = -0.18$, $t = 1.76$). Laissez-faire demotes employees' individual initiative more than the other OCBO variables. Employees-centred has positive and significant relationship with all the OCBO variables except civic virtue where even though positive, the relationship is however insignificant. Employees-centred style recorded the strongest impact on self-development. Task-oriented style demotes organisational loyalty, courtesy, civic virtue, and individual initiative. The relationship is insignificant with only individual initiative. Task-oriented recorded positive and significant relationship with only self-development. Task-oriented style also recorded the strongest impact on self-development. Paternalistic style also recorded positive relationship with only self-development and negative relationships with the remaining four OCBO variables. General leadership style on the other hand recorded negative and insignificant relationship with only civic virtue but positive and significant relationship with the remaining four OCBO variables. Moreover, whiles close leadership recorded its strongest relationship with courtesy, general leadership recorded its strongest impact on individual initiative.

The study further revealed no evidence of multicollinearity and autocorrelation since both the recorded Durbin-Watson and VIF test values were within the acceptable thresholds. The R-values show that there is a positive relationship between leadership styles (as a unit) and each of the five OCBO variables. The R-value further revealed that the entire leadership styles have the strongest impact on individual initiative even though the relationship is moderate. This assertion is based on the fact that the recorded R-value for individual initiative is 0.44. The $p(0.05)$ values for each of the dependent variables were all below the maximum threshold (margin of error = 0.05). This means that the relationship between leadership styles and OCBO variables are all significant. The statistical evidence of this study has therefore confirmed the hypothesis (H2): There is a significant relationship between leadership styles and OCBO. The R^2 -values however show that leadership styles account for relatively small variations in the OCBO variables. Per Table 2, leadership styles can only explain: 4% variations in organisational loyalty; 12% variations with courtesy; 8% variations with civic virtue; 9% variations in self-development; and 19% variations in individual initiative.

The findings of this study have confirmed earlier studies that discovered positive and significant correlation between leadership styles and employees behaviour. Studies such as Hodson (1999), Podsakoff et al., (2000), and Walumbwa et al., (2010) have been confirmed by the statistical results of this study. When the entire leadership styles are counted as a unit, the study did not confirm Mester, et.al (2003). However, when the individual elements of the leadership styles are considered separately, the study confirmed Mester, et.al (2003) study that the relationship is mixed.

5.0. CONCLUSION

The objective of this study were two-fold. These were to examine the effect of leadership styles on: citizenship behaviour towards individuals (OCBI); and citizenship behaviour towards the organisation (OCBO). In order to achieve the objectives of the study both literature review and analysis of field data were conducted. The statistical results of the study show that there are positive and significant relationships between the entire leadership styles and both the citizenship behaviour towards individuals (OCBI), and citizenship behaviour towards the organisation (OCBO). The study has therefore confirmed the two hypotheses tested. However, when the individual leadership styles were analysed independently, the study revealed mixed results on both the OCBI and OCBO. On the basis of the statistical results of the study, it is concluded the objectives of the study have been met and that contribution to literature has been made by providing evidences of leadership styles on employees' behaviour from five Ghanaian government funded universities.

6.0. RECOMMENDATIONS

Base on the analysis of empirical data presented, the following recommendations are made:

1. Leadership of the studied Universities should put in place measures to make employees flexible and objectives-oriented rather than rigid rule-conscious people.
2. Leadership should encourage employees to drive home creativity and innovation.
3. The symbiotic relationship between the universities and the employees should be hammered on so as to enable employees to understand why they should voluntary exhibit positive behaviour in workplace.
4. Leadership should try to do away with the environment of fear and panic in the work place.

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