LEADERSHIP STYLES AND VOLUNTARY WORK BEHAVIORS:
MEDIATING ROLE OF LEADERS’ EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

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THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA,
LEGON IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR
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MANAGEMENT DEGREE

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DECLARATION

I do hereby declare that this work is the result of my own research and has not been presented by anyone for any academic award in this or any other university. All references used in the work have been fully acknowledged.

I bear sole responsibility for any shortcomings.

................................. ................................
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CERTIFICATION

I hereby certify that this thesis was supervised in accordance with the procedures laid down by the University.

.................................................. ..................................................
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(SUPERVISOR)
DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to the Almighty God, my parents who have been of great support throughout my schooling. Also to my siblings and friends (Emmanuel Ampofo, Jonathan Tetteh, Believe Dedzo) for their support, especially Emefa Agordoh who helped to edit this research work. God bless you all.
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CWB</td>
<td>Counterproductive Work Behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI</td>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIPC</td>
<td>Ghana Investment Promotion Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LMX</td>
<td>Leader-Member Exchange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLQ</td>
<td>Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>Organizational Citizenship Behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROE</td>
<td>Return on Equity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>Variance Inflation Factor</td>
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ABSTRACT

The primary aim of this study was to examine the relationships between leadership styles and voluntary work behaviors of employees among selected banks in Ghana. Specifically, the objectives was to determine the extent to which leadership styles (transformational and transactional) predict employees’ voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB); to examine the mediating effect of leaders’ emotional intelligence on the leadership styles and voluntary work behaviors relationships; and to investigate whether the exhibition of voluntary work behaviors varies among employees of high performing and low performing banks. The quantitative approach to research was adopted to collect data from 234 respondents. Both purposive and simple random sampling techniques were used for the selection of respondents for the study. The findings of the study revealed that even though both the transformational and transactional leadership styles significantly positively predicted the OCB of employees, transformational leadership was more significant. Also, transformational leadership was found to have a significant negative relationship with the CWB of employees whereas transactional leadership had an insignificant relationship with CWB. Additionally, both leadership styles were found to be significantly related to EI. Furthermore, only the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB was mediated by the leaders’ EI. It was also found that employees of high performing banks did not score higher in the exhibition of OCB compared to low performing banks and employees of low performing banks were not found to score higher with respect to CWB as compared to those of high performing banks. It was however suggested that both leadership styles and more especially transformational leadership should be used in the quest to encourage employees’ OCB. Also, the transformational leadership style is recommended when leaders want to mitigate the CWB of their employees.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

In recent organizational research, there has been a shift from what is commonly known as task-related activities of employees to include voluntary work behaviors of employees that go beyond just task performance. This is because employees’ voluntary work behaviors have been recognized to play a pivotal role when it comes to the success or failure of organizations (Lee, Kim & Kim, 2013).

Employees voluntary work behaviors have been researched from two distinct points of view based on their impact on organizational performance. On the positive side, they are seen as helpful behaviors by employees to boost the performance of organizations- popularly known as Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) (Organ, 1988). OCB is defined as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). This behavior can be expressed in different forms: helping others who have heavy workloads, focusing on the positive side of issues rather than the negative, trying to avoid creating problems for co-workers, keeping abreast with changes in the organization and attendance at work above the norm (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). According to Organ (1988), such employees are referred to as “good soldiers” and are aspired for by most organizations (Krishnan & Arora, 2008; Vaijayanthi, Shreenivasan & Roy, 2014).

On the flip side are behaviors that are perceived as destructive and detrimental to both co-workers and the organization as a whole which are referred to as Counterproductive
Workplace Behaviors (CWB) (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001). According to Spector and Fox (2005), CWB refers to “the volitional acts that harm or intend to harm organizations and their stakeholders including clients, co-workers, customers and supervisors” (p. 151) and is adverse to OCB. CWB ranges from insignificant acts such as five minutes late arrival to work, five minutes early departure from work, taking extended breaks, browsing the internet during working hours, to more serious ones like lack of co-operation, verbal abuse, theft, physical assaults, and sabotage (Brimecombe, Magnusenb & Bunds, 2014; Robinson & Bennette, 1995). More so, research shows that organizations suffer the loss of billions of dollars in revenue attributed to harmful acts undertaken by employees each year (U.S. Chamber of Commerce, 2002). For instance, employee theft is identified to cost organizations approximately 35% of their inventory, 1.4% of total revenue and 38 billion dollars for annual damages (Center for Retail Research, 2010). More so, workplace violence, an example of CWB, is reported to cost companies about 500,000 employees per year to both voluntary and involuntary turnover (Occupational Safety and Health Administration, 1996). It is also alarming to learn from research that about 75% of all employees engage in deviant behaviors (cited in Casebier, 2014).

Thus both OCB and CWB refer to voluntary acts that employees engage in at one point in time or the other (Baker, 2005; Luthans & Youssef, 2007) and employees can be categorized based on them. In view of this, organizations generally have the responsibility to discourage CWB and rather encourage OCB by appropriately influencing employees’ behaviors.

Extant research however advances that employee behaviors towards their organization and their jobs in particular are influenced by numerous variables. In relation to the two voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB), variables such as job satisfaction (Fatima, Atif, Saqib &
Haider, 2012; Shapiro, Kessler & Purcell, 2004), organizational commitment (Liao & Chuang, 2007), negative emotions (Krischer, Penney & Hunter, 2010), employee characteristics, tasks characteristics (Aftab & Javed, 2012), organizational characteristics (Shamsudin, Subramaniam & Ibrahim, 2011) and leadership behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Shoss, Eisenberger & Zagenczyk, 2013) have been revealed as antecedents.

More specifically, the leaders’ behavior or style has been opined as one key influence on the voluntary work behaviors of employees and this has been established in empirical research as a universal principle (Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Grieser, 2007; Treviño, Brown & Hartman, 2003; Lo & Ramayah, 2009; Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006; Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007; Rajnandini, Schrisheim & Williams, 1999). This makes it paramount for leaders to recognize the need of not only understanding the concept of voluntary work behaviors of employees, but to also know how to either motivate or mitigate them respectively. (Ali & Waqar, 2013; Burns & Carpenter, 2008; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Paalanen & Hyypiaä, 2008; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Whereas leadership is defined as “a stream of evolving interrelationships in which leaders are continuously evoking motivational responses from followers and modifying their behavior as they meet responsiveness or resistance, in a ceaseless process of flow and counter flow” (Burns, 1978). According Yukl (2002), it is also the ability to influence subordinates to get things done when they should be done. More importantly, research advances that the leadership style practiced in an organization can serve as a motivational gem which either positively or negatively influences employees’ outcome (Lian & Tui, 2012). Leadership
further determines whether or not employees exhibit selfless behaviors leading to OCB (Barbuto & Scholl, 1999; Bass & Steidlemeier, 1999; Ilies et al., 2007; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996; Twigg, Fuller, & Hester, 2008; Vondey, 2008) or selfish and harmful behaviors leading to CWB (Newton, 2007; Kessler, Bruursema, Rodopman & Spector, 2013). For instance, Kessler, Bruursema, Rodopman & Spector (2013) advanced that when it comes to discouraging CWB the style of leadership in operation plays a determining role.

Over the years, various styles of leadership (e.g. charismatic, ethical, servant, adaptive, dispersed, authentic, spiritual, transcendent, transformational, transactional, laissez-faire leadership styles among others) have emerged but the two that have been mostly identified to influence employees’ voluntary work behaviors are the transformational leadership style (Bambale, Shamsudin & Subramaniam, 2011; Brown & Treviño, 2003; Kessler et al., 2013; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Rajnandini, Schrisheim & Williams, 1999; Zabihi, Hashemzehi & Tabrizi, 2012) and transactional styles of leadership (Kessler et al., 2013; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001; Rajnandini, Schrisheim & Williams, 1999; Rubin, Bommer, & Bachrach, 2010; Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008). This study therefore construed leadership styles as transformational and transactional leadership.

Whereas transformational leaders are geared towards motivating their subordinates to perform beyond set targets and goals, transactional leaders exhibit leader-member exchange relationship by fulfilling the employees’ needs in an exchange for them meeting set organizational targets and goals (Bass & Avolio, 1994). There is however the possibility of leaders to possess the qualities of both the transformational and transactional styles of
leadership (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). This has recently been referred to as ‘Transfor-sactional’ Leadership— the transformational-transactional leadership mix by Dartey-Baah (2015).

According to Bar-on (1996), one important characteristic that is common in the operation of all leadership styles is their emotional component— measured as Emotional Intelligence (EI). EI is the leaders’ ability to “…perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 10). The concept of EI is important because the expression of emotions in the workplace, either negative or positive cannot be done away with but can rather be managed (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Additionally, EI is the skill that determines whether or not the leader will become successful in dealing with the followers (Goleman, 1998; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). It has also been further proven that EI contributes about 80 to 90% and sometimes more of the qualities that separate outstanding leaders from average ones (Goleman, 1998). Extant research also revealed that EI influences various employee outcomes: employee commitment (Tung, Khuong, & Phuong, 2014), employee performance (Jorfi, Jorfi & Moghadam, 2010), occupational stress (Gardner & Stough, 2003), employee turnover (Siddiqui & Hassan, 2013) among others.

Furthermore, research advances that in order for leaders to encourage OCB and minimize CWB among employees, their emotions, for that matter EI, serve as a stimulus on the employees (Ayoko, Callan & Härtel, 2003; Modassir & Singh, 2008). Thus, when employees perceive that leaders understand their needs, they tend to give off the best of their skills to the execution of organizational goals (Korkmaz & Arpaci, 2009) and the opposite is true when
they perceive they are not handled in an emotionally intelligent manner (Ayoko, Callan & Härtel, 2003). Similarly, managers who have good social skills and even-temperedness (traits central to exhibiting EI) are able to positively influence their employees to exhibit behaviors beyond their formal job descriptions (i.e. OCB) (Krishnan & Arora, 2008). This relationship can be explained by the fact that leaders with high EI tend to be more excited and committed to their respective organizations (Abraham, 2000); build a connection between employees (Batool, 2013) and consequently attain success in the workplace (Ruderman, Hannum, Leslie & Steed, 2001). On the other hand, leaders with low EI produce negative emotions (e.g. fear, anger, and hostility) leading to CWB such as absenteeism, lack of cooperation, apathy among others (Bagshaw, 2000).

1.2 Problem Statement

In recent times, the Ghanaian banking sector has witnessed tremendous growth that has largely been attributed to the creation of a favorable business climate through the enactment of relevant laws by the Central Bank (e.g. Bank of Ghana Act, 2002; the Payment System Bill, 2003; Banking Law 2004- Act 673) in a bid to liberalize the sector. Since then, there has been an increase in the number of commercial banks from 7 to 27 from the year 1989 to 2014 and the generation of keen competition among the various banks including those from foreign countries especially Nigeria (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2014).

However, according to Yunus, Ishak, Mustapha and Othman (2010), competition within organizations especially in the banking field is a key challenge that needs to be strategically addressed. They further posited that in order to do that, banks need not only to recruit but also train employees who can give them a sustained competitive edge. One important quality of such employees is their willingness to engage in positive voluntary work behaviors beyond
their formal job requirements (see: Ali & Waqar, 2013; Yunus, AmirIshak, Mustapha & Othman, 2010) which are contrary to CWB. Additionally, Bolino and Turnley (2003) agreed that employees who exhibit OCB are unique assets of an organization which are not easily imitated by competitors thereby giving them that sustained competitive advantage. More so, since the banking sector is proven to play a critical role in the development of the Ghanaian economy (Bawumia et al., 2008) and the employees’ voluntary behaviors for that matter can determine its success or failure, it is relevant to empirically investigate the factors that induce such employee outcomes so as to appropriately encourage the positive ones and mitigate the negative ones respectively (Lee, Kim & Kim, 2013).

With respect to CWB, Newton (2010) in enumerating its negative effects on the performance of organizations advanced that it is relevant to identify its antecedents so as to minimize its occurrence in organizations (Kessler et al., 2013). There is however an urgent need in empirical literature to investigate the factors that evoke both OCB and CWB of employees especially in banks where employees are very busy and work in an emotionally laborious environment (Kessler et al., 2013; Yunus, AmirIshak, Mustapha & Othman, 2010). According to Kessler et al., (2013) leadership is the best place to begin.

Even though there is a plethora of studies on the effect of leadership on the employees’ behaviors in the workplace, it appears that only a few have empirically studied the concept in relation to the voluntary work behaviors (i.e. OCB and CWB) (Bruursema, 2004; Spector & Fox, 2002).

More so, majority of the studies on the leadership styles and voluntary work behaviors relationship especially with OCB have only largely been carried out in the Western context:
OCB - (Bass, 1985; Boerner, Eisenbeiss & Griesser, 2007; Geyer & Steyrer, 1998; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Rich, 2001; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996; Schlechter & Engelbrecht, 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Morrman & Fetter, 1990), CWB- (Newton, 2007; Rajnandini, Schrisheim & Williams, 1999; Kessler et al., 2013; Bruursema, 2004). In investigating the relationship between transformational leadership and leader-member exchange in five distinct cultures, Pillai, Rajnandini, Williams, and Ethlyn (1999) pointed out that the same style of leadership in another culture does not have the same influence on employees’ behaviors and therefore makes it incorrect to transfer the same results into another context or culture. Likewise, the cultural context of employees’ voluntary work behaviors is perceived as being vastly significant in organizations yet there remains a dearth of empirical work done in relation to it (Euwema, Wendt & Emmerik, 2007; Yen & Niehoff, 2004; Cem-Ersoy, 2010). This makes the study of both OCB and CWB relatively inadequate and more skewed towards foreign perspectives thus lacking the African angle (Turnipseed & Murkison, 2000; Ersoy, 2010). Hence, a call in extant literature to empirically establish the relationship between leadership styles and voluntary work behaviors in the West African context specifically the Ghanaian setting.

Additionally, it appears not many studies have looked into the indirect relationships between leadership styles and voluntary work behaviors of employees. For instance, Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) and Lin, Li and Hsiao (2012) advanced that though numerous literatures establish the fact that leadership has an influence on task performance and OCB of employees, the variables that explain or indirectly cause the outcome remain uncertain and unclear. Also, Kessler et al. (2013) asserted that it is not only important to identify the antecedents of CWB but also the factors that exacerbate their effect on such behaviors.
Even though researchers have tried to bridge this gap, their works have focused on the indirect effects of variables such as culture (Shukui & Xiaomin, 2009), work experience (Saeed & Ahmad, 2012), subordinates’ trust and satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 1990), stressors (Boerner, Dutschke & Wied, 2008), perception of politics (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006), downward influence (Lian & Tui, 2012), subordinates’ competence (Lian & Tui, 2012), core job characteristics (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006), public service motives and goal clarity (Khan, Ghouri & Awang, 2013) on leadership styles and OCB. Also, relatively few studies have been done in relation to the leadership styles and CWB relationship including negative emotion and justice (Bruursema, 2004).

Furthermore, as would be seen from the literature review that significant amount of work has been done on the influence of leadership styles on OCB and leadership styles on CWB. However, it appears literature is silent on investigating leadership styles on both OCB and CWB with the leaders’ EI playing a mediating role. Following from these, this study sought to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and both voluntary work behaviors (i.e. OCB and CWB) with a focus on the leaders’ EI as a mediator in the Ghanaian banking industry.

1.3 Research Objectives

This study generally sought to investigate the relationship between leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and voluntary work behavior (OCB and CWB) and the mediating role of the leaders’ EI among selected banks in Ghana. Specifically to:

1. Determine the extent to which leadership styles (transformational and transactional) predict employees’ voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB).
2. Examine the mediating effect of leaders’ EI on the leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and voluntary work behavior relationships (OCB and CWB).

3. To investigate whether the exhibition of voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB) varies among employees of high performing and low performing banks.

1.4 Research Questions

In view of the research objectives, the following are the research questions:

1. To what extent do leadership styles (transformational and transactional) predict employees’ engagement in voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB)?

2. Will leaders’ EI mediate the relationships between leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB)?

3. Does the exhibition of voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB) vary among employees of high performing and low performing banks?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The study proposed the research hypotheses as follows:

H1: Transformational leadership style will have a more significant positive relationship with OCB than transactional leadership.

H2a: Transformational leadership style will have a significant negative relationship with CWB.

H2b: Transactional leadership style will have a significant positive relationship with CWB.

H3a: Transformational leadership will have a significant positive relationship with EI.

H3b: Transactional leadership will have a significant negative relationship with EI.

H4a: Leaders’ EI will have a significant positive relationship with OCB.

H4b: Leaders’ EI will have a significant negative relationship with CWB.
H5a: Leaders’ EI will mediate the transformational leadership styles and OCB relationship.
H5b: Leaders’ EI will not mediate the transactional leadership styles and OCB relationship.
H6a: Leaders’ EI will not mediate the transformational leadership styles and CWB relationship.
H6b: Leaders’ EI will not mediate the transactional leadership styles and CWB relationship.
H7a: Employees in high performing banks will score higher on OCB than those in the low performing banks.
H7b: Employees in low performing banks will score higher on CWB than those in the high performing banks.

1.6 Significance of the Study
The study is relevant for both theoretical and practical reasons. Theoretically, the study contributes to existing literature on the importance of the leaders’ EI and the role it plays in enhancing the leaders’ effectiveness in the workplace. Specifically, the study investigates whether the leaders’ EI influences the tendency of employees to either engage in OCB or CWB. The findings from this study therefore serve as a platform for other researchers to build on.

Furthermore, this study contributes to the limited Ghanaian research on leadership styles and voluntary work behaviors of employees hence adding a context-specific value to the research field under study. Additionally, most previous studies have had leaders rate their own leadership style and EI as well as the voluntary work behaviors of their employees which may not be an absolute reflection of the findings arrived at. This study however provided a unique dimension where the rating of the employees’ voluntary work behaviors, the leaders’ style and EI is undertaken solely by the employees. Thus, the study used a follower-centric
approach to studying leadership as suggested by Meindl (1995) and also because it presents a more objective view to the study.

Practically, this study provides guidelines to help organizations understand the effect of the leaders’ EI on employee performance so as to provide training for their leadership in that direction. The study also helps leaders to identify whether the transformational or transactional style of leadership or a combination of both is more effective when managing employees’ voluntary work behaviors.

1.7 Scope of Work

The study focused on the employees of the commercial banks that were consistently listed on the Ghana Club 100 rankings from 2010 to 2012. The Ghana Club 100, launched in 1998 is an annual compilation of the 100 top companies in Ghana to recognize them for successful enterprise building. The 100 companies which get enlisted in the club serve as role models for the private sector and provide a forum for corporate Ghana to interact with the government at a higher level. The core objective of the Ghana Club 100 is to:

- Develop an open information culture within the Ghanaian corporate sector;
- Provide incentives for improved corporate performance;
- Develop a uniform criteria for evaluating corporate performance; and
- Establish an annual and current analysis of Ghana’s corporate sector.

1.8 Definition of Operational Terms

- Leadership: The ability of an individual to motivate others to forego self-interest in the interest of a collective vision, and to contribute to the attainment of that vision by
making significant personal self-sacrifices over and above the call of duty, willingly (House & Shamir, 1993).

- **Leadership Styles:** Bass (1985) advanced that the transformational and transactional leadership styles are most prominent among all leadership styles. Therefore, this study interpreted leadership styles as transformational and transactional leadership styles.

- **Transformational Leadership:** Leaders motivate followers to look beyond their self-interest to seek the success of their organization to work beyond initial expectation by altering their morale, interests, and values (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978).

- **Transactional Leadership:** This is focused on leader-follower exchanges. Thus, it is an exchange relationship between a leader and his or her followers where clear objectives are expected to be met in return for rewards (financial and/or non-financial) (Bass, 1999; Yukl, 1999).

- **Organizational Citizenship Behavior:** Employees’ discretionary role that transcends the organization’s formal job description and exhibits actions such as supporting the welfare of co-workers, work groups and the organization at large (Katz, 1964).

- **Counterproductive Work Behavior:** They are actions by employees that have detrimental effect or cause harm to the organization and its workers in one way or the other (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001).

- **Emotional Intelligence:** The ability of managers to perceive accurately, appraise, express and understand and regulate their own emotions and that of their subordinates so as to stimulate emotional and intellectual growth (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).
1.9 Chapter Disposition

Chapter one contains the introductory aspects of the work and further elaborates on the background to the study, problem statement, objective of the study, research questions, hypotheses proposed to be tested, the scope and significance of the research. The chapter two discusses extant literature in relation to the variables of the study (transformational leadership, transactional leadership, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior and emotional intelligence) which led to the development of a conceptual framework to summarize the hypothesized relationship. The methodology adopted by the study to collect and analyze the data was discussed in chapter three. Chapter four presents the various results derived from the analysis as compared to the various hypotheses. More so, chapter five expounds on the results of the analyzed data in relation to the variables under study. Finally, chapter six presents the summary, conclusion, limitations and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This section of the study presents a critical analysis of extant literature relevant to the phenomenon under study. The variables elaborated on include transformational and transactional leadership styles, emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive workplace behavior. This section further examines the various relationships existing between the variables and how they contribute to the study. More so, the section is discussed under various headings: theoretical review, empirical review and consequently developing a fitting conceptual framework.

2.2 Theoretical Review

2.2.1 Leadership
Leadership as a concept has been widely explored when it comes to the field of human resource management. This is due to the fact that leadership is deemed as essential at every level of an organization and its quality determines the success or failure of organizations (Chandan & Devi, 2014; Dartey-Baah, Amponsah-Tawiah, & Sekyere-Abankwa, 2011). Riaz and Haider (2010) also posited that organizations seek to understand and remain abreast with current developments in leadership because leadership is seen to play an important role in achieving high performance irrespective of the type of organization. Additionally, research makes it clear that mastering the art of leadership enables organizations to perform highly because it helps to mobilize their workforce (Yukl, 1998), facilitates team work (Yukl, 2006), ensures employee commitment and job satisfaction (Griffin, Patterson & West, 2001; Pieterse-Landman, 2012).
However, leadership as a theory still remains unclear both to academics and the general public because of the different meanings it has to different sects of people (Hartog & Koopman, 2001). According to Hartog and Koopman (2001), this happens because the various definitions evolving over the years are diverse. Leadership has thus been defined in terms of the leader’s abilities, personality traits, influence relationships, individual versus group orientation, and appeal to self-versus collective interests. Although efforts have been made to further broaden the understanding of the concept of leadership, there is still no consensus on its definition. However, various researchers have tried to bridge this gap in the leadership literature.

For instance, Burns (1978) in his research on the definition of the word ‘leadership’ reveals 130 definitions from various leadership scholars which he summarized into five (5) characteristics. That is leadership is collective (both leaders and followers must exist), dissenting (it coexists with disagreement), causative (causes positive change), morally purposeful (leadership is goal oriented) and is elevating (both leaders and followers rise to live a more principled life). Burns additionally defined leadership as “a stream of evolving interrelationships in which leaders are continuously evoking motivational responses from followers and modifying their behavior as they meet responsiveness or resistance, in a ceaseless process of flow and counter flow” (p. 440). Leadership from the view of House and Shamir (1993), is the ability to motivate one’s followers to sacrifice their own interest for that of their organizations’ vision and willingly contribute to its attainment. Additionally, Long and Thean (2012) explains leadership as the ability of an individual to set a particular direction with the intention of achieving a desired outcome. Finally, Northhouse (2010) in an extensive review of various definitions of leadership in literature concluded that:
Leadership is a process that involves influence; and
Leadership occurs in groups and involves common goals and purpose.

Northhouse (2010) further advanced that the concept of leadership has undergone various trends and development in research. It has evolved from various traditional theories such as the great man theory, the trait theory to the behavioral theory. The great man theory was primarily founded on the notion that ‘great men’ were born with special leadership abilities and also asserts that leadership is based on heredity. This assumption was championed by Galton in 1870 when he purported that leadership qualities are passed on from one generation to the other through genes. Moving on, was the development of the trait theory of leadership.

The trait theory of leadership believed that people are born with leadership qualities such as “intelligence, alertness, scholastic achievement, dependability, persistence, adaptability, relational competence and higher socio-economic status” (Chandan & Devi, 2014; p. 3). Therefore anyone who was identified as having some of these traits was tagged as a natural leader. However one limitation of the trait theory of leadership is the fact that it advances that it is impossible to train individuals born without traits to become leaders. However, after identifying the limitations of the theory, the behavioral leadership theory also known as the apparent leadership theory was introduced.

The behavioral leadership theory introduced a study of leadership based on the behavior of the leaders themselves, examples being the leaders’ ability to build good relationship and sensitivity towards followers’ needs (Hartog & Koopman, 2001). The theory further suggests that individuals can be trained and educated to become leaders. After several years, researchers noticed that situational factors in an environment also play an important role in
defining the concept of leadership- hence the introduction of the situational or contingency theory of leadership. Models such as Fiedlers Contingency Model, Hersey and Blanchards Situational Leadership Model and Path-Goal Model by House (1971) have all supported this concept of leadership. Thus the contingency theorists believe that a single style of leadership is not suitable for all workplace environments (Chandan & Devi, 2014). Yukl (2010) termed this as leadership being context-specific. Additionally, Lam and O’Higgins (2012) in their study on ‘enhancing employee outcomes: the interrelated influences of managers’ EI and leadership style’ analyzed the contingency theory from the view of Maslow’s five level hierarchy of needs.

The Maslow’s theory of needs reveals five needs that employees might have at a point in time: physiological, safety, love/belonging, self-esteem and self-actualization. In linking these employees needs to leadership, Lam and O’Higgins (2012) opined that whereas the physiological and safety needs can be met by transactional leadership, the transformational leadership style becomes more needed after the basic needs of the employees are met. Hence, managers must adjust their styles to suit different employees at different times based on needs identified to be met.

2.2.1.1 Leadership Styles

In recent leadership research, Bass and Avolio (2004) developed what is popularly referred to as the “full range leadership theory”. This conceptualizes leadership as a composite made up of the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire styles of leadership. Bass and Avolio (2004) defined the laissez-faire style of leadership as one that gives subordinates the freedom to direct themselves. However, they made it clear that the laissez-faire leadership style is embedded in the transactional style of leadership, specifically management-by-exception
(passive) component. Research has advanced that the two most used styles of leadership are the transformational and transactional styles of leadership. The two leadership styles are identified as having their core elements to be providing clear goals and objectives, measuring outcomes and rewarding performance (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). In spite of their similarities, research reveals that there still exist clear differences between them and the way they operate.

2.2.1.2 Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership as a concept was first propounded by Burns (1978) when he sought to study ‘world class leaders’ and was further propagated by Bass (1985a, 1985b, 1990, 1997, 1998). He defined transformational leadership as the leaders’ ability to inspire their followers to meet organizational goals rather than concentrating on self-interests. Burns further described the theory as being a relationship between leaders and their followers where both help to increase their motivation and morale in the organization. In addition to Burns’ work, Bass (1985) describes the transformational style of leadership in relation to its effect on the followers: how they express trust, admiration and loyalty to the leader who challenges and inspires them to perform above expectations. More so, Yukl and Fleet (1992, p. 174) defines transformational leadership as “the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organizational members and building commitment for the major changes in the organization’s objectives and strategies”.

Furthermore, transformational leaders help to evoke subordinates’ extra effort coupled with qualities such as employee commitment, job satisfaction and job involvement (Avolio, 2004; Jha, 2014; Krishnan & Arora, 2008). Since the role of transformational leadership has been empirically proven to be key to the success of organizations, it becomes clearly imperative
that organizations both select and develop the leadership qualities required to be transformational in leading their employees’ (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). In response to this, a study by Bass and Avolio (2004) proposed that transformational leaders exhibit four main qualities: intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, individualized consideration and inspirational motivation usually referred to as the dimensions of transformational leadership.

**Inspirational motivation:** Exceptional and outstanding leaders have been described by various researchers as being inspirational (Bass, 1985, 1990; House, 1977). This refers to the leaders’ ability to formulate and articulate a vision and setting of challenging goals for the employees (Shin & Zhou, 2003). Bruch and Walter (2007) added that the leaders’ inspirational motivational quality is the display of optimism and enthusiasm in creating innovative goals for the future of the organization. Thus leaders who “behave in ways that motivate those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers’ work” are seen to be displaying inspirational motivation (Bass, Avolio, Jung, Berson, 2003; p. 208).

**Idealized influence:** This is often referred to as ‘charisma influence’ and depicts a setting where subordinates admire, respect, and trust their leaders (Bass et al., 2003, p. 208). Such leaders share their achievements as well as failures with their followers and further consider the followers’ needs above theirs. The leader is however seen by the followers as a role model and behaves in admirable ways by displaying strong convictions in decisions and operating by clearly defined set of values (Warrilow, 2012). Humphreys and Einstein (2003) have found that transformational leaders operate out of deeply held personal value systems such as justice and integrity. By expressing these personal standards, transformational leaders unite their followers. More importantly, transformational leaders can change their followers’
goals and beliefs for the better and further motivate them to buy into the vision of the leader and be ready to sacrifice to see it come into reality (Bass, 1985).

*Individual consideration:* This is where the leader is concerned with relating to employees individually and not just as a group. Transformational leaders achieve this by displaying compassion, appreciation, and responding to the individual needs of the followers as well as rewarding their achievements (Modassir & Singh, 2008). According to Bass et al, (2003), it is the leaders’ ability to pay particular attention to the individuals’ needs for achievement and development whiles relating to them as their coach or mentor. Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater and Spangler (2004) in their study on individualized consideration opined that leaders use it to deal with issues of competence and meaningfulness whiles helping their followers to develop themselves.

*Intellectual stimulation:* This quality of transformational leaders tends to question existing assumptions, traditions and beliefs in an organization in order to further suggest new ideas and ways of doing things (Bass, 1997). Warrilow (2012) explained that leaders with intellectual stimulation help by giving the followers a clear picture of how they are connected to the leader, other employees and to the organization as a whole. In doing this, employees are able to find innovative ways to overcome the challenges and obstacles in fulfilling the mission of the organization. This dimension of transformational leadership is however seen as the most undeveloped (Lowe et. al., 1996) because it has not received much attention in research compared to the other dimensions of transformational leadership.
2.2.1.3 Transactional Leadership Theory

In addition to the transformational style of leadership, Bass and Avolio (1997) introduced the transactional style of leadership. This theory is basically based on the exchange of rewards for services rendered based on an agreement that exists between the leader and his/her subordinates. However, transactional leadership uses extrinsic rewards as their method of motivating employees and has its grounding in both social learning and exchange theories (Chandan & Devi, 2014). Furthermore, transactional leadership is posited to be characterized by bureaucratic authority, strict compliance by employees, legitimate working methods as well as the use of organizational rewards and punishments to influence the performance and behavior of employees (Burns, 1978).

In a study by Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013) on transformational versus transactional leadership theories, the researchers portrayed that unlike transformational leadership that looks at changing the future of the organization, the transactional style of leadership is content with maintaining the state of affairs in the organization. Transactional leaders watch out for the deviations in the works of their followers in order to administer corrections. They are more used to processes and systems of doing things rather than seeking innovative ways. Bass (1990a) defines transactional leadership in three dimensions: contingent reward, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive).

*Contingent reward:* This dimension of transactional leadership refers to the leader’s ability and consistency in clearly stipulating to the followers what his or her expectations are from them as well as the results that are linked to meeting them (Kessler et al., 2013; Bass & Bass, 2008). It is often an exchange relationship that exists between the leader and the follower (Masi & Cooke, 2000). According to Bass (1985), this quality of transactional leaders
demands that the leader evoke a level of involvement, loyalty, commitment, and performance from the followers.

*Management-by-exception (active):* In general, the quality of managing by exception seeks to maintain the status quo of the organization (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013); but specifically, management-by-exception (active) adopts an active approach to detecting and appropriately dealing with lapses in the performance of the organization (Lai, 2011; Antonakis, Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003). Furthermore, it is characterized by an active monitoring of the behavior of followers in order to ensure compliance to organizational expectations (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

*Management-by-exception (passive):* Unlike the management-by-exception (active), management-by-exception (passive) is characterized by taking action only when problems arise (Bass et al. 2003). It also reflects a leadership attitude that is reactive in its nature (Lai, 2011; Bass & Avolio, 1990).
Table 2.1 Summary: Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transformational</th>
<th>Transactional</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership is proactive.</td>
<td>Leadership is responsive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Works to change the organizational culture by implementing new ideas.</td>
<td>Works within the organizational culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees achieve objectives through higher ideals and moral values.</td>
<td>Employees achieve objectives through rewards and punishments set by leader.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivates followers by encouraging them to put group interests first.</td>
<td>Motivates followers by appealing to their own self-interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized consideration: Each behavior is directed to each individual to express consideration and support.</td>
<td>Management-by-exception (active): acts proactively to problems before they occur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual stimulation: Promote creative and innovative ideas to solve problems.</td>
<td>Management-by-exception (passive): takes action only when problems arise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized influence: leaders become role models by being examples of what they demand.</td>
<td>Contingent reward: followers work strictly in exchange for rewards for meeting goals set.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational motivation: leaders challenge followers to go beyond expectations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from: Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013, p.359)

2.2.2 Voluntary Work Behaviors

In recent times, research on the behaviors of employees in organizations has expanded to include their voluntary work behaviors. It is however important to clearly comprehend the disparity between in-role and extra-role behavior of employees in the workplace. When management clearly makes known to employees what is formally required of them, they are regarded as in-role behaviors. On the other hand, extra-role behaviors are informal and voluntary acts by employees that employees display out of their own free will and not under duress (Kandan & Ali, 2010). One aspect of voluntary work behaviors generally referred to as OCB are seen to enhance the performance of the organization. On the other hand
‘opposite’ to OCB is Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) which tends to rather impede the performance of organizations (Spector & Fox, 2002). The concept of voluntary work behaviors has however been conceptualized in this study as OCB and CWB.

As to whether the two voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB) are opposites or contrary, various researchers have expressed varied opinions. For instance Dalal (2005) in a comparative study considered them as opposites: in the sense that whereas OCB helps to improve the organization, employees’ CWB tends to rather make it worse. This assertion was however supported by Kelloway, Loughlin, Barling and Nault (2002) in their work which revealed the two constructs as being separate yet related and further concluded that there exists a negative relationship between OCB and CWB. More so, Bukhari and Ali (2009) evinced that OCB and CWB relate negatively with each other- thus both cannot be displayed by employees at a given point in time. Even though their findings showed that employees who rated high on OCB rated low when it comes to CWB, it does not mean the latter is a permanent behavior exhibited by employees. In this regard, Spector, Bauer, Fox (2010) advanced that the two constructs are not opposites as opined but that employees should rather be assessed on how often they engage in either of them.

2.2.2.1 Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

OCB as a term was proposed by Organ (1988) over two decades ago but had its roots from the works of scholars such as Barnard (1938) and Katz (1964). Organ (1988) defined the concept to mean an “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p.4). The use of the term discretionary in relation to OCB first of all means it is a matter of the individual’s choice without a form of
punishment even when such behavior is not displayed. Secondly, such behaviors exceed the formally defined job description given to the individual by the organization. Lastly, OCB’s are not recognized as part of the formal reward system of the organization therefore employees indulge in it without the expectation of being rewarded for their efforts (Organ, 1988).

According to Katz (1964), every organization needs employees to exhibit three behaviors to ensure that they continue to run effectively and achieve high organizational performance. That is employees must be induced to enter and decide to remain committed, perform the specific duties assigned to them (in-role performance) and must adopt innovative ways of accomplishing organizational goals outside their job description (OCB). OCB however becomes very important because employees exhibition of such behaviors shows a level of interdependence among them, thus making the two (i.e. both employees and OCB) directly related to the life and survival of the organization (Karambayya, 1989). The concept of OCB is also akin to concepts such as pro-social organizational behaviors (George, 1990), extra-role behavior (Van Dyne, Cummings & Parks, 1995), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992) and contextual performance (Borman, White & Dorsey, 1995).

Generally, employees’ acts of OCB towards their organization includes being punctual, helping co-workers, volunteering, keeping abreast with development of one’s profession, adhering to company rules, protecting company’s resources, staying out of conflicts among others (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Employees’ citizenship behaviors can further be classified as ones directed towards co-workers (OCB-I) and the ones towards the organization in general (OCB-O) (William &
Anderson, 1991). OCB-I are referred to as behaviors that provide immediate support to the individuals but indirectly benefit the organization as a whole. Examples of OCB-I include: helping others who are absent and taking personal interest in them (William & Anderson, 1991); helping co-workers with heavy workloads, sharing resources, calling attention to errors (George & Brief, 1992). On the other hand, OCB-O are characterized by behaviors engaged in by employees that bring benefit to the organization in general (William & Anderson, 1991). It is characterized by employees giving advance notice when they are to be absent and complying with the informal rules of the organization to maintain order. Additionally, George and Brief (1992) termed OCB-O as ‘spreading goodwill’—meaning the members of the organization tend to voluntarily contribute to the advancement of the organization. This can be done through personal advertisement of the organization in a beneficial light such as being supportive and describing the goods and services as being of good quality.

Empirical studies done in relation to the essence of OCB in the workplace have revealed that remarkable benefits accrue to co-workers, managers and the organization at large when individuals display OCB (Ackefeidt & Coote, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2000). For instance, a study by Yen and Niehoff (2004) conducted to test the theory of OCB and how it affects organizational effectiveness indicated that the more employees of the organization engage in OCB, the more the organization becomes successful. In the study, the managers of the various branches sampled which were identified as being more successful revealed that their employees often displayed behaviors such as being conscientious, altruistic, harmonious, and more willing to participate and protect the resources of the organization. Additionally, an empirical study by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) on the impact of organizational
citizenship behavior on organizations evinced that OCB of employees contributes up to 17% of the performance of organizations.

In summary, Podsakoff et al. (2000) exposes the reasons why encouraging OCB in organizations positively impacts on the success of every organization. They include the fact that OCB:

- leads to enhanced co-worker and managerial productivity;
- frees up resources that can be used for more productive purposes;
- helps to coordinate activities within and across groups;
- strengthens the organization’s ability to attract and retain the best employees;
- increases the stability of the organization’s performance; and
- allows the organization to adapt more effectively to organizational changes.

Gleaning from many years of research works on OCB, these prominent authors: Podsakoff et al. (2000) and Organ (1988) proposed various dimensions of OCB. According to Podsakoff et al. (2000), the dimensions include a helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual intuitiveness, civic virtue, and self-development. On the other hand, the model by Organ (1988) which has been adopted by most studies (e.g. Ali & Waqar, 2013; Moghadam, Moosavi & Dousti, 2013) consists of five (5) factors: courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, altruism, and civic virtue. This study however adopted the dimensions of OCB as explained by Organ (1988) as follows:

**Courtesy:** This component describes the act of helping co-workers to avoid problems from occurring. Specifically, when it comes to acts such as considering the impact of ones’ actions on co-workers; not abusing the rights of others; preventing problems with other workers and
being mindful of actions that affect the jobs of others (Organ, 1988, 1990; Podsakoff., 1990, 2000).

Conscientiousness: This dimension reflects employees’ voluntary behavior that is carried out above the minimum requirement expected of them by their respective organizations. It touches on behaviors related to punctual attendance at work, not taking extra breaks, obedience to company’s rules and giving ones maximum effort relative to the pay received (Organ, 1988, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Additionally, it refers to the employee’s effort to complete his/her project using overtime and not requesting overtime payment (Schnake, Dumler & Cochran, 1993).

Sportsmanship: To be a good sportsman is to avoid complaining and murmuring when the actions of others inconvenience an individual. Sportsmanship as a dimension of OCB demands that employees still maintain a positive attitude even when things do not go in their favor and not take offense when their suggestions in the form of ideas are not taken into consideration. More so, sportsmen are perceived as being willing to sacrifice their interests in exchange of that of the group’s interest (Organ, 1988). According to Podsakoff et al., (2000) examples of such voluntary behaviors include: not blaming co-workers; ability to tolerate the organization’s problems; showing respect to fellow workers and refraining from complaining about work given.

Altruism: This is also known as helping behaviors. Altruism reflects discretionary behaviors of employees to help others to complete and solve problems that they face in relation to their jobs (Organ, 1988; 1990; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Specifically, such behaviors include helping others with heavy loads and voluntarily orienting new employees (Podsakoff et al., 1990).
Civic virtue: This requires showing a level of interest in the organization—referred to as loyalty. Organ (1988) enlisted some of such behaviors as employees’ active participation in meetings and making innovative contributions on issues concerning the organization. Organ further noted that coping with organizational changes, reporting unusual workplace incidence and helping to avoid organizational hazards are all examples of the civic virtue behavior.

Based on the impact of OCB on the performance of organizations, it was speculated that:

\textit{H7a}: Employees in the high performing banks will score higher on OCB than those in the low performing banks

2.2.2.2 Counterproductive Work Behaviors (CWB)

CWB is also referred to in literature as Workplace deviance behavior. They refer to actions by employees that have detrimental effects or cause harm to the organization and its workers in one way or the other (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001). They are usually seen as being contrary to the legitimate interests of the organization (Sackett, 2002). Penney and Spector (2002) further described the concept as employees’ behaviors that “harm their organization or organization members, such as theft, sabotage, interpersonal aggression, work slowdowns, wasting time and/or materials, and spreading rumors” (p. 126). However in an effort to define such behaviors as voluntary, Mount, Ilies and Johnson (2006) referred to CWB as discretionary acts and this adds to the fact that employees have the choice of whether or not to engage in CWB. Spector and Fox (2005) also added that CWB are voluntary acts by employees which are intended to negatively affect their stakeholders (co-workers, customers, and supervisors).
Similarly, Robinson and Bennett (1995) define destructive deviance as “voluntary behaviors that violates significant organizational norms, thus threatening the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (cited in Bodankin & Tziner, 2009, p.550). In a comprehensive study on the concept of CWB, Parvez and Anjum (2013 p. 418) enumerated from various authors that such detrimental behaviors could include: anger (Neuman & Baron, 1997), modding (Zapf & Einarsen, 2005), impoliteness (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), violence in the workplace (Barling, Dupré, & Kelloway, 2009), deviation (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), retaliation (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) and protest (Kelloway, Lori, Matthew & James, 2010).

It is also important to note that even though CWB has generally been portrayed as being harmful to employees and the organization, other researchers believe otherwise. CWB has also been evinced as being helpful to organizations in one way or the other especially when done with good intentions and in the quest to meet organizational goals (see: Umphress & Bingham, 2011). This has been referred to in literature as ‘constructive deviance’ (Tziner, Fein, Sharoni, Bar-Hen, & Nord, 2010; Tziner, Goldberg, & Or, 2006). According to Galperin (2003), they are behaviors of employees that defy the norms and rules of the organization to boost the well-being of the organization. An example is a manager’s decision to violate set procedures in order to help solve a client’s problem. Since constructive deviance in a way helps in the effective functioning of the organization, it is sometimes seen as employees exhibiting OCB. However, it differs in that OCB does not have to defy the norms and regulations of the organization like compared to constructive deviance. Nonetheless for the purpose of this study, CWB is assessed through the spectacles of being harmful acts to employees and the organization as a whole.
Just as OCB is two-dimensional (OCB-I and OCB-O), CWB can likewise be directed towards individuals and towards organization in general (Gruys & Sackett, 2003). Gruys & Sackett, (2003) defined CWB as “any intentional behavior on the part of an organizational member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests” (p. 30). Therefore, employees who engage in CWB are bound to direct them either towards co-workers (CWB-I) or the organization (CWB-O) (Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

**CWB-I:** Counterproductive work behaviors directed towards workers have also been referred to as interpersonal deviance in literature (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Sackett, 2002). It can also be towards other stakeholders such as supervisors and customers of the organization (Mount, Illies, Johnson, 2006). Such behaviors are further defined as political deviance and personal aggression. **Political deviance** includes the acts of blaming others for one’s mistakes and showing favoritism whereas harassment, gossiping about fellow workers and stealing from them also reveals act of **personal aggression.** More so, Bennet and Robinson (2000) lists behaviors such as employees making fun of or cursing at other workers; publicly embarrassing and making ethnic or religious comments about others at the workplace as examples CWB-I.

**CWB-O:** CWB directed towards the organization has also been sectioned into production deviance and property deviance. Production deviance refers to actions that are against the norms of the organization as related to the work quality or quantity (Robinson & Bennet, 1995). They can also be referred to as intentional ways by which employees decide to fail on assigned tasks given (Chen & Spector, 1992). On the other hand, deviance in relation to organizational property occurs when employees resort to damaging the assets of the organization (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Examples of such behaviors include: taking the
organization’s property without permission; littering the work environment; putting less effort than required; and intentionally coming late to the workplace (Bennet & Robinson, 2000).

In view of the numerous studies reviewed it was hypothesized that:

**H7b**: Employees in the low performing banks will score higher on CWB than those in the high performing banks.

### 2.2.3 Emotional Intelligence

In recent times the impact of emotions in the workplace has been given much attention. This has therefore been championed by works like ‘The Managed Heart’ by Hochschild (1983) and ‘Emotional Intelligence’ by Goleman (1995). More so, a study conducted on the impact of leadership style and emotions on the subordinates’ performance stated that both leaders and workers are expected to express themselves by their emotions even in the workplace (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). That is, emotions are not excluded from the workplace setting because both leaders and their subordinates are equally exposed to work demands that influence their feelings, attitudes and behaviors. However, it is also important to know that these emotions can either be positive (e.g. optimism and joy) or negative (e.g. frustration and anger). These emotional expressions necessitated the introduction of the concept of EI both in the organizational and educational settings to help organize day-to-day work effectively (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012).

EI has been viewed as a major influence on the positive attitudes, behaviors and outcomes of employees in the workplace (Carmeli, 2003). More importantly, organizations require competent leaders whose cardinal quality is being emotionally intelligent (Dulewicz, Young
& Dulewicz, 2005; Goleman, 1998). EI has also been adjudged as being twice as important when compared to both technical and intellectual intelligence required for jobs on all levels (Dulewicz, Young & Dulewicz, 2005; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Druskat & Wolff, 2001). According to Goleman (1996), whereas 20 percent of success in life is perceived to be contributed by intellectual intelligence, 80 percent is attributed to other factors. Neely-Martinez (1997) further commented in his writing on ‘The smart count’ in an HR magazine that 80 percent of success can be accounted for by the art of being emotionally intelligent.

Numerous scholars in literature have contributed to defining the concept of EI. The common definitions used are by Goleman (1995), Bar-On (1996) and Mayer and Salovey (1997) prominent scholars of EI. It is however important to know that even though these authors have different definitions of the concept of EI they are not contradictory but rather complementary. For instance, Goleman (1995) referred to EI as one’s ability to be self-motivated, control impulses and delay gratification, regulate moods, empathize, as well as recognize and manage appropriately one’s feelings and those of others. In addition, he defined EI as “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships” (Goleman, 1998a, p. 317). EI according to Bar-On has been criticized as being overly broad as it encapsulates abilities such as emotional self-awareness, independence, empathy, interpersonal relationship, social responsibility, problem solving, stress tolerance, impulse control, happiness and optimism (cited in Zeng & Miller, 2001). However, Salovey and Mayer (1997) being the first to coin the term ‘Emotional Intelligence’ treated it as a subset of social intelligence. According to Salovey and Mayer, EI “is the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional
knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions in order to promote emotional and intellectual growth.”

EI has been sub-dimensioned into various components. Goleman (1998a) for instance developed five (5) dimensions of EI made up of self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. However to have a more concrete and solid scope of all the emotional competencies, Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000) further grouped them into four (4): self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management). In congruence with Goleman, the first three components (i.e. self-awareness, self-regulation and motivation) are all self-management skills whiles the last two (i.e. empathy and social skills) are related to a person’s ability to manage his/her relationships with others referred to as relationship management by Boyatzis et al. (2000). These are further explained below:

**Self-awareness:** This component asserts that “knowing one’s emotions, recognizing a feeling as it happens – is identified as the keystone of EI” (Goleman, 1996, p. 43). Goleman further adjudged self-awareness as the most important dimension of EI and associates it with self-control or self-managing. Mayer and Salovey (1997) added that being aware of one’s emotions (i.e. self-awareness) is about understanding the moment-to-moment feelings and the channel through which they are expressed- either verbally or non-verbally. Self-awareness is therefore the ability to recognize personal emotions, strengths, weaknesses, needs and their potential effects on others.

**Self-regulation:** Emotions are said to be driven by biological impulses and even though they cannot be done away with, they can be managed via self-management (Goleman, 1998). Self-regulation requires a reflective approach to the feelings before acting them out and this helps
us to be free from being imprisoned by our feelings. Goleman in 2006 advanced that leaders with the quality of managing their feelings are able to create trust and fairness in the workplace. More so, self-regulation among employees’ plays a key role in the business setting by giving organizations a competitive edge over their competitors.

Interestingly, Fisk and Friesen (2012) presents three (3) identified ways in which emotions can be regulated: natural expression, deep acting and surface acting. Natural expression of emotions is done when the internal emotions of the individual match or are congruent with the expected emotions to be displayed (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). On the other hand, deep acting is the method of consciously tuning the internal feelings to rather match with external expressions (Graney, 2000). However, one disadvantage of this approach may be that the person using deep acting may not have the satisfaction of expressing his/her genuine feelings even though they appear genuine to the observers. Lastly, self-regulation could also be done through surface acting- which is a contrast to deep acting in the sense that it is only the individuals’ bodily gestures that are changed to suit what is actually expected and is often referred to by Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) as “acting in bad faith” (p. 32).

Motivation: This trait is deemed as one that is possessed by all effective leaders as it helps to drive employees to perform beyond expectation. Leaders with motivation help to improve work by identifying new avenues. It is summarized as having the drive for achievement; being committed to initiative and being optimistic (Goleman, 1998).

Empathy: This component of EI centers on understanding and considering the feelings of employees when it comes to making intelligent decisions in the workplace. In relating it to leadership, Goleman (1998) asserts that empathetic leaders communicate organizational
change to the employees in a way that is devoid of fear and panic but rather encourages co-operation.

_Social skills_: Leaders with this ability are driven by the assumption that nothing important gets accomplished on its own but must be initiated: therefore relationships have to be consciously built and maintained. Social skills are however an embodiment of the other EI dimensions (i.e. self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, and empathy) (Goleman, 2006). Goleman (1998a) summarizes this component of EI as being associated with influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, collaboration, co-operation and team capabilities.

### 2.3 Theoretical Framework

Several explanations are given in literature that account for the inter-relationships existing between the variables (transformational and transactional leadership styles, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior and emotional intelligence) under the study. These include the leader-member exchange theory and emotion-centered Model.

#### 2.3.1 Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Until recent times, the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory was originally termed as “Vertical Dyad Linkage” by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975). Leadership literature evinces that compared to other leadership theories the leader-member exchange theory is perhaps the most researched over the past 30 year period (cited in Goertzen & Fritz, 2004). The theory came into existence when leadership research was seen as being incomplete as was only directed towards the leader – looking at their traits or behaviors (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Further in their work on the relationship based approach to leadership, Graen and Uhl-
Bien posited that leadership as a concept is made up of the three domains: the leader, follower and the relationship between them (i.e. leader-member exchange). According to Liden, Sparrowe, and Wayne (1997) “the central premise behind LMX is that within work units, different types of relationships develop between leaders and their subordinates, or members. These relationships are characterized by the physical or mental effort, material resources, information and/or emotional support exchanges between the two parties” (p. 48). They added that the LMX relationship could either be one of high quality or a low one depending on the kind of social exchange that takes place between both parties. Where high LMX connotes “high levels of information exchange, interaction, trust, respect, support, mutual influence, and rewards whereas the low quality LMX points to a low level of interaction, trust, formal relations, one-directional influence (manager employee), limited support, and few rewards” (Bauer & Green, 1996; cited in Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2014). In short, LMX theory is defined as the quality of relationship that is shared between the leader and the subordinates (Krumm, 2001) and also as a dyadic relationship between leaders and their subordinates (Graen & Cashman, 1975).

The theory explains that the leader’s relationship with each subordinate differs compared to others (Liden, Sparrowe & Wanye, 1997) and the leaders’ behavior towards their subordinates is perceived differently (Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982; Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975). It is important to know that the assumption for the LMX theory is based on the Social Exchange Theory (SET). According to Homans (1958), SET represents “an influential paradigm in examination of any exchange relationship and posits that human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis” (p. 597). The basic proposition is that people tend to repeat actions that were rewarded in the past, and the more often a particular behavior has resulted in a reward the more likely it is that a person will
implement it (cited in Chernyak-Hai & Tziner, 2014). Therefore when employees perceive that their leaders are treating them well, they are obligated to also reciprocate by engaging in positive behaviors towards the leader (Lavelle et al., 2009) and the organization in general (Organ, 1988). More so, when the emotional expectations of the relationship between both parties are not met, employees tend to be dissatisfied and are likely to rather reciprocate negative behaviors towards the organization (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997).

Empirical studies have confirmed that the leader-member relationship ultimately impacts organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance appraisal, employee turnover intentions, organizational commitment (de Jong & Den Hartog, 2007; Gerstner & Day, 1997), and citizenship behaviors (Bauer & Green, 1996). However, when the LMX relationship is perceived to be higher, employees are also likely to reciprocate with positive behaviors often termed as OCB (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Tierney, Bauer & Potter, 2002) and the opposite is true when the relationship is perceived as being low- employees tend to respond with negative behaviors leading to CWB (Sahlins, 1972; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). In congruence with this, Townsend, Phillips and Elkins (2000) revealed that supervisors tend to record high displays of CWB by employees when a poor relationship exists between the leader and followers. On the flip side, a mutual relationship positively affects the tendency of the subordinates to engage in OCB (Deluga, 1994).

2.3.2 Emotion-Centered Model

This model by Spector and Fox (2002) explains the concept of voluntary employee behaviors (CWB and OCB) from the emotional point of view. The model indicates that the emotional responses of employees at the workplace play a pivotal role when it comes to addressing the voluntary behaviors they exhibit. Thus, emotions influence the choice of voluntary behaviors
an employee chooses to exhibit and for the purpose of this present study either OCB or CWB. Spector and Fox added that when employees experience negative emotions there is the likelihood of they engaging in CWB whereas positive emotions evoke OCB. Negative emotions include anger, anxiety, boredom, and depression whiles positive emotions range from cheerfulness, contentment, enthusiasm to happiness. These emotions are however evoked by various situations such as the job and organizational conditions. Situations that negatively affect the emotions of employees elicit direct CWB-through intimidation and threats or indirectly-through avoiding work and drinking alcohol.

On the flip side, a situation that brings about positive emotions is likely to motivate employees to be engaged in their jobs thereby exhibiting OCB. For example, when an individual feels mistreated by the supervisor they are likely to respond with CWB and the opposite is true when they feel they are treated well. Spector and Fox concluded by commenting that the model is not to posit that emotion is solely responsible for the voluntary behavior of individuals but that it rather influences the tendency of engaging in either OCB or CWB under certain conditions.

2.4 EMPIRICAL REVIEW

2.4.1 Leadership Styles and Voluntary Work Behaviors

Literature on leadership is constantly growing to discover more about how the behavior of leaders affects the performance of employees in the workplace. Leadership has also been seen as a core antecedent to various employee behaviors (Bambale, Shamsudin & Subramaniam, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Burton, 2002) and in recent times linked to the willingness of employees to engage in voluntarily acts (OCB and CWB). For instance, Van Yperen, Van Den Berg & Willering, (1999) in a multilevel analysis
made it clear that leadership does not really exist when employees are not motivated to display voluntary actions which are above their minimum job requirements. More so, the two styles of leadership that affect employees’ voluntary work behavior have been identified in literature to be the transformational (Zabihi, Hashemzehi, Tabrizi, 2012; Bambale, Shamsudin & Subramaniam, 2011) and transactional leadership styles (Rubin, Bommer, & Bachrach, 2010; Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008). This section of the review looks at how these leadership styles influence the voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB) of employees.

2.4.1.1 Transformational and Transactional Leadership’s Relationship with OCB

The interest in the relationship existing between leadership styles (transformational and transactional leadership) and OCB in empirical research has received much attention in recent years. In an attempt to collate the various works done on these two variables (i.e. leadership styles and OCB), Bambale, Shamsudin and Subramaniam (2011) concluded that works in relation to managing employees using the transformational style of leadership and its influence on employees’ OCB has received more attention compared to the adoption of the transactional style of leadership. According to Bass (1985), this could be due to the fact that leadership, especially the transformational style, is revealed in empirical literature as one that motivates employees to perform above and beyond their minimum expectations. Further research also shows that in order for employees to do over and above their job assignment they need to feel motivated. For instance, Kark and Shamir (2002) posited that the most significant effect of transformational leadership on its employees is its ability to influence followers to work for an organization; not focusing on their own interests but the welfare of the organization leading to OCB.
More so, Paalanen and Hyypiä (2008) adopted the action research approach in their study during an Innovation Catcher process. The study which sought to find out what factors motivate employees at the workplace revealed that the practice of the transformational style of leadership serves as a motivating factor which influences employees to work beyond the clearly defined boundaries of their job description. In congruence with this notion, Bass in 1990 in a work titled ‘From transactional to transformational’ revealed that when managers undergo training in how to be transformational leaders, they tend to encourage citizenship behaviors compared to those trained to be transactional leaders.

Lin, Li and Hsiao (2012) conducted a study among nurses in two districts of northern Taiwan. The study juxtaposed transformational leadership and OCB and findings revealed that a significant positive relationship exists between transformational leadership and employees’ motivation to engage in citizenship behaviors. The researchers suggested that for the organization to encourage OCB among nurses, their managers would have to improve their leadership styles to be more transformational. Additionally, in the same country (Taiwan) and among the Research and Development personnel of the communication industry, Chen, Hsieh and Lee (2008) also conducted a similar study. The results of the study evinced that supervisors’ transformational leadership style was seen to be significantly and positively correlated with the OCB of employees.

More so, Moosavi and Dousti (2013) sought to determine how transformational leadership relates to the OCB of the workers. The researchers found out that there exist a strong relationship between the two variables, that is transformational leadership has a positive impact on the motivation of employees to engage in citizenship behaviors. Consistent with these findings is a study by Saeed and Ahmad (2012) which adopted a case study approach
among the administration staff of the University of Punjab. The results proved that when leadership is perceived to be transformational, employees tend to exhibit OCB on their job.

In contrast to the numerous research findings, Hutahayan, Astuti, Raharjo and Hamid (2013) in their study sought to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership, organizational culture and reward to OCB. Their findings showed that the practice of transformational leadership rather has no significant effect on the employees’ motivation to exhibit citizenship behaviors. In support of this, a study involving 155 full time employees of Bank Syariah Mandiri in Malang by Maharani, Troena and Noermijati (2013) applied OCB as a mediator between transformational leadership and other variables such as job satisfaction and how they affect employee performance. The results showed no significant relationship between transformational leadership and employees OCB. In support of this assertion, a recent study conducted among civil servants working in the public sector of the Swiss also revealed that there was no direct effect of transformational leadership on OCB of the subordinates (Ritz, Giauque, Varone & Anderfuhrren-Biget, 2014).

For the first time in the Arab world, Suliman and Al Obaidli (2013) conducted a study to find out the influence of leadership behaviors on OCB of employees in the Islamic banking sector. Contrary to numerous findings their results shows that transactional leadership style rather had a stronger positive impact on the OCB of employees compared to transformational leadership even though the difference was recognized as being small. However, Khan, Ghouri and Awang (2013) in their study revealed that transformational, transactional and charismatic leadership styles all had strong relationship with OCB. The transformational leadership style was however seen to be higher in its influence on OCB than transactional and charismatic leadership.
More so, in a bid to test a theory-based model, Lian and Tui (2012) in their study sought to predict the relationship that exist between leadership styles, subordinates’ competence, downward influence tactics and the outcome of OCB among selected organizations in Malaysia. The findings from their study showed that the transactional style of leadership was negatively related with OCB whereas that of transformational style and OCB was positive. These findings imply that there is a direct effect of the various styles of leadership on subordinates’ outcome. Similarly, Vigoda-Gadot (2007) sought to mediate employees’ perceptions of politics between supervisors’ leadership style and employee performance measured as their citizenship behaviors. The results of the analysis on the direct relationship revealed that transformational leadership had a positive connection with OCB whiles transactional leadership was rather negatively correlated with OCB.

Furthermore, Eisenbeiss and Griesser (2007) conducted a study with 91 leaders (department heads and group leaders) from diverse German companies ranging from insurance, telecommunication, to banks. One core objective was to investigate the relationships that exist between leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and employees’ OCB. The findings agreed with that of Vigoda-Gadot (2007) positing that transformational leadership positively relates to OCB whiles portraying a negative relationship when it comes to the transactional style of leadership.

In a comparative and a more recent study, Zabihi, Hashemzehi and Tabrizi (2012) sought to determine the relationship that exists between leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and OCB among Social Security Organizations in Mashhad. The study indicated that both transformational leadership and transactional leadership positively predicted the OCB of employees. However, the transformational style of leadership had the
greater impact in influencing employees to do so as compared to the transactional style of leadership. Also, Ali and Waqar (2013) in a similar research used nine (9) school heads and 120 school teachers in Rawalpindi. The results evinced that OCB was found to be positively related with the elements of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles). Comparatively, transformational style of leadership was seen to be highly correlated to OCB than transactional leadership.

Therefore, based on the review of existing literatures, it was speculated that:

**H1:** Transformational leadership will have a more significant positive relationship with OCB than transactional leadership.

### 2.4.1.2 Transformational and Transactional Leadership’s Relationship with CWB

In spite of the numerous studies confirming the influence leadership has on the behavior of subordinates, very little has however been done on the role leadership plays in predicting the occurrence of CWB among employees. However some of the works done have been reviewed as follows.

In using both the supervisors’ and subordinates’ reports of CWB, Newton (2007) conducted a study among selected western Canadian organizations with the aim of understanding how leader-member relations predict the likelihood of employees’ CWB. The findings revealed that, unintentionally, the behaviors of leaders can increase the likelihood of CWB of their employees especially when employees perceive that they are treated poorly. The leaders’ behavior was also seen as an antecedent of evoking negative emotions in their employees which leads to the exhibition of CWB. Furthermore, the research demonstrates that when lower leader-member relationship exists, employees tend to display negative emotions in the
form of CWB. Thus when employees feel a sense of connection between them and their managers, the likelihood of engaging in CWB is low and the opposite is true when that relationship is perceived to be weak.

In connection with the leadership style, transformational leaders have been portrayed as being able to establish a sense of belonging within their employees especially with their display of individualized consideration. Individualized consideration is displayed when the leader relates to the employees individually and not only as a group (Modassir & Singh, 2008). According to Newton (2007), the sense of connection between the leader and subordinates influences the degree to which they will engage in voluntary behaviors particularly CWB. In support of this, Rajnandini, Schrisheim and Williams (1999) in their work on fairness perceptions acting as mediators for transformational and transactional leadership posited that the transformational leadership style has the ability to prevent employees from engaging in CWB.

Additionally, Kessler, Bruursema, Rodopman and Spector (2013) in a recent study sought to examine the stressor-strain process using leadership interpersonal conflict and CWB. Using the job stressor model by Spector and Fox (2002) and a sample of 116 employees-coworker dyads, they speculated that in an organization where employees perceive the style of leadership as transformational, there would be a minimal likelihood of employees’ engagement in CWB. Congruent with Newton (2007), Spector and Fox suggested that the reason for this finding could be because of the quality of individualized consideration embedded in the transformational style of leadership. They added that individualized consideration gives the employees some form of excitement and mission (termed as inspirational motivation) which consequently curbs the occurrence of CWB in organizations.
On the other hand, passive leadership which is often likened to a dimension of transactional leadership (i.e. management-by-exception- passive) was speculated to be a type of stressor and capable of evoking deviant behaviors from the employees. It was however positively related with the tendency of employees displaying CWB.

Using the emotion-centered model, Bruursema (2004) in a study sought to assess leadership styles and the link they have with CWB. The study supported the hypothesis that there would be a significant relationship between leadership styles and CWB of employees. In that, the transactional style of leadership was found as being directly associated with CWB whiles transformational leadership showed an inverse relationship with CWB. In a detailed discussion of the findings, the researcher added that the management-by-exception (passive) dimension of transactional leadership had a positive influence on the employees desire to display CWB in an organization- thus causing employees to exhibit CWB. The reason was that leaders who operate the management-by-exception (passive) style take actions only when a problem occurs. Thus, employees tend to engage in CWB’s with the notion that they will not be caught because of the delay in the supervisors’ monitoring. On the other hand, management-by-exception (active) showed no relationship with employees’ tendency to exhibit CWB’s. This is also so because employees perceive active managers as being proactive about the problems of the organization which deters them from engaging in CWB due to the likelihood of being caught.

Finally, a survey by Brown and Treviño (2003) used reports from 469 leaders representing two categories of employees in a large health care organization. The study sought to investigate the effect of leadership styles on the conduct of their employees which are unethical towards the co-workers and the organization at large. The study however speculated
after a critical literature review that employees of a transformational leader will display lesser acts of deviant behavior compared to those who are not- thus speculating a negative relationship between them. In support of their speculation, the transformational style of leadership was found to minimize the occurrences of employees’ CWB.

It was however speculated that:

\( H2a \): Transformational leadership style will have a significant negative relationship with CWB.

\( H2b \): Transactional leadership style will have a significant positive relationship with CWB.

2.4.2 Transformational and Transactional Leadership’s Relationship with EI

Leadership coupled with EI has been portrayed in extant literature as key to outstanding employees and organizational performance (Goleman, 1998a). According to Goleman, without EI a person can be intellectually and technically equipped but will still not display very good leadership abilities. Thus, the ability to understand and regulate one’s emotions and that of others enhances the effectiveness of leadership styles (George, 2000). Empirical studies in general posit a positive relationship between leadership and EI and this is reviewed in the following research works.

Barbuto and Burbach (2006) conducted a study on the effect of the EI of transformational leaders among 80 elected public officials in the United States. The study used a 3-6 direct report staffers for each leader and the results revealed that EI plays a major role in making leadership effective in its operation. Specifically, the transformational style of leadership was found to be positively related with all items of EI. The study further looked at the relationship between the various dimensions of EI as against that of transformational leadership and the
results were as follows. Empathy, as component of EI, was significantly correlated with all dimensions of transformational leadership; which means that when leaders show genuine concern towards employees, it tends to boost the positive effect of transformational leadership on the employees. However, the mood regulation of leaders rather has a negative relationship with intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence (dimensions of transformational leadership).

In agreement with Barbuto and Burbach (2006), a recent study on the correlation between transformational leadership and EI confirmed that the two variables (transformational leadership and EI) are positively related and complementary in their use (Humaira Naznin, 2013). Furthermore, Gardner and Stough (2002) examined the relationship between leadership and EI among senior level managers in an organization. Their finding showed that there exists a strong connection particularly between transformational leadership and all the components that make up EI (emotional recognition and expression, emotions direct cognition, understanding of emotions external, emotional management and emotional control).

However, in comparing the relationship between EI and the two key leadership styles (transformational and transactional), Gardner and Stough (2002) confirmed that leaders who were transformational were found to be more capable of managing their own feelings and that of their subordinates thereby exhibiting EI in their work environment. Thus, when leaders were perceived to be transformational in their approach of leading than being transactional, they were identified as being more emotionally intelligent. The researchers concluded that EI is the most significant predictor of transformational leadership. It is therefore not surprising
that Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) made bold claims that the components of EI form the core of transformational leadership.

In an exploratory study, Barling, Slater and Kelloway (2000) sought to further study the dimensions of the transactional and transformational styles of leadership and how they relate to EI. Using a total number of 60 managers including vice presidents, general and middle managers as well as supervisors, their findings concluded that leaders with high EI are perceived by their employees as exhibiting more transformational leadership behaviors rather than the transactional. They further suggested that in order to enhance the effect of the transactional style of leadership, leaders should also be trained to display EI in their daily engagement with employees.

In contrast to most results revealing a strong and positive link between transformational leadership and EI, Modassir and Singh (2008) in a study on determining the relationship between transformational leadership and the leaders’ emotional intelligence revealed that no significant relationship was found between the two variables. Similarly, a research based on 62 independent samples by Harms and Credé (2010) adopted two methods for rating; which are the same and multisource methods of data collection. The overall results of the test revealed that EI did not have a strong link with transformational leadership. However, across the various dimensions of transformational leadership, the results from the same source raters showed moderate effects compared to different raters that showed small effects. Harms and Credé (2010) further commented that the lower effects could be attributed to the multiple raters adopted by the research. However, the researchers concluded that the fact that low effects were recorded between the variables does not debunk the notion that EI still plays a key role in making leaders effective.
Lam and O’Higgins (2012) conducted a study in two large organizations in Shanghai, China. The study sampled 323 individuals which were made up of both managers and employees. The study sought to investigate the effect the managers’ EI has on both leadership styles and employees outcomes. After a rigorous analysis of the collected data, the findings revealed that the leaders’ EI had a direct influence on the display of transformational leadership skills. The researchers further posited that an organization that seeks to boost the performance of the employees must adopt the transformational style of leadership coupled with an enhancement of the leaders’ EI. Following the review of literature on leadership and EI, the following hypotheses are stated:

**H3a:** Transformational leadership will have a significant positive relationship with EI.

**H3b:** Transactional leadership will have a significant negative relationship with EI.

### 2.4.3 Leaders’ EI Relationship with OCB and CWB

Extant literature also produces evidence that the leader’s EI accounts for the variations in the outcomes of employees’ behavior in organizations (Bagshaw, 2000). For instance, two prominent scholars in the field of EI conducted a study which sought to determine the effects of both leaders’ and the followers’ EI on their performance and attitude. Their study sampled 149 dyads of both supervisors and subordinates during a period in which the supervisors were undertaking a part-time diploma course at a large Hong Kong University. The findings proved that the leaders’ EI was positively related to the job satisfaction and more importantly to employees’ engagement in extra-role behaviors also referred to as voluntary work behaviors (Wong & Law, 2002).
Additionally, Batool (2013) conducted a study among selected employees at the managerial level in the Banking Sector of Pakistan. The researcher sought to explore the existing relationship between effective leadership and EI. It was indicated that a positive and significant relationship exists between the two variables. The studies further showed that when leaders exhibit EI in relating to their employees, it tends to reduce stress and motivates the employees to meet organizational goals and objectives thereby engaging in voluntary work behaviors. Additionally, a study by Yunus, Ishak, Mustapha and Othman (2010) conducted to investigate the impact of the superiors’ EI and the leader-member exchange on the OCB of employees confirmed Batool’s work that the leaders’ EI is a significant predictor of employees OCB.

More so, Modassir and Singh (2008) detailed in their findings that the EI of managers positively affected the conscientiousness of the subordinates who worked under them, signifying that when employees feel appreciated by their leaders it breeds motivation and satisfaction. EI was also found to be positively correlated with altruism which also indicates that when leaders uphold the vision of the organization, employees are motivated to meet the objectives of the organization which also deals with selfishness and rather encourage team work. They therefore concluded that it is only when employees perceive that their leaders understand their feeling and emotions that they are also invest the best of their resources willingly into the organization leading to engaging in OCB. According to Abraham (2004), emotional honesty, self-confidence, and emotional resilience, exhibited as traits of EI, are seen to be positively linked to the OCB of employees of an organization.

Even though there appear to be no empirical study identifying the impact of the leaders’ EI on the CWB of subordinates, Spector and Fox (2002) have referred to the tendency of
employees engaging either in OCB or CWB at a particular time in an emotion-centered model. They advanced that emotions play a critical role when it comes to the employees’ likelihood of engaging in OCB or CWB. According to the model, when employees experience negative emotions, it facilitates CWB while they engage in OCB when they experience positive emotions. A study by Yin (2010) hypothesized that when employees with high EI experience negative emotions they are less likely to engage in CWB compared to those with low EI. This speculation was further supported with the view that EI helps the individual undergoing negative emotions to first of all understand and appropriately control that feeling. This assertion was supported by the study of Ying and Ting (2013). The results of their study revealed an inverse relationship between employees with high EI and CWB and a positive relationship between a low EI and CWB (see also: Bibi, Karim & Din, 2013; Petrides, Frederickson & Furnham, 2004; Deshpande et al, 2005).

However, Burton (2002) reveals that the way leaders express their emotions when it comes to dealing with their employees also affects them, thus the use of emotional as well as verbal abuse affects employees in one way or another and mostly leads to CWB. In summary, the various works reviewed above advance that the level of EI displayed by leaders influence the decision of their subordinates to either engage in OCB or CWB. The following are therefore hypothesized:

**H4a:** Leaders’ EI will have a significant positive relationship with OCB.

**H4b:** Leaders’ EI will have a significant negative relationship with CWB.
2.4.4 The Leaders’ EI as a Mediator

Even though extant research reveals a direct impact of leadership styles on employees’ voluntary work behavior (Zabihi, Hashemzehi & Tabrizi, 2012; Newton, 2007), few studies have also revealed that an indirect relationship including the mediation of the leaders’ EI. For instance, Mackenzie et al., (2001) in their study examined the influence of both transactional and transformational styles of leadership on the OCB of employees. The results indicated a strong direct relationship between leadership styles and OCB as well as an indirect relationship between the variables.

In a recent study among employees of the Banking Sector of Pakistan, Hashmi and Irshad (2014) mediated the leaders’ EI on the relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ OCB. Using a total of 23 organizations and a sample of 300 employees, the study revealed both a direct and an indirect relationship between the variables (i.e. transformational leadership, OCB and EI). Hashmi and Irshad further elaborated that the transformational style of leadership is significantly related to employee’s OCB even though the relationship is not too strong. However, with the introduction of the mediating effect of the managers’ EI on the relationship, the OCB of employees increases significantly as compared to the earlier outcome confirming EI as a mediator between transformational leadership and OCB.

In conformity to the above assertion, a study of managers and supervisors was conducted by Modassir and Singh (2008) to examine the relationship existing between EI, OCB and the transformational style of leadership. Modassir and Singh selected 57 dyads managers with their respective supervisors from various industries located in Goa and Daman (India). The findings from the study demonstrated 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 indicated that with the leaders’ EI, employees of an organization easily showed positive citizenship behaviors towards their respective organizations. The reason being that, an emotionally intelligent leader has the ability to control his/her emotions and at the same time positively influence that of the employees thereby motivating them to engage in extra-role behavior in the form of OCB. Even though the study validated that transformational leadership did not have a direct relationship with OCB, the introduction of the leaders’ EI significantly influences the employees’ tendency to engage in OCB. The researchers concluded by positing that since EI affects the OCB of its followers, it is an essential quality a leader must possess in order to be effective.

More so, Krishnan and Arora (2008) conducted a research among 93 superior-subordinate dyads from various organizations in India to determine the relationships existing between transformational leadership, the leaders’ OCB and the followers’ OCB. The dimensions of transformational leadership used in the study were the leaders’ social skills: which is seen as a fundamental element of EI and even-temperedness also referred to as emotional stability. The study further elaborated that the leaders’ social skills involves the use of emotionally intelligent skills such as listening, inspiring, building relationships whiles being even tempered demands calmness and not losing one’s temper. However, the two social skills of the leader were speculated to positively impact employees’ behavior, specifically encouraging employees OCB. The findings of the study supported the speculation above by positing that when employees perceive managers as displaying social skills and even-temperedness (traits of EI) they also respond by engaging in citizenship behaviors towards the organization. This informed their conclusion that organizations who intend to enhance OCB among employees should recruit managers who are emotionally intelligent or better still
train the existing leaders in order for them to become more emotionally intelligent in their interactions with employees.

Contrary to the norm, Fisk and Friesen (2012) in a survey study looked at the leaders’ EI from the emotion regulation (i.e. self-regulation) point of view. Self-regulation is an EI dimension which is displayed by the leader’s ability to manage his/her emotion (Goleman, 1998). Fisk and Friesen analyzed the perception of 126 employees in relation to their leader’s intelligence to regulate their own emotions and how that influences their OCB. The result evinced that emotional regulation by leaders did not predict whether or not employees engaged in OCB. The researchers however suggested that these findings could be due to the nature of work of the employees and the kind of relationships that exist among the workers (e.g. team cohesion) and largely on the leader-follower relationship.

In connection with the mediating role of the leaders’ EI on the leadership styles- CWB relationship, a study situated in 7 public sector organizations was conducted to examine the relationship between conflict, bullying, and counterproductive behavior in the workplace. The researchers, Ayoko, Callan and Härtel (2003) assessed the bullying behavior of the leaders towards their employees such as being ignored, intimidated, criticized, cut off, shouted at, humiliated, afraid, threatened verbally, depressed and feeling undermined- which are all emotionally expressed and more so contrary to behaviors that reveal the EI of a leader. The study further showed that when employees are subjected to such emotional reactions from their leader they reciprocate by engaging in CWB. In conclusion, Ayoko, Callan and Härtel also suggested that managers need to be trained in the skills of being emotionally intelligent in other to minimize the tendencies of employees’ involvement in CWB. On this premise the following were hypothesized:
2.4.5 Conceptual Framework

In view of the above theoretical and empirical review, a model was developed to reflect the diverse relationships that exist between the variables under study. In summary, the model posits that the transformational and transactional styles of leadership will predict the tendency of employees to engage in OCB and CWB. Furthermore, the relationship will generally be mediated by the leaders’ EI.

Fig. 2.1 Leadership styles as a predictor of voluntary work behaviors of employees with the leaders’ EI playing a mediating role.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section of the study focused on the various research methods selected to help achieve the objectives as outlined earlier in chapter one. Specifically, the chapter describes the research paradigm underlining the study and relevant issues such as the research design, population, sampling techniques, sample selected, inclusion criterion, research instrument, ethical consideration and the method of analyzing data collected.

3.2 Research Paradigm

According to Guba (1990), the inception of a study is always preceded by the world view of the researcher. This world view is generally referred to as the philosophical assumptions or paradigms of the research. Even though these philosophical assumptions or paradigms are in a way hidden, they need to be considered since they largely predict the direction of a research work (Slife & Williams, 1995). According to Taylor, Kermode and Roberts (2007), a research paradigm is defined as “a broad view or perspective of something” (p. 5). In a more detailed explanation, Kuhn (1970, p.175) referred to it as “a set of beliefs, values, and techniques which is shared by members of a scientific community, and which acts as a guide or map, dictating the kinds of problems scientists should address and the types of explanations that are acceptable to them”. Extant literature however identifies some paradigms used in research as the post positivism, constructivism, advocacy (participatory), pragmatism, critical realism, among others. These paradigms of researchers tend to inform the particular direction of the whole research work. However for the purpose of this study, the post positivism paradigm was adopted.
The post positivism paradigm was adopted because according to Creswell (2009), it is based on the philosophical assumption that seeks to establish the causes of a particular outcome. Secondly, it reduces the phenomenon into fragments which can be tested by the use of objectives and research hypotheses. Thirdly, findings from the post positivist are solicited from an objective point of view. Lastly, it conducts research based on theories: to either confirm or disprove the theories (O’Leary, 2004; Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). These beliefs of the post positivism approach to research are found to be in harmony with the assumptions underlining the present study.

This study determined how leadership styles predict the occurrences of employees’ OCB and CWB of employees, and further examined the mediating role of the leaders’ EI on the relationships. Secondly, the study developed research objectives, questions and the necessary hypotheses to meet them. Thirdly, the researcher used relevant questionnaires to collect data which according to Creswell (2009) represents a more objective approach to research. Additionally, to establish a theoretical basis for the study the researcher identified various related theories such as the leader-member exchange theory and the emotion-centered model.

### 3.3 Research Design

According to Orodho (2003), a research design refers to the outline or plan adopted by the researcher to generate answers to the questions posed in the research. It elaborates on issues such as the time frame, data collection, implementation and number of groups involved in a research (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2012). The study adopted a quantitative, cross-sectional and correlational survey approach.
According to various authors, the quantitative approach is used when the variables in a study can be measured in terms of quantity (Kothari, 2004) and further used to test objective theories (Creswell, 2009). This study therefore adopted the use of four scales which were used in the collection of data for statistical analyses.

Furthermore, the study is described as adopting a cross-sectional approach because according to Neuman (2007), a cross-sectional approach to research is one that takes a snapshot description of the sampled population at a single point in time (see also: Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Thus the study distributed questionnaires to the respondents at one point in time without any additional data collections at a different time.

Lastly, the correlational approach was used. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), the correlational approach of conducting research evinces both magnitude and direction of the relationships existing between the variables adopted for the study. The current study includes the variables: transactional leadership, transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship and counterproductive work behaviors. The researcher sought to determine how these variables inter-relate with each other.

### 3.4 Population

The total population of the study consisted of the employees of the commercial banks that were consistently listed on the Ghana Club 100 rankings from the year 2010 to 2012. The underlying reason for selecting these companies over the three-year period is to assess the consistency of a bank in terms of their performance as measured by the Ghana Club 100. The Ghana Club 100 (GC 100), launched by the Ghana Investment Promotion Council (GIPC) is an annual compilation of the top 100 companies in the country who have exhibited corporate
excellence in their business. Furthermore, rewards are based on the company’s profitability (i.e. Return on Equity- ROE) as well as their growth rate (i.e. product development, marketing and effective management). More so, companies enlisted on the Ghana Club 100 should:

- Be limited liability companies.
- Have government shares less than 50% except for those listed on the Ghana Stock Exchange.
- Have cumulative net profits that are positive for the most recent three-year period.

3.5 Eligibility Criteria

The inclusion of respondents in the study was based on the fact that they were primarily employees of the commercial banks listed on the Ghana Club 100 (i.e. 2010 to 2012 editions). However due to the nature of the variables as well as the objectives of the study, it was required that all the respondents have a manager or supervisor to whom they report. Additionally, since questionnaires were adopted as the main instruments for data collection and required the ability to understand the questions to give the right responses, it was also necessary that participants had the ability to both read and write. Thus, employees lacking the ability to read and write were excluded from the study. The pilot study conducted earlier revealed that the respondents in the banking sector had no difficulties in understanding and filling the survey questionnaires.
3.6 Sample Size

Sample size according to Sekaran (2000) represents a subset of the population chosen for a particular study. Per the three-year rankings (2010-2012), thirteen (13) banks were identified and selected for the study (see: Table 3.1). This was made up of eight (8) banks within the first 50 high performing companies and five (5) low performing banks that appeared at least twice on the bottom 50 over the 3 year period. The second approach was adopted because only few banks were within the bottom 50 companies that were consistent over the 3 year period. As a result, the banks that appeared at least twice as performing below the rank of 50 were added to the study. The notion behind this approach was because the study also sought to compare the results with respect to high performing banks (50 and above) and low performing banks (below 50).

Furthermore, the sample size consists of the branches of the selected banks that were ready to provide data relevant for the study. Out of the accessible population of about 1000 employees, a sample of 278 was estimated using the Mathematical equation developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) (see Appendix B). A total number of 300 questionnaires were administered to respondents out of which 237 were successfully retrieved. However due to improper filling, 3 of the questionnaires were excluded from the number leaving a total of 234 questionnaires as eligible for data entry and analysis. Thus a response rate of 78% was obtained.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME OF BANK</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1-50</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guarantee Trust Bank</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecobank Ghana Limited</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Chartered Bank</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fidelity Bank</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unibank Ghana</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique Trust Bank</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAL Bank</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Bank for Africa</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>51-100</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HFC Bank</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prudential Bank</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahel Sahara Bank</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank of Baroda Ghana</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG-SSB Ghana Limited</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)
Table 3.2: List of Accessible Banks and Number of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branches</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>High Performing Banks</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecobank Ghana Limited</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Chartered Bank</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique Trust Bank</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAL Bank</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Bank for Africa</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fidelity Bank</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unibank Ghana</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Low Performing Banks</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HFC Bank</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prudential Bank</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahel Sahara Bank</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)

3.7 Sample Technique

The study adopted the purposive and simple random sampling techniques for the selection of respondents. First, the research adopted a purposive sampling technique due to the fact that only the banks that were represented on the Ghana Club 100 ranking were considered and more specifically those that were within the high performing class (1-50) and low performing class (51-100) over the 2010 to 2012 year period.
Additionally, a simple random sampling technique was used to select 30 respondents each from 3 branches of each bank. Thus, every employee of the selected branch had an equal opportunity of being selected and this was to help the researcher generalize the findings of the research beyond the sample.

3.8 Data Collection Instruments

The study adopted questionnaires as its method of collecting data. The questionnaire was made up of four (4) main sections to help measure the study variables: transformational and transactional leadership styles, emotional intelligence, organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive workplace behavior. However, preceding the four main sections were questions to collate demographic data of the respondents. It included data concerning the gender, age, educational level, length of service, marital status and job title of the respondents. Below are details of the scales/instrument used to measure the variables of the study.

3.8.1 Leadership Styles

The study used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio (2004). The MLQ instrument is a widely accepted scale for measuring transformational, transactional and laissez-faire style of leadership. However, it contains 31 items for measuring the transformational and transactional leadership styles of the respondents. Nineteen (19) of these items measures the transformational style of leadership which is made up of four (4) dimensions: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Items are measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from- Not all true (1); Once in a while (2); Sometimes (3); Fairly often (4); to Frequently if not always (5). Items on the MLQ includes: my manager expresses...
confidence that goals will be achieved and my manager acts in a way that builds my respect. More so, a study by Wells and Pearch (2011) recorded its average internal consistency reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) as .88 whereas this current study had .840 as its Cronbach’s alpha.

Additionally, the transactional style of leadership was also measured using 12 items listed in the MLQ. Transactional leadership is made up of three (3) dimensions: contingent reward, management-by-exception-active and management-by-exception-passive. Items were also measured on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Frequently if not always). The items used in the instrument include: my manager fails to interfere until problems becomes serious and my manager waits for things to go wrong before taking action. In the same work by Wells and Pearch (2011) above, a Cronbach’s alpha of .71 was recorded for transactional leadership whereas the pilot study for this study recorded .791.

3.8.2 Emotional Intelligence

EI was measured using the scale designed by Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002). It is an 18-item instrument with its Likert scale response ranging from 1= Totally Disagree to 5= Totally Agree. The items included in the scale include my manager understands the implications of his/her emotions on subordinates manager is open to feedback from his/her subordinates and my manager is confident in the execution of his/her duties. The Cronbach’s alpha of the scale was recorded as .63. However, this study recorded a very high Cronbach’s alpha of .966.
3.8.3 Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

OCB was also measured using Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). The scale is made up of the dimensions of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. The items identified in the scale also include altruism- I help others who have heavy loads. Conscientiousness- my attendance at work is above normal. Sportsmanship- I always focus on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side (R). Courtesy- I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers. Civic virtue- I always keep abreast of the changes in the organization. Its Likert scale ranges from 1= Strongly Disagree to 7= Strongly Agree and records a Cronbach’s alpha value of .94 (Klein & Verbeke, 1999; Lam, Hui & Law, 1999; Van Yerpen, Van Den Berg & Willering, 1999). However, this present study after its pilot study recorded and Cronbach’s alpha value of .841.

3.8.4 Counterproductive Workplace Behavior (CWB)

The scale developed by Bennett and Robinsin (2000) was used in measuring the CWB of the respondents. The scale is made up of 12 items measuring organizational deviance and 7 items measuring interpersonal deviance. The items contained in the scale include I made fun of someone at work and I said something hurtful to someone at work (organizational deviance). I put little effort into my work and I dragged out work in order to get overtime (interpersonal deviance). Additionally, the internal reliabilities for the two dimensions of CWB are .81 (organizational deviance) and .78 (interpersonal deviance). The present study however recorded a Cronbach’s alpha value of .81 (organizational deviance) and .78 (interpersonal deviance) and an overall value of .675.
3.9 Pre-Test of Instruments

The process of administering questionnaires to the various respondents was preceded by a piloting exercise. A pilot study is conducted with the aim of proving the validity and effectiveness of the research instrument in soliciting for the relevant data needed to meet the objectives of the study. The piloting process also helps to reveal and correct the weakness in the survey instrument if there is any (Kothari, 2004).

In view of this, a pilot study was conducted using fifteen (15) employees from the Tema East branch of Standard Chartered Bank. However, the 15 employees that took part in the pilot study did not take part in the main study. According to Sekaran (2003), alpha values less than .60 are considered poor. However, the alpha values derived from the pilot study met the reliability requirements since all the variables tested had alpha values above .60.

Table 3.3: Reliability Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Alpha Value</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Valid Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transformational leadership</td>
<td>.840</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional leadership</td>
<td>.791</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional intelligence</td>
<td>.966</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational citizenship behavior</td>
<td>.841</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counterproductive workplace behavior</td>
<td>.675</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)
3.10 Data Analysis

The questionnaires retrieved from respondents were coded and data entry was done using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. Furthermore, the research employed both descriptive and inferential methods of representing and analyzing data. The descriptive analysis approach was however used to analyze the demographic data of the respondents. This method helps to represent data in the form of summary statistics such as frequencies, mean, median, standard deviation of the various responses to item on the measuring scales (Pallant, 2001).

The standard multiple regression was used to analyze hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 because these hypotheses sought to examine the effect of two independent variables (transformational and transactional leadership styles) on one dependent variable (i.e. OCB and CWB respectively). According to Tabachnik and Fidell (2001), this method of analysis is appropriate when the researcher seeks to examine the influence of several variables and when the sample size is more than eighty (80) respondents. Additionally, hypotheses 4a and 4b were both analyzed using a simple linear regression since they sought to establish a linear relationship between the independent variable (EI) and the dependent variables (OCB and CWB).

Additionally, Hypothesis 5 and 6 both sought to investigate whether or not the leaders’ EI played a mediating role between leadership styles (transformational and transactional leadership) and voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB). According to Preacher, Rucker and Hayes (2007), mediation analysis helps the researcher to examine the means by which an independent variable influences the dependent variable. Thus, mediation for the study was analyzed using the Sobel test.
Prior to undertaking the analysis, normality of the data was examined with respect to skewness and kurtosis of the variables. Kline (2005) advanced that absolute values of kurtosis above 10 and skewness greater than 3 indicate a problem. Additionally, Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) ranged the normality of data with its skewness and kurtosis between -2 and +2. However, the data set collected for this study proved normal with all its values for kurtosis and skewness falling between the various ranges.

Table 3.4: Test for Normality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Statistics</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>-.565</td>
<td>.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>.604</td>
<td>.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>-.505</td>
<td>.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>-.077</td>
<td>.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWB</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.159</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)

3.11 Ethical Consideration

In research, ethics refers to the norms that differentiate what is acceptable and unacceptable in the process of conducting the study from start to the finish (Resnik, 2011). Research ethics covers issues like consent, avoiding deception, debriefing, confidentiality, participants’ right of withdrawal from the investigation, protection of participants, among others. These were all adhered to during the present study.
Specifically, Creswell (2009) posited that issues of the respondents’ anonymity, roles and incidents in the research work should be protected. In view of this, the process of data collection started with seeking the consent of banks selected for the research. Additionally, one of the important ethics in research as advanced by the Nuremberg Code (1949), states that “all research participation must be voluntary”. In view of this respondent were allowed to voluntarily participate in the study. They were further made to understand that their responses will be handled with utmost confidentiality and privacy. Respondents were also made to understand that the research was strictly for academic purposes.
CHAPTER FOUR
PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The study generally sought to investigate how leadership styles (i.e. transformational and transactional) respectively predict voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB) of employees in the banking sector of Ghana. Furthermore, the study examined the mediating role of the leaders’ EI on the leadership styles and voluntary work behaviors relationships. The hypotheses were however tested in line with the objectives set for the study. This chapter presents a summary of the results of the study.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section of the chapter shows the distribution and frequencies of the gender, age, level of education, tenure (number of years worked in the organization), marital status and job title of the respondents in selected banks in Ghana.

4.2.1 Gender of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.1: Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>50.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>49.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)
The statistics in relation to the gender of the respondents of the study revealed that of the 234 respondents, 119 (representing 50.9%) were females whiles 115 (representing 49.1%) were males. As shown in Table 4.1 majority of the respondents were females which suggest that more females though marginal work in the banking industry.

### 4.2.2 Age of Respondents

#### Table 4.2: Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 25 years</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-35 years</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-45 years</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56-60 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>234</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)

The age distribution of the respondents presented in Table 4.2 showed that 27 of the respondents (representing 11.5%) were below 25 years; 154 of the respondents (representing 65.8%) were between the ages of 25-35 years; 40 respondents (representing 17.1%) were within the range of 36-45 years; 10 of the respondents (representing 4.3%) were between the ages of 46-55 years; whereas the remaining 1.3% made up of 3 respondents were within the range of 56-60 years. This summary therefore revealed that majority of the respondents were between the ages of 25-35 years suggesting that most of the workers in the banking are mostly at their early stages of their career.
4.2.3 Marital Status of Respondents

Table 4.3: Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>54.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Separated</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>234</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)

Table 4.3 presents the demographics of the respondents with respect to their marital status. The data revealed that majority of the respondents, that is 128 (representing 54.7%) were identified as being single, 104 of the respondents (representing 44.4%) were married whereas the category of those divorced/separated and widowed had 1 respondent each (representing .4% each of the total respondents). This data shows that the banking industry is largely dominated by employees who are single which further supports the statistics of the age distribution as majority of the respondents fall within the youthful range (see: Table 4.2).
4.2.4 Level of Formal Education of Respondents

Table 4.4: Level of Formal Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SSSCE/WASSCE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma/HND</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Degree</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)

The level of formal education as displayed in Table 4.4 revealed that the majority of the employees in the selected banks sampled for the study had their highest level of formal education as first degree holders. Additionally, the results showed that 1 respondent (representing .4%) had Senior Secondary Certificate as his/her highest educational level. More so, 30 of the respondents (representing 12.8%) had Diploma/HND certificates, 153 respondents (representing 65.4%) had First Degrees and the remaining 50 respondents (representing 21.4%) had their Masters or Postgraduate Degrees. This result suggests that formal education especially up to the tertiary level is a key requirement to be able to work in banks and also critical for professional progression since the banking environment is very competitive.
4.2.5 Work Tenure of the Respondents

Table 4.5: Length of Service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 years</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6 years</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-10 years</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 15 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>234</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)

Table 4.5 shows the distribution of the number of years employees have stayed in their respective banks. The frequencies showed that 44 respondents (representing 18.8%) had stayed less than 1 year; 84 respondents (representing 35.9%) have been in their organization from 1-3 years. Furthermore, 71 respondents (representing 30.3%) had spent 4-6 years; 24 of them (representing 10.3%) have spent from 7-10 years. Additionally, 10 respondents (representing 4.3%) have spent 11-15 years and 1 of the respondents (representing .4%) has spent above 15 years in the organization. The summary results clearly shows that majority of the employees have spent from 1-3 years in their respective banks. More so, less that 5% of the respondents have worked for their banks for more than 11 years. It is however not unreasonable to suggest that because of the competitive nature of the banking industry in terms of compensation and other benefits a significant number of employees with years of working experience (over 11 years) may be leveraging on their experience and thereby move from one bank to the other depending on the benefits at stake. Broadly, it appears that as the
length of service of employees increases, the number of employees staying reduces. This may suggest the extent of attrition in the banking industry.

4.2.6 Distribution of Job Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional Area</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer Service Officer</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lawyer</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing Officer</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Business Officer</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation Officer</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship Manager</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Officer</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teller</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>234</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)

The Table 4.6 above reveals that 30 of the respondents of the study (representing 12.8%) function as Customer service officers whiles just 4 of them (representing 1.7%) function as lawyers. Additionally, 17 respondents (representing 7.3%) work as marketing officers whereas 14 of the respondents (representing 6.0%) function as new business officers. Furthermore, 48 respondents (representing 20.5%) function as operation officers; 19 respondents (representing 8.1) function as relationship managers; 16 respondents (representing 6.8%) function as senior officers and 86 respondents (representing 36.8) are tellers. This result simply indicates that banks have majority of their employees being tellers.
### 4.2.7 Distribution of the Type of Bank

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Bank</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ecobank Ghana</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Chartered Bank</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fidelity Bank</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unibank Ghana</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique Trust Bank</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAL Bank</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Bank for Africa</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HFC Bank</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prudential Bank</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahel Sahara Bank</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>234</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)

Table 4.7 shows the number of respondents from the selected banks and their percentages represented in the total data set. Standard Chartered Bank and Fidelity Bank had 30 respondents each (representing 12.8 % each), Unibank Ghana and United Bank for Africa had a total of 21 respondents each (representing 9.0% each), Unique Trust Bank also had a representation of 29 respondents (12.4%) and CAL Bank had 20 respondents (8.5%). Additionally, HFC Bank, Ecobank Ghana and Prudential Bank all had 21 respondents each (representing 8.5% each) and Sahel Sahara Bank had 23 respondents (representing 9.8%).
4.3 Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.8498</td>
<td>.64833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>3.1275</td>
<td>.68367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.8128</td>
<td>.65421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.6394</td>
<td>.48328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWB</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>1.4847</td>
<td>.64409</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)

Table 4.8 above shows the descriptive distribution of each of the variables used in the present study. From the table, transformational leadership had a mean of 3.8498 with an SD = .64833 whiles the transactional style of leadership recorded a mean of 3.1275 with an SD = .68367. However, the mediating variable (i.e. EI) had a mean of 3.8128 and an SD = .65421. Additionally the voluntary behaviors of employees: OCB recorded a mean of 3.6394 and SD = .48328 whiles CWB had its mean as 1.4847 and SD = .64409. Generally, the mean values showed that the respondents were moderate in their responses to questions related to the leadership styles and their voluntary work behaviors especially with CWB. Moreover, the standard deviation values revealed that transformational leadership, transactional leadership, CWB and EI had approximately 70 % variations among the responses from strongly disagree to strongly agree of the respondents, whereas OCB had approximately 50 % variations in the responses.
4.4 Reliability Analysis

Table 4.9: Reliability Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Alpha Value</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transformational leadership</td>
<td>.927</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional leadership</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional intelligence</td>
<td>.946</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational citizenship behavior</td>
<td>.833</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counterproductive work behavior</td>
<td>.961</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field data (2015)

The instrument adopted for the study all proved highly reliable by scoring above .70 (Sekaran, 2003). Transformational leadership had its Cronbach’s alpha to be .927, the transactional style of leadership had .755, emotional intelligence with .946, whereas Organizational citizenship and Counterproductive work behaviors had .833 and .961 respectively. This clearly shows that the instruments used measured what it was intended and thus robust.

4.5 Testing of Research Hypotheses

The study sought to address six main hypotheses and analyses was done using diverse statistical tests such as the simple linear regression, standard multiple regression and the Sobel test calculator for mediation.
4.5.1 Checking the Assumptions

According to Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010), the assumptions of multicollinearity, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence of residuals must be satisfied before running a standard multiple regression.

4.5.2 Assumption of Multicollinearity

According to Pallant (2011), the assumption of multicollinearity seeks to investigate whether or not the independent variables are closely related. Thus when the independent variables are found to be highly correlated, there is what is termed multicollinearity. This assessment is necessary because high correlation among two or more independent variables makes it difficult to determine their unique predictive capabilities on the dependent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In order to assess multicollinearity, Field (2009) advanced that values of VIF should be less than 10 and that of tolerance should be above .20. Consistent with these criteria, the two independent variables (i.e. transformational and transactional leadership) had a VIF value of 1.082 and tolerance of .924. Thus, the values proved that there is no multicollinearity among the two independent variables.

4.5.3 Assumption of Linearity

This assumption of linearity expects a straight-line relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Pallant, 2011). This can however be examined from a bivariate scatter plot which reveals that a unit change in an independent variable causes a responding unit change in the dependent variable. The assumption of linearity was however satisfied in this study as presented in Figure 4.1- 4.6 (Appendix C).
4.5.4 Assumption of Homoscedasticity

With respect to the assumption of homoscedasticity, Hair et al. (2010) advanced that for a data to be qualified for running a regression analysis, the variance of the error terms should appear constant over a range of values of the independent variables. This can also be checked with the bivariate scatterplot which shows an oval shaped rather than a cone or funnel shape (Field, 2009). This assumption for regression analysis was also met since the diagrams revealed an oval shape. (see: Figure 4.1- 4.6, Appendix C).

4.5.5 Independence of Residuals

According to Hair et al. (2006), the independence of residuals means the various predictions are independent of each other (see also: Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A bivariate scatter plot which shows that the points are mostly concentrated in a rectangular pattern satisfies the assumption of the independence of residuals. The scatter plots of this study therefore satisfy this assumption since most of the points are concentrated in a rectangular pattern (see: Figure 4.1- 4.6, Appendix C).

After all these assumptions were satisfied, the various hypotheses were analyzed in relation to the various research objectives and the results are presented as follows:
4.5.6 Hypothesis One (Research Objective One)

The hypothesis investigated the predictive relationships that exist between the leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and the OCB of employees in selected banks in Ghana. It was however stated as:

H1: Transformational leadership will have a more significant positive relationship with OCB than transactional leadership.

Standard multiple regression was used to test the hypothesis and summary of the results are represented in Table 4.10 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.584</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>12.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TFL</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TSL</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.154</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: OCB
b. F value = 13.822, R² = .107, * p< .001, ** p< .05

First, the analysis showed an F value (2,231) = 13.822 which is a statistical indication that the model is significantly fit. Additionally, Table 4.10 generally shows both transformational leadership (β = .249, p< .001) and transactional leadership (β = .154, p< .05) significantly and positively predicted an employee’s tendency to exhibit OCB in an organization. The analysis however indicated that the two leadership styles (transformational and transactional) accounted for approximately 10.7% of the variance in the OCB of employees while 89.3%
represent the unexplained variation. The results therefore supported the speculations of the study (i.e. both leadership styles had a significant and positive relationship with OCB). It also supported the speculation that transformational leadership will be more positively related to OCB than transactional leadership.

4.5.7 Hypothesis Two (Research Objective One)

Hypothesis two also investigated the predictive relationship that exists between leadership styles and CWB of employees in selected banks in Ghana. It was however stated as:

H2a: *Transformational leadership style will have a significant negative relationship with CWB.*

H2b: *Transactional leadership style will have a significant positive relationship with CWB.*

Standard multiple regression was used to test the hypotheses and summary of the results are represented below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.11: Coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: CWB
b. F value = 2.197, $R^2 = .019$, **p<.05
The test for the fitness of the model was confirmed considering an F value (2,231) = 2.197. However, the summary of the results from the standard multiple regression analysis showed that the transformational style of leadership was significantly related to an employee’s CWB ($\beta = -.141, p< .05$) whiles the transactional style of leadership was not significantly related to employees’ CWB ($\beta = .056, p> .05$). The results further revealed that approximately 1.9% of the variation in employees’ CWB is explained by the two leadership styles. However, there was a negative relationship between transformational leadership and CWB whiles a rather positive relationship was found between transactional leadership and employees’ CWB.

In comparing the results and its corresponding hypotheses, Hypothesis 2a (Transformational leadership style will significantly and negatively influence employees’ CWB) was supported whereas Hypothesis 2b (Transactional leadership style will significantly and negatively influence employees’ CWB) was not supported.

**4.5.8 Hypothesis Three (Research Objective Two)**

The hypotheses were stated as:

H3a: *Transformational leadership will have a significant positive relationship with EI.*

H3b: *Transactional leadership will have a significant negative relationship with EI.*

These hypotheses sought to investigate the relationships that exist between the two leadership styles and EI of the leaders. The standard multiple regression was however used to test the hypotheses and results are tabulated below.
Table 4.12: Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.432</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TFL</td>
<td>.525</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>8.813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TSL</td>
<td>-.205</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>-3.625</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: EI
b. F value = 39.607, R² = .255, * p<.001

The model test for this analysis was confirmed to be fit using an F value (2,231) = 39.607. Furthermore, the standard multiple regression analysis for the hypotheses revealed that both the transformational (β= .520, p< .001) and transactional (β= -.214, p< .001) styles of leadership were significantly related with EI. It was also found that 25.5% of the variance in the EI of leaders was explained by both transformational and transactional leadership styles. However, a positive relationship was established between transformational leadership and EI whereas a negative relationship was found between transactional leadership and EI. Thus, hypotheses 3a and b were both supported by the results of the present study.

4.5.9 Hypothesis Four (Research Objective Two)

The hypotheses were stated as:

H4a: Leaders’ EI will have a significant positive relationship with OCB.

H4b: Leaders’ EI will have a significant negative relationship with CWB.

The hypotheses sought to examine the relationship that exist between the independent variable (EI) and the two dependent (OCB and CWB) respectively. The simple linear
regression method of testing was therefore used to examine the relationships and the results are tabulated in Table 4.13.

### Table 4.13: Results of Simple Linear Regression for EI on OCB of Employees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant) 3.009</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>16.457</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI - .165</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.224</td>
<td>3.497</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: OCB.  
b. Note: \( F = 12.232, R^2 = .050, **p<.05 \)

The simple linear regression results for the relationship between EI and OCB was shown to be significant (\( \beta = .224, p < .05 \)) with EI explaining approximately 5% of employees’ exhibition of OCB in organizations. A positive relationship was thus established between EI and employees’ OCB. Finally, the model fit was confirmed at \( F \) value \( = (1,232) = 12.232 \).

### Table 4.14: Results for Simple Linear Regression for EI on CWB of Employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant) 1.864</td>
<td>.249</td>
<td>7.495</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EI - .100</td>
<td>.064</td>
<td>-.101</td>
<td>-1.549</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: CWB  
b. Note: \( F = 2.399, R^2 = .010, **p<.05 \)
With respect to the relationship between EI and CWB, the simple linear regression revealed a non-significant relationship ($\beta = -0.101, p > .05$). The CWB of employees was however found to be approximately explained by 1% of the leaders’ EI. Additionally, a negative relationship was found between EI and its prediction of employees’ CWB. The model was also confirmed to be fit with F value ($1,231) = 2.399$.

In conclusion, hypothesis 4a was fully supported whereas 4b was not as it rather revealed an insignificant yet negative relationship between EI and CWB of employees.

**4.5.10 Hypotheses Five and Six (Research Objective Two)**

The hypotheses investigated whether or not the leaders’ EI mediates the relationship between the leadership styles and the OCB and CWB of employees in the Ghanaian banking sector. They were therefore stated as follows:

H5a: Leaders’ EI will mediate the transformational leadership styles and OCB relationship.

H5b: Leaders’ EI will not mediate the transactional leadership styles and OCB relationship.

H6a: Leaders’ EI will not mediate the transformational leadership styles and CWB relationship.

H6b: Leaders’ EI will not mediate the transactional leadership styles and CWB relationship.
Table 4.15: Mediation Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationships</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T- Statistics</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IV &amp; MEDIATOR</td>
<td>MEDIATOR &amp; DV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Stand. Error</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFL-EI-OCB</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSL-EI-OCB</td>
<td>-.068</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFL-EI-CWB</td>
<td>.466</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>-.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSL-EI-CWB</td>
<td>-.068</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>-.100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.05

Using the Sobel test, the results of the various relationships as shown in Table 4.15 supported the speculations made in the study. It is however important to note that where the p-value of the tested relationships is not less than the alpha value of .05, there is no evidence of mediation. Specifically, the mediation of the leaders’ EI on the transformational leadership and OCB relationship was supported (t=3.208, p<.05). Second, hypotheses 5b (Leaders’ EI will not mediate the transactional leadership styles and OCB relationship) was also supported (t=1.032, p>.05). The leaders’ EI did not also mediate the transformational leadership and CWB relationship (t=1.533, p>.05). Additionally, the relationship between transactional leadership and CWB was not mediated by EI (t=0.888, p>.05) just as speculated by the study.

However, whether there was either a partial or full mediation of the leaders’ EI on the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB, depends on the significance value of path $c'$ (the direct path from $X_1$ to $Y$) evinced in Figure 4.7 below. That is, if $c'$ is not statistically significant there is full or complete mediation whereas a statistically significant $c'$ reveals a partial mediation. In relation to the present study the leaders’ EI was found to fully
mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB since the $c'$ value was insignificant when the mediator was introduced ($c' = .522, p > .05^*$) (see: Fig 4.7).

![Fig 4.7: Paths Coefficients](image)

Note: $ab = (.462 \times .113) = c'(.0522^*)$

4.6.11 Additional Analysis: Type of Bank- OCB and CWB (Research Objective Three)

The study also sought to find out whether there is a difference when it comes to the exhibition of voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB) with respect to the type of bank (high performing and low performing banks). Therefore hypotheses were formulated as follows:

H7a: *Employees in the high performing banks will score higher on OCB than those in the low performing banks*

H7b: *Employees in the low performing banks will score higher on CWB than those in the high performing banks.*
With reference to Table 4.16 above, the results suggest that there is a significant difference between the employees’ OCB with respect to the type of bank (high and low performing banks) \( t(232) = -1.868, p < .05 \). However, in comparing the means of the two types of banks it was found that high performing banks \((M = 3.6038, SD = .47652)\) did not significantly score higher than low performing banks \((M = 3.7361, SD = .49204)\) on OCB. Hence, hypothesis 7a \((Employees in the high performing banks will score higher on OCB than those in the low performing banks)\) was not supported.

Additionally, the results revealed that there is a significant difference in CWB among employees of high and low performing banks \( t(232) = 2.250, p < .05 \). However, the various means showed that low performing banks \((M = 1.5417, SD = .72001)\) did not significantly score higher on CWB compared with high performing banks \((M = 1.3300, SD = .32295)\). Therefore, hypothesis 7b \((Employees in the low performing banks will score higher on CWB than those in the high performing banks)\) was also not supported.
CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter elaborates on the results of the various analyses done in the previous chapter. This is done in the light of the study objectives and further discussed in the context of extant literature identified as relevant to the findings of the present study.

5.2 Research Objective One

The first research objective was to determine the extent to which leadership styles (transformational and transactional) predict employees’ voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB). In view of this objective, it was hypothesized that the transformational leadership style will have a more significant positive relationship with OCB than the transactional leadership style. The findings are however discussed as follows:

5.2.1 Transformational and Transactional Leadership’s Relationship with OCB

In comparing the results of the analysis with the formulated hypotheses (i.e. transformational leadership will have a more significant positive relationship with OCB than transactional leadership) it was found that this hypothesis was supported by the finding of the present study. That is, the transformational style of leadership had a significant positive relationship with OCB. Although transactional leadership also had a significant positive relationship with OCB, it was more pronounced in the case of the transformational leadership. This study thus revealed that both leadership styles have an equal potential of influencing employees to exhibit OCB especially in the selected banks used for this study. Thus managers will have to be more transformational in their approach to handling their employees if they seek to
motivate employees to exhibit OCB towards their organization as well as co-workers. These findings have correspondingly been supported by existing leadership literature.

With respect to the significant positive relationship between adopting the transformational style of leadership and how it predicts the OCB of employees, the findings are consistent with the assertion by Bass (1985), a prominent leadership scholar. Bass in his work posited that employees who work under transformational leaders tend to perform above and beyond their minimum expectations because they feel motivated by the actions of their leaders to do so. This has further been supported by Paalanen and Hyypiä (2008) who concluded from their findings that transformational leaders encourage OCB among their employees. Also, Lin, Li and Hsiao (2012) in their research among nurses in northern Taiwan clearly revealed a significant positive relationship between the exhibition of transformational leadership behaviors and its motivation of employees to display citizenship behaviors and this view strongly confirmed the findings of the present study. Additionally, a more recent study by Moghadam, Moosavi and Dousti (2013) advanced that leaders who adopt the transformational leadership style have positive impact on the citizenship behaviors of their followers (see also: Chen, Hsieh & Lee, 2008; Saeed & Ahmad, 2012).

Nonetheless, the present study also contradicts some findings in literature. For instance, a study by Hutahayan, Astuti, Raharjo and Hamid (2013) revealed that employees’ motivation to engage in OCB is not significantly predicted by leaders who adopt the transformational style. The same finding was also advanced by the results of a study conducted by Maharani, Troena and Noermijati (2013) which evinced that transformational leadership has no direct effect on the OCB of employees.
In a comparative light, even though the present findings revealed a positive relationship between both transformational and transactional leadership styles and OCB, some trends in literature tend to either refute or confirm the findings. For instance, in contrast to the present findings, Lian and Tui (2012) found that even though transformational leadership positively predicted the occurrences of OCB, transactional leadership rather predicted a negative relationship. This finding was also supported by Vigoda-Gadot (2007) and Boerner, Eisenbeiss and Griesser (2007). These authors concluded from their respective studies that a significant positive relationship existed between transformational leadership and OCB but found a negative relationship between transactional leadership and OCB.

However, Khan, Ghouri and Awang (2013) in examining the predictive relationships of transformational, transactional and charismatic leadership styles on employees’ OCB purported that both transformational and transactional leadership are strongly related to the tendency of employees to engage in OCB. Also, Zabihi, Hashemzehi and Tabrizi (2012) found that both transformational and transactional leadership styles were significantly positively related to employees OCB. However, further studies revealed that transformational leadership rather had a greater influence on employees’ OCB than transactional leadership as was also supported by the findings of the present study. Again, Ali and Waqar (2013) concluded that the transformational leadership style was found to be highly correlated to employees’ OCB compared to transactional leadership.

Clearly, with all the varied findings examined it is without doubt that the transformational leadership approach has the highest propensity to promote OCB in organizations. Furthermore, it is worth noting that the type and nature of an organization may also influence the OCB outcome of the varied leadership approach. This is however an important finding for
managers/leaders especially in the Ghanaian banking sector because it purports that leaders who want to motivate employees to engage in citizenship behaviors do not have to only concentrate on exhibiting transformational leadership traits but also learn to inculcate the use of the transactional style of leadership. Thus an effective mix of transformational and transactional leadership approach (transformational and transactional leadership by Dartey-Baah, 2015) is essential to inducing OCB especially in the banking sector.

5.2.2 Transformational and Transactional Leadership’s Relationship with CWB

The analysis of the various relationships with respect to transformational and transactional leadership linking to CWB of employees showed that transformational leadership significantly and negatively predicted the occurrences of CWB among employees. Additionally, transactional leadership was found to be a non-significant yet a positive predictor of employees’ CWB. This clearly shows that employees who function under transformational leaders are less likely to engage in CWB whereas those who work under transactional leaders potentially have the tendency to engage in CWB although the chances of this happening is quite low with regards to the selected banks under study.

In matching the current findings with extant literature, it was noticed that the findings were supported by numerous studies. For instance, Newton (2007) confirmed the fact that generally the connection that exists between leaders and the employees has an effect on whether employees will engage in voluntary behaviors including CWB. Rajnandini, Schrisheim and Williams (1999) investigated the relationship between both transformational and transactional on the CWB of employees and their results confirmed that transformational leaders compared to transactional leaders have the capacity to discourage employees’ tendency to display CWB. Congruently, Kessler, Bruursema, Rodopman and Spector (2013)
also found that the likelihood of employees displaying CWB is mitigated when they are led by transformational leaders. This was however attributed to two traits displayed by transformational leadership (i.e. individualized consideration and inspirational motivation). Individualized consideration is a leaders’ action that tends to relate to employees personally and not just as a group. This trait has further been identified as being necessary for the motivation of employees (termed as inspirational motivation) to shun counterproductive behaviors. Furthermore, Brown and Treviño (2003) concluded that operating the transformational style of leadership tends to minimize counterproductive acts in organizations. Hence, affirming that a significant negative relationship exists between transformational leadership and CWB as indicated by the present study.

In a comparative sense, Bruursema (2004) in a study found that even though the two leadership styles were significant in their prediction of employees’ CWB it was further revealed that transactional leadership was directly or positively associated with CWB whereas an inverse or negative relationship was found between transformational leadership and CWB. According to Bruursema (2004), the positive relationship between transactional leadership and CWB was attributed to the management-by-exception (passive) trait of transactional leaders which tends to take action only when problems occur. Employees therefore take advantage of this passive response to problems and engage in CWB knowing they will not be caught. This claim is also supported by Kessler, Bruursema, Rodopman and Spector (2013). However, the findings of the present study was not in support of the above assertion but rather showed an insignificant relationship between transactional leadership and CWB in the selected banks. Thus, suggesting that employees who work under transactional leaders do not see the style of leadership as a motivator of CWB but rather as a fair platform for receiving rewards for performing their formal job descriptions.
However, the findings which revealed that the transformational leadership style is a significant negative predictor of CWB suggests that managers or leaders who intend to mitigate the occurrences of counterproductive behaviors should engage more in transformational leadership behaviors.

### 5.3 Research Objective Two

The second objective was to examine the mediating effect of leaders’ EI on the leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and the voluntary work behavior relationship (OCB and CWB). However, in order to achieve the objective the various individual relationships between the independent variables (transformational and transactional leadership styles), dependent variables (OCB and CWB) and the mediator (EI) had to be investigated. In view of this the following were hypothesized:

**H3a:** Transformational leadership will have a significant positive relationship with EI.

**H3b:** Transactional leadership will have a significant negative relationship with EI.

**H4a:** Leaders’ EI will have a significant positive relationship with OCB.

**H4b:** Leaders’ EI will have a significant negative relationship with CWB.

**H5a:** Leaders’ EI will mediate the transformational leadership styles and OCB relationship.

**H5b:** Leaders’ EI will not mediate the transactional leadership styles and OCB relationship.

**H6a:** Leaders’ EI will not mediate the transformational leadership styles and CWB relationship.

**H6b:** Leaders’ EI will not mediate the transactional leadership styles and CWB relationship.

The discussions of the derived findings were done under the following themes.
5.3.1 Transformational and Transactional Leadership’s Relationship with EI

The results of the analysis supported the speculations of the present study with respect to transformational and transactional leadership and their relationship with the leaders’ EI. The findings thus revealed a significant relationship between the variables and further found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence whiles transactional leadership was found to be negatively related to leaders’ EI. This simply advances that transformational leaders are perceived as being emotionally intelligent in relating with their employees than transactional leaders.

Even though studies done by authors like Harms and Credé (2010) and Modassir and Singh (2008) rather revealed that transformational leadership does not significantly predict EI, the findings of the present study are in congruence with the work of Barbuto and Burbach (2006). Barbuto and Burbach (2006) confirmed that the transformational style of leadership was positively related to EI. This was however attributed to the fact that transformational leaders tend to relate well with employees (i.e. good interpersonal skills), hence rated as being emotionally intelligent.

More so, Gardner and Stough (2002) in agreement with the current findings argued that there is a strong connection between leaders who adopt the transformational style of leadership and their display of EI. That is, the more transformational they are, the more they are rated as being emotionally intelligent. This finding can also be explained by the fact that transformational leaders are known to be able to manage their own feelings and that of their employees. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) and Naznin (2013) also confirmed this assertion by advancing that the components of EI form a core of transformational leadership and the two are mostly complementary in their use.
However, the negative relationship between the transactional style of leadership and EI was explained by Barling, Slater and Kelloway (2000) as being as a result of the management-by-exception (active) component of transactional leaders which adopts a routine strategy to tackling organizational issues thereby perceived by employees as not being empathetic towards workers.

Some existing literature posit that leaders who are emotionally intelligent are comparatively more competent than those who are not and considered twice as important compared to both technical and intellectual intelligence of leaders on all job levels (Dulewicz, Young & Dulewicz, 2005; Goleman, 1998). The findings of the research imply that leaders who want to be effective with managing their employees and further boost their performance must adopt the behaviors of the transformational leadership style.

5.3.2 Leaders’ EI Relationship with OCB and CWB

A significant positive relationship was found between the leaders’ emotional intelligence and employees’ OCB whereas a negative relationship was found between the leaders’ EI and employees’ CWB even though this was insignificant. This implies that when employees perceive that leaders are able to manage their own emotions and that of the employees they (i.e. employees) are motivated to respond with citizenship behaviors. However, employees who perceive that their leaders are not emotionally intelligent are more likely to display CWB but not to a significant level.

The discoveries of the present study have however been supported by a number of relevant studies. In a similar research in the Banking Sector of Pakistan, Batool (2013) confirmed that there is a positive connection between the leaders’ EI and the tendency of employees to
exhibit OCB. It was however explained that this was so because the leaders’ EI tends to reduce the stress levels of employees and rather motivate them to achieve set targets and further exhibit OCB. Yunus, Ishak, Mustapha and Othman (2010) also confirmed that the leaders’ EI was found as a significant positive predictor of employees’ OCB. Additionally, Modassir and Singh (2008) concluded in their studies that when employees detect that leaders understand their feelings and emotions, they in turn invest their best resources into making the organization successful especially by further exhibiting OCB. This is theoretically explained by the leader-member exchange theory which advances that when employees perceive that their leaders are treating them well, they sense an obligation to also reciprocate by engaging in positive behaviors towards the leader (Lavelle et al., 2009).

Even though research with respect to the predictive capability of the leaders’ EI on employees’ CWB appears not to have taken root in literature, the findings of the present study is still in agreement with the notion by Spector and Fox (2002) advanced in their Emotion-centered model. Spector and Fox (2002) purported that the probability of employees engaging in CWB is often emotion-centered. Thus when employees experience negative emotions especially from their leaders they are likely to retaliate with CWB whereas their experience of positive emotions induces OCB. This assertion has further been supported by Yin (2010) as well as Ying and Ting (2013).

The findings of the present research which reveals a positive relationship between the leaders’ EI and employees’ OCB and an insignificant and negative relationship with CWB suggests that organizations especially Ghanaian banks that seek to encourage OCB among employees should focus on training managers or leaders to be emotionally intelligent in relating with their subordinates.
5.3.3 The Leaders’ EI as a Mediator

The study objectives did not only seek to examine the direct relationships between the various leadership styles (transformational and transactional) and voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB) but to further examine the indirect link between them with the leaders’ EI as the mediator.

However, Baron and Kenny (1986) in their work on the ‘moderator-mediator distinction’ advanced that to test for mediation, the mediator must be caused by the independent variable and the dependent variable must be caused by the mediator. That is first, the variations in the mediator variable should be significantly predicted by the independent variable. Secondly, the variations in the dependent variable should be significantly predicted by the mediator variable. Baron and Kenny (1986) further advanced that mediation should not be tested when an insignificant relationship is detected between the variables. However according to some researches, mediation could still be tested for even when the direct relationships prove insignificant (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon, Krull & Lockwood, 2000; Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, Petty, 2011; Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Zhao, Lynch & Chen, 2010). In view of this the test for mediation was carried out even though some of the preliminary relationships were insignificant.

The findings of the mediation tests however supported the speculations that were made. That is, the leaders’ EI mediated the transformational leadership styles and OCB relationship as hypothesized; leaders’ EI did not mediate the transactional leadership styles and OCB relationship. Furthermore, the leaders’ EI did not mediate the transformational leadership styles and CWB relationship neither did the leaders’ EI mediate the transactional leadership styles and CWB relationship.
Further analysis carried out revealed that the leaders’ EI rather *moderated* the relationship between transactional leadership and the OCB. That is, the EI of the transactional leader can either strengthen or weaken the choice of employees to engage in OCB.

The support for these findings in literature has particularly been focused on the mediation of the leaders’ EI between transformational leadership and OCB. For instance, Hashmi and Irshad (2014) in their study revealed that even though the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB was insignificant, the introduction of EI as a mediator made it significant. Hence, the leaders’ EI was confirmed to play the mediating role between the two variables. More so, Modassir and Singh (2008) validated the fact that the leaders’ EI mediated the transformational leadership and OCB relationship even though there was no direct relationship between independent and the dependent variables (i.e. between transformational leadership and OCB). This finding could also be explained by the fact that the transformational style of leadership is identified to be strongly linked to EI or to have some traits that are perceived as being an advantage when it comes to handling employees in an emotionally intelligent manner (Naznin, 2013).

In summary, the findings suggest that transformational leaders who also exhibit EI are more likely to highly induce OCB among employees. Therefore organizations, especially banks in Ghana that seek to encourage OCB among their employees should train their managers/leaders to exhibit transformational leadership characteristics coupled with EI.
5.4 Research Objective Three

The third objective was to investigate whether the exhibition of voluntary workplace behaviors (i.e. OCB and CWB) varies among employees of high performing and low performing banks. It was therefore hypothesized that:

\[ H7a: \text{Employees in high performing banks will score higher on OCB than those in the low performing banks} \]

\[ H7b: \text{Employees in low performing banks will score higher on CWB than those in the high performing banks}. \]

5.4.1 Varied levels of OCB and CWB in High Performing and Low Performing Banks

The study further examined whether employees in high performing banks will score higher on OCB than low performing banks and whether low performing banks will score higher on CWB than high performing banks. In contrast to the speculations, the findings rather revealed that high performing banks did not score high with respect to OCB than low performing banks and low performing banks did not score high with respect to CWB than high performing banks. These findings are however not largely supported by existing OCB and CWB literature.

For instance, a comparative study by Dalal (2005) revealed OCB and CWB as opposites when it comes to organizational performance. Dalal (2005) further explained that whereas the OCB of employees tends to boost organizational performance, CWB rather tends to make it worse. This assertion has further been supported by Kelloway et al, (2002) who concluded that OCB and CWB are negatively related. More so, Yen and Niehoff (2004), in a test of the theory of OCB and its contribution to organizational effectiveness, postulated that in
organizations where employees exhibit more of citizenship behaviors, they become successful. Statistically, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) indicated that the OCB of employees contribute up to 17% of organizational performance. These views thus posit that naturally high performing organizations have employees exhibiting more OCB than low performing organizations and low performing organizations have employees exhibiting more CWB than high performing organizations. However, the present study suggests that the performance of the organizations studied is in no way related to the prevalence of OCB or CWB behaviors.

The study findings for this objectives therefore suggests that the performance or otherwise of banks is not largely affected by the voluntary work behaviors of employees. This may be due to the structured and controlled nature of work activities in the banks which makes employees so occupied throughout their working day to the extent they have perhaps no time to engage in extra-role activities for those who may want to otherwise do more. Similarly, those who ordinarily may want to display OCB are not able because of the deadlines they may have to meet.

Finally, based on the findings of this study, the conceptual framework developed after the literature review (Figure 2.1) was revised and displayed as Figure 5.1. From figure 5.1, both transformational and transactional leadership styles directly predict employees’ OCB. However, only the transformational style of leadership has an inverse relationship with CWB with transactional leadership having no predictive relationship with CWB. More so, with respect to the indirect relationship of the leaders’ EI, figure 5.1 indicates that leaders’ EI only mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employees’ OCB.
Fig. 5.1: Conceptual framework after analysis

Transformational Leadership ➔ Leaders’ EI ➔ OCB

Transactional Leadership ➔ Leaders’ EI ➔ CWB

Transformational Leadership ➔ Transactional Leadership ➔ Leaders’ EI

Leaders’ EI ➔ OCB

Leaders’ EI ➔ CWB
CHAPTER SIX
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of research findings, conclusion, study limitations, and general recommendations for organizations, academia and future research.

6.2 Summary of Key Findings

The study primarily sought to examine leadership styles (transformational and transactional leadership) and voluntary workplace behavior (OCB and CWB) of employees in selected banks in the Ghana Club 100 ranking (2010-2012). The study further sought to examine the mediating role of the leaders’ EI between the leadership styles and the employees’ voluntary workplace behavior. In order to meet these objectives, various hypotheses were developed and the results from the analysis of data collected are as follows:

The results showed that both transformational and transactional leadership styles significantly and positively predicted the tendency of employees to engage in OCB. However, the transformational style of leadership was identified to have a greater influence on employees’ OCB compared to the transactional style of leadership.

Additionally, the leadership styles and CWB relationship was examined. The transformational style of leadership was found to have a significant negative relationship with the CWB of employees. However, transactional leadership had an insignificant but negative relationship with employees’ CWB.
Further investigations were done with respect to the relationship between the two leadership styles and the exhibition of EI in the organization. Both leadership styles (transformational and transactional leadership) were found to be significantly related to EI. However, transformational leadership was positively related to EI whereas transactional leadership was negatively related.

The leaders’ EI was also matched against both OCB and CWB of employees. The findings revealed that the leaders’ EI was found to be significantly and positively related to the tendency of employees to engage in OCB. However, the relationship between EI and CWB even though insignificant, further revealed a negative relationship.

The mediating role of the leaders’ EI was also tested for the leadership styles and voluntary work behaviors relationship. The only relationship that the leaders’ EI mediated was the one between transformational leadership and employees’ OCB. Thus the leader’s EI did not mediate the transactional leadership styles and OCB relationship; transformational leadership styles and CWB relationship; transactional leadership styles and CWB relationship. However, further analysis revealed the leaders’ EI as a moderator of the transactional leadership and OCB relationship.

Additionally, analysis was done to determine if employees of high performing banks differ in their exhibition of OCB and CWB as compared to the employees of low performing banks. Contrary to the speculations of the study, employees of high performing banks did not score higher in the exhibition of OCB compared to low performing banks. Employees of low performing banks were also not found to score higher with respect to CWB as compared to those of high performing banks.
6.3 Conclusion

It is the quest of every organization to see its employees exhibit the best behavior on all levels. This is because employees’ behaviors including the voluntary work behaviors such as OCB and CWB have been recognized to be essential to determining the success or failure of organizations. However, the leaders’ behaviors as well as the management of these emotions have been identified as antecedents to the voluntary work behavior of employees. In view of this, this study was conducted to investigate the predictive relationships between transformational and transactional leadership on employees’ OCB and CWB as well as the mediating role of the leaders’ EI.

The findings from the present study confirm the universal principle that leadership style is a predictor of the voluntary work behaviors of employees. More so, both the transformational and transactional styles of leadership were identified as potential motivators of employees’ OCB in their respective organizations.

Even though existing leadership literature posits that between the two leadership styles, transactional leadership behaviors have generally been identified as antecedents of employee CWB, this study proved otherwise. The findings thus imply that the transactional leadership style is not a significant predictor of employees’ CWB. However, the transformational leadership style can play a significant role when it comes to mitigating CWB among employees.
6.4 Recommendations

6.4.1 Organizations/Managers

In view of the findings, discussions and conclusion of the study, the researcher makes the following recommendations:

Organizations that desire to get employees’ to exhibit the highest level of OCB should not only encourage the transformational leadership style but a hybrid of the two. However, in order to mitigate the occurrences of CWB, organizational leaders should be more transformational in their approach to leading employees. It is therefore recommended that the appropriate training be organized to help managers with this.

It is also recommended that EI be made part of the leadership training in organizations as it has a high propensity of improving OCB as well as mitigating CWB among employees.

6.5 Limitations of the Study

The research adopted the single rating method of collecting data from respondents. That is, the examination of the leadership styles and the voluntary work behavior of employees were done solely from the employees’ perspective. There could however be a level of biasness from the employees’ point of view. For instance, employees will not objectively access the status of their CWB and OCB.

Second, the adoption of only the quantitative approach to measuring the variables under the study was also identified as a limitation. This made it difficult to further peruse the detail causes of the voluntary work behaviors of employees. Hence, the mixed method approach would have rather been adopted for the conducting the study.
Also, the research was geographically limited. This was so because the sample was only selected from employees of banks that have been consistent on the Ghana Club 100 ranking from 2010 to 2012 and specifically the branches that are located in the capital of the country (i.e. Greater Accra Region). Hence, the findings may not be a generalized reflection of the all the employees of the selected banks.

6.6 Directions for Future Research

The present study evaluated the leadership styles and voluntary work behaviors only from the employees’ perspective. Future research could further examine the leaders’ style from the employees’ perspective whiles evaluating the voluntary work behaviors (OCB and CWB) of employees from the leaders’ perspective.

Extant research has evinced that culture is an important influence on the behavior of both leaders and employees in organizations (Pillai, Rajnandini, Williams & Ethlyn, 1999). Future research can examine whether or not culture plays a moderating role in leadership styles predicting the voluntary work behaviors of employees.

The research was purposely situated in the banking sector of Ghana specifically selected branches of banks in the Greater Accra Region. This makes the study limited with respect to generalizing the findings to other regions or branches of banks outside Accra. Future research in Ghana can therefore investigate the influence the two leadership styles will have on the OCB and CWB of employees of banks outside Accra.
Future research could also explore the effects of both the transformational and transactional leadership style on the voluntary behaviors of employees and the mediating role of EI in a comparative study of the private and public sectors of Ghana.

Lastly, a longitudinal study to gauge the influence of leaders’ EI on leadership styles and voluntary work behaviors of the same study organization is also recommended.
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APPENDICES
Appendix A: Questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF GHANA BUSINESS SCHOOL
DEPARTMENT OF ORGANIZATION AND HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Dear Respondent,

Thank you in advance for taking the time to complete this questionnaire and helping contribute to my research on “Leadership Styles and Voluntary Workplace Behaviors: The Mediating Role of Emotional Intelligence” - as part of the requirement for the award of an MPhil degree in HRM. The questionnaire is made up of four sections and will not take more than 10 minutes to complete.

You are highly assured of confidentiality since all information given on this questionnaire is used for research purposes only.

In case of any questions with regards to this study, please do not hesitate to contact me on 0242565662 or via Bmekpor@yahoo.com. Thank you.

Best regards,
Benjamin Mekpor

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Please tick [✓] the appropriate box that best describes you

1. Gender  a) Male [ ]  b) Female [ ]

2. Age  a) below 25 [ ]  b) 25-35 [ ]  c) 35-45 [ ]  d) 45-55 [ ]  e) 55-60 [ ]  e) Above 60 [ ]

3. Level of education. a) SSSCE/WASSCE [ ]  b) Diploma/HND [ ]  c) First Degree [ ]  d) Masters [ ]
    e) Other: please specify …………………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. How long have you been working at your current workplace?
    a) Less than 1 year [ ]  b) 1-3 years [ ]  c) 3-6 years [ ]  d) 7-10 years [ ]  e) 10-15 years [ ] f) Above 15 [ ]

5. Marital Status  a) Single [ ]  b) Married [ ]  c) Divorced/Separated [ ]  d) Widowed [ ]

6. Job Title……………………………………..
SECTION A
Please tick [✓] the answer that reflects your views in the following statements from 1 to 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My manager:</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Once in a while</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Fairly often</th>
<th>Frequently if not always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Acts in ways that build my respect</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Displays a sense of power and confidence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of decisions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Talks optimistically about the future</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Expresses a compelling vision of the future</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Spends time teaching and coaching</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Treats me as individual rather than just a member of a team</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Helps me to develop strengths</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Makes clear what I can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failure</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Keeps track of all mistakes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Fails to interfere until problems becomes serious</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in “if it will not break, don’t fix it”</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION B
Please tick [✓] the answer that reflects your views in the following statements from 1 to 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My manager:</th>
<th>Totally Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Totally Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32. Understands the implications of his/her emotions on subordinates</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Is open to feedback from his/her subordinates</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>34. Is confident in the execution of his/her duties</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>35. Shows enough patience when dealing with people</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>36. Publicly admits to mistakes</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>37. Easily adapts to changing situations/circumstances</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>38. Sets challenging goals</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>39. Initiates actions for the future</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>40. Learns from setbacks</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>41. Is open to diversity</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>42. Understands organizational climate and culture</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Matches customer needs to organizational needs</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>44. Gives constructive feedback to subordinates</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Leads by example</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>46. Acts to support change in the organization</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>47. Anticipates the impact of his/her actions and words on people</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>48. Addresses conflict issues appropriately</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>49. Ensures effective co-operation among employees</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION C
Please tick [✓] the answer that reflects your views in the following statements from 1 to 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50. I help others who have heavy workloads</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>52. I help other who have been absent</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>53. I willingly help others who have work-related problems</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. I help orient new people even though it is not required</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>55. I am one of the most conscientious employees</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>56. I believe in giving an honest day’s work for an honest day’s pay</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. My attendance at work is above normal</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. I do not take extra break</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. I obey rules and regulations even when no one is watching</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. I am the classic “squeaky wheel” that always needs greasing</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>61. I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>62. I tend to make “mountains out of molehills”</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>63. I always focus on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>64. I always find fault with what the organization is doing</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>65. I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>66. I consider the impact of my actions on workers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>67. I do not abuse the rights of others</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>68. I take steps to try to prevent problems with other employees</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>69. I am mindful of how my behavior affects other people’s jobs</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>70. I keep abreast of changes in the organization</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>71. I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>72. I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73. I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION D
Please tick [✓] the answer that reflects your views in the following statements from 1 to 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>74. I made fun of someone at work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75. I said something hurtful to someone at work</td>
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<tr>
<td>76. I made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work</td>
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<tr>
<td>77. I cursed at someone at work</td>
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<tr>
<td>78. I played a mean prank on someone at work</td>
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<tr>
<td>79. I acted rudely toward someone at work</td>
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<tr>
<td>80. I publicly embarrassed someone at work</td>
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<tr>
<td>81. I took property from work without permission</td>
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<tr>
<td>82. I spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working</td>
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<tr>
<td>83. I falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses</td>
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<tr>
<td>84. I took additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>85. I come in late to work without permission</td>
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<tr>
<td>86. I littered my work environment</td>
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<tr>
<td>87. I neglected to follow my boss’s instructions</td>
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<tr>
<td>88. I intentionally worked slower than I could have worked</td>
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<tr>
<td>89. I discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person</td>
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<tr>
<td>90. I used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job</td>
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<tr>
<td>91. I put little effort into my work</td>
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<tr>
<td>92. I dragged out work in order to get overtime</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B: Formula for Sample Size Computation

\[ S = X^2 \frac{N(1-P)}{d^2(N-1)+X^2P(1-P)} \]

Where:

- \( S \) = the required sample
- \( X^2 \) = table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (i.e. 3.841)
- \( N \) = the population size
- \( P \) = the population proportion (assumed to be 0.50 since this would provide the maximum sample size)
- \( d \) = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05)
Appendix C: Assumptions

Figure 4.1: Linear Relationship between Leadership Styles and OCB

Figure 4.2: Scatterplots Showing Constant Variance of Error Terms
Figure 4.3: Linear Relationship between Leadership Styles and CWB

Figure 4.4: Scatterplots Showing Constant Variance of Error Terms
Figure 4.5: Linear Relationship between Leadership Styles and EI

Figure 4.6: Scatterplots Showing Constant Variance of Error Terms