The impact of leadership style on organizational citizenship behavior: does leaders' emotional intelligence play a moderating role?

Ahmed Zakaria Abdullahi
Department of Business Administration, Nobel International Business School, Accra, Ghana
Ebenezer Bugri Anarfo
Department of Accounting and Finance,
Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration, Accra, Ghana, and
Hod Anyigba
Department of Business Administration, Nobel International Business School, Accra, Ghana

Abstract

Purpose – The study investigates the effect of autocratic, democratic and transformational leadership styles on employees' organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The study further examines the moderating role of leaders' emotional intelligence between leadership styles and OCB.

Design/methodology/approach – Questionnaires were used to collect data from 618 small and medium-sized enterprises' (SMEs) employees in Ghana. For this study, both simple random and convenient sampling were adopted in selecting respondents. Regression was used to test the hypotheses in the research model using IBM–Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Findings – The results show that democratic and transformational leadership styles both positively predicted the OCB of SME employees, although transformational leadership has a more significant influence. On the contrary, autocratic leadership style was found to have an insignificant relationship with OCB of SME employees when the interactive effect of the various leadership styles and emotional intelligence were introduced into the model. The results also show that whereas leaders' emotional intelligence positively moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership style and OCB, the relationships between democratic leadership style and OCB and between transformational leadership style and OCB are not significantly moderated by leaders' emotional intelligence.

Research limitations/implications – An examination of other prominent leadership styles (for example, the transactional leadership style and the laissez faire leadership style) could be key areas for future research as it is a potential limitation of this study. Similarly, the use of a Western leadership instrument could also be a potential limitation in the Ghanaian context, although these instruments and scales may be applicable. Future studies could also consider a longitudinal approach to give a more holistic picture of the effect of the leadership styles on OCB.

Practical implications – In general, the findings of the study support the idea that the autocratic leadership style affects SME employees' OCB both directly and indirectly through leaders' emotional intelligence. This study recommends that leaders of SMEs should focus on leadership styles that combine both result-oriented and people-centric behaviors to encourage SMEs' employees to engage in OCB.

Originality/value – This study provides firsthand information on the impact of autocratic leadership style, democratic leadership style and transformational leadership style on an employee's OCB from the Ghanaian SME perspective.

1.1 Introduction

The modern trends of doing business require organizations to have leaders who are abreast with effective leadership styles that correspond with and promote a healthy and conducive working business environment as well as meet changes in the business environment (Malik *et al.*, 2016). To ensure that organizations achieve success, it is imperative that they have leaders who empower their followers to meet organizational goals in an effective manner that promotes healthy and lasting relationship with all stakeholders (Al-Khasawneh and Futa, 2013a; Khan *et al.*, 2013b).

It is important to note that leadership styles affect both the performance of followers and the organization as a whole (Darling and Heller, 2011; Sahaya, 2012). Notwithstanding the important role of organizational success, the dilemma faced by most organizations is what leadership style to apply in general and/or in a given situation or context (Ekaterini, 2010). Thus, the application of a given leadership style that is considered appropriate in a given context affects the performance of employees and ultimately the performance and growth of organizations (Lumbasi, 2015; Okurame, 2012). To survive in this competitive environment and to meet stringent regulations of operation in a country, employees have to go beyond their job requirements to enable organizations to achieve competitive advantage. Hence, the usefulness of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in this regard is heavily supported in the literature. OCB, a term first coined by Organ and his associates (see Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000), refers to employees' discretionary behavior that is not formally rewarded by the organization's formal award system (Duyar and Normore, 2012). Previous studies have shown that OCB influences employee behavior positively thereby enhancing customer satisfaction (Robinson and Morrison, 1995), organizational performance (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000) and the commitment of employees (Organ and Ryan, 1995). In this regard, OCB may be a vital tool for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), especially because, compared to big organizations, SMEs may not have sufficient funds to pay their employees for engaging in an extra work load or working beyond official time. Podsakoff *et al.* (2000), in their review of previous studies on OCB, found that OCB is influenced by positive job attitudes since employees are more likely to offer extra-role behavior when they are satisfied with their jobs and the attitude of their employer/leader/supervisor and are, therefore, committed to their organization (Khan *et al.*, 2013a). Suliman and Al Obaidli (2013) have observed that leadership styles influences OCB. This finding is supported by Mekpor and Dartey-Baah (2017) as they posit that leadership style influences employees to want to walk an extra mile and engage in voluntary work behaviors.

However, the literature highlights the fact that leaders' emotional intelligence (EI) "…can help leaders solve complex problems, make better decisions, plan how to use their time effectively, adapt their behavior to the situation, and manage crises" (Yukl and Mahsud, 2010, p. 213). Therefore, it may be safe to argue that leaders with a high level of emotional intelligence can impact the behavior of employees in a way that spurs them to behave in more extraordinary ways than normally required and to integrate into the aim and vision of the organization. Leaders must recognize that, to induce employees to engage in OCB, there is the need for the employees to have an emotional attachment to the leader. Hence, a leader's emotional intelligence has the potential to promote effective OCB. It is therefore important to investigate among the various leadership styles to ascertain how they impact on employee

OCB depending on how emotionally intelligent leaders could be. It is against this background that this study seeks to examine the effects of autocratic leadership styles, democratic leadership styles and transformational leadership styles on OCB, moderated by the emotional intelligence of leaders.

The study sought to answer the following research questions:

RQ1. What is the effect of the autocratic leadership style on employee OCB?

RQ2. What is the effect of the democratic leadership style on employee OCB?

RQ3. What is the effect of the transformational leadership style on employee OCB?

RQ4. What is the moderating effect of leaders' emotional intelligence on the relationship between the various leadership styles and employee OCB?

This study contributes to the literature on leadership styles and OCB in several ways. First, very little is known about the impact of various leadership styles on OCB among SMEs in an emerging economy such as Ghana. Second, based on the literature, the effect of the various leadership styles in creating employee citizenship behavior is contradictory and inconsistent. That is, the results are mixed and inconclusive. This study, therefore, provides a holistic understanding of how the various leadership styles investigated relate to employee OCB. Last, it is not clear how a leader's emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between various leadership styles and OCB among SMEs.

1.2 Culture and leadership in the Ghanaian context

The last three decades have witnessed the poor performance of SMEs in Africa, and Ghana is no exception. In Ghana, where the informal sector dominates economic activities in both formal and informal institutions, the display of emotional intelligence by leaders almost certainly becomes a competitive edge for business success (Godfrey, 2011). The informal sector in Ghana refers to non-regulated business activities of economic actors which do not pay taxes to the state (Anyigba *et al.*, 2020). According to Yeats *et al.* (1996) and Killick (2001), the poor performance of businesses in the African continent is as a result of institutional, leadership and structural weaknesses. Although there have been limited studies on African leadership and OCB (Bolden and Kirk, 2009), the consensus is that African leaders are quite ineffective and adapt poorly to the demands of the ever-dynamic business environment of today (Ochola, 2007).

The extant literature suggests that culture provides a frame of reference or logic by which leadership behavior such as emotional intelligence can be understood (Dorfman *et al.*, 1997). Some scholars believe that culture is the binding force that brings members of organizations and society together as a homogenous entity (Roberts, 1970). This means that people living together in a particular cultural setting may rule themselves through universal orientations (i.e. patterns of behavior) and consensual aspirations (i.e. central values). Tylor provides one of the earliest definitions of culture: "the complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, custom and any other capabilities and habit acquired by man as a member of society" (1871, in McCort and Malhotra, 1993, p. 97).

A number of scholars have discussed the choice of dimensions most appropriate to classify, conceptualize and operationalize culture (Bond, 1987; Clark, 1990; Dorfman and Howell, 1988; Hofstede, 1984; Hostede and Hofstede, 1991; Inkeles and Levinson, 1969; Keillor and Hult, 1999; Schwartz, 1992; Smith *et al.*, 1996; Steenkamp, 2001). "Culture comes in layers, like an onion. To understand it you have to unpeel it layer by layer" (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 2011, p. 6). According to Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2011), culture at the national level is made up of different layers. First, the outer layer or explicit layer is made up of observable reality such as food, buildings, language, agriculture, shrines,

fashions, monuments, art and markets. The second is the middle layer which constitutes the norms and values of society and the last layer is the implicit layer, which is the basic assumptions of society (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 2011).

According to the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research program, there is no standard definition or classification of cultural dimensions although the study focuses on values and norms such as assertiveness, future orientation, gender differentiation, uncertainty avoidance and power distance (Javidan and House, 2001). However, Hofstede's framework is most widely used in management research, sociology and psychology. Hofstede's cultural dimensions–individualism and collectivism, masculinity and femininity, power distance and uncertainty avoidance–play a key role in how leaders and employees develop or enhance their social structure, aimed at developing processes of regulated behavior, perceived to be orderly, patterned and enduring, especially in today's business environment. Drawing on Hofstede's cultural dimensions, Muczyk and Holt (2008) argue that an autocratic leadership style may be appropriate in cultures that are high in power distance, collectivism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance that are characterized by external environmental orientation. In fact, Nwankwo and Richards (2001) argue that postindependence leadership styles in Africa, and for that matter Ghana, have largely remained autocratic.

These characteristics are typical in Ghanaian SMEs. In Ghanaian organizations, employees have a very high regard for hierarchy and a reluctance to bypass the chain command although that is fizzling out in companies where millennials are dominant (Engel, 2017). Ghanaian employees, therefore, exercise patience and extreme caution at work so that they are favored by their supervisors or employers (Osei, 2011). Conversely, the democratic leadership style is favored in national or organizational cultures with low power distance, high on femininity and individualism and low on uncertainty avoidance (Boateng and Agyemang, 2015). In Ghana, democratic leadership styles can be found in organizations where creativity and innovation are the bedrock for success, for example, in the advertising or the IT domains. Leonard (1987, p. 901) argued that many of the differences in organizational behavior between Africa, on the one hand, and the United States and Europe, on the other, are not due to managerial failures but to fundamental dissimilarities in the value priorities of the societies that encapsulate them.

There are more than 70 ethnic groups in Ghana. The main ethnic groups are Akan, Ewe, Ga-Adangbe, Guan and Mole-Dagbane (Tonah, 2009). According to Boateng and Agyemang (2015), the culture of Ghana today is a product of diversity influenced by religion and colonialism. In the workplace, the Ghanaian business leader constantly deals with cultural diversity and interfaces with multiple stakeholders. To successfully manage people in this environment, leaders enact "humanistic" management practices (Kuada, 2010), for example, emotional intelligence to drive not only OCB but also organizational performance. Although largely autocratic, Ghanaian leaders exercise transformational or democratic leadership in SMEs as do their Western counterparts (Forka, 2012). The differences in approach largely depend on the sector of operation and the individual's personal leadership traits formed from the national culture (McSweeney, 2002). The laissez-faire leadership style, however, is not largely practiced in Ghana. This leadership style allows employees to develop their own decisions, as the leader has no real authority (Eagly et al., 2003). Specifically, the leader provides information, answers questions or gives reinforcement to the employees. This is not a preferred option by business leaders in Ghana because SMEs are largely funded by the business owners, close associates, friends and family. To this end, the leaders seek to grow the business rapidly in terms of strategic direction or leadership.

2.1 Theoretical literature review and hypothesis development

2.1.1 The path goal theory and theory of planned behavior. The path goal theory is of the assumption that there is no straight jacket leadership style that is fit for all situations as different styles are required for different situations and therefore every leader must know when to apply a particular style of leadership (Antonakis and House, 2014). For example, the leader needs to demonstrate an autocratic position when there is an emergency or use transactional style when there is the need to carry out an order as quickly as possible where rewards will be given to those who were able to achieve the said order and punishment given for nonconformity. It is highly important that context or situational appraisal is judiciously carried out as it is helpful in selecting which style is most appropriate in a particular context in which the leader is operating (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993). In summary, the path–goal theory argues that leaders should make it clear to their subordinates which path best leads to some desired goal and the associated payoffs that are expected (House and Aditya, 1997).

The theory of planned behavior (TPB), on the other hand, has been successfully used to predict human intention in trials such as leadership styles and OCB (Montano and Kasprzyk, 2015). The TPB is adopted as the fundamental standpoint for the current study because it has received strong empirical support that attitude and, most especially, subjective norm are important in affecting OCB (Boiral *et al.*, 2015). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) argue that behavior can be predicted from intentions that correspond directly (in terms of action, target, context and time) to that behavior. On the basis of these definitions, the TPB is used to explain the OCB construct of the study. OCBs in this study are considered as individual, discretionary actions by employees that are outside their formal job description (Salas-Vallina *et al.*, 2017). Employees who are engaged in OCB will go the extra mile in order to increase performance and job satisfaction (Bakari *et al.*, 2017; Yadav and Pathak, 2016).

The subjective norm dimension which is the focus of this study is defined as "the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior" (Garay *et al.*, 2019). The theory posits that subjective norms are a function of beliefs. This belief drives OCB (Yun *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, if an employee believes that OCB should be performed, then such subjective pressure will cause the employee's intention to perform the behavior in question. A plethora of extant studies have revealed that the subjective norm is a critical determinant factor for driving OCB (see, for instance, Wolfe *et al.*, 2018; Widiani *et al.*, 2019; Singh and Singh, 2019).

2.1.2 Literature review and hypotheses

A critical review of the literature on autocratic leadership reveals that while some research found that this leadership has a tendency of promoting high employee outputs for a short term (Cruz *et al.*, 1999; Puni *et al.*, 2014), others have observed that, on the contrary, there is no significant relationship between autocratic leadership and OCBs (Al-Khasawneh and Futa, 2013b; Yun *et al.*, 2007; Bambale *et al.*, 2011). The relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB are mixed. Cruz *et al.* (1999) and Puni *et al.* (2014) find a positive relationship while Bambale *et al.* (2011), Gamage (2014) and Euwema *et al.* (2007) find a negative relationship. Al-Khasawneh and Futa (2013b), Yun *et al.* (2007) and Bambale *et al.* (2011) find no relationship at all. Regarding democratic leadership, most researchers find a positive relationship with OCB (Sagnak, 2016; Bogler and Somech, 2004, 2005; Somech and Bogler, 2002).

With regard to democratic leadership, the studies reviewed in the context of this study have noted a positive and significant relationship between democratic leadership and employee OCBs (Sagnak, 2016; Bogler and Somech, 2004, 2005; Somech and Bogler, 2002).

With respect to the transformational leadership style, whereas some studies argue that there is no relationship between transformational leadership and employee OCB (Suliman and Al Obaidli, 2013; Nguni *et al.*, 2006; Al-Khasawneh and Futa, 2013a) others argue that there is a negative relationship between the transformational leadership style and employee
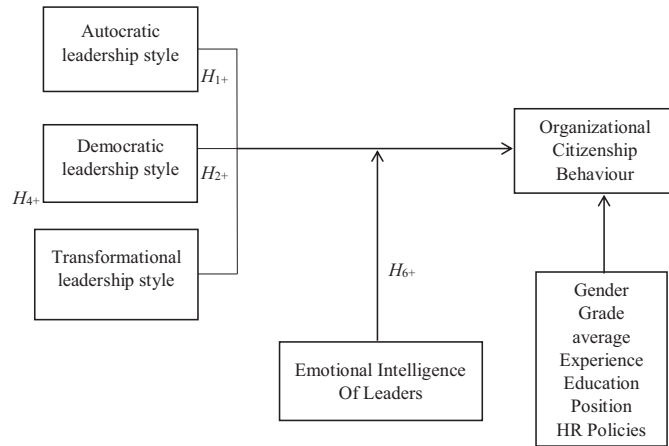
Figure 1.
Conceptual framework

Source(s): Author's Compilation

OCBs (Kehinde and Banjo, 2014). Some empirical studies on the relationship between transformational leadership and employee also suggest a positive relationship (Xirasagar, 2008; Einarsen *et al.*, 2007; Ali and Waqar, 2013). However, there is a contrary position to this finding that transformational leadership could be an effective leadership style when employees are highly skilled, educated and experienced (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Thus, it can be noted that there is not a consistent view on the effect of transformational leadership in creating employee OCB. As indicated before, these mixed-findings may be based on the fact that the relationship between the two constructs is too direct, thereby requiring a moderator to align these mixed findings. The gaps indicated in the above discussions lead to the proposed conceptual model given below (see Figure 1).

Experience, educational levels, positions occupied, average hours worked per week, grade average, human resource policies and team commitment were controlled. These controlled variables were chosen based on the literature (Ng *et al.*, 2016; Grewal and Salovey, 2005). It has been argued that there is a positive relationship between OCB and age (e.g. Ng *et al.*, 2016) and OCB and gender (Kidder, 2002; Ng *et al.*, 2016). Age and gender have been shown to bring significant variation with age and/or gender (Grewal and Salovey, 2005; Fernández-Berrocal *et al.*, 2012) and, hence, are used as control variables in this study.

Researchers and practitioners have drawn more attention to understanding various aspects and styles of leadership and how this has consequences on employee work-related performances, including engaging in extra responsibilities and voluntary work (Butar *et al.*, 2019; Nahum-Shani and Somech, 2011; Babcock-Roberson and Strickland, 2010). In the organizational behavior literature, leadership is conceived as a crucial antecedent to a number of employee work-related behaviors (Bambale *et al.*, 2011; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2000; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997) and contemporary literature shows a significant connection between leadership and employee willingness to engage in voluntary acts (OCB). For instance, Van Yperen *et al.* (1999), in a multilevel analysis, dropped the hint that leadership becomes irrelevant when employees are not motivated to display voluntary actions that are above their minimum job requirements. Empirical studies provide evidence in support of two styles of leadership, which have a direct impact on employees' voluntary work behavior. These are transformational leadership (Zabihi *et al.*, 2012; Bambal *et al.*, 2011) and transactional leadership (Rubin *et al.*, 2010; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2008). Based on the arguments above, the following hypotheses are stated:

H1. There is a positive relationship between autocratic leadership style and OCB.

H2. There is a positive relationship between democratic leadership style and OCB.

H3. There is a positive relationship between transformational leadership style and OCB.

2.1.3 The moderating role of emotional intelligence (EI) and leadership styles
According to Goleman (1998), emotional intelligence is the capacity to recognize one's own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in us and in our relationships. Leaders who exhibit autocratic, democratic or transformational leadership styles may have the capacity to examine their own feelings and sentiments and those of their subordinates and utilize this information to direct their reasoning and activities (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

The autocratic leadership style tends to be very effective in small firms at the gestation period of their growth. This type of leadership style has a highly well-structured chain of command where commands and power are absolutely exercised to ensure conformity and compliance (Chowdhury, 2017). Although the autocratic leadership style is not the most preferred type of leadership, it is important to note that it can be very effective when the leader has high emotional intelligence. Koning and Van Kleef (2015) think that, to be able to socially influence people, it is very imperative to know how to express their feelings. This is because, by understanding people, one can get information about their expression and intention (Hareli and Hess, 2010). Thus, this study argues that the already positive effect of the autocratic leadership style on employee OCB may be stronger when the leader of the organization exhibits high emotional awareness or intelligence in dealing with employees. Pivotal to the above discussion of emotion is the management of it, which is considered to be the ability to positively control it in a manner that is highly profitable (Riggio and Reichard, 2008). The extant literature suggests that perception, regulation and utilization of emotions have been positively related to task performance (Carmeli and Josman, 2006) as well as the reduction of counterproductive developmental job experiences (Dong *et al.*, 2014). Accordingly, the study hypothesizes that:

H4. The positive relationship between autocratic leadership style and employees OCB will be stronger when a leader's emotional intelligence is high.

However, democratic leadership style is a type of leadership where subordinates or followers of a leader are more engaged in the making and implementation of decisions that surge job satisfaction and helps in the skills development of team members (Bhatti *et al.*, 2012). When the leader supervises his/her subordinates closely, and provides them with frequent and supportive communication, the employees are more likely to perform better. However, under instances where the leader of the firm has a high emotional intelligence, it is believed that the effect of the democratic leadership style will have a higher effect on the OCB of employees. Wong and Law (2002) found that the leaders' emotional intelligence (EI) was positively related to job satisfaction and, more importantly, to employees' engagement in extra-role behaviors also referred to as voluntary work behaviors. There are a number of empirical studies pointing to the predictive strength of leaders' emotional intelligence in explaining the variation in employee willingness to engage in OCB (Bagshaw, 2000). In line with these discussions, the author contends that, with a democratic leadership style when the leader is also emotionally intelligent, there is a higher likelihood that employees will exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors. To this end, it is hypothesized that:

H5. The positive relationship between democratic leadership style and employee OCB will be stronger when a leader's EI is high rather than low.

According to Gwavuya (2011), a transformational leader is a leader who provides a clear vision and mission, motivates self-esteem and gains trust and reverence through charisma. The transformational leader in most times is concerned with looking for ideas that move the organization to reach the company's vision (Bums, 1978). In a recent study among employees of the banking sector of Pakistan, Irshad and Hashmi (2014) moderated the leaders' EI in the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' OCB. They further observe that the transformational style of leadership is significantly related to employees' OCB. However, with the introduction of the moderated effect of the managers' EI on the relationship, the OCB of employees increases significantly as compared to the earlier outcome, confirming EI as a moderator between transformational leadership and OCB. In conformity with the above assertion, a study of managers and supervisors was conducted by Singh and Modassir (2007). They found that for a transformational leader to be effective, his/ her qualities (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) must be coupled with high levels of EI. The study further observed that with the leaders' EI, employees of organizations easily showed positive citizenship behavior toward their respective organizations. The reason is that an emotionally intelligent leader has the ability to control his/her emotions and at the same time positively influence those of the employees, thereby motivating them to engage in extra-role behavior in the form of OCB. To this end, the researcher hypothesizes that:

H6. The positive relationship between transformational leadership style and employee OCB will be stronger when leaders' EI is high rather than low.

3.1 Methodology
3.1.1 Research design and context
To provide the study a focus and its applicability, this study employed the quantitative method design. Thus, the quantitative data approach allows generalizability of the results (Hanson *et al.*, 2005). The study utilized the quantitative approach to determine the effect of the various leadership styles on OCB, and the moderating effect of EI in the relationship between the various leadership styles and OCB.

3.1.2 Study population and sampling procedures
The population of this study consisted of SMEs operating in Ghana within the sample time frame. The probability sampling method known as simple random sampling was used to select 15 SMEs from the databases of SMEs in Ghana, solicited from appropriate institutions, including: National Board for Small-Scale Industries (NBSSI), Association of Small-Scale Industries (ASSI), Association of Ghana Industries (AGI), Ghana Enterprises Development Commission (GEDC), Ghana Investment Promotion Council (GIPC) and Ministry of Trade and Industry (MOTI). In total, there were over 100 SMEs collated through these institutions. The same procedure was repeated in selecting respondents from the various 15 SME companies. The study sampled 675 respondents from the 15 SME companies. Out of the 675 questionnaires distributed to employees from the 15 SMEs, 618 were completed, representing a response rate of 91.5%. The study used a semi-structured interview guide and a self-administered questionnaire to collect the primary data.

3.1.3 Research instrument or instrumentation
The study questionnaire adopted a five-point Likert scale in calibrating the responses of the respondents. According to Bleomberg *et al.* (2011), the Likert scale is the most often used variation of a summated scale, which consists of statements that represent a favorable

attitude toward an object of interest (Alshurideh, 2010). The study used the Likert scale because previous empirical research on leadership style and organizational citizen behavior used the Likert scale as a means to collect data on respondents' perspectives, choices and opinions (Shim *et al.*, 2002; Erkutlu, 2008; Zikmund, 2003; Brooke, 2007).

Leadership style was adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X Short (Avolio and Bass, 2004). The Rater form of the MLQ was used where employees were made to rate their leaders. The Rater form is more appropriate to use because its reliability is higher and the correlations between the rating form and the items are better (Avolio and Bass, 2004). EI of leaders' scale was adopted from Groves *et al.* (2008). The internal consistency was measured using coefficient or Cronbach alphas (Trochim, 2006). Alpha coefficient values greater than 0.70 were deemed more reliable (Nunnally, 1978). Also, according to Griethuijsen *et al.* (2015), alpha values between (0.67–0.87) are described as reasonable and acceptable. Four dimensions of emotional intelligence–perception and appraisal of emotions ($\alpha = 0.710$), facilitating thinking with emotions ($\alpha = 0.680$), understanding emotion ($\alpha = 0.838$), regulation and management of emotion ($\alpha = 0.693$)–were used. Organizational citizenship behavior ($\alpha = 0.680$) was measured through the scale developed by Lee and Allen (2002). Autocratic ($\alpha = 0.742$), democratic ($\alpha = 0.765$) and transformational ($\alpha = 0.840$) leadership styles all had alpha values above the recommended threshold.

3.1.4 Model and estimation technique

To address our research questions, we used the following procedure. We adopted a two-stage least square instrumental variables (2SLSIV) estimator to account for the possibility of endogeneity in our model and time persistence in OCB. The justification for using this estimator is to address issues of reverse causality and endogeneity. We specify our empirical model as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{OCB}_i = {} & \beta_o + \beta_1 \mathrm{Gender}_i + \beta_2 \mathrm{Age}_i + \beta_3 \mathrm{Length\ of\ working\ with\ supervisor}_i \\
& + \beta_4 \mathrm{Rank/Position}_i + \beta_5 \mathrm{Type\ of\ business\ and\ industry}_i \\
& + \beta_6 \mathrm{Autocratic\ leadership}_i + \beta_7 \mathrm{Democratic\ leadership}_i \\
& + \beta_8 \mathrm{Transformational\ leadership}_i + \beta_9 \mathrm{Emotional\ intelligence\ of\ leaders}_i \\
& + \beta_{10} (\mathrm{Autocratic\ leadership} \times \mathrm{Emotional\ intelligence\ of\ leaders})_i \\
& + \beta_{11} (\mathrm{Democratic\ leadership} \times \mathrm{Emotional\ intelligence\ of\ leaders})_i \\
& + \beta_{12} (\mathrm{Transformational\ leadership} \times \mathrm{Emotional\ intelligence\ of\ leaders})_i + \varepsilon_i
\end{aligned}$$

where ε_i is the error term.

4.1 Results and findings

4.1.1 Descriptive statistics

Scholars have suggested that it is vital to subject measurement items to descriptive analysis before any further data reliability and validation analysis (see Pallant, 2011). For this study, the descriptive statistics included measures of central tendency such as the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis in order to assess normality of data distribution. The skewness and kurtosis were within the acceptable limits of ± 2 as recommended by scholars (Fidel, 2000; George and Mallery, 2003; Gravetter and Wallnau, 2014). The descriptive statistics of measurement items were interpreted using the five-point Likert scale range

interpretation–from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The descriptive statistics of the variables are presented in Table 2.

The results indicate moderate to high mean values given that all the items were measured on a five-point Likert scale. The highest mean was 3.86 (I take action to protect the organization from potential problems) under OCB, whilst the lowest was 2.91 (My supervisor retains all power, authority and control in all decision-making). The highest standard deviation was 1.42 (My supervisor can tell when someone is frustrated with him/her). None of the measurement items had a standard deviation greater than 1.5, an indication that most of the items had low standard deviation, which means that most of the numbers for the measurement items are close to the mean. Hence, it is evident from Table 1 that a lot of the respondents agreed to the assertion of the measures for leadership styles, emotional intelligence of leaders and OCB items. The average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct was greater than the highest shared correlation shown as the maximum shared variance (MSV) in Table 1 between the focal constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The AVE of a latent construct was higher than the construct's highest squared correlation with any other latent construct, showing evidence of discriminant validity (Hair *et al.*, 2017). The correlation analysis of all the constructs obtained from the loaded items was examined to assess the relationship and interrelationship between the latent constructs to check for initial statistical validity of the existing relationship before testing the hypotheses.

4.1.2 Multiple regression analysis

In order to test the relationship between the factors that motivate employees to engage in OCB, a multiple regression analysis was used. Transformational leadership, democratic leadership and autocratic leadership were used as the independent variables whilst OCB was used as the dependent variable. Table 3 presents a summary of the multiple regression least squares results for the dependent and independent variables. Moreover, the interaction effect of emotional intelligence of leaders on the leadership styles was assessed.

In model A, the effect of control variables (gender, age, length of working with supervisor, rank/position, type of business and industry) on OCB was tested. The findings from model A show that type of business and industry, as a control variable, has a significant effect on OCB. However, 0.6% of the total variation in OCB is explained by the regression model, according to the results in model A. In model B, adding the three independent variables (autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, transformational leadership) increases the R-square by 0.126 ($p < 0.001$) resulting in a 13.2% account of the variance in OCB. At this stage, it was found from the estimated standardized coefficients that all the leadership styles had positive and significant relationships with OCB. The results from model C show that, with the exception of the autocratic leadership style, all the remaining leadership styles have a positive and significant effect on OCB.

	AVE	MSV	1	2	3	4	5
(1) Democratic leadership	0.659	0.510	1				
(2) Transformational leadership	0.662	0.510	0.313**	1			
(3) Autocratic leadership	0.562	0.060	0.026	0.006	1		
(4) Emotional intelligence of leaders	0.642	0.354	0.321**	0.361**	0.132**	1	
(5) Organizational citizenship behavior	0.574	0.265	0.331**	0.315**	0.212**	0.258**	1

Table 1.
Bivariate correlation matrix

Note(s): **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
Source(s): Author's compilation

Scales measurement items		M	SD	Mean error	Kurtosis	Skewness
Leadership style (Avolio and Bass, 2004)						
Transformational leadership						
TRA1	My supervisor makes others feel good to be around him/her	3.45	1.19	0.05	−0.78	−0.35
TRA2	My supervisor expresses with a few simple words what we can and should do	3.43	1.09	0.04	−0.65	−0.26
TRA3	My supervisor provides specific instructions about what we can do	3.63	1.08	0.04	−0.46	−0.49
TRA4	My supervisor provides us with new ways of looking at puzzling situations	3.41	1.1	0.04	−0.35	−0.41
TRA5	My supervisor gets us to rethink ideas that we had never questioned before	3.35	1.19	0.05	−0.75	−0.34
TRA6	My supervisor helps others to develop themselves	3.5	1.15	0.05	−0.54	−0.45
TRA7	My supervisor gives personal attention to others who seem rejected	3.3	1.22	0.05	−0.87	−0.24
Democratic leadership						
DEM1	My supervisor involves us in decision-making processes	3.33	1.23	0.05	−0.91	−0.26
DEM2	My supervisor provides us with frequent and supportive communication	3.42	1.16	0.05	−0.6	−0.41
DEM3	My supervisor provides guidance without pressurizing us	3.31	1.13	0.05	−0.64	−0.33
DEM4	My supervisor helps us accept responsibility for completing our tasks	3.42	1.11	0.04	−0.56	−0.34
DEM5	My supervisor helps us find our "passion"	3.21	1.2	0.05	−0.81	−0.27
DEM6	My supervisor allows us to appraise our own work	3.24	1.24	0.05	−0.86	−0.31
DEM7	My supervisor gives us complete freedom to solve problems on our own	3.31	1.24	0.05	−0.86	−0.34
Autocratic leadership						
AUTO1	My supervisor retains all power, authority and control in all decision-making	2.91	1.34	0.05	−1.14	0.06
AUTO2	My supervisor rewards or punishes in order to motivate us to achieve organizational objectives	3.07	1.2	0.05	−0.89	−0.07
AUTO3	My supervisor provides us with the needed direction	3.3	1.12	0.04	−0.56	−0.31
AUTO4	My supervisor involves himself in day-to-day activities	3.41	1.18	0.05	−0.73	−0.36
AUTO5	My supervisor rarely delegates responsibilities to his/her followers	3.17	1.26	0.05	−0.96	−0.17
AUTO6	My supervisor adopts one-way communication and does not consult us	2.92	1.32	0.05	−1.07	0.01
AUTO7	My supervisor is the chief judge of the achievements of the members of the group	3.15	1.31	0.05	−1.05	−0.19
AUTO8	My supervisor gives orders and clarifies procedures	3.26	1.17	0.05	−0.73	−0.24

Table 2.
Descriptive statistics of measurement items

(continued)

Scales measurement items		M	SD	Mean error	Kurtosis	Skewness
Emotional intelligence of leaders (*Groves et al., 2008*)						
Perception and appraisal of emotions						
PAE1	My supervisor can tell when someone is frustrated with him/her	3.19	1.42	0.10	−0.69	−0.23
PAE2	My supervisor usually imagines what another person is feeling	3.08	1.18	0.05	−0.81	−0.05
PAE3	My supervisor can easily figure out the level of an employee's passion for their work	3.19	1.13	0.05	−0.67	−0.13
PAE4	My supervisor can read employees' body language	3.22	1.17	0.05	−0.79	−0.2
PAE5	My supervisor has no difficulty identifying how we really feel about an issue despite what we may say	3.23	1.16	0.05	−0.67	−0.27
PAE6	My supervisor often prioritizes his/her work tasks according to how strongly he/she feel about the importance of each task	3.46	1.1	0.04	−0.53	−0.37
Facilitating thinking with emotions						
FTE1	My supervisor often uses his/her excitement about a work project to influence our involvement with the project	3.3	1.11	0.04	−0.66	−0.19
FTE2	My supervisor often uses how he/she feel about a problem to define the attention he/she gives to it	3.28	1.11	0.04	−0.64	−0.25
FTE3	My supervisor listens to our feelings in establishing priorities	3.16	1.19	0.05	−0.79	−0.11
FTE4	My supervisor deliberately attempts to create a feeling conducive to effective problem solving when meeting with clients or coworkers	3.25	1.13	0.05	−0.67	−0.21
FTE5	In deciding to go forward with a decision, my supervisor always considers how we may feel about it	3.23	1.12	0.05	−0.55	−0.27
Understanding emotion						
UE1	When we perform poorly on a project, my supervisor usually recognizes whether we feel angry, embarrassed, guilty, or some other feeling (e.g. "wounded pride")	3.11	1.18	0.05	−0.81	−0.11
UE2	My supervisor can watch us interact and recognize the feelings we hold toward each other	3.24	1.08	0.04	−0.66	−0.19
UE3	My supervisor is acutely aware of subtle cues at work that express how people feel (e.g. where they sit, when they are silent, etc.)	3.16	1.15	0.05	−0.69	−0.11
UE4	My supervisor can usually tell when our emotional response to a situation is due to our unique personality instead of our cultural background	3.21	1.12	0.05	−0.63	−0.21
UE5	My supervisor can usually detect subtle changes in our emotions	3.26	1.15	0.05	−0.74	−0.13
UE6	My supervisor instantly recognizes when our frustrations with a project are escalating	3.33	1.11	0.04	−0.62	−0.3

Table 2.

(*continued*)

Scales measurement items		M	SD	Mean error	Kurtosis	Skewness
Regulation and management of emotion						
RME1	My supervisor looks forward to a feeling of accomplishment whenever he/she starts a new project	3.47	1.16	0.05	−0.67	−0.39
RME2	My supervisor is usually able to transmit a sense of enthusiasm about a work project to us	3.4	1.12	0.05	−0.6	−0.31
RME3	My supervisor notices when someone is very caring and compassionate toward others at work	3.33	1.11	0.04	−0.7	−0.22
RME4	My supervisor is capable of calming someone down who is angry and frustrated at work	3.3	1.2	0.05	−0.85	−0.24
RME5	When we are feeling disappointed about our work performance, my supervisor makes an effort to offer encouraging words of support	3.31	1.18	0.05	−0.8	−0.29
RME6	Whenever painful events have occurred to any one of us (i.e. death in family, serious illness), my supervisor expresses genuine concern and tries to help us feel better	3.56	1.16	0.05	−0.56	−0.49
Organizational citizenship behavior (Lee and Allen, 2002)						
OCB1	I help others who have been absent from work	3.45	1.2	0.05	−0.71	−0.4
OCB2	I attend functions that are not required but that help the organization's image	3.38	1.17	0.05	−0.68	−0.38
OCB3	I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems	3.66	1.05	0.04	−0.52	−0.43
OCB4	I defend the organization when others criticize it	3.68	1.07	0.04	−0.27	−0.55
OCB5	I go out of my way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group	3.76	1.11	0.04	−0.23	−0.68
OCB6	I show pride when representing the organization in public	3.73	1.15	0.05	−0.26	−0.72
OCB7	I take action to protect the organization from potential problems	3.86	1.11	0.04	−0.14	−0.81

Source(s): Author's compilation

Table 2.

In model C, the interaction effect on emotional intelligence of leaders was introduced and treated as an independent variable. Results from the third model show that the emotional intelligence of a leader has a positive and significant relationship with OCB ($\beta = 0.35$; $t = 7.1$). With the introduction of emotional intelligence and the interaction terms, autocratic leadership style becomes statistically insignificant in model C. The third model shows an increase in the R-square by 0.067 ($p < 0.001$) accounting for a 19.8% of the variance in OCB. The results show that autocratic leadership style alone in model C is statistically insignificant in determining OCB when emotional intelligence of the leader is added to the model (Model C). Although an autocratic leader may get employees to exhibit OCB (Model B), with the introduction of emotional intelligence (Model C), autocratic leadership style is no more significantly related to OCB.

The finding (Model D) suggests that autocratic leadership in the case when all the interaction terms and emotional intelligence are added to the model does not have a significant effect on OCB. The results reveal that model D (the full model) is significantly better as compared to model A ($R^2 = 0.006$), model B ($R^2 = 0.132$) and model C ($R^2 = 0.198$). The difference between model C and model D is that model C contains the moderator variable and model D includes the control variables, independent variables, moderator variable and interaction terms, which portrays the complete model. This indicates that model D with an R^2

Variables	H	Model A beta (t-values)	Model B beta (t-values)	Model C beta (t-values)	Model D beta (t-values)
			OCB		
Constant		3.711 (23.531)***	2.142 (9.298)***	1.740 (7.610)***	1.734 (7.555)***
Control variables					
Gender		−0.90 (−1.414)	−0.080 (−1.344)	−0.096 (−1.670)	−0.097 (−0.089)
Age		0.002 (0.054)	0.014 (0.381)	0.048 (1.370)	0.046 (1.320)
Length of working with supervisor		−0.004 (−0.120)	0.001 (0.020)	−0.028 (−0.896)	−0.023 (−0.720)
Rank/Position		0.034 (1.247)	0.022 (0.887)	0.019 (0.780)	0.016 (0.671)
Type of business and industry		0.000 (0.001)	0.006 (0.844)	0.007 (1.007)	0.006 (0.946)
Independent variables					
Autocratic leadership	H1		0.158 (3.878)***	0.066 (1.606)	0.060 (1.456)
Democratic leadership	H2		0.102 (3.076)**	0.065 (2.014)*	0.069 (2.132)*
Transformational leadership	H3		0.193 (4.560)***	0.090 (2.072)*	0.104 (2.387)*
Moderator variable					
Emotional intelligence of leaders				0.359 (7.100)***	0.347 (6.836)***
Interaction effect					
Autocratic leadership × Emotional intelligence of leaders	H4				0.077 (2.453)*
Democratic leadership × Emotional intelligence of leaders	H5				−0.015 (−0.594)
Transformational leadership × Emotional intelligence of leaders	H6				−0.049 (−1.665)
R^2		0.006	0.132	0.198	0.206
Adjusted R^2		−0.002	0.12	0.187	0.191
F value		0.726	11.543	16.696	13.093
ΔR^2			0.126	0.067	0.008
F Change			29.402	50.417	2.029
Degree of freedom		5/611	8/608	9/607	12/604

Note(s): *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, Significance level are two-tailed

Table 3.
Two-stage least squares analysis for the influence of leadership styles on OCB

of 0.206 provides a significant improvement in model fit relative to the other models. Additionally, there is a change in R^2 from model A to model D. Furthermore, model D explains 20.6% of the variance in OCB, values that are substantially superior relative to the R^2 values for the other three models. Taken together, it can be determined that model D provides a nontrivial improvement over and above the other models and, as such, model D is used in assessing the study's hypotheses. The improvement of the R^2 in model D is as a result of adding emotional intelligence and the interactive effects. This suggests that leaders' EI and the interactive terms of various leadership styles with emotional intelligence are significant determinants of OCB.

Table 3 provides the standardized parameter estimates and significance levels for each path in the four models tested.

The study argues in H1 that there is a relationship between autocratic leadership style and OCB. H1 is supported in this study as the analysis shows from model B that autocratic leadership is significantly and positively related to OCB ($\beta = 0.158$; $t = 3.878$). In terms of predictability, model D only adds 0.8% of predictive power ($\triangle R^2 = 0.08$) to the entire model when the interaction term is added. This means that, in the absence of EI, the autocratic leader can have a positive and significant impact on the employees' OCB (Model B). Generally, the beta levels for the leadership styles in model B are higher than those in model D, which means that the leadership styles, excluding EI and the interaction effects (leadership styles and EI), are better predictors of OCB. Thus, the findings support the notion that if a leader assumes central control of the making and implementation of decisions with little regards to the contributions of subordinate employees it will significantly affect an employee's decision to engage in discretionary behaviors that are not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system. These discretionary behaviors in the aggregate and long run promote the effective functioning of the organization.

In H2, the study argues that there is a positive relationship between democratic leadership style and OCB. The findings of the study provide support for H2. That is, the democratic leadership style is significantly related to OCB ($\beta = 0.102$; $t = 3.076$) in model B and ($\beta = 0.069$; $t = 2.13$) in model D. In both models, democratic leadership is seen to have a positive and significant effect on OCB. H3 states that transformational leadership is positively related to SMEs employees' OCB in a developing economy. H3 is supported because the analysis shows that transformational leadership style is positive and significantly related to OCB in model B ($\beta = 0.104$; $t = 2.38$) and also significantly and positively applicable in model D ($\beta = 0.193$; $t = 4.560$). Thus, this supports the notion that if a leader provides a clear vision and mission, motivates self-esteem and gains trust and reverence through charisma it results in employee OCB (see Table 4).

For H4 it was argued that the interaction between leadership style and EI of leaders is positively related to the OCB of SMEs' employees in a developing economy. In support of H4, the product term involving autocratic leadership and EI of leaders are positive and significantly related to OCB. This supports the view that an alignment of high levels of autocratic leadership and EI shown by leaders is associated with greater OCB among employees operating in developing SMEs. Furthermore, leaders' EI does not significantly moderate the relationship between democratic leadership and transformational leadership styles and employee OCB for H5 and H6. The findings do not provide support for H5 ($\beta = -0.015$; $t = -0.59$) or H6 ($\beta = -0.049$; $t = -1.67$). This suggests that democratic and transformational leadership styles alone are enough to influence OCB without the moderator EI in the Ghanaian context. It is for this reason that H5 and H6 are not supported. This also implies that Ghanaians naturally exhibit OCB when their leaders are democratic and transformational. But they do not exhibit OCB when they perceive their leader to be autocratic unless he or she has EIs according to the results in model D.

Hypotheses	(β)	t-value	Support
H1: There is a positive relationship between autocratic leadership style and OCB	0.158	3.878	Supported
H2: There is a positive relationship between democratic leadership style and OCB	0.102	3.076	Supported
H3: There is a positive relationship between transformational leadership style and OCB	0.193	4.560	Supported
H4: The positive relationship between autocratic leadership style and employee OCB will be stronger when a leader's emotional intelligence is high rather than low	0.077	2.453	Supported
H5: The positive relationship between democratic leadership style and employee OCB will be stronger when a leader's EI is high rather than low	−0.015	−0.594	Not Supported
H6: The positive relationship between transformational leadership style and employee OCB will be stronger when a leader's EI is high rather than low	−0.049	−1.665	Not Supported
Source(s): Author's compilation			

Table 4.
Summary of regression output for hypothesized paths

5.1 Conclusions and policy implications

This study sought to assess the impact of leadership and EI on OCB using SMEs in Ghana. The findings of the study reveal that both democratic and transformational leadership styles are critical to employees' OCB (Xirasagar, 2008; Einarsen *et al.*, 2007), while autocratic leadership style does not significantly influence SME employees' OCB in the context of Ghana unless it is moderated with EI. Even though autocratic leadership style alone in model D is statistically insignificant in determining OCB, when it is interacted with the EI of a leader, the interactive term is a significant driver of OCB.

These findings are consistent with other empirical studies that examine the nexus between democratic leadership style and OCB (Yun *et al.*, 2007; Al-Khasawneh and Futa, 2013). For instance, our findings concur with Al-Khasawneh and Futa's (2013) finding that there is no significant relationship between autocratic leadership and students' OCB behavior. The findings are again consistent with Yun *et al.* (2007) who prove that there is no substantial impact of autocratic leadership on OCB. This suggests that democratic leadership style is a driver of OCB. And this finds support in the study by Sagnak (2016) who investigated participative leadership and change-oriented OCB in Turkey. Bogler and Somech (2005) and Somech and Bogler (2002) also found a huge connection between democratic leadership style and OCB. Similarly, previous empirical studies confirm the results of this finding about the relationship between transformational leadership style and OCB. For instance, Bambale *et al.* (2011) have observed that transformational leadership style and its influence on employees' OCB have received more attention compared to any other style of leadership.

As has been observed above, the findings from this study also show that leaders' EI plays a significant role in influencing SME employees' OCB for a leadership style that is result-oriented and does not focus on relationship building. This suggests that a combination of people-centric and results-oriented leadership styles is required in influencing SME employees to engage in OCB. However, if the leadership style is not people centric, the leader's EI is required. Generally, this finding of the study supports the idea that leadership style affects SME employees' OCB both directly and indirectly through leaders' EI, and different types of leadership styles were found to influence OCB differently.

The findings from the study reveal that employees' perceptions of leadership styles are highly significant in affecting their OCB. This suggests that decision makers at the top level,

such as board of directors, appointment committees and even lower level managers should take leadership style more seriously. The more employees are engaged in the making and implementation of decisions, the more they will engage in OCB. Thus, to improve the general feeling of all employees, leaders should be more aware of how strongly their role and behavior affect employees' perceptions about their occupation and their OCB. Adopting democratic leadership style and creating a conducive, collaborative and team climate will enable subordinates to feel a sense of belongingness and empowerment in their ability to influence the course of their organization. This feeling will lead the employees to consider themselves as part of the organization and will, thus, increase their OCB performance.

When EI is interacted with democratic leadership style, the result is insignificant. This means a leader who exhibits the democratic leadership styles does not need EI to influence OCB. Similarly, when EI is interacted with transformational leadership style, the result is insignificant and negative. This means a leader who exhibits the transformational leadership styles does not need EI to influence OCB. The results also show that the interaction of EI with democratic and transformational leadership has a negative sign. This suggests that the interaction of EI with democratic and transformational leadership styles decreases OCB. The explanation we offer for this finding is that employees in Ghana tend to engage less in OCB if they perceive their leaders to be democratic or transformational. The idea is that such leaders can achieve organizational goals without their employees engaging in OCB. Transformational leaders can be developed to have a clear vision and mission, motivate self-esteem and gain trust and reverence through charisma. This confers a sense of self-esteem and professional prestige on employees to consider their work as central to their lives, which will, thus, increase their OCB (Arar and Abu Nasra, 2019, p. 96). Therefore, individuals in leadership roles must be given training on how to take advantage of the principles of democratic and transformational leadership styles to influence employee OCB performance.

The findings again show that autocratic leadership style does not have a significant relationship with OCB (Model D) but in instances where an autocratic leader exhibits EI, the outcome on OCB is positive and significant Al-Khasawneh and Futa (2013). This means that training should be provided to autocratic leaders to build their capacity to be able to exercise some control and express their emotions in handling their relationship with others in a judicious and empathetic manner. This will enable leaders to differentiate between various emotional types and use their EI to guide their thinking or behavior in relation to their employees, especially in situations where a leader is autocratic. Understanding the EI of leaders will enable employees to engage in OCB.

Additionally, the study recommends that organizations recruit and promote individuals who motivate self-esteem and gain trust and reverence through charisma into leadership positions in order to encourage employee extra-role behaviors resulting in OCB. For individuals who are already in leadership positions and assume a central control of the making and implementation of decisions with little regard to contributions of subordinates, training should be provided about how to exercise control and express their emotions in handling their relationship with others in a judicious and empathetic manner. This will enable their emotional intelligent nature to minimize the effect of their autocratic nature, which discourages employee extra-role behaviors. An examination of other prominent leadership styles (for example, the transactional leadership style and the laissez-faire leadership style) could be key areas for future research as it is a potential limitation of this study. Similarly, the use of a Western leadership instrument could also be a potential limitation in the Ghanaian context, although these instruments and scales may be applicable. Future studies could also consider a longitudinal approach to give a more holistic picture of the effect of the leadership styles on OCB.

References

Ajzen, I. and Fishbein, M. (1980), *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior*.

Ali, U. and Waqar, S. (2013), "Teachers' organizational citizenship behavior working under different leadership styles", *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, Vol. 28 No. 2, p. 297.

Al-Khasawneh, A.L. and Futa, S.M. (2013a), "The relationship between job stress and nurse's performance in the Jordanian hospitals: a case study in King Abdullah the founder hospital", *Asian Journal of Business Management*, Vol. 5 No. 2, pp. 267-275.

Al-Khasawneh, A.L. and Futa, S.M. (2013b), "The impact of leadership styles used by the academic staff in the Jordanian public universities on modifying students' behavior: a field study in the northern region of Jordan", *International Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 8 No. 1, p. 1.

Alshurideh, M. (2010), "A behavior perspective of mobile customer retention: an exploratory study in the UK Market. The End of the Pier? Competing perspectives on the challenges facing business and management British Academy of Management Brighton–UK", *British Academy of Management*, Vol. 8 No. 3, pp. 1-19.

Antonakis, J. and House, R.J. (2014), "Instrumental leadership: measurement and extension of transformational–transactional leadership theory", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 25 No. 4, pp. 746-771.

Anyigba, H., Bugbilla, D., Omotosho, S., Asiedu, M. and Gomado, D. (2020), "Economic globalization, informality and informal employment: the African perspective", *Informality and Informal Employment: The African Perspective (June 29, 2020)*, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia, Moscow.

Arar, K. and Abu Nasra, M. (2019), "Leadership style, occupational perception and organizational citizenship behavior in the Arab education system in Israel", *Journal of Educational Administration*, Vol. 57 No. 1, pp. 85-100.

Avolio, B.J. and Bass, B.M. (2004), "Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ)", *Mind Garden*, Vol. 18 No. 3.

Babcock-Roberson, M.E. and Strickland, O.J. (2010), "The relationship between charismatic leadership, work engagement, and organizational citizenship behaviors", *Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 144 No. 3, pp. 313-326.

Bagshaw, M. (2000), "Emotional intelligence – training people to be affective so they can be effective", *Industrial and Commercial Training*, Vol. 32 No. 2, pp. 61-65.

Bakari, H., Hunjra, A.I. and Niazi, G.S.K. (2017), "How does authentic leadership influence plan organizational change? The role of employees' perceptions: integration of theory of planned behavior and Lewin's three step model", *Journal of Change Management*, Vol. 17 No. 2, pp. 155-187.

Bambale, A.J.A., Shamsudin, F.M., Chandrakantan, A. and Subramaniam, L. (2011), "Stimulating organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) research for theory development: exploration of leadership paradigms", *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, Vol. 1, p. 48.

Bhatti, N., Maitlo, G.M., Shaikh, N., Hashmi, M.A. and Shaikh, F.M. (2012), "The impact of autocratic and democratic leadership style on job satisfaction", *International Business Research*, Vol. 5 No. 2, p. 192.

Bloomberg, B., Cooper, D.R. and Schindler, P.S. (2011), *Business Research Methods*, Vol. 9, McGraw-Hill Irwin, New York.

Boateng, H. and Agyemang, F.G. (2015), "The role of culture in knowledge sharing in a public-sector organization in Ghana: revisiting Hofstede's model", *International Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 38 No. 7, pp. 486-495.

Bogler, R. and Somech, A. (2004), "Influence of teacher empowerment on teachers' organizational commitment, professional commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in schools", *Teaching and Teacher Education*, Vol. 20 No. 3, pp. 277-289.

Bogler, R. and Somech, A. (2005), "Organizational citizenship behavior in school: how does it relate to participation in decision making?", *Journal of Educational Administration*, Vol. 43 No. 5, pp. 420-438.

Boiral, O., Talbot, D. and Paill, P. (2015), "Leading by example: a model of organizational citizenship behavior for the environment", *Business Strategy and the Environment*, Vol. 24 No. 6, pp. 532-550.

Bolden, R. and Kirk, P. (2009), "African leadership: surfacing new understandings through leadership development", *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, Vol. 9 No. 1, pp. 69-86.

Bond, M.H. (1987), "The Chinese culture connection", *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, Vol. 18 No. 2, pp. 143-164.

Brooke, S. (2007), "Leadership and job satisfaction", *Journal of Academic Leadership*, Vol. 4 No. 1.

Bums, J.M. (1978), *Leadership*, Harper & Row, New York, Vol. 2 No. 1.

Butar, I.D.B., Sendjaya, S. and Pekerti, A.A. (2019), *Transformational Leadership and Follower Citizenship Behavior: The Leading for High Performance in Asia: Contemporary Research and Evidence-Based Practices*, Vol. 19, Springer, Singapore.

Carmeli, A. and Josman, Z.E. (2006), "The relationship among emotional intelligence, task performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors", *Human Performance*, Vol. 19 No. 4, pp. 403-419.

Chowdhury, M.H. (2017), "Effective leadership style", available at: http://www.theindependentbd.com, http://www.theindependentbd.com/post/116299 (accessed 4 May 2019).

Clark, T. (1990), "International marketing and national character: a review and proposal for an integrative theory", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 54 No. 4, pp. 66-79.

Cruz, M.G., Henningsen, D.D. and Smith, B.A. (1999), "The impact of directive leadership on group information sampling, decisions, and perceptions of the leader", *Communication Research*, Vol. 26 No. 3, pp. 349-369.

Darling, J.R. and Heller, V.L. (2011), "The key for effective stress management: importance of responsive leadership in organizational development", *Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 29 No. 1, p. 9.

Dong, Y., Seo, M.G. and Bartol, K.M. (2014), "No pain, no gain: an affect-based model of developmental job experience and the buffering effects of emotional intelligence", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 57 No. 4, pp. 1056-1077.

Dorfman, P.W. and Howell, J.P. (1988), "Dimensions of national culture and effective leadership patterns: Hofstede revisited", *Advances in International Comparative Management*, Vol. 3 No. 1, pp. 127-150.

Dorfman, P.W., Howell, J.P., Hibino, S., Lee, J.K., Tate, U. and Bautista, A. (1997), "Leadership in Western and Asian countries: commonalities and differences in effective leadership processes across cultures", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 8 No. 3, pp. 233-274.

Duyar, I. and Normore, A.H. (Eds) (2012), *Discretionary Behavior and Performance in Educational Organizations: The Missing Link in Educational Leadership and Management*, Emerald Group Publishing, London.

Eagly, A.H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M.C. and Van Engen, M.L. (2003), "Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: a meta-analysis comparing women and men", *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 129 No. 4, p. 569.

Einarsen, S., Aasland, M.S. and Skogstad, A. (2007), "Destructive leadership behavior: a definition and conceptual model", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 18 No. 3, pp. 207-216.

Ekaterini, G. (2010), "The impact of leadership styles on four variables of executives' workforce", *International Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 5 No. 6, p. 3.

Engel, U. (2017), *The African Exception*, Routledge, London.

Erkutlu, H. (2008), "The impact of transformational leadership on organizational and leadership effectiveness: the Turkish case", *The Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 27 No. 7, pp. 708-726.

Euwema, M.C., Wendt, H. and Van Emmerik, H. (2007), "Leadership styles and group organizational citizenship behavior across cultures", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 28 No. 8, pp. 1035-1057.

Fernández-Berrocal, P., Cabello, R., Castillo, R. and Extremera, N. (2012), "Gender differences in emotional intelligence: the mediating effect of age", *Psicologia Conductual*, Vol. 20 No. 1, p. 77.

Fidel, A. (2000), *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS for Windows*, Sage Publications, London, Thousand Oaks, New Delhi.

Forka, F.M. (2012), *Transformational leadership in sub-saharan Africa: an exploratory qualitative study of the application of leadership tenets in Cameroon*, Doctoral dissertation, Capella University.

Fornell, C. and Larcker, D.F. (1981), "Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 18 No. 1, pp. 39-50.

Gamage, P.N. (2014), "Leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior of divisional secretariats in Colombo district, Sri Lanka", *Zenith International Journal of Business Economics and Management Research*, Vol. 4 No. 9, pp. 69-81.

Garay, L., Font, X. and Corrons, A. (2019), "Sustainability-oriented innovation in tourism: an analysis based on the decomposed theory of planned behavior", *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 58 No. 4, pp. 622-636.

George, D. and Mallery, M. (2003), *SPSS for Windows Step by Step: A Simple Study Guide and Reference, 17.0 Update*, 10th ed., Pearson Education India, Boston.

Godfrey, P.C. (2011), "Toward a theory of the informal economy", *The Academy of Management Annals*, Vol. 5 No. 1, pp. 231-277.

Goleman, D. (1998), "The emotional intelligence of leaders", *Leader to Leader*, Vol. 1998 No. 10, pp. 20-26.

Gravetter, F. and Wallnau, L. (2014), *Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences*, 8th ed., Wadsworth, Belmont, CA.

Griethuijsen, R.A., Eijck, M.W., Haste, H., den Brok, P.J., Skinner, N.C., Mansour, N. and BouJaoude, S. (2014), "Global patterns in students' views of science and interest in science", *Research in Science Education*, Vol. 45 No. 4, pp. 581-603.

Groves, K.S., McEnrue, P.M. and Shen, W. (2008), "Developing and measuring the emotional intelligence of leaders", *The Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 27 No. 2, pp. 225-250.

Gwavuya, F. (2011), "Leadership influences on turnover intentions of academic staff in tertiary institutions in Zimbabwe", *Academic Leadership: The Online Journal*, Vol. 9 No. 1, p. 36.

Hair, J.F. Jr, Babin, B.J. and Krey, N. (2017), "Covariance-based structural equation modeling in the journal of advertising: review and recommendations", *Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 46 No. 1, pp. 163-177.

Hanson, W.E., Creswell, J.W., Clark, V.L.P., Petska, K.S. and Creswell, J.D. (2005), "Mixed methods research designs in counseling psychology", *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, Vol. 52 No. 2, p. 224.

Hareli, S. and Hess, U. (2010), "What emotional reactions can tell us about the nature of others: an appraisal perspective on person perception", *Cognition and Emotion*, Vol. 24 No. 1, pp. 128-140.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. (1993), *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources*, Prentice-Hall.

Hofstede, G. (1984), *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*, Vol. 5, Sage Publications, New York.

Hostede, G. and Hofstede, G. (1991), *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*, 1997, McGraw Hill, New York, pp. 23-47.

House, R.J. and Aditya, R.N. (1997), "The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis?", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 23 No. 3, pp. 409-473.

Inkeles, A. and Levinson, D.J. (1969), "National character: the study of modal personality and sociocultural systems", *The Handbook of Social Psychology*, Vol. 4, pp. 418-506.

Irshad, R. and Hashmi, M.S. (2014), "How transformational leadership is related to organizational citizenship behavior? The mediating role of emotional intelligence", *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences (PJCSS)*, Vol. 8 No. 2, pp. 413-425.

Javidan, M. and House, R.J. (2001), "Cultural acumen for the global manager: lessons from Project GLOBE", *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 29 No. 4, pp. 289-305, doi: 10.1016/S0090-2616(01)00034.

Kehinde, O.A. and Banjo, H.A. (2014), "A test of the impact of leadership styles on employee performance: a study of department of petroleum resources", *International Journal of Management Science, Research Academic of Social Science*, Vol. 2 No. 3, pp. 149-160.

Keillor, B.D. and Hult, G.T.M. (1999), "A five-country study of national identity", *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 16 No. 1, pp. 65-84.

Khan, A., Stanton, J. and Rahman, S. (2013a), "Employees' attitudes towards the sponsorship activity of their employer and links to their organisational citizenship behaviours", *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, Vol. 14 No. 4, pp. 20-41.

Khan, N.R., Ghouri, A.M. and Awang, M. (2013b), "Leadership styles and organizational citizenship behavior in small and medium scale firms", *Researchers World - Journal of Arts Science and Commerce*, Vol. 4 No. 2, pp. 153-163.

Kidder, D.L. (2002), "The influence of gender on the performance of organizational citizenship behaviors", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 28 No. 5, pp. 629-648.

Killick, T. (2001), "Globalisation and the rural poor", *Development Policy Review*, Vol. 19 No. 2, pp. 155-180.

Koning, L.F. and Van Kleef, G.A. (2015), "How leaders' emotional displays shape followers' organizational citizenship behavior", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 26 No. 4, pp. 489-501.

Kuada, J. (2010), "Culture and leadership in Africa: a conceptual model and research agenda", *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*, Vol. 1 No. 1, pp. 9-24, doi: 10.1108/20400701011028130.

Lee, K. and Allen, N.J. (2002), "Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: the role of affect and cognitions", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 87 No. 1, p. 131.

Leonard, D.K. (1987), "The political realities of African management", *World Development*, Vol. 15 No. 7, pp. 899-910.

Lumbasi, G.W. (2015), "The relationship between leadership styles and company performances: a study of coya ceos in Kenya", *Working Paper*.

Malik, N., Dhar, R.L. and Handa, S.C. (2016), "Authentic leadership and its impact on creativity of nursing staff: a cross sectional questionnaire survey of Indian nurses and their supervisors", *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, Vol. 63, pp. 28-36.

McCort, D.J. and Malhotra, N.K. (1993), "Culture and consumer behavior: toward an understanding of cross-cultural consumer behavior in international marketing", *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 6 No. 2, pp. 91-127.

McSweeney, B. (2002), "Hofstede's model of national cultural differences and their consequences: a triumph of faith-a failure of analysis", *Human Relations*, Vol. 55 No. 1, pp. 89-118.

Mekpor, B. and Dartey-Baah, K. (2017), "Leadership styles and employees' voluntary work behaviors in the Ghanaian banking sector", *The Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 38 No. 1, pp. 74-88.

Montano, D.E. and Kasprzyk, D. (2015), "Theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behavior, and the integrated behavioral model", *Health Behavior: Theory, Research and Practice*, pp. 95-124.

Muczyk, J.P. and Holt, D.T. (2008), "Toward a cultural contingency model of leadership", *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, Vol. 14 No. 4, pp. 277-286.

Nahum-Shani, I. and Somech, A. (2011), "Leadership, OCB and individual differences: idiocentrism and allocentrism as moderators of the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and OCB", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 22 No. 2, pp. 353-366.

Ng, T.W., Lam, S.S. and Feldman, D.C. (2016), "Organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior: do males and females differ?", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 93, pp. 11-32.

Nguni, S., Sleegers, P. and Denessen, E. (2006), "Transformational and transactional leadership effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior in primary schools: the Tanzanian case", *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, Vol. 17 No. 2, pp. 145-177.

Nunnally, J.C. (1978), *Psychometric Theory*, 2nd ed., McGraw-Hill, New York.

Nwankwo, S. and Richards, D.C. (2001), "Privatization - the myth of free market orthodoxy in sub-Saharan Africa", *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, Vol. 14 No. 2, pp. 165-180, doi: 10.1108/09513550110387453.

Ochola, S.A. (2007), *Leadership and Economic Crisis in Africa*, Kenya Literature Bureau, Nairobi.

Okurame, D. (2012), "Impact of career growth prospects and formal mentoring on organisational citizenship behaviour", *The Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 33 No. 1, pp. 66-85.

Organ, D.W. and Ryan, K. (1995), "A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior", *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 48 No. 4, pp. 775-802.

Osei, M. (2011), "The effect of motivation on employee performance in Ghana Education Service: a case study of Angel Educational Complex", (Doctoral dissertation).

Pallant, J. (2011), "Multivariate analysis of variance", *SPSS survival manual. Crow's Nest: Allen and Unwin*, Vol. 20 No. 11, pp. 283-96.

Podsakoff, P.M. and MacKenzie, S.B. (1997), "Impact of organizational citizenship behavior on organizational performance: a review and suggestion for future research", *Human Performance*, Vol. 10 No. 2, pp. 133-151.

Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Paine, J.B. and Bachrach, D.G. (2000), "Organizational citizenship behaviors: a critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 26 No. 3, pp. 513-563.

Puni, A., Ofei, S.B. and Okoe, A. (2014), "The effect of leadership styles on firm performance in Ghana", *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, Vol. 6 No. 1, p. 177.

Riggio, R.E. and Reichard, R.J. (2008), "The emotional and social intelligences of effective leadership: an emotional and social skill approach", *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 23 No. 2, pp. 169-185.

Roberts, K.H. (1970), "On looking at an elephant: an evaluation of cross-cultural research related to organizations", *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 74 No. 5, p. 327.

Robinson, S.L. and Morrison, E.W. (1995), "Psychological contracts and OCB: the effect of unfulfilled obligations on civic virtue behavior", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 16 No. 3, pp. 289-298.

Rubin, R.S., Bommer, W.H. and Bachrach, D.G. (2010), "Operant leadership and employee citizenship: a question of trust?", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 21 No. 3, pp. 400-408.

Sagnak, M. (2016), "Participative leadership and change-oriented organizational citizenship: the mediating effect of intrinsic motivation", *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 16 No. 62, pp. 181-194.

Sahaya, N. (2012), "A learning organization as a mediator of leadership style and firms' financial performance", *International Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 7 No. 14, p. 96.

Salas-Vallina, A., Alegre, J. and Fernandez, R. (2017), "Happiness at work and OCB: is organisational learning a missing link?", *International Journal of Manpower*, Vol. 38 No. 3, pp. 470-488.

Salovey, P. and Grewal, D. (2005), "The science of emotional intelligence", *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, Vol. 14 No. 6, pp. 281-285.

Salovey, P. and Mayer, J.D. (1990), "Emotional intelligence", *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, Vol. 9 No. 3, pp. 185-211.

Schwartz, S.H. (1992), "Universals in the content and structure of values: theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries", *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 25 No. 1, pp. 1-65.

Shim, S., Lusch, R. and O'Brien, M. (2002), "A hierarchical model of values, leadership, job satisfaction and commitment: human resources management implications for the retail industry", *Journal of Marketing Channels*, Vol. 10 No. 1, pp. 65-87.

Singh, S.K. and Singh, A.P. (2019), "Interplay of organizational justice, psychological empowerment, organizational citizenship behavior, and job satisfaction in the context of circular economy", *Management Decision*, Vol. 57 No. 4, pp. 937-952.

Singh, T. and Modassir, A. (2007), "Relationship of emotional intelligence with transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behavior", IIM Bangalore Research Paper, (262).

Smith, P.B., Dugan, S. and Trompenaars, F. (1996), "National culture and the values of organizational employees: a dimensional analysis across 43 nations", *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, Vol. 27 No. 2, pp. 231-264.

Somech, A. and Bogler, R. (2002), "Antecedents and consequences of teacher organizational and professional commitment", *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 38 No. 4, pp. 555-577.

Steenkamp, J.B.E. (2001), "The role of national culture in international marketing research", *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 18 No. 1, pp. 30-44.

Suliman, A. and Al Obaidli, H. (2013), "Leadership and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in the financial service sector: the case of the UAE", *Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration*, Vol. 5 No. 2, pp. 115-134.

Tonah, S. (2009), "Democratization and the resurgence of ethnic politics in gha-na, 1992-2006", *Ethnicity, Belonging and Biography: Ethnographical and Biographical Perspectives*, Vol. 16, p. 63.

Trochim, W.M. (2006), "Nonprobability sampling", *Research Methods Knowledge Base*, Vol. 1 No. 1, pp. 1-10.

Trompenaars, F. and Hampden-Turner, C. (2011), *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Diversity in Global Business*, Nicholas Brealey International, Hachette.

VanYperen, N.W., Van Den Berg, A.E. and Willering, M.C. (1999), "Towards a better understanding of the link between participation in decision-making and organizational citizenship behaviour: a multilevel analysis", *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 72 No. 3, pp. 377-392.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2007), "Leadership style, organizational politics, and employees' performance: an empirical examination of two competing models", *Personnel Review*, Vol. 36 No. 5, pp. 661-683.

Walumbwa, F.O., Wu, C. and Orwa, B. (2008), "Contingent reward transactional leadership, work attitudes, and organizational citizenship behavior: the role of procedural justice climate perceptions and strength", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 19 No. 3, pp. 251-265.

Widiani, N.P., Putri, A.M.A.D., Sari, M.M.R. and Wirajaya, I.G.A. (2019), "The effect of love of money and emotional intelligence on employee performance with organizational citizenship behavior as mediating variable", *International Research Journal of Engineering, IT and Scientific Research*, Vol. 5 No. 1, pp. 39-49.

Wolfe, S.E., Nix, J. and Campbell, B.A. (2018), "Police managers' self-control and support for organizational justice", *Law and Human Behavior*, Vol. 42 No. 1, p. 71.

Wong, C.S. and Law, K.S. (2002), "The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: an exploratory study", *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 13 No. 3, pp. 243-274.

Xirasagar, S. (2008), "Transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership among physician executives", *Journal of Health Organization and Management*, Vol. 22 No. 6, pp. 599-613.

Yadav, R. and Pathak, G.S. (2016), "Young consumers' intention towards buying green products in a developing nation: extending the theory of planned behavior", *Journal of Cleaner Production*, Vol. 135, pp. 732-739.

Yeats, A.J., Amjadi, A., Reincke, U. and Ng, F. (1996), "Por que a Áfricasubsaarianaficoumarginalizada do comérciomundial?", *Finanças and Desenvolvimento*, Vol. 16 No. 4, pp. 36-39.

Yukl, G. and Mahsud, R. (2010), "Why flexible and adaptive leadership is essential", *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, Vol. 62 No. 2, p. 81.

Yun, S., Cox, J., Sims, H.P. Jr and Salam, S. (2007), "Leadership and teamwork: the effects of leadership and job satisfaction on team citizenship", *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, Vol. 2 No. 3, pp. 171-193.

Zabihi, M., Hashemzehi, R. and Tabrizi, K.G. (2012), "Impacts of transactional and transformational leaderships upon organizational citizenship behavior", *World Applied Sciences Journal*, Vol. 16 No. 8, pp. 1176-1182.

Zikmund, W.G. (2003), *Business Research Methods*, 7th ed., Thomson/ South-Western, New Jersey.

Further reading

Lo, H.W. and Dzokoto, V. (2005), "Talking to the master: intersections of religion, culture, and counseling in Taiwan and Ghana", *Journal of Mental Health Counseling*, Vol. 27 No. 2, pp. 117-128.

Somech, A. (2005), "Directive versus participative leadership: two complementary approaches to managing school effectiveness", *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 41 No. 5, pp. 777-800.

About the authors

Haj Dr. Ahmed Zakaria Abdullahi is a lecturer at the Nobel International Business School. He received his Doctorate in Business Administration at Swiss Business School (SBS). His research was in the field of leadership styles, emotional intelligence of a leader and organizational citizenship behavior. He has a master's degree in applied business research (SBS), post graduate in contemporary management at Nobel International Business School (NIBS) and a master's degree in supply chain management (Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration). He has a degree in operation and project management (GIMPA). He teaches Operations Management, Supply chain management, Strategic Management, Change management and Strategic leadership in GIMPA and Islamic University College of Ghana. Ahmed Zakaria Abdullahi is a successful entrepreneur and a businessman with over 40 years' experience. He has established and run very profitable businesses in the area of Civil and Building Engineering, Real Estate Development, Agriculture, Telecommunication, Logistics and Supply Chain, Hospitality Industry etc. He has worked with major multinational conglomerates such as, UNILEVER, NESTLE, MTN, GINO and WILMAR etc. He has also worked with other governmental agencies which include, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, Ministry of Youth and Sports and Volta River Authority. He has also served on various boards and the most recent being, Chairman of the Audit Report Implementation Committee for the Government of Ghana.

Dr. Ebenezer Bugri Anarfo is Senior Lecturer at the GIMPA Business School. Prior to joining GIMPA Business School, he served as a graduate teaching and research assistant at GIMPA Business School while he was a master's student. He had PhD in Finance from University of Ghana. He obtained his

bachelor's degree in economics and sociology from University of Ghana in 2006 and Master of Science degree in Business Administration (Finance Option) GIMPA. His research interests are in the areas of FDI, economic growth and development, capital structure, event studies, mergers and acquisition and mental Health. His work on capital structure studies has been published in reputable journals. He has also worked at the socioeconomic department of Crops Research Institute in Kumasi as research assistant when he was doing his national service and taught at Centre for Business Management and Financial Studies as an Economics tutor. His areas of teaching interest include International Finance, Econometrics, Microeconomics, Macroeconomics, Corporate Finance, Financial Management, and Risk management in financial institutions, managerial Economics and Business Research Methods and Quantitative Methods. Ebenezer Bugri Anarfo is the corresponding author and can be contacted at: eanarfo@gimpa.edu.gh

Dr. Hod Anyigba is an economist with research and consultancy interests in the areas of economics, management, entrepreneurship and innovation. Hod has invaluable academic and industry experience in the European and African contexts. He has a Ph.D in economics from St. Petersburg University of Management and Economics in Saint. Petersburg, Russia. He also has a master's degree in international economics from Saint Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance, Russia, as well as a bachelor's degree in economics from the same University. Till date, Hod is the only African to have completed his doctoral studies at the prestigious St. Petersburg University of Management and Economics. He is also a fellow at the Chattered Institute of Economists, Ghana. In 2017, Hod represented Ghana at the African Program on Rethinking Development Economics (APORDE) in Johannesburg, South Africa – a platform of economists with pluralist views who aim to advance perspectives on economic development thinking and policymaking on the African continent. He is a member of the Young Scholars Initiative (YSI) – an initiative to support a new generation of new economic thinkers. Recent research involves economic growth, corporate entrepreneurial strategy, small business development, and organizational design. He is a reviewer for a number of economic journals and a member of the Econometric Society-an international society for the advancement of economic theory in its relation to statistics and mathematics. Hod has done consultancy work in the field of economics and management for both national and global organizations such as the European Union, the International Trade Union Confederation, Africa Trade Union Development Network, OmniBank etc. Hod is currently the Doctor of Business Administration (DBA) program director at Nobel International Business School (NiBS)– Africa's premier doctoral school. He also doubles as the Assistant Academic Director at NiBS. He serves on a number of boards both locally and internationally.