

**A LEADERSHIP COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK FOR THE
EMPOWERMENT OF EMPLOYEES AND THE ENHANCEMENT OF
ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN PUBLIC
UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA**

by

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‘A Leadership Competency Framework for the Empowerment of Employees and the Enhancement of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in Public Universities in Ghana’

I declare that the abovementioned topic and this thesis are my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged using complete references.

I also declare that I submitted the thesis to originality-checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at the University of South Africa (UNISA) for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

DATE: July 2024

DEDICATION

My sincerest dedication to God Almighty for divine healing, favour, blessings, promises well fulfilled, and continuous strength when my health failed me. My thanksgiving to God is from the Methodist Hymn Book 426 – ‘Through all the changing scenes of life’ By Nahum Tate, 1652.

To my husband, children, and family, thank you for all your prayers, love, and support in helping me reach this far. Thank you very much for having my back all these years.

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ABSTRACT

Background: Leadership selection in public universities often prioritizes academic research, teaching experience, and community engagement while neglecting critical factors like the ability to motivate and empower employees. This oversight has contributed to leadership styles that lack robust management practices and fail to encourage innovative thinking or employee autonomy. Empowering employees through autonomy and participation in decision-making fosters organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), where employees voluntarily perform tasks beyond their formal roles to support coworkers and the organisation. Implementing a leadership competency framework could guide public universities in selecting and developing leaders who can effectively promote empowerment and OCB, ultimately enhancing institutional success.

Aim: the study aimed to (1) investigate the relationship between the constructs of leadership, empowerment, and OCB; (2) determine whether employees differ significantly regarding leadership, empowerment, and OCB attributes in terms of their age, gender, job level and marital status; (3) examine the moderating and mediating role of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB and; (4) develop a leadership competency framework for the selection and development of academic leaders.

Methods: A quantitative research design was adopted for this study. A self-developed web-based survey was used as the measuring instrument. Study participants were selected from the total population of four public universities in Ghana, using the proportionate stratified probability sampling technique a statistical formula for determining the sample size from a known population. The total population of staff from the four universities was 10,890. The sample consisted of 447 participants from management, academic and non-academic staff. Descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics were applied in this study

Results: The total participants of 447 comprised 60.6% males and 39.4% females. Among the participants, 33.1% had up to a postgraduate level qualification, while 44.5% were senior staff in the public universities. Exploratory factor analysis identified three Leadership factors (Supervision and staff development, Interpersonal relationships, and Vision and goal orientation); three

Employee empowerment factors (Meaningfulness, Autonomy, and Competence); and four OCB factors (Altruism, Sportsmanship, Conscientiousness, and Civic virtue).

In the relationship between empowerment and OCB, the results revealed that the empowerment factors of meaningfulness and competence had positive and significant relationships with all four factors of OCB. However, positive and significant relationships concerning autonomy and decision-making with civic virtue and conscientiousness were established.

Regarding the relationship between leadership and empowerment, the results indicated that supervision and staff development had a positive and significant relationship with all the dimensions of empowerment. However, interpersonal relationships only had a positive and significant relationship with autonomy/decision. Vision and goal orientation had a positive and significant relationship with meaningfulness and a negative relationship with autonomy/decision-making.

Further, the structural equation modelling analysis revealed that autonomy/decision-making significantly moderates the relationship between interpersonal relationships (IR) and conscientiousness. In contrast, meaningfulness significantly moderates the relationship between vision and goals (VGO) and altruism. The results on the mediating role of empowerment revealed that empowerment significantly mediated the relationship between leadership and OCB.

There was no statistically significant difference in the views of males and females on the dimensions of leadership, empowerment and OCB. The study found significant age-related differences in perceptions of leadership dimensions such as supervision and staff development, interpersonal relationships, and vision and goal orientation, with respondents aged 32–35 placing less emphasis on leadership's role in empowerment and OCB than those below 32 or above 35 years. However, no statistically significant differences among age groups regarding employee empowerment and OCB dimensions were observed. The study revealed significant differences in perceptions of employee empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) based on educational levels, with postgraduates valuing competence and autonomy/decision-making more than others and most likely to exhibit civic virtue behaviours. However, no significant differences were observed in the perception of leadership across educational levels, as all respondents acknowledged its importance in promoting empowerment and OCB. Significant differences were

observed between job levels and empowerment dimensions, with senior administrative staff placing higher value on meaningfulness, autonomy/decision-making, and competence. Similarly, senior administrative staff were most likely to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) dimensions such as altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue, while no significant differences were found between job levels regarding perceptions of leadership.

Conclusion: The study's findings provide actionable insights for leaders and decision-makers within public universities in Ghana, encouraging them to communicate a compelling vision, empower employees, adapt leadership approaches to demographic differences, and recognise and support OCB across all job levels. These strategies can foster a more engaged, motivated, and committed workforce, ultimately contributing to the success and effectiveness of public universities.

Keywords: leadership, empowerment, organisational citizenship behaviour, structural equation modelling, public universities, staff, leadership framework

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADM	Autonomy and Decision-Making
ALT	Altruism
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structure
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	The Comparative fit index
COM	Competency
CON	Conscientiousness
CVV	Civic Virtue
EFA	Explanatory Factors Analysis
EUJT	Enriched understanding of job tasks
GFI	The goodness-of-fit index
HTMT	Heterotrait-montrait ratio
IR	Interpersonal Relationship
KNUST	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange theory
LPC	Least preferred co-worker
LSD	Level of Self-determination
MNG	Meaningfulness
MPC	Most preferred co-worker
NFI	The normed fit index
OCB- O	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Organisational factors
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OCB-I	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour – Individual factors
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
SDC	The Swiss Agency for Development Cooperation
SEM	Structural Equation Model
SLM	Situational Leadership Model
SPO	Sportsmanship
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SSD	Supervision and Staff Development
UCC	University of Cape Coast
UEW	University of Education, Winneba
UHAS	University of Health and Allied Sciences
VBL	Value-Based Leadership
VGO	Vision and Goal Orientation

Chapter 1 : INTRODUCTION

This study aims to develop a leadership competency framework for empowering employees and enhancing workplace organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The competency framework can assist in the appointment and development of leaders. This chapter will outline the context of the study by providing the background and motivation for the study. Problems experienced by leaders in empowering their employees and promoting OCB will be discussed. The research objectives and the research questions will provide clarity on what this research objective **is** to achieve. This chapter will also indicate which research methodology will answer the research questions. Lastly, the chapter layout of this study will be provided.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

Education, in whatever form, is one of the underpinning factors that facilitate development in a country. Formal education, an aspect of general education, is provided at primary, secondary and tertiary levels (Johnson & Majewska, 2022). Universities which provide tertiary education face many challenges, including institutional renewal, tuition quality, funding, and staff and student management. These challenges are further exacerbated by increasing globalization and the need for universities to align with international standards, creating pressure to innovate and adapt. The rapid technological advancements have necessitated shifts in teaching methodologies, administrative processes, and research approaches, placing further demands on university leadership. Consequently, universities must address these challenges while striving for success in a competitive environment, which requires effective leadership. The place of leadership in addressing these challenges is that effective leadership has been associated with the successful performance of organisations in a sustainable manner (Piwowar-Sulej & Iqbal, 2023).

1.1.1 Leadership

Leadership is a very important yet inherently subjective concept, so it is challenging to establish a single, universally accepted definition (King & Badham, 2019; Kocourek & Nedomlelová, 2018).

Consequently, most definitions of leadership are based on the approach used to try to understand it (King & Badham, 2019; Kocourek & Nedomlelová, 2018). While definitions of leadership may diverge, some common trends emerge. For example, according to Razak et al. (2018), leadership is described as the process of guiding the behaviour of others to achieve established goals. Similarly, Robins and Decenzo (2007, p. 247) referred to leadership as “*the ability an individual demonstrates to influence others to act in particular way through direction, encouragement, sensitivity, consideration and support.*” In addition, Wilson (2023) describes leadership as the process of guiding others to comprehend and concur on what needs to be done and how to achieve it, as well as facilitating both individual and collective efforts to reach shared goals. From these diverse definitions, several shared elements emerge: leadership is seen as a process that involves exerting influence, takes place within a group context, and is oriented toward achieving specific objectives (Ospina et al., 2020).

Leadership should be viewed as a comprehensive concept encompassing many vital social, organisational and personal processes (Dinibutun, 2020). These leadership processes involve guiding and motivating individuals toward group objectives, not through intimidation but by inspiring personal drive (Tang, 2019). Therefore, an effective leader must possess strong communication skills, self-awareness, and the ability to delegate decision-making (Chatman et al., 2020). Having a sense of certainty is also vital for a leader as it instils confidence in their followers

As a good communicator, the leader ensures that organisational members are well-versed in the organisation's strategy and its enactment. One of a good leader's key strengths is the ability to delegate. Delegation empowers subordinates and enhances the quality of decisions made by the organisation. Thus, more people contribute to the decision-making process (Chatman et al., 2020).

Further, a leader is a person who influences the behaviour or actions of people (Benmira & Agboola, 2021). According to Qin et al. (2023), a leader exerts influence in a manner that allows the shaping of group efforts to pursue a particular goal. A leader, therefore, has the mandate to influence followers to achieve a stated objective (Ali et al., 2022). In addition, the process of influence should be done cohesively and coherently to attract support from followers (Arif et al.,

2019). Based on the definitions discussed and for the purposes of this study, a leader is defined as an individual who wields influence over a group's actions to pursue a clearly defined objective.

Leadership has been stated as influencing organisational success because where leadership is ineffective, organisational outcomes are poor (Ali et al., 2022). The emphasis on leadership has steadily gained research attention over the years, particularly in the last two to three decades (Rodd, 2020). This heightened recognition of the importance of leadership has also led to the establishment of dedicated centres, such as the Drolor Centre for Strategic Leadership in Accra and the GOTNI Leadership Centre in Abuja. These centres are focused on achieving leadership excellence in nearly all public domains, including education.

The exhibition of a particular leadership style is perceived to influence the performance outcomes of followers. Al Khajeh (2018) conducted research that highlighted the significance of the relationship between leadership style and employee performance. Specifically, adopting a democratic and pacesetter leadership style created the opportunity for employees to make inputs, which further improved the performance of the employees. Masa'deh et al. (2019) showed that whereas transactional leadership only resulted in mainly job-specified performance, transformational leadership resulted in creative employee performance. Kalsoom et al. (2018) also indicated that transactional leadership style produced a lower level of performance compared with transformational leadership. The impact of leadership style on employee performance cannot be underestimated.

Leadership styles are rooted in theories that seek to explain them, and these theories are continually adapted or revised based on new insights derived from ongoing studies. According to Ciulla and Ciulla (2020), theories on leadership started with a focus on the leader's personality. This saw the emergence of the *great man* and *trait* theories. A study by Dyczkowska and Dyczkowski (2018) indicated that democratic leaders positively influence employees' citizenship behaviour. In contrast, autocratic leaders failed to empower and motivate employees sufficiently to encourage them to engage in citizenship behaviours. The great man theory suggested that certain individuals were inherently predisposed to be leaders, often with a bias towards males, and that they would demonstrate leadership when specific situational conditions demanded a leader's presence

(Benmira & Agboola, 2021). On the other hand, the trait theory posits that an individual's innate characteristics and qualities determine their leadership potential and capacity. Following the initial theories, Ciulla and Ciulla (2020) introduced the situational theory of leadership, emphasizing that the approach to leadership is dependent on particular circumstances and situations. In contrast to the great man and trait theories, behavioural theorists proposed that leadership was not solely an innate trait but could be acquired through proper training and development when individuals were provided with the necessary guidance and education (Ciulla & Ciulla, 2020).

More recent theories on leadership have focused on the actual relationship between the leader and follower. According to Alrowwad et al., (2020), *Managerial/transactional* leadership is oriented towards maintaining the status quo by pursuing stability initiatives. Such leadership is, therefore, concerned with the conduct of daily activities with a short-term-based focus. A study by Shareef and Atan (2019) investigated the influence of ethical leadership on employees' commitment and citizenship behaviours. According to the research results, employees' perceptions of the integrity, fairness and honesty of leaders directly impact their commitment and preparedness to engage in OCB. Similarly, the preparedness of leaders to provide a workplace designed with flexibility has a positive impact on employees' empowerment and quality of life (Wang & Yang, 2021). *Transformational* leadership is characterized by a long-term orientation, where leaders are willing to take risks to achieve significant and positive changes within an organisation or group (Yang et al., 2020). This secures the sustainability of the organisation in the long run by seeking innovative adaptations in response to changes in conditions (Madi Odeh et al., 2023). Various studies have investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational outcomes such as OCB (Khaola & Rambe, 2021; Novianti, 2021). These studies have all emphasised leaders' critical role in enhancing OCB, which is closely related to employee engagement (Ng et al., 2021), sustainability and job performance (Madi Odeh et al., 2023).

According to Andrews (2022), strategic leadership is defined as the ability to influence others to make decisions that enhance the prospects for the organisation's long-term success while maintaining short-term financial stability. It involves setting a vision, aligning resources, and motivating employees to achieve organisational goals. *Strategic* leadership encourages

individuals to take voluntary actions with little influence from the leader, allowing the contribution of initiatives from followers (Samini et al., 2022).

1.1.2 Empowerment

Employee empowerment is the future wave and has become increasingly important as management styles focus on organisations having numerous leaders instead of supervisors (Vu, 2020). In organisations, the abilities of individuals are harnessed and used to meet the organisation's objectives (Afram et al., 2022). An improvement in the abilities of employees translates into organisational improvement. As such, organisations that can increase their employees' abilities benefit from such actions. This becomes the basis of empowerment.

When control is delegated or diminished to enable another person to make decisions and influence outcomes that were previously beyond their scope, that individual can be empowered (Yu et al., 2018). Empowerment is the process or activities that lead to the acquisition of decision-making controls, and it involves one part relinquishing some control and giving it to another (Yu et al., 2018). Coun et al. (2022) view empowerment as finding ways to allow employees to make decisions. According to Coun et al. (2022), empowerment presents the process that allows leaders to share decision-making powers and authority with followers. Empowerment is essentially a deliberate and conscious effort made by management to cultivate an environment and culture that promotes and supports the empowerment of individuals. Matthew and Nair (2022) investigated the impact the various dimensions of psychological empowerment had on employees' career satisfaction. The results showed that empowerment dimensions such as meaningfulness of tasks to be completed, competence, self-determination, and the impact of work were all positively correlated with employees' satisfaction. It is, therefore, of utmost importance for organisations to establish an empowering work environment. This sustains higher levels of productivity and enhances career satisfaction, leading to better employee retention (Matthew & Nair, 2022).

In organisations, the existing work culture has a bearing on achieving empowerment. Empowerment is less likely to occur in rigid, overly structured environments. Such a kind of culture stifles initiatives, and the fear of potential reprimand deters initiatives from employees

(Micheli & Beverland, 2018). The importance of empowerment is emphasised by the various studies that reported on the positive relationship between empowerment and employee engagement and innovation (Ali et al., 2022), employee performance and customer satisfaction (Budur & Poturak, 2021), organisational effectiveness (Baird et al., 2020), and organisational commitment (Donkor & Zhou, 2020).

The importance of innovation cannot be underestimated, especially because work dynamics may introduce new challenges to employees that need to be addressed as they arise. In the absence of empowerment, workflow may come to a halt until directives are received from management. However, an empowered employee is more inclined to be innovative in their approach, which ultimately enhances their overall performance (Echebiri et al., 2020). The success of organisations is therefore positively linked to the level of empowerment of employees (Jung et al., 2020). Benefits of empowerment ultimately result in better performance and output which translate to operational efficiency (Echebiri et al., 2020).

Employees are considered as the veins of organisations. Consequently, any desired change should start from a change in the human resources of that organisation (Jung et al., 2020). Employees play a central role in driving change mechanisms and dynamics, and they are also the agents of change itself. However, the ability of employees to adapt and embrace change hinges on the degree to which management is willing to empower them. A study by Han and Hong (2019) outlined three practices in which leaders can empower employees: information sharing, autonomy and accountability. One approach of empowerment involves going through the stages of domination, consultation, cooperation, and delegation (Jung et al., 2020). However, empowerment initiatives can falter if there is an overemphasis on empowering employees while neglecting to share essential elements like information, knowledge, and reward (Echebiri et al., 2020). In the absence of such rewards, the extra responsibility which comes with being empowered may be considered to increase the workload of the worker (Kaasinen et al., 2020). The behaviour of an employee is often a response to specific events or actions taken by others. Therefore, leaders' capacity to empower employees can encourage them to engage in OCB.

1.1.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

In most companies, certain tasks emerge which does not fall within the work specification of any employee (Romainha et al., 2019). These emerging tasks are unpredictable and nearly impossible to encompass within the officially assigned duties of a specific employee. However, such emerging tasks need to be performed. In such emerging situations, some employees may decide to do such work on their own volition. Such autonomous behaviour was first recorded by Katz and Khan (1966) but was properly articulated by Organ (1988) as OCB. OCB can be defined as anything positive and constructive that employees do voluntarily, which supports co-workers and benefits the organisation. These employees, consequently, are willing to go the extra mile without expecting to be rewarded for it (Islam & Irfan, 2022). Kayaalp et al. (2021) supports this definition by viewing OCB as any constructive and positive act, self-initiated by the worker and which benefits other co-workers and the organisation. As stated in O'Grady (2018), OCB involves individual conduct that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and promotes the efficient and effective operation of the organisation. OCB can, therefore, be described as work that is beyond ones' duty and include volunteering for tasks that are not allotted, providing inventive ideas to improve operations and assisting co-workers and or supervisors with job-related assignments. The altruism of OCB is not prescribed or required; however, it contributes to the smooth functioning of organisations (O'Grady, 2018). Since there is the tendency of such emerging tasks to likely interfere with the flow of work in organisations, the practice of OCB is considered essential to organisations (Romainha et al., 2019). OCBs are not officially mandated for employees, meaning that employees who choose not to engage in them do not face any formal punishment. Similarly, participating in OCBs does not typically result in officially recognized formal rewards. It can, therefore, be considered as organisationally non-defined actions that employees exhibit that promotes organisational work.

Some studies have been conducted on the incidence of how leadership affects OCB in public organisations, with the results of such studies reporting different factors which influences OCB. According to Mallory (2020), loyalty, organisational commitment, conscientiousness and civic virtue are the major factors affecting an employee's preparedness to engage in OCB. Grego-Planer (2019) identified a sustainability culture, leadership support and organisational commitment as key

determinants of OCB. Ridwan (2020) reported that employees who were committed to their organisation exhibited more OCB. On a tertiary institution level, Nyarieko (2018) reported that OCB among faculty members in some public universities in Kenya was low because their commitment was only to academic related issues of students, and therefore they did not engage in other activities beyond that. Suriansyah et al. (2019) reported that organisational support has a positive impact on OCB among lecturers in a public university. Specifically, OCB occurred due to perceptions of fairness and adequate rewards from the management of the university.

Understanding the incidence of OCB has seen the identification of several factors which influence its occurrence. Organ's (1988) five factor model has been the most popular OCB model. According to this model, OCB is characterised by five factors namely Civic Virtue, Altruism, Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, and Courtesy. Attempted explanations from scholars on how these influence OCB has seen the presentation of other factors affecting OCB, but which were found to share some similarities with the ones proffered by Organ. Podsakoff identified seven such dimensions: organisational loyalty, civic virtue, helping behaviour, individual initiative, organisational compliance, self-development, and sportsmanship (Ndoja & Malekar, 2020). Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) presented OCB as a two-dimensional phenomenon. The first is altruism and involves exhibiting a helping behaviour towards individuals. Generalized compliance, the second dimension, involves doing things the individual considers to be right and proper (Ananie & Casamayor, 2018; Ndoja & Malekar, 2020).

Cunanan and Rachmawati (2023) expressed that performing of OCB even without the presence of other OCB predictors is high among people from the collectivistic and high-power-distance cultures. This was explained by the fact that such people crave for acceptance in groups and highly submit to hierarchy. Additionally, Gyekye and Haybatollahi (2015) indicated that there is an association between age and participation in citizenship behaviours. Thus, older workers (workers older than 40 years) are found to participate more actively in OCB than the younger ones. Further, workers' participation in OCB was also linked to the cultural orientation of the worker. In collectivistic cultures, it is found that employees relate more readily to communal, cooperative, and collective value system unlike that of the western individualism, competitiveness and independence culture. Cultures with a collectivist orientation place a high value on being a good

neighbour and feeling a sense of belonging to a larger community. They emphasise the significance of status, prestige, and position, and hold a deep respect for hierarchy, authority, seniority, and especially, the elderly (Ebersöhn & Ebersöhn, 2019). This means that culture influences behaviour in the organisational setting because people are obliged to be obedient and loyal to their respective superiors and management. Therefore, the work environment is characterized by a hierarchical system based on inequality, paternalism, and submission to authority.

Various studies have outlined the relationship between OCB and organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Nurjanah et al., 2020), motivation and performance of employees (Widarko & Anwarodin, 2022), organisational justice (Khaola & Rambe, 2021) and organisational performance (Patnaik & Shukla, 2021). Other benefits include increasing the efficiency of employees, increasing organisation turnover rates, and increasing productivity of employees (Saoula et al., 2018). Even though the exhibition of OCB is not directly and formally rewarded, it provides long term indirect benefits to the individual by serving as an evaluation on the performance of employees, which further informs pay increases, promotions, and job security in periods of redundancies (Cleveland et al., 2019).

From the above, it is evident that leadership and empowerment could play a significant role in encouraging employees to engage in OCB. Leadership and empowerment are critical in shaping employees' attitudes and behaviours, which are essential for fostering OCB. Effective leadership inspires employees by providing a clear vision, fostering trust, and creating a supportive work environment that encourages discretionary behaviours like OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Empowerment complements this by giving employees a sense of autonomy, competence, and meaningfulness in their work, which enhances their motivation to go beyond formal job requirements (Spreitzer, 1995). Research has consistently shown that empowered employees are more likely to exhibit altruism, sportsmanship, and civic virtue, as they feel valued and connected to organisational goals (Ahearne et al., 2005; Li et al., 2017). These dynamics demonstrate that leaders who adopt participatory and empowering approaches create conditions that promote OCB, ultimately contributing to improved organisational performance and collaboration.

Despite the vast amounts of research done on this topic, universities continue to pay little attention to the qualities and skills needed by leaders. A leadership competency framework could guide organizations on selecting and developing leaders to facilitate OCB.

1.1.4 Public Universities

The educational sector, particularly public universities, relies on effective organisational practices to enhance performance and foster institutional success. Leadership, employee empowerment, and OCBs are key factors influencing organisational effectiveness. Leadership plays a crucial role in shaping the organisational culture of universities, fostering an environment that encourages collaboration, innovation, and effective decision-making. Transformational leadership, characterized by the ability to inspire and align employees' goals with institutional objectives, has significantly enhanced organisational outcomes. Studies highlight that transformational leaders drive motivation and encourage OCB, enabling employees to contribute beyond their formal roles. For instance, distributed leadership, a facet of transformational leadership, has been linked to improved administrative efficiency and overall institutional effectiveness, particularly in public universities (Ritz et al., 2014; Kayode & Naicker, 2021).

Ethical leadership further reinforces the positive impacts of leadership in the educational sector. Leaders who uphold ethical standards foster trust, transparency, and a sense of psychological empowerment among employees. Shah and Hussain (2022) demonstrated that ethical leadership significantly enhances OCB and innovation in Pakistani universities. By prioritizing ethical values and fairness, leaders create environments that encourage voluntary behaviours, enabling employees to engage proactively in institutional growth and innovation. Such leadership ensures employees feel supported and motivated to exceed basic expectations, aligning personal and organisational goals.

Servant leadership provides another dimension of effective leadership in universities, emphasizing the development and empowerment of faculty and staff. This approach focuses on nurturing employees' creative and intellectual potential while fostering academic excellence. Moll & Kretzschmar (2017) argue that by prioritizing their team members' needs, servant leaders create collaborative and inclusive environments conducive to academic success. This leadership style is particularly effective in encouraging faculty to take ownership of their roles, driving individual

and institutional achievements. Collectively, transformational, ethical, and servant leadership styles underline the essential role of leadership in enhancing public universities' operational and cultural success.

Employee empowerment is a cornerstone of organisational success in public universities, emphasizing autonomy, decision-making participation, and access to resources. Empowerment practices not only enhance job satisfaction and performance but also foster OCB. By granting employees greater control over their tasks and responsibilities, universities create environments where individuals feel valued and motivated. Research by Abun et al. (2021) and Noranee et al. (2018) underscores that psychological empowerment, such as autonomy and delegation, encourages voluntary behaviours that go beyond formal job requirements, contributing significantly to institutional growth and efficiency.

The benefits of empowerment extend across all roles within universities, from academic staff to administrative employees. For example, Ibua (2017) found that empowering academic and non-academic staff in Kenyan public universities improves their performance by increasing engagement in decision-making processes. Agustina et al. (2021) similarly demonstrated that empowering lecturers in Indonesian universities positively impacts their teaching effectiveness and overall job performance. These findings highlight the universal applicability of empowerment practices, which drive productivity and enhance the contributions of diverse employee groups within educational institutions.

University culture plays a vital role in determining the effectiveness of empowerment initiatives. As Jiang and Fu (2011) demonstrated, a supportive organisational culture directly and indirectly influences the relationship between empowerment and OCB. Leadership is key in shaping this culture, ensuring that policies and practices foster inclusivity and trust. By cultivating an environment where employees feel psychologically safe and supported, universities can maximize the benefits of empowerment, leading to greater collaboration, innovation, and voluntary contributions from their staff.

OCB is essential in public universities, as it encompasses voluntary actions that go beyond formal job responsibilities to enhance institutional success. These behaviours, which include helping colleagues, advocating for institutional goals, and showing initiative, foster a collaborative and resilient organisational culture. Leadership plays a pivotal role in catalyzing OCB. Studies by

Abdullah Shah and Nazar Hussain (2022) and Susanto (2015) highlight how transformational and ethical leadership styles inspire employees to engage in OCB. By fostering a sense of purpose, psychological safety, and mutual trust, leaders motivate employees to adopt proactive and citizenship-like behaviours.

Employee empowerment is another critical determinant of OCB in public universities. Empowerment practices, such as granting autonomy and involving employees in decision-making, encourage individuals to take initiative and contribute beyond their job descriptions. Posadas et al. (2020) demonstrated that faculty empowerment significantly drives OCB in teacher education institutions, while Aksel et al. (2013) emphasised the role of psychological empowerment in fostering these behaviours among academic staff in Turkish universities. Empowered employees are more likely to exhibit commitment, initiative, and collaborative behaviours, creating a ripple effect that enhances institutional performance.

University culture also influences the prevalence and impact of OCB. A supportive and inclusive culture provides the foundation for empowerment and encourages voluntary contributions from staff. Naderi and Hoveida (2013) found that factors like competence and meaning, often cultivated through a strong organisational culture, are vital in fostering OCB among administrative staff. When university leaders prioritize a culture of empowerment and trust, employees feel motivated to contribute to the institution's success, resulting in improved collaboration, innovation, and overall organisational resilience.

The synergy between leadership, empowerment, and OCB is fundamental to the success of public universities. Leadership-driven empowerment is critical in this dynamic, as effective leaders create a culture of trust, autonomy, and support. Transformational leadership, for instance, fosters empowerment by encouraging employees to align personal goals with organisational objectives. Studies by Susanto (2015) and Ritz et al. (2014) demonstrate that this approach facilitates OCB, as employees feel more motivated to contribute voluntarily and meaningfully to their institutions. Leaders enable a culture of collaboration and initiative by inspiring and empowering their teams.

Empowerment serves as a mediator that strengthens the relationship between leadership and OCB. When leaders implement empowerment practices, such as delegation and participatory decision-making, employees feel valued and motivated to engage in extra-role behaviours. Research by Abun et al. (2021) and Noranee et al. (2018) highlights how empowered employees are more likely

to exhibit OCB, as they perceive their contributions as integral to the institution's success. This mediating effect ensures that leadership strategies have a tangible impact on fostering a engaged and proactive workforce in achieving organisational goals.

The impact of OCB on university success is profound, as these voluntary behaviours enhance organisational resilience, innovation, and efficiency. By promoting collaboration and reducing turnover, OCB creates a supportive and adaptive environment that enables public universities to thrive. Abdullah Shah & Nazar Hussain (2022) and Posadas et al. (2020) emphasise the role of OCB in driving innovation and sustaining institutional growth. As employees voluntarily contribute to tasks beyond their formal roles, they reinforce a culture of mutual support and creativity, ensuring the university remains competitive and responsive to challenges. Together, leadership, empowerment, and OCB form a cohesive framework that drives the long-term success of public universities.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

In Africa, most public universities, during the selection of leaders, often consider the candidate's academic research, course development, and community engagement (Anderson et al., 2018). It is important to note that leaders in academic institutions come from different academic backgrounds (Budur, 2020). The selection of leaders in public universities is usually done without considering the individual's leadership potential. Thus, academic qualifications become the basis of appointment. At the same time, criteria such as the leader's ability to motivate employees and empower employees with knowledge and authority are scarcely considered when making selection decisions (Anderson et al., 2018).

Leadership and empowerment in organisations have been shown to influence employee output (Saleem et al., 2019). However, challenges are faced in their pursuit. Some studies on leadership identify different challenges from different sources. Some consider the challenges either task-oriented or personnel management challenges (Uddin & Ferdous, 2020). Cortes et al. (2021) classify the leadership challenges as internal or external challenges. Internal challenges are situated in the work environment. External challenges in organisations arise from policies that affect

leadership practices, especially from oversight authorities under which public educational authorities work (Farazmand, 2020). Stevenson (2023) indicated that previous studies had given two criticisms of university leadership: insufficient development of robust styles of proficient management and orthodox thinking and unchallenged behavior of academic leaders since most have advanced their careers within the system. It is expressed by Ruben et al. (2017) that the selection of ideal academic leaders has become challenging due to the lack of competent candidates. For university leaders, the greater responsibility may become a heavy workload, particularly if the leader is not suited for such a position because of his or her lack of training in administrative issues and responsibilities. Ruben et al. (2017) mentioned that many studies have confirmed that many leaders in universities who are academics described academic leadership as complex and challenging, with significant stress, high burnout and high turnover. Responsibilities of heads of educational institutions include resource management, maintaining the educational mission, and the management of both student and faculty affairs (Aleixo et al., 2018). When heading an academic institution, the management, leadership, and administration often pose a challenge to heads. Alzoraiki et al. (2024) raise the question of whether leaders of academic institutions should act as managers, leaders, or both. In addition to this challenge, tertiary institutions face many new developments regarding tuition, research, and student demands. These require leaders in educational institutes to effect changes to maintain relevance in the competitive educational system (Salmi, 2020). However, in the face of such challenges and the responsibility of leadership, what makes the difference in facilitating the performance of public university students, faculty, and staff has been stated as effective leadership (Aleixo et al., 2018).

Unethical actions by leaders and poor leadership practices in many organisations, including higher education institutions, have become common. The leadership of public universities has demonstrated a failure to follow ethical practices. Amsale et al. (2016) revealed that leaders in public universities in Ethiopia demonstrate low multicultural competence, low altruism, and low ethical behaviour. A study by Cheah et al. (2021) which focused on the role of deans in a private university in Malaysia, highlighted the need for future deans to be trained as leaders to meet the demands of the industry. Therefore, there are clear indications that some university leaders do not have the requisite leadership skills. Creely et al. (2021) identified a lack of adequate creativity among principals of schools. They found that school principals crucially required creativity in

managing the schools. One major challenge of leadership peculiar to universities is that leaders consider themselves academics, not leaders (Gallos & Bolman, 2021). Failure to fulfill their management and leadership responsibilities has led to poor coordination and, subsequently, poor service delivery by universities. Para-Gonzalez (2018) states that very few studies have reported on the link between leadership and organisational performance. However, if leadership can promote OCB, which is linked to employees' performance, then leadership certainly could play a significant role in enhancing organisational performance.

Empowerment serves as an explanatory variable helping us understand how leadership behaviour influences the attachment of employees to their organisation (Saleem et al., 2019). Empowerment is considered a method used by managers to encourage workers to perform better, giving them some power to make decisions on their own (Coun et al., 2022). Employee empowerments require that leaders themselves have empowering skills to empower their subordinates through the development of programmes and training that enhances employee decision-making, opportunity thinking, and cognitions about the meaning of work (Saleem et al., 2019). Empowerment in an organisation is promoted when leaders provide information, knowledge, power, and rewards in an appropriate combination within an organisation. Through empowerment, a worker enjoys autonomy and shares in the organisation's responsibility, which spurs the person to perform better (Kremer et al., 2019; Tingo & Mseti, 2022).

It must be indicated that leadership can create a sense of empowerment among followers without giving them power. This is realized when the lines of communication between management and employees are broadened, sufficient training and resources related to work are supplied, and necessary information is disseminated to empower employees to excel in their roles (Kremer et al., 2019). Empowerment is, therefore, dependent on the leadership style at play in an organisation (Tingo & Mseti, 2022).

In a World Bank report by Plummer (2012), a major challenge to staff upgrading (empowerment) in universities in Ethiopia included favouritism and nepotism. Jo and Park (2016) agreed that empowerment, mostly initiated by the management of organisations, potentially prevents some dimension of power for employees. In such empowerment processes, employees are allowed

limited autonomy and participation to mitigate the potential of voices calling for radical and fundamental changes in the existing relationships between employers and employees. Employees, through empowerment, are involved in some specified areas while excluded from other unspecified but essential areas. An organisation's culture is identified as a challenge to the level of empowerment in organisations. In organisations where the culture forces employees to follow reporting lines strictly, decision authority is dominated by top management, and the use of initiative and discretion by lower-level employees is not tolerated or encouraged. Thus, empowerment is limited in such organisations (Jo & Park, 2016). Effective leadership and the pursuit of empowerment in organisations will be enhanced if challenges that impede their realization are identified and addressed.

Furthermore, OCB has been identified as having a positive impact on the success of institutions, and it is particularly so for educational institutions (Avci, 2016). On the other hand, when employees do not engage in OCB, it negatively impacts the organisation's and the individual's performance (Indarti et al., 2017). Liu et al. (2023) indicated that in organisations where OCB is low, there is high turnover and frequent refusal by employees to perform outside the scope of their formal job requirements.

University leadership has been found to affect employees' OCB directly or indirectly. For instance, Rusliza et al. (2013) indicated that transformational leadership among university leaders is positively correlated with OCB. Novianti (2021) expressed that studies on transformational leadership linked to OCB have been carried out in some developing countries, but the studies were limited. Avci (2016) also indicated that (OCB) plays a crucial role in educational institutions for several reasons. It contributes to strengthening the resilience of the educational system, enhancing the standard of education, and fostering a culture that is oriented towards success and quality. To promote OCB in organisations, leaders play a key role in maintaining and establishing a positive organisational culture that encourages and supports OCB. Dyah Sawitri et al. (2016) argue that OCB is critical for employees as it becomes an indicator of employee productivity, distinct from the core task and employee performance. As such leaders of public universities tasked with the responsibility of building academic blocks for leadership need to develop OCB among employees (Shareef & Atan, 2019). When the public university leadership is ineffective due to an inadequate

understanding of administrative issues and responsibilities, the focus is likely to be on managerial functions. This often happens to the detriment of empowering employees and developing OCB among employees (Al-maaitah et al., 2021).

Questions regarding appointing leaders in tertiary institutions should focus on what leadership skills the leaders in public universities need to bring on board. What strategies are adopted by the leadership of public universities (who are solely academicians) to empower their employees and, in doing so, encourage employees to display OCB?

In view of the paucity of research on leadership, empowerment, and OCB, the following general research question is posed for the purpose of the study:

What is the relationship between leadership, empowerment, and OCB of employees? How do employees differ significantly regarding these attributes in terms of the following socio-demographic variables: gender, educational background, job level, and age, and how can a leadership competency framework assist in the appointment and development of academic leaders?

1.2.1 Research questions with regard to the literature review

In terms of the literature study, the following specific research questions are addressed in the study:

1. How is leadership conceptualised in the literature?
2. How is empowerment conceptualised in the literature?
3. How is OCB conceptualised in the literature?
4. Does a theoretical relationship exist between leadership, empowerment, and OCB?
5. What are the implications of the theoretical relationship between leadership, empowerment and OCB for the appointment and development of leaders at public universities?

1.2.2 Research questions with regards to the empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the following specific research questions are addressed:

1. What is the relationship between leadership and OCB?
2. What is the relationship between empowerment and OCB?

3. To what extent do leadership and empowerment influence employees' OCB?
4. Do individuals from different gender, age, educational level and job level differ significantly regarding leadership, empowerment, and OCB?
5. How should leaders of academic institutions be appointed and developed to ensure the empowerment of employees and the enhancement of OCB?
6. How can a leadership competency framework assist in the appointment and development of leaders?

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

In general terms, this study aims to (1) investigate the relationship between the constructs of leadership, empowerment and OCB; (2) determine whether employees differ significantly regarding leadership, empowerment and OCB attributes in terms of their age, gender, job level and marital status and (3) develop a leadership competency framework for the appointment and development of academic leaders.

1.3.1 Objectives

In this section, the objectives of both the literature review and the empirical study are discussed.

The objectives of the literature review are to:

- Research objective 1:** Examine the construct of leadership as discussed in the literature.
- Research objective 2:** Explore the construct of empowerment as discussed in the literature.
- Research objective 3:** Evaluate the construct of OCB as discussed in the literature.
- Research objective 4:** Investigate the theoretical relationship between leadership, empowerment and OCB.
- Research objective 5:** Determine the implications of the theoretical relationship between leadership, empowerment and OCB for improving leadership and enhancing OCB at public Universities.

The specific aims of the empirical study are to:

- Research objective 1:** Investigate the relationship between leadership and OCB
- Research objective 2:** Assess the relationship between empowerment and OCB
- Research objective 3:** Analyse the relationship between leadership and empowerment
- Research objective 4:** Examine the moderating and mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB.
- Research objective 5:** Determine the extent to which individuals from different gender, age, educational level and job level differ regarding leadership, empowerment and OCB
- Research objective 6:** Develop a leadership competency framework for the appointment and development of leaders at universities in Ghana to ensure the empowerment of employees and the enhancement of OCB.

1.4 META-THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

This study seeks to assess how leadership and empowerment influence OCB in public universities in Ghana. Pursuant to this, theories on Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Social Empowerment were used. From the two theories, a framework is developed to guide this study. Underpinning the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) framework asserts that the need for exchange between leaders and their subordinates compels leaders to adapt their leadership style when interacting with each subordinate (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This adaptive leadership approach is reflected in how leaders develop and maintain unique relationships with their subordinates within the context of work-related activities. According to LMX theory, these relationships result in the emergence of two distinct groups of member-followers: in-groups and out-groups (Dansereau et al., 1975). In-group members are characterized by closer relationships with the leader, receiving greater responsibilities, more rewards, and increased attention, along with flexibility in performing their duties. These factors foster a stronger sense of loyalty and trust between in-group members and their leader (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Conversely, out-group members receive less attention and fewer rewards, and their tasks are often conducted strictly in adherence to organisational policies and guidelines. As a result, these members are more "distanced" from the leader, potentially limiting their engagement and contributions to the organisation (Liden et al., 1997).

Empowerment within the work setting includes the leader allowing subordinates to make decisions about work activities. Empowerment does not occur in a vacuum but thrives under appropriate conditions. These conditions include access to information and resources, as well as provisions for the personal development of each subordinate. According to Dahou and Hacini (2018), this leads to feelings of psychological empowerment, which further translates to better work output by workers. The influence of leadership on empowerment cannot be ignored. This is because for empowerment to occur in a work setting, the leader must be willing to be a facilitator and guide. Instead of strict enforcement of work-defined tasks (contract-based work), workers are allowed some work flexibility with leaders welcoming decisions or suggestions likely to enhance the pursuit of the objectives of the organisation.

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory emphasises the dyadic relationship between leaders and subordinates, directly impacting workplace dynamics, empowerment, and OCB. This theory posits that when leaders cultivate high-quality relationships characterized by trust, respect, and mutual obligation, subordinates are likelier to go beyond contractual obligations and engage in OCB (Andersen et al., 2020; Diebig et al., 2024). Conversely, when these relationships are low-quality and transactional in nature, subordinates tend to limit their efforts to their formal job requirements (Diebig et al., 2024; Alo et al., 2020). For this study, the LMX framework is particularly relevant as it sheds light on how leadership practices can foster or hinder OCB in public universities. Leaders who actively build strong relationships with employees empower them, instil confidence, and motivate them to contribute voluntarily to organisational goals. This alignment reinforces the importance of leadership in creating environments where OCB thrives.

The Social Empowerment Theory provides a detailed framework for understanding how leadership practices foster employees' perceptions of empowerment, subsequently shaping their attitudes and behaviours in the workplace. This theory emphasises that empowerment is a multi-dimensional construct encompassing autonomy, competence, meaningfulness, and impact (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). When leaders engage in practices that enhance these dimensions, they enable employees to perceive their roles as significant and themselves as capable contributors to organisational success. Murray and Holmes (2021) and Jocelyne and Kariuki (2020) explain that

empowerment involves creating an environment where employees are granted autonomy in decision-making, opportunities to develop competence, and avenues for meaningful engagement in their work.

By empowering employees, leaders create conditions where individuals feel valued, trusted, and capable, increasing their intrinsic motivation and willingness to go beyond their formal job responsibilities. This is particularly relevant to OCB, as empowered employees are more likely to engage in discretionary efforts that benefit the organisation (Saleem et al., 2019). Research by Martela and Riekkari (2018) reinforces this perspective, showing that core dimensions of empowerment, particularly autonomy, and competence, are significant predictors of work engagement and proactive behaviours. Employees mentored by empowering and supportive leaders develop a strong sense of belonging and organisational commitment, further enhancing their motivation to contribute to the organisation's success voluntarily and altruistically.

Thus, the Social Empowerment Theory complements the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) framework by highlighting the critical role of leadership in shaping employees' perceptions of empowerment. Together, these theories comprehensively explain how leadership and empowerment interact to influence employees' attitudes, behaviours, and engagement with OCB.

organisation

Together, these theories establish the theoretical foundation for exploring the relationship between leadership, empowerment, and OCB in this study. The LMX theory underscores the critical role of interpersonal relationships in fostering OCB, while the Social Empowerment Theory highlights the importance of empowerment in enhancing employee engagement and voluntary contributions. Integrating these theories allows for a comprehensive understanding of how leadership styles and empowerment practices shape organisational outcomes, particularly in the context of public universities. Leaders who cultivate positive relationships and empower employees are better positioned to inspire OCB, ultimately enhancing institutional performance and sustainability.

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

1.5.1 Supervision and Staff Development and OCB

Based on research objective 1, which seeks to investigate the relationship between leadership and OCB, the hypotheses discussed in Sections 1.5.1, 1.5.2, and 1.5.3 are directly related. These hypotheses are formulated to examine how leadership styles influence OCB. The relationship between leadership, specifically supervision, and OCB is particularly interesting. Several studies provide insights into how supervision and leadership influence OCB, highlighting the important role of leaders in fostering these behaviours.

De Geus et al.'s (2012) investigation into the interplay of leadership, trust, and OCB within the public sector underscores the significance of supervision, an integral part of leadership, in nurturing OCB. Trust in leadership, influenced by the quality of supervision, becomes a crucial factor motivating employees to engage in OCB. LMX theory posits that the quality of the exchange relationship between leaders and members influences the level of trust and cooperation.

Furthermore, Qalati et al.'s (2022) exploration of the mediating role of trust in leadership and rewards elucidate how leadership and supervision contribute to OCB, particularly in sales contexts. Trust in leadership, affected by supervision, plays a pivotal role in motivating employees to exhibit OCB, such as providing exceptional customer service. LMX theory emphasises the reciprocity in leader-follower relationships, where trust is a key element influencing behaviours.

Furthermore, Aryee et al. (2017) delved into the relationship between core self-evaluations, procedural justice, and OCB. This study sheds light on how leadership and supervision can enhance OCB by promoting procedural justice within the organisation. Procedural justice, which is influenced by the behaviour of leaders and supervisors, can impact employees' willingness to engage in citizenship behaviours.

Drawing from the provided studies as well as the logical connections between the constructs, this study hypothesizes that:

Hypothesis 1a (H1a): Supervision and staff development has a positive and significant influence on altruism.

Hypothesis 1b (H1b): Supervision and staff development has a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.

Hypothesis 1c (H1c): Supervision and staff development has a positive and significant influence on civic virtue.

Hypothesis 1d (H1d): Supervision and staff development has a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness.

1.5.2 Interpersonal Relationships and OCB

The relationship between interpersonal relationships, a key construct of leadership, and OCB is a topic that has received significant attention in organisational research. Several studies provide insights into how interpersonal dynamics in the workplace influence OCB, emphasizing the role of leadership in shaping these behaviours.

Alkhadher et al. (2020) investigated individualism-collectivism and its association with OCB, considering the framework provided by the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory. Individualism-collectivism, a dimension tied to interpersonal relationships, denotes an individual's inclination toward either a more individualistic or collectivist approach. The results of this exploration indicate that individuals with a collectivist orientation, as elucidated by the LMX Theory, are more inclined to engage in OCB, particularly in the forms of altruism and civic virtue. This suggests that interpersonal relationships emphasizing collectivism, as theorized by LMX, can positively impact these specific OCB sub-constructs.

Although not a specific study, Organ's (1988) seminal work on OCB lays the groundwork for understanding the concept and its nexus with leadership and interpersonal relationships in the workplace, aligning with the principles outlined in the LMX Theory. As a construct, OCB underscores employees' discretionary efforts to benefit their organisation beyond their formal job roles. This construct inherently involves interpersonal dynamics, as employees willingly participate in these behaviours, often in response to leadership practices fostering a positive and supportive workplace environment, as posited by LMX Theory.

Warren (2020), guided by the LMX Theory, delved into perceived organisational support, significantly influenced by leadership and interpersonal relationships, and its repercussions on OCB. The study illustrates how interpersonal dynamics within the organisation, including the perceived support from leaders as postulated by LMX Theory, can relate to OCB. It emphasises that the quality of interpersonal relationships can shape employees' willingness to engage in citizenship behaviours, in alignment with the LMX Theory.

Saravanan (2019), within the framework of the LMX Theory, explored social exchange in organisations, including leader-member exchange, which is closely linked to interpersonal relationships. The study scrutinizes how these interpersonal dynamics, influenced by leadership practices and the principles of LMX Theory, impact OCB. It underscores the notion that positive leader-member exchanges and healthy interpersonal relationships, as theorized by LMX Theory, can foster OCB by encouraging employee reciprocity.

Beyond these studies, logical connections exist between interpersonal relationships and the constructs of OCB, as emphasised by the LMX Theory. Concerning altruism, positive interpersonal relationships characterized by trust, collaboration, and mutual support, as theorized by LMX, are likely to stimulate altruistic behaviours among employees, fostering a disposition to help others and contribute to the organisation's well-being. In terms of sportsmanship, supportive interpersonal relationships within the workplace, aligned with LMX principles, cultivate a sense of teamwork and cooperation, encouraging sportsmanlike behaviours. Employees engaged in positive interpersonal interactions, as theorized by LMX, are more inclined to assist colleagues and uphold a positive work atmosphere. Regarding civic virtue, interpersonal relationships, as conceptualized by LMX, can spur civic virtue by instilling a sense of shared responsibility and active participation. Employees with robust interpersonal ties, in accordance with LMX principles, are more likely to engage in organisational activities, attend meetings, and stay informed about the organisation's affairs. Lastly, while conscientiousness is closely tied to individual personality traits, positive interpersonal relationships with leaders, as outlined in LMX Theory, can influence this sub-construct by promoting clearer expectations, better performance feedback, and a sense of

accountability. This, in turn, encourages conscientious behaviours among employees, in line with LMX principles.

Based on the insights from the studies provided and the inherent connections between these constructs, this research formulates the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a (H2a): Interpersonal Relationships have a positive and significant influence on altruism.

Hypothesis 2b (H2b): Interpersonal Relationships have a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.

Hypothesis 2c (H2c): Interpersonal Relationships have a positive and significant influence on Civic virtue.

Hypothesis 2d (H2d): Interpersonal Relationships have a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness.

1.5.3 Vision and Goals and OCB

Numerous studies have focused on the relationship between leadership and OCB, shedding light on the influence of leadership styles and behaviours on employees' engagement in OCB. Transformational leadership, characterized by its elements of vision, inspiration, and motivation, has been extensively studied in the context of OCB.

In the investigation conducted by Podsakoff et al. (1990), as cited by Budur and Demir (2022), the role of transformational leadership in relation to OCB was examined, incorporating insights from the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory. The study's findings reveal a positive association between transformational leadership and OCB. Under transformational leaders' guidance, employees demonstrated elevated levels of OCB, indicating that this leadership style, as theorized by LMX, nurtures citizenship behaviours among followers. Additionally, in a comparative study by Kimeto and K'Aol (2018) focusing on transformational leadership in Kenyan and U.S. financial firms, a positive correlation between transformational leadership and OCB was established. This implies that the inspirational and motivating facets of transformational leadership, in accordance with LMX principles, motivate employees to participate in OCB actively, consequently enhancing organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

The collective evidence from these studies strongly supports the positive relationship between transformational leadership, a specific leadership construct, and OCB, as outlined in the LMX Theory. These findings affirm that leaders exemplifying transformational behaviours, including vision, inspiration, and motivation, can inspire employees to engage in OCB, thereby positively impacting organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and overall performance. It is noteworthy that, even though transformational leadership is not explicitly categorized as a construct of leadership in this study, its close association with the construct of vision and goals is acknowledged.

Moreover, a logical nexus exists between the leadership construct of vision and goals and the OCB sub-constructs of altruism, sportsmanship, and civic virtue. In terms of altruism, a leadership style that is visionary and goal-oriented, in alignment with LMX principles, provides clear direction for employees and motivates them to surpass conventional expectations to aid others and contribute to the organisation's well-being, fostering altruistic behaviours. Regarding sportsmanship, leaders emphasizing a clear vision and goals often cultivate a collaborative and cooperative work environment, reflective of the principles of LMX, fostering sportsmanlike behaviours among employees, such as assisting colleagues and nurturing a positive work atmosphere. Additionally, regarding civic virtue, a leadership style centred on vision and goals, as posited by LMX, nurtures a sense of shared responsibility for the organisation and active participation in its development. This encouragement motivates employees to engage in civic virtue behaviours, such as attending meetings, providing input, and staying informed about the organisation's affairs. Lastly, concerning conscientiousness, the vision and goals articulated by leadership, in line with LMX principles, serve as the guiding force for an organisation, charting the course for its future. When leaders effectively communicate a clear and inspiring vision while establishing meaningful goals, employees develop a sense of purpose and direction. This, in turn, promotes conscientious behaviours among employees, as they recognize their integral role in achieving the organisation's objectives. A well-articulated vision and goals, aligned with LMX principles, inspire employees to be diligent, responsible, and dedicated, aligning their efforts with the organisation's broader mission. Building on the evidence from the studies and the logical connections between the constructs, this study hypothesizes that:

Hypothesis 3a (H3a): Vision and Goals have a positive and significant influence on altruism.

Hypothesis 3b (H3b): Vision and Goals have a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.

Hypothesis 3c (H3c): Vision and Goals have a positive and significant influence on civic virtue.

Hypothesis 3d (H3d): Vision and Goals have a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness.

1.5.4 Meaningfulness and OCB

In relation to research objective 2, which seeks to assess the relationship between empowerment and OCB, the hypotheses discussed in Sections 1.5.4, 1.5.5, and 1.5.6 are directly relevant. These hypotheses examine the role of empowerment dimensions, such as autonomy, competence, and meaningfulness, in influencing OCB. The dimension of meaningfulness, an essential empowerment component, plays a significant role in shaping OCB. Several studies have shed light on the empirical relationship between meaningfulness and OCB, emphasizing its impact on employees' engagement in discretionary, pro-organisational behaviours.

A study by Newman et al. (2017) focused on global virtual teams and highlighted the significance of the meaningfulness dimension of empowerment in driving OCB. This research underscores the crucial role of the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, specifically the relationship quality between leaders and team members, in influencing OCB through the meaningfulness dimension. The study demonstrates that when team members perceive their work as meaningful, fostered by positive leader-member exchanges, they are more inclined to engage in OCB, including helping teammates and exceeding their role expectations. This implies that employees who perceive their tasks as meaningful, shaped by the quality of their relationship with leaders, are more likely to go the extra mile to support their team and organisation.

Research by Qing et al. (2020) examines the effects of ethical leadership on job satisfaction and OCB. This study emphasises that when employees perceive their leaders as ethical and concurrently experience their work as meaningful, it positively influences their job satisfaction and OCB. The meaningfulness derived from work, influenced by the ethical aspects of leadership, adds to the positive impact of LMX, further motivating employees to engage in behaviours that benefit the organisation.

A study conducted by Llorente-Alonso et al., (2024) delves into the relationship between psychological empowerment, which includes meaningfulness, and various organisational outcomes. The findings suggest that employees who feel a higher sense of meaningfulness through empowerment, influenced by positive leader-member exchanges, are more likely to engage in OCB. This relationship implies that when employees derive a sense of purpose and significance from their tasks, facilitated by a positive LMX, they are likelier to exhibit behaviours that contribute positively to the workplace.

Furthermore, logical connections exist between meaningfulness and the constructs of OCB. For instance, when employees perceive their work as meaningful due to positive leader-member exchanges, they are more likely to experience a sense of purpose and a desire to positively impact the organisation. This motivation, fostered by LMX, drives them to engage in altruistic behaviours, such as helping colleagues or surpassing their role expectations. Additionally, when employees find their work meaningful through positive LMX, they are more inclined to contribute to creating a harmonious and cooperative atmosphere at work, driven by a shared sense of purpose and collective goals. Consequently, employees who find their work meaningful due to positive LMX are more likely to engage in sportsmanship behaviours. Moreover, in terms of civic virtue, positive LMX contributes to the meaningfulness of employees' work, and this, in turn, encourages them to participate in activities that support the organisation's values and objectives. Lastly, regarding conscientiousness, positive LMX fosters a sense of meaning in employees' work, motivating them to be more committed to their roles and exhibit a higher level of conscientiousness. Their sense of purpose, facilitated by positive LMX, motivates them to perform their tasks with dedication and a strong sense of responsibility.

Based on the insights gained from the given studies, and the inherent connections between meaningfulness and OCB constructs, this study suggests the subsequent hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4a (H4a): Meaningfulness has a positive and significant influence on altruism.

Hypothesis 4b (H4b): Meaningfulness has a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.

Hypothesis 4c (H4c): Meaningfulness has a positive and significant influence on civic virtue.

Hypothesis 4d (H4d): Meaningfulness has a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness.

1.5.5 Autonomy/Decision-making and OCB

Empirical studies provide valuable insights into the relationship between autonomy/decision-making, a key empowerment dimension, and OCB. Here are three studies that shed light on this relationship:

In a study conducted by Hao and Long (2018), the researchers explored the impact of empowering leadership on employee creativity. The study revealed that empowering leadership, encompassing the enhancement of autonomy and decision-making, significantly contributes to creative OCB. The autonomy to make decisions regarding their work boosts employees' likelihood of engaging in innovative behaviours that benefit the organisation. This research emphasises the pivotal role of autonomy in fostering OCB by stimulating innovative contributions from employees, highlighting the significance of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) in this relationship.

Additionally, Qasim et al. (2020) investigated the relationship between ethical leadership, job performance, and OCB, considering workplace harassment as a mediator. Ethical leadership, known for promoting autonomy/decision-making, positively influences OCB by mitigating workplace harassment. Employees perceiving autonomy in decision-making and ethical leadership are more inclined to participate in positive behaviours at work, including OCB. This study underscores the mediating role of reduced workplace harassment in the connection between autonomy and OCB, emphasizing the importance of LMX in facilitating ethical leadership and its positive outcomes.

Lastly, Jehanzeb and Morhanty (2020) conducted a cross-cultural study examining the influence of power distance orientation on OCB, with autonomy/decision-making as a mediating factor. The results demonstrated that the autonomy/decision-making dimension of empowerment, rooted in Social Empowerment Theory, plays a substantial role in mediating the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB, transcending cultural differences. This suggests that

empowering employees with the autonomy to make decisions is a universal factor impacting OCB, further highlighting the role of LMX in fostering positive leadership and empowerment.

These studies reveal that autonomy/decision-making, as a dimension of empowerment, exhibits a positive and significant relationship with various dimensions of OCB. The empowerment of autonomy in decision-making empowers employees, resulting in increased creativity, reduced workplace harassment, and a greater likelihood of engaging in OCB, with LMX and the principles of Social Empowerment Theory playing crucial roles in facilitating these positive dynamics.

Furthermore, logical connections exist between autonomy/decision-making and the constructs of OCB, namely, altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. Increased autonomy/decision-making empowers employees to engage in altruistic behaviours, contribute to the welfare of colleagues, and enhance the overall work environment. Autonomy also fosters sportsmanlike behaviours, teamwork, and a sense of civic engagement, benefiting the broader organisational community. Additionally, autonomy enhances employees' sense of responsibility and accountability, promoting conscientious behaviours such as rule adherence, fulfilling duties, and striving for excellence in their roles. In conclusion, autonomy enables employees to exhibit greater altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness within the organisation, fostering a more productive and harmonious work environment. LMX and Social Empowerment Theory are facilitators of these positive effects.

Drawing from the understanding obtained from the reviewed studies and the intrinsic links between the concepts of autonomy/decision-making and OCB, this research proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5a (H5a): Autonomy/Decision-making has a positive and significant influence on altruism.

Hypothesis 5b (H5b): Autonomy/Decision-making has a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.

Hypothesis 5c (H5c): Autonomy/Decision-making has a positive and significant influence on civic virtue.

Hypothesis 5d (H5d): Autonomy/Decision-making has a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness.

1.5.6 Competence and OCB

Empirical research offers valuable insights into the relationship between the competence dimension of empowerment and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). The relationship between these two constructs is of significant interest as it can shed light on how empowering employees can influence their willingness to engage in OCBs.

First, the seminal study by Rheinberg and Engeser (2018) introduces an “interpretive” model of intrinsic task motivation closely linked to the competence dimension of empowerment. This model emphasises how competence contributes to intrinsic motivation, suggesting that employees perceive themselves as more competent and are more likely to engage in OCB by actively contributing to the organisation. This aligns with the principles of Social Empowerment Theory, highlighting the importance of competence in fostering intrinsic motivation and positive workplace behaviours.

The antecedents and consequences of psychological and team empowerment were investigated in a meta-analytic review by Tang et al. (2020). The analysis revealed that competence, an integral empowerment component, significantly influences individual and team empowerment. As employees and teams experience enhanced competence, job satisfaction and performance improve, providing a strong foundation for expressing OCB. This connection between competence and OCB aligns with the tenets of Social Empowerment Theory, emphasizing the role of competence in influencing positive outcomes within the organisational context.

Additionally, Murphy and Anderson's study in 2020 explores the impact of leadership empowerment behaviour on customer satisfaction and sales force performance. Leadership behaviours that enhance competence through empowerment play a pivotal role in improving performance, including behaviours related to OCB. When employees perceive their leaders as empowering and developing their competence, they are more inclined to engage in OCB, such as going the extra mile to satisfy customers. This demonstrates the applicability of Social

Empowerment Theory in understanding how competence-driven empowerment influences behaviours that contribute to organisational success.

In summary, these studies underscore the significant relationship between the competence dimension of empowerment and various dimensions of OCB. Competence empowers employees, fostering intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, and performance, all contributing to more extensive organisational engagement in OCB. The integration of competence and OCB aligns with Social Empowerment Theory, emphasizing the importance of competence in driving positive workplace behaviours and organisational outcomes.

The logical connections between competence and the constructs of OCB are evident. Increased competence resulting from empowerment encourages altruistic behaviours, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness among employees, fostering a positive and productive work environment. As employees perceive an enhancement in their competence through empowerment, they become more motivated and capable of actively participating in behaviours that positively contribute to the organisation, in line with the principles of Social Empowerment Theory. Based on the insights acquired from the analysed studies and the inherent associations between the notions of competence and OCB, this study puts forth the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6a (H6a): Competence has a positive and significant influence on altruism.

Hypothesis 6b (H6b): Competence has a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.

Hypothesis 6c (H6c): Competence has a positive and significant influence on civic virtue.

Hypothesis 6d (H6d): Competence has a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness.

1.5.7 Supervision and Staff Development and Empowerment

Regarding research objective 3, which focuses on analysing the relationship between leadership and empowerment, the hypotheses discussed in Sections 1.5.7, 1.5.8, and 1.5.9 are closely aligned. These hypotheses explore the connections between leadership styles and various empowerment dimensions such as autonomy, competence, and meaningfulness. The empirical relationship between supervision, staff development (as a key aspect of leadership), and empowerment has been investigated in various studies, shedding light on the intricate connections within these constructs.

In a comprehensive study by Zhang et al. (2018), the primary focus was to comprehend how structural and psychological empowerment could influence job strain in nursing work settings. This investigation extended the theoretical framework established by Kanter by delving into the impact of leadership and supervision on empowerment within healthcare environments. The study's findings underscored the pivotal role of leadership and supervision in facilitating structural empowerment, which encompasses allocating resources, providing support, and disseminating information. Specifically, this structural empowerment, under the guidance of effective leadership, emerged as a critical factor in alleviating job strain among nurses. Consequently, the study highlights a significant connection between leadership, particularly in the form of supervision and support, and the empowerment of healthcare professionals.

Furthermore, García et al. (2020) conducted a meta-analytic review to explore the antecedents and consequences of individual psychological empowerment and team empowerment within organisational contexts. The outcomes of this review indicated that empowering leadership, which includes supervisory support and guidance, plays a pivotal role in enhancing individual psychological empowerment. The study demonstrated that supervision, functioning as a manifestation of leadership, positively influences psychological empowerment, leading to heightened job satisfaction and improved employee performance. The findings accentuate the indispensable nature of the support and guidance provided by supervisors in empowering individuals within the organisational context.

Additionally, Dimas et al. (2018) conducted a study focusing on the mediating role of team resilience in the relationship between positive emotions and team performance. This research shed light on the significance of leadership and supervision in fostering positive emotions and, subsequently, team empowerment. The study found that leadership, through effective supervision and support, contributes significantly to team empowerment, positively impacting team performance. Thus, the research underscores the instrumental role of leadership in creating a positive emotional atmosphere within teams, ultimately facilitating team empowerment and enhancing overall team performance.

Collectively, these studies emphasise the critical importance of supervision and leadership, particularly in the form of support, guidance, and empowerment, in elevating employee well-being, job satisfaction, and overall performance. The findings advocate for the integral role of leadership practices, including effective supervision, in empowering individuals and teams within organisations, ultimately contributing to positive organisational outcomes.

Moreover, a logical link can be established between supervision and staff development, on the one hand, and the dimensions of empowerment (meaningfulness, autonomy, and competence), on the other hand. As a fundamental component of leadership, supervision entails providing guidance, support, and clear communication to employees. When employees experience effective supervision, they are more likely to grasp the significance of their work within the broader organisational context. This connection emphasises the influence of supervision on the meaningfulness dimension of empowerment, as effective supervision contributes to employees perceiving their work as having a meaningful impact—a crucial aspect of psychological empowerment. Furthermore, supervision plays a pivotal role in granting employees a certain level of autonomy by offering guidance and support. Effective supervision involves delegating responsibilities and empowering employees to make decisions, contributing to their sense of autonomy. Lastly, staff development, encompassing training, skill enhancement, and professional growth, directly contributes to employees' competence. Employees acquire new skills and knowledge through staff development initiatives, boosting their confidence in performing tasks effectively. This logical link between staff development and the competence dimension of empowerment highlights how such programs positively influence employees' perception of their competence in fulfilling their roles. Overall, the interplay between supervision, staff development, and the dimension of empowerment forms a cohesive framework that enhances the overall empowerment of individuals within an organisation.

Based on the understanding gained from the studies provided, the inherent relationships between supervision and staff development, and the constructs of empowerment, this research formulated the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 7a (H7a): Supervision and staff development have a positive and significant effect on the meaningfulness dimension of empowerment.

Hypothesis 7b (H7b): Supervision and staff development have a positive and significant effect on the autonomy dimension of empowerment.

Hypothesis 7c (H7c): Supervision and Staff development have a positive and significant effect on the competence dimension of empowerment.

1.5.8 Interpersonal Relationships and Empowerment

Empowerment within organisations is a multifaceted construct that has garnered significant attention in the field of Organisational Psychology. This empowerment encompasses both individual psychological empowerment and team empowerment, and its antecedents and consequences have been the focus of rigorous research. Several empirical studies shed light on the pivotal role of positive interpersonal relationships in fostering empowerment within the workplace.

In a comprehensive meta-analytic review conducted by García et al. (2020), the primary focus was investigating the antecedents and consequences of individual psychological and team empowerment within organisational contexts. The study highlighted the intrinsic correlation between empowering leadership and interpersonal relationships, particularly as conceptualized in Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory. It became evident that leaders who actively foster positive interpersonal relationships and provide support significantly enhance individual and team empowerment. This underscores the profound impact of leadership behaviour, highlighting that leaders who engage in meaningful interactions and offer support play a pivotal role in promoting employee and team empowerment, aligning with the principles of LMX Theory.

Expanding on this perspective, Wong and Kuvaas (2018) integrated Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) “interpretive” model of intrinsic task motivation, a concept closely aligned with Social Empowerment Theory. This seminal work accentuates the cognitive elements of empowerment and underscores the importance of interpersonal relationships and communication. Their study demonstrates how interpersonal interactions, support, and communication act as catalysts for enhancing employees' intrinsic motivation, a core component of empowerment. It reinforces the notion that meaningful interpersonal relationships and effective communication channels contribute to the cultivation of empowerment within the workforce, aligning with the principles of Social Empowerment Theory.

Further affirmation of the role of interpersonal relationships in empowerment comes from Spreitzer's research (1995) on psychological empowerment in the workplace. Spreitzer's study explores the dimensions of psychological empowerment and highlights the influence of supervisors and colleagues in the empowerment process. The findings emphasise that supervisors and colleagues, through their meaningful interactions, participation in decision-making processes, and provision of support, are instrumental in enhancing psychological empowerment among employees (Prabowo et al., 2018). In this context, the study underscores the significance of interpersonal relationships, particularly those with supervisors and coworkers, as crucial factors in promoting and nurturing employee empowerment, in line with both LMX Theory and Social Empowerment Theory.

In summary, the empirical evidence from these studies collectively underscores the substantial impact of positive interpersonal relationships, facilitated by empowering leadership and effective communication, in promoting individual and team empowerment within various organisational settings. These findings highlight the critical role of leadership behaviour and interpersonal dynamics in creating an empowered and motivated workforce, ultimately contributing to enhanced organisational performance and well-being, as elucidated by LMX Theory and Social Empowerment Theory.

Moreover, a logical connection exists between interpersonal relationships and empowerment constructs. Positive interpersonal relationships in the workplace create a sense of connection and belonging among employees, fostering an environment where individuals feel valued and supported. When employees experience warmth, cooperation, and support from their colleagues and supervisors, they are more likely to see their work as purposeful and meaningful. These positive interactions contribute to a sense of shared purpose and alignment with the organisation's goals, enhancing the perceived meaningfulness of their work tasks. As a result, employees find deeper value and significance in their contributions to the organisation. They are more motivated to actively engage in their roles, benefiting both individuals and the organisation. Additionally, regarding autonomy/decision-making, positive interpersonal relationships create a supportive and collaborative work environment, fostering trust and open communication between employees and

their colleagues and supervisors. When employees feel valued, respected, and connected to their peers and leaders, they are more likely to perceive that their decisions are trusted and encouraged. This positive atmosphere provides them with the autonomy and confidence to make decisions related to their work, knowing that they have the backing of their interpersonal network. In such a context, autonomy and decision-making become natural outcomes of these positive relationships, ultimately leading to a more empowered and engaged workforce.

Lastly, positive interpersonal relationships, characterized by supportive interactions and open communication, create an environment where employees feel valued, respected, and encouraged. When employees experience such relationships with colleagues and supervisors, they are more likely to engage in collaborative learning, seek help when needed, and exchange knowledge. This exchange of knowledge and support, in turn, enhances their competence and confidence in performing their job tasks. Effective interpersonal relationships foster a sense of psychological safety, enabling employees to take on challenges, learn from their peers, and continuously develop their skills and knowledge, ultimately leading to a greater sense of competence in their roles. This interconnectedness between positive interpersonal relationships and the dimension of empowerment forms a cohesive framework that fosters a workplace culture of support, trust, and motivation, aligning with the principles of both LMX Theory and Social Empowerment Theory.

Drawing from the insights of the provided studies and the intrinsic links between interpersonal relationships, and empowerment constructs, this research proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8a: Positive interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant effect on the meaningfulness of work in organisations.

Hypothesis 8b: Positive interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant effect on employees' autonomy in decision-making.

Hypothesis 8c: Positive interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant effect on employees' sense of competence.

1.5.9 Vision, Goals and Empowerment

The relationship between Vision, often associated with leadership, and Empowerment is critical to organisational dynamics. Several studies have shed light on how a clear vision and effective leadership can empower employees, leading to various positive outcomes within the workplace.

In a study conducted by Al Harbi (2019), the research delved into transformational leadership, characterized by a compelling vision for the future and its impact on employee creativity. The findings revealed that transformational leadership not only fostered employee creativity but also achieved this by enhancing their sense of psychological empowerment. This highlighted that leadership featuring a clear vision could empower employees, subsequently influencing their creative contributions to the organisation. This observation aligns with the principles of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory, emphasizing the transformative impact of leadership, and the core tenets of Social Empowerment Theory, focusing on the psychological aspects of empowerment.

Khan et al. (2020) conducted a study investigating the effects of transformational leadership on employee job stress. Within this context, transformational leadership, known for its inspirational vision, was identified as positively impacting employee empowerment. This, in turn, acted as a protective buffer against job-related stress. The study demonstrated that leadership characterized by a compelling vision had the potential to empower employees, leading to a subsequent reduction in their job-related stress. This finding resonates with the principles of LMX Theory, highlighting the role of leadership in shaping the quality of the leader-member relationship, and Social Empowerment Theory, which underscores the psychological well-being of individuals within the organisational context.

Faeq et al. (2022) explored resonant leadership, encompassing the communication of a clear vision, and its role in mitigating workplace incivility. Resonant leadership was observed to empower employees by fostering a positive organisational culture, subsequently reducing engagement in workplace incivility. This study underscored the capacity of leadership characterized by a strong vision to empower employees and cultivate a more conducive work environment. Here, the study aligns with both LMX Theory, emphasizing the reciprocal and

mutually beneficial nature of the leader-follower relationship, and Social Empowerment Theory, which posits that a positive work environment contributes to the psychological empowerment of individuals.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) as cited by Suryani (2019) presented an “interpretive” model of intrinsic task motivation, closely associated with empowerment. This study emphasised the cognitive aspects of empowerment, illustrating how a clear vision and meaningful tasks could enhance employees' intrinsic motivation. A leadership approach driven by a compelling vision could inspire employees and elevate their intrinsic motivation, leading to heightened empowerment. This perspective corresponds with both LMX Theory, acknowledging the role of leadership in influencing follower motivation and commitment, and Social Empowerment Theory, which recognizes the cognitive dimensions of empowerment.

Furthermore, a logical connection exists between vision and goals and the constructs of empowerment. Firstly, concerning meaningfulness, a clear and inspiring vision and well-defined goals set by leadership provide employees with a sense of purpose and direction, contributing to the meaningfulness employees attach to their work. Moreover, regarding autonomy, leadership's vision and goals encourage employees to take ownership of their work and make decisions aligned with the broader organisational vision, positively influencing their sense of autonomy. Finally, regarding competence, the vision and goals articulated by leadership can provide a roadmap for skill development and growth, contributing to employees' sense of competence. Therefore, leadership's vision and goals positively influence employees' perceived competence, fostering a holistic sense of empowerment within the organisational context, as outlined by both LMX Theory and Social Empowerment Theory.

Drawing from the insights of the provided studies and the intrinsic links between vision and goals, and empowerment constructs, this research proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 9a (H9a): Leadership's vision and goals have a positive and significant influence on meaningfulness.

Hypothesis 9b (H9b): Leadership's vision and goals have a positive and significant influence on autonomy.

Hypothesis 9c (H9c): Leadership's vision and goals have a positive and significant influence on competence.

1.5.10 Moderating hypotheses

Research objective 4 examines employee empowerment's moderating and mediating role in the relationship between leadership and OCB. The hypotheses discussed in Sections 1.5.10 are related to the moderating role of empowerment. These hypotheses explore how empowerment is a critical intervening factor facilitating this relationship.

1.5.10.1 Moderating effect of meaningfulness on the relationship between supervision and staff development and altruism

Empirical evidence suggests that the relationship between supervision and staff development and altruism in the workplace is influenced by the level of meaningfulness within the empowerment dimension. Several studies within this conversation have provided insights into the intricate dynamics of these constructs.

Firstly, Elche et al. (2020), emphasised the importance of supervision and leadership in fostering OCB, which includes altruism. Their findings indicate that leaders are vital in creating social capital within organisations, further underscoring the relevance of supervision and staff development.

Study findings by Saleem et al., (2020), examined the mediating role of trust in leadership and the use of rewards in building salesperson OCB. This study highlighted how various leadership-related factors, including supervision, influence OCB. It reinforces the idea that effective supervision is essential for enhancing altruistic behaviours among employees.

Moreover, empirical evidence from studies like Sharma (2019) shows that meaningfulness in work significantly influences OCB. Employees who find their work meaningful are more inclined to engage in behaviours like helping teammates or going beyond their role expectations, which aligns with the concept of altruism. This suggests that the meaningfulness dimension of empowerment can play a crucial role in encouraging altruistic behaviours.

These findings collectively indicate that when meaningfulness within the empowerment dimension is high, the positive impact of supervision and staff development on altruism is amplified. Employees who not only receive effective supervision but also find their work meaningful are more likely to engage in altruistic behaviours, benefiting both their colleagues and the organisation. This means a relationship exists between leadership practices, empowerment, and OCB. Based on this discussion this study posits that:

Hypothesis 10 (H10): The positive and significant impact of supervision and staff development on altruism is amplified when the meaningfulness dimension of empowerment is introduced as a moderator.

1.5.10.2 Moderating effect of autonomy/decision-making on the relationship between supervision and staff development and sportsmanship

Empirical research provides valuable insights into the interplay between supervision and staff development, autonomy/decision-making, and the sportsmanship dimension of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB).

One study conducted by Garcia et al. (2020) focused on the antecedents and consequences of psychological and team empowerment in organisations, including the role of autonomy/decision-making in empowerment. This meta-analytic review revealed that autonomy, as an integral component of empowerment, significantly enhances job satisfaction and performance. These outcomes are closely related to OCB, as higher job satisfaction and performance often result in a greater willingness to engage in OCB behaviours, such as sportsmanship.

The study by Salahat (2021) further emphasises the importance of autonomy/decision-making as a mediator in the relationship between leadership practices and OCB. The research examined the cross-cultural aspect of power distance orientation, transformational leadership, and OCB, revealing the crucial role of autonomy in the relationship between leadership, interpersonal dynamics, and OCB.

Empirical evidence highlights that empowerment's autonomy/decision-making dimension is a significant driver of positive behaviours such as sportsmanship. A study by Jiang and Chen (2018)

explored the relationship between transformational leadership (associated with interpersonal relationships) and team innovation. It revealed that transformational leadership influences team innovation through the mediating role of team psychological empowerment. It was evident in the study that autonomy, a critical element of team empowerment, played a significant role in fostering innovation and sportsmanship in teams. When team members are given the autonomy to make decisions, they are likelier to engage in behaviours that contribute to the overall team's performance. Thus, as employees are granted more autonomy in their roles, they tend to exhibit increased job satisfaction and enhanced job performance. In this context, supervision and staff development that promote autonomy can significantly contribute to developing a sportsmanship-oriented workplace culture.

Conclusively, employees not only benefit from supportive supervision and developmental opportunities but also have the autonomy to engage in sportsmanlike behaviours that foster a positive organisational climate. The intricate relationship between leadership, empowerment, and OCB, particularly sportsmanship is therefore evident. Based on this discussion this study hypothesizes that:

Hypothesis 11a (H11a): The positive and significant influence of supervision and staff development on Sportsmanship is amplified when autonomy/decision-making is introduced as a moderator.

1.5.10.3 Moderating effect of autonomy/decision-making on the relationship between interpersonal relationship and conscientiousness

Empirical research provides valuable insights into the complex relationship between interpersonal relationships, autonomy/decision-making, and conscientiousness in the workplace.

Several studies within this discussion have shed light on the interplay between these constructs. The research conducted by Jiang and Chen (2018) explored the link between transformational leadership and team innovation mediated by team psychological empowerment, including the autonomy/decision-making dimension. This study demonstrates that leadership-related factors, including interpersonal relationships, can foster team empowerment, which, in turn, can enhance conscientious behaviours such as innovation.

The findings from the study conducted by Rai and Agarwal (2020) also provide valuable insights. This research focused on the cross-cultural aspect of power distance orientation, transformational leadership, and OCB, considering the role of autonomy/decision-making in empowerment. The findings underline the significance of the autonomy/decision-making dimension of empowerment as a mediator in the relationship between leadership practices, interpersonal relationships, and conscientiousness across various cultural contexts.

Empirical evidence highlights the importance of the autonomy/decision-making dimension of empowerment as a crucial factor that influences conscientious behaviours. As employees experience greater autonomy and decision-making opportunities, they are more likely to demonstrate conscientious behaviours, taking their work seriously and fulfilling their responsibilities diligently. Interpersonal relationships, on the other hand, play a pivotal role in enhancing these behaviours.

These findings collectively suggest that when the autonomy/decision-making dimension of empowerment is high, the positive impact of interpersonal relationships on conscientiousness is amplified. In such scenarios, employees not only benefit from positive relationships but also have the autonomy to make decisions which further motivates them to exhibit conscientious behaviours, contributing to organisational success. The intricate relationship between leadership, empowerment, interpersonal dynamics, and conscientiousness in the workplace is therefore evident. Drawing from the discussion above the study proposes that:

Hypothesis 11b (H11b): The positive and significant impact of interpersonal relationships on conscientiousness is more pronounced when the autonomy/decision-making dimension of empowerment is introduced as a moderator.

1.5.10.4 Moderating effect of autonomy/decision-making on the relationship between interpersonal relationship and civic virtue

Empirical research provides valuable insights into the interplay between interpersonal relationships, the autonomy dimension of empowerment, and the Civic Virtue dimension of OCB.

In a study conducted by Monje-Amor et al. (2021), the impact of structural and psychological empowerment on job strain in nursing work settings was explored. This research highlighted the importance of empowerment, including autonomy, in healthcare settings. Empowerment facilitated by leadership and supervision was found to significantly impact nurses' job strain. These findings suggest that higher levels of autonomy and empowerment can lead to improved behavioural outcomes, such as civic virtue, among healthcare professionals.

The study by Suriansyah et al. (2019), further underscores the significance of autonomy in the relationship between leadership practices, interpersonal dynamics, and OCB. It examined the cross-cultural aspects of power distance orientation, transformational leadership, and OCB, revealing that autonomy plays a vital mediating role in the relationship between leadership and OCB. This suggests that when employees have a higher degree of autonomy, their response to the positive influence of leadership and interpersonal relationships is more pronounced.

Empirical evidence demonstrates that the autonomy dimension of empowerment significantly influences positive behaviours such as civic virtue. The ability to make decisions and have a degree of autonomy in one's role can foster a sense of responsibility and ethical behaviour. In this context, the positive and significant effect of interpersonal relationships on civic virtue is amplified when autonomy is at a higher level, creating an environment in which employees are not only encouraged by positive relationships but also empowered to take a more active role in displaying civic virtue.

Hypothesis 11c (H11c): The positive and significant effect of positive interpersonal relationships on civic virtue is further amplified when the autonomy dimension of empowerment is introduced as a moderator.

1.5.10.5 Moderating effect of meaningfulness on the relationship between Vision and Goals and Altruism

Empirical evidence offers valuable insights into the interplay between the Vision and Goals construct of leadership, the meaningfulness dimension of empowerment, and the Altruism dimension of OCB.

One of the studies that sheds light on this relationship is a study by Alkhadher et al., (2020), exploring individualism-collectivism as an individual difference predictor of OCB. This study hints at the role of leadership and individual values in influencing OCB. Although it does not explicitly address the moderating effect of empowerment, it emphasises the importance of employees' values and how they relate to their OCB. Meaningfulness, an essential aspect of empowerment, is likely to affect the alignment between leadership's vision and employees' willingness to engage in altruistic behaviours.

A study by Kim and Beehr (2018), delves into psychological empowerment and its dimensions. This research demonstrates how empowerment, including meaningfulness, relates to various outcomes, including OCB. As employees find their work meaningful and derive a sense of purpose, they are more likely to engage in behaviours that go beyond their role expectations, contributing to OCB.

Empirical findings consistently highlight the role of meaningfulness in influencing OCB. Employees who find their work meaningful are more likely to be motivated to exhibit behaviours such as Altruism. The meaningfulness dimension of empowerment creates an environment where leadership's Vision and Goals have a more pronounced and positive influence on Altruism. Based on the discussion in this section this study hypothesizes that:

Hypothesis 12a (H12a) underscores the relationship between Vision and Goals, meaningfulness, and Altruism, suggesting that the positive and significant effect of Vision and Goals on Altruism is amplified when meaningfulness is introduced as a moderator.

1.5.10.6 Moderating effect of competence on the relationship between Vision and Goals and Conscientiousness

Empirical research provides valuable insights into the relationship between the Vision and Goals construct of leadership, the competence dimension of empowerment, and the conscientiousness dimension of OCB.

One study that contributes to understanding this relationship is a study by Murphy and Anderson (2020). This study explored the influence of leadership empowerment behaviour on customer

satisfaction and sales force performance. This study emphasises how leadership behaviour, which enhances competence through empowerment, plays a pivotal role in improving performance, including behaviours related to OCB. When employees perceive their leaders as empowering and enhancing their competence, they are more inclined to engage in Conscientiousness, going the extra mile to provide superior customer service.

In the study by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) as cited in Taştan (2021), which presented an “interpretive” model of intrinsic task motivation, the connection between competence and intrinsic motivation, an integral part of empowerment is highlighted. The study demonstrates that competence contributes to intrinsic motivation, which can drive OCB. As employees feel more capable and confident in their abilities, they are more likely to engage in Conscientiousness and actively contribute to the organisation. These findings collectively underscore the importance of competence in influencing OCB, particularly the conscientiousness dimension. Based on the discussion, this study posits that:

Hypothesis 12b (H12b) The positive and significant effect of vision and goals on conscientiousness is amplified when competence is introduced as a moderator.

1.5.11 Mediating hypotheses

Again, research **objective** 4 seeks to examine the moderating and mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. The hypotheses discussed in Sections 1.5.11 are related to the mediating role of empowerment. These hypotheses explore how empowerment strengthens the link between leadership and OCB.

Several studies have looked at the mediating role of employee empowerment or psychological empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. Most of these studies conclude that leadership indirectly impacts OCB with employee empowerment or psychological empowerment as mediators. For example, Saira et al. (2020) conducted a study that focused on how psychological empowerment, a psychological state of feeling meaningful, competent, self-determined, and impactful, influences the effects of transformational leadership, a leadership style that inspires and motivates followers to achieve higher goals, on two employee outcomes: OCB,

the voluntary and extra-role behaviours that benefit the organisation, and turnover intention, the intention to leave the organisation. Using structural equation modelling (SEM) to analyse the data and test the hypotheses, the study finds that psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and both OCB and turnover intention. That is, transformational leadership enhances psychological empowerment among followers, which in turn increases their OCB and reduces their turnover intention.

Moreover, Sarwar et al. (2022) also conducted a study that focused on the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB, with a focus on the mediating role of psychological empowerment and the moderating role of high-performance managerial practices. Data for this study was collected from 267 bank employees, including both subordinates and their supervisors, and analysed using partial least squares structural equation modelling. The findings suggest that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB. Furthermore, of high-performance managerial practices were found to enhance OCB by amplifying the effect of ethical leadership on employees' psychological empowerment. This implies that ethical leadership can foster through psychological empowerment, and this effect is enhanced when high performance managerial practices are in place.

Furthermore, Sattar et al. (2020) explored the impact of ethical leadership on employee outcomes, such as OCB and innovative work behaviour. The paper also investigates how psychological empowerment mediates this relationship. The paper used data from 382 bank employees in Lahore, Pakistan, and found that psychological empowerment partially mediates the effect of ethical leadership on employee outcomes.

Again, Judeh et al. (2022) examined the interconnected dynamics of resonant leadership, psychological ownership, and organisational commitment. Their research delved into the mediating influence of employee empowerment in these relationships. The findings support that resonant leadership positively influences psychological ownership by enhancing employee empowerment, underscoring the role of resonant leadership in shaping employees' profound connection to their work and the organisation. Additionally, resonant leadership contributes to organisational commitment through the mediating mechanism of employee empowerment. This

suggests that resonant leadership not only empowers employees but also fosters a heightened loyalty and attachment to the broader organisational objectives (Judeh et al., 2022).

Ghalavi and Nastiezaie (2020) investigated how servant leadership affects OCB. The paper also examined how psychological empowerment mediated this relationship. The paper used data from 343 work-group-level (supervisors) and 835 individual-level (employee) from a sample of 171 hotels in Iran and analysed it using SEM-PLS with Smart PLS version 3.0.

1.5.11.1 Mediating effect of autonomy and decision making

Based on the discussion on the mediating roles of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB, the following mediating roles of autonomy and decision making are postulated:

Leadership, Autonomy/Decision-making and Civic virtue

H13a: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and civic virtue.

H13b: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between vision and goals and civic virtue.

H13c: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.

Leadership, Autonomy/Decision-making and Sportsmanship

H13d: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and sportsmanship.

H13e: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between vision and goals and sportsmanship.

H13f: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.

Leadership, Autonomy/Decision-making and Conscientiousness

H13g: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and conscientiousness.

H13h: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between vision and goals and conscientiousness.

H13i: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and conscientiousness.

Leadership, Autonomy/Decision-making and Altruism

H13j: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and altruism.

H13k: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between vision and goals and altruism.

H13l: Autonomy/decision-making mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.

1.5.11.2 Mediating effect of meaningfulness

Drawing from the discourse on the intermediary functions of employee empowerment within the relationship between leadership and OCB, the subsequent mediating roles of meaningfulness are hypothesized:

Leadership, Meaningfulness and Civic Virtue

H14a: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and civic virtue.

H14b: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between vision and goals and civic virtue.

H14c: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.

Leadership, Meaningfulness and Sportsmanship

H14d: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and sportsmanship.

H14e: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between vision and goals and sportsmanship.

H14f: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.

Leadership, Meaningfulness and Conscientiousness

H14g: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and conscientiousness.

H14h: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between vision and goals and conscientiousness.

H14i: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and conscientiousness.

Leadership, Meaningfulness and Altruism

H14j: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and altruism.

H14k: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between vision and goals and altruism.

H14l: Meaningfulness mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.

1.5.11.2 Mediating effect of competence

Based on the discussion on the mediating roles of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB, the following mediating roles of competence are postulated:

Leadership, Competence and Civic Virtue

H15a: Competence mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and civic virtue.

H15b: Competence mediates the relationship between vision and goals and civic virtue.

H15c: Competence mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue.

Leadership, Competence and Sportsmanship

H15d: Competence mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and sportsmanship.

H15e: Competence mediates the relationship between vision and goals and sportsmanship.

H15f: Competence mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship.

Leadership, Competence and Conscientiousness

H15g: Competence mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and conscientiousness.

H15h: Competence mediates the relationship between vision and goals and conscientiousness.

H15i: Competence mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and conscientiousness.

Leadership, Competence and Altruism

H15j: Competence mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and altruism.

H15k: Competence mediates the relationship between vision and goals and altruism.

H15l: Competence mediates the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism.

1.5.12 Conceptual Framework

This study investigates the intricate relationships between leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB with the aim of developing a leadership competency framework for public universities in Ghana. The conceptual framework provides a structured understanding of these connections, highlighting how leadership practices influence employee empowerment and, in turn, impact OCB. Each construct is divided into key sub-constructs to capture its multifaceted nature. The conceptual framework for the study is depicted in Figure 1.

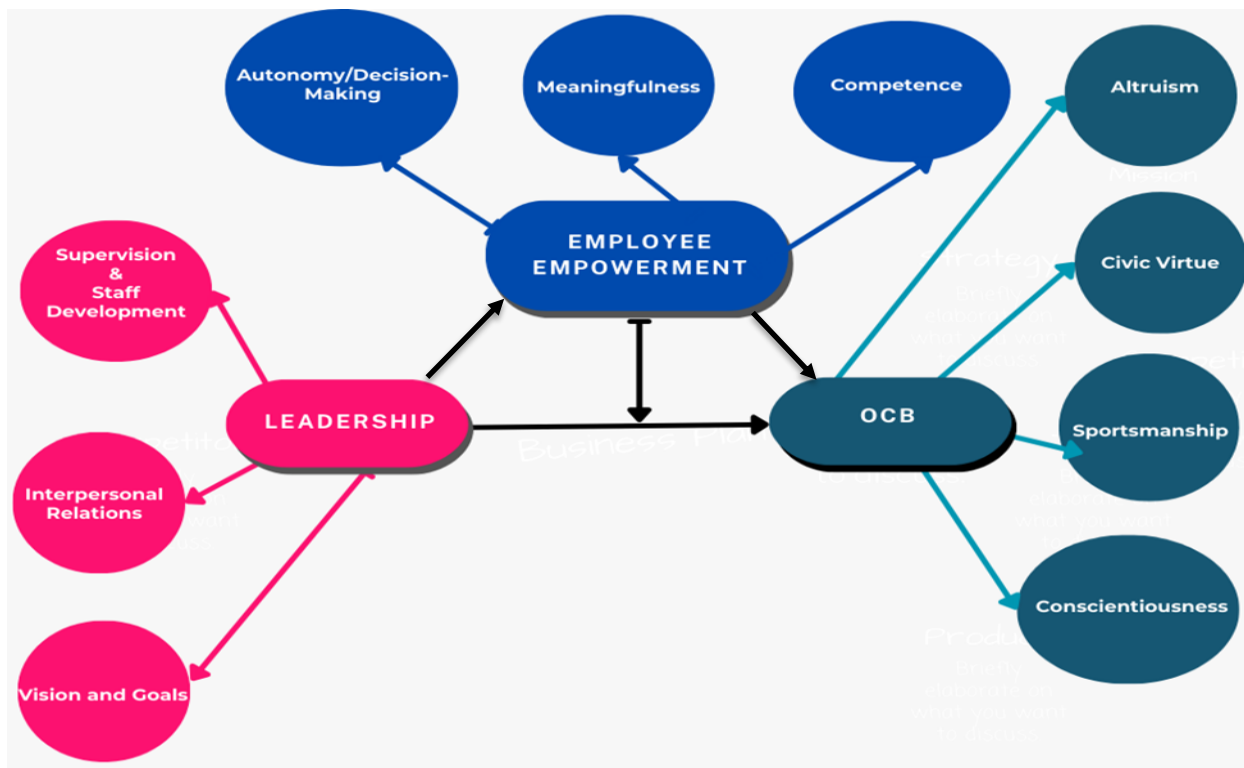


Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework of the study

Source: Author's own construct

Leadership, as the independent variable, plays a pivotal role in shaping both employee empowerment and OCB. It is divided into three core sub-constructs: Supervision and Staff Development, Vision and Goals, and Interpersonal Relationships. Supervision and Staff Development involve providing guidance, support, and growth opportunities, which are crucial for enhancing employees' skills and motivation, thereby fostering a conducive environment for growth and performance. Vision and Goals pertain to articulating and communicating a clear organisational direction, enabling employees to align their efforts with the organisation's mission, thus creating a sense of purpose and unity. Interpersonal Relationships focus on the quality of interactions between leaders and employees, forming the foundation of trust, collaboration, and a supportive workplace culture. Positive interpersonal relationships encourage open communication and teamwork, which are essential for achieving organisational objectives. Together, these sub-constructs of leadership significantly influence employee empowerment and OCB, driving overall organisational success.

Employee empowerment serves as both a moderator and a mediator within the framework, underscoring its pivotal role in converting effective leadership into positive organisational outcomes. It encompasses three sub-constructs: meaningfulness, competence, and autonomy/decision-making. Meaningfulness ensures that employees perceive their work as significant and purposeful, thereby boosting motivation and engagement. Competence involves employees' belief in their ability to perform tasks effectively, which is enhanced through leadership practices such as training and feedback, leading to higher job satisfaction and productivity. Autonomy/decision-making grants employees the freedom to make decisions and exercise control over their work, fostering a sense of ownership and responsibility. This autonomy is a crucial driver of empowerment, promoting greater creativity and commitment among employees. Together, these elements of empowerment facilitate the translation of leadership into enhanced OCB and overall organisational success.

OCB serves as the dependent variable in the study, encapsulating the positive, voluntary behaviours employees exhibit to benefit their organisation. It is divided into four key dimensions: sportsmanship, civic virtue, altruism, and conscientiousness. Sportsmanship reflects an employee's ability to maintain a positive attitude in challenging circumstances, thereby reducing workplace conflicts and promoting harmony. Civic virtue involves active participation in the organisation's activities and governance, fostering a culture of accountability and engagement. Altruism encompasses voluntary acts of helping others within the organisation, contributing to a cooperative and supportive environment. Lastly, conscientiousness is characterized by employees consistently exceeding expectations in their roles, demonstrating reliability, diligence, and dedication. Together, these dimensions of OCB highlight the various ways in which employees can go above and beyond their formal job requirements to support and enhance organisational effectiveness.

The conceptual framework highlights the interconnected relationships among leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. Effective leadership practices, such as providing supervision, articulating a clear vision, and fostering strong interpersonal relationships, directly empower employees by enhancing the meaningfulness of their work, improving their competence, and granting autonomy. In turn, empowered employees are more likely to exhibit OCB, as they feel motivated, capable, and responsible for contributing positively to their organisation. Leadership

also directly influences OCB by creating a supportive and motivating work environment and indirectly by fostering empowerment, which serves as a bridge to positive discretionary behaviours. This integrated framework underscores the pivotal role of leadership in cultivating an empowered workforce that is engaged, committed, and actively contribute to organisational success.

1.6 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE INVESTIGATION OF DEMOGRAPHIC DIFFERENCES

Research objective 5 sought to determine the extent to which individuals from different gender, age, educational level, job level differ regarding leadership, empowerment and OCB. Demographic factors, such as gender, age, educational level, and job level, play a critical role in shaping employees' perceptions and behaviours in organisational settings. Prior studies have emphasised the importance of considering demographic differences when examining constructs like leadership, empowerment, and OCB, as these factors often influence how employees experience and respond to their work environment. For instance, research by Chaluvadi (2015) suggests that leadership styles can be perceived differently by male and female employees due to societal and cultural expectations. Furthermore, studies such as those by Rana and Singh (2016) and Giorgidze (2017) found that employees' educational levels significantly shape their sense of empowerment, with individuals possessing higher educational qualifications perceiving greater autonomy and competence in the workplace.

Age is another demographic variable that has been extensively studied in relation to workplace behaviours. O'Driscoll and Roche (2017) observed that older employees tend to engage more in OCB compared to younger ones, possibly due to their longer tenure and deeper organisational commitment. However, these findings are not consistent across all contexts; Gyekye et al. (2015) found no significant age-related differences in OCB. These inconsistencies in the literature highlight the importance of exploring demographic differences in diverse organisational and cultural contexts, such as public universities in Ghana, to provide more nuanced insights.

Additionally, job level is a key factor influencing perceptions of empowerment and OCB. Senior staff members, often holding more strategic roles, tend to experience higher levels of

empowerment and are more likely to demonstrate OCB behaviours (Li et al., 2017; Shahab et al., 2019). Understanding how leadership, empowerment, and OCB are perceived across different job levels can help tailor leadership and management practices to meet the unique needs of employees at various organisational tiers. By investigating demographic differences, this study aims to fill a critical gap in the literature, particularly within the context of public universities in Ghana, where such studies are limited. Examining these differences can help organisations develop inclusive and adaptive leadership approaches and empowerment strategies that account for the diverse needs of their workforce, ultimately fostering a more supportive and productive work environment.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is seen as the elementary framework that outlines the interrelationships between several research activities required to effectively address the principal stages of a research. This ensures that the study effectively addresses the research questions (Dannels, 2018). According to Creswell (2014) research design refers to the overall procedure involved in undertaking research right from conceptualising a problem to inscription research questions, data collection, analysis, interpretation, and report writing. Furthermore, Yin (2003, p. 20) also indicated that research design is the *“logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study’s initial research questions and ultimately to its conclusions.”*

Designing research could either be intensive or extensive (Dannels, 2018). The intensive research focuses on causal processes and how it works out in a certain number of situations. Usually, intensive research is in-depth, thorough and exhaustive. On the other hand, extensive research places emphasis on discovering common characteristics and patterns of a population. In extensive research, both descriptive and inferential statistics along with numerical analysis is employed. Further, questionnaires used in a survey of formal and large population or representative sample of the population are employed in extensive research. As regards to the aim of this study, which is to investigate the relationship between the constructs of leadership, empowerment and OCB, the extensive research design was adopted for this study. This allows the researcher to cover a larger sample size and to undertake inferential statistical analysis for generalization to the entire population under study.

1.7.1 Type of research

The quantitative research model employs a pragmatic approach in the research process. Quantitative research collects data from the actual world setting and then analyses data using statistical tools in answering the research questions (Bryman, 2012). Quantitative studies collect data to learn about the evidence of variables (Aspers & Corte, 2019). A quantitative perspective is experimental in nature, emphasises measurement and searches for a relationship. It further originates from a positivist epistemology, which holds that there is an objective reality that can be expressed numerically (Mohajan, 2020). Quantitative data have features that can be measured and the magnitude is then usually expressed in numbers; thereafter, the data can be analysed using mathematical procedures (Walliman, 2017). Quantitative research is classified as a more structured approach to research by quantifying problems, confirming theories or exploring relationships (Mohajan, 2020). With regards to this study, quantitative research would thus be the most suitable to use. Quantitative research methods, including surveys and statistical analysis, allow for precise and reliable hypothesis testing. This systematic approach ensures that the results are both valid and replicable in various contexts (Creswell, 2018). By utilizing quantitative techniques, the study can identify patterns and causal relationships among variables, offering a solid framework for comprehending how leadership and empowerment impact OCB. Primary quantitative data is collected from a subgroup within the identified institution, using self-administered electronic questionnaires. Questionnaires can be a relatively economical method, saving cost and time when collecting data from many people. Another advantage of a self-administered electronic questionnaire is that the respondents can take their time to think about and answer the questions which can lead to more accurate information (Meirte et al., 2020). Interactions with the respondents are standardized and restricted so as not to bias the responses (Dalati & Gomez, 2018).

1.7.2 Research variables

Variables involves the process of converting difficult concepts into easily understandable concepts which then can be empirically measured (Kaur & Mittal, 2021). Determining variables in research involves the logical grouping of attributes. There are two types of variables in every research namely, the dependent and the independent variables. The variables for this study include leadership, empowerment, and OCB. In terms of the dependent and independent variables,

leadership and empowerment within the public Universities are the independent variables that are assumed to influence the dependent variable, OCB of staff of public universities in Ghana.

1.7.3 Methods used to ensure reliability and validity

For measuring instruments to influence the extent to which one can learn something about what is being studied, the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument need to be tested. Validity and reliability suggest the extent to which a meaningful conclusion can be drawn from the data collected. It also reveals the extent to which there may be an inaccuracy in the measurements of the variables (Clark & Watson, 2019). The validity and reliability of the study must be ensured for it to be effective. The following measures are taken to meet these requirements.

1.7.3.1 Reliability

A measuring instrument is said to be reliable if it offers constant results (Clark & Watson, 2019). A measuring instrument is reliable if the instrument can provide consistent measures (Sürücü & Maslakci, 2020). The precision of the research data can be measured only when its regularity can also be measured. In simple terms, reliability refers to obtaining the same or similar results using the same instrument under the same or similar conditions by collecting the same or similar information at a different point in time. The reliability of an instrument is of vital significance, as it refers to the credibility of the measuring instrument, which ultimately refers to the credibility of the entire research project. In order to ensure the reliability of the measuring instrument, the Cronbach's alpha and inter-item correlation coefficients was used (Hajjar, 2018). The Cronbach's alpha is a coefficient that measures the internal consistency of a scale, whereas correlation coefficients measure the amount of association between two variables (Hajjar, 2018; Schober et al., 2018). To ensure reliability of the data obtained, the questionnaire was drafted to address the research questions and in a manner that was easy for respondents to understand and provide answers without any difficulties. Further, to ensure that respondents provided consistent responses to ensure reliability, the questionnaire was pre-tested through a pilot study where any question misunderstood by respondents was rephrased to the understanding of the respondents. The reliability of the study increased further by using existing literature sources in the literature review and using a representative sample.

1.7.3.2 Validity

Validity measures the soundness and effectiveness of the measuring instrument. Thus, the validity of a measuring instrument is the degree to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Clark & Watson, 2019). Internal and external validity are very important and are required for the accuracy and quality of a research design; for this reason, both types must be maximised as far as possible (Patino & Ferreria, 2018). Internal validity indicates that, with regards to a specific phenomenon, the research generates precise and valid findings (Quintão et al., 2020). External validity indicates the extent to which the results of the study can be generalised to larger populations and environments (Baldwin, 2018).

In this research, the internal validity was ensured in the following ways:

- The literature review was organized based on theories pertinent to the research topic, problem statement, and research objectives of the current study.
- Measuring instruments were chosen in a responsible and representative manner; they were presented in a standardised method and the influence of extraneous variables were eliminated.

The external validity was ensured in the following ways:

- The selection of the sample was representative of the total population.
- The findings of the research can be generalised to include the total population.

The validity of the data gathering instrument ensured as follows:

- Exploratory factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha coefficients is used to ascertain the construct validity and internal consistency reliability of the new measuring instrument that was developed for the purposes of this study.
- To ensure content validity, an effort was made to ensure that the data collection was carried out meticulously. Also, the data was coded accurately and analysed correctly, and the findings were based on the analysed data.
- The processing of statistics was carried out by an expert, using the most current computer package.
- The reporting and interpreting of results were accomplished using standardised procedures.

- The researcher ensured that the final conclusions, implications, and recommendations are based on the findings of the research.

1.7.4 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis is the population from which a sample is selected for the study. The unit of analysis in most research forms the primary source of data. The unit of analysis for this study is the academic and administrative staff of public universities in Ghana.

1.7.5 Methods to ensure adherence to ethical research principles.

Ethical clearance was received from the University of South Africa's Human Resource Management Ethics Review Committee before the commencement of the data collection. Ethics in research pertain to a researcher's conduct, distinguishing between right and wrong (Saunders et al., 2016). Therefore, ethical principles must be followed to ensure the credibility of the research data and to safeguard the participants. To ensure that ethical principles in research are followed, a letter was addressed to the appropriate administrative heads of the public universities under study to provide them with information on the study and to seek permission to carry out the study in the universities.

After obtaining the necessary permissions, informed consent was ensured by providing participants with a clear explanation of the study's purpose and objectives. Participants were informed that the research was conducted solely for academic purposes and that there were no known risks associated with their participation. Each participant was given a detailed consent form to review and sign, indicating their understanding of the research and their willingness to participate. The principle of voluntary participation was upheld, with participants informed that their involvement in the study was entirely optional. They were assured that they could withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences. This ensured that their participation was based on free will and without coercion.

Confidentiality was strictly maintained throughout the research process. Participants were assured that their personal information would remain private, and their identities would not be revealed in the study. Measures were taken to anonymize responses, ensuring that individual contributions

could not be traced back to specific participants. Lastly, in adherence to ethical research practices, all sources of information were properly cited and acknowledged to uphold the principles of academic honesty and integrity. These ethical measures were integral to conducting the study responsibly and respectfully.

The research was conducted within the ambit of the ethical requirements and procedures of UNISA, and the research ethics procedures of the institution were therefore always followed. The UNISA ethical requirements and procedure considerations form part of every step of the research process to ensure that the researcher is guided during the study. Informed and voluntary consent was obtained from all the relevant participants during the study and all information, data and results remain strictly confidential. The research was designed in such a way that individuals, organisations and the community will benefit from it while there will be no harm inflicted on any individual involved in the research process (Knight, 2023). The researcher aimed to remain objective and to conduct the research with integrity. The principles of ethics in research, as indicated in the Institutional Research Ethics Policy (University of South Africa, 2014), are as follows:

- The fundamental right to academic freedom and freedom of scientific research
- Integrity in research that encompasses the competence and accountability of the researcher
- Acting responsibly and striving for excellence in research
- Not contravening the institutional Policy on Research Ethics
- Obtaining approval for research involving human participants
- Undertaking research that will benefit society
- Making the research findings available in the public domain
- Guiding against harmful or undesirable consequences of the research
- Honesty with regard to individual actions and responses to the actions of others
- Not committing plagiarism, piracy, falsification or fabrication of results
- Accurately and truthfully reporting the results of the research
- Reporting to the relevant Ethics Review Committee when requested to do so
- Researchers should adhere to relevant requirements arising in respect of data curatorship and data management.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section provides more details with regards to the methods that were used in data gathering for the empirical study. It also includes the literature review that provides in-depth information on the theoretical background of the study as well as the practical application of the theory to test hypotheses. The research method consisted of two phases, namely a literature review and an empirical study.

1.8.1 Phase one: Literature review

The literature review, which is the phase one, provided the theoretical background, findings of previous studies, how the theory relates to the research and, lastly, how the research added to the existing body of knowledge (Snyder, 2019; Booth et al., 2021). In this case, the literature review served to conceptualise leadership, empowerment, and OCB in public universities. The steps followed in this phase are as follows:

- Step 1:** Conceptualise the construct of leadership from theoretical perspectives.
- Step 2:** Conceptualise the construct of empowerment from theoretical perspectives.
- Step 3:** Conceptualise the construct of OCB from theoretical perspectives.
- Step 4:** Identify the implications of the theoretical relationship between leadership, empowerment and OCB for improving leadership and enhancing OCB at public Universities.

1.8.2 Phase Two: Empirical study

The empirical study constituted the phase two of the study. This phase includes:

1.8.2.1 Formulation of research objectives

The research objectives were formulated to outline what this study sought to achieve and to determine the appropriate statistical analyses.

1.8.2.2 Research Participants

The empirical study took place amongst a total population of about 13,212 staff in the four public universities selected for the study. Specifically, the population comprised of the management of

the public universities and both academic and non-academic staff in public universities. The unit of analysis refers to the units in which variables are measured, and these could fall into any of the following categories: individuals, groups, organisations or society. In this study, the unit of analysis is the individual. The population included individuals of different age, race, gender, job level and marital status.

Figures 1.2 and 1.3 provide graphical representation of the steps in the research process.

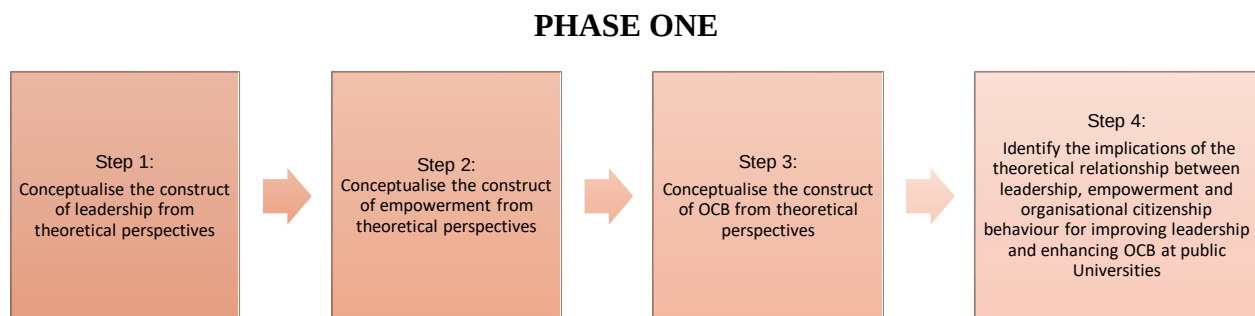


Figure 1.2: The Research Process

Source: Author's own construct

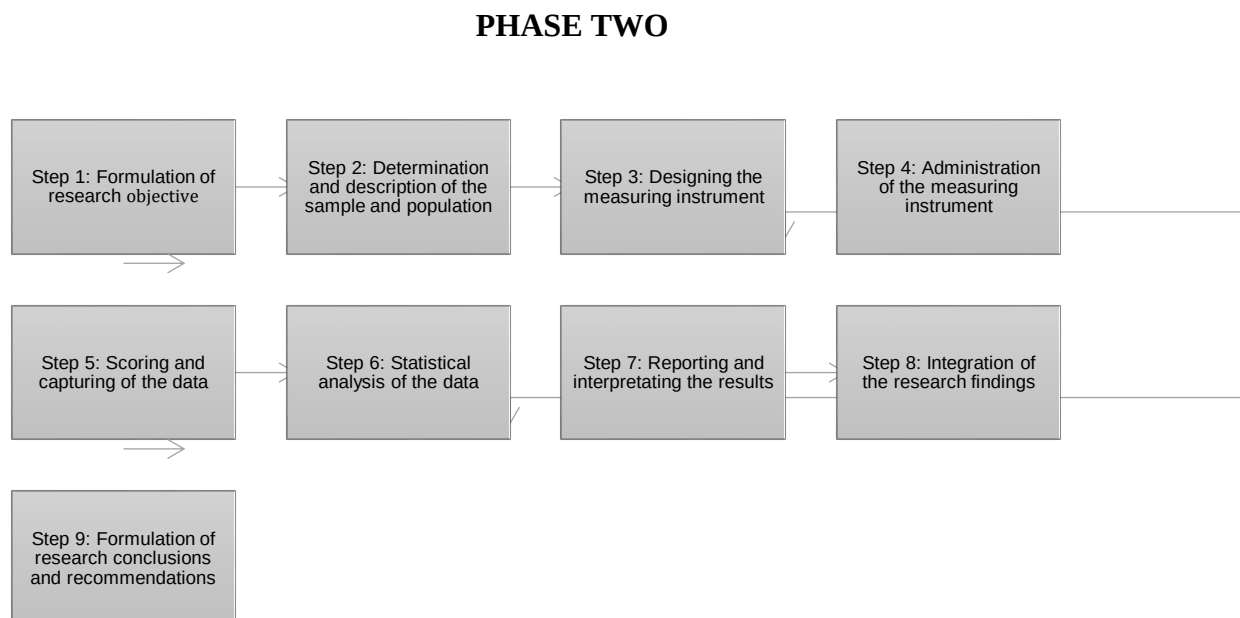


Figure 1.3: The Research Process continued

1.8.2.3 Sampling technique and sampling size

The study employed a probability sampling method. Etikan and Babatope (2019) explain that in probability sampling, every unit of the target population has an equal and specified possibility of being selected in the sample. The goal of the research is to use statistics to make deductions about the population parameters and conclusions based on the sample (Etikan & Babatope, 2019), and for this reason, the stratified sampling technique, which is a probability technique, was used. Within the stratified sampling technique, employees of the four public universities were selected based on strata such as age, race, gender, and staff category. The various universities were proportionately represented in the sample.

The total number of employees of the four public universities is approximately 10,890 making up the total population for the study. The total population comprises of 3036 employees from the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, 4964 employees from University of Cape Coast, 2077 employees from University of Education, Winneba, and 813 employees from University of Allied Health Science. A representative sample size of the population needs to be determined and the formula; $n_y = N/(1 + N \cdot e^2)$ adopted.

$$n_y = N/(1 + N \cdot e^2) \quad (1)$$

where; n_y = required sample size

N = total population under study (10,890)

e = alpha level /margin of error which is assumed as 0.05

Putting the values in equation (1)

$$n_y = 10890/(1+10890 \cdot 0.05^2)$$

$$n_y = 10890/(1 + 10890 \cdot 0.0025)$$

$$n_y = 10890/28.225$$

$$n_y = 385.83 \text{ approximately } 386$$

Therefore, the required sample size for the study was 386.

Furthermore, the allocation of sample sizes across the four public universities was calculated using the proportionate stratified sampling formula, ensuring that the sample size for each university reflected its share of the total population. The formula is as follows:

$$N_i = (N_i/N) \times n$$

Where:

n_i : Sample size for each university

N_i : Population size of each university

N : Total population of all four universities ($N=10,890$)

n : Total sample size

Using this formula:

For Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST):

$$N_i = (3036/10890) \times n = (0.2787) \times n$$

For University of Cape Coast (UCC):

$$N_i = (4964/10890) \times n = (0.4560) \times n$$

For University of Education, Winneba (UEW):

$$N_i = (2077/10890) \times n$$

For University of Allied Health Sciences (UAHS):

$$N_i = (813/10890) \times n$$

Each proportion was multiplied by the total sample size ($n=386$) and 2 to make provision for a 50 percent response rate. The sample sizes for each university were as follows:

- KNUST: $0.2787 \times 386 = 108 \times 2 = 216$
- UCC: $0.4560 \times 386 = 178 \times 2 = 356$
- UEW: $0.1908 \times 386 = 73 \times 2 = 146$
- UAHS: $0.0745 \times 386 = 27 \times 2 = 54$

Total sample size: 772

1.8.2.4 Data collection procedure and instruments

The researcher approached the heads of Human Resource Departments in the four universities for permission to conduct the research and to obtain a staff list. Once permission was granted, and the list of staff obtained, a cover letter with a link to the questionnaire was sent via email to the sample of respondents. A consent form was included with the questionnaire, and respondents were required to complete it before accessing the main questions. Confidentiality was always ensured. The researcher engaged a gatekeeper at each study site to be responsible for handling the list of staff for sampling and distribution of questionnaire through the emails of randomly selected participants.

The collection of data involved the administration of a questionnaire to both academic and non-academic staff. Determining the format of a questionnaire and the list of questions to be inserted is an important phase in a research design (Dalati & Gómez, 2018). The questionnaire included four sections: the first asked for the biographical details of participants, the second dealt with leadership, the third addressed issues about empowerment, and the last section dealt with organisational citizenship behaviour. To ensure that respondents provide accurate responses, a cover letter provided guidance and explanations.

1.8.2.5 Analysis of data

In terms of analysis, the data obtained from the questionnaires was captured into an electronic spreadsheet (Microsoft Excel). The quantitative data was analysed through statistical analysis, using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26. The analysis was done in two stages.

Stage 1: Descriptive analysis

Descriptive statistical analysis included the use of graphs /charts and frequency tables to present the findings from the survey. Cross-tabulation was used to assess the relationship between the variables. Crosstabs mainly summarize categorical data and helped to create a picture of the interrelationship between pairs of variables.

Stage 2: Inferential analysis

The inferential analysis essentially tests the research questions. The inferential analysis included correlations, T-tests, Analysis of Variances (ANOVAs) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), moderation and mediation analysis. The AMOS software was used for the moderation analysis along with the direct relationships between the various constructs of leadership, empowerment and OCB. Process Macro by Hayes, plug-in for SPSS was used for the mediation analysis. Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was calculated to indicate the direction and strength of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. The other forms of analysis tested the statistical significance of relationships that could exist between the dependent variable and independent variables.

The results of the empirical research were integrated into the findings of the literature review and theory. Based on the results, conclusions were drawn, and the limitations of the research were discussed. Recommendations were then made for policy consideration and future research work.

1.8.2.6 Reporting and interpreting the results

Once the results had been analysed, they were presented in tables, diagrams and/or graphs. This included a description of the sample and its representation in terms of the total population. The discussion of the findings was presented in a systematic manner that is clearly understandable. This ensured that the interpretations of the findings were conveyed in a coherent fashion to limit ambiguity and confusion.

1.8.2.7 Integration of the research findings

The results of the empirical research were integrated into the findings of the literature review.

1.8.2.8 Formulation of research conclusions and recommendations

In this step, conclusions were drawn from the results obtained and from the integration of the results with the theory. This step provided an outline of the research findings, which are the answers to the research questions posed at the outset of the research project. Recommendations were made in terms of retention strategies for organisations with reference to leadership and work-

life balance initiatives. The overall contribution of the study and the limitations of the research were then discussed.

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The study was conducted in academic institutions and may not apply to all fields of practice but will help in understanding how leadership and empowerment have an influence on employees' organisational citizenship behaviour. The population consisted exclusively of university staff as they were the unit of analysis. The study aimed to investigate the perceptions of academic and administrative staff, but it could mean that the results may not be generalized to employees working in other organisations. The study was conducted in the African context and in particular Ghanaian universities. Additionally, the study was a cross-sectional study. Cross-sectional studies have several disadvantages. Firstly, they cannot establish causality due to their observational nature and single-point data collection. Secondly, they often require large sample sizes to generate useful information, which can be resource intensive. Lastly, they rely heavily on self-reported data, which may be subject to biases such as social desirability or lack of self-awareness.

1.10 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The chapters in this study are presented as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction

The background to the study is presented in this chapter. The rationale for conducting this research is provided. The problem statement, objectives of the research and the methods used to conduct the research is also discussed. A plan of the research concludes this chapter.

Chapter 2: Public universities in Ghana

This chapter presents the profile of the four public universities under study. The presentation includes a detailed description of the university's management practices, culture, training interventions as regards to management and HR practices that impact on empowerment and OCB.

Chapter 3: Leadership

This chapter reviewed literature considered as relevant to the concept of leadership. Proper conceptualization of the term leadership was done in this chapter. Further, elements of leadership competence necessary for employee empowerment was reviewed and this served as the basis for the development of the leadership competency framework.

Chapter 4: Empowerment

This chapter reviewed literature considered as relevant to the concept of empowerment. Proper conceptualization of the term empowerment was done in this chapter. The chapter touched on the how leaders can empower employees in public universities and how employees can be influenced to engage in OCB.

Chapter 5: Organisational citizenship behaviour

This chapter reviewed literature considered as relevant to the concept of OCB. Proper conceptualization of the term organisational citizen behaviour was done. The influence of OCB on employee performance and how it could be encouraged in organisations was reviewed.

Chapter 6: Research Methodology

The intended steps to take in conducting the empirical study was discussed in this chapter. It included the definition of the study population and how a sample was obtained, the intended tools of measurement and the means of analysing the information obtained.

Chapter 7: Results and Analysis

Chapter 7 discusses the statistical results of the study. Statistical results were reported in terms of exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, descriptive, correlation and inferential statistics. An integration of the empirical findings and the literature review took place once all the results had been reported. A detailed account of the results was presented in this chapter.

Chapter 8: Discussion, Recommendation and Conclusion

The final chapter integrates the results and provides a justification of the conclusions reached. This chapter provides a leadership competency framework developed with the purpose to assist

universities in the appointment and development of leaders at universities. The appointment and development of leaders are of concern as it is believed that it could play a significant role in the empowerment of employees and encourage employees to display OCB. The contribution of the study is highlighted, and the limitations of the study outlined. The chapter ends with concluding remarks.

1.11 CONCLUSION

The pursuit of organisational goals is fraught with many challenges of which leadership has been proffered as one possible solution. In organisations, individuals may engage in acts which fall outside their work defined tasks which ultimately inure to the benefit of the organisation, known as OCB. Through empowerment, some decision-making controls are relinquished to subordinates, and this improves their abilities which further translate into performance improvement. Empowerment thrives where opportunities are created through leadership which further affects the conduct of OCB. Therefore, the proposed study seeks to explore how leadership and empowerment influences the exhibition of OCB in public universities. Finally, a leadership competency framework is developed that could be used for the appointment and development of leaders so that leaders are better equipped in empowering employees and enhancing organisational citizenship behaviour.

Chapter 2 : PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA

This chapter focuses on Public Universities in Ghana. The chapter starts with a general background information on public universities in Ghana and then discusses each of the four public universities included in this study. The discussion of the public universities touches on their history, course, governance structure and their enrolment statistics. The structure of public universities, university culture of public universities in Ghana, and university leadership in public universities in Ghana are also discussed. The chapter ends with a discussion on leadership and organisational culture in public universities in Ghana.

2.1 BACKGROUND

The preceding chapter offered a comprehensive introduction to the study, detailing the background and motivation, research problem, objectives, theoretical framework, hypotheses, design and methodology, and limitations. This chapter focuses on presenting an overview of the four public universities in Ghana that were included in the study.

Until the 2016/2017 academic year, there were eight public universities in Ghana namely, University of Ghana, Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and technology, University of Cape Coast, University of Development Studies, University of Education, Winneba, University of Mines and Technology, University of Health and Allied Sciences, and University of Environment and Natural Resources. In 2015, eight of Ghana's public Polytechnics were by an act of parliament mandated to operate as public technical universities. As such Ghana has sixteen public universities of which eight are public technical universities.

Hartnell et al. (2019) have reported on the collective influence of leadership and organisational culture on the overall effectiveness of organisations. The interplay between leadership style and organisational culture warrants further investigation to better understand their joint influence on organisational outcomes. This chapter attempts an assessment of leadership and organisational culture as manifested in the public universities in Ghana. Specifically, an overview of how university leadership has been framed would be assessed, including its structure and expectations. This would be followed by the general composition of four of Ghana's public universities. In

addition, the university culture and its forms are reviewed so that an assessment of leadership and culture in four of the universities can be made. The profile of the four public universities under study is presented in the subsequent sections.

2.2 KWAME UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

The Kwame University of Science and Technology was established by a Government Ordinance on 6 October 1951 as the Kumasi College of Technology. However, the official opening was done on 22 January 1952 with 200 Teacher Training students transferred from Achimota to form the nucleus of the new college. On 22 August 1961, Parliament transformed Kumasi College of Technology into a full-fledged university and renamed it Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology. However, after the revolution of the 24 February 1966 when the first president of Ghana was overthrown, the name was changed to University of Science and Technology. However, by another act of Parliament, Act 559 of 1998, the University was renamed Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST), Kumasi (KNUST, 2018).

The Act establishing the KNUST defines its mandate, which essentially is to provide higher education, undertake research, disseminate knowledge and foster relationships with the outside persons and bodies. The strategic mandate of the KNUST is derived from Science and Technology in its name. With this strategic mandate, the vision of KNUST is “to be globally recognised as the Premier Centre of excellence in Africa for teaching in Science and Technology for development, producing high calibre graduates with knowledge and expertise to support the industrial and socio-economic development of Ghana and Africa” (KNUST, 2018).

KNUST is run on a collegiate system and comprises the following 8 colleges; College of Science, College of Engineering, College of Agriculture and Natural Resources, College of Arts and Built Environment, College of Health Sciences, College of Humanities and Social Sciences, and the School of Graduate Studies. As at 2014/2015 academic year, the University had 41,691 students, 987 academic staff, 134 senior administrative and professional staff and 2,585 supporting staff. The student population comprised 35307 (84.7%) undergraduates and 6384 (15.3%) postgraduates. Out of the total undergraduate population, 79.94% are regular students and 20.06%

are distance-learning students. According to the students and teaching staff statistics, the university has a student-teacher ratio of 34:1, which is far above the regulations of the National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) (KNUST cooperate strategic plan, 2016 - 2025). The KNUST has over the years built an image as one of the continent's reputable universities. KNUST is the second oldest and largest public university in Ghana.

As one of the leading universities in Ghana, KNUST aims to produce the next generation of thought leaders to drive national development. Through its research institutes and other centres of learning and research, faculty members are involved in studies that support policy making for national development, often in collaboration with other international institutions. There are currently several Ghanaian and international institutions that hold affiliation with KNUST. As a leader in tertiary education, KNUST has established several link agreements with universities in Africa, Europe and North America for student, faculty and staff exchange as well as collaborative research (KNUST, 2018).

KNUST, as a public university, is governed by a university council. In addition, the university has a hierarchy of officers who oversee the activities of the university. It is headed by three principal officers, namely the chancellor, vice-chancellor and chairperson of the university council. Other leadership positions include Pro-Vice-Chancellor (Academics and Student Affairs); Pro-Vice-Chancellor (Research Innovation and Development); Provosts of the Colleges, and the Registrar.

2.3 UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

The University of Cape Coast was established in October 1962 as a University College and placed in a special relationship with the University of Ghana, Legon. On October 1, 1971, it attained the status of a full and independent university, with the authority to confer its own degrees, diplomas and certificates by an Act of Parliament—The University of Cape Coast Act, 1971 [Act 390] and subsequently the University of Cape Coast Law, 1992 [PNDC Law 278] (UCC, 2016).

The University was established as a dire need for highly qualified and skilled manpower in education to provide leadership and enlightenment. Its original mandate was therefore to train graduate professional teachers for Ghana's second cycle institutions (UCC, 2017). The Ministry

of Education, to meet the country's manpower needs, emphasised the strategic importance of education programs at that time. Today, with the expansion of some of its faculties and the diversification of programmes, the university has the capacity to meet the manpower needs of other ministries and industries in the country, besides that of the Ministry of Education (UCC, 2017).

The university started with two departments, namely Arts and Science with an initial student enrolment of 155 in 1963. The University of Cape Coast currently has 5 colleges namely, College of Education Studies, College of Health and Allied Science, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, College of Distance Education, and College of Agriculture and Natural Resources. There are 48 departments and 12 schools and faculties. Currently, the university has a student population of over 78,485 comprising 60,406 regular Undergraduate Students, 5,648 Master's students, 578 PhD students, and 11,548 sub-degree students (UCC, 2017).

The aims of the University are to:

- Provide higher education to persons suitably qualified and capable of benefiting from such education.
- Train students in methods of critical and independent thought, while making them aware of their responsibility to use their education for the general good of the Ghanaian society.
- Provide facilities for and engage in teaching and research for the purpose of promoting the advancement and dissemination of learning and knowledge with reference to the needs and aspirations of the people of Ghana and the furtherance of co-operation between African States

To achieve the above stated aims, the University of Cape Coast is mandated to perform various functions, including:

- The University shall provide instruction and undertake research for the advancement of knowledge in such branches of learning and study for persons, whether members of the University or not, and in such manner as it shall determine. However, the University shall continue to give emphasis to the training of personnel for basic and second cycle levels of education.

- Subject to the provisions of the Law and these Statutes, the University shall perform such functions and exercise such powers that are necessary to effectively further the aims of the University and maintain its efficiency as an academic community.
- The University may enter into an agreement or relationship with another institution whether teaching or non-teaching, in or outside Ghana, and may incorporate within the University another institution or body taking over the property, rights, privileges and liabilities of that institution or body (UCC, 2017).

With an initial start of two departments, the university has created additional faculties, schools, and departments to meet the human resource need of Ghana. Currently the university run on the collegiate system where the various departments, schools and faculties are organized under five colleges (UCC Statutes, 2016).

The University of Cape Coast quite recently in the 2005/2006 academic year introduced new programmes namely: B.Ed. (Management), B.Sc. (Psychology), B.Sc. (Medical Laboratory Technology) and B.Sc. (Nursing). Additionally, M.Ed. Information and Communication Technology was also introduced in the same year under the Centre for Continuing Education. The Department of Physics also introduced a sandwich programme in B.Sc. Engineering Physics for HND holders. The new programmes are to cater for the academic and professional needs of individuals, institutions and organisations whose activities relate to these programmes. In 2007 the National Accreditation Board (NAB) approved a three- year Interim Accreditation for the running of the Basic Sciences component of the Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery (MB CHB) programme at the School of Medical Sciences of the University of Cape Coast and the University's School of Medical Sciences became fully operational when in 2008 the first batch of students were matriculated (UCC statutes, 2016).

The University has expanded the scope of its Sandwich Programmes to include M.Ed. Admin, M.Ed. Management, M.A. Human Resources Management, M.A. Human Resources Development, and M.A. Democratic Governance, Law and Development, M.A. Environment, Governance and Sustainable Development, as well as M.A. and M.Ed. Guidance and Counselling. The following programmes have been designed for Higher National Diploma (HND) holders:

B.Com. B.M.S. and B.Sc. Marketing. The university also runs sandwich programmes at diploma, graduate and postgraduate levels in Organisation Development (O.D).

To make graduate studies more relevant and responsive with research related to the economy, the Board of Graduate Studies was changed to the School of Graduate Studies and Research (SGSR) with a renewed and enhanced mandate to offer modules that will focus on action and demand-driven research. The School of Graduate Studies and Research during 2007/2008 academic year also introduced new programmes at the graduate level in the Institute of Development Studies, namely, MA Development Studies, M. Phil. Development Studies, MA Development Management and M. Phil. in Peace and Development Studies (UCC statutes, 2016).

Notwithstanding the introduction of new programmes and the expansion of existing departments and schools, the university has phased out its B.Ed. (Foundations) and B.Ed. (Population and Family Life) programmes. The introduction of new programmes and the phasing out of some old programmes enabled the university to add to its traditional functions such as the training of educational planners, administrators, agriculturalists, actuarial scientists, optometrists, information technologists, biochemists, environmentalists, laboratory technologists and experts in commerce, management, tourism, population and family life education, water and sanitation, molecular biology, biotechnology, computer science and livestock system managers in response to the changing needs of society and entire education system (UCC statutes, 2016). The University of Cape Coast regularly provides training to improve upon the skills of its staff. Such training workshops may target general staff of the university as conducted by the Centre for Teaching Support (University of Cape Coast, 2017) or may target female staff (University of Cape Coast, 2017).

2.4 UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

The University of Education, Winneba (UEW) was established in September 1992 as a University College under the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) Law 322. The university was upgraded from a university college to a fully-fledged university through the University Education Act (672 of 2004) (UEW, 2017).

The University College of Education, Winneba brought together seven diploma awarding colleges located in different towns under one umbrella institution. These colleges were the Advanced Teacher Training College, the Specialist Training College and the National Academy of Music, all at Winneba; the School of Ghanaian Languages, Ajumako; the College of Special Education, Mampong-Akwapim; the Advanced Technical Training College, Kumasi; and the St. Andrews Agricultural Training College, Mampong-Ashanti. The three sites in Winneba now referred to as the Winneba campus is the seat of the Vice-Chancellor with satellite campuses at Kumasi, Mampong and Ajumako (UEW, 2017).

The university has conducted workshops targeting lecturers specifically (University of Education, Winneba, 2017), and university staff in general (University of Education, Winneba, 2018). In the 2022/2023 academic year, the University of Education had a total of 56,341 students comprising undergraduates, diploma students, masters, and PhD. The school also runs distance programmes for teachers all over the country from their satellite campuses.

Unlike the other universities which are run on the collegiate system, the University of Education, Winneba runs various departments under eleven faculties and two schools. The faculties of the university are Faculty of Science Education, Faculty of Educational Studies, Faculty of Social Science Education, Faculty of Foreign Languages and Communication Education, Faculty of Ghanaian Languages Education, Faculty of Education and Comm. Sciences, Faculty of Business Education, Faculty of Science and Environment education, Faculty of Technical Education, Faculty of Vocational Education, Faculty of Agriculture, and School of Creative Arts and School of Graduate studies. The university also has 59 academic departments under which their programs are organized and taught and two institutes that have focus on research namely, Institute for Educational Research and Innovations Studies and Institute for Educational Development and Extension.

The university has as a mission to train competent professional teachers for all levels of education as well as conduct research, disseminate knowledge and contribute to educational policy and development. To realise this mission, the university has the mandate to determine the subjects to

be taught, placing emphasis on subjects which are of special relevance to the needs of the educational system of the country and for national development: The role of the university as an academic institution in the country are summarized as follows:

- a. Provide teacher education to citizens who are interested and can benefit from it by giving priority to persons in the teaching service with no university education.
- b. Provide opportunities for higher education, especially teacher education for students from other countries in Africa.
- c. Teach students methodology for critical and independent work in the classroom while making them aware of their responsibility to use the knowledge acquired for the general benefit of the Republic.
- d. Ensure that practical research experience in the classroom is undertaken in the subject which are taught in the University but with special emphasis on philosophy and
- e. Ensure that practical research experience in the classroom is undertaken in the subject which are taught in the University but with special emphasis on Philosophy and Psychology which relate to the social, cultural, political, economic, scientific, technical, technological and other issues that exist in teaching and learning.
- f. Ensure that the results of research and knowledge are spread generally by the development of multi-media teaching materials, publication of textbooks, papers and any other suitable means;
- g. Develop teaching and learning materials in music, culture, science and technology suitable for dissemination to schools, colleges and non-formal educational institutions in the country: and
- h. Develop close relationships with the Ghana National Association of Teachers, Professional Teacher Organisations, the Ghana Education Service, pre-tertiary education institutions, Universities and other tertiary institutions both in the country and elsewhere (UEW, 2017).

2.5 UNIVERSITY OF ALLIED HEALTH SCIENCE (UHAS)

The University of Health and Allied Sciences (UHAS) was established by an Act of Parliament (Act 828 of December 2011) as a public university in Ghana. The main campus including the central administration is in Ho with a satellite campus located in Hohoe. The aim of the Act was

to provide for the establishment of the UHAS to be a pre-eminent research and practical orientated health educational institution dedicated to community service and to provide for related matters (UHAS, 2017).

The late President J.E.A Mills inaugurated a seven-member Interim Council on 7 February 2012 under Section 40 (Transitional Provisions) of the Act (Act 828 of 2011). This Act would oversee the running of the University for “a period not exceeding two years”. He also mandated the interim council to ensure that the university admitted its pioneer students by September 2012.

Prior to the establishment of the Interim Council, preparatory work for the university was handled by an Implementation Committee chaired by Dr. Christina Amoako-Nuama, an advisor to the President in charge of Policy Co-ordination in the Office of the President. The Implementation Committee was set up to initiate action on the Final Report submitted to Government by the Planning Committee (Chaired by Prof. Samuel K. Sefa-Dedeh) on the Establishment of Two Public Universities: The University of Health and Allied Sciences (UHAS) and the University of Energy and Natural Resources, respectively. The Interim Council appointed Professor Fred Newton Binka, Dean of the School of Public Health, University of Ghana, as foundation Vice-Chancellor (UHAS, 2017).

The vision of the UHAS seeks to be a pre-eminent health research educational institution dedicated to community service. This vision is hoped to be realised by taking innovative approaches to research, teaching and engagement with society, informed by a culture of scholarship, academic and service excellence. With this vision, the mission of the university is to provide quality education, advance knowledge through scholarship and research that improves health and quality of life. In achieving the vision and mission, the aims of the UHAS are as follows:

1. To provide higher education in the Health Sciences through teaching and research for persons suitably qualified and capable of benefitting from such education.
2. To disseminate knowledge and the results of research and their applications to the needs and aspirations of the people of Ghana.
3. To provide clinical and other skills services to contribute positively to improving the health status and overall quality of life, and foster partnerships with outside persons and bodies.

The UHAS will fulfil its vision, mission and aims by achieving the following strategic goals:

1. Institute curricula and pedagogy that are practical and relevant to our national health needs and aspirations.
2. Provide solutions to community and environmental health problems through research and outreach programmes.
3. Foster professional and personal competence, growth and success of staff and students.
4. Promote partnerships with health institutions, nationally and internationally, in the public as well as in the private sector, to improve community health.

The UHAS currently comprises of 8 Schools namely, School of Basic and Biomedical Sciences, School of Medicine, School of Nursing and Midwifery, School of Allied Health Sciences, School of Public Health, School of Pharmacy, School of Dentistry, School of Sports & Exercise Medicine; and 3 Institutes namely, Institute of Health Research, Institute of Traditional & Alternative Medicine, and Institute of Medical Education (UHAS, 2017). The university periodically organises workshops for its staff. The next section will discuss the governance structure of public universities in Ghana.

2.6 STRUCTURE AND GOVERNANCE OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA

According to Faakye (2020), the statutes of public universities in Ghana stipulate that each public university has a council that serves as the governing body. This council consists of multiple members, including the Chairperson, the Vice-Chancellor, two Convocation Representatives (one teaching, one non-teaching), a representative of the University Teachers Association of Ghana, two staff representatives (one representing junior staff and one senior staff), a representative of undergraduate students, and a representative of postgraduate students. Additionally, members include a representative of the Principals of Colleges of Education, a representative of the Conference of Heads of Assisted Senior High Schools, a representative of the National Council for Tertiary Education, a representative of the Alumni Association, three government appointees (considering gender balance and expertise in management and finance), two persons appointed from outside the University in consultation with the Vice-Chancellor, and the Registrar, who acts as the Secretary. The council functions as the board of the university, responsible for the

management and administration of the finances and properties of the institution (University of Ghana, 2016). Among its many roles, the council also has general control over the affairs and public relations of the university, including the use of the common seal and enacting statutes to regulate matters as necessary (Faakye, 2020). The council is further supported by the mandatory presence of the Pro Vice-Chancellor, the Director of Finance, and a representative of the Ministry of Education at their meetings.

Public universities in Ghana are headed by a Chancellor, who is tasked with conferring degrees, diplomas, and honorary degrees, in line with the statutes governing public universities. Faakye (2020) explains that the Chancellor also presides over university ceremonies when present, but in their absence, the Chairperson of the council acts as the Pro-Chancellor and performs these functions. For the day-to-day operations of public universities, the Vice-Chancellor assumes sole responsibility as the chief executive officer. The Vice-Chancellor oversees the academic, financial, and administrative functions of the university, ensuring its efficiency and good order (University of Ghana, 2016). Additionally, the Vice-Chancellor is a member of the university council and presides over congregations to confer degrees and diplomas when both the Chancellor and the Chairperson of the council are unavailable. The Vice-Chancellor is supported by a Pro Vice-Chancellor, who serves as their deputy in carrying out these responsibilities. According to University for Development Studies (UDS) (2017), the administrative structure of public universities continues with the registrar, followed by senior members, junior members, senior staff, and junior staff.

Academically, public universities in Ghana are structured into colleges, schools or faculties, institutes or directorates, departments or centres, and units. Except otherwise stated, these academic entities are governed by boards. For example, colleges are overseen by college boards headed by provosts, schools or faculties by deans, institutes by heads of institutes, and departments or centres by their respective heads (University of Ghana, 2016). This hierarchical structure ensures effective governance and decision-making within the academic framework of the university.

Administratively, the registrar of a public university is the head of administrative duties and reports directly to the Vice-Chancellor (University of Ghana, 2016). The registrar is supported by several sub-administrative heads, including the Director of Finance, the Director of Physical Development and Estate Management, the Director of University Health Services, the Director of Human Resource, the Director of Academic Affairs, the Director of Public Affairs, the Director of Legal, Consular, and General Services, the Director of Information Technology Services, the Head of Procurement, and College Registrars. This administrative setup ensures that the university operates efficiently across its various non-academic functions (UDS, 2017).

The researcher examined the governance structure of public universities for two main reasons. First, the centralized and bureaucratic governance systems characteristic of public universities significantly influence decision-making processes. Moreover, they often shape the scope and effectiveness of leadership and empowerment initiatives. Such governance structures typically emphasise formalized rules, hierarchical authority, and standardized procedures, which can constrain the flexibility and autonomy leaders need to implement participatory and empowering practices (Hoy & Miskel, 2012).

In these settings, leadership effectiveness may be limited by rigid chains of command, reducing leaders' ability to engage in inclusive decision-making or foster a sense of empowerment among employees. For instance, hierarchical authority tends to prioritize compliance and adherence to organisational norms over innovation or employee-driven initiatives, potentially stifling creativity and voluntary contributions such as organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) (Organ et al., 2006). This could discourage employees from going beyond their prescribed roles, as their contributions may not be recognized or supported within a bureaucratic framework.

On the other hand, centralized systems also offer opportunities to enable leadership effectiveness and empowerment. When leaders navigate these systems adeptly, they can leverage formal structures to institutionalize empowerment practices and build trust. For example, aligning participatory leadership styles with formal decision-making protocols can foster engagement and enhance employees' perception of empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Furthermore, empowering leadership practices, such as providing employees with autonomy and

encouraging collaboration, can counteract the potentially demotivating effects of bureaucracy, fostering OCB and commitment to organisational goals (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

In public universities, these dynamics are particularly relevant, as bureaucratic systems may inadvertently hinder participatory leadership and empowerment efforts. Leaders at middle and lower tiers must navigate these constraints while creating environments that enable employee engagement and voluntary contributions crucial for organisational success. The next section will discuss university leadership in public universities.

2.7 UNIVERSITY LEADERSHIP OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA

There has been an increasing interest in the leadership and governance of universities across the globe, attributed partly to the need to remain relevant in a competitive sector (Gallos & Bolman, 2021). Universities are mostly structured in a hierarchical way in which command and control have been developed to guide the conduct of activities at each level of the university (Asita & Alasomaku, 2019). However, to attain knowledge production in higher institutions of learning, there is the need for effective collaboration and cooperation between the leaders and academics of that institution (Asita & Alasomaku, 2019). Such cooperation is mutually beneficial as leaders can achieve desired knowledge production, while academics, on the other hand, are able to liaise with university leaders to develop a working environment that enhances the facilitation of education (Asita & Alasomaku, 2019). This need for cooperation is further necessitated by the pursuit of interests or goals that are specific to individual units within the institutional structure, but which must ultimately feed into the ultimate vision of the institution (Asita & Alasomaku, 2019).

Universities are also decentralised institutions, with some levels of autonomy assumed by its distinct units such as colleges, institutes, and departments but which must still share the general objectives of the institution (Bleiklie et al., 2017). Decisions on the operations and interests of the university are mostly taken through negotiations with academics, and covers areas such as academic programme areas, research focus areas, revenue mobilisation, and human resources management, among others (Asita & Alasomaku, 2019).

According to Neave and Osborne (2013), three formal authority structures exist with the mandate to oversee the conduct of universities: under, middle and super structures. Under structure consists of faculties and departments which supervises teaching and research activities as the functional mandate of the university. The middle structure oversees strategic planning and control as its provision of strategic direction, as conducted by the central administration and leadership of the university. The super structure comprises the state and its agencies such as the education ministry, who provide oversight responsibilities and intervene when laws governing universities are being violated (Neave & Osborne, 2015).

This study would mainly focus on the under and middle structures of universities. The focus on middle and lower organisational tiers is pivotal in exploring empowerment and leadership because these levels represent the point of direct interaction between employees and supervisors. Research indicates that leadership at these levels is critical in shaping employees' perceptions of empowerment and fostering OCB. Middle and lower-level managers act as the conduit between organisational policies and frontline staff, and their leadership styles significantly influence employee motivation, autonomy, and engagement (Yukl, 2013; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Empowerment in this context involves delegating authority, providing access to resources, and fostering an environment of trust and respect (Spreitzer, 1995). Supervisors at these levels play a critical role in creating such environments, thereby enhancing employees' sense of autonomy and competence. These psychological empowerment dimensions are strongly linked to OCB, where employees voluntarily engage in activities beyond their formal job requirements to benefit the organisation (Organ, 1997). For example, Podsakoff et al. (2000) highlight that empowering leadership positively influences OCB by enhancing employees' sense of ownership and responsibility toward organisational goals.

Moreover, middle and lower-tier leadership is crucial in encouraging voluntary, citizenship-like behaviours that are essential for the success of public universities. Such behaviours include helping colleagues, innovating beyond job requirements, and advocating for organisational improvements, which thrive in an environment fostered by empowering leaders (Avey et al., 2011). In public universities, where bureaucratic structures often dominate, the leadership at these levels can

counterbalance rigidity by promoting participative decision-making and fostering intrinsic motivation among staff (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The next section will focus on a discussion of the university culture of public universities in Ghana.

2.8 UNIVERSITY CULTURE OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA

Various studies have reported on the role of culture in shaping productivity and progress (Audretsch et al., 2021). Organisational culture is consciously and deliberately created to serve as a binding mechanism for organisations (Nanevi, 2016). Organisational culture serves to either be the driving force for change within the system, or a hindrance to intended modifications to an existing system. Odior (2018) identifies three levels of organisational culture, namely, observable values/artefacts, espoused values, and basic underlying assumptions.

Mohelska and Sokolova (2018) further identifies three (3) forms of culture within organisations: bureaucratic, supportive and innovative cultures. Bureaucratic culture is fashioned along power and control in which authority and responsibilities are clearly indicated in a hierarchical manner, and are identified to be stable, procedural, regulated and mature. Where the culture is centred on staff by developing a safe, trusting, encouraging and collaborative environment in an open manner is described as a supportive culture. Innovative organisational culture is characterized by creativity, result oriented, risk taking, and stimulating actions mostly linked to entrepreneurial drives of organisations.

An understanding of how universities function within the general operational frameworks of universities, requires an acknowledgement of its culture. University culture presents a framework that shapes behaviour considered acceptable within the operational functioning of the university. Kuo and Tsai (2019) identified three levels of university culture similar to the categorisation by Mohelska and Sokolova (2018). The first level consists of the nature of formal business relations, roles, symbols and locations which hold meanings to the university community. The second level comprise expected behaviour of specific members and units within the university. The third level involves principles which members of the university community adhere to as their unique identity. Organisational culture is important as it contributes to organisational effectiveness, and further promotes employee satisfaction and commitment which are important to the exhibition of positive

workplace behaviours (Meng & Berger, 2019). The next section will discuss the leadership and organisational culture of public universities in Ghana.

2.9 LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE OF PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES IN GHANA

Many organisations operate under systems in which a chain of command, hierarchy of authority, and preferred formal lines of communication are clearly outlined (Amoah & Aranie, 2014). Despite this arrangement, the socio-cultural environment in which the organisation operates has been considered to influence the nature of social behaviour and relations that are established in the organisation in the process of social networking (Amoah & Aranie, 2014). There is, therefore, a continuous interaction between the institutions, procedures and expectations of organisations on one side, and the socio-cultural environment in which the organisation exists, on the other side. Such interaction between the two systems either fosters harmony or generates conflict within organisations (Amoah & Aranie, 2014).

To shape, achieve and sustain effective task performance of workers in an organisation, it is important for the leaders to gain a better understanding of the social realities in which subordinates operate. The social realities are underpinned by cultural values and behavioural rules specific to each society. Social realities manifest in how culture regulates relationships between age, status and power categories (Amoah & Aranie, 2014). In studying management practices in Komfo Anokye Teaching Hospital, Danso (2021) reported that socio-cultural values influence human resource behaviour and worker interrelationships. In terms of human resource recruitment and management, the study identified a preference by leaders to recruit acquaintances rather than making decisions based on merit, and sometimes bend sanction rules to maintain social relationships (Danso, 2021). Within universities, however, decisions are taken by representative committees and not by a manager unilaterally (Amoah & Aranie, 2014).

2.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the profile of the four public universities under study. The presentation included a detailed description of the university's management practices, culture, and leadership. The next chapter deals with a literature review of leadership with a focus on the various theories that explains leadership. Further, the next chapter gives a detailed review of leadership in academic institutions and outline the relationship between leadership, empowerment, and OCB.

Chapter 3 : LEADERSHIP

This chapter deals with a literature review on leadership. The chapter starts with a discussion on the concept of leadership, and then considers the different theories of leadership. The theories of leadership that are discussed include the Great man theory, Trait, behavioural and contingency/situational theories of leadership. Following this, emerging perspectives of leadership are also discussed. This chapter ends with a discussion of the leadership competencies that are related to empowerment as well as OCB.

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter delved into public universities in Ghana, specifically examining the four main institutions in the study: Kwame University of Science and Technology, University of Cape Coast, University of Education, Winneba, and University of Allied Health Science. It also covered topics such as the structure and governance of public universities, leadership within these institutions, university culture, and the interplay between leadership and organisational culture. This chapter is dedicated to exploring the concept of leadership. The first theoretical aim or research question centres on how leadership is conceptualized in the literature, and this chapter seeks to address this theoretical objective of the study. Chapter 3 will provide a comprehensive understanding of leadership, distinguishing it from management and highlighting its strategic focus on influencing employee behaviour, including empowerment and OCB. It will review relevant leadership theories, examine transformational and transactional leadership, and categorize leadership styles to identify those most conducive to fostering empowerment and OCB. The chapter will also contextualize leadership within higher education in Ghana and explore the connection between leadership and OCB, aligning with the study's focus on enhancing leadership practices to promote citizenship behaviour and empowerment.

3.1 THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership is a multifaceted concept open to individual interpretation. Leadership is a collective idea that focuses on many essential, social, organisational and personal processes. The procedures

include influence and motivation to work towards group goals, not through coercion but through personal inspiration.

Leadership is the ability to motivate others to move in a specific direction to achieve a common goal (Qin, 2023). Leadership refers to a single person influencing others to achieve mutual goals (Agustriyana & Pringgabayu, 2019). Gibson et al. (2012) categorised the definition of leadership into three elements. Firstly, the use of influence is important in the interpersonal relationship between leaders and followers. Secondly, leaders need to be a change agent and should be capable of having an impact on the performance of their followers. Lastly, goal accomplishment is necessary, and leaders should concentrate on achieving individual, group and organisational goals.

Lussier and Achua (2013), on the other hand, identified and explained five elements in the definition of leadership (Figure 3.1):



Figure 3.1: Key Elements of the Leadership Definition

Source: Lussier and Achua (2013)

- **Leaders-Followers** – The influencing process is considered a two-way street in which the leaders influence the followers, and the followers influence the leaders. To benefit from the influencing process and to become an effective leader or a follower, the leader needs to not only communicate ideas with the followers but must also listen and apply the ideas provided by followers.
- **Influence** – Influencing refers to the leader’s ability to encourage and support employees and to get them to apply their suggestions. Effective leaders are good at being both a leader and a follower.
- **Organisational objectives** – Leaders are capable of influencing followers to achieve both their own goals and the goals of the organisation. Leaders and followers are required to work jointly towards a shared outcome. Leaders set objectives and guide followers towards the achievement of organisational objectives.
- **Change** – Organisations are required to constantly adapt to changes in the external environment. A good leader will recognise the need for change in the organisation and will inspire followers to bring about change so that an acceptable future for the organisation is achieved.
- **People** – The term ‘people’ is not incorporated in the definition of leadership but is an important element that requires attention as leadership is about leading people. Effective leaders work successfully with other people, and they enjoy the company of others. They also assist and support individuals to become successful. Furthermore, a company’s success is dependent on the leader’s ability to value people and treat them as an important resource.

According to Gibson et al. (2012, p. 314), the handbook of leadership, which is considered as the authoritative source of leadership theory and research, defines leadership as “*an interaction between members of a group. Leaders are agents of change; persons whose acts affect other*

people more than other people's acts affect them. Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group". This definition of leadership implies that leadership involves the use of influence and that all interpersonal relationships can involve leadership. Secondly, the definition involves a leader as being a change agent—being able to affect followers' behaviour and performance. Lastly, the definition focuses on a leader directing a group towards the accomplishment of goals. The effective leader will thus have to deal with individual, group, and organisational goals.

Later definitions of leadership focused on transformation and development. Thus, the leader achieves results through inspiring communication and actions and influences the attitudes and desires of the organisational members through creating visions and expectations that are both achievable and required for work (Men et al., 2020). According to Kolzow (2014, p. 10), leadership is defined as *"a forceful and dynamic personality who really leads from the front; an architect and implementer of strategy; a mediator in conflict situations; an integrator who assures the climate of the organisation; a person able to motivate subordinates and who, by persuasion, compulsion or example to others, succeeds in getting others to follow the leader's wishes"*.

From the various definitions of leadership, several concepts emerge. Thus, the concepts common to most leadership definitions include:

1. taking charge
2. determining direction
3. influencing and guiding outcomes
4. commanding a following
5. making a difference
6. transforming
7. creating value
8. optimizing change

According to Qin (2023) a leader is an earned title, and a leader engages in certain actions such as the following:

1. Displays professional conviction.
2. Motivates followers.

3. Sets own goals.
4. Shows personal commitment and enthusiasm.
5. Sets goals for others.
6. Measures and controls actions and performance.
7. Maintains momentum.

It is every leader's duty to build an effectively functioning organisation. To achieve this, Zaccaro et al. (2018) believe that the leader must possess the following attributes:

1. Believe in oneself: This means giving the leader self-confidence to take up new challenges and being able to inspire others to take up challenges,
2. Show passion for the job: This deals with the energy and focus needed to drive the organisation, and
3. Be efficient: Good motivation is crucial for achieving organisational goals; therefore, identifying workers' needs is an important step to facilitate motivation.

In a more recent time, Uy et al. (2024) also identified three important qualities of a good leader. First, he indicated that a good leader must be a good communicator. Thus, the leader must ensure that employees and all people connected to the organisation must be well informed. Secondly, a good leader must have a strong awareness of self and other team members' strengths and weaknesses, personality and personal interests. This trait is essential for optimal team performance attainment. The third attribute of any leader is the ability to delegate decision-making to the team. A flat organisational structure allows more people to contribute to the decision-making process. Daud (2020) emphasised the importance of self-leadership, which he referred to as a process of self-influence. Self-influence will enable a leader to increase personal effectiveness and, hence, the ability to influence others.

3.2 LEADERSHIP VERSUS MANAGEMENT

The leadership and management concepts are frequently used interchangeably; however, the two terms are not the same. There are differences but also similarities. In a study by French et al., (2022), leadership was defined as one of providing direction and acting as a role model while management practices, on the other hand, was described as the routine behaviours exhibited by

managers as they utilize human and material resources to enact the organisational strategy to achieve goals. According to Northouse (2019), management can be defined as the process of achieving specific objectives through the efficient utilization of resources. In a broader sense, management involves the formal direction and control of assistants, resources, structures, and systems in a standardized manner, aiming to enhance efficiency, mitigate risks, and accomplish goals. On the other hand, leadership primarily refers to personal attributes that are not officially defined or outlined in job descriptions. Leadership is largely associated with behaviours, styles, personal skills, processes, responsibilities, experiences, influencing relationships, and charisma that enable individuals to influence others (Northouse, 2019). Leaders concentrate on motivating and inspiring others, aiming to ignite passion and commitment among followers to pursue a shared vision, overcome challenges, take risks, and challenge the existing status quo. Effective leadership is often characterized by certain common behaviours and traits, including confidence, a service-oriented mindset, strong coaching abilities, reliability, expertise, accountability, active listening skills, visionary thinking, realism, good sense of priorities, honesty, willingness to share, high self-esteem, technical or contextual competence, and the ability to provide recognition.

Additionally, distinction between leadership and management is seen in the orientation of the leader and the manager. Leaders are seen as oriented toward innovation while managers are oriented toward stability (Aalateeg, 2017). Further, leadership is seen as articulating an organisational vision, introducing major organisational change, providing inspiration, and dealing with high profile aspects of the external environment while management is seen as the implementation of the leaders' vision and changes introduced by leaders, and the maintenance and administration of organisational infrastructures – thus completion of task (Aalateeg, 2017). From the distinction given, it is realised that one can be a leader without being a manager, but it would be difficult for one to be a manager where leadership is completely missing. There is, however, commonality between leadership and management. Both are concerned with goal accomplishment, working with people, and influencing others.

Bennis and Nanus (2007) distinguished between management and leadership based on behavioural characteristics of persons in the management and leadership position. Table 3.1 presents the classification of management and leadership behaviour outlined by Bennis and Nanus (2007).

Table 3.1: Bennis’s classification of behavioural differences between managers and leaders

MANAGER	LEADER
The manager administers current ways of working.	The leader innovates to find new ways of working.
The manager copies what has been done before and is proven to be effective.	The leader provides original solutions that can be utilized.
The manager places emphasis on structure and systems in the organisation.	The leader places emphasis on the people in the organisation.
The manager deals with issues that are short term in nature.	The leader tends to focus on longer term problems that exist.
The manager will ask questions like “How?” and “When?”	The leader will ask questions like “What?” and “Why?”.
The manager continually reviews the bottom line.	The leader continually reviews the horizon.
The manager sticks with the status quo and works within it.	The leader prefers to challenge the status quo.
The manager can best be described as a “classic good soldier”.	The leader can best be described as “his or her own person”.

Source: Adapted from Bennis and Nanus (2007).

Lunenburg (2011) differentiated between a leader and a manager based on the characteristics both exhibit in the discharge of their duty. Lunenburg’s distinction is outlined in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Lunenburg’s distinction of manager and leader characteristics.

Manager characteristics	Leader characteristics
1. Focuses on things 2. Looks inward 3. Executes plans 4. Improves the present 5. Sees the trees 6. Control subordinates 7. Directs and coordinates 8. Does things right 9. Manages change 10. Serves subordinates 11. Uses authority 12. Avoids conflict 13. Acts responsibly	1. Focuses on people 2. Looks outward 3. Articulates a vision 4. Creates the future 5. Sees the forest 6. Empowers colleagues 7. Trusts and develops 8. Does the right things 9. Creates change 10. Serves subordinates 11. Uses influence 12. Uses conflict 13. Acts decisively

Source: Lunenburg (2011).

According to Kotter (1990), there are very clear behavioural differences between managers and leaders as outlined in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Kotter's classification of behavioural differences between managers and leaders

MANAGER	LEADER
Seeks order and consistency	Seeks change and movement
During planning and budgeting – establishes agendas, sets timetables and allocates resources.	Establishes a direction – looks at the big picture, clarifies the situation, creates a vision and determines strategies
With relation to staffing – provides structure, job placements and defines rules and processes	Structure, job placements and defines rules. With relation to people – aligns people, communicates goals, builds teams, looks for commitment
Focuses on control and the solving of issues by taking actions to correct issues, creating solutions and defining incentives to reward good work	Focuses on motivating and inspiring people through empowerment, looking at how to satisfy unmet needs, and energising people

Source: Adapted from Kotter (1990)

Ryan (2007) identified behavioural differences between leadership and management based on the classification made early by Kotter. In Ryan's (2007) classification, he identified 5 thematic areas namely, direction, alignment, relationships, personal qualities, and outcomes. Based on these thematic areas, Ryan identified differences between management and leadership as indicated in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Ryan's classification of behavioural differences between managers and leaders

	Management	Leadership
Direction	Planning and budgeting Keeping an eye on the bottom line	Creating a vision and strategy Keeping an eye on the horizon.
Alignment	Organizing and staffing Directing and controlling Creating boundaries	Creating shared culture and values. Helping others grow Reduce boundaries
Relationships	Focus on task – produce/sell goods and services Based on	Focus on people – inspiring and motivating followers

	Management	Leadership
	a position of power Acting as a boss	Based on personal power Acting as a coach, facilitator, persuader
Personal qualities	Organisational skills Problem-solving Telling Conformity	Strategic view Open mind Asking Innovation
Outcomes	Maintains stability	Creates change, often radical change

Source: Ryan (2007)

The difference in leadership and management behaviour as discussed by Ryan (2007) and Kotter (1990) are similar with regards to what they see as behavioural differences. Thus, both scholars discussed similar differences. However, Ryan's (2007) discussion of differences between leadership and management was more elaborate and well organized. Ryan's discussion, unlike that of Kotter, was organized and he also discussed the behavioural differences of leadership and management in thematic areas.

In the early 2000s coming into the mid-2000s, Blagg and Young (2001) indicated that the difference between leadership and management lies in the supreme ability of leaders to communicate effectively. Leaders spend a great deal of time communicating to drive success and share vital information to help drive change. Dealing with change is a primary role of leadership in the current business environment. They argued that in contrast, managers may try to keep things running smoothly rather than necessarily dealing with the unpalatable truths. Leadership and management tend to be two idiosyncratic systems of action (Antonakis & Day, 2018). They are, however, complementary in implementation. Blagg and Young (2001) explain that Kotter (1990) distinguishes very well between the time to share hard truths and the time not to. He states that while sometimes these truths will have a demoralizing effect, other times they can lead to people taking action that will improve a particular situation. This is an interesting differentiator between leadership and management, but it does again tend to assume that managers cannot be leaders and vice versa, which is clearly not the case.

In line with Johnson and Hackman (2018) findings, it is evident that effective leaders possess excellent communication skills, primarily due to their extensive interaction with their team members. Leaders invest considerable time in understanding their followers, including their professional strengths, weaknesses, emotional well-being, and their role within the organisation. Their commitment to a shared vision and goals, coupled with strong values, ensures that their followers are consistently aligned and progressing in the desired direction. Conversely, managers tend to prioritize structural aspects, tools, and work processes to guide the behaviour of their subordinates.

Hamidifar et al. (2023) provided insights on the distinctions between leadership and management. According to Hamidifar et al. (2023), the objectives of management arise from practical requirements, whereas leadership stems from proactive attitudes. The underlying idea of this theory is that leaders utilize their energy to inspire individuals to think creatively when solving problems. On the other hand, managers ensure the smooth functioning of the organisation's day-to-day operations, which may involve instructing people when necessary. While management tends to limit opportunities for creativity, leadership can be constrained by managers' focus on maintaining order. Furthermore, managers tend to avoid risks, whereas leaders actively seek and embrace them.

Bârgău (2015) classifies the differences between management and leadership based on 4 processes. These processes include vision establishment, human development and networking, vision execution and vision outcome. Table 3.5 outlines the differences between management and leadership based on the processes identified in the workplace.

Table 3.5: Difference between Management and Leadership based on processes

PROCESS	MANAGEMENT	LEADERSHIP
Vision Establishment	1. Plans and budgets 2. Develops process steps and sets timelines 3. Displays impersonal attitude about the vision and goals	1. Sets direction and develop the vision 2. Develops strategic plans and achieve the vision 3. Displays very passionate attitude about the vision and goals

PROCESS	MANAGEMENT	LEADERSHIP
Human Development and Networking	1. Organizes staffs 2. Maintains structure 3. Delegate responsibility 4. Delegates authority 5. Implements the vision 6. Establishes policy and procedures to implement vision 7. Displays low emotion 8. Limits employee choices	1. Align organisation 2. Communicates the vision, mission and direction 3. Influences creation of coalitions, teams and partnerships that understand and accept the vision 4. Displays driven, high emotion 5. Increases choices
Vision Execution	1. Controls processes 2. Identifies problems 3. Solves problems 4. Monitor results 5. Takes low risk approach to problem solving	1. Motivates and inspires 2. Energizes employees to overcome barriers to change 3. Satisfies basic human needs 4. Takes high risk approach to problem solving
Vision Outcome	1. Managers vision order and predictability 2. Provides expected results consistently to leadership and other stakeholders	1. Promotes useful and dramatic changes, such as new products or approaches to improving labour relations

Source: Bârgău (2015)

Bush (2020) explains a common issue that occurs when defining the differences between leadership and management, describing it as a peculiar pattern. This author explains that everything that is inferior and unacceptable, in the sense of being bureaucratic, non-innovative, non-dynamic, backward looking and so on, is allocated to the category of management. Everything that is good and desirable comes under the category of leadership. According to Bush (2020), the problem with this is that all too frequently bad management is being compared with good leadership rather than good management being compared with good leadership and bad management being compared with bad leadership. He states that, because of this, it is essential to define the differences between good and bad management and to determine the differences between good and bad leadership.

3.3 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Leadership has been explained with different assumptions and perspectives. In leadership research, the perspective and school of thought of the researcher influences his or her views on leadership. This has brought up varied theories that are used in explaining and describing leadership. This section discussed the various theories that underpins leadership studies.

3.3.1 The Great Man Theories

Great Man theories assume that the ability for leadership is innate—great leaders are born, not made. These theories often describe great leaders as heroic, mythic, and destined to rise to leadership when needed. For instance, Carlyle claimed in his “Great Man Theory” that leaders are born and that only those men who are endowed with heroic potentials could ever become the leaders (Razali et al., 2022). In expanding on the great man theory of Carlyle, Sidney Hook highlighted the impact which could be made by the eventful man vs. the event-making man. Hook proposed that the eventful man remained multifaceted in a historic situation but did not really define its course. On the other hand, he maintained that the actions of the event-making man influenced the course of events, which could have been much different, had he not been involved in the process. The role of an event-making individual is founded on the outcomes of exceptional intelligence, determination, and character, rather than on notable actions (Razali et al., 2022). This idea of leadership has been flawed with subsequent emerging of some leaders that defile the basic tenets of the theory.

In Benmira and Agboola’s (2021) study, the central idea of the great man theory was that exceptional leaders emerge when the right circumstances arise. Leadership traits have been observed throughout different periods, supporting the notion of leaders' rise and fall. These individuals become part of history because nations, cultures, and organisations require inspirational figures (Benmira & Agboola, 2021). Additionally, the authors proposed that the influence of intellectuals on decision-making regarding specific phenomena is more substantial compared to that of individuals. The collective beliefs and ideas of a group can motivate people more effectively than a single person. These knowledgeable individuals have linked organisational development and growth to the power of exceptional individuals. However, Uslu (2019)

discovered that the great man theory has limitations when applied to the study of leadership in the services sector.

The Great Man Theories of leadership have faced significant criticism for their cultural and socio-economic biases, which predominantly reflect Western, male-centric perspectives. These biases manifest in various ways, influencing leadership perceptions and practices across different demographics. For instance, leadership theories have predominantly emerged from Western contexts, emphasizing White male leaders and often neglecting diverse cultural perspectives (Ensari & Riggio, 2020). This Western-centric focus can lead to a narrow understanding of leadership that does not account for the rich diversity of leadership styles and practices found in non-Western cultures. Additionally, in the U.S., the endorsement of the Great Man Theory correlates with cultural power distance, suggesting that social identities significantly influence leadership perceptions (Girton, 2019). This implies that the theory may reinforce existing social hierarchies and power structures, rather than promoting a more inclusive and equitable approach to leadership.

Socio-economic biases are also evident in the Great Man Theories, particularly in terms of gender stereotyping. Women leaders often face biases due to societal stereotypes that favour male leadership traits, leading to negative evaluations even when their performance is equal to that of their male counterparts (Forsyth et al., 1997). This gender bias can limit opportunities for women to be recognized and promoted as leaders, perpetuating a cycle of male dominance in leadership roles. Furthermore, the theory's emphasis on inherent leadership traits overlooks the importance of situational factors and the potential for leadership development through experience and training. This can result in a limited and exclusionary view of leadership that fails to recognize the potential of individuals from diverse backgrounds to become effective leaders. Therefore, while the Great Man Theories provide a historical perspective on leadership, their application in modern, diverse, and inclusive contexts is limited and requires supplementation with more holistic and inclusive leadership models.

3.3.2 Trait Theory

Trait theory suggests that certain inherent attributes determine an individual's suitability for leadership. This approach often highlights specific personality or behavioural characteristics shared by leaders. Early theorists believed that leaders possessed distinct physical qualities and personality traits that set them apart from non-leaders (Verawati & Hartono, 2020). Udod (2020) identified two key traits: emergent traits, heavily influenced by genetics, and self-confidence and effectiveness traits, which are shaped by experience and learning. Examples of emergent traits include height, intelligence, and attractiveness, while self-confidence and effectiveness traits encompass charisma (Munna, 2021). Max Weber viewed charisma as a transformative force capable of inspiring followers and fostering intense personal loyalty toward leaders seen as possessing almost supernatural qualities and powers (Verawati & Hartono, 2020). However, Harrison and Harrison (2018) argue that early emphasis on intellectual, physical, and personality traits failed to reveal consistent qualities shared by all effective leaders. Consequently, the trait theory fell out of favour as an elusive and inaccessible component in leadership research.

Early emphasis on individual personality and talent is no longer viewed as the sole determinants of a good leader; rather, an appropriate combination of personal characteristics is seen as an important contribution to effective leadership. According to Kolzow (2014), research over the years have revealed that effective leaders tend to share traits such as:

1. Intelligence: The ability of the leader to integrate and interpret information.
2. Creativity: The leaders' skill of being innovative and original in their thinking
3. Self-confidence: This suggest that leaders trust in themselves and confidence in their abilities.
4. Drive: Leaders have a high level of energy, initiative, and tenaciousness
5. Task-relevant knowledge: effective leaders know their business and what it takes to make it successful.
6. Credibility: Leaders that are effective are honest, trustworthy, predictable, and dependable.
7. Motivation: Leaders influence others to achieve shared goals.
8. Flexibility: leaders adapt to fit the needs of followers and demands of situations.

The trait theory seeks a framework based on the qualities of exceptional leaders in terms of personal characteristics. This framework can then be used to identify potential leaders. However, trait theories give little consideration to the context in which leadership is exercised.

Trait theory suggests that leaders can be categorized based on their task competence and interpersonal attributes. Task competence encompasses various leader traits that influence how individuals' approach and perform tasks (Zaccaro et al., 2018). Among the traits associated with task competence, four are frequently used by leadership scholars: intelligence, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional stability. Intelligence represents an individual's cognitive abilities, encompassing verbal, spatial, numerical, and reasoning skills. It consistently proves to be a reliable predictor of task performance. In a meta-analysis by Anderson and Sun (2017) of 151 papers, intelligence was found to have a positive correlation with leadership effectiveness.

These authors add that intelligence, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and emotional stability are often used to describe individuals' approach to and reaction towards task-related work. Conscientiousness reflects a person's dependability, sense of duty, and orientation towards achievement. It is often associated with deliberate planning and the establishment of structure. Openness to experience is closely linked to being imaginative, curious, and open-minded, embracing new and diverse ways of working. Emotional stability refers to an individual's capacity to remain calm and composed when faced with challenging tasks.

According to Reyes and Redona (2021), the qualities that define successful academic leaders can be categorized into three main aspects: personal attributes, interpersonal abilities, and technical management skills. When it comes to personal attributes, these leaders possess a range of qualities such as a sense of humour, courage, sound judgment, integrity, intelligence, persistence, a strong work ethic, visionary thinking, and being attentive to opportunities. Interpersonal abilities play a crucial role as well, and effective academic leaders are known for their outgoing nature, their ability to foster teamwork, and their compassionate approach towards others. Finally, their technical management skills are highlighted, including their capacity to produce results, resolve conflicts, analyse and evaluate problems, improve the work environment, and remain focused on achieving goals.

The trait theory is not without limitations. The limitations of trait theory in leadership significantly affect its predictive and explanatory power in complex organisational settings. While trait theory posits that certain inherent characteristics distinguish leaders from non-leaders, it often fails to account for the dynamic and situational factors that influence leadership effectiveness. This oversight can lead to inconsistent results and a lack of comprehensive understanding of leadership outcomes. For instance, trait theory has been criticized for its inconsistent identification of leadership traits, leading to varied conclusions across studies (Yue, 2020). Stogdill's review highlighted that no single trait or combination of traits consistently predicts leadership effectiveness, further emphasizing the theory's limitations (Yue, 2020).

Moreover, trait theory does not adequately incorporate situational variables, which are crucial in understanding leadership behaviour in complex environments (Gottfredson & Reina, 2020). The situation-trait approach suggests that leaders' decisions are influenced by their cognitive processing of situational cues, which trait theory overlooks (Gottfredson & Reina, 2020). This neglect of situational factors means that trait theory may not fully explain why certain leaders succeed in specific contexts while others do not. Consequently, the theory's applicability is limited, and it may not provide a comprehensive framework for developing effective leadership strategies in diverse organisational settings.

3.3.3 Behavioural Theories of Leadership

Behavioural theories of leadership stand in contrast to the Great Man Theory, asserting that great leaders are developed through experience and training rather than being born with inherent leadership qualities. The theory of behavioural leadership focuses upon the leaders' actions and not on intellectual abilities (Inceoglu et al., 2018). Rooted in behaviourism, this set of leadership theories focus on the actions of leaders, not on mental qualities or internal states. According to this theory, people can learn to become leaders through teaching and observation. The leader only needs to be effective by varying the behaviour in handling different situations. Behaviour theories are based on types of behaviour and leadership styles. The assumption in this thinking is that outward behaviour is enough to establish leadership. It is believed that the individuals can learn through observations and experiences to become the great leaders. However, there is another belief

that leaders' behaviour results from a logical evaluation of democratic and autocratic styles of leadership.

Fleishman et al. (1991) identified 65 distinct classifications of leader behaviour, and subsequent reviews have only further highlighted the proliferation of leader behaviour typologies and theories (Banks et al., 2018). In all the classifications of leaders, based on behavioural traits, one consistent theme in the literature is that behaviours can be fit into four categories: task-oriented behaviours, relational-oriented behaviours, change-oriented behaviours, and what is referred to as passive leadership.

Task-oriented behaviours: Leaders who exhibit task-oriented behaviours display a proactive approach in organizing and structuring their teams. They embrace a transactional leadership style, employing two specific behaviours: contingent reward and management by exception-active (MBEA). Initiating structure entails defining task roles and relationships within the group, coordinating actions among team members, setting performance standards, and ensuring that individuals meet those standards. Similarly, transactional leaders clearly communicate their expectations regarding task performance and provide rewards based on meeting those expectations (contingent rewards). They also anticipate task-related issues and take corrective measures when necessary (MBEA). Both initiating structure and contingent reward emphasise leaders' clarity regarding performance expectations and standards, utilizing them to shape followers' commitment, motivation, and behaviour. Furthermore, initiating structure and MBEA address handling deviations from these standards by implementing structured approaches and routines (Henkel et al., 2019).

Relational-oriented behaviours: Compared to leaders who prioritize structure and transactional approaches, relational-oriented leaders demonstrate a greater inclination towards consideration behaviours. Specifically, leaders with a high level of consideration behaviours exhibit qualities such as genuine concern and respect for each member of the group, approachability and friendliness, openness to receiving input from others, and treating all group members as equals (Henkel et al., 2019). These relational-oriented behaviours are also evident in studies on empowering leadership participative leadership, and democratic leadership (Rüzgar, 2018). A

recurring theme underlying these relational-oriented behaviours is that the leader's actions aim to cultivate follower respect and encourage them to prioritize the welfare of the group.

Change-oriented behaviours: Li et al. (2021) propose that change-oriented leader behaviours involve a wide range of actions aimed at promoting and driving change within an organisation. These behaviours encompass several key aspects, including the development and effective communication of a vision for change, fostering an environment that encourages innovative thinking, and promoting a culture that embraces risk-taking. For instance, transformational leaders, known for their inspirational motivation, place significant emphasis on effectively communicating a compelling vision for the future. They strive to inspire and motivate their followers by presenting a clear and engaging picture of what the organisation aims to achieve. Furthermore, transformational leaders exhibit intellectual stimulation by actively seeking diverse perspectives from their team members, challenging existing assumptions, and encouraging them to think outside the box. This intellectual stimulation fosters a climate of innovation and creativity within the organisation and enables individuals to explore new ideas and approaches.

Additionally, transformational leaders are willing to take calculated risks, understanding that they are often necessary for driving meaningful change. These dimensions of transformational leadership represent a distinctive conceptual framework that differentiates it from the research conducted on task-oriented and relational-oriented leader behaviours. Unlike leaders who primarily focus on assigning tasks and managing relationships, transformational leaders actively engage in shaping the organisation's future by inspiring and challenging their followers to exceed their potential. It is important to note that passive leadership, which involves a lack of proactive engagement and direction from leaders, stands in contrast to the change-oriented behaviours described above. Passive leaders tend to exhibit a hands-off approach, lacking the drive and initiative required to effectively lead change within an organisation.

Passive Leaders: Passive leaders are characterized by their tendency to only involve their followers when task-related problems or challenges arise (Harold & Holtz, 2015). Unlike proactive leaders who actively seek out opportunities to engage with their followers, passive leaders do not take the initiative unless there is a problem that needs to be addressed. Consequently, their

engagement with followers is largely reactive in nature. A key aspect of passive leadership is the laissez-faire dimension of leader behaviours (Wong & Giessner, 2018). This dimension refers to the absence of leader behaviours, where leaders adopt a hands-off approach and refrain from providing guidance or direction to their followers. In situations where no problem exists or is not apparent to the leader, they may completely disengage from their role and fail to actively involve themselves with their followers.

3.3.3.1 The University of Michigan Studies

Likert, Katz and Kahn were the lead scholars that conducted the studies on leadership at the Institute for Social Research of the University of Michigan (Hitt et al., 2011). These studies examined two distinct styles of leader behaviour: the job-centred and employee-centred styles. The leadership styles are explained below:

1. **The job-centred leadership style:** The job-centred leader emphasises employee tasks and the methods used to accomplish them. The job-centred leader supervises individuals closely by providing instructions, checking frequently on performance and sometimes behaves in a punitive manner toward the employees.
2. **The Employee-centred leadership style:** The employee-centred leader emphasises employees' personal needs and the development of interpersonal relationships. Such a leader frequently delegates decision-making authority and responsibility to others and provides a supportive environment, encouraging interpersonal communication (Oberer & Erkollar, 2018).

In the studies that were led by Likert, Katz and Kahn, leaders were asked to complete a questionnaire consisting of several items and based on responses, classified as either job-centred or employee-centred. Factors such as the productivity, job satisfaction, absenteeism, and turnover rates were used for the effectiveness of the leaders. The results of the studies were quite mixed; thus, there were situations where both types of leaders were more productive. However, in terms of frequency, job-centred style of leaders had less productive units more often than the employee-centred style. In situations where high productive levels are achieved under a job-centred leader, there was an observed lower levels of job satisfaction. On the other hand, in employee-centred leader's units, high productive levels commensurate with the high job satisfaction the employees.

Therefore, many of the researchers involved in the studies concluded that the employee-centred style was more effective.

One of the limitations is that the studies examined only a unidimensional leadership style. Thus, a leader could only be classified as possessing job-centred or employee-centred characteristics but not both. The leadership styles were oversimplified. This is because a leader can have attributes of both leadership styles to make him/her more effective and efficient. Therefore, the oversimplification of the leadership style could affect the results of a study (Oberer & Erkollar, 2018).

3.3.3.2 The Ohio State Studies

The Ohio State studies were conducted during the same period as the Michigan State studies. The Ohio State studies investigated subordinates' views of leaders' behaviour within a military and industrial context. Numerous leader behaviours were identified during the study, but emphasis was on two leader behaviours: initiating structure and consideration (Hoogeboom & Wilderom, 2019). These concepts are explained as follows:

1. **Initiating structure:** This indicates behaviour that establishes well-defined patterns of organisation and communication, defines procedures, and delineates the leader's relationships with those being led. Leaders who initiate structure emphasise goals and deadlines and ensure that employees are assigned tasks and know what performance is expected from them.
2. **Consideration:** This refers to behaviour that expresses friendship, develops mutual trust and respect, and builds strong interpersonal relationships with those being led. Leaders who exhibit consideration offer support to their employees, use employees' ideas, and frequently allow them to participate in decisions (Oberer & Erkollar, 2018).

These two concepts are similar to the ones used in the Michigan studies. Thus, initiating structure is similar to job-centred leadership, while consideration is similar to employee-centred leadership. Unlike the Michigan studies which was unidimensional, the Ohio studies were multidimensional. Thus, leaders can exhibit characteristics of both styles of leadership.

In the Michigan studies, individual leaders were classified either as employee-centred or job-centred. However, the Ohio studies examined the linkage between these two dimensions of leader behaviour and effectiveness. The studies revealed those leaders high in both initiating structure and consideration were more effective than other leaders. The measuring factors of leadership effectiveness including employee productivity, satisfaction, and turnover were seen as complicated in their usage to measure effectiveness of leaders. Further, it is observed that each of the leader-behaviour dimensions might affect different outcomes in different ways. For instance, structuring might have stronger effect on productivity while consideration might have stronger effect on satisfaction (Hitt et al., 2011).

The Ohio State Leadership Studies, which investigated subordinates' views of leaders' behaviour within military and industrial contexts, have several limitations. One significant limitation is the narrow focus on specific environments, which may not generalize well to other settings such as educational institutions or non-profit organisations. The studies primarily examined leadership behaviours in hierarchical and structured environments, potentially overlooking the complexities and nuances of leadership in more dynamic and less formalized contexts (Schriesheim & Murphy, 1976). Additionally, the reliance on self-reported data from subordinates can introduce biases, as respondents may provide socially desirable answers rather than accurate reflections of their leaders' behaviours (Hunter, 2004)

Another limitation is the emphasis on two primary dimensions of leadership behaviour: initiating structure and consideration. While these dimensions are valuable, they may not capture the full spectrum of leadership behaviours necessary for effective leadership in diverse and evolving organisational contexts. The studies' focus on these two dimensions may oversimplify the complexity of leadership and fail to account for other critical factors such as emotional intelligence, adaptability, and cultural competence (Lindberg, 2022). Furthermore, the Ohio State Leadership Studies did not adequately address the impact of situational variables on leadership effectiveness, which is a crucial aspect of contemporary leadership theories (Yukl, 2014)

3.3.3.3 The Leadership Grid

The Leadership Grid was developed in the early 1960s by management theorists Robert Blake and Jane Mouton. The model is built on the premise that leadership effectiveness is based on two predilections—concern for production and concern for people (Aalateeg, 2017). These are explained as:

1. **Concern for People:** this is the degree to which a leader considers team members' needs, interests and areas of personal development when deciding how best to accomplish a task.
2. **Concern for Results:** this is the degree to which a leader emphasises concrete objectives, organisational efficiency and high productivity when deciding how best to accomplish a task.

The model states that the optimal strategy for managers is to maximize attitudes and actions reinforcing both concerns. Thus, there is the need to stress both organisational goal setting and group development and interaction. Based on the two concerns, Blake and Mouton (1964) defined five leadership styles and this is illustrated in the diagram below:

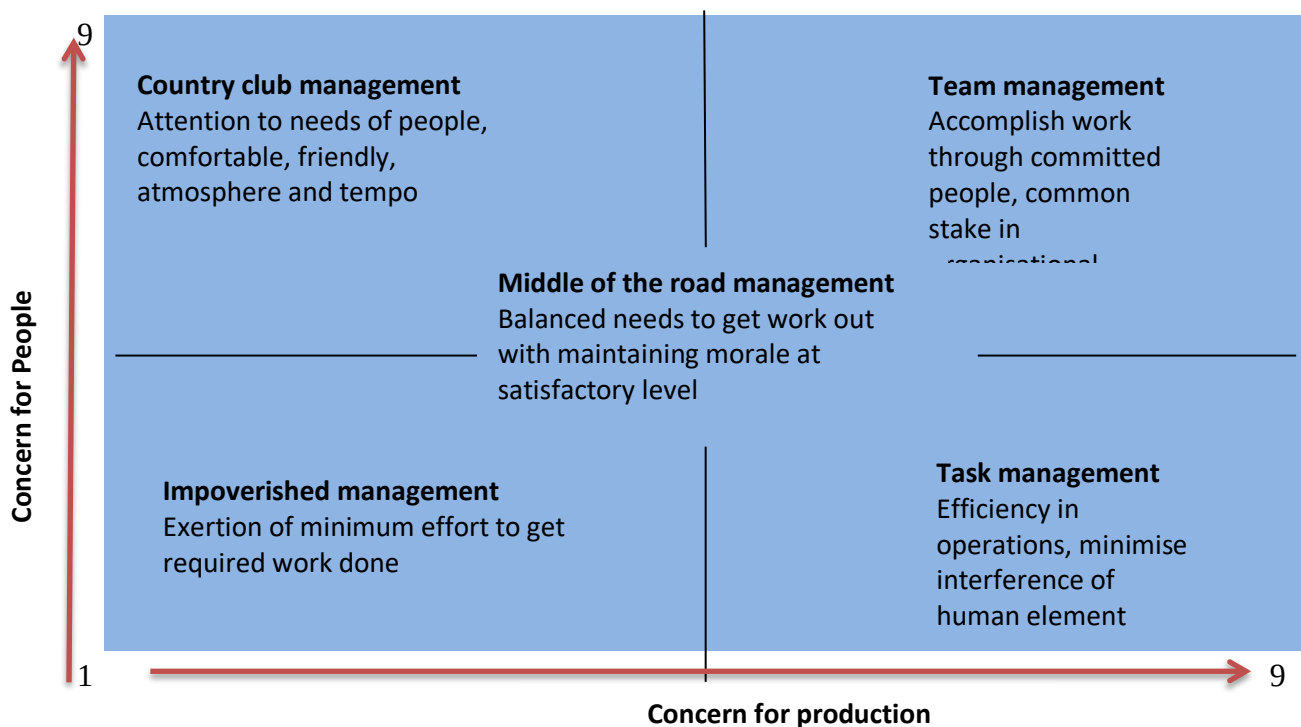


Figure 3.2: Managerial Grid

Source: Blake and Mouton (1964)

The managerial grid identifies five leadership styles namely, Impoverished Management (Low Results/Low People), Produce-or-Perish Management (High Results/Low People), Middle-of-the-Road Management (Medium Results/Medium People), Country Club Management (High People/Low Results), and Team Management (High Production/High People). The characteristics and effectiveness of these leadership styles are explained as follows:

1. Impoverished Management: The impoverished leader/manager is largely considered as ineffective as he or she has low regard for creating systems to get the job done and has little interest in motivating team members.
2. Produce-or-Perish Management: This type of leadership is also known as authoritarian leadership. This manager/leader has an appetite for high results and low concern for people. Thus, such a leader/manager has strict work rules, policies and procedures, and can view punishment as an effective way of motivating team members. This approach can drive impressive production results at first, but low team morale and motivation will ultimately affect people's performance, and this type of leader will struggle to retain high performers.
3. Middle-of-the-Road Management: This leader/manager tries to balance results and people. However, this strategy is not as effective as it may sound as he or she continually compromises. Such leaders/managers fail to inspire high performance and fails to meet people's needs fully. The result is that his team will likely deliver only mediocre performance.
4. Country Club Management: This leader adopts the accommodating style to manage or lead his or her team. Such managers'/leaders' concern is mostly about team members' needs and feelings. They assume that if team members are happy and secure, they will work hard. The work environment is mostly relaxed when such managers or leaders are around a team. However, productivity might suffer as there is usually a lack of direction and control.
5. Team Management: This is the most effective leadership style. It reflects a leader who is passionate about his work and who does the best he or she can for the people he works with. Such leaders are committed to their organisation's goals and mission, motivate the people who report to them, and work hard to get people to stretch themselves to deliver great results. They can get the results because such leaders prioritize production needs and

the people's needs. This is also achieved as the members are made to understand the purpose of the organisation.

3.3.4 Situational or Contingency Theories of Leadership

Contingency or situational theories of leadership emphasise the importance of environmental variables in determining the most effective leadership style for a given situation. According to these theories, no single leadership style is universally best; rather, success depends on various factors, including the leader's style, the characteristics of the followers, and the specifics of the situation (Fiedler, 1967). The contingency theory highlights that leadership effectiveness is contingent upon the alignment between these variables. Two prominent aspects of contingency theory are the Path-Goal Theory and the Situational Theory (House, 1971; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). The path-goal indicates that effective leaders help followers reach goals through motivation by involving them in fulfilling and meaningful tasks that match their ability. The leader provides coaching, direction, motivation, and rewards for the followers (Liu et al., 2020). According to Sivarat et al. (2021) the principal tenants of the situational/contingency theory is that leadership behaviour should be motivating and satisfying to the extent that it increases goal attainment by followers and explains the behaviour that will lead to these goals/rewards.

In the view of Hersey and Blanchard (1977) as cited by Rodić and Marić (2021), situational leadership theory is concerned with curvilinear relationship between task behaviour (initiating structure) and maturity. More accurately, they theorized that as the leaders can assess the leadership situation with which they must deal, the leaders should adjust their behaviour or style to be compatible with the situation and as the maturity of the group increases, the leader should reduce task directed behaviour and increase relationship behaviour. In the view Hersey and Blanchard, maturity is seen as the degree to which the group can increase their level of aspirations and accomplishments. In the very mature state, a group essentially self-actualizes, and a leader operates with a high degree of delegation.

In a similar vein, the real causes of effective and ineffective organisational leadership reside in structural features rather than the characteristics of the people who lead those organisations (Vroom & Jago, 2007). The traits of leaders reflect the mechanisms by which they are selected,

and their behaviour is constrained by the situations that they face. Perrow argued that leadership should be viewed as a dependent rather than an independent variable (cited in Vroom & Jago, 2007). To put it differently, the traits and behaviour of leaders are mediating variables between structural antecedents and organisational outcomes (Vroom & Jago, 2007).

The argument that the attributes of the leader are irrelevant to organisation effectiveness has three components:

1. Leaders have very limited power (much less than is attributed to them),
2. Candidates for a given leadership position will have gone through the same selection screen that will drastically curtail their differences, and
3. Leadership effectiveness is also influenced by situational demands.

When these assumptions are valid, it is easy to see that individual differences would be largely irrelevant to leadership. Many of the challenges facing leaders are ambiguous, replete with uncertainty, and leave lots of room for differences in interpretation and action.

Most social scientists interested in leadership have now abandoned the debate between person or situation in favour of a search for a set of concepts that can deal both with differences in situations and with differences in leaders. By convention, these are referred to as *contingency theories*. Empirically, contingency theories guide research into the kinds of persons and behaviours who are effective in different situations. Contingency model of leadership deals with both leader traits and situational variables (Vroom & Jago, 2007).

The contingency theory recommends that no one leadership style alone can cater for all prerequisites of leadership. This phenomenon is reliant upon certain factors that are responsible for the ultimate success. To be successful, leaders must adapt, accommodate and respond to certain situation and eventualities and comprehend followers' potentials. Inside the organisation, with respect to change, leaders not only change the situation and dynamic services but also try to transform accordingly and utilize the working potentials of the employees to its maximum (Attar & Abdul-Kareem, 2020). Contingency theory is similar to the behavioural theory in the sense that, leadership is not effective in all situations. It means that one style may be active in one situation but may not be effective in another. Though, the situational leadership remains to emphasise

mostly upon the leader, it gives prominence to group dynamics. For leaders and their group relationships, numerous studies support the modern theories related to leadership and group dynamics (Alberto, 2015). Contingency leadership theory gives strong support that leadership effectiveness is contingent upon the behaviours, traits and diverse situational factors.

3.3.4.1 Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness

Fiedler's contingency model for leadership was developed when he attempted to measure diagnostic and therapeutic competence of clinical psychologists (Northouse, 2021). Adopting Stephenson's (1953) Q-technique, he assumed a clinical psychologist was able to predict the self-concept of a patient. In the process, he realised that the use of the Q-sort-technique was very time-consuming, and instructions were too complex for persons with relatively low intelligence to understand (Shala et al., 2021). Fiedler, therefore, used another approach called the Q-blocks and extended his research to cover leaders and the effectiveness of the groups they lead. As the research was extended to cover leadership effectiveness, Fiedler realised that the use of assumed similarity were quite easier to handle, reliable and had a high predictive value for performance than the Q-blocks (Northouse, 2021). With the assumed similarity, a leader is asked to describe the co-worker whom he preferred most (MPC) and his least preferred co-worker (LPC). The computation of score showed a higher correlation for both MPC and LPC. As such Fiedler concluded on using LPC to measure leader's personality characteristic.

The composition of the LPC scale which has changed over the years consisted of eighteen items. The LPC-score has become the central measure for research on leadership effectiveness in the context of the contingency model. However, Fiedler proposed a contingent approach towards the LPC score as both high and low LPC leaders could be effective dependent on the situation under which the leader is operating. Fiedler came to this conclusion after thorough study of old and new research on LPC as a measure of leader effectiveness. The contingency model of leadership by Fiedler is underlined by the basic assumption of the personality attributes which is also what LPC measures (Howell, 2018).

Fiedler indicated clearly that different group situations require different leadership styles (Northouse, 2021). Thus, situations could be favourable or unfavourable with regards to the

leader's influence on the members of his group. His idea of situational favourability became known as "situational control" of the leader. These consisted of three components namely, personal relations, structuredness of the task, and powerful position.

Personal relations: Interpersonal relationship between a leader and his group members is an important determinant of most group processes. In Fiedler's contingency model, interpersonal relationship is measured by the sociometric acceptance of the leader by his group, and by the leader's rating of the group's atmosphere.

Structuredness of the task: The nature and structure of task is another important component of situational control. Fiedler in measuring the task structure adopted four dimensions of Shaw's (1963) ten-dimensional taxonomy to assess clarity or ambiguity of a task. These four dimensions were:

- a. Goal clarity: This measures the degree to which the requirements of the assignment are clearly defined.
- b. Goal-path multiplicity: This measures the degree to which the assignment can be performed by a variety of procedures.
- c. Solution specificity: This is seen as different tasks having a variety of possible outcomes. Solution specificity measures the extent that the outcomes are acceptable.
- d. Decision verifiability: This refers to the degree that checking the solutions or decisions can be made.

According to Fiedler, a leader is free of anxiety if tasks come with a high goal clarity, one goal-path, one right solution, and high decision verifiability. In measuring task structure, he proposed a scale 0 to 2 where 0 is seldom true, 1 is sometimes true and 2 is usually true.

Powerful position: Every leadership position has a certain amount of position power. As such position power can be referred to as the inherent power of a leadership position. Leaders have authority over their subordinates and depending on the degree to which this authority is supported by the organisation, the leader has at his disposal rewards and sanctions of subordinates (Haslam et al., 2020)

To validate the contingency model, Fiedler, re-analysed past studies where he used the situational control dimensions. He found a correlation between leader scores and group performance measures within each octant to be quite similar in size and direction. His analysis also revealed that groups of low LPC leaders performed best when they had very high or very low situational control and groups of high LPC leaders performed best in moderately well controlled situations. In a further attempt to validate the contingency model, Fiedler investigated the effect of leadership experience, and cultural heterogeneity on performance. The findings of the study did not support the Contingency Model which postulates a curvilinear relationship. Further, two identical studies were carried out by Graen et al. (1970). One of the studies found partial support for the model while the other one did not find any support at all. A third study conducted by Chemers and Skrzypek (1972) to test the octants of the contingency model found striking correspondence between the plotted curve and Fiedler's predictions (as cited in Howell, 2018).

Fiedler (1978) as cited by De Souza (2020), evaluated the validation studies and found that thirty-eight of the forty-seven separate correlations were in the same direction as predicted the original studies. Separating the validation studies into field and laboratory studies yielded a similar picture. As such Fiedler explained this finding by pointing out the difficulty of creating a situation with a structured task and low position power in laboratory setting. The Contingency model of leadership has been criticized as inaccurate with regards to this leadership condition, at least, as it is created within lab settings. The most relevant criticism of the contingency model is its inability to explain the specific process that allows the prediction of performance from the interaction of LPC and situational control.

The contingency model has been extended to include aspect of cognitive resource model. In the cognitive resource model, the leader's intellectual abilities are the major source of the plans, decisions, and strategies that guide the group's actions. These are communicated to group in form of directive and if group are sink with leader and organisation's goal, it is acted upon. The cognitive resource model identifies two types of intellectual abilities in leaders namely, intelligence and job experience. The cognitive model contained two assumptions and seven hypotheses. The hypothesis 7 integrated the cognitive resource model and the contingency model. Based on the hypothesis 7 which integrates cognitive model and contingency model, Fiedler re-analysed some old studies.

His analysis found support and rejections for some assumptions and hypotheses. For the assumptions that he found support, he found that the correlations between a leader's intelligence score and the group's performance were consistently in the opposite direction to the correlations between a leader's job experience and the group's performance. He also observed that correlations between a leader's intelligence and the group's performance were very often in the opposite direction to the correlations between the members' intelligence and the group's performance (as cited in Shah, 2020). Fiedler's (1978) Contingency Model integrated with the cognitive resource model seems the best theory to study leadership effectiveness in small groups, although known methodological criticism has been raised against it (De Souza, 2020).

3.3.4.2 Path-Goal Theory

The path goal theory of leadership centres on the motivational factors of the subordinates that have significant influence on the outcome of the task. This theory defines the role of a leader as one who defines the goal and lays down the path for the subordinates to facilitate completion of goal. As such, Malik et al. (2014) identified the leadership behaviour, based on the path goal theory, as a source of influence that can change the attitude, motivation, and behaviour of an individual subordinate. This theory requires that the leader be interested in learning and spreading a learning culture to adopt supportive, participative, and/or achievement-oriented behaviour. The theory further stresses that subordinates are satisfied with leadership styles that meet their expectations as this serves as source of motivation. On the other hand, where leadership style does not meet expectation of subordinates—where tasks are ambiguous and not clearly defined—they become stressed out and disapprove of the leader's style. As such it is expected of the leader to adopt appropriate style to respond quickly to subordinates' expectations, needs, and wants (Farhan, 2018).

According to Olowoselu et al. (2019) the adoption of appropriate behaviour or style depends on the change in situational factors like organisational culture, task uncertainty, and subordinates' characteristics. Thus, learning leaders can easily adopt any of the path-goal leadership styles to motivate subordinates to fill the learning gap and improve their learning shortage. This allows followers' learning attitude through clarifying the path and removing obstacles and allowing the goal of improving learning organisation to be achieved. The adoption of appropriate style will help

subordinates satisfy their needs and accomplish learning goal (Farhan, 2018). The main proponent of the leadership path goal theory is for leaders to influence followers/subordinates thinking of their work goal, personal goals and paths toward goal attainment (Olowoselu et al., 2019).

The path-goal theory specifies several interactions between leader behaviour and situational factors. These interactions influence outcomes of a task. Studies on these interactions have provided only mixed support for the theory. Thus, some studies found support for the theory while others failed to support the theory. The interaction between leader behaviour and situational factors is graphically presented in Figure 3.3

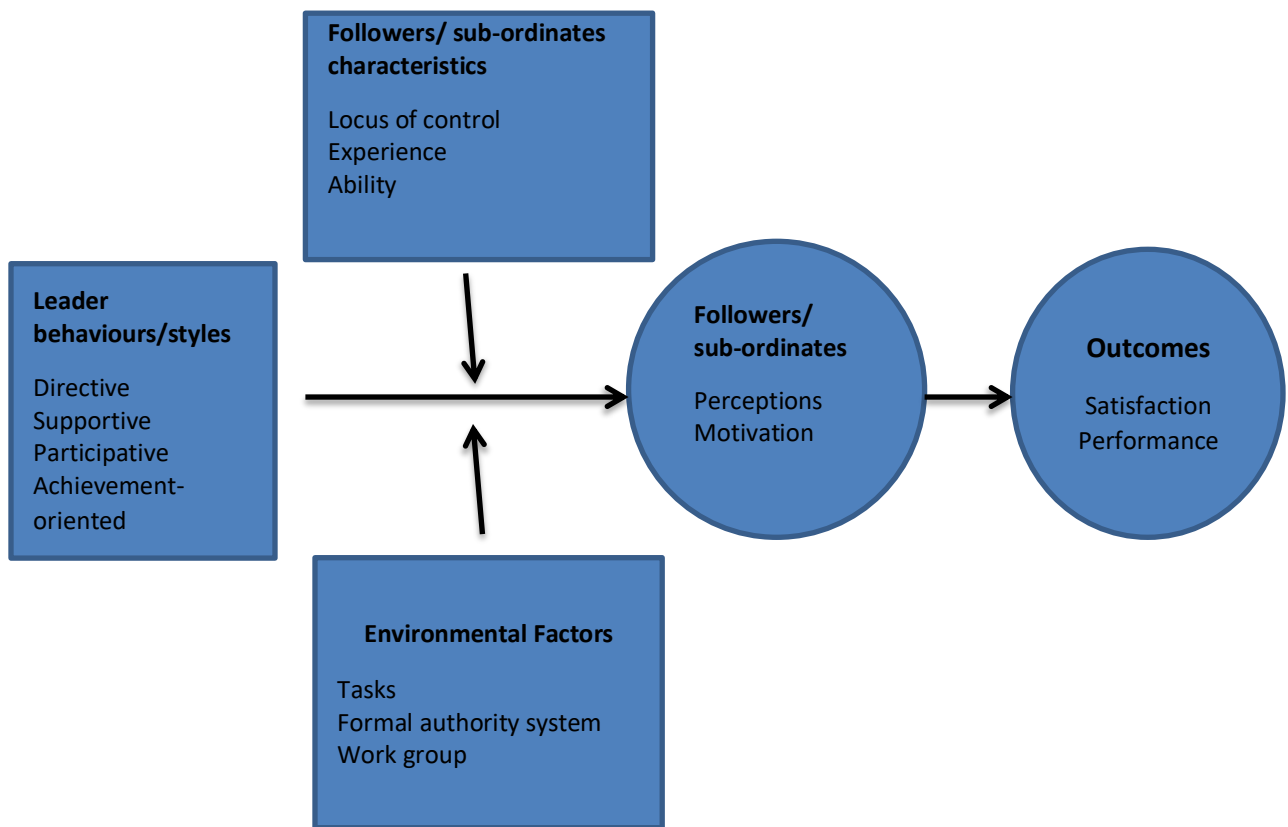


Figure 3.3: The Path Goal Model

Source: Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly and Konopaske (2012)

The interactions result in different relationships of which some are valid, and others are not. Some of the valid relationships are explained as stated in Hitt et al. (2011).

1. Associates with an internal locus of control (who believe outcomes are a function of their own behaviour) are likely to be more satisfied with a participative leader. Individuals with an external locus of control (who believe outcomes are a function of chance or luck) are more likely to be effective with directive leaders.
2. Associates who have a high need for affiliation are likely to be more satisfied with a supportive leader. Supportive leaders fulfil their needs for close personal relationships.
3. Associates with a high need for security probably will be more satisfied with a directive leader who reduces uncertainty by providing clear rules and procedures.

4. Supportive and participative leaders are more likely to increase satisfaction on highly structured tasks. Since the tasks are routine, little direction is necessary. Directive leaders are more likely to increase satisfaction on unstructured tasks, where individuals (particularly those with less experience and ability) often need help in clarifying an ambiguous task situation.
5. Directive leadership is often more effective on unstructured tasks because it can increase an employee's expectation that effort will lead to task-goal accomplishment (particularly when employees have less experience and/or ability). Supportive leadership is often more effective on structured tasks because it can increase a person's expectation that accomplishing goals will lead to extrinsic rewards.
6. Associates with a high need for growth who are working on a complex task probably perform better with a participative or achievement-oriented leader. Since they are intrinsically motivated, they appreciate information and difficult goals that help in achievement. Individuals who have a low need for growth and are working on complex tasks tend to perform better under directive leaders.

3.3.4.3 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory

Many managers have had challenges using the esoteric theories as their leadership approach in their production line, in the office, or in a research and development lab. The Situational Leadership Model (SLM), developed by Hersey and Blanchard, has been found by many business managers to be appealing and suitable. As such many firms, large and small have used the SLM and enthusiastically endorse its value.

Hersey and Blanchard's SLM largely emphasise on followers and their level of maturity. The model reveals that a leader must be able to properly judge or intuitively know the maturity level of followers and adopt a leadership style that fits the maturity level. Further, the model also emphasised on readiness which was defined as the ability and willingness of followers to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour. Two categories of readiness were identified in the model namely, job and psychological. The model identified a follower with the knowledge and abilities to perform the job without a leader structuring or directing the work as a follower with high job readiness. On the other hand, a follower with the self-motivation, desire to do high quality

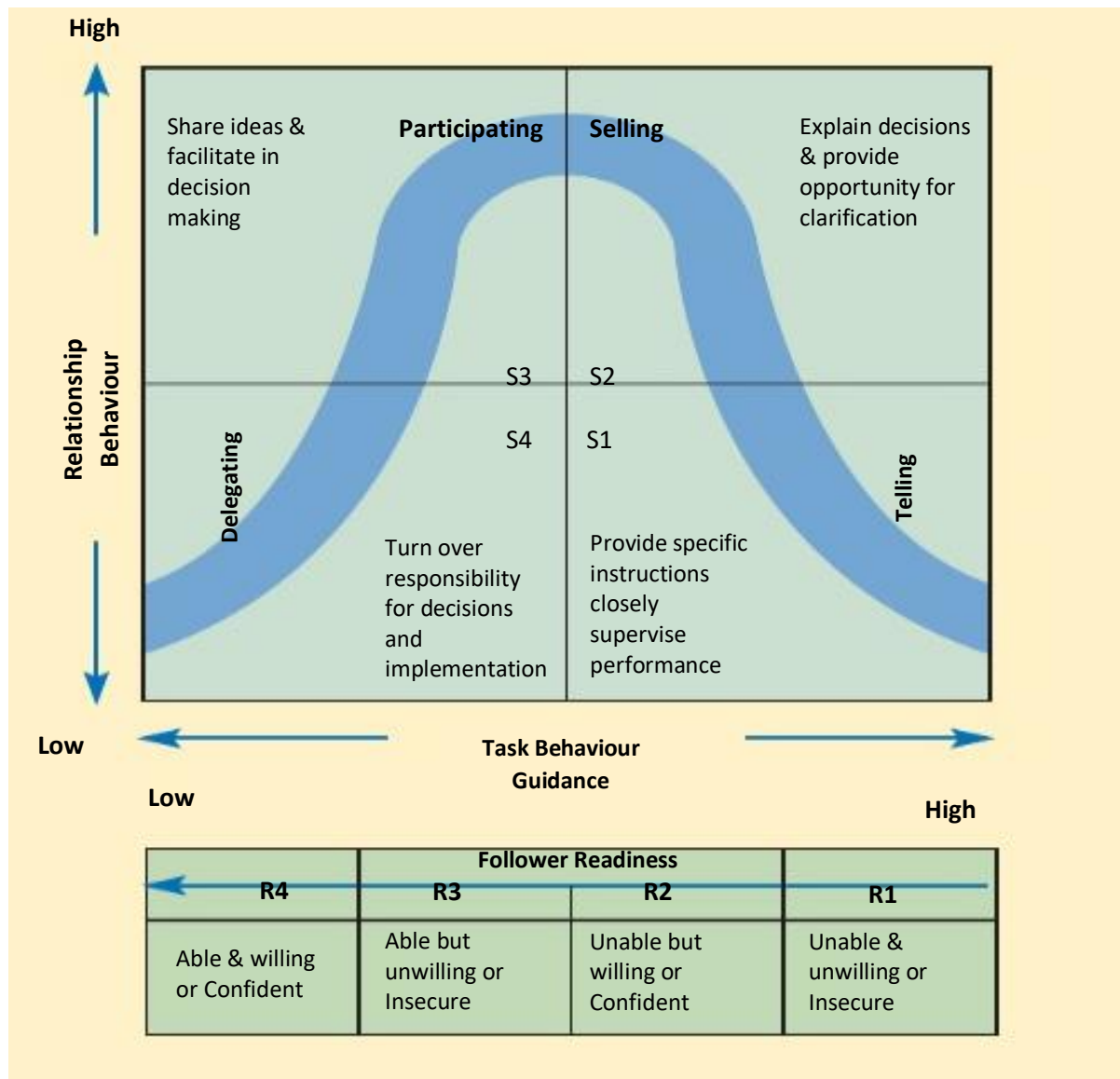
work, and need little direct supervision is considered as follower with high psychological readiness (Gibson et al., 2012).

Based on the Ohio state studies, Hersey and Blanchard further developed four leadership styles available to leaders. These leadership styles are telling, selling, participating, and delegating styles. Under each of the leadership styles, the role of the leader is defined as:

- **Telling leadership styles:** under this style, the leader defines the roles needed to do the job and tells followers what, where, how, and when to do the tasks.
- **Selling leadership styles:** in this leadership style, the leader provides followers with structured instructions but is also supportive.
- **Participating leadership styles:** Here, the leader and followers share in decisions about how best to complete a high-quality job.
- **Delegating leadership styles:** with this leadership style, the leader provides little specific, close direction or personal support to followers (Gibson et al., 2012).

By determining followers' readiness level, a manager can choose from among the four leadership styles. Figure 3.4 depicts the elements of the SLM developed by Hersey and Blanchard.

Figure 3.4: Hersey and Blanchard Model of Situational Leadership



Source: Schermerhorn, Osborn, Uhl-Bien & Hunt, (2012)

The model sees leadership style as the behaviour pattern that the person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of others as perceived by those others. From the figure, four leadership styles are respectively prescribed as appropriate for the four degrees of task-maturity, from immaturity S1 through intermediate stages S2, S3 to total task maturity S4. This cycle has been illustrated by a bell-shaped curve going through the four leadership quadrants: (1) high task and low relationship, where the leader's style should be the telling style (2) high task and high relationship, where the leader's style should be the selling style. (3) Low task and high relationship,

where the leader's style should be the participating style and (4) low task and low relationship where the leader's style should be the delegating style (Schermerhorn, et al., 2012). The model also indicates the probability of success of each of the three inappropriate styles depending on how far the style is from the appropriate style, along the curvilinear function.

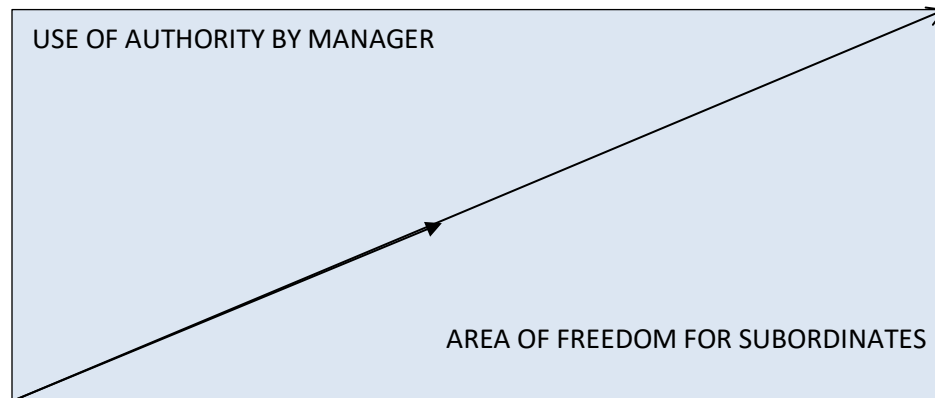
Although the SLM has been preferred and used by many business leaders, questions have been raised on whether the model really works as the testing of the model has been limited. Another criticism has been on the model's assumed notion that a leader can change or adapt his or her style to fit a follower or group. Thus, research is needed to validate the flexibility possibility among leaders.

Based on some of the criticisms raised against the SLM, Blanchard responded by revising the original model. He gave new titles to the terms, calling task behaviour directive behaviour and relationship behaviour supportive behaviour. The four leadership styles are now called S1-directing, S2-coaching, S3-supporting, and S4-delegating. Readiness is now called the development level of followers. The development level is defined in terms of followers' current competence and commitment to do the job (Gibson et al., 2012).

3.3.4.4 The Tannenbaum and Schmidt Continuum

The Tannenbaum and Schmidt Continuum shows the relationship between the level of freedom that a manager chooses to give to a team, and the level of authority used by the manager. The model postulates that as the team's freedom is increased, the manager's authority decreases and vice versa. However, increasing the team's freedom is the idea the model seeks to achieve. This is because increasing the team's freedom is a positive way for both teams and managers to develop. However, the principle of being able to apply different levels of delegated freedom closely relate to the levels of delegation on the delegation page. As it is a manager's responsibility is to develop his or her team, he or she is required to ask the team to make its own decisions to varying degrees according to the team's abilities (Business Balls, 2019). The Tannenbaum and Schmidt Continuum is often shown as a simple graph as presented in Figure 3.5

Figure 3.5: Tannenbaum and Schmidt Continuum



Source: Business Balls (2019)

The model assumes that over time, a manager should aim to take the team from one end of the continuum to the other, at which point the leader should also aim to have developed one or several potential successors from within the team to take over from the leader. This may require a longer period than anticipated.

In the Tannenbaum and Schmidt Continuum, irrespective of the amount of responsibility and freedom delegated by a manager to a team, the manager retains accountability for any catastrophic problems that result. Delegating freedom and decision-making responsibility to a team does not absolve the manager of accountability. The Tannenbaum and Schmidt Continuum outlines the levels of delegated freedom to team or individuals in the team as follows:

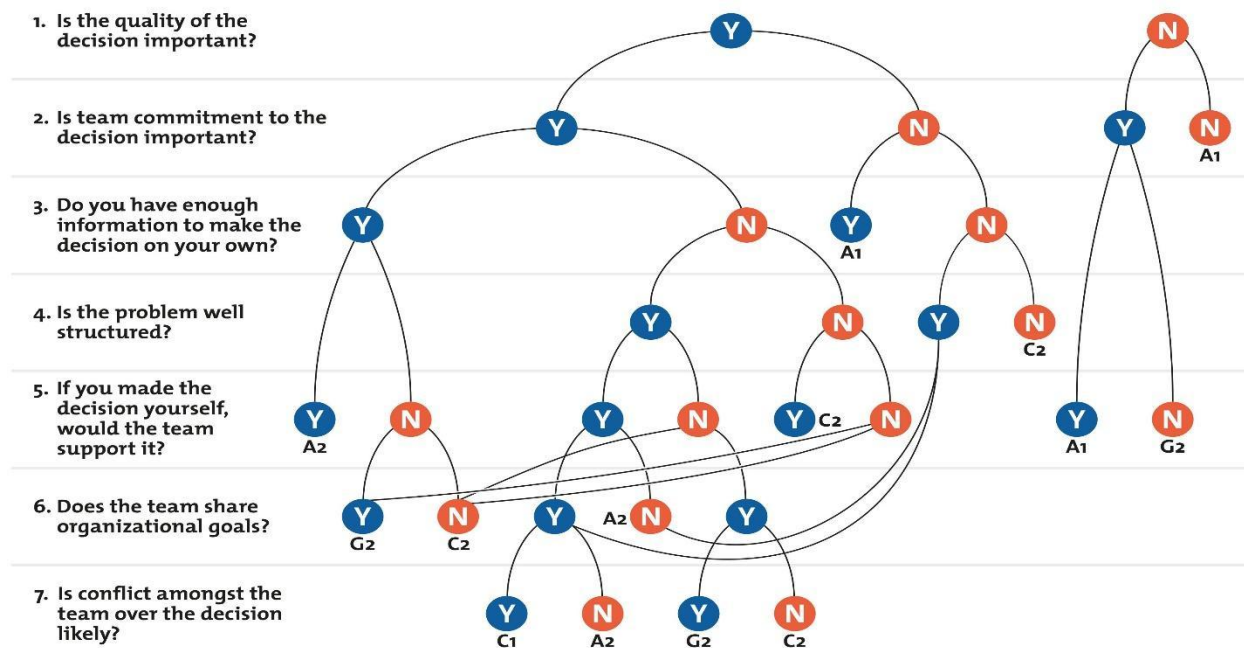
1. The manager decides and announces the decision.
2. The manager decides and then “sells” the decision to the group.
3. The manager presents the decision with background ideas and invites questions.
4. The manager suggests a provisional decision and invites discussion about it.
5. The manager presents the situation or problem, gets suggestions, then decides.
6. The manager explains the situation, defines the parameters and asks the team to decide.
7. The manager allows the team to identify the problem, develop the options, and decide on the action, within the manager’s received limits.

3.3.4.5 Vroom and Yetton Contingency Model

The Vroom and Yetton model of leadership was originally developed in their 1973 book on Leadership and Decision Making. The model is designed to help identify the best decision-making approach and leadership style based on your current situation. The main tenet of the model is that no decision-making process fits every situation or scenario. This is because different processes are required to make decisions that are the best fit for a given situation (Field, 1979). Further, the model also assumes that several factors including time constraints, the level of team participation required, and the quality of the final decision need to be considered in determining the best suited process for decision making in a situation.

The Vroom-Yetton contingency model in its assumption poses seven ‘yes’ or ‘no’ questions, and responses to these questions will guide a leader and his or her team to find the best decision-making process for a particular situation. The response to the question leads you through a decision tree to a code of either A1, A2, C1, C2, or G2. The codes identify the best decision-making process for a team in a particular situation. The model is illustrated below in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6: Vroom-Yetton’s Contingency model of leadership



Source: Mind Tools (2019)

The codes represent the five decision making processes of the model. The codes and the conditions under which such decision-making process occur are explained as follows:

Autocratic (A1): Under this decision-making process, leaders use the information that are available to them to make the decision, without requiring any further input from the team.

Autocratic (A2): Here, leaders do little consultation with the team for the purposes of obtaining some specific information required for the decision making. After obtaining the information leaders make the final decision all by themselves.

Consultative (C1): The leader, under this consultative process, informs team members of the situation and ask for members' opinions individually. Here, the whole team is not brought together for discussion and decision making. The leader takes the final decision based on the views and opinions expressed by the individual team members.

Consultative (C2): Just like the consultative C1, the leader, under consultative C2 process, takes the final decision but on views and suggestions expressed by team members. The difference here is that the views and suggestions of the members are expressed in a group discussion. Thus, the leader brings the team members together for group discussion about the issues and their views and suggestions sought to inform final decision.

Collaborative (G2): Under the collaborative decision process, the leader works together with the team members to reach a group consensus. The role of the leader here is mostly facilitative in nature to support the team members reach an agreed decision (De Souza, 2020)

The model suggests that when certain conditions are present, such as the need for information from others to address a problem, the difficulty in defining the problem, sufficient time to oversee a group decision, and the necessity for team members to agree with the decision, the consultative or collaborative decision-making style or process is suitable. Also, the autocratic style or process of decision making is suitable and appropriate under conditions such as leader has greater expertise on the subject than others, leader is confident about acting alone, team will accept your decision, and there is little time available (Mind Tools, 2019).

The Vroom-Yetton contingency model is a useful leadership model; however, it is not necessarily suitable for all contingencies. The model is criticized for not including several important considerations and its rigid structure which fails to consider emotions and dynamics of teams and

task complexity. In addition, the seven questions of the model are seen as imprecise as the use of words such as important and quality are vaguely used. Based on the criticisms, the model was modified in 1988 to include several other questions which allows other constraints to be included (Mind Tools, 2019).

3.3.5 Leader-Member Exchange Theory

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory was originally referred to as the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) theory (Dansereau et al., 1975). Underpinning the LMX framework is the assertion that the need for exchange between leaders and their subordinates compel leaders to adapt their leadership styles when dealing with subordinates. This finds expression in how the leader relates with each subordinate within the context of work-related activities. The LMX theory sees the emergence of two distinct groups of member-followers: in-groups and out-groups. In-group members receive greater responsibilities, more rewards, more attention, and are allowed some flexibility in the performance of their duties. The in-group consists of a small number of trusted followers with whom the leader usually establishes a special higher quality exchange relationship. This draws such member-followers closer to the leader. By contrast, out-group members receive lesser attention and rewards. Their work-related tasks are conducted in adherence to organisational guidelines. Such group members are therefore “distanced” from the leader.

Empowerment within the work setting includes the leader allowing subordinates to take some decisions relative to work activities. Empowerment does not occur in a vacuum but thrives under appropriate conditions. These conditions include access to information, resources as well as provisions for the personal development of each subordinate. According to Schermuly and Meyer (2016), this leads to feelings of psychological empowerment which further translates to better work output by workers. The influence of leadership on empowerment cannot be ignored. Empowerment can occur in a work setting if the leader is willing to play the role of a facilitator and guide. Instead of strict enforcement of work defined tasks (contract-based work), workers are allowed some work flexibility with leaders welcoming decisions or suggestions likely to enhance the achievement of organisation goals.

Instead of focusing on the relationship between the leader and the subordinates as a group, the LMX framework considers the relationship between the leader and each subordinate. Where the relationship between the leader and worker is low, contract becomes the basis for exchange. This makes such leadership to be viewed as transactional in nature. Where the relationship is strong, the basis for exchange goes beyond contractual obligations to include respect and trust and this is where OCB becomes prominent.

The Social Empowerment Theory helps to explain the relationship between leadership style and the perception of empowerment within the work environment. This finds expression in a study by Wallace and McIntyre (2021) which shows how leadership practices influence empowerment at the workplace. Okochi and Ateke (2020) identified a positive relationship between employee empowerment and employee output. Mussagulova (2021) identified autonomy and competence as the two most important predictors of work engagement. Empowered employees are motivated and have a sense of connection and belonging to the organisation and, therefore, the propensity to stay and work in the organisation increases (Murray & Holmes, 2021).

The above leadership theories emphasise the influence that personal relationships and empowerment might have on employees' work output. Where impersonal relations are rife, subordinates are more likely to work within their specified task requirements and are less likely to engage in voluntary activities (OCB). In addition, employee output increases when employees are empowered (Okochi & Ateke, 2020).

3.3.6 Emerging Approaches to Leadership

Emerging leadership approaches will be discussed in this section and include charismatic leadership, value-based leadership, strategic leadership, team leadership and cross-cultural leadership.

3.3.6.1 Value-based Leadership

In the research conducted by Mhatre and Riggio (2014), it has been revealed that a significant number of charismatic and transformational leaders lack a crucial moral, authentic, and ethical dimension. The prevalence of moral and ethical deficiencies among these leadership types

highlights the urgent need to restore hope, confidence, integrity, and honour in leaders within organisations and institutions. In response, theorists in leadership have contended that it is crucial for organisations to transcend the enticing allure of a charismatic, seemingly transformational leader, and confirm that leaders are also equipped with a strong array of values, morals, and ethics (Copeland, 2014).

Consequently, there has been a growing emphasis on the concept of Value Based Leadership (VBL). VBL is a leadership philosophy that prioritizes bringing value to the organisation, customers, suppliers, and shareholders, without focusing solely on personal gain. The primary objective of VBL is to create value for the organisation and fulfil its mission (Chang et al., 2021). Copeland (2014) describes VBL as leadership rooted in an underlying moral and ethical foundation. As such, the behaviours of VBL leaders are grounded in ethical and moral principles. Furthermore, Peregrym and Wolf (2013, p. 5) define VBL as “consistently leading based on personal values that are both desirable and beneficial for oneself, the communities we are a part of, and/or the organisations we serve”.

In the application of VBL in organisations, values are a core on which daily functioning of the organisation is grounded. This according to Johnson (2012) includes the application of the mission, vision, policies and procedures that are based on values identified as right and proper for the specific needs of the organisation. Thus, value-based leaders concentrate on core values and view them as directing principles that shape the behaviour and action of the members of the organisation (Van Niekerk & Botha, 2017). In addition, Begley (2010) emphasises that the core values are motivationally grounded and have a conscious as well as unconscious effect on people’s actions, attitudes, speech and behaviour. The values that conscious or unconscious affect and guide the individual and organisational behaviour can be classified into three variants namely, values for personal fulfilment of basic needs, values for collective fulfilment of basic needs and values for relational fulfilment of basic needs (Prilleltensky, 2000) as cited in Van Niekerk and Botha (2017). The fulfilment of basic needs was described as wellness.

Based on the above expressed views on values, VBL requires sound values to be put into action, taking due account of the leader’s personal values and those of others in the organisation as well

as their shared values (Van Niekerk & Botha, 2017). Thus, the leaders' personal values must be aligned with the values of the organisation, ensuring that shared values are adhered to (González García et al., 2020). The authors add that value-based leaders are being guided by a solid purpose that focuses on strong positive values that guide leaders' actions and behaviour as their leadership styles have a profound effect on others.

The principles of VBL that are important for leaders to put values into action have been classified by Kraemer (2011) into the following four categories:

- Self-reflection: Finding the bigger picture and engage in reflection to establish what and why it is valuable).
- Balance: Considering various aspects and views in a holistic way of matters that arise.
- True self-confidence: Knowing yourself, accepting yourself, acknowledging your competencies, being aware of what you do not know and striving for improvement.
- Genuine humility: Acknowledging your roots, where you came from, and how you have excelled to the position you are now.

Value Based leaders are seen as leaders that effectively engage, motivate, and develop their followers, establishing a culture that enables transformational sustainable change, resulting in effective execution, innovation, and outstanding performance (Taylor, 2010). However, Values-based leaders do not evolve by accident. One needs to intentionally put in efforts to become a value-based leader. It requires a simple process of being aware, aligning oneself and being accountable. Within these broad areas, the leader must exhibit the characteristic of having values and being authentic, relate with people, motivate, and engage them, achieving the mission, the performance and result, and finally seeing the vision and the preferred future. Figure 3.7 outlines the process of being a value-based leader as outlined by Mhatre and Riggio (2014).

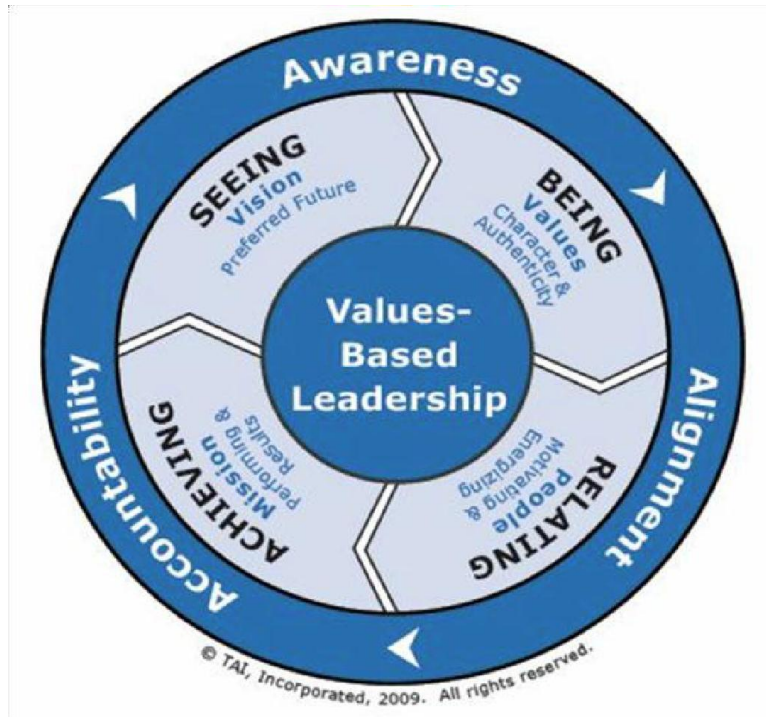


Figure 3.7: Value-based Leadership process

Source: Taylor (2010).

3.4.6.2 Strategic Leadership

Strategic leadership covers a spectrum of behaviours for those below the rank of senior management. This type of leadership might entail developing a vision for the unit or group being led, a vision that is consistent with the overall strategy of the firm. The concept of strategic leadership has been extended in recent years to include leaders from all levels. In more recent work, focus has been on the importance of strategic leaders' managing the resources under their direction, to include financial capital but, especially, human capital and valuable interpersonal relationships.

Identifying who exercises strategic leadership comes with controversy among scholars. While some believe that strategic leadership can be practiced by leaders at all levels, others are of the view that strategic leadership should be practiced by top management teams of organisations. For instance, Ireland and Hitt (2005) are of the view that leaders at all levels of the organisation should develop the ability to exercise strategic leadership. On the other hand, Cyert and March also

indicated that strategic leadership should be the responsibility of overall head of the organisation and members of the top management team of the organisation (cited in Owek et al., 2021).

Strategic leadership, as defined by various scholars, encompasses a multifaceted role within organisations. Rahman et al. (2018) describes it as the activation of agendas that not only establish a vision for change but also foster a sustained capacity for implementing change. Consequently, strategic leadership necessitates a collective and multi-level understanding of organisational change as a core competency. They further argue that strategic leadership creates a delicate equilibrium between the rigidity of Weberian-style bureaucracy and chaotic disorder, thus transforming organisations into complex adaptive systems. This perspective acknowledges the role of strategic leadership in providing stability while simultaneously managing unpredictable circumstances. In a more succinct interpretation, Samimi et al. (2022) defines strategic leadership as the ability to exert influence on others, encouraging them to make informed decisions that contribute to the long-term viability of the organisation. This definition underscores the importance of simultaneously safeguarding the organisation's short-term financial stability while fostering its long-term growth.

Based on the definitions of strategic leadership, Owek et al. (2021) views strategic leadership as a management science and that an organisation's long-term success depends on its ability to *exploit* its current capabilities while simultaneously *exploring* fundamentally new competencies. In his view, the dichotomy of exploitation and exploration with the strategic management discipline revolving around the organisation-environment paradox, results in a four-quadrant framework that conceptualizes strategic leadership.

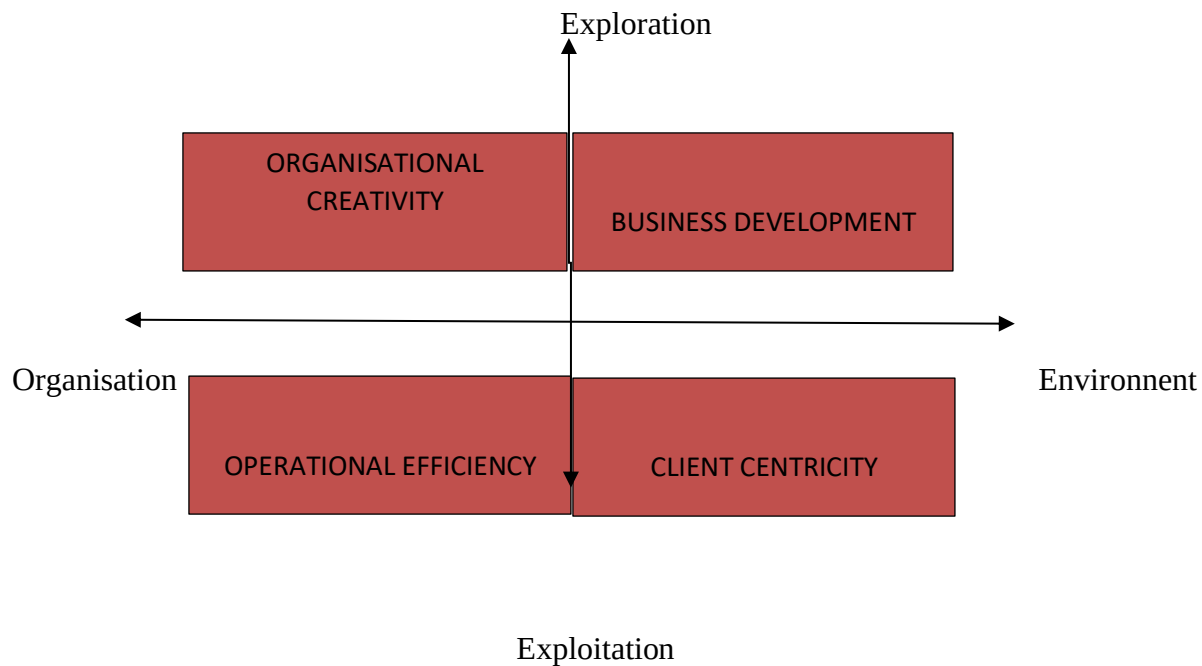


Figure 3.8: Strategic leadership framework

Source: Duursema (2013)

In organisations, strategic leadership functions must cover these four areas to create great prospects for the organisation. The quadrant framework is explained as follows:

- **Client centrality:** The focused on the environment that deals with the exploitation of current client accounts results in client centrality. Hence, it is a strategic leadership action to foster an organisational culture that positions the customer at the heart of the company's considerations when formulating strategy and operations.
- **Business development:** This is the result of the environment and exploration. It assumes that the high performance of an organisation is based on the gathering and interpretation of information about the unknown environment. This information gathering allows the organisation to carry out business development.
- **Organisational creativity:** A combination of organisation and exploration results in organisational creativity which has the potential to *create* markets and customers. It is not that the organisational creativity orientation completely ignores customers; it is just that firms following this course believe that existing (and potential) customers may not know what they need and want.

- Operational efficiency: This is the combination of organisation and exploitation. It is characterized by an emphasis on controlling costs and the standardisation of procedures. The operational efficiency perspective draws heavily on Economics. Due to scarcity of resources and time, organisations need to allocate resources efficiently and maximize the output received from those inputs.

3.3.6.3 Team Leadership

Team leadership is oriented around satisfaction of team needs. This is because the needs of teams are high performance as a collective. The aim of team leadership is fostering team effectiveness. As such in teams, whoever assumes responsibility for satisfying a team's needs can be viewed as taking on a team leadership role (Rahmani et al., 2018). In team leadership, the leader observes which functions within the team are not being performed segment of the group and enable this part to accomplish them. Thus, team leadership is fundamentally based on the satisfaction of critical team needs. Although considerable attention is often given to formal team leaders, the functional view of team leadership is also of importance as it is inclusive when it comes to who satisfies these team needs (Rahmani et al., 2018).

In the context of team leadership, the responsibility of fulfilling team needs, a key leadership function, can be undertaken by various team members depending on the situation. Team leadership is thus based on the satisfaction of the needs of the team to enhance team effectiveness. The team leadership model assists in this push for continuous improvement and helps determine weaknesses that might need an intervention on the part of a member of the team's shared leadership structure.

According to Abdolmaleki and Ghanbari (2021) structural dimensions of the locus of leadership and formality of leadership are the basis for the conceptualization of team leadership. In their argument, these dimensions interact to yield four distinctive dimensions of team leadership. The locus of leadership is either internal or external. An internal locus of leadership refers to the situation where the leader is a member of the team and engages in the team task cycle while an external locus of leadership refers to the situation where the leader is not a member of the team and does not engage in the team's day-to-day activities. Further, the formality of leadership also reflects whether the responsibility for team performance is formalized in the organisation (formal)

or whether there is no direct responsibility for a team's leadership and performance (informal). The interaction of the locus of leadership and formality of leadership results in four types of leaders under the team leadership concept. These four types of leaders are as follows:

- **Team leaders or project managers:** These leaders have an internal locus and are formal in their leadership role. They form part of the team and partake in team tasks.
- **Team sponsors, coaches, or advisors:** These types of team leaders have an external locus of leadership. Thus, they are not a member of the team and do not perform any of the team's day-to-day tasks. Leadership is based on formality.
- **Shared Emergent:** Tinay et al. (2024) argued that internal and informal leadership occurs when leadership responsibilities are shared informally among team members.
- **Team mentors, team champions, or executive coordinators:** This is the occurrence of external, informal leadership. According to Badura et al. 2022 this type of team leadership occurs when non-team members assist team members to fulfil their obligations within the team.

According to Abdolmaleki and Ghanbari (2021), the team leadership function involves two major tasks. The first of these tasks involves aligning the composition of the team with the task environment and ensuring that this alignment is preserved over time as the task environment changes. The second task is ensuring that the team not only has the requisite knowledge and skills for task performance, but also that the team is composed in such a way that team members form trusting and cooperative relationships. Within this broad task, the team leadership function has two phases namely the transition phase and the action phase. Within each of the broad team leadership phases, leaders perform different functions as indicated in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Team Leadership functions in the transition and action phases

Transition phase	Action phase
● Composing the team, ● Defining the mission, ● Establishing expectations and goals, ● Structuring and planning, ● Training and developing the team,	● Monitor team, ● Manage team boundaries, ● Challenge team, ● Perform team task, ● Solve problems,

● Sensemaking, and ● Providing feedback	● Provide resources, ● Encourage team self-management, and ● Support social climate

Source: Adapted from Abdolmaleki and Ghanbari, 2021

According to Maduka et al. (2018), there are several essential attributes that team leaders should possess. These attributes include self-awareness, humility, and selflessness. To be effective leaders, they must demonstrate the ability to perceive, comprehend, and accept the viewpoints of others, even to the extent of allowing their own ideas to be overridden by those of team members. This highlights the importance of fostering an environment where diverse perspectives are valued. Furthermore, the model emphasises the significance of communication skills in team leadership (Maduka et al., 2018). Leaders should strive to develop effective communication techniques that facilitate open and honest dialogue among all team members. This, in turn, helps to cultivate a sense of trust within the team, enabling constructive feedback and fostering an environment where team members feel comfortable expressing their thoughts and ideas.

In addition, team leaders should prioritize the establishment of trust among team members, as it is a vital component for creating an environment of collaborative and growth (Maduka et al., 2018). By fostering trust, leaders enable the team to be resilient and adaptable in the face of challenges. They should also provide honest and constructive feedback, ensuring that team members receive valuable guidance and support to enhance their performance. Ultimately, team leaders should go beyond simply giving directives and orders. By embodying the attributes and qualities, they can create a dynamic and inclusive team environment that encourages active participation, collaboration, and innovation.

3.3.6.4 Cross-cultural Leadership

In their 2018 study, Miao et al. highlighted the inherent difficulties and potential misunderstandings that arise when individuals from different cultures interact. It is crucial, therefore, to gain a comprehensive understanding of cultural differences and embrace them with acceptance and respect, particularly in organisations with an international focus. Effective

leadership in cross-cultural teams necessitates expanding one's cognitive horizons beyond national boundaries. This is because diverse cultures, influenced by distinct societal contexts, have developed unique patterns of thought and behaviour. Consequently, leaders must possess cross-cultural competencies, which involve successfully bridging differences in identifying, labelling, prioritizing, and implementing various cultural values (Miao et al., 2018). Song and Yap (2014) also defined cross-cultural leadership competence as the ability to operate effectively within a multinational work environment.

In organisations, cultural issues arise at various levels. It can be through rituals, behaviours, ideas and attitudes. Such cultural issues are not only influenced by national culture, but can also occur through cultural differences between industries, organisations, functions and professions (Song & Yap, 2014). Cross-cultural leadership is not about neutralizing or containing cultural differences, but to build on these cultural differences to gain a competitive advantage (Song & Yap, 2014). For cross-cultural leaders to be able to build on the cultural differences of a group, leaders should possess the following competencies:

- Understand interdependencies.
- Respond to different cultures simultaneously.
- Recognize cultural differences at home.
- Be willing to share power.
- Demonstrate cognitive complexity.
- Adopt a “cultural-general” approach.
- Rapidly learn and unlearn.

3.4 OTHER APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

Quite a few new approaches to leadership have emerged during the past few years. This section looks at some of these approaches.

3.4.1 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership refers to a style of leadership where the leaders actively identify and support their followers in achieving their desired outcomes and reaching a performance level that enables them to obtain rewarding benefits (Jensen et al., 2019). In essence, this leadership

approach revolves around an exchange process that emphasises reciprocity. When assisting individuals in accomplishing their work-related objectives, transactional leaders take into consideration their self-concept and esteem needs. According to Nurlina (2022), transactional leaders employ rewards as a means of motivating employees to perform well and achieve the goals of the organisation. While this approach may yield short-term success in goal attainment, it can hinder employees' personal growth and potentially lead to a loss of competitive advantage.

According to Yahaya et al. (2023), in transactional leadership, the leader-follower exchange comprises of four dimensions:

- Contingent rewards - These can be in different forms which only can be attained if leaders and followers conform to the achievement of a common goal.
- Active management by exception – Leaders need to be aware of divergences from usual norms and regulations and the necessary steps need to be taken to remedy the situation.
- Passive management by exception – This occurs when a leader only reacts when certain standards are not maintained in the organisation.
- Laissez faire – This refers to leaders abandoning their duties and not engaging in decision making.

Transactional leadership is a common practice in business. For example, members are rewarded when they are successful and reprimanded when they are unsuccessful in accomplishing tasks. Rules and standards are important elements of transactional leadership and followers are discouraged from discovering new and innovative strategies in solving problems. This type of leadership style is only successful when dealing with simple problems and stifles the growth of both leaders and followers (Arenas, 2019).

With regards to the transactional leadership, leaders' best function in calm and stable periods of an organisation where there are clearly defined and commonly agreed-on standards and rules. In the view of Jacobsen et al. (2022), the transactional form of leadership is based on individuals agreeing to work at a level performance for a reward. In this case, the leader intervenes only if something goes wrong or standards are not met. Bass et al. (2003), as cited in Jacobsen et al. (2022), also add that transactional leadership acts under the principle of awarding and involves a

mutual exchange between leader and followers. He, therefore, categorized transactional leadership as:

1. **Conditional award:** Leader informs the followers clearly about the expectations of organisation and about the fact that they will be awarded if they satisfy these expectations.
2. **Management by exceptions:** It is divided into two categories as active and passive:
 - a. *Active management by exceptions:* Leader observes his/her employees and their performance. In the event of a divergence from standards and rules, the leader intervenes in and remedies the mistake.
 - b. *Passive management by exceptions:* Leader does not intervene in the system until the problems become serious. When the disruptions experienced become serious, it attracts everyone's attention and hence the leader acts and intervenes in the situation.
3. **Leadership recognising full freedom:** The leader does not act, and he is indecisive and reluctant. He/she avoids undertaking responsibility, leaves his/her employees and system alone and he is absent from the system and management when he is needed.

3.4.2 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was coined by Downton in 1973, and the term was made popular by Burns in 1978 with his concept of transforming leadership. Burns (1978) in spurring up transformational leadership, defined a transformational leader as the leader that engages with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality (Reza, 2019). Burns developed the transformational leadership theory, and it was later enhanced by scholars such as Bennis and Nanus (1985), Bass (1985, 1998), Tichy and Devanna (1986), Avolio and Bass (1988), Bass and Avolio (1994). Burns (1978) indicated that transformational leaders encourage followers to achieve more by keeping a focus on the follower's values and helping the follower align their values with the values of the organisation.

Earlier scholars have also expressed different views on transformational leadership. For instance, Tichy and Devanna (1986) indicated in the early 1990s that the power of transformational leadership is the visualization of the organisation in the future, and the ability to articulate, develop, elaborate, and share that vision. Also, Rolls (1995) mentioned that transformational leaders build

awareness and acceptance of goals and mission, motivate support among organisational members for organisational goals, and can influence others because they create organisational meaning (as cited in Reza, 2019). In addition, Bass (1985) also claimed that transformational leadership can move followers to exceed performance. Bass (1985) added that transformational leadership has four characteristics namely, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. In 1990, Bass stated that transformational leadership is characterized by different patterns of behaviour. The patterns of behaviour include:

Idealised influence also known as charisma: transformational leadership employs the charisma of leaders to gain the respect and trust of stakeholders and to instil pride in the latter. In addition, charisma underlines the provision of a common vision and sense of mission necessary for the transformation.

Inspirational motivation: The character of inspiration through which leaders employ symbols to redirect followers' efforts; they express in a simplistic manner the fundamental purpose of the transformation process, and clearly communicate the accompanying higher expectations.

Intellectual stimulation: transformational leaders intellectually stimulate employees by emphasizing rationality and creativity in problem-solving situations.

Individualised consideration: Transformational leadership offers individualized consideration. Leaders treat employees individually offering them personal attention and, whenever necessary, they provide coaching and advice to those employees.

Transformational leadership describes a leader's ability to motivate the follower to accomplish more than what the follower planned to accomplish (Arnold et al., 2016). Transformational leadership has five leadership strategies deemed significant in building effective leadership behaviour (Deng et al. 2023). The five strategies include:

1. **Challenging the process:** Leaders search for opportunities to improve the status quo of the organisation through innovative strategies. In doing so, leaders are always experimenting and taking risks. Academic leaders know that risk taking involves mistakes and failures and accept the inevitable disappointments as learning opportunities.
2. **Inspiring a shared vision:** Academic leaders passionately believe that they can make a difference. They envision the future in which they create an ideal and unique image of what

the organisation can become. Through their magnetism and quiet persuasion, leaders enlist others in their dreams. They breathe life into their visions and get people to see exciting possibilities for the future.

3. **Enabling others to act:** Academic leaders foster collaborative and build spirited teams and become actively involved with others. They also understand that mutual respect can sustain extraordinary efforts; they strive to create an atmosphere of trust and human dignity. In another situation, organisational leaders also try to strengthen followers by making each person feel capable and powerful.
4. **Modelling the way:** Academic leaders can establish principles concerning the way people should be treated and the way goals should be pursued. Leaders also create standards of excellence and then set an example for others to follow.
5. **Encouraging the heart:** Academic leaders accomplish extraordinary things in organisations through hard work. To keep motivation alive, academic leaders recognise the contributions that individuals make. In every winning team, the members and leaders need to share in the rewards of their efforts, so leaders can celebrate accomplishments.

Skilled communication is the focal tool used by transformational leaders to promote self-confidence within their teams and stir trust. This leadership skill can result in a relationship of mutual stimulation and support junior staff to develop effective leadership skills (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership is based on the principles of shared accountability, responsibility and power. Transformational leadership involves transformation and empowers employees to help leaders and managers achieve organisational goals (Magasi, 2021).

Similarly, Duan et al. (2022) argue that transformational leadership is focused on the individual and groups. As regards to the individual, the aim is to empower individuals to develop their full potential, enhance their abilities and skills, and improve their self-efficacy and self-esteem. The influence of the leaders is strengthened by their interest in the followers as individuals. Transformational leaders strive to understand employees' abilities, skills, and needs, and offer them coaching and mentoring to overcome any weaknesses. As regards to groups, transformational leadership develops common values and beliefs and inspires unity to reach group goals. In this situation, leaders behave equally toward all members of the organisation, and employees have a common perception about the leader's behaviour.

Transformational leadership is fundamentally seen as a risky venture, but it is most effective and work best in more chaotic environments. This is because many transformational leaders are oriented towards the future, not the past, and strive to determine and implement the desired future direction of an organisation (Simsek, 2013). Transformational leaders are characterized by self-determination and self-confidence. Leaders are successful at influencing followers because followers have trust, admiration, loyalty and respect for the transformational leader; and because of these qualities, followers are willing to work harder for the achievement of objectives (Geib & Swenson, 2013). Transformational leaders motivate the members of the organisation to transcend their self-interests to achieve collective objectives. The leader thus can be said to be “a model of integrity and fairness, setting clear goals, having high expectations, encouraging people and providing support and recognition, stirring the emotions and passions of people, and getting people to look beyond their own self-interests and reach for higher goals” (Warrick, 2011, p. 12).

The advantages of transformational leadership are seen in its ability to promote capacity development and high levels of motivation among employees towards the achievement of organisational goals (Borkowski et al., 2011). According to Bass (2003) transformational leadership is sub-classified into four leader traits namely:

1. **Idealised influence-charisma:** A leader is a person admired, trusted, and respected.
2. **Inspirational motivation:** A leader motivates and encourages the followers in line with the organisational goals and objectives.
3. **Intellectual stimulation:** A leader encourages his/her followers to have a new/different perspective towards experienced incidents, situations, and problems.
4. **Individualised consideration:** A leader takes care of his/her employees' personal differences and needs, pays required importance to them and detects their different possibilities and capabilities and sets for them the objectives that they can achieve.

Transformational leaders can articulate the organisation's common purpose in a way that emphasises the social dimension of the process: the impact of one individual's actions on the greater group beyond the firm. The vision thus clearly accentuates the meaningfulness of the consequences of each action for the organisation and its stakeholders (Geib & Swenson, 2013).

In so doing, the transformational leader encourages others to adopt the transformation process as their own and thus allows for the attainment of the targeted transformation. To summarise, the success of transformational leaders is defined by their ability to offer others something that goes beyond self-interest. They provide others with an inspiring mission and vision and give them an identity (Geib & Swenson, 2013).

3.5 LEADERSHIP STYLES

Leaders have their own style of leading employees towards the achievement of organisational goals. According to Khan, Nawaz and Khan (2016) many researchers have proposed three types of styles that leaders adopt namely, autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles. All leaders can fit into any of these styles. Different styles are needed for different situations and effective leaders should have the ability to exhibit a particular leadership style based on a particular situation (Khan et al., 2015). Other styles of leadership have also been identified such as the servant leadership style, charismatic leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, delegative leadership style, bureaucratic leadership and authentic leadership style (Khan, et al., 2015).

3.5.1 Participative/Democratic Leadership Style

The participative leadership style is centred around fostering employee engagement and involvement in the decision-making process. It involves a democratic manager who keeps their employees well-informed about matters that affect their work and actively includes them in problem-solving and decision-making (Khan et al., 2015; Iqbal et al., 2015). In this leadership style, the leader acts as a coach, ultimately making the final decisions but relying on information and inputs gathered from their followers. A key characteristic of the democratic approach is that leaders assist employees to develop plans to evaluate their own performance, enable them to set goals, promote their growth and advancement, and acknowledge and celebrate their achievements (Khan et al., 2015)

Over an extended period, democratic leaders have been linked to high-quality work and productivity. This can be attributed to the trust-based relationship established with employees or followers, which encourages cooperation, team spirit, and a positive morale. However, it is

important to note that the democratic leadership style may not always be suitable, and its effectiveness depends on the specific situation at hand.

3.5.2 Autocratic Leadership Style

The autocratic leadership style represents a traditional approach to leading others, where the leader wields complete power and decision-making authority. In this style, the leader makes decisions without seeking input or consultation from their followers. They expect strict obedience and compliance, without providing any explanation or justification for their choices (Iqbal et al., 2015).. The motivational environment created by autocratic leaders revolves around a structured system of rewards and punishments (Khan et al., 2015). However, this style of leadership has received criticism for its negative effects on employee turnover and absenteeism rates. Despite these drawbacks, there are instances where autocratic actions may be necessary to ensure task completion. Nevertheless, the disadvantages of this leadership style tend to overshadow the advantages. It is commonly perceived as controlling, bossy, and dictatorial.

3.5.3 Laissez – Fair Leadership Style

According to various researchers such as Norris et al., (2021) the laissez-faire style of leadership is characterized by a leader who willingly gives up responsibilities and avoids making decisions. In this approach, the leader delegates these crucial tasks to the followers, showing little involvement in the work of the unit or group they are leading. Essentially, leaders with this style provide the group with complete freedom in their work, ensure necessary resources are available, only participate when asked questions, and refrain from providing feedback. Laissez-faire leadership minimally interferes with the decision-making process. This leadership style proves to be highly effective when both the leader and subordinates possess expertise in their respective fields and are self-motivated specialists.

3.5.4 Bureaucratic Leadership Style

Max Weber (1921) is credited with the bureaucratic leadership style. Bureaucratic leadership is where the manager manages “by the book”. Everything must be done according to procedures or policy, and employees are often frustrated by the “red tape” they have to deal with before being able to complete a task. If decisions or actions are not covered by the book, the manager refers the

issue to the next level for decision making. This inevitably delays matters and frustrates employees. This manager is more of a police officer than a leader due to having to enforce rules. This style can be effective under the following circumstances:

- Employees are performing routine tasks over and over,
- Employees need to understand certain standards or procedures,
- Employees are working with dangerous or delicate equipment that requires a definite set of procedures to operate,
- Safety or security training is being conducted.
- Employees are performing tasks that require handling cash.

Bureaucracy is ineffective when work habits are hard to break, employees have lost their interest in their jobs and in their fellow workers, and employees are no longer motivated to do more than what is outlined in their job descriptions (Khan, et al., 2015).

3.5.5 Authentic Leadership Style

An authentic leader has been defined by many researchers. For instance, Covelli and Mason (2017) described characteristics of authentic leaders as self-regulation, knowing one's position, positive psychological capital, and internalized moral perspective. Further, Haraida and Blass (2020) introduced further characteristics of authentic leaders. He mentioned that authentic leaders are:

1. True to themselves (they do not fake their leadership role),
2. Motivated and driven by personal principles, rather to obtain personal benefits like status and honours,
3. They are originals, not copies' – they lead themselves from their own personal point of view, following what they think is best for all, and
4. Their personal convictions, values and beliefs are guiding their actions.

Based on some characteristics of authentic leaders, Harter (2002, p. 382) defined authentic leaders as “owning one's personal experiences, be they thoughts, emotions, needs, wants, preferences, or beliefs, processes captured by the injunction to ‘know oneself’” and “further implies that one acts in accordance with the true self, expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings”.

In terms of authentic leadership, the focus moves towards the leader's relationships with others. In the view of Avolio, Luthans and Walumbwa (2004, p. 4), authentic leadership is expressed by those people “who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others’ values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character”. The definition indicates that authentic leaders must have a strong sense of interpersonal leadership abilities that will most probably have an influence on the way the leader interacts with their followers. Gardner et al. (2005) stated that authentic leadership is characterized by “heightened levels of followers’ self-awareness and self-regulation leading to positive follower development and outcomes” and that authentic leaders have a significant role to play in the development of authenticity in followers. Authentic leadership involves, depends on and is driven by relationships. Gardner et al. (2005) identified and described four components of authentic leadership. These are:

Self-awareness: This has been defined as “*a process where one continually comes to understand his or her unique talents, strengths, sense of purpose, core values, beliefs and desires*” (Gardner et al., 2005, p. 349). In this regard, it is observed that values, cognisance of personal identity, motives, and emotions are some of the integral elements of self-awareness. Self-regulation also forms part of self-awareness as it is defined as a process in which authentic leaders “*align their values with their intentions and actions*” (Avolio & Gardener, 2005, p. 325).

Balanced processing, according to Gardner et al. (2005, p. 350), is the “*review of self-esteem and non-self-esteem relevant information from a fairly objective view that incorporates both positive and negative attributes and qualities*”. They say that authentic leaders can act in more accurate and balanced self-awareness without being distracted by self-protective motives.

Authentic behaviour is the process of acting in accordance with the leader's own values, beliefs and needs rather than to please others. Further, these leaders are expected to make sound, ethical decisions and act with integrity so that their actions are aligned and consistent with their core values (Lagunea et al., 2019).

Relational transparency is the way in which a leader presents his/her “*genuine self through openness and appropriate self-disclosure of values, emotions, and motives/goals*” (Wong & Cummings, 2009, p. 525). When leaders are transparent in sharing information, it will also enhance followers’ trust in leaders. Authentic leaders strive to achieve transparency in their relationships as it creates higher trust, increases hope and optimism, enhances follower optimism, and facilitates overall performance of followers (Kempster et al., 2019).

3.5.6 Servant Leadership Style

Servant leadership is a leadership approach characterized by its strong emphasis on altruism and ethics. It requires leaders to be attentive to the needs of their followers and to empathize with them. The essence of servant leadership lies in the leaders' commitment to taking care of their followers, ensuring their well-being, personal growth, autonomy, and wisdom. This, in turn, enables followers to become servant leaders themselves (Northouse, 2019).

The concept of servant leadership finds its roots in the Bible, specifically in the paraphrased verse Mark 10:43-45, which suggests that true leadership involves being a servant to all. It highlights the idea that leaders should not seek to be served, but rather, should embrace a mindset of service and dedicate themselves to serving both their followers and the organisation. According to Kim (2016), servant leadership begins with an innate desire to serve others, and it is a conscious choice to aspire to lead. The philosophy of servant leadership has a profound impact on individuals, organisations, and society. It enriches the lives of individuals by fostering personal growth and well-being. It also contributes to the development of better organisations, where leaders prioritize the needs of their followers and create a culture of care and support. Ultimately, the practice of servant leadership aims to create a more just and compassionate world (Kim, 2016).

3.5.7 Charismatic Leadership Style

Max Weber introduced the concept of charismatic leadership when he categorized authority into three types: traditional, rational, and charismatic. Charismatic leadership, according to Weber, involves a person who stands out from the ordinary and is perceived as possessing supernatural, superhuman, or exceptional qualities. They may be regarded as divinely inspired or exemplary,

which leads others to treat them as a leader (Khaliq et al., 2021). Building upon Weber's ideas, Conger and Kanungo identified four key characteristics of charismatic leadership: having and expressing a vision, being willing to take risks to achieve that vision, displaying sensitivity to followers' needs, and demonstrating novel behaviour (Khaliq et al., 2021).

Charismatic leadership, when exhibited positively, is characterized by altruism, empowering influence, a focus on changing followers' core attitudes, beliefs, and values, and self-developmental needs. However, in its negative form, charismatic leadership can be egoistic, relying on control strategies and driven by a personal need for power, while emphasizing compliance and identification with the leader (Takala, 2007). Furthermore, charismatic leaders are often idealized by their followers due to their ability to inspire, motivate, respect, and understand their needs. They demonstrate emotions, commitment to achieving the vision, the courage to challenge the status quo, and the implementation of ethical standards and social responsibility (Nikoloski, 2015). Based on this, it can be concluded that the charisma exhibited by charismatic leaders enables them to inspire, motivate, and support followers or employees in achieving exceptional outcomes, regardless of personal goals, problems, or operational difficulties (Nikoloski, 2015).

As for the attributes of charismatic leaders, they possess the ability to create an environment conducive to change and articulate an idealized vision of a better future. They effectively communicate complex ideas and goals in a clear and compelling manner, employing unconventional methods to transcend the status quo and bring about transformation. Although charismatic leadership is often associated with a formal position of authority, it surpasses organisational hierarchies because the leader's influence is derived from their personal qualities rather than the power and authority bestowed upon them by the organisation (Nikoloski, 2015).

3.5.8 Transactional Leadership Style

Transactional leadership, as defined by Max Weber and discussed by Folakemi, Anthonia, and Dayo (2016), is characterized by leaders who establish their authority through adherence to normative rules, strict discipline, and systematic control. This leadership style operates on the principle of "give and take", where exchanges form a central part of the relationship between the

leader and followers within a group or organisation. These exchanges often involve the promise of rewards in return for specific actions or achievements, such as monetary incentives for meeting predetermined objectives (Burns, 2010). The provision of monetary rewards and recognition by transactional leaders serves to foster knowledge sharing within the organisation.

Leaders employing the transactional style strive for excellence by emphasizing and clarifying goals, assigning tasks, evaluating performance, and establishing organisational rewards and consequences for both successes and shortcomings (Jansen, Vera, & Crossan, 2009; Folakemi, Anthonia & Dayo, 2016). In doing so, transactional leaders supersede the personal interests of their subordinates. The reward system implemented by transactional leaders serves as a motivating factor for followers and employees to actively engage in knowledge sharing. Consequently, the transactional leadership style functions as a system that encourages and facilitates the dissemination of knowledge (Hussain, Abbas, Lei, Haider & Akram, 2017). Transactional leaders provide guidance to their followers while keeping their focus limited to the assigned tasks at hand.

3.5.9 Transformational Leadership Style

Kirkan (2011) has expressed that transformational leadership style seeks to change current situation of a group or organisation by identifying followers and employees who follow organisation or group's problem through inspiration, persuasion, and excitement to achieve high level of clear vision for the purpose of recognizing common goal. In an earlier discussion by Campbell (2018), transformational leadership style is viewed as leadership that is beyond incentives for performance, to develop and encourage workers intellectually and creatively as well as to transform their own concerns into an essential part of the organisation's mission.

Transformational leadership style has the potential to inspire subordinates to do their best, develop their skills so as to deliver subordinates to advance intellectual levels. The leader employing this style of leadership can urge followers to achieve more than what is expected. Ghadi et al. (2013) has classified transformational leadership style into four sub-dimensions namely:

- Idealized influence: refers to leaders' ability to increase level of loyalty, dedication, and identification without focusing on the self-interest.

- Inspirational motivation: refers to leaders' ability to create a vision that impact subordinates to make them play a vital role within the organisation.
- Intellectual stimulation: refers to the ability of leaders to give employees indications to be innovative and being a risk taker.
- Empowerment: leaders here coordinate with subordinates or act as a top-down motivator for authority. This is accomplished by giving subordinates the authority to make decisions and deliver them.

3.5.10 Principle-Centred Leadership Style

Principle-centred leadership, as conceptualized by Covey (1991), emphasises the alignment of leadership behaviours and decisions with timeless and universal principles such as integrity, fairness, and respect. Unlike transactional or situational leadership styles, principle-centred leadership focuses on a values-driven approach, fostering trust and long-term organisational success. This leadership style encourages leaders to operate with authenticity and align their actions with their core principles, creating a culture of accountability and mutual respect. More recent research builds upon Covey's foundational work, exploring how principle-centred leadership aligns with modern organizational challenges and values such as diversity, inclusion, and sustainability. Tavanti (2023) discusses how values and principles are essential for sustainability leadership, providing a framework for decision-making, promoting responsible behaviour, fostering innovation, and building trust and credibility.

Principle-centred leaders exhibit qualities such as empathy, ethical decision-making, and a commitment to empowering others. According to Covey (2018), principle-centred leadership involves upholding core values, fostering trust, and empowering team members to achieve their full potential. One of the key benefits of this leadership style is its ability to drive sustainable organisational performance by focusing on long-term goals rather than short-term gains. Research by Mukherjee and Banerjee (2021) highlights that organisations led by principle-centred leaders tend to experience higher employee engagement, increased innovation, and improved job satisfaction. This approach also supports adaptive leadership practices, enabling leaders to navigate complex challenges without compromising ethical standards.

In practice, principle-centred leadership requires the consistent application of core principles in decision-making, even under pressure. Leaders who adopt this style often implement policies and strategies that reflect their commitment to fairness, transparency, and shared vision. A study by Alkahtani et al. (2020) demonstrated that principle-centred leadership significantly enhances team cohesion and collective responsibility in both corporate and non-profit settings. Moreover, this leadership approach has been shown to promote a growth mindset within organisations, where individuals are encouraged to learn, develop, and contribute meaningfully to organisational success (Hieu et al., 2021).

Despite its advantages, principle-centred leadership is not without challenges. One significant hurdle is the tension between maintaining principles and meeting organizational demands, especially in competitive and resource-constrained environments. According to Covey (2018), principle-centred leaders often face difficulties balancing ethical standards with the pressures of achieving short-term business goals, which can lead to conflicts and compromises. Additionally, leaders may face resistance when trying to embed a values-driven culture within an organisation that previously prioritized hierarchical or profit-centric models. However, emerging literature suggests that technological advancements and globalization have created new opportunities for principle-centred leaders to influence broader systemic change. Future studies could explore the integration of principle-centred leadership with digital transformation and its role in addressing global challenges such as climate change and social inequality (Tavanti, 2023).

3.6 LEADERSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATION

In 2002, the Centre for Leadership Studies, Inc. conducted a comprehensive study on leadership styles adopted by university leaders. The findings revealed that leaders who embraced the selling leadership style were able to cultivate followers who possessed confidence and a strong sense of responsibility. The study also discovered that deans and chairs of departments exhibited average scores in terms of their adaptability to different leadership styles. Moreover, the study highlighted the significant influence of gender on the leadership styles of chairs of departments. Male chairs tended to employ telling and delegating leadership styles more frequently than their female

counterparts, whereas female chairs demonstrated a greater tendency to utilize a participative management style.

Another study conducted by Al-Omari in 2005 focused on leadership styles among university deans and chairs. The results indicated that, in most cases, deans and chairs of departments primarily adopted the selling style (characterized by high task and high relationship behaviour), with participating being their secondary style. This suggests that the selling leadership style effectively gained acceptance from faculty and staff, as it encompassed behaviours that were highly desired and necessary by the staff members. These findings align with the perspective expressed by Lawal and Chukwuebuka in 2007, emphasizing the importance of leadership recognizing the needs of workers, implementing appropriate motivational tools such as merit-based promotions, fostering suitable working environments, and employing a leadership style that encourages open communication between management, supervisors, and staff members.

However, a study conducted by Chibani and Chibani in 2013 revealed a different conclusion regarding school principals in Lebanon. Their research suggested that school principals lacked creativity, based on an examination of their leadership styles. Joo et al. (2014) conducted an extensive examination of the leadership exhibited by deans in a private university located in Malaysia. They employed the Leadership Orientation Survey (LOS), a comprehensive measuring instrument, to assess leadership effectiveness. The LOS encompassed two perspectives: self-assessment by the leader (LOS-self) and assessment by subordinates (LOS-other). The study's findings highlighted a discrepancy in leadership orientation between self-assessment and assessment by others. Furthermore, the research emphasised the necessity for deans to undergo leadership training to meet the evolving demands of the industry.

Sart (2014) delved into the influence of emerging leadership styles on innovation and entrepreneurship within university settings. The results corroborated the notion that emerging leadership styles are more suitable for effectively managing today's workforce. These styles foster positive change among individuals both within and beyond the university, extending to the institutional level. The adoption of leadership styles such as "participatory democracy", "participatory leadership", and "democratic leadership" was shown to enhance innovation and

entrepreneurship within universities. Similarly, Quinlani (2014) asserted that transformational leadership significantly impacts higher education, particularly in terms of learning and teaching. The essence of transformational leadership aligns closely with the concept of comprehensive collaborative between industry and universities.

Dalati (2016) conducted a study on the impact of servant leadership on leadership sustainability in Syrian universities. The research categorized leadership behaviour into three dimensions: servant leadership, visionary leadership, and team-oriented leadership. The study concluded that ethical, servant, and transformational leadership behaviours are crucial elements within the realm of leadership in higher education. The significant factors identified in fostering mentor-student relationships and enhancing relationships between deans, vice principals, and staff were honesty, integrity, humility, service, self-awareness, self-actualization, and role model building.

Niewiesk and Garrity-Rokous (2020) developed an academic leadership framework but focused on academic administrative competencies. A general framework to address competencies of academic leaders in the areas of tuition and research, however, does not address the competencies required to perform administrative work. Administrators underestimate the value of structure and processes to support the success of academic leaders. Expertise in academic fields does not equal effective administrative skills. According to Niewiesk and Garrity-Roukous (2020) administrative competencies involve organisational and people-related tasks. They identified the following six domains of competence: (1) Ethical values and behaviour, (2) People recruitment/development, (3) Knowledge of and use of decision-making tools and models, (4) Setting goals via strategic planning and action plans, (5) sound organisation to support organisational processes, (6) performing oversight to align expectations with performance.

Ruben, De Lisi and Gigliotti (2017) developed a leadership competency framework consisting of five competencies, which allows for the assessment of both knowledge and behaviour. Table 3.7 provides a summary of the competencies identified.

Table 3.7: Leadership competency framework

ANALYTIC	PERSONAL	COMMUNICATION	POSITIONAL	ORGANISATIONAL
Self-assessment	Character, personal values/ethics	Credibility / charisma	Education	Visionary
Problem identification	Cognitive ability / creativity	Influence / persuasion	Experience	Management
Stakeholder analysis	Enthusiasm	Interpersonal / group orientation	Expertise	Information management
Organisational analysis	High standards	Attentive listening	Knowledge of sector	Technological capability
Technology analysis	Personal conviction / persistence	Public speaking / presentation / debate	Knowledge of organisation	Empowerment / supportiveness
Problem solving	Self-discipline / confidence	Diversity / intercultural orientation	Task competence	Teaching / coaching
Review/analyse results	Tolerance for uncertainty / risk	Role model	Language skills	Facilitation / Negotiation

Source: Adapted from Ruben et al. (2017)

Previous studies on leadership and university leaders have predominantly focused on the leadership styles exhibited by university deans and department chairs, along with their influence on followers. However, many of these studies have overlooked the analysis of the relationship between empowerment, as a component of leadership style, and OCB. Therefore, this study aims to address this gap by investigating the extent to which university leaders empower employees and promote employees' OCB.

3.7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Various studies on leadership have found a positive correlation between leadership and OCB. For instance, studies done by Leithwood and Slegers (2006) and Purvanova et al. (2006) confirmed that transformational leadership was positively related to altruism and compliance factors of OCB. Similarly, authentic leadership behaviours facilitate a fair and open work environment, and it has

a direct effect on employees' attitude as regards to level of satisfaction, trust, commitment, and readiness to perform extra-role behaviour (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). The positive relationship between authentic leadership and OCB is as result of employees' personal identification with the authentic leader. Walumbwa et al. (2010) also studied authentic leadership and OCB, and the results showed that authentic leadership behaviours were positively linked to employees' OCB, and that the relationship was mediated by the level of the employees' identification with their supervisor and their feelings of empowerment. Thus, employees see the authentic leader as a role model (Ilies et al., 2005). The trust and commitment in the authentic leaders, in turn, have positive consequences on OCB (Wong & Cummings, 2009). Wong and Cummings emphasised that the relational transparency component of authentic leadership was positively related to OCB.

Lei (2010) studied authentic leadership and OCB and came up with 3 conclusions namely:

- Authentic leadership consists of four dimensions namely, subordinate oriented, internalized moral perspective, leadership qualities and honesty.
- Authentic leadership has a meaningful effect on OCB.
- The quality of the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) relationship mediates the relationship between authentic leadership and OCB.

According to Alzoraiki et al. (2024), heads of departments and academic administrators are considered transformational leaders who create positive academic environments and foster collective growth among academics. Several studies support a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment among academics (Keskes et al., 2018; Gillet & Vandenberghe, 2014; Anselmann, & Mulder, 2020). These studies highlight the role of transformational leaders in fostering growth and positive attitudes within academic settings.

Suliman and Obaidli (2013) conducted a study on leadership and OCB in the financial service sector and the results showed that both transformational and transactional leadership styles were significantly related to altruism and other OCB factors. They further observed that both relationships were positive, but the relationship between OCB and transformational leadership was less significant than the relationship between OCB and transactional leadership. This implies that

transactional leadership influences employees' preparedness to engage in OCB more than transformational leadership.

Shapira-Lishchinsky and Tsemach (2014). (2014) explored the mediating role of empowerment on authentic leadership, organisational citizenship behaviours, and a variety of retreat behaviours among teachers in Israeli schools, using the psychological model of perceptions-attitudes-behaviours. The study concluded that empowerment mediate the relationship between authentic leadership and OCB. Thus, in the presence of an authentic leader, the followers or the employees must be empowered in dimensions for increased occurrence of OCB in the organisation or group. The presence of an authentic leader does not automatically improve OCB. However, as it is in the characteristic of authentic leaders, they empower employees or followers and through the empowerment, followers and employees engage in OCB willingly and in most cases unconsciously.

Avci (2016) identified various characteristics of leaders such as setting objectives, being innovative and entrepreneurial, working efficiently, having a working culture, establishing effective communication, paying attention to the importance of individuals, motivating staff, encouraging teamwork, and solving problems as essential for the successful shaping of organisations and OCB. The studies largely focused on specific leadership styles and its relationship with OCB. The studies examined two leadership styles, authentic leadership and transformational leadership and how these leadership styles influence employees or followers' willingness to engage in OCB. Many of these studies had little or no focus on university leadership and how leadership influenced employees to engage in OCB. This study intends to fill the gap in literature by accessing how university leadership influence university employees' preparedness to engage in OCB.

3.8 LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES RELATED TO EMPOWERMENT AND OCB

This section deals with the various leadership competencies that are related to employee empowerment and OCB.

3.8.1 General leadership competencies

Effective leadership within the context of public universities is multifaceted, requiring a diverse range of core competencies to navigate the complexities of the higher education environment. Among these competencies, resilience stands out as a crucial trait, allowing leaders to adapt and thrive amidst unpredictable challenges and rapid changes characteristic of the industry (Shaya et al., 2023). Alongside resilience, effective academic leadership necessitates skills in knowledge management, engagement with diverse stakeholders, training methodologies, change management strategies, and adept communication abilities. These competencies collectively enable leaders to steer their institutions towards growth, innovation, and sustained success.

Moreover, the concept of leadership in public universities extends beyond traditional managerial roles to encompass values such as personal conscience and self-determination. Rodríguez-Feria et al. (2021) emphasises the importance of ethical leadership that not only generates well-conducted research but also ensures the practical utilization of research findings for the benefit of the academic community and society at large. This ethical dimension adds depth to leadership competencies, highlighting the need for leaders who not only excel in organisational management but also prioritize ethical decision-making and social responsibility.

Academic leaders in public universities must also focus on developing individual leadership capabilities and fostering collaborative environments. Ruben et al. (2022) underscores the significance of leaders who can effectively connect with others to drive collective efforts towards common goals within higher education institutions. Furthermore, Kefyalew and Ritu (2019) and Carel et al. (2022) advocate for leaders to possess competencies across intellectual, managerial, and emotional dimensions. These competencies are essential for enhancing academic staff performance, fostering a positive organisational culture, and addressing the diverse needs of stakeholders in the dynamic and complex landscape of public universities.

3.8.2 Leadership competencies related to employee empowerment

Effective leaders in public universities exhibit a range of skills and attributes that empower their employees and contribute to organisational success. One key aspect is emotional intelligence,

which enables leaders to understand and manage emotions effectively, leading to better interpersonal relationships and decision-making (Farihah et al., 2022). Moreover, these leaders possess a strong vision for the future of their institutions, aligning their actions with long-term goals and strategies (Ibnu et al., 2023). They excel in integrating social resources, leveraging networks and collaborations for enhanced outcomes, and act as role models of morality and integrity, setting high ethical standards for their teams.

Additionally, effective academic leaders demonstrate a blend of essential leadership capabilities and managerial competencies that are pivotal for success in Malaysian universities (Majid et al., 2018). They exhibit professionalism in executing university missions, ensuring efficiency and effectiveness in operations while empowering team members to contribute meaningfully. This empowerment extends to inspiring students, fostering an environment where learning is not just about academic knowledge but also about humanity, empathy, and holistic growth (Farihah et al., 2022; Mwangi, 2014).

Transformational leadership stands out as a crucial approach in public universities, driving higher levels of morality, motivation, and engagement among employees (Kefyalew & Ritu, 2019; Mwangi, 2014). Leaders who embody transformational qualities inspire positive perceptions of leadership effectiveness, creating a culture of trust, innovation, and continuous improvement. By embodying emotional intelligence, visionary leadership, managerial acumen, and transformational qualities, effective leaders in public universities empower their teams, nurture talent, and create environments conducive to academic and organisational success.

3.8.3 Leadership competencies related to OCB

Effective leadership in public universities is characterized by specific skills and abilities that are instrumental in fostering OCB among academic staff. Transformational leadership, as elucidated by Alessa (2021), encompasses key aspects such as idealized behaviours, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and idealized influence. These qualities not only inspire and motivate employees but also encourage them to exhibit behaviours that go beyond their formal job roles, contributing positively to the overall organisational climate and productivity.

Moreover, the role of knowledge capital, particularly structural capital, is pivotal in enhancing OCB within universities, as highlighted by Ibarra-Cisneros et al. (2023). Knowledge management practices that facilitate the sharing, creation, and utilization of knowledge assets contribute significantly to fostering a culture of collaboration, innovation, and proactive engagement among academic staff. By leveraging knowledge capital effectively, leaders in public universities can create an environment conducive to the development of OCB among employees.

In addition to leadership and knowledge management, person-organisation fit is another critical factor influencing OCB among academic staff in public universities. Manaf et al. (2022) emphasise the importance of value congruence, personality congruence, and work engagement congruence in aligning individual values, beliefs, and motivations with organisational goals and culture. A strong person-organisation fit enhances employees' sense of belonging, commitment, and loyalty, leading to higher levels of OCB and overall organisational effectiveness.

Furthermore, the dimensions of transformational leadership, such as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, play a significant role in influencing OCB. Mehwish et al. (2022) highlights the mediating effect of employee motivation on the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB in public universities in Pakistan. Leaders who effectively motivate and inspire their teams contribute to a positive work environment where employees are more likely to exhibit behaviours that benefit the organisation, including OCB. These findings underscore the interconnectedness of leadership qualities, knowledge management strategies, person-organisation fit, and employee motivation in promoting OCB within public university settings.

3.9 CONCLUSION

The first theoretical aim or research question centres on how leadership is conceptualized in the literature, and this chapter sought to address this theoretical objective of the study. The concept of leadership was explained from different perspectives, referring to various leadership theories. Leadership theories have gone through a revolution from focusing on single leadership traits to more complex and emerging approaches taking behaviours and situations into account. The most contemporary approaches to leadership focused on transformational or developmental

perspectives. The chapter also focused on the relationship between leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour. The conclusion can be drawn that leadership plays a significant role in facilitating organisational citizenship behaviours. The next chapter will focus on empowerment and how leadership in academic institutions should be managed to enhance empowerment.

Chapter 4 : EMPOWERMENT

This chapter focuses on employee empowerment. The chapter starts with a discussion on the concept of empowerment, and then considers the dimensions of empowerment in organisations. Following this, the theories of empowerment, approaches to empowerment, employee empowerment models, employee empowerment in organisations and academic institutions, benefits of empowerment, disadvantages of empowerment, challenges to empowerment are also discussed. The chapter ends with a discussion of the relationship between leadership and empowerment as well as a discussion on the influence of human resource practices on empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour.

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 provided a comprehensive understanding of leadership, distinguishing it from management and highlighting its strategic focus on influencing employee behaviour, including empowerment and OCB. It reviewed relevant leadership theories, examined transformational and transactional leadership, and categorized leadership styles to identify those most conducive to fostering empowerment and OCB. The chapter also contextualized leadership within higher education in Ghana and explored the connection between leadership and OCB, aligning with the study's focus on enhancing leadership practices to promote citizenship behaviour and empowerment. The second theoretical aim or research question focuses on the conceptualization of empowerment in the literature. This chapter aims to address this theoretical objective of the study. This chapter delves into employee empowerment, a moderator and mediator in the relationship between leadership and OCB. It covers various aspects, including the concept, dimensions, theories, and approaches of employee empowerment. Additionally, it explores models of employee empowerment in organisations and academic institutions, discusses the benefits and drawbacks of empowerment, and examines its influence on OCB.

4.1 CONCEPT OF EMPOWERMENT

A commonly used concept when it concerns the development of people involves empowerment. This popularity translates into empowerment becoming an objective pursued by governments, civil society groups, activists, and other organisational bodies (Cavalieri, 2018). Despite its popularity, empowerment means different things to different people, and this explains the variety of definitions of empowerment. This is because definitions of empowerment have been informed by the different organisational, sociocultural, and political contexts within which it is to be used. Due to the different approaches in defining empowerment, the concept is faced with issues of consistency in the use of terms such as internal motivation, perception, commitment, job structure, authority transfer or sharing of resources and information (Yin et al., 2019).

Explaining the concept of empowerment in this section is done under three perspectives namely, the political, psychosocial and the organisational perspective.

4.1.1 Political perspective of empowerment

The Swiss Agency for Development Cooperation (SADC) conceptualized empowerment as an emancipation process in which the disadvantaged are empowered to exercise their rights, obtain access to resources and participate actively in the process of shaping society and making decisions. In the empowerment process, power is vested in the people to help them have some control over their lives and communities (Cavalieri, 2018). The author asserts that the World Bank added that in the empowerment process, the assets and capabilities of the people are expanded to enable them to participate, negotiate, influence, control and hold organisations that influences their lives accountable. Thus, in sum, empowerment suggest ideas of self-strength, power, or reliance, as well as improved capabilities, independence, among others (Cavalieri, 2018)

According to Rezaei and Yasmin (2019), empowerment is both a process and a result which refers to managing challenges and overcoming the sense of powerlessness. These authors add that people using the power within them as a necessary aid to improving their ability to control resources to determine agendas and make decisions is considered as empowerment (Rezaei & Yasmin, 2019). Also, Cavalieri (2018) adds empowerment as a progression that helps people gain control over

their own lives and increases the capacity of people to act on issues that they themselves define as important. Thus, the political view of empowerment is seen to involve the individual or community developing confidence in their own capacities.

4.1.2 Psychosocial perspective of empowerment

It has been asserted that the psychological empowerment dimension falls under intrinsic motivation and thus, creates discretion and self-efficiency (Van Assen, 2020). As such the definition of empowerment from the psychosocial school of thought either focuses on self-efficiency or discretion or both. For instance, Conger and Kanungo (1988) (as cited in Van Assen, 2020), from a psychological school of thought perspective, define empowerment as a procedure to improve employees' perceptions about self-efficiency. The psychosocial definition of empowerment with a focus on the discretion component is defined by Brymer in 1991 as the process of decentralizing decision making in an organisation, whereby managers give more discretion and autonomy to the employees (Kiani et al, 2020; Raub & Robert, 2013).

Good et al. (2020) regarded empowerment as feelings of high performance or achievement by employees or individuals. These feelings derived from motivation, obligation, dedication and commitment. Empowerment is an intrinsic motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions namely meaning, competence, autonomy (decision-making) and self-determination. These cognitions reflect in individuals' orientation towards their work roles (Angelovska et al., 2018). This study will examine the moderating and mediating role of employee empowerment, specifically focusing on the dimensions of autonomy (decision-making), meaning, competence, and self-determination, in the relationship between leadership and OCB.

4.1.3 Organisational perspective of empowerment

Empowerment, from its traditional connotation, refers to "*the transfer of power in a dynamic way over a period of time*" (Mandal, 2013, p. 18). Empowerment can thus be seen as giving power to employees, helping them strengthen their confidence and overcoming their weaknesses. Empowerment mobilizes internal motivation. On the other hand, Thomas and Velthouse in 1990 stated that empowerment should not be seen as an enduring personality trait that is generalized across situations. It should rather be seen as a set of cognitions shaped by the work environment

(Abresch, 2018). Empowerment, therefore, signifies the continuous fluctuation of individuals' perceptions about themselves in relation to their work environments (Abresch, 2018).

From the structural dimension, empowerment is seen as actions by management from perspective of organisations' policies and structure. Empowerment, from a structural dimension viewpoint, is seen as work-context variables that influence employees' work-related behaviour (Lopez-Cabarcos et al., 2022). Kanter in 1993 presented four structural factors that influence empowerment in organisations: (1) inclusion of empowerment activities in job descriptions (2) information accessibility (3) supporting employees and (4) availability and accessibility of needed resources to perform a job.

According to Dabou and Hacini (2018), empowerment is termed as institutional arrangements in which, the autonomy of freedom for action, and responsibility for decision making is delegated to employees. At the organisational level, Ramesh and Kumar (2014) defined empowerment as ways in which non-managerial staff members of an organisation can make decisions, large or small without consulting their managers. The level of the decisions (small or large) is dependent on the degree of power delegated to employees. Similarly, empowerment has been referred to as the act of providing employees at all levels with the authority and responsibility to make decisions on their own (Abresch, 2018). The decisions refer to activities that can smoothen the employees' work life and, therefore, improve customer experience. Zhang and Geng (2019) studied frontline employees in the service delivery industry and viewed empowerment as the freedom and ability of employees to make decisions and to provide high service quality while being provided with essential resources needed to act quickly and appropriately.

According to Dahou and Hacini (2018), empowerment in the field of management focuses on fostering productivity rather than sharing power. To this effect, Arnold and Randall (2010) emphasised the empowerment of employees in so far as it contributed to organisational performance. Arnold and Randall (2010, p. 700) defined empowerment as “*encouraging employees to learn a wide range of skills to ensure their capacity to make an effective contribute to organisational performance*”. In a similar vein, González García et al. (2020) viewed the

purpose of empowerment as mobilizing the skills, energies, and commitment of employees to enhance the operational effectiveness and efficiency of the organisation. n.

Ghang's (2018) definition of empowerment includes several components. Empowerment, in the view of Ghang, involves the delegation of power to make decisions, having access to information and resources for taking decisions, having a range of choices from which final decisions can be made, being allowed to act assertive in collective decision making, being afforded the opportunity to learn skills to change others' perceptions by democratic means, receiving support to invest in personal growth and being part of changes.

Empowerment, in its initial use, created a feeling of emancipation (O'Neil, Domingo & Valters 2014). In line with this, prominence was given to personal capacities such as supporting women in entrepreneurship as against reliance on intermediaries, and where group efforts were to result in visible social changes (Alkhaled & Berglund, 2018). Contemporary empowerment is considered to have its beginnings with the civil rights movement. Subsequently, empowerment has been associated with efforts by groups who considered themselves oppressed as they sought solutions to their challenges (Vargas et al., 2019). Presently, the widespread nature of its use within different contexts made empowerment to be associated with some symbolic efforts that does not require significant power modifications. Such change is seen in empowerment activities of modern industries.

4.2 DIMENSIONS OF EMPOWERMENT

Different scholars present various views on empowerment which is seen as comprising of four components: cognitive, psychological, economic, and political (Rodrigues et al., 2018).

- **Cognitive:** This component describes the realization of an individual/groups condition particularly of subordination in society. This awareness of oneself emerges through an assessment of how the individual/group relates with both the micro and macro society.
- **Psychological:** Having become aware of the condition of subordination in society, the individual/group begins to desire the need to improve such a condition. This feeling is

premised on the assumption that the exertion of some effort can either change or mitigate the condition of subordination.

- **Economic:** The exertion of effort to change/improve the condition of subordination includes engagement in economic activities. Participation in economic activities provides some capital, and this offers the individual/group some autonomy as they engage with society irrespective of how little the capital may be. The OECD defines economic empowerment as the capacity of men and women to participate in, to contribute and benefit from growth processes in ways that it recognises the value of their contributions, respect their dignity and make it possible to negotiate a fair distribution of the benefits of growth (OECD, n.d).
- **Political:** With this component, individuals/groups should be able to organize themselves in a concerted manner to bring about such change. The components indicate that empowerment starts with becoming aware of a condition of some subordination and developing a desire for change. It also requires engaging in activities that provide some leverage power, based on the mobilisation of individuals/groups to effect some changes.

According to Bicudo de Castro and Sridharan (2022), the promotion of empowerment necessitates the inclusion of some elements in any such activity, and these include:

- **Access to information:** The actions of individuals are sometimes shaped by the information that they may be privy to. Within organisations, access to the right information helps individuals to access available opportunities and services, negotiate well, as well as demand accountability where lapses are observed. For these to be achieved, such information should be provided at a period that makes it still relevant, and it should be presented in a manner that allows recipients to fully understand the issues being communicated (Bicudo de Castro & Sridharan, 2022).

The importance of providing the right information at the right time in an understandable format is sometimes downplayed during projects that seek organisational reforms, and this results in the unintended consequence of such projects not achieving their intended purposes.

- **Inclusion and Participation:** a goal of empowerment is to increase the ability of individuals to partake in certain activities. This requires first identifying specific individuals or groups that are to be empowered. The next step is to determine how they can partake in activities of the organisation, and the roles that they are permitted to play. Participation can be affected either directly or in a representational manner whereby a common front is presented to pursue the interest of the individuals or group (Kamruzzaman, 2020).

This may require some adjustments to existing rules or policies of the organisation to accommodate or allow the roles and functions that the individuals and groups can now perform. For sustainability, periodic organisational adjustments are required when newer roles are expected of individuals or groups within the organisation.

- **Accountability:** having access to timely information allow individuals or groups within an organisation to better understand the workings of certain organisational policies and actions. Improved participation further allows individuals and groups to now demand for accountability whenever certain policies are being introduced or where actions have been taken which are deemed to be inappropriate. This allows the individuals and groups to serve as a check on the activities of the organisation. Within organisations, accountability can be carried out within and across departments on the same horizontal level, or it can occur across the vertical levels (Okochi & Ateke, 2020).
- **Local organisational capacity:** empowerment of employees within organisations must further allow the individuals to be able to organize themselves into groups to promote their collective interest. Within organisations, such groups can be encouraged since some are able to mobilize resources on their own to address some of their challenges without recourse to the organisation itself (Okochi & Ateke, 2020).

Rodrigues et al. (2018) also present an overview of empowerment and refer to various kinds of empowerment such as the following:

- **Social empowerment:** this involves strengthening the social relations of individuals and groups. It is in response to discriminations that exist in society as a consequence of race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or some disabilities.

- **Educational empowerment:** progressively higher education is considered a tool to empower individuals. The advocacy for education is due to the association that poverty, illiteracy, and subordination has. Education improves the intellectual capacities of individuals, and these further conditions them for future empowerment efforts. Education is, therefore, considered one of the most important tools for socio-political and economic transformation. In this day of technological development, educational empowerment for individuals includes requisite training in ICT skills.
- **Economic empowerment:** considered a tool against poverty, economic empowerment involves the creation of opportunities for individuals to engage in economic activities that can help them generate some incomes to enable them to pursue their livelihood needs.
- **Political empowerment:** this involves opportunities to participate in decision-making activities in society. Premised on the idea of politics as a means to determine who gets what and when, political empowerment promotes active participation in the determination of the needs of the individuals and how best and when to achieve them.
- **Psychological empowerment:** this helps in breaking perceptions that people have of themselves. Some of these perceptions are ascribed and perpetuated over time such that it has been accepted over time. By changing such perceptions, psychological empowerment helps individuals and groups to think positively of themselves and obtain a new mindset that makes them optimistic.

Ahmed et al. (2022) identified factors that influence empowerment. According to them, it includes the following:

- **Accuracy and clarity of objectives and expectations:** The objectives of the work and the expectations of employees must clearly be identified and communicated. This provides employees with an idea of what they are working towards and what their roles are in achieving those goals. Empowerment here sees a shift of management practice from close

supervision of employee activities to the new role of assessing the results of employee activities.

- **Encourage and support:** Employees do not operate in a vacuum but require specific resources at work. Empowerment in organisations requires the provision of such resources as needed by the employees, while mitigating challenges that impede the work of employees. The challenges may be beyond the work environment to include some significant social events in the lives of the employees. Doing this encourages the employees to also improve their productivity levels since employees do not only have the resources they need to work, but also see efforts by management to address the challenges that they encounter.
- **Autonomy and freedom:** to avoid situations where employees need to seek consent from management with every decision-making challenge they encounter during work process, employees need some autonomy to operate. Greater autonomy reduces the work time of employees, promotes workflow, and increases productivity. Compared with situations where approval must be sought for every decision, time is wasted during the waiting period. Other work processes that is related to that pending decision stalls, and this negatively affects productivity levels.

As can be seen from the discussion, empowerment is explained in several ways. Despite the differences in expression, some similarities and interconnectivities are observed by various researchers on empowerment. Empowerment as discussed by Adu-Brako (2014) and Mandal (2013) are similar in the classification and definition of the various dimensions. They all referred to economic, political and psychological empowerment. The definition of cognitive empowerment by Adu-Brako (2014) is similar to the Mandal (2013) classification and definition of social empowerment. Thus, they all refer to the strengthening of individual and group relations in society. In terms of the differences and according to Mandal (2013), educational empowerment was not included as a component of empowerment by Adu-Brako (2014)

4.3 THEORIES OF EMPOWERMENT

4.3.1 Structural Empowerment Theory

Structural empowerment is defined as access to organisational structures in the work environment through lines of communication, support, information, and resources, which offer employees opportunities to share in decision making processes, assist in control of resources, and grow in their jobs (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). In organisations, informal and formal power in the workplace provides access to organisational structures that empower employees (Aggarwal et al., 2018). Kanter in 1993 asserted that to empower employees, organisations must have empowerment structures that are delineated as the structure of opportunity and the structure of power (Aggarwal et al., 2018; Allen et al., 2018). The structure of opportunity is referred to as organisational attributes that enable the employees' ability to grow and develop in the job. As such, the organisational provision of opportunity significantly influences employees' motivation, productivity, commitment and degree of engagement in work. The structure of power is referred to as organisational attributes that enable employees to mobilize resources. The structural power comes from three organisational sources namely information, resources, and support (Aggarwal et al., 2018; Allen et al., 2018).

Information is defined as the necessary knowledge and communication essential to the work of the organisation. *Resources* are the necessary people, money, equipment and supplies that enable the employee to perform work effectively. *Support* is feedback, coaching and assistance that a person receives from management, peers and others. Subsequently, these organisational empowerment structures contribute to the employees' success in accomplishing organisational goals (Monje-Amor et al., 2020).

Opportunity and power positively influence employees' sense of empowerment, and when present, employees are more committed to their work and the organisation, feel a sense of control and autonomy and experience less stress and burnout. Therefore, when employees feel empowered, it positively impacts their attitudes. This, in turn, benefits the organisation and enhances its effectiveness (O'Brien, 2010; Martin, 2010).

4.3.2 Psychological Empowerment Theory

Kamdron and Randmann (2022) define psychological empowerment as a process through which individuals gain control. Psychological empowerment is comprised of the individual's interaction with their environment and intrapersonal perception of empowerment. Meng and Sun (2019) argue out psychological empowerment as an intrapersonal sense of empowerment which occurs because of cognitive processes within the individual. Proponents of the psychological empowerment are of the view that employees shape their perceptions based on their interpretation of the organisational climate, that is, constraining or empowering. Also, Good et al. (2020) contend that positive employee outcomes are determined by employees' personal perceptions of empowerment, that is, psychological empowerment, and not entirely by the empowerment structures of the organisation.

Within psychological empowerment, four dimensions are identified namely, competence, meaning, self-determination and impact (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

- **Competence:** competence refers to individuals' feelings that they can perform their work well. Specifically, this dimension of psychological empowerment refers to employees' belief that they have the ability and technical competence necessary to complete the required tasks without resistance from the organisation
- **Meaning:** Meaning is the degree to which people care about their work. According to Pinder (2014), employees want to feel that what they do count and that the work is congruent with their value system. The work takes on a personal meaning which in turn offers the individuals a sense of intrapersonal reward, gives them a sense of personal identity and integrity that energizes the employees and motivates them to do their best (Chua & Ayoko, 2021). As such, when a person's sense of meaning is endangered, he or she will find different ways of regaining meaning, such as doing voluntary work (Heine et al., 2006).
- **Self-determination:** Self-determination was defined as the degree to which employees have control over their work or are free to choose how to accomplish their tasks. Employees who experience self-determination feel a greater sense of autonomy because they feel they are free to make independent decisions and take on initiative without pressure from the organisation, resulting in a greater sense of accountability and responsibility (Tingo & Mseti, 2022).

- **Impact:** Impact, the last dimension of psychological empowerment, is defined as the degree to which people feel they have an important influence on their immediate work environments, co-workers and the organisation (Chua & Ayoko, 2021). In the view of Chua and Ayoko, (2021), individuals who are psychologically empowered believe that they do make a difference. Such employees feel that their work has an important impact on others and that their contributions are taken seriously. In addition, employees perceive themselves as active participants in shaping organisational outcomes and they believe that they have a significant influence on the culture of the organisation. These employees perceive a sense of personal control and feel empowered (Fourie & van Eeden, 2010) to act and experience less burnout.

4.4 APPROACHES TO EMPOWERMENT

Due to the existence of a vast number of definitions of empowerment, empowerment is seen to be managed from different approaches. According to Wallace et al. (2011), literature on organisational empowerment categorises empowerment as either structural or psychological. On the other hand, leadership-based empowerment has also been a distinct construct and considered as an antecedent to psychological empowerment (Tang et al., 2020). This section discusses approaches to empowerment which include the leadership, structural (climate) and psychological approaches.

4.4.1 Leadership approach to empowerment

This approach focuses on enabling and sharing power and responsibilities with subordinates (Carmeli et al., 2011). The followers in this process of empowerment contribute and participate in decision-making, which in turn enhances their self-efficacy (Hameli et al., 2023). On the empowering leadership approach, Ahearne, Mathieu and Rapp (2005) identified four dimensions of empowerment:

1. Enhancing the meaningfulness of work,
2. Providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints,
3. Fostering opportunities for participation in decision making, and
4. Expressing confidence in performance

The leadership approach to empowerment occurs based on trust. Thus, when the leader trusts employees to perform their tasks diligently and competently then empowerment is likely to take place in the organisation. For instance, it was posited that a leader's trust level in the employee's performance and integrity can positively predict empowerment among such employees (Hakimi et al., 2010). Similarly, Wei and Long (2011) found that a leader's cognitive trust and emotional trust in the employees are both helpful to increase empowerment. The cognitive trust is perceived to have the greatest influence on the decision-making participation dimension of empowerment while emotional trust has the greatest influence on the information sharing and coach dimensions of empowerment.

4.4.2 Structural approach to empowerment

According to Cho and Faerman (2010) the structural approach is recognized as a macro approach that concentrates on the structural or contextual factors that foster empowerment in organisations. In the view of Sun, Zhang, Qi and Chen (2012), structural empowerment involves the perception by employees that management practices and policies put them in a position of power in the workplace. The work context also provides an enabling work environment. Employees therefore conceptualize structural empowerment as an empowerment climate.

In an empirical study, structural empowerment has been found to have a direct influence on supervisor rudeness, co-worker rudeness and turnover intentions in organisations (Yürümezoğlu & Kocaman, 2019). Thus, employee turnover can be reduced when employees have a sense of structural empowerment—that is when there is access to information and resources to make work less stressful. Under such circumstances, supervisor and co-worker rudeness is less likely to affect employee output. Also, structured empowerment is positively correlated with innovative behaviour and career success (Singh & Sarkar, 2019; Xin et al., 2018). Structural empowerment acts as a mediating factor in the positive relationship between innovative behaviour, career success, and self-efficacy. Thus, structural empowerment enables the occurrence of innovative behaviour, career success and self-efficacy. As such the study concluded that higher perceived structural empowerment improves innovative behaviour, self-efficacy, and career success (Xin et al., 2018).

4.4.3 Psychological approach to empowerment

The psychological approach to empowerment is seen as a micro approach that deals with the perception of employees. Psychological empowerment is based on four dimensions namely competence, meaning, self-determination and impact (Raina et al., 2021). Providing employees with opportunities to attend training or learn new skills would improve their competence and hence their perceptions of being empowered. The importance and value of jobs would also contribute to employees' perceptions of being empowered. Autonomy sends out a message to employees that employers have faith in their ability to perform tasks without close supervision and will further empower employees to take responsibility for their performance. All employees would like to believe that what they do are important and have an impact on the success of their department or the organisation. The more employees can see how their role and contribution add to outcomes, the more they would feel empowered to take accountability for results (Stander & Rothmann, 2010).

Kundu, Kumar and Gahlawat (2019) have conducted an empirical study on psychological empowerment where they assessed the mediating role of psychological empowerment in empowering leadership and job performance. Their bootstrap analysis revealed that the two main components of psychological empowerment, namely, *Enriched understanding of job tasks* (EUJT) and *Level of self-determination* (LSD), are effective in mediating the relationship between empowering leadership and job performance. Enriched understanding of job tasks makes employees follow set deadlines and encourages employees to complete assigned work which leads to improved performance. Also, the higher level of employee autonomy enables employees to take decisions which prevents unnecessary deferral of work. This in return leads to higher job performance. The study by Kundu, Kumar and Gahlawat (2019) further revealed that two behaviours of leaders, namely enhancing meaningfulness of work and providing autonomy from bureaucratic constraints, were more empowering than other leadership behaviours. Thus, when leaders provide employees with autonomy or freedom of decision making and help employees to understand the importance of their jobs, employees experience a higher degree of psychological empowerment. Based on the findings of their study, Kundu et al. (2019) developed a model, as depicted in Figure 4.1, to demonstrate the relationship between empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and job performance. This model emphasises that employees tend

to use their leaders' empowering behaviour as a point of reference which assist them in adopting similar kind of empowering ideologies. Kundu et al. (2019) have also mentioned that leader flexibility and openness to ideas highlights the importance and appropriateness of thinking flexibly. This is seen to increase employees feeling of being engaged and empowered.

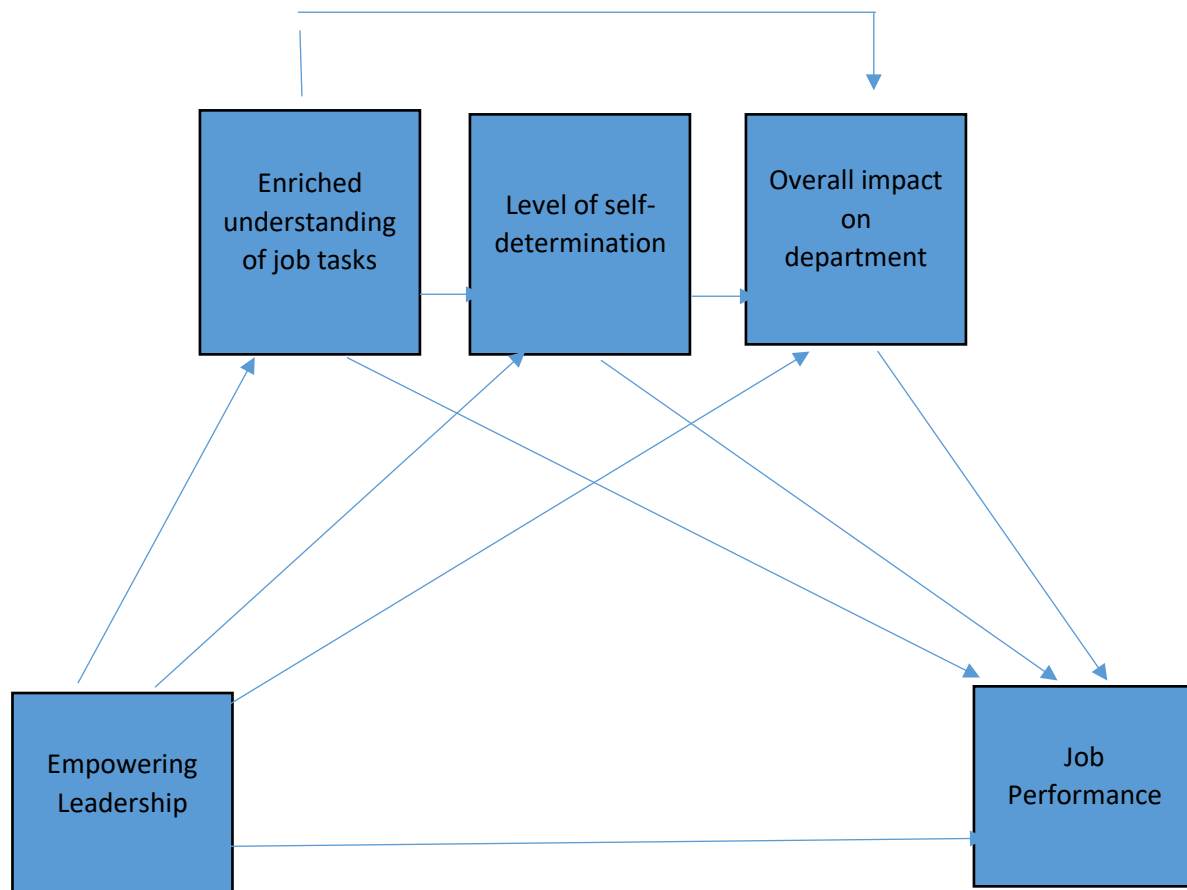


Figure 4.1: Relationship between Empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and job performance

Source: Adopted from Kundu et al. (2019)

As depicted in Figure 4.1, employees who experience psychological empowerment develop a sense of "ownership" over their work, which motivates them to transcend mere compliance with routine tasks and engage in higher levels of performance. This empowerment fosters a deeper connection to their roles, driving them to contribute proactively and creatively. Psychological

empowerment is closely linked to key motivational factors, such as self-efficacy and intrinsic task motivation, which enable employees to take initiative, adapt to challenges, and deliver exceptional results. Çetin and Askun (2018) reinforce these findings, emphasizing that psychological empowerment instills a belief in one's ability to successfully perform tasks and an intrinsic drive to excel. This relationship illustrates the pivotal role of empowering leadership in creating an environment where employees feel valued, confident, and motivated, ultimately enhancing job performance and organisational effectiveness.

4.4.4 Integrated approach to empowerment

Based on the leadership, structural and psychological approaches, Al-Madadha and Koufopoulos (2014) suggested an integrated approach towards empowerment where all the approaches have a significant impact on the creativity of employees. According to the study, empowerment climate and psychological empowerment have a mediating role on the relationship between empowering leadership and employee creativity. This relationship is graphically presented in Figure 4.2.

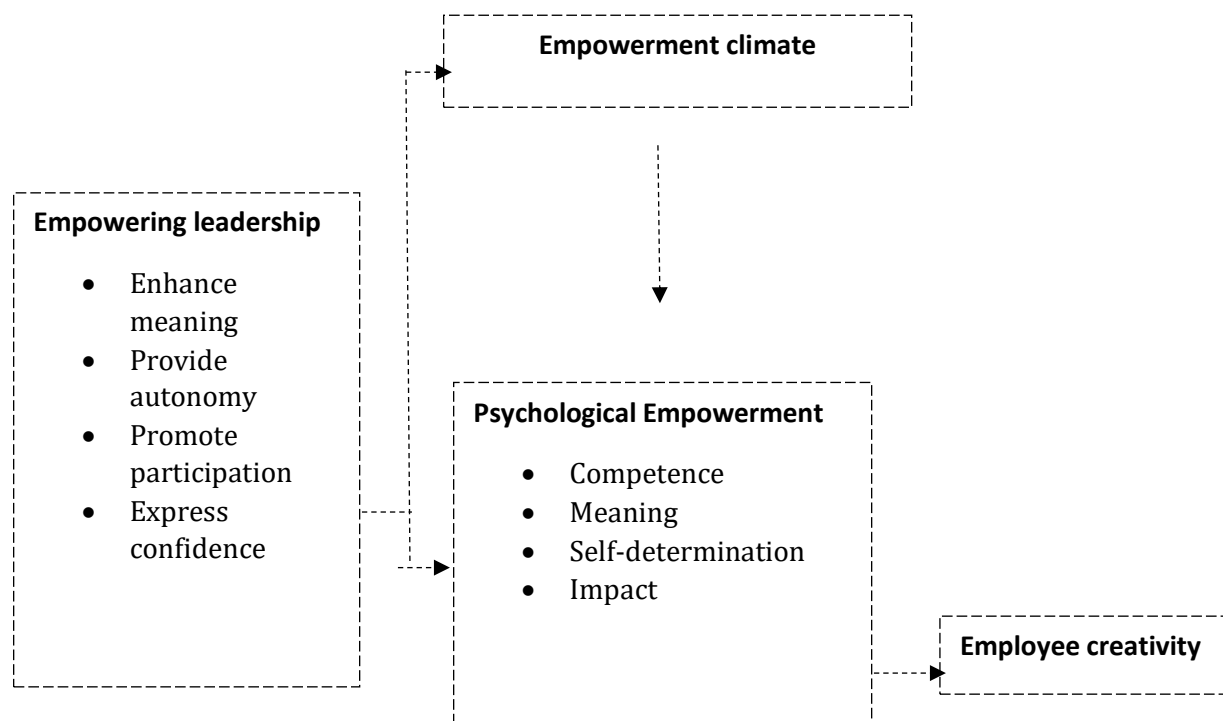


Figure 4.2: Integrated approach to Empowerment

Source: Adapted from Al-Madadha and Koufopoulos (2014)

According to Figure 4.2, the leadership approach influences the structural (climate) and psychological empowerment equally and there is also a positive one-way relationship between structural and psychological empowerment. Thus, structural empowerment is seen to influence psychological empowerment. An integrated approach towards empowerment results in the leadership approach creating an empowerment climate which has an influence on employees' perceptions of being empowered (psychological empowerment) hence resulting in employee creativity (Al-Madadha & Koufopoulos, 2014).

4.4.5 Other approaches to empowerment

Longwe (1991) developed an empowerment framework that stressed the importance of gaining control over decisions and resources that determine the quality of one's life. In the framework, Longwe suggested that 'lower' degrees of empowerment are a prerequisite for achieving higher ones. Longwe's framework provides some useful distinctions between different degrees of empowerment. Longwe's (1991) levels of empowerment as follows,

1. The welfare level: Basic needs are satisfied. This does not necessarily require structural causes to be addressed and tends to view those involved as passive recipients.
2. The access level: Equal access to education, land and credit is assured.
3. The conscientisation and awareness-raising level: Structural and organisational discrimination is addressed.
4. The participation and mobilization level: Equal taking of decisions is enabled.
5. The control level: Individuals can make decisions, and these are fully recognized.

Achieving empowerment is intimately linked to addressing the causes of disempowerment and taking care of disadvantages caused by the way in which power relations shape choices, opportunities and wellbeing (Pansardi & Bindi, 2021). The concept and operation of power and its application results in a variety of interpretations of empowerment. Power relations are categorized into four categories; power over (ability to influence and coerce) and power to (organise and change existing hierarchies), power with (power from collective action) and power within (power from individual consciousness) (Pansardi & Bindi, 2021).

- Power over: Empowerment based on a view of power as "power over" emphasises the need for participation in existing economic and political structures but does not involve changes

to those structures. Thus, empowerment through “power over” is seen as something that is wielded by those who are dominant and can be bestowed by one person on another.

- **Power with:** Empowerment is often couched in individualistic terms, with the aim being to increase individual choice and capacity for self-reliance. Empowerment through “power with”, stresses the way in which gaining power strengthens the power of others - rather than diminishing it. This raises the distinction between personal and collective empowerment.
- **Power to:** This category of empowerment leads to an emphasis on access to decision making. Thus, individuals are given the opportunity to be part of decisions that affect their work and job performance.
- **Power within:** This category of empowerment focuses on building self-esteem. The process of acquiring such power must start with the individual and requires a change in their own perceptions about their rights, capacities, and potential.

4.5 EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT MODELS

Different models are used in empowering employees in organisations. This section discusses two employee empowerment models namely the empowerment process model and causal model of empowerment.

4.5.1 Empowerment process model

Cattaneo and Chapman (2010) identified power as central to the empowerment process. As such, their view of the process of empowerment is fundamentally about gaining power. They considered power as embedded in social interactions. These interactions are not limited to struggles for dominance but include the wide range of ways in which people exert influence. Thus, an increase in power is an increase in one’s influence in social relations at any level of human interaction. From their perspective on power, they describe empowerment as an iterative process where an individual, who is initially powerless, establishes a personal goal aimed at gaining more power, takes steps to achieve that goal, and then examines and contemplates the effects of their actions. In doing so, people draw on their evolving self-efficacy, knowledge, and competence related to the goal.

Based on the view that central to empowerment is power which occurs in a social context, Cattaneo and Chapman (2010) developed an empowerment process model that comprised of 6 elements namely, setting personally meaningful power-oriented goals, self-efficacy, knowledge, action, competence and impact.

This empowerment process model, thus, focuses on a subset of goals (those that are personally meaningful and power oriented). Secondly, the model focuses on a change in a person's social influence rather than only intrapsychic change. The focus on change in human interactions at multiple levels highlights the profound importance of social context in the empowerment process. The model assumes that people who lack power do not have an equal chance at gaining it. Instead, the process of empowerment takes place in a context where power is unequally distributed and where structures exist to perpetuate the advantages of some over others. This context influences the entire process but becomes most prominent in the impact component. It is this component that most clearly extends the empowerment process out of the intrapsychic realm, moving the model beyond people's feelings about their abilities to include the ways in which social context constrains or facilitates their efforts (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). The model is graphically presented in Figure 4.3.

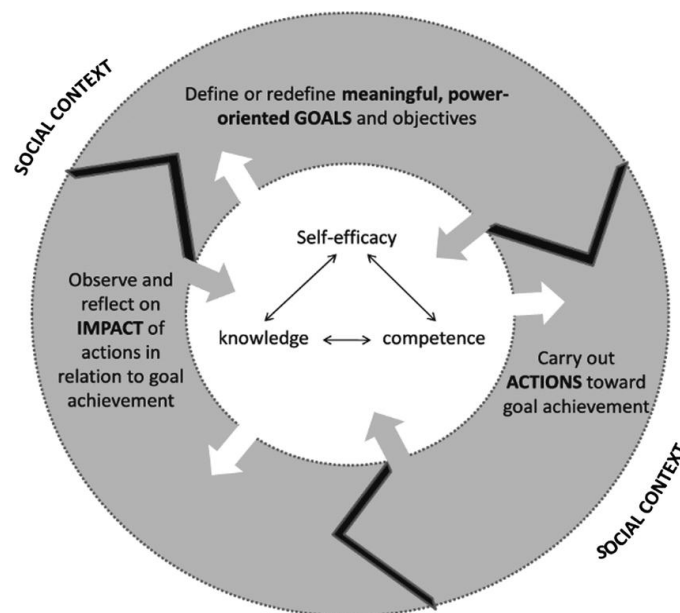


Figure 4.3: Empowerment Process Model

Source: Cattaneo and Chapman, (2010)

From Figure 4.3, empowerment is seen as gaining power which is embedded in social interactions. The social interactions are not limited to struggles for dominance but the ways in which people exercise influence. At all levels of human interaction, an increase in power can be equated to increase in one's influence in social relations. This holds true for both dyadic interactions to interactions between a person and a system.

Based on the meaning of power as stated above, Cattaneo and Chapman (2010, p. 647) define empowerment as “iterative process in which a person who lacks power sets a personally meaningful goal oriented toward increasing power, takes action toward that goal, and observes and reflects on the impact of this action, drawing on his or her evolving self-efficacy, knowledge, and competence related to the process is not linear, and a person may cycle through components repeatedly with respect to particular goals and associated objectives, re-evaluating as experience promotes reflection”. With this definition of empowerment, its outcome is a personally meaningful increase in power obtained through individual's efforts.

With the above understanding, the model as developed by Cattaneo and Chapman (2010) differentiate empowerment from concepts such as mastery, agency, self-efficacy, self-advocacy, self-determination, and self-regulation in two basic ways. Thus, the empowerment process focuses on a subset of goals and secondly, empowerment aims to change a person's social influence rather than intrapsychic change.

From Figure 4.3, the focus of change in the human interactions at multiple level indicates the importance of the social context in the empowerment process. The process of empowerment occurs within a context of power imbalance, where certain structures are in place that preserve the privileges of some individuals over others. The referred context influences the entire process, but its effect is most prominently seen in the impact component. Most clearly, the impact component of the empowerment process extends empowerment out of the intrapsychic realm. This moves the model beyond feelings about people's abilities to include ways in which social context constraints or facilitates their efforts.

4.5.2 Causal model of the Employee Empowerment Process

According to the causal model, employee empowerment is conceived of as a set of four management practices. Employee empowerment should have a direct effect on performance by indirectly influencing employee innovativeness and job satisfaction. The causal model of employee empowerment process establishes five direct and indirect relationships namely, empowerment and performance, empowerment and innovativeness, empowerment and job satisfaction, innovativeness and performance, and job satisfaction and performance (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2011). The causal model of employee empowerment includes elements such as goal setting, feedback, training, and discretion. When these elements are present, the linear relationships have a higher probability of being positive. Figure 4.4 illustrates the relationships between the variables of the empowerment process.

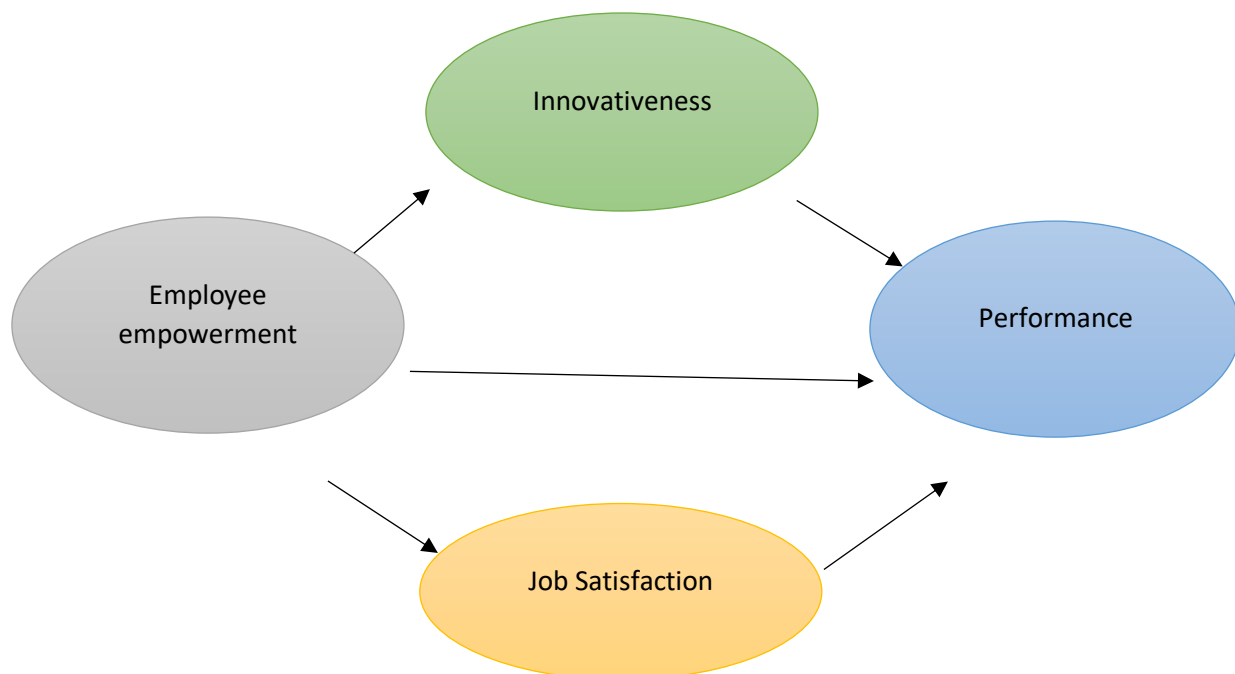


Figure 4.4: Causal model of the Employee Empowerment Process

Source: Adapted from Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2011)

The various relationships among the constructs in the Figure 4.4 are explained below:

- **Empowerment and Performance:** Employee empowerment should have a direct positive effect on performance. This is seen in the added discretion granted to empowered

employees which provides them with the flexibility to adapt to unforeseen circumstances, to improve the quality of interactions with service recipients, and to make more productive use of their time. In employee empowerment, discretion is particularly important for performance as task complexity and environmental turbulence increase since these conditions place a premium on the ability to adapt (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2011). Empowerment also enhances the technical knowledge and capabilities of employees, enabling them to perform tasks more effectively. Also, empowerment approaches adopt goal setting and feedback, which have a significant bearing on employee effort and performance.

- **Empowerment and Innovativeness:** Employee empowerment has an element of granting the discretion to the employee to operate. This is seen as particularly important for initiation of innovation, as it provides autonomy to act in new and creative ways that depart from standard operating procedures (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2011). Empowering employees also involves training and development which can serve as channels for the diffusion of innovations, as employees learn about and introduce ideas applied successfully in other organisations. Training and development improve employees' ability to diagnose and solve technical problems, thus increasing the chances that innovative proposals will be designed and implemented successfully (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2011). Further, innovations as created by empowered employees can emanate through goal setting which conveys organisational priorities and encourages achievement-oriented employees to seek out or invent new strategies and tactics for attaining those goals. Importantly, negative feedback indicative of failure induces search for innovative solutions to problems (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2011).
- **Empowerment and Job Satisfaction:** Studies have shown that employee empowerment is among the strongest predictors of job satisfaction (Elnaga & Imran, 2014; Lee et al., 2006). However, Elnaga and Imran (2014) suggest this effect is indirect, so that empowerment increases job satisfaction through further development and growth opportunities, increased task significance, and increased communication and feedback.

Employee empowerment practices are designed to incentivise employees by means of intrinsic rewards.

- **Innovativeness and Performance:** Organisations adaptable to changes usually perform better and are more likely to prosper. This is because innovation represents a vital form of organisational learning and adaptation. Fagerberg, Mowery and Nelson (2006) expressed that product, and technological innovations continue to be key sources of performance improvement and competitive advantage for private sector firms. The importance of innovation has prompted governments, especially in developed countries, to develop separate appraisal and reward systems that operate in parallel to annual performance appraisal and merit pay systems to evaluate the efficacy of innovative ideas and reward employees for developing them (Fernandez & Pitts, 2011).
- **Job Satisfaction and Performance:** Job satisfaction positively correlates with job performance. For instance, Judge et al. (2000) reported that job satisfaction can directly improve performance by improving levels of energy, activity, and creativity and by enhancing memory and analytical abilities. Indirectly, job satisfaction can also improve performance by increasing organisational commitment and OCB and reducing turnover and absenteeism (Judge et al., 2000).

The relationship between performance and innovativeness appears to be concurrent, with poor organisational performance often encouraging innovative behaviour as a turnaround strategy. Thus, it is seen that failure induces innovation which is expected to result in creative ideas to find solutions to the problem. The link between poor organisational performance and innovativeness appears to be particularly strong, as the impact of innovativeness on performance is seen to be positive in the long-term but marginal or even negative in the short-term. The reason for this is that new processes must first be learned and institutionalized (Parida et al., 2017).

4.6 EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT IN ORGANISATIONS

The concept of empowerment has emerged as a component of the total quality management (TQM) philosophy (Andrade et al., 2017). For instance, Dilawo and Salimi (2019) indicated that the lack of employee empowerment is considered as an obstacle of TQM implementation in organisations. Employee empowerment is essential to the growth of organisations Dilawo and Salimi (2019) and continuous improvement of employees but should not be seen as a cure to all contemporary corporate ills (Demirci & Erbas, 2010). Although an empowered employee is found to be motivated and efficient which impact positively on the overall performance of the organisation, many other factors, beside employee empowerment, have an impact on organisational performance.

Based on different definitions of employee empowerment reviewed by Hamed (2010) employee empowerment is displayed in the workplace as follows:

1. Employee empowerment increases the effective influence of employees and teams by giving them more freedom to perform their duties.
2. Employee empowerment focuses on the real ability of employees in solving work problems and crises.
3. Employee empowerment makes individuals responsible for the outcomes of their actions and decisions.

In the view of Pradhan, Kamlanabhan, Thulasiraj and Muraleedharan (2014) employee empowerment is not a global construct generalised across life situations and roles but rather specific to the work domain. Thus, within the framework of the organisation, employee empowerment should be used as a tool to assist employees in achieving organisational goals. This implies that the employee can prioritise, take the right decision and implement appropriate actions in the interest of the organisation. This should, however, be done without the need to micromanage the employee. The role of the organisation in empowering the employees is to provide an enabling environment (Pradhan et al., 2014). This would require a broad framework that would enable staff to make decisions and take actions when there is no explicit system or rules regulating these decisions or actions.

In terms of benefits that accrue to organisations when employees are empowered, Ramesh and Kumah (2014) confirmed that empowered employees are more productive and more satisfied. This leads to organisational encouragement of entrepreneurial traits and prompts employees to make decisions, act, and foster a belief that they can take control of their own destiny. This belief leads to self-motivation and a sense of independence which translates into greater loyalty and extra effort for the organisation (Ramesh & Kumah, 2014).

Organisations that provide employees with opportunities to participate in strategic decision making and recognize their efforts with positive feedback, are more likely to be perceived as supportive and empowering. Shulagna's (2009) view of employee empowerment and how it impacts on organisation performance is graphically presented in Figure 4.5.

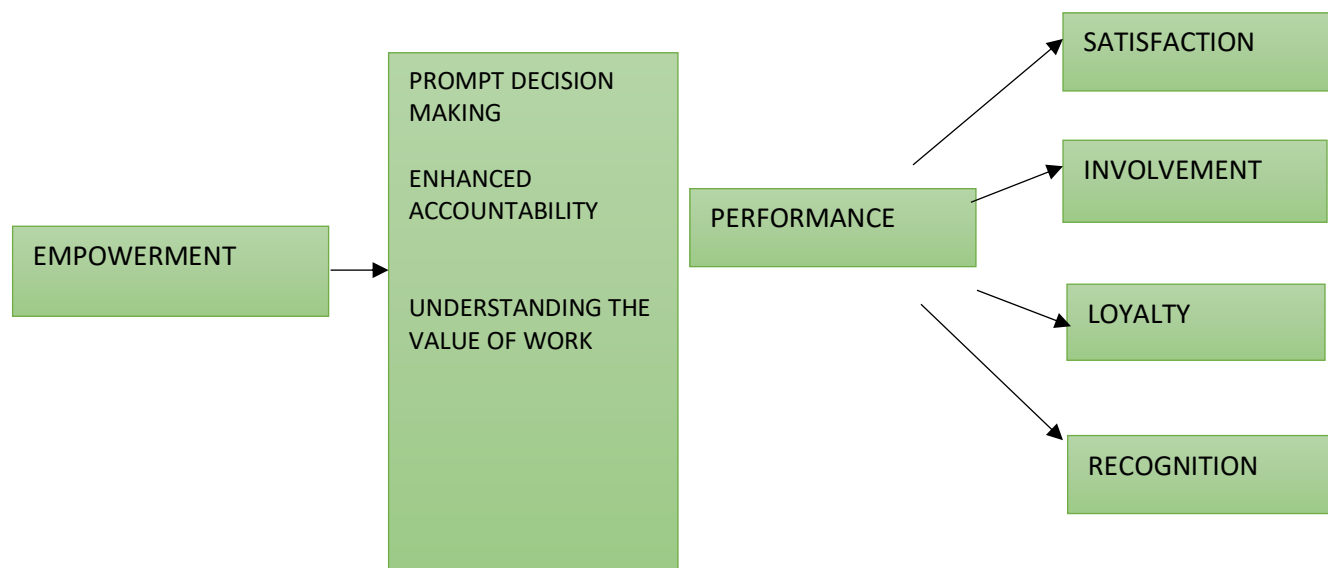


Figure 4.5: Empowerment and its relation to performance

Source: Adapted from Shulagna (2009)

The diagram in Figure 4.5 illustrates Shulagna's (2009) view of employee empowerment and its impact on organisational performance. It starts with empowerment, which leads to three intermediate effects: prompt decision-making, enhanced accountability, and understanding the value of work. These intermediate effects collectively enhance performance within the organisation. Improved performance results in four specific outcomes: satisfaction, involvement, loyalty, and recognition.

loyalty, and recognition. This visual representation highlights the relationship between employee empowerment and organisational performance, emphasizing the intermediate steps and final outcomes.

To empower employees, Ramesh and Kumar (2014) identified six steps that organisations need to follow. They describe the employee empowerment process as follows:

1. **Identify the reasons of empowerment:** Upper management starts the empowerment process. They must identify the reasons and the benefit to relinquish authority and decision-making power to lower levels of the organisation.
2. **Choose employees to empower:** Employees must want to be empowered. Some employees are unwilling to accept additional responsibilities and decision-making power regardless of potential rewards. They need skills to make correct decisions and accomplish additional responsibilities.
3. **Provide role information:** The management must define the role and assigns responsibilities, authority, and decision-making power to meet company and department goals and define boundaries to clarify decisions employees will and will not make. Also, management must specify performance criteria and rewards for outstanding achievement.
4. **Share company information:** the management share the information relating to organisation issues. Explain company vision and values, clarify priorities, share some sensitive information, list facts people have and need, share good and bad information, and view mistakes positively and teach decision-making and problem-solving skills help people to understand the need for change.
5. **Provide training to employees:** Teach them the basics of cost and revenue. Open financial books and inform employees of the situation so they can feel more related to the company. Let employees decide how to handle clients and give them discretionary power when deciding what to spend to address a certain problem.
6. **Inspire individual initiatives:** An inspired employee is a highly productive resource to a company and department. Management should take the initiative to motivate the employees through rewards.

Employee empowerment needs to take place at multiple levels namely at individual, team and organisation levels (Pradhan et al., 2014). Wooddell in 2009 argued that effective implementation

of employee empowerment needs to maintain the following four conditions: shared vision, organisational support, knowledge and learning, and institutional recognition (cited in Hieu, 2020).

Shared vision: Wooddell (2009) advocates the significance of sharing in the vision of the organisation before employees will be open to empowerment. A shared vision plays a key role in allowing employees to link their goals with the organisation and then engage in actions to achieve the goals. Support from the organisation in actively promoting empowerment is critical for employees to take charge of actions to be carried out. Without the organisation's support, training and making information available employees will not be empowered. Hieu (2020) described the shared vision as common attitude and identified success in meeting goals, customer-oriented and goal clarity as some of its elements.

Organisational support: Organisational support is seen as the perception of employees on the extent to which organisations value their contribution to the organisation and care about their well-being. In the existence of organisational support, its consequence is seen on employee work performance and well-being. Also, organisational support improves employees' sense of wanting to help the organisation to reach its objectives and goal. In many organisations, the outcome of organisational support for employees increases in extra-role performance and decrease in absenteeism and turnover (Kurtessis et al., 2015).

Knowledge and learning: In terms of knowledge and learning, employees are expected to improve their skills so that they could make decisions. Skills to empower employees include problem-solving, time management, consensus-based decision making and leadership. According to Shulgana (2009), empowerment is the combination of four dimensions namely power, information, knowledge, and rewards. Demirci and Erbas (2010) argued that to create empowered individuals and a climate conducive for improved performance, the organisation must consider influence based on competence. Competence is, however, dependent on the commitment, capability, and ethicality of employees.

- **Commitment:** Empowerment enhances an employees' psychological attachment to the organisation and this manifests in commitment. Commitment towards the job increases as accountability increases (Demirci & Erbas, 2010). Empowerment also leads to employee engagement. When employees and the organisation have a shared purpose and vision,

employees become self-directed decision-makers towards the goals and objectives of the organisation. However, non-committed employees may not create opportunities for empowerment (Demirci & Erbas, 2010).

- **Capability:** It can be reasonably assumed that most people, when given opportunities, will perform to the best of their capabilities. Therefore, by empowering employees, organisations show that they trust employees to make the right decisions and hence, employees utilize their capabilities to be worthy of the trust. The alternative is also true, employees will not be empowered if they do not possess the required capabilities (Demirci & Erbas, 2010).
- **Ethicality:** Ethicality refers to being in accordance with the accepted principles of right and wrong that govern the conduct of an employee. Employees that do not act in an ethical manner would not be able to capitalise on empowerment opportunities (Demirci & Erbas, 2010).

Institutional recognition: Institutional recognition is key in employee empowerment process. Hieu (2020) referred to institutional recognition as fundamental recognition. This view includes the employee being aware and having knowledge of the reward system in the organisation. Demirci and Erbas (2010) mention that institutional recognition as the widely accepted appreciation and recognition for the skills and efforts of employees in organisations. Thus, the more employees are recognized for their skills and contribution towards the organisation, the more they develop a sense of empowerment. As such, employee empowerment is a direct function of the level of acceptance and recognition from organisational leaders (Demirci & Erbas, 2010).

4.7 EMPOWERMENT IN ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS

Calls for employee empowerment has been advocated severally because as the work environment keeps changing, the need to modify employee empowerment must be sustained (Elnaga & Imran, 2014). Empowerment seeks to improve the trust relationship between management and employees, and how the partnership can be maintained or sustained over time (Elnaga & Imran, 2014). Institutional relationships create work environments in which employees can take some decisions when faced with certain situations in the conduct of their work (Elnaga & Imran, 2014).

Institutions, in turn, offer substantial support and motivation to establish a work environment where employees are granted some level of autonomy to work towards achieving organisational goals (Elnaga & Imran, 2014). This underscores the necessity for the intended beneficiaries to be involved in the planning and execution of such initiatives.

To this end, employee empowerment has become the modern method of employee management (Elnaga & Imran, 2014). With this system, more independence is given to employees, provided an effective feedback mechanism is in place to monitor the work of such employees. Thus, employee empowerment is not about allowing employees to conduct themselves as they see fit, but rather the creation and institutionalizing of work environment systems in which employees can take actions and decisions that benefit the entire work process (Elnaga & Imran, 2014).

The Hawthorne study of productivity in industries focused on interactions and social factors such as supervision, relations with supervisors, and informal groups which had an influence on productivity (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2013). In academic institutions, these factors also exist and impact on the performance of employees. By empowering academic employees, the provisioning of quality education is made possible by innovative administrators, effective teaching staff and efficient non-teaching staff. According to González García et al. (2020), organisations that identify, utilize, and develop resources such as empowerment for their growth can achieve sustainable quality education. .

In the view of Kimwarey et al. (2014), teacher empowerment is a crucial process as it enables teachers to develop personal competence, act promptly and seize opportunities to demonstrate and display their competence. Teachers are empowered when they have a voice in educational affairs of students and participate in decision making in their area of operation. This could be achieved through teacher preparation and continuous improvement of teachers' competence through empowerment. Kimwarey et al. (2014) further stated that, to empower the teacher, there had to be a cultural shift in the way teachers were evaluated and developed. To retain the services of teachers, adequate support, empowerment and recognition had to be provided. These authors believe that the inclusion of teachers in community, school and national level discussions provided formal and informal opportunities to teachers to influence, design, create and implement curricula

which generally help improve the quality of education and more importantly. This empowers the teachers in carrying out their duties.

Academic carelessness and authoritative treatment cause inefficiencies and make non-academic professional staff feel like second-class citizens. It is, thus, critical that management and faculty members are sensitive to others' feelings and job needs (Lau, 2010). A study by Tindowen (2019), revealed negative responses when university non-academic administrative staff were asked to report their perceptions of what academic staff thought of them. There was a unanimous feeling that academic staff looked down on their non-academic administrative counterparts and did not fully value their role in the university. The success of the total academic operation depends on all employees, as such non-academic professional staff members must have a feeling that they belong and that they are making a valuable contribution towards the achievement of institutional goals. Lau (2010), therefore, emphasised the need to apply the principles of empowerment to non-academic professional staff as well.

To ensure that non-academic professionals at universities develop a sense of belonging, non-academic professionals need to be empowered. According to Wilcox in 2017, increased discretion and flexibility may result in non-academic professionals feeling better about their jobs, reducing stress levels, increasing confidence in performing jobs, and raising awareness of best practices.

Chitorelidze (2017) studied non-academic professional staff's perspectives on employee empowerment and found that participants agreed on the importance of decision-making, autonomy, impact, knowledge, resources, and reward as vital in employee empowerment process. She further observed that participants appeared to value employee empowerment if it meant having input in decisions affecting their immediate jobs, having autonomy to make decisions on operational issues on a day-to-day basis, having specialized knowledge, being able to see the impact of their efforts in the workplace, having access to what they considered as necessary resources, and being rewarded for their accomplishments. Similarly, Lau (2010) also focused on employee empowerment among non-academic professional staff and demonstrated that non-academic professional staff felt empowered when they experienced all five cognitive states:

meaning, competence, self-determination, impact, and organisational support. Innovation and organisational trust were predictors of perceived empowerment.

Lambert (2006) stated that there is a difference between the level of perceived empowerment among the faculty working at private universities and the level of perceived empowerment among the faculty working at public institutions. According to Lambert, faculty members at private universities feel more empowered. The reason for these perceptions was attributed to the perception faculty members held about private universities having a less rigid, hierarchical decision-making culture. Tsai (2012) focused on the empowerment of faculty members and maintained that in challenging times academic institutions need to attract and retain high performers. These academic institutions would only be able to do if academics were satisfied with their jobs. The findings of his study demonstrated that empowerment was one of those factors that had a positive effect on job satisfaction and turnover intentions.

According to Aithal and Kumar (2015), higher educational institutions are continuously attempting to enhance the professional development of teaching and non-teaching staff. As such educational institutions adopt empowerment strategies which include training, retraining and the motivation of employees.

4.8 BENEFITS OF EMPOWERMENT

The benefits of empowerment are wide ranging and initially focused on the individual and thereafter shifted to the influence it had on the organisation and its customers. Table 4.2 outlines the benefits identified by earlier scholars.

Table 4.1: Benefits of empowerment to organisations

Scholars	Benefits of empowerment to organisations
Menon (2001)	Enhancement of perceptions of control, self-efficacy, and organisational goal internalization

Scholars	Benefits of empowerment to organisations
Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002)	Creativity Less constrain due to red tape Increased self-efficacy Innovativeness
Tjosvold and Sun (2005)	Improved competition in the market
Samat, Ramayah and Saad (2006)	Improved service quality and market orientation
Patrick and Laschinger (2006)	Employees feel valued, rewarded and satisfied with their performance
Boon, Arumugam, Safa, and Bakar (2007); Trivellas and Santouridis (2009)	Increased level of job involvement Improved performance
Ergeneli (2007)	Improved productivity Increased customer satisfaction and Enhanced competitive advantage to the organisation
Jung, Wang and Wu (2009)	Continued improvement Strengthened competitive advantage
Shulgana (2009)	Increased competency of the workforce Improved customer satisfaction, involvement, loyalty and recognition as a result of employees being empowered
Edelmann et al. (2020)	Higher perceived peer leadership quality, improved team effectiveness, and increased work satisfaction, while reducing burnout.
Murray & Holmes (2021)	Increased organisational commitment and reduced turnover intention, leading to a more sustainable workforce.
Bah et al. (2024)	increased autonomy, commitment, and job satisfaction.

Ahmad and Oranye (2010) conducted a study to examine the relationship between nurse's empowerment, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. They surveyed 556 registered nurses (RNs) in two teaching hospitals in England and Malaysia. The study concluded that there was a positive relationship between empowerment, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Hamed (2010) found that employee empowerment practices are often implemented with the hope of overcoming employee dissatisfaction and reducing the costs of absenteeism, turnover, and poor-quality work. According to Hamed (2010) empowerment enables employees

to participate in decision making, helps them to break out of stagnant mind sets and to perform outside their comfort zones. According to Ueno (2010) employee empowerment plays a significant role in achieving and enhancing service quality. Employee empowerment promotes better access to quality information, reduces tension between management and employees. This occurs when timely information that explains certain actions are provided, and staff can ask questions when in doubt. This prevents confrontation because staff are clear on what should be done without the need to seek authorization or approval when making basic decisions.

The significant gains in performance are mostly due to empowerment promoting innovativeness and thereby enabling employees to unleash their creative talent often stifled by rigid systems (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2013). Thus, empowerment is seen as a strong predictor of job involvement, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction. Empowerment further assists managers in dealing with poor performance, low productivity, and high turnover. Similarly, the outcome of empowerment is seen to include effectiveness, work satisfaction, less job-related strain, improved locus of control, enhanced self-efficacy, personal identification with the goals of the organisation, client satisfaction and increased employee retention (Balaji & Krishnan, 2014; Pradhan et al., 2014; Elnaga & Imran, 2014).

Further, in the study of Elnaga and Imran (2014) an empowered workforce is seen to benefit both employees and the organisation. Empowerment increases communication and information flow leads to the creation of new relationships while it strengthens existing relationships. Improved communication creates better teamwork and helps employees establish their own personal or group goals to which they aspire. Such goals, though not defined by the organisation, may ultimately feed into the goals of the organisation since employees cannot pursue interests separate from those of the organisation.

A study by Zhang and Geng (2019) on empowerment in service delivery focused on the role of self-regulation of frontline employees. The findings indicated that empowerment has a positive impact on service recovery as a result of directly enabling frontline employees to take prompt decisions when resolving customer service issues. Zhang and Geng (2019) attributed the positive impact of empowerment on service delivery to the following reasons:

- Empowerment provided employees with essential resources that enhances their self-confidence and encourages their job engagement.
- Empowerment of employee could address service failure without necessarily reporting to a supervisor. This demonstrates organisational trust in employees while the employees believe that their decision would be supported and recognized.

In the service delivery industry, frontline employees that have access to fiscal and informational resources reported job involvement and efficient customer service (Zhang & Geng, 2019).

4.9 DISADVANTAGES OF EMPOWERMENT

Despite the various advantages associated with empowerment, empowerment also presents challenges to both the organisation and employees. These, according to Elnaga and Imran (2014) include:

- An increased number of employees taking decisions on their own can create an unintended consequence of stalled work. This occurs when information coming from employees as feedback and input must be collated and verified to inform the next line of action.
- Increased authority to make decisions may result in some employees abusing their new freedom. With the new authority to make work-related decisions, employees sometimes deliberately make poor decisions, or take decisions that turn out to be costly to the organisation.
- Empowerment gives some autonomy that translates to new responsibilities for employees. Such new responsibilities can be numerous and overwhelming to the employee. The increased workload might reduce employee output and affect overall output.
- The use of groups within organisations might result in time being spent on meetings at the expense of attending to work tasks.

4.10 CHALLENGES TO EMPOWERMENT

Empowerment involves making significant changes to the decision-making structure in the organisation. These changes are to allow the inclusion of employees who hitherto could not make certain decisions. Depending on the leadership style of managers, some managers may be reluctant

to relinquish power and oppose endeavours to provide employees with more decision-making power (Elnaga & Imran, 2014). The challenge holds, especially true, for management that believes that they have a better view of the operations of the organisation and are therefore better equipped to make decisions. This viewpoint is justified by arguing that management would be held responsible should employees make poor decisions. One of the challenges of empowerment is that it demands time and a conscious effort by management to invest in their employees.

Empowerment has been perceived to increase workload of employees and initially decrease output (Cheong et al., 2016). Empowerment has also been perceived as making employees feel threatened and anxious due to increased responsibility and having to deal with more information. These challenges with empowerment often result from following a one-size-fits-all approach (Kwak & Jackson, 2015). These authors add that not all employees are prepared to embrace empowerment and only skilled labour perceive empowerment as a positive initiative to improve their autonomy. Unskilled labour tends to perceive empowerment as a lack of guidance or concern from leaders.

4.11 EMPOWERMENT AND LEADERSHIP

According to Nugroho et al. (2020), the influence of transformational leadership behaviour on employees' performance often stems from employees' development and empowerment, which increases both their ability and motivation. Transformational leaders' idealized influence provides meaningfulness to employees' work roles and will influence the decisions taken by them. Leaders often serve as role models and inspire and influence the behaviour of individuals by means of group collective-efficacy (Balaji & Krishnan, 2014). Leaders significantly influence the behaviour of their followers. Hence, leadership strategies that bolster personal identity are likely to lead to individual empowerment. Furthermore, leader behaviours that increase the attractiveness of the group and foster social identity are likely to empower the group and enhance employees' collective identity (Balaji & Krishnan, 2014).

Social identification mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and empowerment (Choi et al., 2016). A study by Balaji and Krishnan (2014) revealed that transformational leadership has a positive influence on employees' self-concept and hence on their

psychological empowerment. However, the influence of transformational leadership depends on the social identity of an employee. This means that an employee's feeling of empowerment is dictated more by the sense of self-perception within the social framework than by personal identification with the transformational leader. The relationship between the leader and the employee would be effective when the leader positively influences the self-image (both public and private) of the employee.

Ariadna et al. (2020) found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and work engagement. This relationship is, however, mediated by structural empowerment. The result of Monje-Amor et al.'s (2020) study implies that transformational leadership ensures work engagement creating environments that enables access to information, opportunities, support and adequate resources—thus, structural empowerment. Similarly, Duțu and Butucescu (2019) and Saeed, Afsar, Shahjehan and Shah (2019) studied the relationship between transformational leadership style and work engagement with psychological empowerment as mediating factor. These results indicated a significant relationship between transformational leadership and employee work engagement. Within the relationship of transformational leadership and work engagement, psychological empowerment had a significant mediating influence. This implies that psychological empowerment is key in ensuring employee work engagement even where transformational leadership style is present.

The aim of transformational leadership is to facilitate change so that the visions and goals of the organisation can be achieved. Bass and Riggio (2006) stated that transformational leaders have a significant impact on followers that consider the interests of the group beyond their own interests. Thus, the actions of transformational leaders empower followers psychologically. Sun et al. (2012) developed a model that showed how transformational leadership affect psychological empowerment through structural empowerment. According to Biron and Bamberger (2010) structural empowerment is considered as a mediator between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment. The model is presented in Figure 4.6.

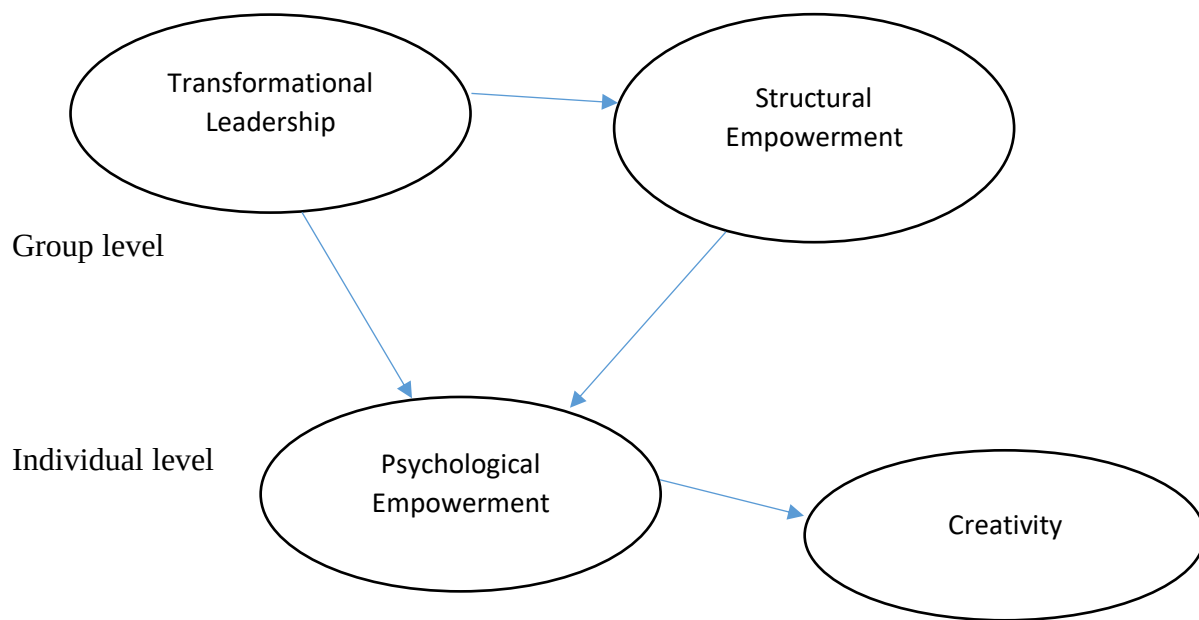


Figure 4.6: A multilevel model of empowerment, leadership, and creativity

Source: Sun, Zhang, Qi and Chen (2012)

The model presented in Figure 4.6 illustrates the relationship between transformational leadership, structural empowerment, and psychological empowerment. According to Biron and Bamberger (2010), structural empowerment acts as a mediator between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment. This means that transformational leadership influences structural empowerment, which in turn affects psychological empowerment. The model highlights how leadership practices can create an empowering environment that enhances employees' psychological empowerment, ultimately leading to increased creativity and performance within the organisation.

Khodarahmi and Aghahoseini (2014) studied the relationship between ethical leadership and empowerment of employees. The study found a significant correlation between the components of ethical leadership and empowerment. Thus, the element of ethical leadership—fairness, competence, autonomy, and its effectiveness are key in employee empowerment. Kalshoven et al. (2011) reported that moral leadership is considered one of the most important factors in improving organisational performance. Suifan et al. (2020) explore the effects of ethical leadership on turnover intention with the mediating effect of psychological empowerment and organisational identification. The result of the study confirmed that ethical leadership negatively affect turnover

intention. This relationship is significantly mediated by psychological empowerment and organisational identification in organisations where ethical leadership is practiced, it is also necessary for employees to feel psychologically empowered and have a sense of belonging.

Empirical studies have indicated that empowering leadership affects behavioural outcomes among employees through different psychological mechanisms. Chow (2018) found that empowering leadership impacts positively on employee creativity because employees are motivated to learn and prepared to trust that leaders have their interest at heart. Also, Kim and Beehr (2018) found that empowering leadership has a negative influence on employee withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover intentions. To this effect, commitment plays a significant role on the preparedness of employees to engage with their work and remain with an organisation. Park and Hassan (2018) emphasised the snowball effect of the relationship between empowering leadership and psychological empowerment. Managers, feeling psychologically empowered, used empowering leadership practices but at the same time empowering leadership practices also resulted in leaders feeling psychologically empowered. Adeel et al. (2018) found that empowering leadership has a direct and indirect impact on psychological empowerment.

4.12 THE INFLUENCE OF HR PRACTICES ON EMPOWERMENT AND OCB

Human Resource Management practices often provide procedures for the delegation of authority and guidelines on accepting responsibility and accountability. The extent of regulation plays a significant role on how much an organisation would be able to empower its employees. According to Taamneh et al. (2018), empowering human resource management practices would contribute to the creation of an empowering culture and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Nikolova et al. (2019) reported on the direct influence work design characteristics such as feedback, task significance, psychological demand, autonomy, and social support have on employee engagement and OCB. The results of the study supported the direct effect of work design characteristics (feedback, task significance, psychological demand, autonomy, and social support) on OCB. When jobs have motivational and social characteristics and the typical work design characteristics are present in jobs, employees' level of satisfaction increases and as a result,

employees reciprocate by engaging in positive work behaviours such as OCB. In a similar study conducted by the same researchers in 2013, 646 non-supervisor nursing and clinical staff in three public hospitals in Malaysia were surveyed to determine the mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between job autonomy and OCB. The results of the multiple regression indicated a significant positive relationship between job autonomy and OCB. They also found that work engagement partially mediates the relationship between job autonomy and OCB.

As regards to training, Potnuru et al., (2018) recognise the importance of improved competency in empowering employees. However, when employees are given choices as regards to which training programmes they wish to complete and when, it will increase their autonomy in making decisions about their own development and career advancement.

Taamneh et al. (2018) studied the role played by HR practices to enhance employees' OCB behaviour. HR practices that were of particular importance in stimulating OCB behaviour included job design, training, performance appraisal, compensation, and participation.

Hussein (2016) assessed the efficiency of human resource management practices in enhancing OCB at three public universities in Ghana and found that the human resource practices of these universities were characterised by insufficient empowerment of employees, insufficient career development opportunities, inadequate compensation, poor training and development interventions and a lack of policies to guide employee behaviour. He also found that the level of job satisfaction was the top priority in employees' decision to enhance performance. Despite the importance of communication, in most cases communication was insufficient. The ineffectiveness of human resource management practices in the three public technical universities were directly linked to an observed disinterest in the success and growth of the organisations. This indicated that employees lacked a sense of belonging. It was also found that in order to advance a sense of empowerment, HR must consciously anticipate the future needs of employees and implement HR practices that will support employee creativity and innovativeness.

4.13 CONCLUSION

The second theoretical aim or research question focuses on the conceptualization of empowerment in the literature. This chapter aimed to address this theoretical objective of the study. Empowerment is key in motivating employees to achieve results that will benefit both the employee and the organisation. In terms of succession planning, empowering employees ensures that there are people available and competent to take over a task when the manager is not available. Empowerment includes various dimensions and involves access to information, inclusive participation, accountability, and local organisational capacity. The approaches adopted to ensure empowerment vary and largely depend on the theoretical perspective and ideology of the individual leader. Thus, empowering an employee can be based on the structural empowerment, psychological empowerment, leadership, or the integrated theory.

In recent times, empowerment is used in different contexts to associate with the symbolic efforts not requiring significant power modification. In the work environment, empowerment is providing employees at all levels the authority and responsibility to make decisions on their own. Such action leads to improving employees' level of confidence and self-reliance, providing employees better access to information, improving the performance of employees, and promoting innovativeness. The empowerment of employees unfortunately also has its downside by creating an unintended consequence of stalled work and abuse of authority to make decisions.

This chapter included discussions on the approaches to empowerment such as the causal model of the empowerment process, empowerment in academic institutions, empowerment framework for organisations, the relationships between leadership and empowerment, and the influence of HR Practices on empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour. The ensuing chapter focuses on and its relationship with leadership and empowerment.

Chapter 5 : ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

This chapter focuses on OCB. The chapter starts with a discussion on the concept of OCB, and then considers the determinants of OCB in organisations. Following this, the importance of OCB is discussed. The chapter ends with a discussion of research done on the relationship between OCB and various organisational variables such as performance, empowerment and job satisfaction, and a discussion on the OCB in an academic institution.

5.0 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 provided a comprehensive understanding of empowerment. The chapter covered various aspects of empowerment, including the concept, dimensions, theories, and approaches of employee empowerment. Additionally, it explored models of employee empowerment in organisations and academic institutions, discussed the benefits and drawbacks of empowerment, and examined its influence on OCB. The third theoretical aim or research question focuses on the conceptualization of OCB in the literature. This chapter aims to address this theoretical objective of the study. The chapter covers various aspects of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), including its concept, theories, dimensions, models, and determinants. It also examines the importance of OCB, its relationship with empowerment, leadership, and job satisfaction, as well as its presence in academic institutions and organisations. The chapter concludes with a summary of these discussions.

5.1 CONCEPT OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

Historically, OCB has been studied under different labels. For instance, Brief and Motowidlo (1986) called it “pro-social organisational behaviour”, Van Dyne and Cummings (1990) referred to it as extra-role behaviour. Also, Staw and Boettger (1990) referred to it as counter-role behaviour and George and Brief (1992) named it as organisational spontaneity. Although OCB has been labelled differently by different researchers, there has been consistency in its definitions and interpretations. Organ (1988) studied the dimensions of OCB and presented the tenets of OCB by refining other studies. Based on what he reviewed, Organ (1988) conceptualized OCB as an

individual behaviour that is discretionary and not directly or explicitly recognised by the organisation's formal reward system. However, its aggregates to promote effective functioning of the organisation. These behaviours in the organisation are internally motivated and it is sustained by the intrinsic need of the individual who has a sense of achievement, competence, belonging or affiliation. Graham (1991) is of the view that OCB constitutes a construct that should be distinguished from work performance and should be considered as the positive behaviour of the individual in an organisation.

OCB are displayed voluntarily by employees of organisations without any assured form of financial reward stipulated in formal job contracts (Ndoja & Malekar, 2020). Employees working beyond formal task behaviour, behaviour based on personal choice, behaviour directed towards the organisation, and avoiding the harmful behaviours to the organisation are considered as displaying OCB (Pickford & Joy 2016; Romaiha et al., 2019). An employee is seen as ideal, if he does not only demonstrate high levels of task performance, but also engages in high levels of OCB (Paille, 2011).

Katz and Kahn (1978) identified three types of behaviours that employees require to ensure the effective functioning of organisations. These behaviours include the decision to join and remain in the organisation; the performance of prescribed roles in a dependable manner; and the undertaking of innovative and spontaneous activities beyond the prescribed role requirements. Among the three types of behaviours, innovative and spontaneous activities were referred to as extra-role behaviour and is required in the organisation to ensure smooth running of the organisation and improved performance (Ndoja & Malekar, 2020). Expanding on the work of Katz and Kahn, Organ conceptualized OCB by grouping it into five categories namely, altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness (Organ, 1988). Organ's conceptualization of OCB is seen to be more robust as it considered a variety of factors and behaviours in organisations. Singh and Srivastava (2016) supported the five categories of OCB and explained each of the factors as follows: altruism means that employees help each other with organisationally relevant tasks while courtesy means treating others with respect. Sportsmanship implies that employees have a positive attitude and are willing to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining. The concern of employee for the welfare of the organisation

and acting responsibly refers to civic virtue. Conscientiousness is discretionary behaviour that goes beyond minimum role requirement of the organisation, such as making phone calls from home to take care of business.

Organ expressed that OCB is dependent on the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place (cited in Miao et al., 2018). When employees feel safe and work in a pleasant work environment, it is likely that they will engage in OCB. Organ further identified examples of OCB as behaviours that increase morale, facilitate collaborative, eliminate barriers to performance, or assist co-workers (Abdullah, 2021). In academia, Bergeron et al. (2014) listed expected job behaviours to include behaviours related to conducting research, assisting postgraduate students in completing their masters or doctoral studies, performing tuition tasks, providing students with study material, responding to enquiries from students, and adhering to standards of lecturing.

Research has shown that OCB has a direct influence on the efficiency of organisations by way of increasing production, improving quality service provided, raising client satisfaction or decreasing customer complaints (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020). OCB in organisations is not explicitly recognized by the reward systems of organisations but it is a contributory factor to the effective functioning of organisations. Therefore, OCB was defined as “*discretionary behaviours on the part of an employee that directly promotes the effective functioning of an organisation, without necessarily influencing an employee’s productivity*” (Acaraya & Akturan, 2015 p. 473). Similarly, Han and Hovav (2016) regarded OCB as discretionary contributions that go beyond the strict role description and that do not lay claim to contractual recompense from the formal reward system. Per the definitions, it implies that OCB is not an enforceable obligation of the role of the person’s employment contract but rather a behaviour of personal choice. Employees that do not wish to engage in OCB can thus not be punished.

Gogia and Haq (2017) indicated that OCB is not an extra role, nor is it rewarded, it rather seeks to improve the work environment. OCB is a set of actions made by the contributor, although not to be financially rewarded but rather for some other kind of recognition or personal satisfaction. Thus, the participation of employees in voluntary work within the organisation is a conscious effort to

engage in activities that will benefit the organisation and other employees. Ranjhan and Mallick (2018) have also indicated that there has been a paradigm shift from the traditional hierarchical and authoritative structures in organisations to autonomous team-based environment and job roles. The shift from traditional hierarchical structures to autonomous, team-based environments and roles implies a growing emphasis on flexibility, collaboration, and employee empowerment in modern organisations. This paradigm change can foster innovation and adaptability by leveraging diverse perspectives, but it may also introduce challenges such as the need for effective coordination and a redefined approach to leadership. For organisations, this shift necessitates investing in skill development, communication tools, and fostering a culture of trust to ensure team autonomy is productive. In academia, OCB which is discretionarily performed may include, working to establish a collegial environment, using creativity and innovativeness to improve systems and procedures, walking the extra mile to help post graduate students complete their masters or doctoral studies, engaging in academic citizenship behaviours, attending major student events, and working to resolve disagreements (Bergeron et al., 2014).

5.2 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR THEORIES

5.2.1 Social Exchange Theory

Employees are seen to be using the social exchange approach when they show commitment and perform better compared to times and periods when only economic rewards existed. According to Berberoglu (2018), employees' commitment is dependent on the perceived commitment of the employer. Employers need to demonstrate that they care about their employees. Within the work environment, the social exchange theory is embedded in the principles of reciprocity where the employer provides special benefits which is non-financial to employees and employees compensate by displaying commitment and outstanding performance.

The social exchange theory is based on the relationship between the employer and the employee. If employees perceive a high level of organisational support, they will identify with the organisation. This reciprocal relationship will then advance the organisations' interests. Employees who perceive the social exchanges to be fair tend to be committed and are less concerned about economic rewards. On the other hand, if employees regard these exchanges as

unfair, they will focus on compensation and will divert their attention to economic issues. The consequence is that employees often leave the organisation for better financial benefits although the reason for leaving is about social issues.

Social exchange features in perceived organisational support and distributive justice (Bala-Subramanian, Srikanth & Thakur, 2022). Perceived organisational support refers to how employees believe their participation is valued (Suifan et al., 2018). When there is high organisational support, it is likely that employees would show dutifulness to compensate for this support. In the view of Xu et al., (2022) social exchanges are evident in cultural groups and therefore membership in cultural groups has a meaningful effect on intra-role performance and OCB.

Empirical studies on social exchange and OCB have found a significant relationship between these two constructs (Xu et al., 2022). The most significant relationship was between perceived support and OCB (Xu et al., 2022). The support provided by a supervisor thus has a significant influence on employees' willingness to engage in OCB. This result is also closely related to the Leader-Member Exchange theory.

5.2.2 Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

The LMX theory posits that leaders develop different relationships with subordinates ranging from low to high quality relationships and leaders adopt different management styles depending on the quality of the exchange relationships (Bos-Nehles & Audenaert, 2019). The leader thus has different relationships with employees and the quality of these relationships define employees' identities as in-group members or out-group members. According to Ibanez and Schaffland (2018), leaders provide different inducement for in-group and out-group types of employees. In-group employees might be favoured with training, promotion, trust and delegation. The relationship between employees and leaders affects the perceptions of employees about their status in the organisation. When employees realise that they are insiders of the organisation, they tend to regard themselves as the citizens of the organisation and accept the relevant responsibilities. They also will positively participate in the activities beyond explicit role requirements and refuse the activities that may damage the operation of the organisation.

Studies on LMX and OCB have been based on the social exchange theory, which argue that leaders give more trust and support to those subordinates with whom they wish to build high quality relationships. Subordinates, on the other hand, maintain these quality relationships by engaging in OCB. As soon as a trusting relationship exists, leaders appeal to the higher-order social needs of followers by getting them to place collective interests over short-term personal gratification. Studies on LMX and OCB has revealed an effect of LMX may be different owing to different situational factors, especially regarding the different authority value orientation of individuals. Sa'adah and Rijanti (2022) reported a positive relationship between LMX and OCB. However, a study by Afshan et al. (2022) that focused on the relationship between LMX, self-esteem and OCB, contradicted these results. Their results indicated that there was no significant association between LMX and OCB with self-esteem as a mediating factor. In general, in an environment in which relationships are important, superiors' emotional support and guidance play an important role in assisting subordinates to attain high levels of performance (Afshan et al., 2022).

In organisations, employees' attitudinal variables are very influential in employees engaging in OCB (Ahad & Khan, 2020). Paais and Pattiruhu (2020) indicated in their study that the relationship between leader and members of the organisation was significant in terms of motivating employees to engage in OCB. In their review of studies on OCB, Soelton et al. (2020) focused on individual-level determinants and identified variables such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and supervisory support as conditions associated with individuals exhibiting high levels of OCB in organisations. Similarly, Kayaalp et al. (2022) and Hidayah and Harnoto (2018) have shown job satisfaction to be a predictor of OCB.

5.3 DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

OCB can be grouped into seven dimensions namely, helping others (altruism), sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development (Grego-Planer, 2019). A meta-analysis done on the dimensions identified by Organ revealed that helping others (altruism), sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and conscientiousness is each predicted by different antecedents and is related to different

consequences (Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006; Grego-Planer, 2019). Han and Hovav (2016) and Ajlouni et al. (2019) explore the five dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as predicted by various antecedents. The first dimension, helping others, is considered the most common form of OCB in organisations. It encompasses altruistic actions such as assisting colleagues who have been absent, resolving interpersonal conflicts, and promoting harmonious interactions within teams. These behaviours contribute to a supportive and collaborative work environment, fostering better organisational outcomes.

The second dimension, sportsmanship, involves a willingness to endure inevitable inconveniences at work without complaint. Employees demonstrating sportsmanship often prioritize the group's welfare over personal interests, displaying resilience and adaptability. This behaviour helps maintain a positive workplace atmosphere, especially during challenging times.

The third dimension, civic virtue, refers to active participation in organisational governance. Employees exhibiting civic virtue engage in activities such as attending meetings, contributing to policy discussions, and staying informed about organisational issues. Such behaviours reflect a deep sense of responsibility and commitment to the organisation's success.

Courtesy, the fourth dimension, highlights efforts to prevent conflicts and maintain respectful relationships within the organisation. Examples include being considerate of colleagues' needs, consulting others before making decisions that affect them, and ensuring effective communication through reminders or briefings. Courtesy fosters a culture of mutual respect and minimizes workplace tensions.

Finally, conscientiousness pertains to going beyond the minimum expectations of one's role. This includes behaviours like using organisational resources judiciously, maintaining punctuality, and consistently executing tasks with diligence. Employees who exhibit conscientiousness enhance organisational efficiency and serve as role models for others in the workplace. Collectively, these dimensions illustrate the multifaceted nature of OCB and its critical role in promoting a thriving organisational culture.

In another meta-analysis of the dimension of OCB, the concept was classified into two aspects namely, pro-social (directed toward individuals or the organisation) and proactive (change-oriented) (Krimbill et al., 2019). Pro-social OCB refers to behaviour that directly benefits the organisation and other people while proactive OCB refers to the employee's contribution made in terms of changes. Similarly, Muniandy (2017) clustered the dimensions of OCB as identified by Organ into two categories namely OCB-Individual factors and OCB-Organisational factors. The first type (OCB-I) involves OCB that is directed towards an individual similar to the pro-social concept as identified by Krimbill et al. (2019). Two of the five dimensions namely, altruism and courtesy are combined as OCB-I. The second type (OCB-O), similar to proactive OCB as identified by Krimbill et al. (2019), is directed towards the benefit of the organisation. Conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship form part of OCB-O.

1. Tsai and Tsai (2017), drawing from Organ's classification, identified three components of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) from a political perspective: obedience, loyalty, and participation. Obedience refers to an employee's adherence to organisational rules, policies, and procedures, even when they are not being directly monitored. It reflects a sense of discipline and commitment to maintaining the established order within the organisation. Loyalty involves promoting and protecting the organisation's interests, demonstrating allegiance to its goals, and advocating for its success. Employees exhibiting loyalty often prioritize organisational objectives over personal gains and act as ambassadors for the organisation. Lastly, participation encompasses active engagement in organisational activities beyond one's job responsibilities. This includes contributing to discussions, volunteering for initiatives, and collaborating on projects that enhance the organisation's growth and development. Together, these dimensions emphasise the broader political and cooperative aspects of OCB, highlighting the importance of both individual and collective contributions to organisational success.

According to Tan et al., (2018), obedience and loyalty represent the informal behaviour of "good citizens". The description of OCB has also been reduced to two dimensions namely altruism, and generalized compliance (Arda et al., 2017). OCB has been linked to citizenship behaviours which include obedience, loyalty and political participation (Fiaz et al., 2018).

After conducting a comprehensive review of the literature on OCB, Yadav and Morya (2019), categorized OCB according to two approaches. The first approach is based on the nature of behaviour and the second approach is based on the target of behaviour. The categorization based on the nature of behaviour supports Organ's 1988 five-dimensional framework while the categorization based on the target of behaviour is based on the two OCB dimensions of OCB-O and OCB-I.

Anggraeni et al. (2017) identified nine dimensions of OCB, each emphasising distinct aspects of positive employee conduct. The first dimension, a cooperative attitude, reflects an individual's willingness to work collaboratively with others to achieve organisational goals, fostering teamwork and unity. Tolerance towards appropriate working conditions highlights employees' adaptability and acceptance of reasonable workplace circumstances, contributing to a stable and harmonious environment. Additionally, good self-enhancement of a positive deed focuses on an employee's proactive efforts to demonstrate constructive behaviours that inspire others and elevate overall organisational morale.

The dimensions also emphasise the importance of organisational commitment and alignment. Loyalty to the organisation underscores employees' dedication and allegiance, where they prioritize the organisation's interests and actively support its mission. Similarly, the internalization of organisational aspects reflects an employee's integration of the organisation's values, culture, and objectives into their own actions. These behaviours collectively strengthen the organisational fabric, ensuring that employees are not only compliant but also deeply connected to the organisation's core principles.

The final set of dimensions pertains to actions that enhance workplace dynamics and organisational development. The behaviour of helping at work refers to altruistic acts that support colleagues and enhance team effectiveness. Tolerance towards an uncomfortable workplace denotes resilience and the ability to endure less-than-ideal conditions without letting it hinder productivity. Furthermore, effort in developing a positive organisation captures an individual's commitment to creating a supportive and growth-oriented work environment. Lastly, responsibility and constructive organisation highlight accountability and proactive contributions toward improving

organisational systems and outcomes. Together, these dimensions provide a comprehensive framework for understanding OCB and its vital role in driving organisational success.

5.4 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR MODELS

5.4.1 Concentric Model of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The concentric model of OCB was developed by Israni (2019) based on a study conducted in China. The study found 10 dimensions of OCB existing in China which could not adequately fit existing classifications of OCB which were based on targeted beneficiaries of OCB. The findings of this study initiated thinking about the context in categorising OCB. The concentric model classifies OCB into four domains namely, self, group, organisation, and society. The model is presented below:

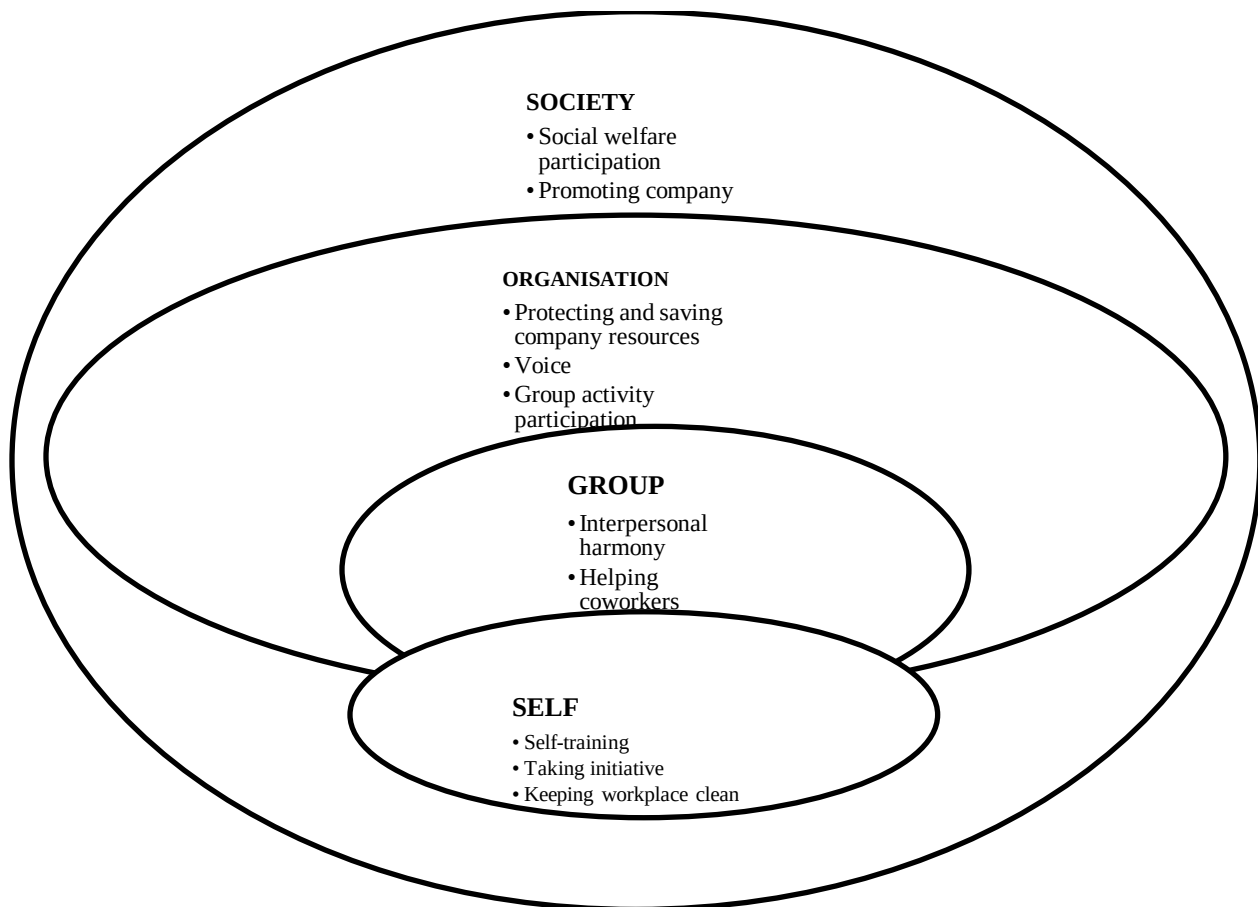


Figure 5.1: Concentric model of OCB

Source: Israni (2019)

Israni (2019) explained the four levels of the concentric model of OCB as follows:

Self-domain: This is the inner circle which refers to contributions made by the individual purely out of the individual's own wish. These may include the individual taking up training voluntarily to improve on work efficiency.

Group domain: This refers to contributions made voluntarily towards organisation work performance through interaction and teamwork.

Organisation domain: At this level, activities are relevant to the organisation's resources, governance, and workflow.

Society domain: This transcends beyond the boundaries of the organisation and refers to contributions related to social welfare and participating in and promoting the organisation's image.

5.5 DETERMINANTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

OCB in every organisation is dependent on the presence of some conditions in the organisation. In workplaces, high levels of organisational commitment are found to be positively and significantly related to an extensive number of extra-role workplace behaviours (Ike et al., 2017). Favourable working conditions stimulates employees to go the extra mile, sacrificing their own personal well-being for the greater good that they identify with, whether it be a unit, a team or a community (Kahn, 2018). Affective organisation commitment (AOC) which involves feelings of belonging and attachment toward the organisation (Kim & Beehr, 2020; Mensah et al., 2016) plays a particular important role in encouraging OCB (Samsudin et al., 2018). According to Alkhateri et al. (2018), AOC is considered a significant predictor of organisational behaviour of the employee. They also reported that AOC influences both behavioural intentions and actual behaviour of individual employees in the organisation.

Various studies have confirmed that organisational justice is a powerful predictor of OCB (Salam, 2020). There are different forms of organisational justice namely distributive, procedural, and interactional justice have a different influence on OCB. According to Van Craen and Skogan (2017), procedural justice, which involves how processes and procedures are applied, has a direct influence on perceptions of fairness. Employees that do not trust the procedures to be fair will display low levels of OCB. In contrast, when employees realise that procedures are fair, they are willing to accept decisions, even if they are not completely satisfied with the results. With regards

to distributive justice, Salam (2020) believe that employees that do not accept the decision, have alternative options to reduce the perceptions of injustices. In such situations, high performing employees may change their behaviour by reducing their output. Distributive justice refers to the fair and equitable allocation of resources, goods, and opportunities within a society. It focuses on ensuring that everyone receives their fair share based on various principles such as equality, equity, and need (Nuzula & Nurmaya, 2020). Distributive justice does not have the same influence on OCB as in the case of organisational justice.

According to Chan and Lai (2017), interactional justice involves perceptions about the quality of communications from decision makers to employees regarding the explanation and implementation of formal decisions. Interactional justice can be categorized into two groups: informational and interpersonal justice. The interpersonal justice is the employee's belief that their employer has treated them in a respectful and honourable way. Informational justice refers to the extent that the employer acted in a transparent manner and communicated with the employees to clarify the procedures and how the decision was made. Behaviours associated with interactional justice include being treated with respect, rules and regulations being applied consistently and management acting in a transparent manner (He et al., 2017). Swalhi et al (2017) referred to interactional justice in the workplace as the quality treatment of employees.

Employees from different socio-cultural backgrounds bring different career aspirations and value systems to their work. In traditional societies, complex attitudes are influenced by the norms, sanctions, and pressures of the small group, family, and community. In such societies value is placed on preference for personal ties, acceptance, and hierarchical nature of power. These factors inspire the behaviour of employees from such societies—with higher probability of performing task that are not formally outlined in job roles known as OCB (Gyekye & Haybatollahi, 2015; Rurkkhum & Barlett, 2018). Gyekye and Haybatollahi (2015) mentioned that in collective cultures, people are obliged to be obedient and loyal to their superiors. As such, work settings are also characterized by a hierarchical system based on inequality, paternalism, and submission to authority. Therefore, employees from collective cultures are likely to engage in OCB. Also, Rurkkhum and Barlett (2018) as well as Gyekye and Haybatollahi (2015) have reported that in a collectivistic and high-power-distance culture, age is a significant predictor of individuals'

preparedness to engage in OCB. Thus, they all concluded that older employees engage significantly more in OCB than their younger counterparts. Hendryadi et al. (2019) reported that in cultures where there is bureaucracy, innovation and support, there is a strong relationship between participative and supportive leadership behaviours and organisation commitment.

According to Tan et al. (2023), determinants of OCB include job satisfaction, organisational commitment, leadership behaviour, leader-member relationships, role clarity, fairness perceptions, individual dispositions, and age. The relationship of these factors and OCB are explained as follows:

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment: Employees with increased levels of job satisfaction actively engage in citizenship behaviours and as such illustrate a reduced tendency to look for new job opportunities. When employees are satisfied, they communicate positively about the organisation, help others, and perform job-related activities beyond formal job expectations.

Leadership behaviour and leader-member relationships: The quality of an employees' relationship with their leader plays a key role in the performance of the employee. Thus, a good relationship ensures that employees exhibit high levels of OCB which has a positive impact on the performance (Dartey-Baah et al., 2019). This implies that leaders and, hence, their leadership style have a strong influence on employees' willingness to engage in OCB. According to Jilani and Juman (2015), positive reinforcement such as recognition and appreciation relate positively to OCB.

Role clarity and fairness perceptions: Role clarity includes factors such as role conflict and role ambiguity, both of which have been found to be related to OCB. Role clarity and role facilitation are positively related to OCB (Adil et al., 2023).

Individual dispositions: Personality variables such as general attitude, conscientiousness and agreeableness have all been found to predispose people to orientations which make them likely to engage in OCB. The idealization of OCB as a set of behaviours primarily influenced by workplace perceptions might explain why measures of personality have not been widely applied in OCB

studies. Nonetheless, personality could be a crucial factor for controlling its influence on behaviour or examining potential moderating effects.

Motivational Theories: It is expected that employees that are motivated engage in OCB than less motivated employees. However, the source of the employee's motivation level will determine the extent to which the employee will engage in OCB. If the source of motivation is intrinsic, then the employee would engage in OCB. On the other hand, if the source of motivation is extrinsic, such as rewards being offered, then the willingness to engage in OCB will depend on the value of the reward (Tan et al., 2023).

Age: According to Tan et al. (2023), younger employees, as opposed to older employees, are more prepared to align their needs with organisational needs and hence engage in OCB. Based on the explanation by Tan et al. (2023), the interrelationship between OCB and the factors are graphically represented below:

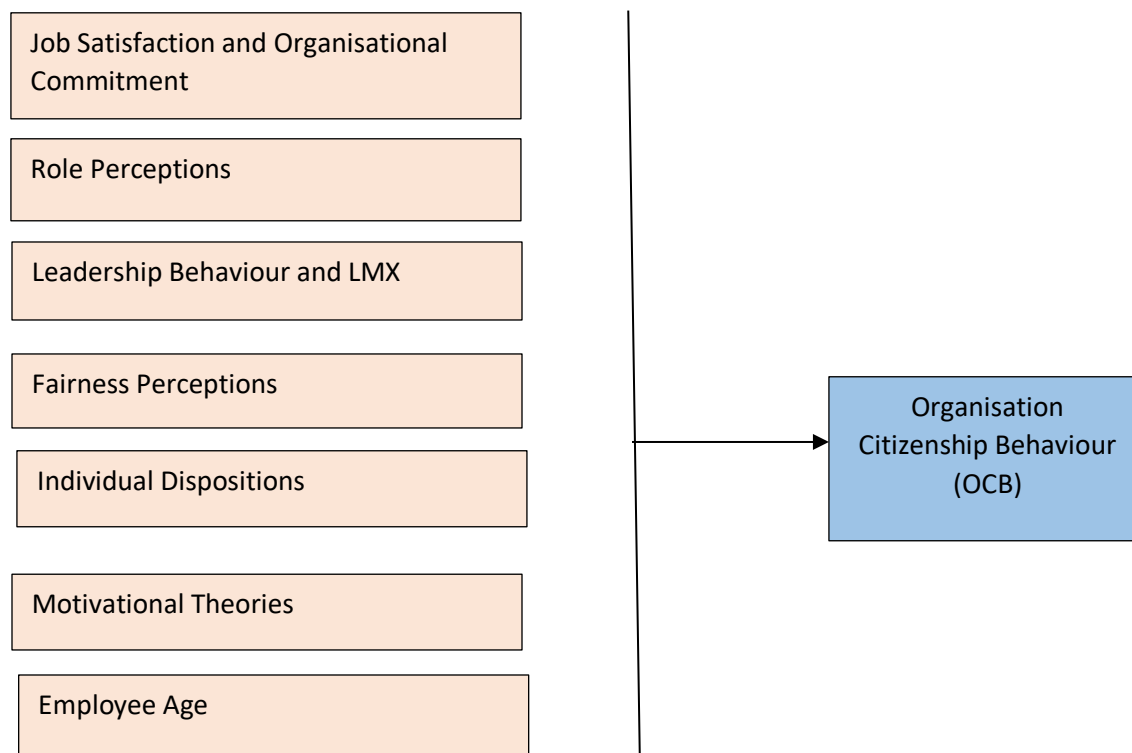


Figure 5.2: Determinants of OCB

Source: Adapted from Nadim and Muzahid (2004)

5.6 IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

The importance of OCB cannot be emphasised enough because organisations will never be able to include every possible task required to be successful in a formal job description. Organisations will, however, not be able to function without employees engaging in voluntary acts of citizenship behaviour. Measuring the effect of OCB is difficult because organisations do not generally include the assessment of OCB in any performance measures. However, studies have proved that OCB benefits organisations in many ways. Hermawan et al. (2021) identified the value of OCB as helping in achieving high performance levels and creating a competitive advantage to the organisation.

Setyowati et al. (2021) identified the following benefits of OCB in organisations: job satisfaction, customer satisfaction, quality and quantity of the service or product, sales performance, customer complaints, and revenue. Ugwu and Igbende (2017) have also added that OCB are important in promoting optimistic relationships among employees and involving employees in the organisation's activities.

According to Rahmawati (2018), OCB affects the efficiency of organisations in the following ways: increasing managerial and co-worker productivity; freeing resources so they can be used for more productive purposes; reducing the need for the use of scarce resources in maintenance functions; helping to coordinate activities through work teams; strengthening the ability of the organisation to attract and retain the best employees; increasing performance stability of the organisation; and enabling the organisation to adapt more effectively to changes in the environment (Hermawan et al., 2020).

OCB does not only contribute to organisations' effectiveness, but it shapes organisations' social and psychological environments (Gyekye & Haybatollahi, 2015). Employees need a psychological safe work environment to extend their efforts beyond the formal job requirements. The role of OCB in the success of an organisation cannot be underestimated. Jehanzeb (2020) indicated that OCB is key in the advancement and growth of an organisation, performance improvement and job satisfaction.

OCB at the individual level, helps newly appointed employees become productive more quickly because they are exposed to the OCB displayed by colleagues (Chang & Uen, 2022). Shannahan et al. (2017) considering OCB at the group level, stated that several studies have revealed a positive relationship between OCB and unit sales and operating efficiency. In the study of Geiger et al. (2019) OCB was divided into OCBI and OCBO where OCBI refers to citizenship behaviour targeted at individuals such as helping behaviour and OCBO refers to citizenship targeted at the organisation such as civic virtue and sportsmanship. The result of the study suggested that behaviours targeting individuals positively influence knowledge sharing. According to Mitonga-Monga et al. (2016), engaging in OCB results in the solidification of the employees' sense of self-efficacy and accountability and an opportunity to access resources from the organisation. Employees who receive support from colleagues may be influenced to reciprocate by also engaging in these extra-role behaviours. Ocampo et al. (2018) are of the view that increased OCB in organisations can lead to reduced costs and increased productivity, efficiency, and customer satisfaction.

As regards academic institutions, González García et al. (2020) identified several reasons for the study of OCB, especially in distance learning universities. These reasons include OCB influences work performance of the organisation, and it strongly impacts the mood and satisfaction of employees; perception of fairness; and supervisory support from the higher authorities and the organisation. Similarly, Wilkins, Butt and Annabi (2018), in their study on multinational higher education institutions, identified a significant relationship between extra-role behaviours (OCB) and job satisfaction. Their result suggested a significant relationship between employee identification with the organisation and the individual extra-role behaviour. Thus, the employee having a sense of identification with the organisation is key in influencing their desire to engage in extra-role behaviour which is not part of their role description. When employees are satisfied with their jobs, they continue to engage in extra-role behaviours with less supervision.

Most studies on OCB have focused on the advantages of such discretionary behaviours. However, researchers such as Rauf (2016) and Koopman et al. (2016) have argued that there are drawbacks and costs associated with OCB. In this regard, Rabenu et al. (2017) identified role overload, job

stress and work-family conflict as negative outcomes for individuals that engage in OCB. It was indicated in a study that academics that spend considerable amount of time on OCB may do so at the expense of formal job requirements such as research, publications, and tuition (Bergeron et al., 2014). Interestingly, it is usually not academics who engage in OCB that receive promotion.

5.7 LIMITATIONS AND DRAWBACKS OF OCB

OCB is widely acknowledged as beneficial for fostering collaboration, improving workplace harmony, and enhancing organisational performance. However, critical perspectives reveal that OCB is not without limitations and potential drawbacks. One of the primary concerns is the potential for exploitation of employees who engage in discretionary efforts. Since OCB involves behaviours that go beyond formal job requirements, such as helping coworkers or voluntarily working overtime, employees who frequently engage in such behaviours may be overburdened or taken for granted by managers and peers. This can lead to burnout and dissatisfaction over time, especially if these efforts are not formally recognized or rewarded (Bolino et al., 2015). Furthermore, excessive engagement in OCB may shift employees' focus away from their primary job responsibilities, potentially leading to decreased performance in their core tasks (Bergeron, 2007).

Another limitation of OCB is the potential for unfairness and resentment among employees. When managers consistently rely on certain individuals to perform OCBs, such as mentoring or taking on extra work, it can create perceptions of inequity in the workplace. Employees who do not engage in OCB may feel undervalued, while those who engage extensively may perceive that their extra efforts are not being adequately rewarded or reciprocated (Podsakoff et al., 2009). This can foster an environment of competition and mistrust, where employees are reluctant to engage in OCB for fear of exploitation or because they perceive it as being unaligned with their career growth.

From a broader organisational perspective, OCB may also unintentionally reinforce an unsustainable work culture. For example, an overemphasis on OCB can blur the boundaries between formal and informal job roles, making it difficult to differentiate between standard

expectations and exceptional behaviours. Managers might begin to view OCB as an informal but expected component of employees' roles, which could erode clear job descriptions and lead to role ambiguity (Bolino et al., 2015). This expectation of continuous discretionary effort can also increase workplace stress, resulting in negative long-term outcomes for employee well-being and retention (Organ, 1997). Additionally, the organisational focus on encouraging OCB might inadvertently deprioritize systemic solutions for structural problems, such as inadequate staffing or inefficient workflows, by relying on employees to fill these gaps informally.

Finally, cultural differences can influence how OCB is perceived and executed within organisations. In collectivist cultures, employees may naturally feel more inclined to engage in helping behaviours, while in individualist cultures, OCB might be viewed as overstepping boundaries or as unwelcome interference (Farh et al., 2004). These cultural discrepancies may pose challenges for global organisations that aim to promote OCB uniformly across diverse teams. Moreover, OCB that is intended to help colleagues or the organisation might sometimes backfire. For instance, excessive helping behaviours might encourage dependency among coworkers, thereby limiting their ability to develop autonomy and problem-solving skills (Bolino et al., 2015). In extreme cases, OCB might even be used strategically by employees to build personal reputations or curry favour with management, rather than out of genuine altruism, which can undermine team trust and collaboration (Vigoda-Gadot, 2006).

5.8 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCB AND EMPOWERMENT

OCB plays an important role in organisational performance and its effectiveness and one of the factors that can contribute to organisational citizenship behaviours is empowering employees. Employee empowerment is aligned with human resource development. Empowerment leads to staffs' willingness to take on additional tasks, sense of belonging and motivation. The enhancement of positive behaviour and independency in shaping and regulating activities eventually lead to the success of the organisation. Park (2017) defined empowerment as a movement from hierarchical system of decision-making by managers toward the hierarchical system of decision-making by lower ranked employees.

Chib (2016) saw the outcome of empowerment to be organisational commitment, professional commitment and OCB. Similarly, Afram et al. (2022) found that variables such as professional growth, leadership support and empowerment influence OCB of operational staff through the job attitudes. They further mentioned that professional growth and empowerment variables have direct effect on OCB. Xu et al. (2022) stated that empowered employees who recognize a high-quality social exchange relationship with their manager are likely to be involved in OCB. Kloutsiniotis and Mihail (2018) also argue that employees that feel empowered are likely to perceive the link between their actions and broader organisational outcomes and feel more responsibility for helping others over and above what is specified in their job requirements. Additionally, Turnipseed and VandeWaa (2020) concluded in his research that there is a relationship between all dimensions of empowerment and OCB and Chib (2016) show that if empowerment level is greater, OCB will be higher too.

Hossein and Somayeh (2018) studied the relationship between empowerment and OCB in the centre of Tehran University of Medical Sciences and found that there was a significant positive relationship between OCB and empowerment. Thus, when an employee experiences a high level of empowerment, his display of OCB will also be high (Shahri et al., 2015). The connection between empowerment and OCB is believed to be rooted in the principle of reciprocity, as per Ghalavi and Nastiezaie (2020). This principle, as defined by Neumann (2019), is a societal norm that compels individuals to reciprocate the gifts, favours, and services they have received. The argument is that, if employees feel psychologically empowered, they should feel an obligation to reciprocate with positive employee behaviours, which may take the form of OCBs. From the perspective of Ghalavi and Nastiezaie (2020), leadership empowerment behaviours with the purpose of distributing power to lower levels of the organisational hierarchy provide employees with a sense of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact and this increase employee engagement in OCBs. Similarly, Joo et al. (2016) also revealed that leader empowerment behaviour is perceived as good deeds that will stimulate employees to go beyond their defined work tasks to reciprocate to their employers.

In a study conducted by Abdulrab et al. (2020) titled “The Effect of Psychological Empowerment on Citizenship Behaviour of Employees in Social Security Corporation”, the findings pointed out

that there is an impact of psychological empowerment on citizenship behaviour. The results of the study also revealed that there were no statistical differences among demographic variables of employees regarding psychological empowerment and citizenship behaviour. Naderi and Hoveida (2013) through a survey measured the relationship between employees' psychological empowerment and OCB. The University of Isfahan in Iran was the study area and the employees in the university were the population of study. The study found that there is a relationship between human resources psychological empowerment and OCB. Thus, human resource empowerment can bring about positive OCB. The study further indicated that empowering frontline employees who directly interact with faculties and students to deliver services is desirable managerial practice in higher education. This is because the empowered employees will display high level OCB leading to provision of a better experience for clients. They concluded that without empowerment, university managers cannot be successful in delivering in their mission of higher education. Managers are very key in the empowerment of human resources because they have a direct or indirect influence on all organisation factors. That managers should provide the necessary context for empowerment by delegating more power to employees, giving them independence and freedom, providing a collaborative atmosphere, feeling meaning and impact at work and eliminating conditions which lead to powerlessness of employees. Since empowerment of human resources offers potential capacities for utilizing human resources abilities which are not used totally creates a powerful OCB between employees. Higher human resources empowerment nurtures an environment where employees can engage in OCB.

Kariuki and Kiambati (2017) studied empowerment, organisational commitment, OCB and firm performance using a manufacturing firm in Kenya. The study employed the survey method where questionnaires were administered to employees in the manufacturing firms. The results of the study showed that employee empowerment had a positive and significant influence on organisational performance; organisational commitment mediated the relationship between employee empowerment and organisation performance; and OCB did not have a moderating effect. The results further support the social exchange theory that empowered employees are willing to reciprocate with high levels of commitment given that they believe in their work and themselves. However, the test of moderating effect of OCB on the relationship between empowerment and performance indicated that the interaction between OCB and empowerment is not a significant

predictor of performance. The variants of psychological empowerment that were considered in the study included personal development, self-determination, initiation, substantial impact and competency. The study found a positive relationship between psychological empowerment and voluntary behaviours among academic staff (Serikan, 2013). Thus, psychological empowerment significantly influenced voluntary behaviours of academic staff. Drawing from social exchange theory, Tastan and Serikkan (2013) explain that empowerment can result in high quality exchange resulting in employees engaging in OCB.

5.9 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCB AND LEADERSHIP

Leadership appears to have a strong influence on an employee's willingness to engage in OCB. It is positively related to OCB (Asgari et al., 2020). Leadership enhances team spirit, morale and cohesiveness in the employees which in turn leads to organisational commitment. It also indirectly influences employee perception of fairness or justice in the workplace (Holtz & Hu, 2017). Other empirical studies report a positive relationship between leadership styles and the performance of OCB in organisations. The study of González-Cruz et al. (2019), for instance, found a direct relationship between supervisor's leadership style and performance (in-role and OCB), and partial support for the mediating influence of organisational politics on the relationship between supervisor's leadership style, in-role performance and OCB.

In a literature review on six leadership paradigms, namely transformational, transactional, charismatic, ethical, servant and consideration were empirically investigated vis-à-vis OCBs and were all found to have positive relationship with OCBs (Subhaktiyasa et al., 2023). These are discussed in the subsequent sub-sections.

5.9.1 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) and Transformational Leadership

The role of transformational leadership can partly help stimulate the personnel to reflect organisational citizenship behaviour. Leelamanothum et al. (2017), in their study entitled the "Causal Model of Transformational Leadership Affecting Trust, and Justice on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour", found that the relationship between transformational leadership, trust and

OCB was statistically significant. Saif et al. (2016) have also shown that transformational leadership had significant positive impact on OCB.

Transformational leaders motivate followers in three important ways (Subhaktiyasa et al., 2023). These ways are increasing follower self-efficacy, facilitating followers' social identification with their group or organisation and linking the organisation's work values to follower values

Further, Subhaktiyasa et al. (2023) revealed that transformational leadership approaches have shown that leaders who articulate a vision have positive effects on employee attitudes, role clarity, and extra-role behaviours. Thus, a transformational leaders' self-sacrificial behaviours influence followers by influencing norms of reciprocity by projecting leaders as role models and by demonstrating the personal importance that leaders themselves attach to the vision.

5.9.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) and Transactional Leadership

Transactional leaders provide tangible or intangible support and all forms of resources to followers in exchange for their efforts and performance; they specify rules of the game, and they set and maintain standards (cited in Subhaktiyasa et al., 2023). To get followers to perform, transactional leadership employs a series of rewards including pay increases and promotions, or punishment including disciplinary actions and job termination. As such, transactional leadership is usually not successful when rewards or punishments are being controlled, or when the employees do not want the reward or act out of fear to avoid punishment (Firda & Ferine, 2023). Researchers have established that positive relationship exists between transactional leadership and followers' attitudes and behaviours. For instance, the study by Liu et al. (2023) found a significant relationship between contingent reward/transactional leadership and organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs).

Iriqat (2017) studied gender leadership styles in enhancing workforce performance using the OCB as a mediating factor. The study found that female transformational leadership style had a positive significant direct impact on workforce performance, while male transformational leadership style has a positive significant direct impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. Moreover, there was no direct impact of male transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles on organisational

citizenship behaviour. Meanwhile, female transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles were found to have a positively significant and direct impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. The study also revealed that the OCB does not have a significant direct impact on workforce performance in the Palestinian public institutions for both male and female leaders.

5.9.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCBs) and Charismatic Leadership:

Charismatic leaders emerge when social situation is stressed, and four conditions or situations necessitate their emergence (Shamir & Howell, 2018). These conditions are as follows:

1. When the situation threatens some important values,
2. When the relationship between performance and goal accomplishment is unclear or ambiguous
3. When the situation is unstable, and
4. When the situation requires exceptional efforts.

Under these conditions, charismatic leaders influence followers through their use of symbols, images, stories and rhetoric to perform at extraordinary levels. They are leaders who typically stood for some cause, had a vision of a better future, and are most of the time willing to sacrifice everything to prove to their followers how committed they are to achieve the vision (Subhaktiyasa et al., 2023). With similar features as transformational leaders, charismatic leadership has positive correlation with OCB.

5.9.4 Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) and Ethical Leadership:

According to Kaptein (2019), ethical leadership is a demonstration of proper normative behaviour in personal behaviour of the leader. As such, ethical leaders demonstrate these normative behaviours through being caring, trustworthy, honest, and fair (Kapur, 2018a). Liu et al. (2023) explain that ethical leaders focus on moral values and fairness in all their decisions, consider the impact of organisational decisions on the external parties and clearly communicate to employees how their actions at work contribute to the overall goals of the organisation. Ethical leadership, therefore, is about properly and morally influencing people in the right direction towards attaining organisational objectives. Ethical leadership forms the foundation of effective performance and

practices in organisations (Sharma et al., 2019). Ethical leaders develop high quality exchange relationship with their followers. This relationship leads to loyal and commitment to the organisation (Niemeyer & Cavazotte, 2016) resulting in followers displaying OCB in the organisation.

Studies have shown that ethical leadership has a positive effect on OCB (Ye et al., 2022) depending on the social learning and social exchange theories to explain the effect of ethical leadership on OCB. Yang and Wei (2018), however, studied the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB using the social identity theory to offer an additional perspective to understanding the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB. The study of Yang and Wei (2018) found that the effect of ethical leadership on OCB is moderated by workplace ostracism, while organisational commitment mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and OCB. They, therefore, concluded that ethical leadership can affect OCB through shaping the organisational commitment which in turn widens the outcome of ethical leadership and antecedents of OCB. According to Liu et al. (2023), employees in jobs rated high in task significance who perceive their leaders to be ethical put more effort into their jobs and engage more in organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs).

Ethical leadership is found to moderate the relationship between employee organisational commitment and OCB. The moderation of ethical leadership in the relationship between organisational commitment and OCB is such that when employees perceive ethical leadership to be high, the connection between organisational commitment and OCB is also high (Mitonga-Monga & Cilliers, 2016).

5.9.5 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCBs) and Servant Leadership

Servant leadership encourages collaborative, trust, foresight, listening, and the ethical use of power and empowerment. Coetzer et al. (2017) stated that servant leaders have been found to be effective because the needs of followers are so looked after that they reach their full potential; hence, they perform at their best. Furthermore, studies have found significantly positive relationship between servant leadership and employee OCB (Walumbwa, Hartnell & Oke, 2010). There has also been an observed weakness with respect to servant leadership. In the studies of Sharma et al. (2019) as

well as Coetzer et al. (2017), it was observed that serving people's needs alone in any social group creates the image of being compliant, not a very positive image. This is because people's interest is seen as an end not a means to an end.

5.9.6 OCB and Contemporary leadership paradigms

Moving on from the six leadership paradigms, Subhaktiyasa et al. (2023) identified the modern or contemporary leadership paradigms from their search in literature and found that there are no studies connecting these modern leadership paradigms to OCB. These modern leadership paradigms include adaptive, dispersed, authentic, respectful, spiritual, transcendent, empowering, level 5, and open leadership paradigms. The modern leadership paradigm is explained next.

Adaptive Leadership: This is the type of leadership that comes up with future vision that inspires others to accept change and be part of the process of achieving the vision. Andenoro et al. (2017) outline the characteristics of adaptive leadership as follows:

- being competent in one's field;
- being objective in handling decisions and problems;
- being reflective in looking at one's own attitudes and behaviour;
- being trustworthy in dealing with other's interests;
- being innovative in the pursuit of better performance;
- being focused in an attempt to maintain efficient operations;
- being open-minded in considering relevant information and perspectives;
- being confident that meaningful outcomes may be achieved;
- being intuitive in considering tacit knowledge and experience;
- having character by exhibiting exemplary morals and values;
- having initiative and being willing to act; and
- having the courage to take a stand for principle.

Dispersed Leadership: This type of leadership is seen to depart radically from the traditional leadership approach where there is differentiation between the leader and the follower (Gordon, 2010). Under the dispersed leadership, the dualistic power relation between the leader and follower is not very much noticed. There is the promotion of sharing of power between the leader and the

follower. Empirical research has suggested that the dispersed leadership model has the potential of providing more robust leadership approach than the traditional models of leadership and it also offers a promising approach for the elimination of corruption among executive leadership (Pearce, Manz & Sims Jr., 2008).

Authentic Leadership: This leadership model is seen as a process that combines positive leader capacities and a highly developed organisational context (Joo et al., 2016). Key characteristics of authentic leaders are that they are true to themselves, and they exhibit behaviours that positively transforms and develops employees into leaders (Subhaktiyasa et al., 2023).

Respectful Leadership: This is relatively a new leadership model. As such, there are limited research on it and its definition has not been straight forward. However, the earlier leadership scholars tried to define it by identifying 19 behavioural characteristics from their research participants (Gerpott et al., 2012). These behaviours were categorized as trusting, conferring responsibility, considering needs, maintaining distance, appreciating, being error-friendly, granting responsibility, considering needs, maintaining distance, appreciating, being error-friendly, granting autonomy, acknowledging equality, promoting development, being open to advice, accepting criticism, excavating potential, seeking participation, taking interest on a personal level, being reliable, being attentive, supporting, and interacting friendly. Gerpott et al. (2020) mentioned that interpersonal respect between leaders and their followers is relevant for the productive cooperation in organisations and strong with regards to employee's commitment to the organisation.

Spiritual Leadership: Dhiman (2017) explain that “spiritual leadership could be seen as an observable phenomenon occurring when a person in a leadership position embodies spiritual values such as integrity, honesty, and humility, creating the self as an example of someone who can be trusted, relied upon, and admired. Spiritual individuals are more prone to demonstrate spiritual leadership; however, individuals do not have to be spiritual or religious to provide spiritual leadership” (cited in Subhaktiyasa et al., 2023). With this leadership model, the suspicion of scholars is that organisations could use it to manipulate and exploit employees to fulfil their selfish objectives.

Transcendent Leadership: A transcendent leader is a strategic leader who leads within and amongst the levels of self, others, and organisation (Subhaktiyasa et al., 2023). A transcendent leader can anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to initiate changes that will create a viable future for the organisation (Nair, 2016).

Level Five Leadership: According to Caldwell et al. (2017), this leadership paradigm is based on the idea that respect towards people, selflessness by the leader and a strong powerful commitment to achieve results leads to subordinates producing the best of performance (cited in Subhaktiyasa et al., 2023). Identified qualities of level five leadership are a combination of stubbornness, ruthlessness, humility, ambition, and rarely allowing their ego to be a stumbling block to success of the organisation (Subhaktiyasa et al., 2023; Caldwell et al., 2017). Leaders that fall in the level five leadership model will attribute accomplishment of the organisation to the subordinates, some other external factors or sheer luck.

Open Leadership: Open leadership uses social technologies to lead employees and customers where there is constant learning allowed (Subhaktiyasa et al., 2023). Sonmez and Adiguzel (2019) define open leadership as a new way of building relationships with organisation's most engaged and potentially most valuable customers and employees, especially when listening and learning that form the basic elements of open leadership are easy to adopt. Leaders that fall in this category of leadership paradigm are seen to be curious about customers, about their employees, about suppliers, about industry trends, and about the wider world (Sonmez & Adiguzel, 2019).

5.10 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OCB AND JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Purwanto et al. (2021) defined job satisfaction as the positive emotional reactions and attitudes an employee has towards their job assignment. According to Liu et al. (2016), job satisfaction is considered as one of the most researched concepts in work and has been recorded to mediate the relationships between employees with work conditions, and organisational and individual outcomes.

Technically, job satisfaction is more of an affective reaction to one's job, an evaluative measure and, consequently, an indicator of working conditions (Wagner, 2017). This view on job satisfaction implies an expression of satisfaction reflect cognitive appraisals of the fairness or equity of the social exchange that employees enjoy with their organisations. Studies on job satisfaction and OCB have suggested a consistent positive relationship between employee satisfaction and citizenship behaviours. For instance, Meynhardt et al. (2020) as well as Asgari et al. (2020) expressed that employees with higher levels of job satisfaction have actively engaged in citizenship behaviours more than their colleagues with lower expressions of job satisfaction. Further, Meynhardt et al. (2020) added that the greater the derived satisfaction, the greater the motivation to actively participate in citizenship behaviours.

In a study conducted by Vaijayanthi, Shreenivasan and Roy (2014), they found that job satisfaction was related positively to OCB and performance. Thus, satisfied employees are likely to engage in both in-role and extra-role behaviours that are beneficial to the functioning of the organisation. They concluded that when employees engage in these kinds of behaviours, it is likely that organisational efficiency will be enhanced and that processes of the organisation will run more smoothly.

Mitonga-Monga et al. (2016) studied the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB in DR Congo and found the dimensions of OCB (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, civic virtue) were positively and significantly related to the total satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with promotion, satisfaction with co-workers, satisfaction with supervisor and satisfaction with work itself. Sharkie (2009) suggests that the evaluation of an individual's job and their emotional condition can inspire employees to contribute more than what is strictly required by their job roles and responsibilities. In other words, they offer contributions that are not explicitly outlined in their job descriptions.

Lilly (2015) emphasised that efficiency and productivity of businesses have direct, positive and significant association with organisational citizenship behaviour. Further, scholars such as Lam, Liang, Ashford and Lee (2015) also amplified the growing importance of OCB in organisations and identified job satisfaction, job security, justice, personality, role perceptions, organisational

commitment and leadership traits as related variables of OCB. Thus, individuals that exhibit high levels of OCB also exhibited the above stated variables in their work. On the other hand, stressful work environment and job dissatisfaction negatively affect citizenship behaviours (Pooja et al., 2016).

Silva and Caetano (2016) assert that there is no significant relationship between organisational justice and extra-role behaviour in a high-power distance and collectivistic societies. On the contrary, Wan (2017) found a stronger correlation between job satisfaction, civic virtue, and courtesy. In essence, job satisfaction increases employee interest to participate appropriately and responsibly in company matters to enhance corporate governance. Proactive, responsible participation in the political life of the organisation improves employee awareness of the affairs and developments at the workplace. Employees are likely to go for self-improvement to enhance competencies to stay up to date with important issues of the organisation. Further, Wan's (2017) study emphasised the importance of job satisfaction on courtesy. As courtesy concerns undertaking and carrying out the obligation of cooperation with others, increased job satisfaction would probably enhance teamwork, create a more disciplined and committed workforce and improve behaviours and attitude at the workplace.

Bohle and Alonso (2016) found that there is a negative relationship between job insecurity and OCB. Specifically, when an organisation fulfils its obligations to employees by providing job security, they may respond favourably increasing their contributions to the organisation, such as OCB. However, with increasing job insecurity, employees perceive that their organisations are providing less benefit and, therefore, no longer feel so compelled to reciprocate positively, resulting in lower levels of OCB. Also, the study found support for the proposed underlying mechanisms of procedural fairness that enables a deeper understanding of the conditions that translate perception of job insecurity into lower organisational citizenship behaviour. Employees will compensate for the lack of fairness that they feel is exhibited by the organisation by lowering their OCB. Thus, the perception of fairness and procedural fairness is strongly related to the stress experience in an organisational setting.

Scholars have reported numerous studies that found positive correlations between organisational support, organisational commitment of employees and OCB. For instance, Aubé et al. (2007) studied 249 employees in Canada by using cross-sectional research design and found that organisational support significantly effects the organisational commitment of employees. Similarly, Kim, Eisenberger and Baik (2016) also showed the positive effect of organisational support towards affective commitment of employees. Thus, it is seen that when employees perceive that the company takes care and rewards their contributions, the employees will feel emotionally attached to the company (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Jain et al. (2013) as well as Kim et al. (2016) have also added that organisational support improves a good impression in the minds of employees and then, encourages employees to accept the organisational goals and values, and effectively improves their attitude and behaviour. Organisational support encourages positive attitudes of employees and comfortable conditions of work. Meanwhile, Hu, Wang, Yang and Wu (2014) as well as Miao (2011) have also found the positive influence of organisational support on the OCB that is reflected by helping co-employees at work in completing tasks and giving innovative suggestions for the operational activities of the organisation. There are positive influences of organisational commitment on OCB. Emotional attachment as a form of the employees' commitment is more likely to influence citizenship behaviour. This bond tends to encourage the level of employees' participation to think effectively in developing and achieving the organisational goals. Employees' attachment to the workplace and colleagues also encourages them to get involved in working together in a harmonious environment and to build the positive image of the organisation (Anggraeni et al., 2017).

Thomas et al. (2017) studied the role of OCB and rewards in strategy effectiveness and found that OCB-O has no direct influence on strategy effectiveness, but participation, as a form of social reward, partially mediates the OCB-O strategy effectiveness relationship. The result of their study also found that the negative mediation effect reveals that excessive participation reduces strategy effectiveness. In terms of extrinsic reward practices, process rewards partially and positively mediate the relationship. Focusing on OCB-O their results contribute to the call for more nuanced studies into OCB relationships and performance and to the recent debate surrounding whether certain OCB behaviours are perceived as rewarded. The study highlighted that whilst OCB-O is not in itself an important precondition for fostering effective strategy performance, organisational

structural processes in the form of reward practices can foster beneficial OCB-O which supports strategy effectiveness. In conclusion, job satisfaction has been found to have a positive relationship with job performance and OCB which in turn can help in reducing employees' absenteeism, turnover and psychological distress. Employees with high level of job satisfaction are more likely to engage in OCB.

Naiemah and Sin (2017) studied the relationship between task performance, OCB, work deviant behaviour and career satisfaction in the health institution. The data for the study was gathered through a survey of nurses in public health institutions in the Northern Region of Peninsular Malaysia. The result of the study indicated that there was strong relationship between task performance and OCB. Thus, nurses in the public health institution have accomplished their task as prescribed in their job description, and at the same time they displayed a high role of voluntary behaviour. Also, the results showed that the more employees engaged with OCB, the more they are satisfied with their career. Based on the findings, Naiemah and Sin (2017) recommended that the necessary action must be taken by the management to ensure all nurses remain in these kind of positive behaviours

5.11 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS

Stronge (2018) expressed that teachers are responsible to perform their professional teaching, research, and professional grading of students. These duties require that teachers commit considerable efforts and time in preparing teaching lessons, provide guidance to their students and to some extent undertake administrative work. In the view of Sari et al. (2019), to ensure success for schools, the role and responsibilities of the teacher must go beyond his stated job descriptions. Thus, the teacher must perform non-prescribed roles and responsibilities in order that he or she will be considered as effective (Shaheen et al., 2016). Somech and Oplatka (2015) claimed that studies on OCB in the school environment are new but has high level of potential and implications for the study of school effectiveness. Meanwhile, Shaheen et al., (2016) have outlined that the importance of OCB in schools has been recognised lately as it has direct effect on schools' effectiveness.

Researchers like Quraishi and Aziz (2018), along with Stronge (2018), have suggested that the accomplishment of school objectives and student success largely hinges on the teacher's readiness to exceed the formal responsibilities outlined in their job description. Thus, teachers exhibiting OCB positively affect schools' and students' success. Going further into the result of Quraishi and Aziz's (2018) study, it was found that OCB has significantly contributed to the improvement of student achievement, teachers' satisfaction level, sense of self-fulfilment and the improvement of school reputation, image and discipline. Similarly, Tingbani (2019) studied OCB in the high school setting and found that there is a strong correlation between OCB and student achievement. Further, Oyetunji (2023) has stated that the performance of OCB will increase the ability to deal with student special needs, improvement of student discipline and enhance classroom performance. In addition, Tingbani (2019) also mentioned that if employees in schools practice organisational citizenship behaviour, then the top managements of schools will allocate more time on other core activities such as planning and problem solving.

In the book "Organisational Citizenship Behaviours in schools: Examining the impact and opportunities within educational systems", Somech and Oplatka (2015) indicated that OCBs are essential employee behaviours because the formal in-role job descriptions cannot cover the entire array of behaviours needed for achieving organisational objectives. OCB impact greatly on organisational effectiveness through social capital, increasing efficiency and enhancing organisational productivity. OCB is indirect and it influences social and psychological environment of organisations, frees up resources, especially employee time for more productive purposes, help coordinate activities within the organisation and enable employees to adapt more effectively to environmental changes.

According to Choong et al. (2020) teacher's OCB is a multifaceted construct that is critical to school effectiveness and to the education enterprise. In a study conducted in China, the OCB scale developed by Bo Shiuan Cheng in 1993 was used to interview 493 teachers in eight different cities. The results showed that teachers' that exhibit OCB had positive work performance and influenced their career and organisational turnover intention. Also, teachers' attitudinal characteristics of career satisfaction and career commitment, and the dispositional characteristic of locus of control,

influenced teachers' OCB. Based on the finding, Choong et al. (2020) recommended that school administrators could use the findings of the study to serve as a foundation of knowledge to enhance their school's organisational function and retain teachers, by looking at OCB and its impact on teacher's overall performance.

Academic institutions just like any other organisation require its members (academic and non-academic staff) to exhibit OCB in all endeavours. For instance, Rose et al. (2016) found that lecturers' exhibiting OCB (altruism, courtesy, and conscientiousness) impacted positively on the student achievement. Halid et al. (2020) conducted a study on academics in private higher learning institutions in Malaysia. They looked at various potential mediators to OCB and concluded that among all the variables, organisational commitment seems to be the most significantly impactful variable in explaining exhibition of OCB among academicians.

Eyupoglu (2016) examined the existence of OCB amongst academic staff at the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences at a private university in North Cyprus. The results showed that academic staff do perceive themselves as engaging in organisational citizenship behaviour. The reason for the faculty engagement in OCB stem from the fact positive attitudes are expected to result in positive behaviours; positive behaviours in turn is expected to bring positive results to the faculty as well as the university. Based on the findings of the study, Eyupoglu (2016) concluded that it is important for the faculty and university administration to be knowledgeable of the factors that will affect academic staff's extra role/voluntary behaviours and their commitment to the university. This is because higher educational institutions are organisations where OCB is a necessity if the institutions are to survive.

Exploring the antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is essential for academic leaders to systematically foster such behaviours within schools. Somech and Oplatka (2015) identified three primary groups of antecedents that encourage teachers to exhibit OCB. The first group, individual level factors, pertains to personal attributes, such as teachers' intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, and commitment to the profession. These factors influence how likely an individual is to engage in voluntary actions that benefit the school community. Teachers with a

strong sense of purpose and alignment with their roles are more inclined to go beyond their job descriptions to support their colleagues and students.

The second and third groups emphasiseemphasise relational and systemic influences. Dyadic-level factors focus on the quality of interpersonal relationships, particularly between teachers and their leaders. A supportive, trusting relationship can inspire teachers to demonstrate OCB through loyalty and extra effort. Meanwhile, organisational-level factors involve broader institutional elements, such as school culture, leadership style, and resource availability. A positive and empowering organisational climate motivates teachers to contribute constructively to the school's success. Together, these antecedents highlight that cultivating OCB in educational settings requires a multi-faceted approach that integrates personal, relational, and organisational strategies. These antecedents which encourage teachers to perform non-job description roles and duties known as OCB have certain consequences that emanate. Thus, if teachers do exhibit OCB in schools, there are two level consequences that will be established namely, Individual-Level factors, and Organisational-Level factors. The antecedents of OCB and its consequences is graphically presented in Figure 5.3.

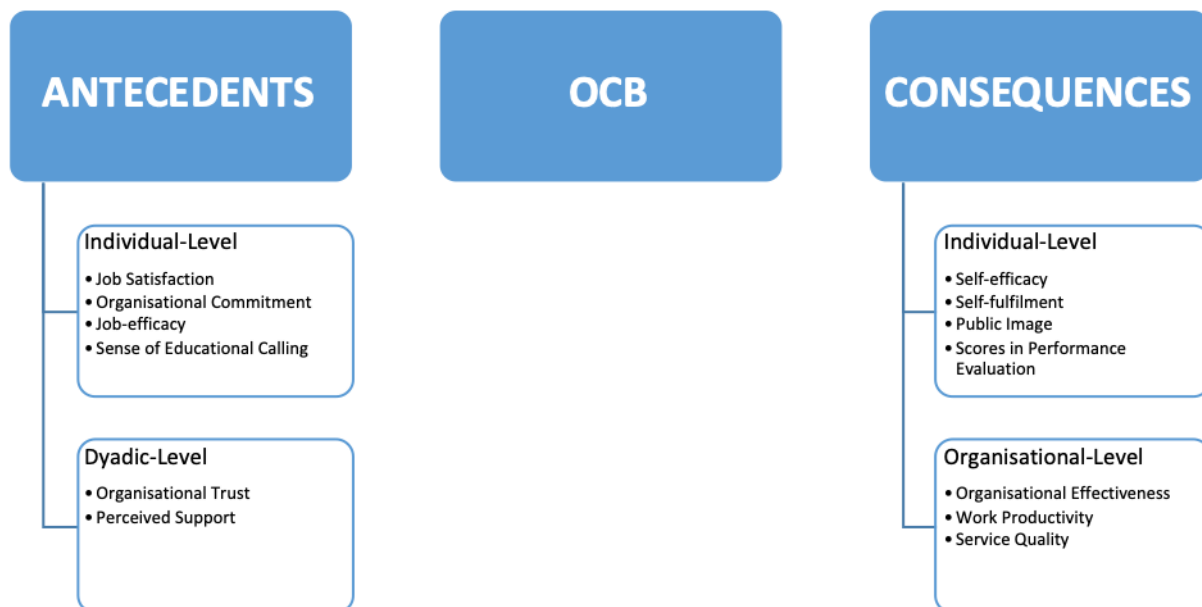


Figure 5.3: Antecedents of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Source: Adopted from Somech and Oplatka (2015).

Figure 5.3 illustrates that for OCB to be displayed in organisation by employees there should be some pre-existing factors or antecedents. The antecedents occur at two levels—the individual level and dyadic level. At the individual level, when the employee perceives to be satisfied with his job, committed to the organisation, has a sense of educational calling, and efficacy of the job exist, the employee has higher probability of displaying OCB. Additionally, on a dyadic level, it is essential for an employee to have faith in the organisation and perceive some degree of organisational support. When these conditions are met, the employee is more inclined to exhibit OCB. When these two conditions exist (antecedents), employees display OCB, and the consequences are seen at two levels—the individual level and the organisational level. At the individual level, displaying OCB when the antecedents exist results in self-efficacy, self-fulfilment, a positive public image, and higher scores in performance evaluations. At the organisational level, the consequences include improved organisational effectiveness, higher productivity, and higher-quality service.

5.11.1 OCB dimensions in organisations and Academic Institutions

The five dimensions of OCB has been grouped into OCB-I (altruism, courtesy) and OCB-O (conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue). The OCB-I is directed towards the individual while that of the OCB-O is directed towards the organisation. Erturk (2007) mentioned that, although the cluster of OCB into OCB-I and OCB-O and its effect have been established, studies focused on it in different organisational context in limited, especially in the academia. This notwithstanding, In the view of Lemoine et al. (2015), OCB-O focuses on organisational effects while OCB-I focuses on individual-level effects in the workplace. . In the study, it was found that OCB-O has a direct impact on employees' attitudes and work characteristics, while OCB-I indirectly affects organisational performance. These findings highlight the crucial role of maintaining a harmonious balance and fostering positive employee interactions. In the context of academia, González García et al. (2020) noted a distinction between OCB-O and OCB-I. They found that job satisfaction, a key precursor to OCB, has a positive correlation with OCB-O, but this correlation does not extend to OCB-I. However, Liu et al. (2023), based on their study where they found a positive correlation between OCB-I and OCB-O among employees, concluded that individuals who are inclined to exhibit OCB-O are likely to exhibit OCB-I.

The antecedent framework in Figure 5.3 gives an indication that there is no expected difference between the OCB dimensions, OCB-O and OCB-I, in the school settings (Muniandy, 2017). Thus, one who performs OCB towards individual—OCB-I (altruism and courtesy)—also has the tendency to exhibit similar behaviour towards the benefits of the organisation—OCB-O (sportsmanship, consciousness and civic virtue). Based on this conjecture, Muniandy (2017) conducted a study on OCB among teachers in rural and urban primary schools in Sabah, Malaysia and that there were significant positive correlations between OCB-O and OCB-I for both school categories.

5.12 CONCLUSION

Empirically, leadership has been found to affect organisational citizenship behaviour. Through effective leadership, organisational members exhibit behaviours of discretionary nature which are part of formal requirements of their roles in the organisation, but which promote the effective functioning of the organisation. Also, OCB is influenced by the characteristics of work environment. For instance, employees with high level of empowerment, develop the competence to take charge of their own personal and professional growth and resolve their personal and organisational problems well. Such empowered employees are more likely to engage in OCB which has a positive effect on the organisation in terms of performance. Leaders are key in the empowerment of employees as they influence directly or indirectly factors in organisations. Leaders empower employees by delegating power to them, giving them independence and freedom, providing a collaborative atmosphere, feeling meaning and impact at work, and eliminating conditions which lead to powerlessness of employees. These improves employees' competence level and the likelihood that employees will employ their own initiative to improve organisational performance. Thus, empowerment leads organisations closer to achieving OCB.

The third theoretical aim or research question focuses on the conceptualization of OCB in the literature. This chapter aimed to address this theoretical objective of the study. The current chapter reviewed literature on OCB. The review examined how OCB has been conceptualized by different scholars, Theories that explain OCB, the dimensions of OCB, determinants of OCB were also discussed. The review also linked leadership with OCB, examined the relationship between

empowerment and OCB. It can therefore be concluded that leadership is key in achieving OCB in organisations as it is required to empower employees to be innovative to improve organisational performance. Thus, leadership is required and essential in empowering employees and when employees are empowered the higher possibility that they will engage in OCB to improve organisational performance.

The next chapter of the study will discuss the research methodology adopted to conduct the study. The discussions will touch on the study design, the target population, study locations, methods of data collection and analysis.

Chapter 6 : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology used in this study. Academic and administrative staff of public universities in Ghana formed the sample. The empirical investigation is discussed according to the steps in the research process. The chapter concludes with a summary of the research methodology applied in this study.

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on a discussion of OCB and its theories, namely Social Exchange Theory and Lead-member Exchange Theory. This chapter focuses on the research methodology of the study. The key things that will be discussed in this chapter include the research paradigm, research assumptions and choice of research paradigm. This chapter includes a description of the formulation of the research objectives, sampling, the measuring instruments, methods used to ensure reliability and validity, research design, research variables, data collection process, data processing and analysis. The chapter ends with the discussion on the ethical considerations adhered to by the study.

6.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

A research paradigm, often referred to as a "worldview," represents the ideological orientation of researchers toward the social world they aim to explore (Saunders et al., 2019). It serves as the foundational framework that underpins the research process, influencing how questions are posed, how data is collected, analysed, and interpreted, and ultimately how conclusions are drawn (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Selecting an appropriate paradigm is essential as it ensures alignment between the research methods, the study's objectives, and its underlying philosophical orientation.

In essence, a paradigm is a conceptual framework within which researchers operate. It defines their philosophical stance and significantly impacts every decision made during the research process, from choosing the methodology to applying specific methods (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). According to Malhotra et al. (2016), a paradigm consists of underlying assumptions encompassing

shared knowledge, standards of evaluation, problem domains, and ways to approach them. This conceptual framework allows researchers to make informed decisions about how to study their subject matter effectively.

Adopting a specific research paradigm enables scholars to elucidate the ontological (nature of reality) and epistemological (nature of knowledge) foundations that guide knowledge development in their field of inquiry (Dudovskiy, 2018). This philosophical orientation not only informs the methodology but also shapes the overall approach to inquiry, influencing how facts are interpreted and contextualized within the research environment. Research philosophies include a range of paradigms such as positivism, realism, interpretivism, and pragmatism, each offering unique perspectives on the nature of knowledge, truth, and reality (Saunders et al., 2019). These paradigms provide a coherent structure for conducting research, guiding processes from hypothesis development to data collection and analysis, ensuring rigor and consistency.

A research paradigm can be described as a set of assumptions that provides a philosophical and conceptual foundation for systematically studying the world (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). It consists of beliefs about what constitutes reality, how knowledge is created, and what is valuable to learn. For researchers, clarity about their beliefs and assumptions is critical, as these underpin their approach to inquiry (Davies & Fisher, 2018). Each paradigm is defined by specific ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions that distinguish it from others (Creswell, 2014; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Understanding and recognizing their philosophical orientations within the context of the adopted paradigm helps researchers maintain consistency and coherence throughout their work.

6.3 RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

Research assumptions form the foundational beliefs that guide a study, shaping its philosophical stance and methodological choices. These assumptions include ontological, epistemological, and axiological perspectives, each addressing critical aspects of the research process.

Ontology pertains to the nature of reality and reflects a researcher's philosophical stance on the essence of social phenomena. In this study, guided by the positivist paradigm, reality is assumed to be objective, existing independently of individual perceptions. The relationships between leadership, empowerment, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) are considered measurable and can be understood through systematic observation and quantitative analysis (Crotty, 1998).

Scholars emphasise that ontological assumptions shape how researchers perceive social reality. Bradshaw et al. (2017) argue that ontology reflects whether reality is ongoing and independent (objective) or shaped by beliefs and perceptions (subjective). Christensen et al. (2013) further note that objective reality, also called objectivism, assumes that social entities exist independently of social actors. In contrast, subjectivism holds that social phenomena are constructed through individual perceptions and actions (Pearlson et al., 2019). In social science research, clearly articulating one's ontological stance is crucial, as it informs the foundation of the study's inquiry and shapes the interpretation of findings.

Epistemology concerns the nature of knowledge and focuses on the relationship between the researcher and the reality being studied. This study adopts a post-positivist epistemology, acknowledging that while knowledge is primarily objective, measurements and observations can be imperfect. To mitigate such imperfections, the study employs rigorous methodologies aimed at reducing bias and ensuring the validity and reliability of findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Epistemological assumptions define what counts as accepted knowledge and the methods used to acquire it. Neuman (2014) explains that epistemology explores how researchers come to understand the world and how reality is captured. According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2012), epistemology involves determining appropriate methods for inquiry into reality, specifying the criteria for evaluating legitimate knowledge. Blaikie (2010) elaborates that epistemology establishes when knowledge is deemed adequate and credible, thus influencing the methodological approach.

Axiology relates to the role of values in research and considers the impact of a researcher's personal biases and ethical considerations. Within the positivist paradigm, axiology emphasises the need for neutrality and objectivity. This study strives to minimize researcher bias by adhering to transparent and standardized procedures during data collection and analysis. Such efforts ensure that findings remain objective and valid (Moustakas, 1994).

In essence, Ontology and epistemology are interrelated, forming the basis of a paradigm's philosophical framework. Ontology addresses the nature of reality, while epistemology focuses on how knowledge about that reality is acquired. Blaikie (2010) and Neuman (2014) emphasise that paradigms such as positivism, interpretivism, realism, and pragmatism each present distinct logical relationships between their ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions. These paradigms reflect the major theoretical directions in social science research, guiding researchers in aligning their assumptions with the study's objectives and methods.

6.4 CHOSEN PARADIGM

This study adopts the Positivist Paradigm, a research approach grounded in the belief that knowledge is best derived from observable, measurable phenomena. The positivist research paradigm originates from the natural sciences and is characterized by its focus on formulating hypotheses based on established theories and testing them through empirical observation and measurement (Straub, Boudreau, & Gefen, 2004). It operates on the assumption that an objective, external reality exists independently of the researcher's perspective. This paradigm asserts the existence of a single, unbiased truth that can be discovered using systematic, scientific methodologies (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988). Consequently, positivist research adopts a structured approach, beginning with identifying a research problem, developing hypotheses, and selecting methodologies to test these hypotheses in a controlled, replicable manner.

To maintain objectivity, positivists emphasise emotional neutrality and distance themselves from participants, ensuring that their analysis is unaffected by personal biases or value judgments (Yulianto, 2021). This separation underscores positivist ontology, which upholds the belief in an objective reality that can be understood through rigorous, scientific investigation. Key concepts

like reliability, validity, and statistical significance are integral to this paradigm, as they enhance confidence in the study's ability to explain social phenomena. Although positivists recognize that complete understanding may not always be attainable, they strive for approximations that offer practical insights (Killam, 2013). In marketing and social sciences, a softer version of positivism acknowledges the complexities of human behaviour while adhering to objective analysis principles, producing probabilistic rather than deterministic outcomes (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Hunt, 1991).

The positivist paradigm emphasises quantitative methods, often applying methodologies akin to those in the natural sciences to the social sciences (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020). Quantitative research employs structured methodologies like controlled experiments and surveys to collect numerical data, test hypotheses, and establish causality (Saunders et al., 2019). These methods facilitate generalization, as findings derived from representative samples can be applied to broader populations (Brennan et al., 2011). This approach allows researchers to eliminate bias, promote replicability, and enhance the predictive understanding of phenomena (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Straub et al., 2005). Through statistical tools, relationships between variables can be explored with precision, while visualizations such as graphs and tables improve data interpretation (Ahmad et al., 2019).

Quantitative research in the positivist paradigm follows a deductive logic, starting with theoretical propositions and moving toward empirical verification (Saunders et al., 2019). Sampling techniques ensure the representativeness of the study population, enhancing the generalizability of findings. The emphasis on objectivity means researchers strive to minimize human bias and maintain value-free inquiry (Johnson & Christensen, 2019). This confirmatory approach focuses on testing theories and hypotheses, enabling researchers to derive causal or correlational insights while ensuring that methods remain scientifically rigorous and replicable (Gelo et al., 2008).

Despite its strengths, positivism has faced criticism for its limited consideration of subjective human experiences and interpretative dimensions of reality (Fox, 2008). Critics argue that the paradigm's focus on observable phenomena and numerical data may overlook the richness of human emotions, values, and social contexts (Lauer & Pacyna, 2023). Nevertheless, positivism

remains widely used in fields where empirical evidence and generalizability are paramount. For instance, it has been particularly effective in organisational research, allowing for systematic analysis of leadership and empowerment dynamics through quantitative metrics.

The paradigm's utility lies in its ability to test hypotheses and produce verifiable insights that inform policies and practices. By maintaining a structured methodology, positivists ensure transparency and replicability, addressing complex social phenomena through an empirical lens (Christensen et al., 2013). As a result, positivism continues to play a crucial role in advancing scientific understanding and applying evidence-based solutions to societal challenges, particularly in areas where measurable outcomes and causal relationships are essential (Berryman, 2019; Feilzer, 2010).

6.5 RATIONALE FOR CHOOSING POSITIVISM

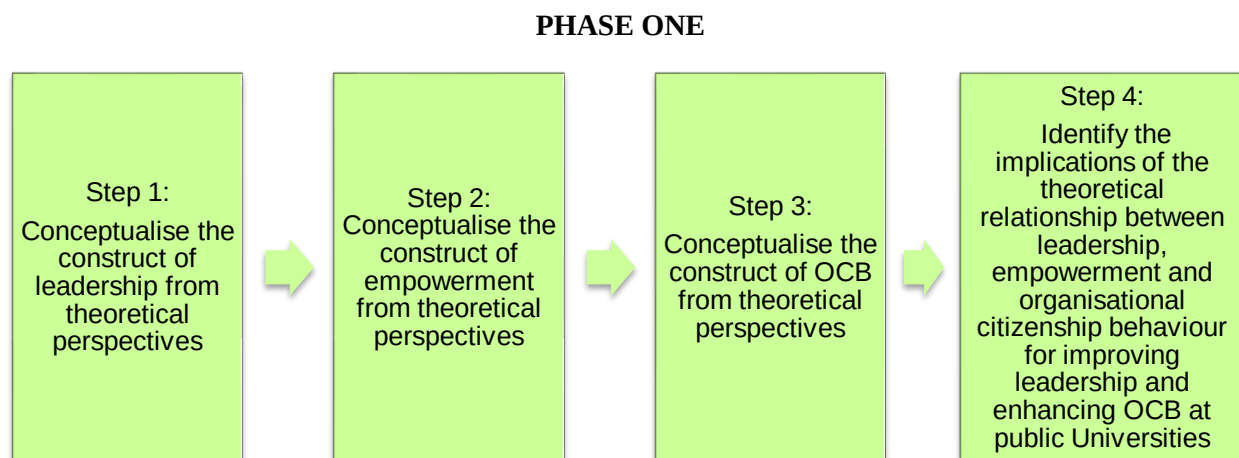
The adoption of the positivist paradigm is particularly fitting for this study, as its focus on quantitative methods aligns seamlessly with the research objectives. This paradigm emphasises the collection of numerical data to measure and analyse the relationships among leadership, empowerment, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). Quantitative research techniques, such as surveys and statistical analysis, enable the study to test hypotheses with precision and reliability. The systematic nature of this approach ensures that the findings are not only valid but also replicable across different contexts, which is a cornerstone of positivist research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

By employing quantitative methods, the study can establish patterns and causal relationships among the variables, providing a robust framework for understanding how leadership and empowerment influence OCB. The use of statistical tools to analyse data allows the researcher to eliminate subjective interpretations, maintaining the objectivity required in positivist research. Furthermore, the numerical format facilitates the visualization of results through graphs and tables, enhancing the clarity and accessibility of the findings for diverse audiences. This methodological rigor contributes to producing generalizable conclusions that can inform broader organisational practices and policies.

The paradigm's commitment to empirical evidence and structured methodologies also supports the study's aim to contribute to both theoretical and practical knowledge. By focusing on testable hypotheses, the research adheres to the principles of positivism, which prioritize systematic inquiry and factual validation. These attributes make the positivist paradigm particularly effective for studies that seek to generate actionable insights. For example, the findings may help organisations design leadership development programs and empowerment initiatives that foster OCB, thereby enhancing workplace productivity and collaboration. This alignment with positivist principles ensures that the research remains grounded in scientific rigor while addressing real-world challenges.

6.6 PHASES IN THIS RESEARCH

The steps followed in the conduct of the empirical study are illustrated in Figure 6.1.



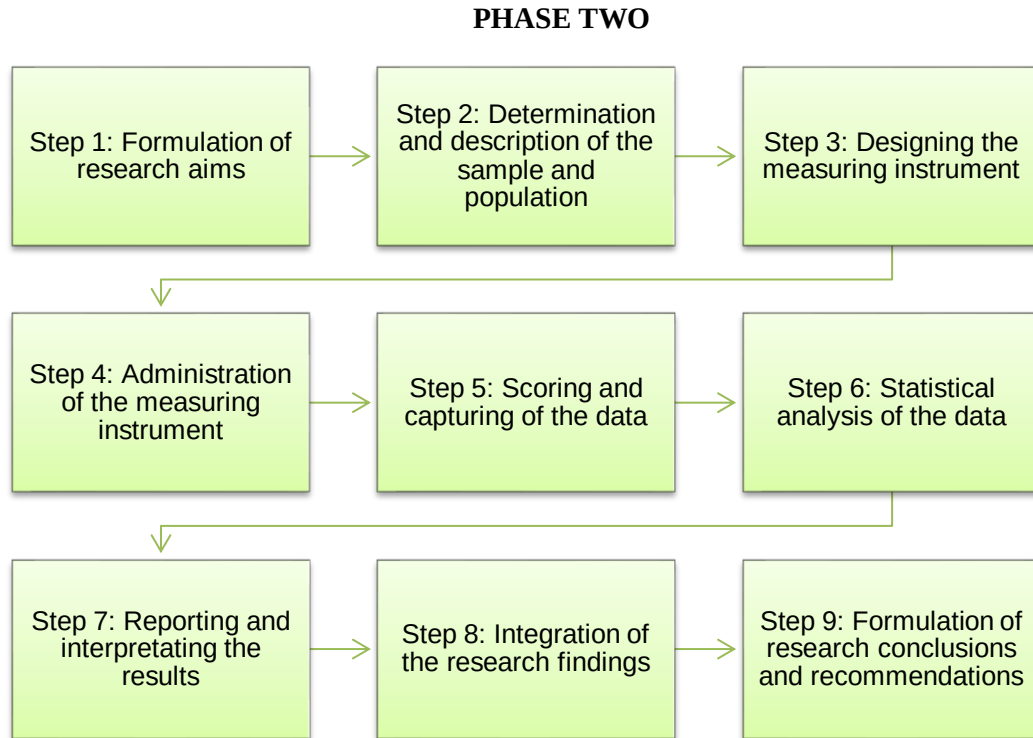


Figure 6.1: Steps in the research process

Source: Author's own construct

Phase one: Literature review

The literature review, which was the first phase, provided the theoretical background, findings of previous studies, how the theory related to the research and, lastly, how the research added to the existing body of knowledge (Snyder, 2019). In this case, the literature review served to conceptualise leadership, empowerment and OCB in public universities. The steps followed in this phase were as follows:

- Step 1:** Conceptualise the construct of leadership from theoretical perspectives.
- Step 2:** Conceptualise the construct of empowerment from theoretical perspectives.
- Step 3:** Conceptualise the construct of OCB from theoretical perspectives.
- Step 4:** Identify the implications of the theoretical relationship between leadership, empowerment and OCB for improving leadership and enhancing OCB at public universities.

Phase Two: Empirical study

The empirical study constituted the second phase of the study. This phase included:

Formulation of research objectives

The research objectives were formulated to outline what this study wished to achieve and to determine the appropriate statistical analyses.

Research Participants

The empirical study took place amongst a total population of about 10,890 staff in the four public universities selected for the study. Specifically, the population comprises the management, academic and non-academic staff in public universities. The unit of analysis refers to the units in which variables are measured, and these could fall into any of the following categories: individuals, groups, organisations or society. In this study, the unit of analysis is the individual. The population included individuals of different gender, age, educational level, marital status and job level.

Reporting and interpreting the results

Once the results have been analysed, they are presented in tables, diagrams, and/or graphs. This includes a description of the sample and its representation in terms of the total population. The discussion of the findings is presented in a systematic manner that is clearly understandable. This ensures that the interpretations of the findings are conveyed coherently to limit ambiguity and confusion.

Integration of the research findings

The results of the empirical research are integrated into the findings of the literature review.

Formulation of research conclusions and recommendations

In this step, conclusions are drawn from the results obtained and from the integration of these results with the theoretical framework. This step provides an overview of the research findings, which serve as answers to the research questions posed at the beginning of the research project. Recommendations are also made regarding critical leadership competencies necessary to empower

employees and promote OCB. The overall contribution of the study is outlined, and the research limitations are then discussed.

6.7 FORMULATION OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The specific aims of the empirical study were to:

- Research objective 1:** Examine the relationship between leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour
- Research objective 2:** Explore the relationship between empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour
- Research objective 3:** Evaluate the relationship between leadership and empowerment
- Research objective 4:** Investigate the moderating and mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB.
- Research objective 5:** Determine the extent to which individuals from different gender, age, educational level, and job level differ regarding leadership, empowerment and OCB
- Research objective 6:** Develop a leadership competency framework for the appointment and development of leaders at universities in Ghana to ensure the empowerment of employees and the enhancement of OCB.

6.8 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE AND POPULATION

The total number of employees of the four public universities is approximately 10,890 making up the total population for the study. This forms the population from which the sample was drawn for the study. The total population comprised of 3036 employees from the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, 4964 employees from University of Cape Coast, 2077 employees from University of Education, Winneba, and 813 employees from University of Allied Health Science.

6.8.1 Sampling strategy and sampling size

The study employed a probability sampling method. Amedeo, Golledge, and Stimson (2009) explain that in probability sampling, every unit of the target population has an equal and specified possibility of being selected in the sample. The goal of the research is to use statistics to make deductions about the population parameters and conclusions based on the sample and for this reason the stratified sampling technique which is a probability technique was used (Rahman et al., 2022).

A representative sample size of the population was determined by adopting the following formula;
$$n_y = N/(1 + N \cdot e^2).$$

$$n_y = N/(1 + N \cdot e^2) \quad (1)$$

where; n_y = required sample size

N = total population under study (10,890)

e = alpha level /margin of error which is assumed as 0.05

Putting the values in equation (1)

$$n_y = 10890/(1+10890 \cdot 0.05^2)$$

$$n_y = 10890/(1 + 10890 \cdot 0.0025)$$

$$n_y = 10890/28.225$$

$$n_y = 385.83 \text{ approximately } 386$$

The sample size of 386 was multiplied by 2 to make provision for a poor response rate. A total sample of 772 was thus selected.

Based on the proportion of employees of the four universities, the sample size comprised of 216 employees from the Kwame Nkrumah University Science and Technology (KNUST), 356 from the University of Cape Coast, 146 from the University of Education, Winneba, and 54 from the University of Allied Health Science.

Within the stratified sampling technique, employees of the four public universities were selected with various demographic factors as the strata. The various universities were proportionately represented in the sample.

Table 6.1: Sample size proportion per university

Name of the University	Staff population	% of staff sample per University	Sample chosen from population
KNUST	3036	14%	216
University of Cape Coast	4964	14%	356
University of Education, Winneba	2077	14%	146
University of Allied Health Science	813	14%	54
Total	10,890		772 (14%)

Source: Author's own construct

6.8.2 Representation of the sample

Information on the population including the number of academic and non-academic staff was obtained from the four public universities. This was done after ethical clearance was obtained for the research. The sample size was proportionally distributed based on the percentage of each public university's population in the total population. The demographic information of the sample captured the gender, age, educational level and job level.

A gatekeeper employed by each HR department of the four universities involved assisted with a list of staff members from which the sample was drawn. A simple random sampling method was used to select participants in each of the strata.

6.8.3 Demographic characteristics of the sample

6.8.3.1 Gender

The gender distribution of the sample is illustrated in Figure 6.2. The gender distribution of the sample shows a higher representation for males (74% male compared to only 26% female).

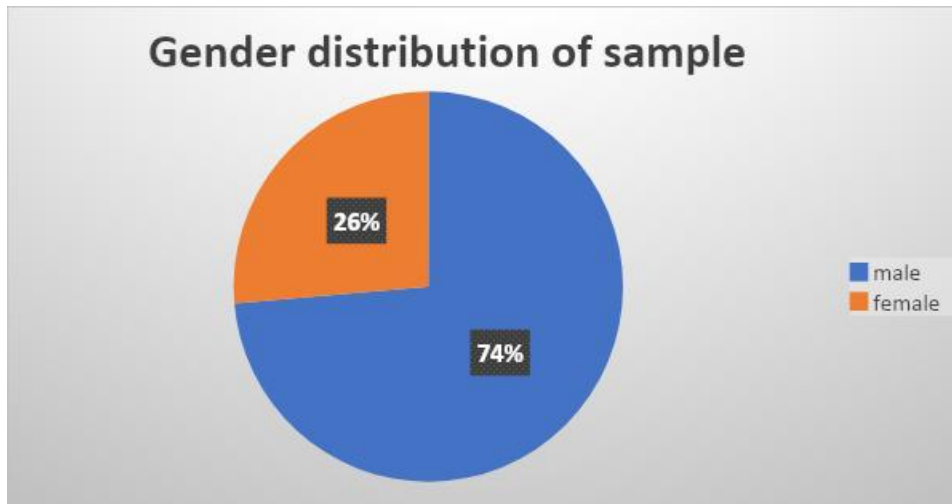


Figure 6.2: Gender distribution of sample

6.8.3.2 Age

The age distribution of the sample is indicated in Figure 6.3. The representation shows that public university staff were evenly distributed in the various age categories except the age category of 56 years and above where there were only 3% in this age category.

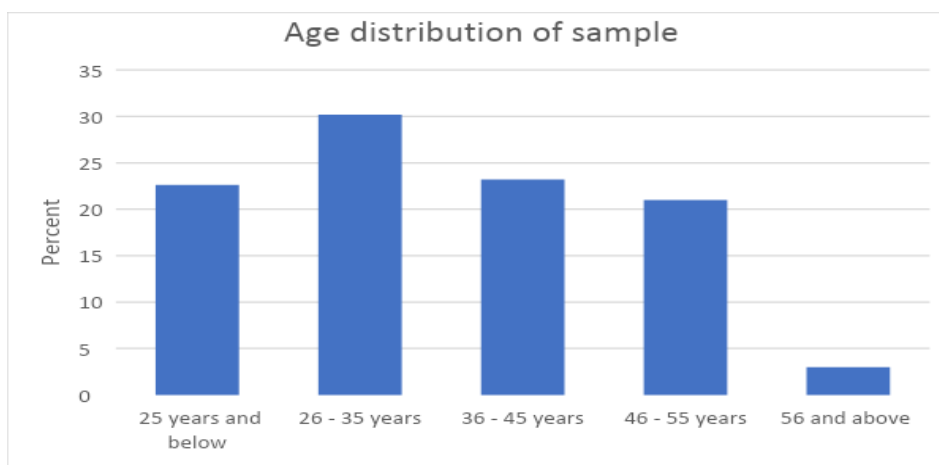


Figure 6.3: Age distribution of sample

6.8.3.3 Educational level

As indicated in Figure 6.4, members of the sample were holders of first degree (35.3%), graduate degree (28.9%), and postgraduate degree (24.3%).

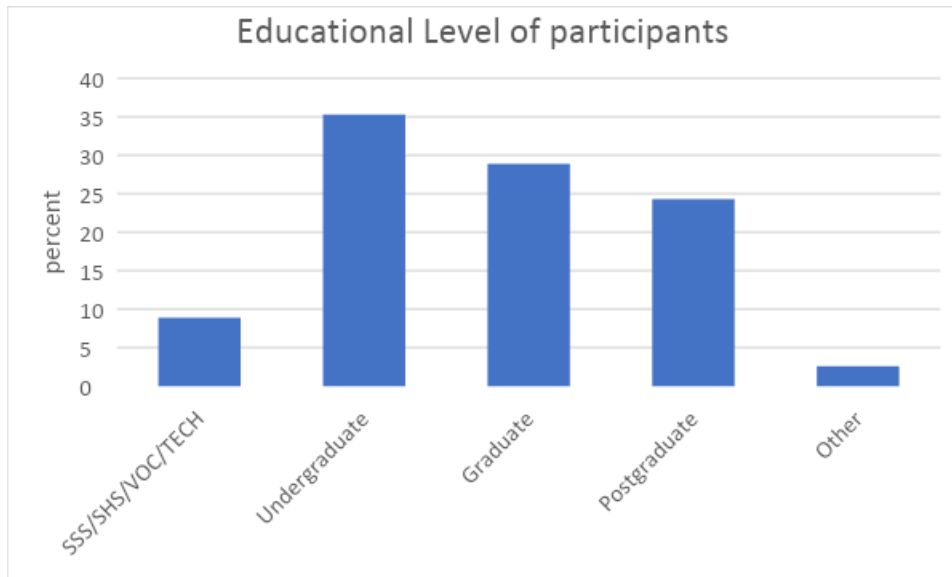


Figure 6.4: Educational level distribution of sample

6.8.3.4 Job category

Figure 6.5 shows that the majority (78%) of the sample occupied administrative and support service positions compared to 22% of the sample that were in academic positions within the four public universities.

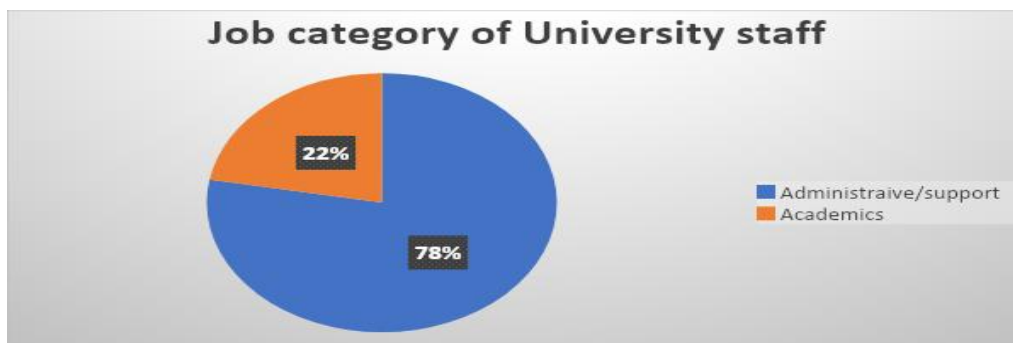


Figure 6.5: Job category of sample

6.8.3.5 Job level

With regards to the job level, Figure 6.6 shows that about 42% of the sample occupy junior positions in the universities, 30% are in senior positions, 5% are senior members in administrative positions and 22% are senior members in academic positions.



Figure 6.6: Job level of sample

6.9 DESIGN OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

6.9.1 Research Design

The research design is seen as the elementary framework that outlines the interrelationships between several research activities required to effectively address the principal aims of research. This ensures that the study effectively addresses the research questions (Sileyew, 2019). According to Kapur (2018b), research design refers to the overall procedure involved in undertaking research right from conceptualising a problem to inscription research questions, data collection, analysis, interpretation, and report writing. Further, Cox (2020) also indicated that a research design serves as the logical framework that links the empirical data collected in a study to the initial research questions, and ultimately, to the study's conclusions.

Research could either be intensive or extensive (Sileyew, 2019). Intensive research focuses on causal processes and how it features in a certain number of situations. Usually, intensive research is in-depth, thorough and exhaustive. On the other hand, extensive research places emphasis on discovering common characteristics and patterns of a population. In extensive research, both descriptive and inferential statistics along with numerical analysis are employed. Further, questionnaires used in a survey of a large population or representative sample of the population are employed in extensive research.

With regards to the aim of this study, which is to investigate the relationship between the constructs of leadership, empowerment and OCB, the explanatory research design was adopted for this study. This allows the researcher to cover a larger sample size and to undertake inferential statistical analysis for generalization to the entire population.

There are three research philosophies namely, positivism, interpretivism and realism that underlines every study. The philosophy that underlines a particular study aids the investigator to decide on the data needed and how to gather the data. Irrespective of the philosophy adopted for a study, the study either falls under the qualitative methodology which corresponds to the intensive research design or a quantitative methodology which corresponds to the extensive research design. The two distinct methodologies inform the gathering of data, the methods and instruments to be used.

This study made use of a quantitative research methodology which corresponds to the extensive research design. A quantitative perspective is experimental in nature, emphasises measurement and searches for a relationship between the variables. It further originates from a positivist epistemology, which holds that there is an objective reality that can be expressed numerically (Park et al., 2020). Quantitative data have features that can be measured and the magnitude is then usually expressed in numbers, thereafter the data can be analysed using mathematical procedures (Walliman, 2017). Quantitative research is classified as a more structured approach to research by enumerating problems, confirming theories or exploring relationships (Borgstede & Scholz, 2021). With regards to this study, quantitative research was found as the most suitable for the attainment of the research objectives.

6.9.2 Research variables

Kerlinger (1983) views a variable as a property that takes on different values. Variables involve the process of converting difficult concepts into easily understandable concepts which then can be empirically measured (Duckett, 2021). Determining variables in research involves the logical grouping of attributes. There are two types of variables in every research namely, the dependent and the independent variables. The variables for this study include leadership, empowerment, and OCB. In terms of the dependent and independent variables, leadership and empowerment within the public universities are the independent variables that are assumed to influence the dependent variable, OCB of staff of public universities in Ghana.

6.9.3 Type of measuring instrument

This study utilized a self-designed electronic questionnaire (web-based survey) as the primary data collection instrument. Questionnaires are widely recognized as systematic tools for collecting data, in which each respondent answers a standardized set of questions in a predetermined order (Siraj-Blatchford, 2020). They are particularly effective for gathering large-scale quantitative data, enabling the researcher to explore patterns and relationships systematically. According to Krosnick (2018), a questionnaire comprises structured questions designed to collect data suitable for statistical analysis, ensuring consistency across respondents.

The choice of a questionnaire was justified by its capacity to provide a reliable and valid means of measuring the constructs under investigation, namely leadership, empowerment, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). By adopting a structured format, the instrument ensures standardization, which is essential for maintaining internal consistency and enhancing the reliability of responses. Additionally, the content validity of the questionnaire was ensured through careful design and review by subject matter experts, aligning the items with established theoretical frameworks and prior studies. The questionnaire's psychometric properties, including reliability (assessed through pilot testing) and face validity (evaluated by expert review), were rigorously examined to ensure its appropriateness for the study.

The advantages of using an electronic questionnaire further reinforce its selection for this study. As noted by Dalati and Gomez (2018), questionnaires are cost-effective, time-efficient, and capable of reaching respondents across diverse geographical locations. These characteristics were particularly important for this research, as it required responses from a broad and geographically dispersed sample. Moreover, the web-based format provided anonymity, encouraging honest and thoughtful responses, thereby minimizing social desirability bias and enhancing the credibility of the data collected. By allowing respondents to complete the questionnaire at their convenience, the instrument also improved response accuracy and minimized errors. These advantages directly supported the study's aim of collecting reliable and generalizable data, strengthening the overall validity and rigor of the research process.

Siraj-Blatchford (2020) added that using web-based questionnaires often results in a low response rate since respondents must exert effort to complete and return the questionnaire. Other disadvantages of web-based questionnaires include respondents' concerns about anonymity and their discomfort regarding the security of data sent over the internet and its storage on a remote computer or server. There is also a sampling bias towards individuals who are young, well-educated, and proficient in using technology, as respondents need to be familiar with and have access to a computer and the required software (Dalati & Gomez, 2018).

To address the limitation of a low response rate, the study selected a sample which is 30% larger than the required sample size. The researcher requested the gatekeeper to do regular follow ups to encourage the sample of participants to complete the questionnaire.

6.9.4 Development and design of the questionnaire

After a review of the literature, it was decided to develop a questionnaire that would address the issues of leadership, empowerment and OCB specifically related to an academic institution. Existing questionnaires on these topics were studied and permission was obtained to adapt some of the questions as included in existing questionnaires. Determining the format of a questionnaire and the list of questions to be inserted is an important phase in a research design (Pandey & Pandey, 2021). The questionnaire included four sections: the first section consisted of demographic details

of participants, the second dealt with leadership, the third addressed issues about empowerment and the last section dealt with organisational citizenship behaviour.

6.9.4.1 Scaling of the questions

This study made use of a structured questionnaire with no open-ended questions. A structured questionnaire provides alternatives to each question, and the respondent simply needs to select and mark the applicable answer.

Except for the demographic information and work-related information of the sample, the researcher first decided on the type of rating scale to be used for questions on the leadership, empowerment and OCB constructs. This study made use of the Likert scale due to its extensive use in research and ease in developing. Likert scales are widely employed in social science research for their ability to measure attitudes, perceptions, and behaviours systematically (Joshi et al., 2015). Specifically, the 6-point scale was selected to align with the study's objective of examining nuanced variations in respondents' perceptions of leadership, empowerment, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), while addressing common response biases.

The 6-point Likert scale was intentionally chosen over other scales, such as 5- or 7-point options, to eliminate the midpoint or neutral response and encourage participants to express a definite agreement or disagreement. Research by Garland (1991) highlights that including a neutral option can lead to satisficing behaviour, where respondents choose the midpoint to avoid cognitive effort or indecision. By removing this neutral option, the scale enhances the discriminative power of the data, ensuring that responses reflect clearer attitudinal positions. This feature was particularly relevant to this study's aim of understanding the intensity of agreement or disagreement with statements regarding leadership and OCB.

Additionally, the choice of verbal labels for each score on the 6-point scale was informed by best practices in scale design to enhance clarity and consistency in interpretation (Revilla et al., 2014). Each point on the scale was assigned a descriptive label to reduce ambiguity and ensure that all respondents understood the gradation of responses uniformly. This approach is supported by prior

research indicating that labeled scales yield higher reliability and validity compared to partially labeled scales (Weijters et al., 2010).

From a methodological perspective, the 6-point scale is suitable for parametric analysis, allowing for robust statistical procedures that are critical to achieving the study's analytical goals. This choice was informed by established psychometric principles that suggest scales with more than four points improve the reliability and sensitivity of measures (Leung, 2011). Furthermore, the scale aligns with prior research in organisational behaviour, where 6-point Likert scales have been successfully used to measure similar constructs, reinforcing the comparability of this study's findings with existing literature.

Table 6.2: Six-point Likert scale with verbal labels

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

6.9.4.2 Layout of the questionnaire

When creating the questionnaire items, the researcher consulted various guidelines to help prepare clear, well-written items (Siraj-Blatchford, 2020). Items were prepared to specifically address the study's research objectives, as a poorly designed questionnaire could result in the research objectives not being met. The questionnaire was divided into four sections with different categories as shown in Figure 6.7.

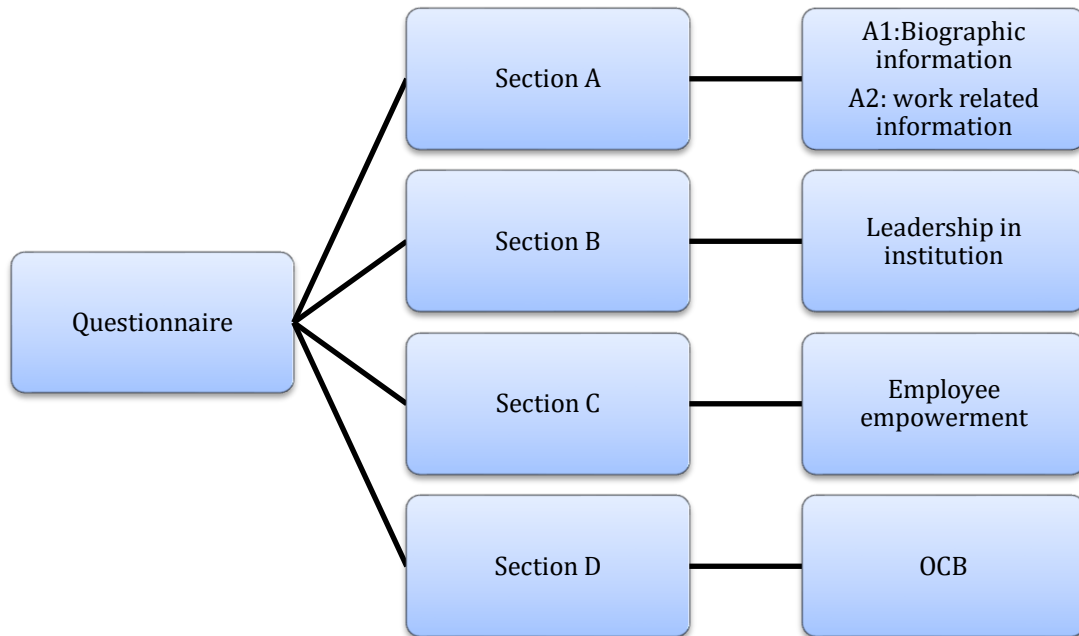


Figure 6.7: Layout of questionnaire

Source: Author's own construct

Demographic Details

Section A of the questionnaire comprised of items which represented the demographic details of the respondents. The demographic details included the following elements: gender, age, and educational level.

Work-related details

The work-related information included details on respondents' job category and job level.

Leadership

Section B of the questionnaire comprised of items related to leadership in academic institutions. The items were developed from the literature review that was provided in Chapter 3. The purpose of this section was to examine the perceptions of the participants on the extent to which their managers or supervisors exhibit leadership skills and styles in the institution. This section consisted of 46 items. The items related to leadership skills and styles of immediate supervisors.

Furthermore, the questionnaire items used to measure leadership in this study were adapted from well-established works in the field. Specifically, they were drawn from Allio (2012), who provides insights into reliable leadership advice; Bishop (2013), who explores authenticity in leadership; and Daft (2015), whose comprehensive text on leadership experience serves as a foundational reference. Additionally, Lei et al. (2014) contributed perspectives on leader-empowering behaviours and their impact on employee psychological empowerment. The adaptation also included concepts from Northouse (2013), which offers a detailed exploration of leadership theories and practices, and Schoemaker, Krupp, and Howland (2013), who emphasize the essential skills of strategic leadership. These sources collectively ensured the questionnaire's robustness and relevance.

Employee empowerment

Section C of the questionnaire comprised of items which focused on empowerment opportunities for employees. The items were developed from the literature review that was provided in Chapter 4. The purpose of this section was to examine the perceptions of participants on the extent to which their managers or supervisors empowered employees. The empowerment section consisted of 15 items and included items related to management support, autonomy and decision making, and access to information and resources. The scale adopted to measure employee empowerment was developed by Spreitzer (1995).

OCB

Section D of the questionnaire comprised of items which focused on OCB in institutions. The items were developed from the literature review that was provided in Chapter 5. The purpose of this section was to examine the perceptions of the participants on the extent to which employees engage in OCB in the institution. The OCB section consisted of 31 items and the items referred to activities that fell outside the job description of employees and prompted employees to indicate how they engaged in such activities to improve organisational performance. The questionnaire items used to measure OCB in this study were adapted from the works of leading scholars in the field. Specifically, the foundational dimensions of OCB, including altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue, were informed by the scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). Furthermore, the conceptual framework for OCB, as initially established by Organ (1988),

provided critical guidance for the development of these items. These adaptations ensure the questionnaire aligns with validated and widely recognized measures in OCB research.

6.10 METHODS USED TO ENSURE RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF INSTRUMENT

Validity and reliability suggest the extent to which a meaningful conclusion can be drawn from the data collected. It also reveals the extent to which there may be an inaccuracy in the measurement of the variables (Duckett, 2021). The following measures were taken to ensure that the data collected were reliable and valid.

6.10.1 Reliability

A measuring instrument is said to be reliable if it offers consistent results. A measuring instrument is reliable if the instrument can provide consistent results (Mokkink et al., 2020). The precision of the research data can be measured only when its regularity can also be measured. In simple terms, reliability refers to obtaining the same or similar results using the same instrument under the same or similar conditions by collecting the same or similar information at a different point in time. The reliability of an instrument is of vital significance, as it refers to the credibility of the measuring instrument, which ultimately refers to the credibility of the entire research project (Devji et al., 2020).

Testing the reliability of the instrument included doing exploratory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis enables one to run statistical tests to assess the reliability of the instrument and to determine whether there are hidden dimensions within the survey items (Ghauri, Gronhauge & Strange, 2020).

To ensure the reliability of the measuring instrument, the Cronbach's alpha and inter-item correlation coefficients were calculated (Adeniran, 2019). The Cronbach's alpha is a coefficient that measures the internal consistency of a scale, whereas correlation coefficients measure the amount of association between two variables (McNeish, 2018; Schober et al., 2018).

To ensure the reliability of the data obtained, the questionnaire was designed to address the research questions in a manner that facilitates respondents' understanding and their ability to provide answers without difficulty. Additionally, a pilot study was conducted to pre-test the questionnaire, ensuring that any questions misunderstood by respondents were rephrased for clarity. Specifically, the pilot study was conducted in December 2022 to test the reliability and validity of the questionnaire items. A total of 45 participants were involved in the pilot study, representing 10% of the final sample size (447). These participants were selected from the University of Ghana to ensure relevance and comparability to the main study sample. Cronbach's alpha was used to evaluate the reliability of the questionnaire items for the pilot study. Reliability analyses were conducted for each section of the questionnaire (Leadership, Employee Empowerment, and OCB) to ensure internal consistency. The Cronbach's alpha values for the constructs exceeded the acceptable threshold of 0.70, indicating good reliability. During the pilot study, a few items were identified as having low reliability based on item-total correlations. In the Leadership section, two items related to "interpersonal relationships" showed weak correlations with the overall construct, leading to their rephrasing for better clarity and alignment with the theoretical dimensions of leadership. In the Employee Empowerment section, one item concerning "autonomy in decision-making" was found to be ambiguous, resulting in varied interpretations; this item was revised to provide clearer phrasing and context for respondents. Similarly, in the OCB section, one item in the "civic virtue" dimension exhibited a low correlation, prompting an adjustment in its wording to better capture the intended behaviour. These revisions aimed to enhance the reliability and validity of the survey items. These adjustments were made to enhance the reliability and validity of the questionnaire before administering it for the main study. Subsequent reliability testing during the main study confirmed the effectiveness of these revisions, as all Cronbach's alpha values exceeded the minimum threshold of 0.70. The study's reliability was further enhanced by utilizing existing literature sources in the literature review and by employing a representative sample.

6.10.2 Validity

Validity measures the soundness and effectiveness of the measuring instrument. Thus, the validity of a measuring instrument is the degree to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Clark & Watson., 2019). Internal and external validity are very important and are

required for the accuracy and quality of a research design; for this reason, both types must be maximised as far as possible (Andrade, 2018). Internal validity indicates that, with regards to a specific phenomenon, the research generates precise and valid findings (Patino & Ferreira, 2018). External validity indicates the extent to which the study results can be generalised to larger populations and environments (Patino & Ferreira, 2018; Findley et al., 2021).

To ensure the credibility and rigor of this research, both internal and external validity were systematically addressed, aligning these measures with the study's purpose of examining how leadership, employee empowerment and OCB are related.

Internal validity was achieved through carefully designed methodological processes to reduce biases and ensure accurate measurement. First, the literature review was meticulously structured to align with theoretical frameworks and concepts directly relevant to the study's topic, problem statement, and objectives. This approach provided a solid foundation for understanding leadership, empowerment and OCB. It also ensured that the study was grounded in established academic discourse. Furthermore, the selection and use of measuring instruments were conducted with precision. These instruments were chosen to reflect the three main constructs accurately and were presented in a standardized manner to minimize variability. Efforts were made to control for extraneous variables that could potentially distort the findings, thus enhancing the reliability of the results.

The study also prioritized external validity to ensure its findings could be generalized beyond the specific sample. A representative sampling approach was employed, carefully designed to reflect the characteristics of the broader population under investigation. This was achieved by selecting participants whose demographics and experiences were aligned with the research context, thereby supporting the generalizability of the conclusions. Moreover, the study's findings were analysed and presented to underscore their applicability to the total population, reinforcing the relevance of the insights for practical and theoretical implications.

By linking these measures to the study's purpose, this research ensures the accuracy of its findings and their broader applicability, contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of the roles of leadership and empowerment in influencing OCB in public universities.

The validity of the data-gathering instrument was ensured as follows:

1. Exploratory factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to assess the construct validity and internal consistency reliability of the questionnaire developed for this study.
2. To ensure content validity, efforts were made to meticulously collect data, accurately code the data, and correctly analyse it, ensuring that the findings were based on the analysed data.

A statistician carried out the statistical analysis using Microsoft Excel, SPSS, and its add-on AMOS.

1. The reporting and interpreting of results were accomplished using standardised procedures.
2. The researcher ensured that the final conclusions, implications, and recommendations were based on the findings of the research.

6.11 ADMINISTRATION OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

Permission to conduct the study was sought from the four public universities, and ethical clearance was obtained before data collection. With permission from the four public universities, a gatekeeper was appointed to obtain a list of the staff with their email address from the Human Resources Department or the appropriate department in charge of staff data. An email was sent to staff members from each university, inviting them to participate in the research. Participants were assured of anonymity, voluntary participation, and the right to withdraw at any stage. The email contained a link that participants could access to complete the survey. As soon as respondents clicked on the link, they gained access to the questionnaire to participate in the study. The web-based questionnaire platform displayed a welcome message and instructions on proceeding. Each section had instructions indicating what was required of respondents.

The data administration and collection procedure are shown in Table 6.3. The data was gathered over a period of six weeks. Once a satisfactory number (minimum required was 388) of completed surveys were received, the survey closed for data analysis to take place.

Table 6.3: Data collection process

Steps	Details
Step 1: Ethical Considerations	Permission for the research was obtained from the institutional research ethics committee of the educational institution where the researcher is enrolled for studies. An ethics clearance certificate was received and recorded. The researcher will undertake to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of all research participants.
Step 2: Uploading questionnaire unto the online platform	The questionnaire was converted to an online web-based survey and uploaded onto google form. The final survey included sections on demographics, leadership, empowerment and OCB. The questionnaire items were pre-coded to assist with data analysis. Instructions were provided at the beginning of each section of the survey.
Step 3: Invitation to participate sent to sample	A Participant information sheet provided information about the aim of the study, potential benefits, voluntary participation and withdrawal. The researcher's contact details were provided for further enquiries. Participants were informed that they will be providing voluntary consent to participate in the study by clicking the "I agree" button before continuing to participate in the survey. One reminder email was sent out two weeks after the initial email. A follow up email was sent one week thereafter as a reminder.
Step 4: Waiting period	The researcher waited for a sufficient response rate before closing the survey.

Source: Author's own construct

6.12 SCORING AND CAPTURING OF THE DATA

All completed responses were automatically received and captured on the researcher's web-based questionnaire platform. The responses were arranged according to the codes that were set previously. Once enough responses were received and captured, the survey closed. A total of 386 responses were received. The data set was downloaded from the web-based platform as a Microsoft Excel file. This was later imported into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for initial statistical analysis.

6.13 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In terms of analysis, the data obtained from the questionnaires was downloaded as a Microsoft Excel file. The data was analysed quantitatively. The essence of a quantitative study involves reflecting the observed phenomenon by means of analysing and describing the data in numerical and statistical ways (Ahmad et al., 2019).

The data analysis process includes organising the data by examining the data, checking for accuracy, entering the data on the processor, transforming the data, and developing and documenting a database structure that integrates the different measures in Microsoft Excel. The data was coded and imported into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 266 for statistical analysis. For purposes of accuracy in analysing the data, a statistician was employed to perform the different level of analysis which included descriptive and inferential statistics. The description of the data showed the essential characteristics of the data. The inferential analysis investigated the various relationships between leadership, empowerment and OCB. Based on the results of the analysis, conclusions were drawn, and recommendations made for implementation at academic institutions. The findings of the study could also serve as a basis for further research.

Table 6.4 illustrates the research objectives that were formulated for the study along with the statistical procedures which were used to investigate each objective. The direct effect hypotheses, corresponding to research objectives 1, 2 and 3 were test using the AMOS software. The

moderation and mediation hypotheses, corresponding to research objective 4, were tested using AMOS and SPSS with Process Macro, respectively.

Table 6.4: Research objectives and statistical procedure

Empirical Research Objectives	Statistical Procedure
Research objective 1: Investigate the relationship between leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour	Structural equation modelling
Research objective 2: Investigate the relationship between empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour	
Research objective 3: Investigate the relationship between leadership and empowerment	
Research objective 4: Examine the moderating and mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB.	Structural equation modelling for moderation using AMOS SPSS with Proces Macro for mediation analysis
Research objective 5: Determine the extent to which individuals from different age, gender, job level and educational level groups differ significantly regarding leadership, empowerment and OCB	Tests for significant mean differences Independent T-test ANOVA
Research objective 6: Develop a leadership competency framework for the appointment and development of leaders at universities in Ghana to ensure the empowerment of employees and the enhancement of OCB.	Recommendations were drawn from the statistical analysis

Source: Author's own construct

In this study, data was analysed by using descriptive and inferential statistics.

Stage 1: Descriptive analysis

Descriptive statistics provide a picture of the data. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2015), there are three factors about a data set that needs to be determined using descriptive analysis. These are (1) the extent to which variables relate to each other; (2) the amount of variability; and (3) points of central tendency. To estimate these three factors, the descriptive statistics applied in this study included reporting on the factor analysis, Cronbach's alpha coefficients, frequency data, means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis.

Factor analysis

Factor analysis was used in the study and can be described as an advanced statistical technique that examines the correlation among variables, and identify clusters of highly interrelated variables, thus reducing the number of variables that represent a particular construct or underlying theme (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Factor analysis, thus, allows the researcher to conduct a structural analysis of the study (Shrestha, 2021)). Factor analysis uses a numerical system to break down a study's variables into multiple factors. Factor analysis is also applied when the researcher wants to determine whether there are hidden dimensions within the survey items (Ghauri et al., 2020).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) were used to test the suitability of the data for factor analysis. The KMO tests for sample adequacy assess the mutual differences within items. The KMO measure should be larger than 0.50 to allow for the factor analysis to take place. The strength between variables is measured using Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Mpanza, 2018). It is important for the Bartlett's Sphericity test to be significant ($p < 0,05$) before proceeding with the factor analysis (Shrestha, 2021).

There are two types of factors analysis that can be applied in research namely exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis.

Exploratory factor analysis

The exploratory factor analysis is a descriptive and exploratory tool used to ascertain the number of factors in a variable. With this type of factor analysis, the number of factors and relationship

patterns that occurs within the factor are indefinite. Exploratory factor analysis is conducted in the initial stages of scale development. In EFA, the analysis itself identifies the factor structure by extracting commonalities among observed variables. No number of factors are specified in advance and the analysis is used to determine the optimal number of factors based on statistical criteria and interpretability.

Factor extraction involves identifying relationships between variables and factors by loading items onto factors. This process helps identify variances within factors and commonalities between items. It also provides factor loading estimates and establishes relationships between items and factors (Auerswald & Moshagen, 2019). Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was used as the extraction method for the factor analysis (EFA). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test were conducted to establish the sampling adequacy and suitability of the data for factor analysis before proceeding to do factor analysis using principal axis factoring.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

AMOS software was used for the Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). CFA is used to test a pre-specified factor structure that is based on theoretical or empirical grounds. It is employed when researchers have a clear hypothesis or theory about the structure of latent factors and their relationship with observed items. With confirmatory analysis, there are restrictions to the factor loading and the number of factors (Orçan, 2018). The process of confirmatory factor analysis usually involves a review of theory, identifying a model, gathering data, performing descriptive statistical analysis, assessing limitations in a model, examining model adequacy and lastly interpreting the results (Baistaman et al., 2020).

Confirmatory factor analysis is used for many reasons., These, according to Baistaman et al. (2020) and Orçan (2018), include the fact that CFA:

- Verifies the number of underlying dimensions in a research instrument
- Validates the patterns of relationship between items
- Assesses the psychometric properties of new and existing instruments
- Establishes construct validation
- Tests the invariance in measurement amongst groups

Confirmatory factor analysis also examines construct validity. Construct validity examines the relationship between the variables in a study (Yu, 2018).

In this study, exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis were used to investigate the relationships between the constructs and to determine construct validity.

Cronbach's alpha coefficients

Cronbach's correlation coefficients measure the relationships between variables, assess the reliability of the questionnaire, and estimate internal consistency. According to Bujang et al., (2018) the average correlation between every item of the scale is provided by the Cronbach's alpha statistic which ranges from 0 to 1, the higher the value the greater the reliability. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of a scale should ideally be above 0.7.

Although other scholars recommend different values of the scale to be considered reliable, the study used the critical value of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient set at 0.70. This implies that factors falling below this value were discarded and not included for further analysis

Frequencies, means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis are descriptive statistics that provide information about the distribution of the data, the point of central tendency and the amount of variability in the data. These descriptions are presented in the form of graphs, charts and tables for easy reading.

Frequencies

According to Lee et al. (2012) frequency refers to the number of times a particular value or category occurs in a dataset. It is a fundamental concept used to describe the distribution of data and identify patterns, such as the shape and spread of the data, missing values, and outliers. Frequency distributions can be represented in various forms, including tables, histograms, and frequency polygons, to provide a visual summary of the data. Frequencies were used to portray the distribution of a score of each specific variable. Frequency distributions are regularly used to

describe research results. In this study frequency data was analysed to interpret results on how respondents reacted to certain statements.

Means

Among the three types of measures of central tendencies (mean, median, and mode), mean is the most used and most reliable in research (Sial & Abid, 2023). The mean indicates the midpoint or centre of the distribution of the scores, and it is calculated by adding all the scores and dividing the total by the number of scores.

Standard deviations (SD)

Standard deviation gives information about the average variability in the data set. It also indicates the spread of the raw data spread around the mean (Mishra et al., 2019). Standard deviation mathematically is the square root of the variance. With standard deviation, smaller values indicate that the scores gather close to the mean, while larger values indicate that the scores are further from the mean (George & Mallery, 2018). Standard deviation and mean scores are used together to give information on the distribution of scores on the set of data.

Skewness and kurtosis

The shape or form of the data is shown by the skewness and kurtosis values. The kurtosis value is the point where data indicates an unusually pointy or flat distribution. (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). In terms of frequency distributions, the skewness statistic measures symmetry, this implies that perfectly symmetrical distributions have a skewness of 0 and represents a normal distribution (Mohammed et al., 2022). A positive or negative skew would result depending on which side of the mean the data is distributed. Overall skewness values should range between -1 and 1 for a normal distribution to be accepted. The number between -1 and 1 indicates the direction of two different variables as well as the strength between the variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Kurtosis provides information about the extent of the peak of the distribution and could be positive or negative (George & Mallery, 2018). For a perfectly normal distribution, the kurtosis value must be 0.

Stage 2: Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis aims to determine the relationship between variables and the strength and direction of the relationship (Senthilnathan, 2019). However, correlation analysis does not probe the underlying reasons of the relationship. The most common correlation coefficient used in research is the Pearson product moment correlation (r). As such, this study used the Pearson product moment correlation to identify the strength and direction of relationship between the variables. The underlying assumption of correlation statistics is that the relationship between two variables is always linear. Thus, positive correlations imply that an increase in one variable results in an increase in the other. Conversely, negative correlations imply an inverse relationship in which one variable increases while the other decreases. Fernando (2024) stated that the Pearson Correlation coefficients range between -1 (perfect negative correlation) and 1 (perfect positive correlation), taking on any values in between. The interpretation for the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient used in the study is presented in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Interpretation of Pearson product moment correlation coefficient

Weak association (positive/negative)	$r = +.10$ to $+.29$
Moderate association (positive/negative)	$r = +.30$ to $+.49$
Strong association (positive/negative)	$r = +.50$ to $+1.0$

Source: Field data, 2023

Stage 3: Inferential analysis

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2015), inferential statistics are utilised to draw inferences about large populations from relatively small samples. Inferential statistics can accordingly be used to generalise findings from the sample to the larger population and to test hypotheses. The inferential analysis used in this study include tests for significant mean differences (T-tests and ANOVA) and Structural equation modelling, mediation, and moderation analysis.

Test for Significant Mean Differences

Inferential statistics is a statistical technique that enables researchers to use the results from the sample to make generalisation to the population. Testing for statistical significance are done by using parametric and non-parametric tests. In this study, the researcher tested for statistical mean

differences between the respondents' age, gender, job level, and educational level in terms of their perceptions of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB.

The independent T-test assesses the differences among groups. It determines the variations in the relationships between two groups. Independent t-test was conducted for the following demographic category:

- Gender (male vs female)

ANOVA is a useful test to determine the variations in mean scores in three or more groups (Berman & Wang, 2018). ANOVA utilises the sampling error to show estimates of the differences in samples. The mean is the measure of central tendency that is used in ANOVA (Mishra et al., 2019). The test allows the researcher to compare the differences in means within each group (McDonald, 2014). ANOVA was conducted for the following demographic categories:

- Age (between 18 - 25 years, 26 - 30 years, 32 - 35 years, 36 - 40 years, 41 - 45 years, 46 - 50 years, 51 - 55 years, 56 - 60 years)
- Educational level (SHS/vocational/technical, undergraduate, graduate, postgraduate, other)
- Job level (junior, senior, senior academic, senior management, other)

Structural equation modelling (SEM)

SEM is a method of analysis that allows the testing of interrelationship among variables using different models. The interrelationships are expressed in a series of equations that indicate the relationship between the dependent and independent variables in a study. An advantage of SEM is the ability to also examine the relationship among latent variables (Hair et al., 2021). SEM is based on assumptions of multiple regression and factor analysis techniques with the aim of evaluating the importance of each independent variable and testing the overall fit of the theoretical model to the sample data (Hair et al., 2021; Keith, 2019).

Hair et al. (2021) identified the following three characteristics of structural equation models:

- estimating the interrelated and multiple dependent relationships among variables
- being able to signify latent concepts in the identified relationships, and account for measurement errors in the estimation process

- establishing a model to describe the entire set of identified relationships

The advantages of structural equation modelling are as follows:

- It enables the testing of multiple variables. Structural equation modelling allows for testing of sophisticated theoretical models to better comprehend a scientific investigation;
- The technique takes into consideration measurement error during statistical analysis; and
- Analysis of complex and advanced theoretical models is possible, for example group differences in a study can be measured at many levels (Thakkar, 2020).

SEM was used firstly to test the measurement model. The measurement model was tested using the dimensions of leadership (Supervision and staff development, interpersonal relationship, vision and goal orientation), employee empowerment (meaningfulness, competence, and autonomy and decision making) and OCB (altruism, civic virtue, sportsmanship and consciousness).

SEM was used to differentiate between the direct and indirect relationships between the variables of the study and allowed the researcher to determine the mediating and moderating effect of employee empowerment on the relationship between leadership and OCB that manifested in the sample of respondents in the public universities in Ghana. The proposed model is depicted later in this section.

The use of the AMOS (Analysis of moment structure) software which linked to SPSS was required for the SEM analysis. The software provides a graphical representation of concepts and an evaluation of the model (Hair et al., 2021). The AMOS software was used to evaluate the structural model for this study and allowed for conceptualisation of the model in a graphical format.

Once the SEM model was developed, goodness-of-fit measures were required to assess the adequacy of a model (Hair et al., 2021), and the following fit indices were used to measure the adequacy of a model:

- The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) values range from 0 to 1. A bigger value indicates a better fit. The general rule is that a value of 0.90 is considered a good fit. A value that is larger than 0.85 may be considered as an acceptable fit.

- The normed fit index (NFI) values range from 0 to 1. A value of 0.90 reflects an adequate fit whereas values greater than 0.95 may be viewed as an excellent fit.
- The comparative fit index (CFI) ranges from zero to one, whereas larger values represent a better fit. In this index, a value of 0.90 implies an adequate fit, while values greater than 0.95 may be considered as an excellent fit.
- Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) values less than or equal to 0.05 represent a close fit. Values between .05 and .08 shows a reasonably adequate fit and values ranging between 0.08 and 0.10 as an average fit. Values larger than 10 are not an appropriate fit.
- Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a construct is distinct from other constructs. Constructs with high discriminant validity indicates that the construct is unique and depicts phenomena that other measure do not capture. (Hair et al., 2021).
- Average variance Extracted (AVE): AVE is used to determine the amount of variance that is obtained by a construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error (Dos Santo & Cirillo, 2021). The thresholds to meet the criteria for convergent validity were 0,5 for AVE and 0.7 for composite reliability (Fornell & Larcker,1981).
- Heterotrait-montrait ratio (HTMT): An HTMT of below 0.85 is needed to judge for discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle & Starsedt, 2015). A HTMT value of 0.90 is considered a more lenient threshold (Hair et al., 2021).

A summary of the fit indices used in the study to measure the adequacy of the SEM model is provided in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6: Model fit indices

Measure	Threshold
X^2	Low X^2 and insignificant p value
CMIN	--
DF	--
CMIN/DF	Between 1 and 3
CFI	Values range from 0–1. Values ≥ 0.90 indicates a strong fit
IFI	≥ 0.90
NFI	Values ≥ 0.90 indicates a better fit
P-Value for test of close fit	>0.05
RMSEA	Value ≤ 0.03 represents excellent fit, value ≤ 0.05 represents good fit, and value ≤ 0.08 represents adequate fit

Measure	Threshold
Average variance Extracted (AVE)	Values ≥ 0.50 indicates a good validity
Discriminant validity	--

The hypothesized conceptual models for this study are presented in Figure 6.8 and 6.9. These capture the empirical research objective 4 of the study:

- To examine the extent to which leadership and empowerment influence employees' OCB

Six models (three for moderating and three for mediating roles) based on the factors of the variables were constructed for the achievement of this objective.

Moderation and Mediation analysis

Mediation and moderation analyses are two statistical techniques used in the field of causal inference. However, they both serve different purposes and have distinct characteristics.

In mediation analysis, the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable is tested through an intervening variable called the mediator. The purpose of mediation analysis is to understand how independent variables affect dependent variables through a mediator variable. The conduct of mediation analysis is typically a structural equation modelling that focuses on the causal pathways between independent and dependent variables. However, the Process Macro software Model 4 by Hayes is also used in performing mediating analysis. The mediating role as hypothesized is conceptually presented as follows.



Figure 6.8a: Conceptual model for the mediating effect of autonomy and decision making in the relationship between leadership and OCB

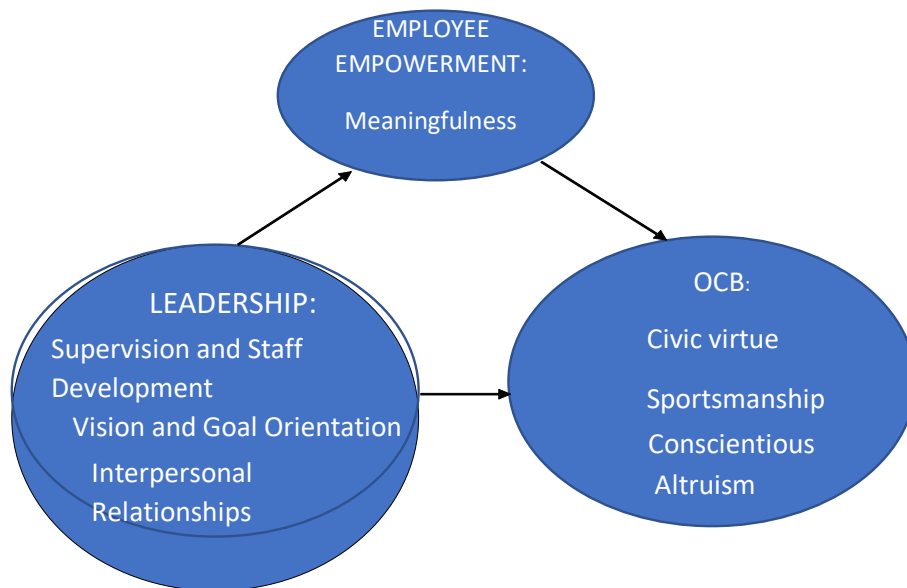


Figure 6.8b: Conceptual model for the mediating effect of meaningfulness in the relationship between leadership and OCB

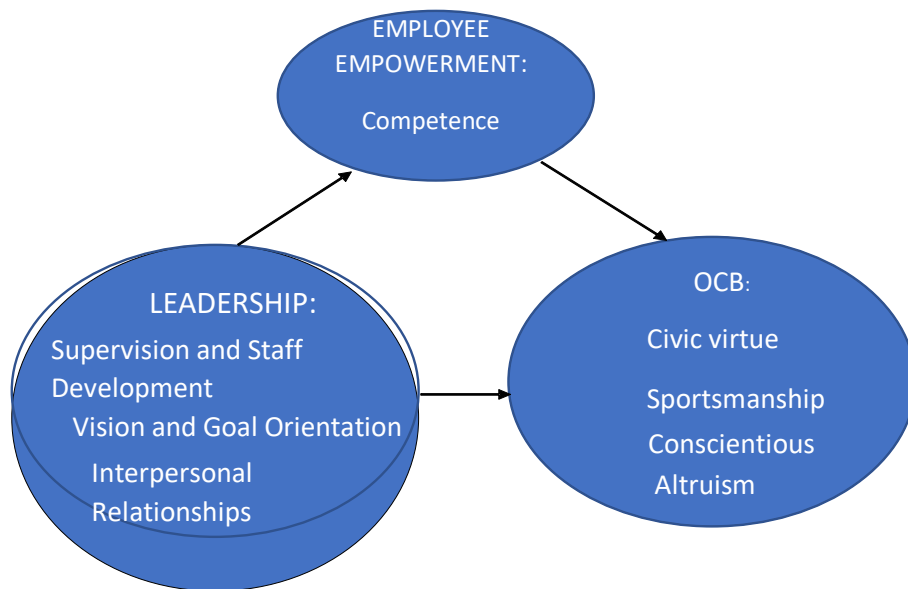


Figure 6.8c: Conceptual model for the mediating effect competence in the relationship between leadership and OCB

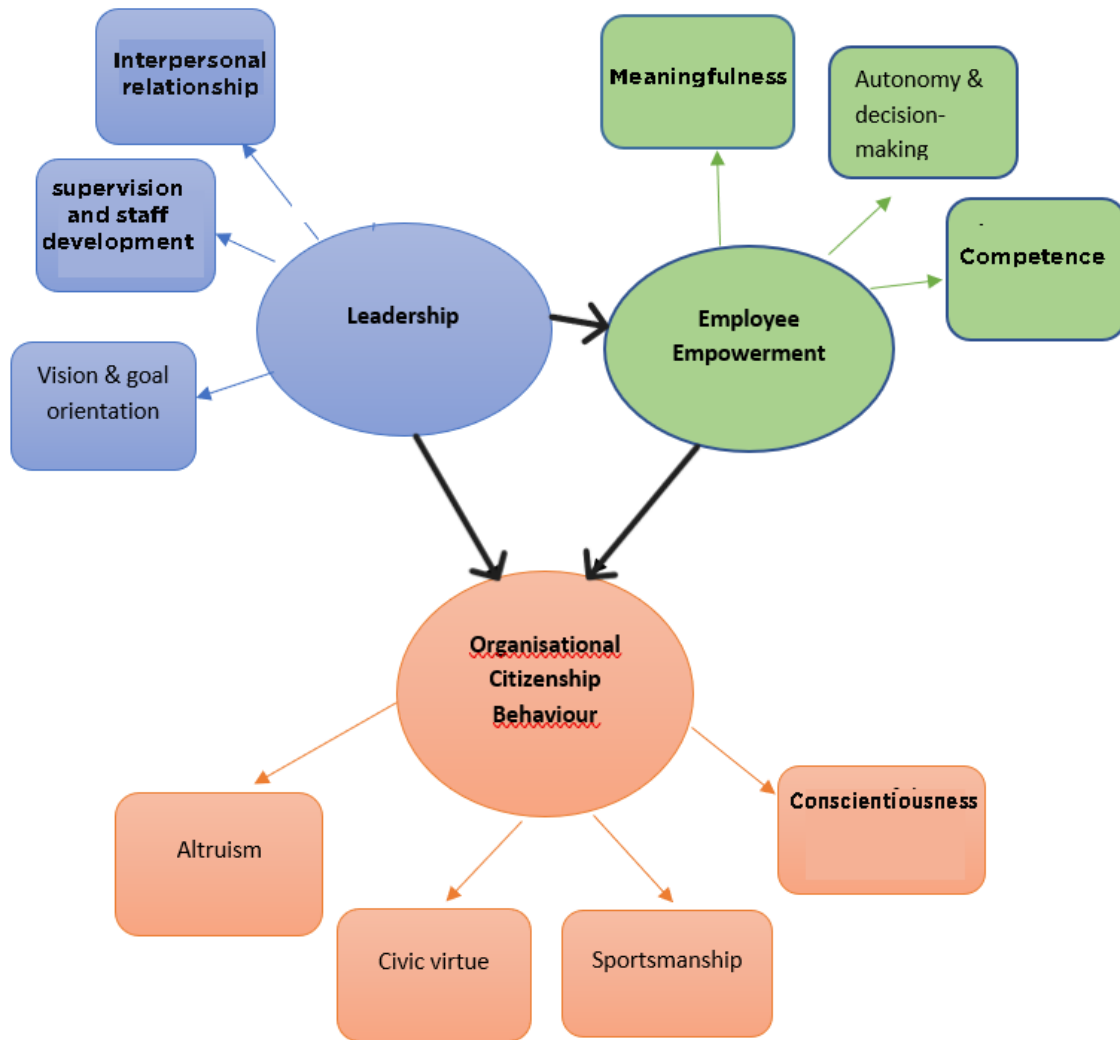


Figure 6.8d: Integrated conceptual model for the mediating effect of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB

In moderation analysis, the aim is to understand how a moderator variable influences the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. Moderation analysis also examines conditions under which the relationship between independent and dependent variables is stronger or weaker. Moderation analysis is essentially a multiple regression analysis that focuses on the timing and way in which the independent variable affects the dependent variables. The moderating role as hypothesized is conceptually presented as follows;

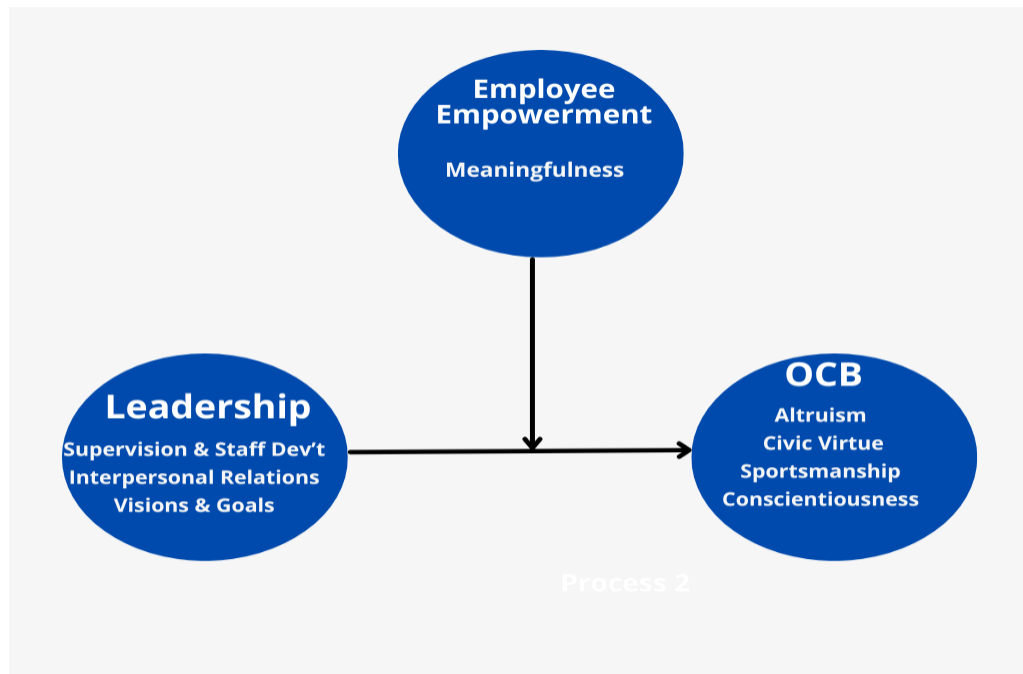


Figure 6.9a: Conceptual model for the moderating effect of meaningfulness in the relationship between leadership and OCB

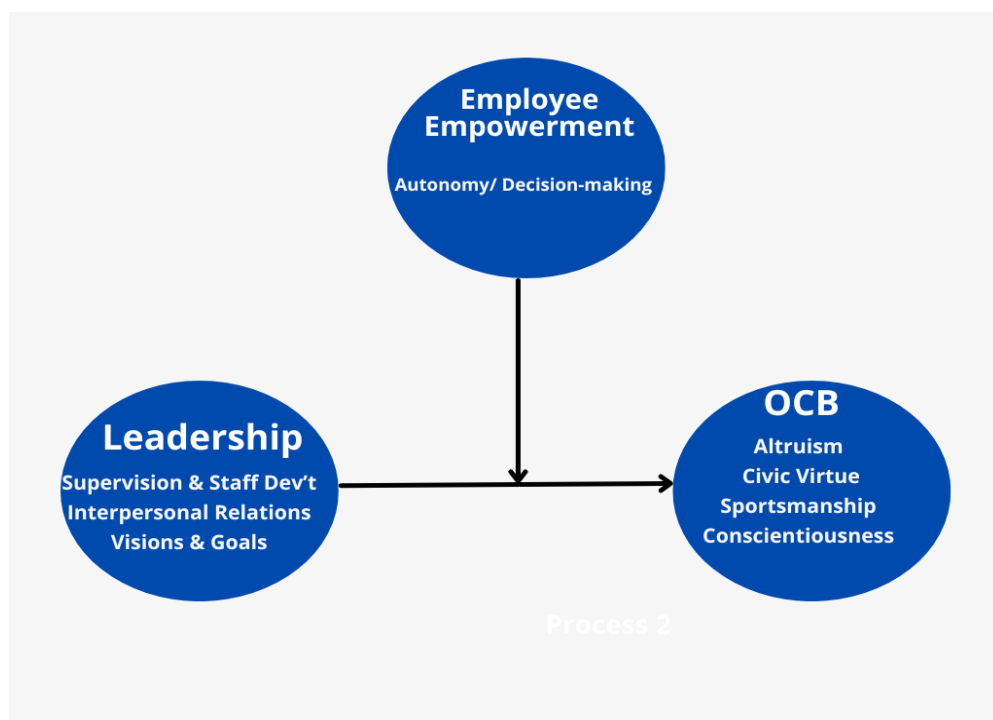


Figure 6.9b: Conceptual model for the moderating effect of autonomy and decision-making in the relationship between leadership and OCB

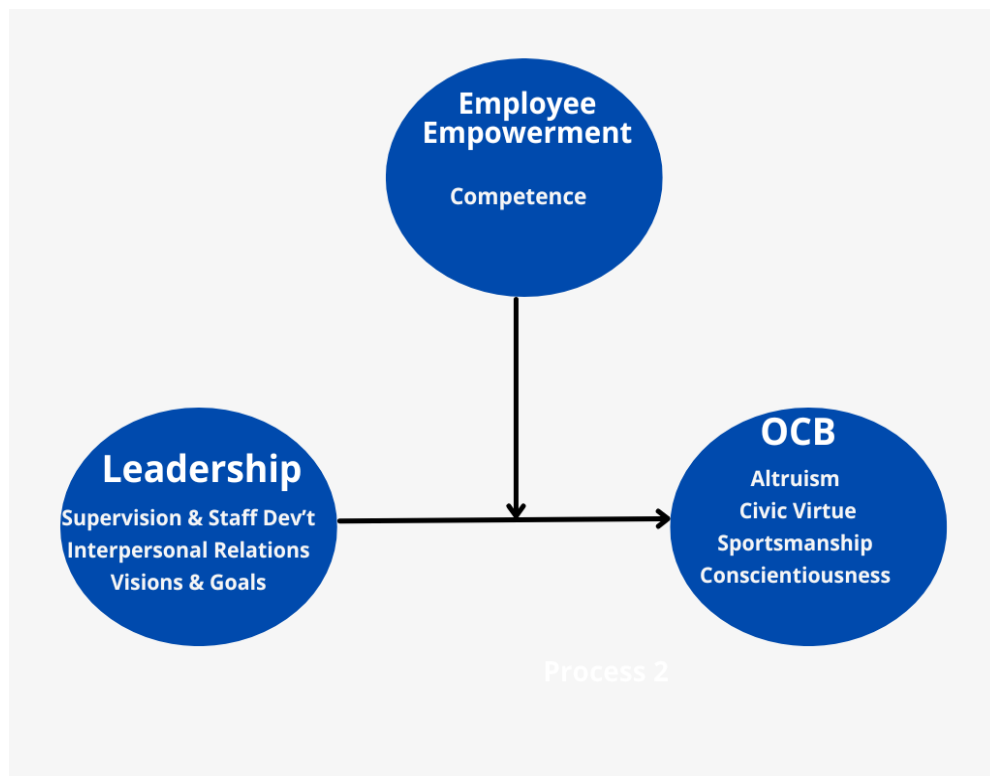


Figure 6.9c: Conceptual model for the moderating effect competence in the relationship between leadership and OCB

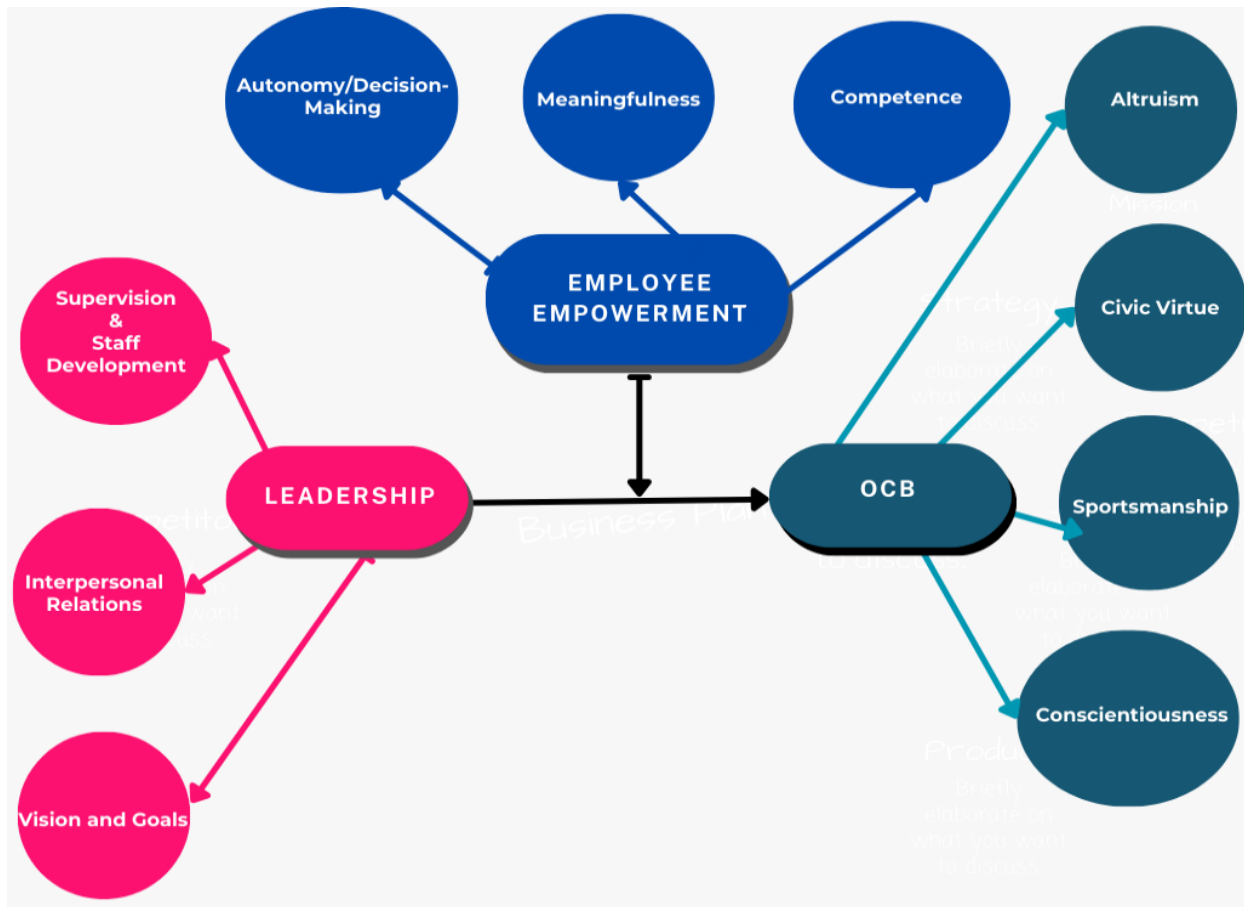


Figure 6.9d: Integrated conceptual model for the moderating effect of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB

To summarise, mediation focuses on understanding the process underlying a relationship between two variables, while moderation explores the conditions or contexts under which a relationship between variables will hold or change.

The moderation conceptual models depicted above was tested using the structural equation modelling and the graphical representation of the concepts and results are presented and interpreted in Chapter Seven. The mediation conceptual models were tested using Process Macro software by Hayes (2022).

Process Macro

Process macro, as outlined by Hayes (2022), serves as a crucial analytical tool for assessing observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis within research frameworks. Specifically, in the context of this study, the process macro in SPSS plays a pivotal role in predicting mediation outcomes and is strategically positioned after the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) results for comprehensive data interpretation and inference.

Level of significance

The level of significance conveys the statistical significance of the results in terms of probability. According to Bhandari (2021), the level of significance is when a result is deemed not to be due to chance. The level of significance refers to the risk taken by the researcher to imply that the results obtained in the sample is generalizable to the population. It is referred to as the probability level. In business research, 0.05 is the acceptable level of significance. This means that there is a 5% chance that the relationship that exists in the sample does not reflect the relationship that is present in the population (Piedmont, 2023).

Bhandari (2021) add that the level of significance (p-value) determines whether a result is statistically significant or not. However, researchers can also commit errors in terms of the level of significance which are as follows:

- Type I error refers to a false positive. The researcher indicates that there is a relationship between variables when there is no relationship. The researcher rejects the null hypothesis (no relationship) when it was supposed to be accepted.
- Type II error refers to a false negative. The researcher accepts that there is no relationship where in fact there a relationship is. The researcher accepts the null hypothesis when it was supposed to be rejected (Piedmont, 2023).

There are different levels of statistical significance which are indicated in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Different levels of statistical significance

P-value	Significance
0.10	Less significant
0.01 to 0.05	Significant
0.001 to 0.01	Very significant
0.0001	Extremely significant

Source: McLeod (2023)

In this study, the $p \leq .05$ level of significance was applied which means that there was a 5% chance of incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis (no relationship). If the p-value is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis would be rejected meaning that there is a relationship between the variables.

6.14 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics in research work refers to a researcher's appropriate behaviour, determining what is right or wrong (Saunders et al., 2016). Consequently, ethics are the principles that must be adhered to in order to ensure the credibility of the research information and to protect the participants. To ensure that ethical principles in research were followed, a letter was sent to the appropriate HR executive heads of the public universities under study to provide them with information on the study and to seek permission to carry out the study at the universities. After the permission was granted, informed consent was ensured by providing all the participants with an explanation on the purpose of the research and requesting them to participate in the study. It was made known to them that the research was solely for academic purposes and that there were no known risks involved in participating. Participants were given a “consent form” to sign prior to completing the questionnaires to show their understanding and willingness to participate in the study. The questionnaire was self-administered to the respondents and as such the consent form was attached to the front page of the questionnaire. Therefore, respondents were expected to check a box indicating voluntary participation whereafter they were given access to the online questionnaire. Respondents were informed that they were free to withdraw from the study at any point in time.

The confidentiality of information was maintained. Participants were assured that their information would not be disclosed to a third party and hence anonymity was guaranteed. In addition, the names and identity of respondents were not revealed in any research output. Finally, all sources were dully referenced and acknowledged in the study.

The research was conducted within the ambit of the ethical requirements and procedures of UNISA and, the research ethics procedures of the institution were always followed. The UNISA ethical requirements and procedure considerations formed part of every step of the research process. This ensured that the researcher was guided during the study. Informed and voluntary consent was obtained from all the relevant participants during the study and all information, data and results remained strictly confidential. The research was designed in such a way that individuals, organisations and the community benefited from it while there was no harm inflicted on any individual involved in the research (Lefkowitz, 2008). The researcher aimed to remain objective and to conduct the research with integrity. The principles of ethics in research, as indicated in the Institutional Research Ethics Policy (University of South Africa, 2014b), are as follows:

- The fundamental right to academic freedom and freedom of scientific research
- Integrity in research that encompasses the competence and accountability of the researcher
- Acting responsibly and striving for excellence in research
- Not contravening the institutional Policy on Research Ethics
- Obtaining approval for research involving human participants
- Undertaking research that will benefit society
- Making the research findings available in the public domain
- Guiding against harmful or undesirable consequences of the research
- Honesty with regards to individual actions and responses to the actions of others
- Not committing plagiarism, piracy, falsification or fabrication of results
- Accurately and truthfully reporting the results of the research
- Reporting to the relevant Ethics Review Committee when requested to do so
- Researchers should adhere to relevant requirements arising in respect of data curatorship and data management

6.15 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the research design and methodology. The empirical investigation and the methods used in the study were explained in detail. The chapter covered the research objective for the empirical study, the determination and description of the sample, a description of the design of the measuring instrument, the data collection process in terms of administering the measuring instrument, the scoring and capturing procedure, and the data analysis processes. The chapter concluded with an overview of the ethical considerations adhered to by this study. The next chapter will discuss the results of the statistical analysis. The results will be used to answer the research questions and make recommendations on leadership competencies related to empowerment and OCB that can be promoted in academic institutions.

Chapter 7 : RESEARCH RESULTS

The results and interpretation of the data analysis based on the research objectives are presented in this chapter.

7.0 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 was dedicated to the research methodology of this study. The previous chapter included a description of the formulation of the research objectives, sampling, measuring instruments, methods used to ensure reliability and validity, research design, research data variables, data collection process, data processing, and analysis. The chapter ended with a discussion of the ethical considerations adhered to by the study. This chapter presents the research results, including descriptive statistics and participant profiles, descriptive analysis of constructs, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, reliability and validity assessments, and correlations. It also covers structural equation modelling with the outcomes of the direct, moderated, and mediated effects hypotheses, as well as tests for significant mean differences concerning respondents' ages, gender, educational level, and job level.

7.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: PARTICIPANT PROFILE

The socio-demographic characteristics of employees in the four public universities in Ghana, as reported in Table 7.1, provide critical insights into the study's purpose of investigating leadership, empowerment, and OCB. These characteristics shape the dynamics of the study's variables and offer a foundation for understanding the diversity within the sample population.

The predominance of male employees (60.6%) highlights potential gender-related implications in leadership and empowerment practices. This demographic could influence how empowerment initiatives and leadership styles are perceived and practiced, shedding light on whether these strategies are tailored to foster inclusivity and address both male and female employees' unique needs. The age distribution, with most respondents (19.2%) falling within the 18–25-year category and the least represented being 56–60 years (1.8%), suggests a relatively young workforce. This

observation is critical in understanding how generational differences within the workforce shape attitudes toward leadership and empowerment and their subsequent influence on OCB. Educational qualifications further reveal a well-educated workforce, with 33.1% having postgraduate-level qualifications. This suggests a workforce likely equipped with the cognitive skills necessary for empowerment and active participation in OCB. Job levels also indicate significant diversity, with senior staff constituting the largest group (44.5%), while senior members (administrative) represent the smallest category (10.5%). This stratification underscores the study's relevance in exploring leadership and empowerment at various organisational tiers, particularly in bridging gaps between administrative leadership and operational staff to foster OCB.

Table 7.1: Participant profile

Demographic variables	N= 447	
	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	271	60.6
Female	176	39.4
Age		
between 18 - 25 years	86	19.2
26 - 30 years	75	16.8
32 - 35 years	76	17.0
36 - 40 years	94	21.0
41 - 45 years	60	13.4
46 - 50 years	30	6.7
51 - 55 years	18	4.0
56 - 60 years	8	1.8
Educational Level		
SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	10.1
Undergraduate	113	25.3
Graduate	134	30.0
Postgraduate	148	33.1
Other	7	1.6
Job level/		
Junior staff	116	26.0
Senior staff	199	44.5
Senior member (academic)	85	19.0
Senior member (Administrative)	47	10.5

7.2 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF CONSTRUCTS

After the internal consistency and reliability of the Leadership, Employee Empowerment and OCB questionnaires were determined, the descriptive analysis was performed. The descriptive statistics of this study entailed the calculation of the means (*M*), standard deviations (*SD*), skewness and kurtosis of each of the constructs. The descriptive statistics of each of the factors are displayed in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2: Descriptive analysis of constructs

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Leadership						
Supervision and Staff development	4.68	1.11	-1.54	.12	2.10	.23
Interpersonal relationships	4.65	1.14	-1.33	.12	1.57	.23
Vision and goal orientation	4.76	1.04	-1.63	.12	2.81	.23
Employee empowerment						
Meaningfulness	5.09	.83	-2.06	.12	6.37	.23
Autonomy/decision making	4.54	1.02	-.78	.12	.30	.23
Competence	4.99	.88	-1.56	.12	3.35	.23
OCB						
Altruism	5.13	.77	-1.81	.12	5.32	.23
Sportsmanship	5.15	.74	-1.84	.12	5.71	.23
Conscientiousness	4.88	.85	-1.30	.12	2.44	.23
Civic virtue	4.85	.85	-1.06	.12	1.89	.23

The analysis of leadership perspectives, as captured in the leadership section of the questionnaire, provides critical insights into how leadership traits influence employee empowerment and OCB in public universities. The high mean score for Vision and Goal Orientation ($M = 4.76$, $SD = \pm 1.04$) underscores the significance of strategic clarity in leadership, suggesting that leaders who effectively articulate a clear vision and goals can foster a sense of purpose among employees,

thereby enhancing empowerment and promoting OCB. The standard deviation ($SD = \pm 1.04$) indicates moderate variability in responses, suggesting that while most participants agree on the importance of this leadership trait, there may be some differences in how it is perceived across the sample. In contrast, the lowest mean score for Interpersonal Relationships ($M = 4.65$, $SD = \pm 1.14$) highlights a relative area for improvement in the relational aspects of leadership. This finding suggests that while interpersonal relationships are generally viewed positively, they may not be as strongly emphasised or consistently demonstrated compared to other leadership traits. The slightly higher standard deviation ($SD = \pm 1.14$) reflects greater variability in responses, indicating differing levels of satisfaction with leaders' relational behaviours. This variability could point to inconsistent application of relational leadership skills, which may hinder trust-building and collaboration, both of which are crucial for fostering strong OCB.

In the employee empowerment construct, the high mean score for Meaningfulness ($M = 5.0889$, $SD = \pm 0.83$) underscores the importance of employees finding their work purposeful and engaging. This indicates a strong motivational factor that enhances employee involvement and their likelihood of exhibiting OCB. The relatively low standard deviation ($SD = \pm 0.83$) suggests a high level of agreement among participants regarding the meaningfulness of their work, indicating that this aspect of empowerment is consistently experienced across the sample. This consistency reinforces the idea that meaningful work serves as a critical driver of motivation, commitment, and discretionary effort in organisational settings. In contrast, the lower mean score for Autonomy/Decision-Making ($M = 4.54$, $SD = \pm 1.02$) highlights a potential shortfall in providing employees with sufficient freedom to make decisions. This limitation could dampen their sense of ownership and responsibility, which are key factors in fostering OCB. The standard deviation ($SD = \pm 1.02$), while moderate, reflects a wider variation in responses, suggesting that the perception of autonomy and decision-making opportunities may differ significantly among employees. This variability may point to inconsistencies in leadership practices or organisational structures that influence how decision-making autonomy is distributed.

The OCB analysis provides valuable insights into the prevalence and nature of voluntary behaviours among employees, highlighting both strengths and areas for improvement. Sportsmanship, with the highest mean score ($M = 5.15$, $SD = \pm 0.74$), reflects a strong culture of

tolerance and positive attitudes within the organisation, where employees maintain composure and focus on solutions even in challenging circumstances. The relatively low standard deviation ($SD = \pm.74$) suggests consistent perceptions of sportsmanship across the sample, reinforcing its significance as a dominant OCB dimension.

Similarly, the high mean score for Altruism ($M = 5.13$, $SD = \pm.77$) points to a workplace environment characterized by supportive behaviours and a willingness among employees to help their colleagues. This indicates a collaborative organisational culture where teamwork and mutual assistance are prioritized. The low variability ($SD = \pm.77$) further confirms that altruistic behaviours are widely observed and consistently practiced among employees.

Conversely, Civic Virtue, with the lowest mean score ($M = 4.85$, $SD = \pm.85$), indicates less engagement in behaviours that involve participation in institutional governance, policies, or initiatives. This finding suggests that employees may not feel sufficiently empowered or motivated to actively contribute to the broader organisational agenda, potentially reflecting gaps in leadership strategies or empowerment initiatives. Conscientiousness ($M = 4.88$, $SD = \pm.85$), with a slightly higher mean than Civic Virtue, highlights a moderate level of diligence and reliability among employees, though it suggests room for improvement in exceeding formal job requirements.

Skewness gives an indication of the nature of the distribution of the data. For a normal distribution, skewness values should fall between -1 to +1. According to the results, Leadership constructs of supervision and staff development (-1.542), Interpersonal Relationship (-1.326) and Vision and goal orientation (-1.625) were substantially negatively skewed. Similarly, OCB constructs of Altruism (-1.805), Sportsmanship (-1.840), Conscientiousness (-1.289), and Civic virtue (-1.055) were substantially negatively skewed. With regards to employee empowerment constructs of Meaningfulness (-2.061), Autonomy/decision making (-0.783), and Competence (-1.555), the data was also negatively skewed. However, Autonomy/decision making fell within the range of normality (-.783). The negatively skewed values for the variables implied that the one the side of the distribution was longer and that most values fell on the other side. Since the values for skewness fall between -1 and +1, they show that the data were normally distributed; hence, parametric statistics like Pearson correlation and SEM can be used.

Kurtosis is a statistical measure that defines how heavily the tails of a distribution differ from the tails of a normal distribution. Kurtosis gives an indication of the nature of distribution of the data, and it is considered normal for values ranging between -8 to +8 (Kline, 2016). From the analysis, kurtosis values for Leadership constructs of Supervision and Staff development (2.103), Interpersonal Relationship (1.569) and Vision and goal orientation (2.814) fell within the normal distribution range. Kurtosis values for the OCB construct of Conscientiousness (2.444) and Civic virtue (1.891) were within normality range. Similarly, Employee Empowerment constructs of Autonomy/decision making (0.3) had kurtosis value that fell within the normal distribution range. Furthermore, OCB constructs of Altruism (5.316) and Sportsmanship (5.713); and Employee Empowerment constructs of Meaningfulness (6.374) and Competence (3.352) had kurtosis values that fell within the normal distribution range. Again, since all the values for kurtosis fall between -8 and +8, they show that the data were normally distributed; hence, parametric statistics like Pearson correlation and SEM can be used.

Kline (2016) asserts that the acceptable threshold for kurtosis is +8 and -8. Based on the recommendation of Kline, this implies that data for these variables were also normally distributed

7.3 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Principal axis factoring (PAF) with varimax rotation was used as the extraction method for the exploratory factor analysis (EFA). PAF was selected because it is better suited for identifying latent constructs and underlying factors that explain the shared variance among observed variables, which aligns with the aim of this study to measure constructs like leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB. Unlike PCA, which is primarily a data reduction technique that transforms variables into a set of uncorrelated components, PAF focuses on explaining the covariance structure and extracting factors that represent the underlying theoretical constructs (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Costello & Osborne, 2005).

Additionally, PAF is more appropriate when the goal is to understand latent relationships rather than simply summarizing data. This study sought to explore the theoretical relationships among

variables rather than reducing the dataset to independent components, making PAF the more suitable choice. Furthermore, PAF assumes that measurement error is present in the observed variables, a realistic assumption in behavioural research, whereas PCA assumes that the total variance is meaningful, which can overestimate the importance of factors (Henson & Roberts, 2006).

Finally, using varimax rotation in conjunction with PAF ensured that the factors were orthogonal and interpretable while retaining the focus on latent constructs. This approach is consistent with best practices in factor analysis when seeking to derive meaningful constructs from correlated variables in HRM studies.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests were conducted to establish the sampling adequacy and suitability of the data for factor analysis before doing factor analysis using principal axis factoring. From Table 7.3, KMO for all three constructs (Leadership =0.99, Employee Empowerment =0.93, and OCB =0.97) was above 0.9, which is considered excellent sampling adequacy. Bartlett's test of sphericity tested the strength of the relationship between the variables, and each of the variables had a value of $p < 0.05$, indicating a relationship between variables and, therefore, factors analysis deemed suitable to be conducted.

Table 7.3: KMO and Bartlett's test for Leadership, Employee Empowerment, and OCB

		B: Leadership	C: Employee Empowerment	D: OCB
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy		0.99	0.93	0.97
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. Chi-square	20980.25	4193.77	8804.24
	Df	1035	153	465
	Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.000

7.3.1 Diagnostic Statistics for Factor Analysis

Eigenvalues were used to identify the number of factors to be extracted based on the Kaiser criterion (Braeken & van Assen, 2017). This is done after the sampling adequacy and significance of a relationship were determined using the KMO and Bartlett's test.

a. Leadership

The principal axis factor analyses for items under leadership revealed the presence of three factors with eigenvalues above 1 (Yong & Pearce, 2013). The three factors cumulatively explained 66.3% of the variance in the factor. The item loadings were above 0.50, the threshold used in this study and were considered suitable for inclusion in a factor. The factors in the rotated factor matrix were labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Supervision and staff development (SSD)

Factor 2: Interpersonal relationships (IR)

Factor 3: Vision and goal orientation (VGO)

Leadership items that loaded onto the factors are presented in Table 7.4. All the leadership items loaded on more than one factor; however, items were assigned to the leadership factor where the items loading was above 0.5 or the highest. Therefore, items that had more than 0.50 loaded onto more than one factor were considered as cross-loaded and therefore excluded from further analysis. Four items (24, 30, 42, and 45) were eliminated from further analysis.

Table 7.4: Leadership - Varimax rotated factor matrix

Items	Factor		
	Supervision & staff	Interpersonal relationships	Vision & goal orientation
My supervisor responds in a crisis situation by communicating measures that need to be followed.	.677		
My supervisor keeps people informed of what is going on.	.671		

Items	Factor		
	Supervision & staff	Interpersonal relationships	Vision & goal orientation
My supervisor ensures that the resources are available for goal achievement.	.668		
My supervisor encourages people to think of completely new approaches/solutions to problems.	.665		
My supervisor expresses concern for people.	.664		
My supervisor invests time in all employees and not only in high performing individuals.	.644		
My supervisor pays attention to the needs of employees.	.638		
My supervisor is decisive when required.	.633		
My supervisor is prepared to make difficult decisions.	.633		
My supervisor places the interest of the department above self-interest.	.632		
My supervisor is self- confident.	.632		
My supervisor inspires and motivates employees toward goal achievement.	.629		
My supervisor makes decisions based on information that is available at a particular time.	.622		
My supervisor invests in building good interpersonal relationships.	.616		
My supervisor encourages the questioning of traditional approaches to the job.	.609		
My supervisor encourages strategic, rather than short-term thinking.	.608		
My supervisor recognises and praises me on achievements.	.608		
My supervisor involves staff when making decisions.	.600		
My supervisor is concerned with meeting deadlines.	.573		
My supervisor takes corrective actions when employees under perform.	.571		
My supervisor is competent in terms of work-related knowledge.	.521		
My supervisor works together with employees in resolving a problem.	.504		
My supervisor has genuine interest in me as an individual.		.692	
My supervisor helps others to understand his/her visions through the use of tools, such as images, stories, and models.		.646	
My supervisor is flexible towards change.		.633	
My supervisor helps others with their self-development.		.619	
My supervisor goes out of the way to make others feel good to be around him/her.		.607	
My supervisor makes it easy for me to admit to mistakes.		.601	
My supervisor does not impose his/her own ideas onto employees.		.597	

Items	Factor		
	Supervision & staff	Interpersonal relationships	Vision & goal orientation
My supervisor trusts me to take decision/initiatives on important issues.		.556	
My supervisor encourages independent thinking.		.534	
My supervisor has an ever-expanding network of people who trust and rely upon him/her.		.526	
My supervisor does ensure that new and innovative ideas are used in solving problems.		.513	
My supervisor effectively promotes the achievements of the department/organisation to the outside world.		.507	
My supervisor is focused on long-term goals.		.505	
My supervisor can communicate effectively the vision of the authority/department to the public community.			.661
My supervisor keeps in touch by using face-to-face communication.			.657
My supervisor has a wide network of links to external environment.			.602
My supervisor is proactive in addressing problems.			.576
My supervisor adheres to rules and policies to perform tasks correctly.			.551
My supervisor is resilient to setback.			.521
My supervisor is accessible to staff at all levels.			.512
My supervisor defines boundaries of responsibility.			.503
My supervisor delegates effectively.			.500

b. Employee Empowerment

The principal axis factor analysis identified three factors related to employee empowerment. Each of the three factors had eigenvalues exceeding 1.0 which cumulatively explained 58.2% of the variation in the factor. The item loadings were all above 0.50 and were considered suitable for inclusion in a factor. The factors in the rotated factor matrix were labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Meaningfulness

Factor 2: Autonomy

Factor 3: Competence

Employee empowerment items that loaded onto the factors are presented in Table 7.5. The employee empowerment items that loaded on more than one factor were assigned to the factor where it loaded the highest. However, items that loaded more than 0.50 onto more than one factor were considered as cross loaded and therefore excluded from further analysis.

Four items (10, 15, 17, and 18) and assigned corresponding factor were eliminated because it did not meet the reliability criteria. The issue of reliability and the items that were deleted are indicated and discussed in the section dealing with reliability.

Table 7.5: Empowerment – Varimax rotated factor matrix

Item description	Factor		
	Meaningfulness	Autonomy	Competence
The work that I do is important to me	.781		
I am confident about my ability to do my job	.776		
My job is well within the scope of my abilities	.690		
I really care about what I do on my job	.673		
My impact on what happens in my department is large	.608		
My job activities are personally meaningful to me	.606		
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	.549		
I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department		.777	
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work		.716	
My opinion counts in departmental decision-making		.594	
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job		.562	
I have significant influence over what happens in my department		.549	
I have a chance to use personal initiative in carrying out my work			.508
The work I do is meaningful to me			.504

c. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

Regarding OCB, the principal-axis factor analysis indicated the presence of four factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1.0 which cumulatively explained 54.8% of the variance in the factor. The item loadings were above 0.50 and were considered suitable for inclusion in a factor. The factors in the varimax rotated factor matrix were labelled as follows:

Factor 1: Altruism

Factor 2: Sportsmanship

Factor 3: Conscientiousness

Factor 4: Civic virtue

OCB items that loaded onto the factors are presented in Table 7.6. The OCB items that loaded on more than one factor were assigned to the where it loaded the highest. However, items that loaded more than 0.50 onto more than one factor were considered as cross-loading and therefore excluded from further analysis. Items 8, 11, 16, 17, 20, 22, 28, 29 and 30 were eliminated from further analysis.

Table 7.6: OCB - Varimax rotated factor matrix.

Items	Factor			
	Altruism	Sportsmanship	Conscientiousness	Civic virtue
I go beyond the call of duty to ensure the completion of a project/task	.712			
I assist my co-workers with their tasks	.693			
I do not mind standing in for colleagues on leave	.645			
I am willing to assist my supervisor voluntarily whenever he/she needs assistance	.630			
I have the organisation's interest at heart when conducting my duties	.589			
I try to assist others so that they do not encounter problems in their job	.546			
I abide by the rules and regulations of the workplace	.528			

Items	Factor			
	Altruism	Sportsmanship	Conscientiousness	Civic virtue
I provide suggestions to improve the performance of the department/organisation	.508			
I maintain a positive attitude when confronted with difficulties		.625		
I am willing to develop my work-related skills		.624		
I am polite to my co-workers		.618		
I am able to bear the inconveniences that may arise in the organisation		.611		
I share information with colleagues in order to avoid problems from occurring		.529		
I will report irregularities to ensure good governance of my organisation			.659	
I keep myself updated with information concerning my organisation			.567	
I see it as my duty to attend voluntary functions organised by the organisation			.540	
We work as one big family at work			.514	
I truly believe that my organisation takes employees' interest at heart				.606
I am prepared to accept a small pay increase in times of financial difficulties faced by the organisation				.598
I have a clear job description				.591
I aim to protect my organisation from internal threats				.546
I keep strictly to the tasks outlined in my job description				.535

Table 7.7: Summary of factor analysis

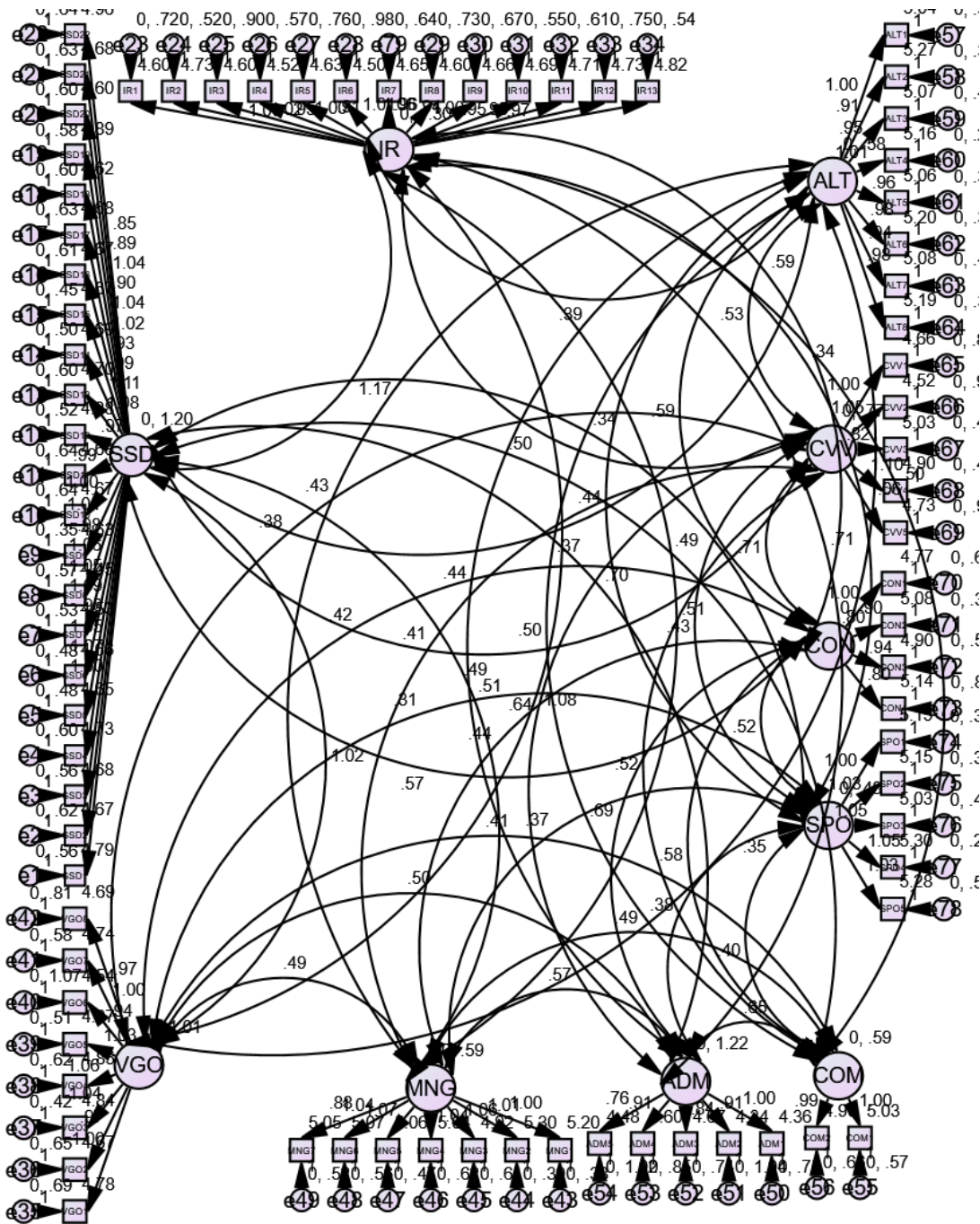
	Dimension name	Dimension description	Items per dimension
Leadership			
Factor 1	Supervision and Staff development	Refers to elements of a leader exhibiting proper supervision and investing in the development of employees.	23, 37, 26, 36, 28, 40, 31, 32, 25, 33, 35, 38, 43, 29, 27, 39, 22, 41, 44, 46, 11 Total = 21
Factor 2	Interpersonal relationships	Refers to the interaction between leaders and employees and includes elements of support, creation of opportunities in decision making, level of understanding, motivation towards work goals, friendliness, working jointly with employees and serving as a role model.	6, 4, 8, 2, 1, 7, 3, 9, 17, 5, 13, 14, 19 Total = 13
Factor 3	Vision and goal orientation	Refers to elements of a leader's ambition of focusing on long term goal, proactiveness in addressing problems, assertive towards goal achievement and effective communication of vision.	15, 18, 12, 21, 34, 16, 20, 10 Total = 8
Total number of items:			42
Employee Empowerment			
Factor 1	Meaningfulness	Meaningfulness is the degree to which people are provided with meaningful work. Employees are empowered through appreciation of their value. Employees need to perceive that work allocated to them is congruent with their value system.	2, 1, 9, 8, 4, 5, 11 Total = 7
Factor 2	Autonomy/ decision making	It is where employees have the authority to take decision on challenges they encounter during their daily work, make changes to their work processes without the need to seek consent from management.	6, 7, 12, 3, 14, Total = 5
Factor 3	Competence	Competence refers to the employee's perceptions that he/she has the ability to perform assigned tasks. It is the employees' belief that they have the ability and technical competence necessary to complete the required tasks. and that the tasks allocated to them allow them to utilize their competencies.	16, 13 Total = 2
Total number of items:			14
OCB			

	Dimension name	Dimension description	Items per dimension
Factor 1	Altruism	Volunteering action of helping others to achieve their goals. It also involves peace-making, interpersonal helping, and assisting colleagues.	4, 1, 3, 2, 6, 5, 15, 7 Total = 8
Factor 2	Sportsmanship	It is a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining” and the willingness to sacrifice ones’ personal interest for the good of the group.	24, 26, 27, 25, 23, Total = 5
Factor 3	Conscientiousness	Refers to accepting responsibility and taking discretionary action that goes beyond the minimum requirements of the organisation.	21, 19, 18, 31 Total = 4
Factor 4	Civic virtue	Refers to a willingness to actively participate in organisational governance such as attending meetings and engaging in policy debates.	9, 10, 13, 12, 14, Total = 5
Total number of items:			22

7.3.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the SPSS AMOS version 23 was performed to determine the construct validity of the leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB scale. The multicollinearity test using the variation inflation factor (VIF) was first conducted for this study. Item 30 for the leadership variable showed multicollinearity and was excluded from the scale. CFA was conducted on 79 items for the constructs on the leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB scales. Figure 7.1 provides the measurement model for leadership, employee empowerment and OCB.

Figure 7.1: CFA for Leadership, Employee Empowerment and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour



Source: field data, 2023.

The goodness-of-fit indices for the CFA model of the Leadership/Employee Empowerment/OCB scale is presented in Table 7.8.

Table 7.8: Goodness of fit indices: CFA of the Leadership, Employee empowerment, and OCB questionnaire

Measure	Estimate	Threshold
CMIN	6461.649	--
DF	2957	--
CMIN/DF	2.185	Between 1 and 3
CFI	0.886	>0.9
IFI	0.887	>0.9
NFI	0.890	>0.9
P-Value for test of close fit	0.055	>0.05
RMSEA	.052	<0.050

7.4 RELIABILITY

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to evaluate the reliability of the factors established in the factors analysis. These coefficients ranged from 0.723 to 0.932, which exceeded the 0.70 threshold value proposed by Hair et al. (2017). The internal consistency of each scale is provided in Tables 7.9, 7.10 and 7.11.

7.5. VALIDITY

This model's validity was estimated using convergent and discriminant validity. The Composite reliability (CR), factor loadings, and average variance extracted (AVE) were reported for convergent validity. Composite reliability (CR) was used because it is more suited to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) within SEM. Unlike Cronbach's alpha, which assumes that all items contribute equally to the construct and relies on the observed variance, CR considers the actual factor loadings of individual items (Raykov, 1997). This makes CR a better measure of internal consistency in the SEM context, where constructs are modelled as latent variables with varying

relationships to their indicators (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). CR provides a more accurate representation of reliability by weighting the contribution of each item based on its standardized loading.

However, Cronbach's alpha was also included because it remains a widely recognized measure of reliability, particularly in HRM literature. It provides a straightforward and traditional assessment of internal consistency that is easily interpretable and comparable across studies. In SEM, Cronbach's alpha complements CR by offering additional evidence of scale reliability, especially when researchers want to align their work with established benchmarks in the field (Hair et al., 2014).

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was included in the analysis as it plays a critical role in assessing convergent validity, which ensures that the items within a construct are highly correlated and measure the same underlying concept (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Specifically, AVE measures the proportion of variance captured by a latent construct in relation to the total variance, including error. A high AVE value (≥ 0.50) indicates that the construct explains a significant portion of the variance in its indicators, thereby confirming that the items converge on the same theoretical construct. In this study, AVE was calculated to validate the constructs of leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB, ensuring that their respective items demonstrated strong internal consistency and aligned well with the latent variables they were intended to measure (Hair et al., 2014).

Additionally, in the SEM realm, AVE is crucial for comparing the constructs' convergent validity against their discriminant validity. It is used alongside other metrics such as composite reliability to confirm that a construct is both internally consistent and distinct from other constructs in the model. This dual assessment ensures the robustness and interpretability of the SEM results.

By incorporating AVE, this study adheres to best practices in construct validation, ensuring the theoretical constructs are adequately measured and provide meaningful insights into the relationships being investigated.

All standardised loading estimates were statistically significant and greater than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2021; McNeish et al., 2018). The AVE values were above 0.5 except for competence which was below the recommended level of 0.50 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The composite reliability values were more than the required level of 0.7 except for competence which recorded a value of 0.697.

Table 7.9: Reliability and convergent validity of Leadership

LEADERSHIP Constructs	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Composite Reliability (CR)	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Supervision and staff development	0.682	0.826	0.980
Interpersonal Relationship	0.646	0.804	0.959
Vision and goal oriented	0.608	0.780	0.932

Table 7.10: Reliability and Convergent Validity of Empowerment

EMPOWERMENT Constructs	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Composite Reliability (CR)	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Meaningfulness	0.584	0.741	0.893
Autonomy and decision making	0.522	0.722	0.859
Competence	0.501	0.697	0.787

Table 7.11: Reliability and Convergent Validity of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

OCB Constructs	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Composite Reliability (CR)	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Altruism	0.604	0.777	0.923
Civic Virtue	0.535	0.731	0.869
Consciousness	0.551	0.742	0.843
Sportsmanship	0.577	0.759	0.895

Discriminant validity was examined using a comprehensive strategy that included an analysis of average variance extracted (AVE) and the square roots of AVE scores across constructs. This method is well-known for its ability to demonstrate that measurement items actually represent separate and unrelated variables (Rönkkö & Cho, 2022). When compared to construct correlations, the square root of the AVE was employed as a significant indicator of potential discriminant validity concerns. The CFA results conclusively confirm the presence of discriminant validity in the study. The square root of the AVE for each construct was clearly higher than the correlation coefficients between these constructs. This observation emphasises the distinct demarcation between the latent variables under consideration, emphasising the notion that each construct represents a distinct concept.

Furthermore, the analysis considered the composite reliability (CR) scores in respect of the AVE values. According to Rönkkö and Cho (2022), the CR scores consistently exceeded the AVE values across all constructs. This supports the assertion of discriminant validity by implying that the variance shared by items within each construct is distinct from the variance shared by items from other constructs. Table 7.12 displays the discriminant validity results.

Table 7.12: Discriminant validity

Constructs	Alpha (α)	CR	AVE	SSD	IR	VGO	MNG	ADM	COM	ALT	CVV	SPO	CON
SSD	0.98	0.97	0.68	0.82									
IR	0.95	0.95	0.64	0.93	0.80								
VGO	0.93	0.92	0.60	0.92	0.93	0.77							
MNG	0.89	0.89	0.54	0.60	0.58	0.62	0.74						
ADM	0.85	0.84	0.52	0.58	0.56	0.44	0.67	0.72					
COM	0.78	0.65	0.50	0.58	0.57	0.53	0.82	0.77	0.69				
ALT	0.92	0.92	0.60	0.44	0.45	0.46	0.73	0.52	0.86	0.77			
CVV	0.86	0.85	0.53	0.51	0.50	0.43	0.60	0.65	0.77	0.79	0.73		
SPO	0.89	0.87	0.57	0.44	0.43	0.44	0.70	0.50	0.75	0.84	0.71	0.74	
CON	0.84	0.82	0.55	0.55	0.54	0.44	0.60	0.66	0.79	0.82	0.85	0.78	0.76

Note: The square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) appears in bold

Note: SSD = Supervisiion and Staff Development, IR = Interpersonal relationships, VGO = Vison and Goals, MNG = Meaningulness, ADM = Autonomy/ Decision-making, COM = Competence, ALT = Altruism, CVV= Civic Virtue, SPO= Sportsmanship and CON = Conscientiousness

7.6. CORRELATIONS

Correlation analysis is a test of the existence of a relationship between variables and their related factors. For this study, the correlation analysis was carried out by means of the Pearson product-moment correlation which is a measure of the strength and direction of the relationship between the factors of the variables (leadership, employee empowerment and OCB). The results of the

Pearson product-moment correlation analysis and the bivariate correlations are presented in Table 7.13.

Table 7.13: Correlations Between Leadership, Empowerment and OCB

	LEADERSHIP			EMPOWERMENT			OCB			
	SSD	IR	VGO	MNG	ADM	COM	ALT	CVV	SPO	CON
SSD	1									
IR	0.94	1								
VGO	0.92	0.94	1							
MNG	0.60	0.58	0.63	1						
ADM	0.58	0.56	0.45	0.67	1					
COM	0.58	0.57	0.54	0.83	0.77	1				
ALT	0.45	0.45	0.46	0.73	0.52	0.86	1			
CVV	0.51	0.50	0.44	0.60	0.66	0.78	0.79	1		
SPO	0.45	0.43	0.45	0.71	0.50	0.76	0.84	0.71	1	
CON	0.55	0.54	0.44	0.61	0.66	0.79	0.82	0.85	0.79	1
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).										

Note: SSD = Supervision and Staff Development, IR = Interpersonal relationships, VGO = Vision and Goals, MNG = Meaningfulness, ADM = Autonomy/ Decision-making, COM = Competence, ALT = Altruism, CVV= Civic Virtue, SPO= Sportsmanship and CON = Conscientiousness

Correlation between Leadership and OCB

Supervision and Staff development as the first dimension of leadership correlated significantly with the dimension of OCB: altruism, sportsmanship, consciousness, and civic virtue. The relationships were positive with the highest consciousness ($r = .55$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect) followed by civic virtue ($r = .51$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect). Altruism and sportsmanship both had the least positive correlation ($r = .45$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect) with leadership dimension of Supervision and Staff development. The positive relationship indicates that leadership in public universities in Ghana that present more supervision and staff development have a positive influence on employee engagement in all aspects of OCB in the organisation.

Interpersonal relationships as a dimension of leadership correlated significantly with the dimensions of OCB: altruism, sportsmanship, consciousness, and civic virtue. The highest positive relationship was with consciousness ($r = .54$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect), followed by civic virtue ($r = .50$; $p \leq .00$; medium practical effect) and altruism ($r = .45$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect) with the least positive relationship being sportsmanship ($r = .43$; $p \leq .001$). the results suggests that leaders with good interpersonal relationships are more likely to influence employees' OCB in public universities in Ghana.

The leadership dimension of vision and goal orientation had significant relationships with the dimensions of OCB: altruism, sportsmanship, consciousness, and civic virtue. the strongest positive relationship was with altruism ($r = .46$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect), followed by sportsmanship ($r = .45$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect). both civic virtue and conscientiousness ($r = .44$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect) had the least positive relationship with vision and goal orientation. the results indicate that the vision and goal orientation of leaders are likely to motivate employees to be involved in OCB activities.

Correlation between Empowerment and OCB

Table 7.10 shows the correlation results between employee empowerment and OCB. The first dimension of employee empowerment, Meaningfulness correlates significantly with the dimensions of OCB: altruism, sportsmanship, consciousness, and civic virtue. The results indicate that the relationships were all positive for all the dimensions of OCB. The strongest positive relationship was with altruism ($r = .073$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect), followed by sportsmanship ($r = .71$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect). This is also followed by conscientiousness ($r = .61$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect), and civic virtue ($r = .60$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect). The results indicate that managers that allow employees to perform meaningful work and value their contributions are likely to inspire employees towards engaging in OCB activities.

Autonomy/decision-making as a dimension of employee empowerment had a relationship with OCB: altruism, sportsmanship, consciousness, and civic virtue. The results indicate that the relationships were all positive for all the dimensions of OCB. Both conscientiousness and civic virtue ($r = .66$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect) were the strongest positive relationships followed by

altruism ($r = .52$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect) and sportsmanship ($r = .50$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect). The results suggest that managers that encourage autonomy and decision making in the workplace are likely to inspire employees towards engaging in OCB in all dimensions.

The third dimension of employee empowerment, competence, correlated significantly with the dimensions of OCB: altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. The results indicate that all dimensions of OCB had a positive relationship. The strongest positive relationship was with Altruism ($r = .86$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect), followed by conscientiousness ($r = .79$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect) and civic virtue ($r = .78$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect). The least positive relationship was sportsmanship ($r = .076$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect). The results suggest that employees who believe in their own competency are more willing to engage in OCB activities.

Correlation between Leadership and Empowerment

Leadership dimensions (supervision and staff development, interpersonal relationship and vision and goal orientation) correlated significantly with employee empowerment dimensions of meaningfulness and autonomy/decision-making. the results indicate that the relationships were all positive. vision and goal orientation had the strongest correlation with meaningfulness ($r = .63$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect). this was followed by the correlation between supervision and staff development and meaningfulness ($r = .60$; $p \leq .001$; high practical effect), and the correlation between interpersonal relationship and meaningfulness ($r = .58$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect). the employee empowerment construct of autonomy had a medium significant correlation with supervision and staff development ($r = .58$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect), interpersonal relationship ($r = .56$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect), and small significant correlation with vision and goal orientation ($r = .45$; $p \leq .001$; small practical effect). the employee empowerment construct of competence had a medium significant correlation with supervision and staff development ($r = .58$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect), interpersonal relationship ($r = .57$; $p \leq .001$; medium practical effect), and medium significant correlation with vision and goal orientation ($r = .54$; $p \leq .001$; small practical effect). The positive relationship indicates that leadership in public universities in Ghana that invest in effective supervision and staff development, interpersonal

relationships and display vision and goal orientation is linked to a positive influence on employee empowerment.

7.7 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING

This section presents the structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis conducted to evaluate the relationships among leadership, empowerment, and OCB, in line with the research objective and hypotheses. The analysis examines the direct and indirect effects of leadership and empowerment on OCB, considering empowerment as both a moderator and mediator in these relationships. By integrating the analysis of the hypotheses, this section seeks to provide empirical evidence that addresses the study's core research purposes:

1. To investigate the relationship between leadership and OCB.
2. To explore the relationship between empowerment and OCB.
3. To assess the relationship between leadership and empowerment.
4. To examine the moderating and mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB.

Through this analysis, the findings aim to illuminate the mechanisms by which leadership and empowerment influence OCB, offering insights into their interconnected roles within organisational dynamics. The results not only test the proposed hypotheses but also clarify the theoretical contributions and practical implications of the study.

The structural relationships between the variables are depicted in the structural equation model in Figure 7.2.

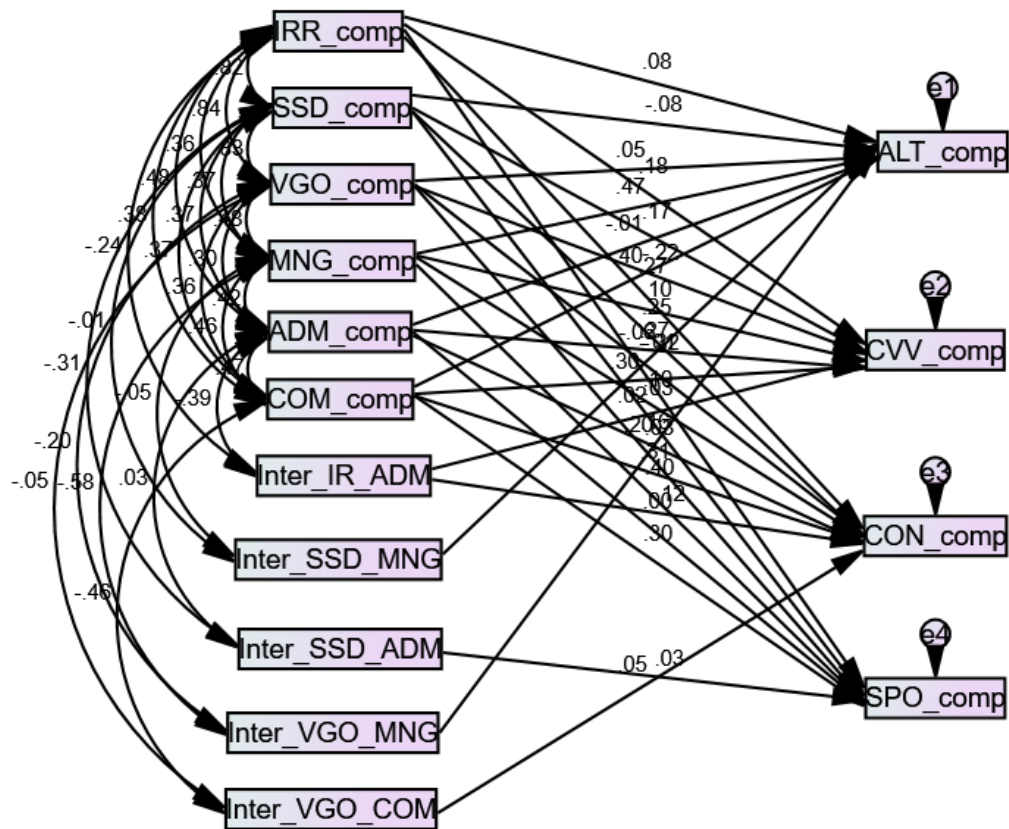


Figure 7.2: SEM model 1: Leadership, Interaction between Leadership and empowerment and OCB

The goodness-of-fit index was used to examine the model fit as shown in Table 7.14:

Table 7.14: Goodness-of-fit indices: SEM model 1

Measure	Estimate	Threshold
CMIN	6658.171	--
DF	2967	--
CMIN/DF	2.24	Between 1 and 3
CFI	0.880	>0.9
IFI	0.881	>0.9
NFI	0.840	>0.9
RMSEA	0.053	<0.050

Different indices are used in assessing the fitness of a model based on recommended values in literature. The overall fit in a structural equation model is the likelihood-ratio chi-square statistics, of which Bagozzi and Yi (1988) have suggested a CMIN/df < 3. Table 7.14 indicates a CMIN/df (2.24) value below the threshold. Further asserted goodness-of-fit indices such as CFI, IFI and NFI, have recommended values of > 0.90 to be considered as acceptable., The model indices obtained for CFI, NFI and IFI were lower than 0.90 but considered a marginal fit.

7.7.1 Hypotheses outcome of direct effects

Leadership and OCB

The first research objective focused on examining the relationship between leadership and OCB. This section of the thesis is dedicated to presenting the findings related to the objective. The results from the SEM analysis as provided in Table 7.15 shed light on the relationship between supervision and staff development (SSD) and various dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour. When the t-values are more than + 1.96 or – 1.96 then the relationship is significant the 0.05 level of significance. With respect to the relationship between leadership and OCB (H1a), the result indicates that supervision and staff development exhibit a negative relationship with altruism, although this relationship is not statistically significant ($\beta = -0.057$; t-value = -1.256; p-value = 0.209). Similarly, H1b suggests a positive relationship between SSD and sportsmanship (SPO), yet this relationship is not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.021$; t-value = 0.328; p-value = 0.743). However, the relationship between SSD and civic virtue (H1c) is positive and statistically significant ($\beta = 0.150$; t-value = 2.334; p-value = 0.020). This suggests that SSD significantly enhances civic virtue among employees. H1d demonstrates a positive relationship between SSD and conscientiousness (CON), and this relationship is statistically significant ($\beta = 0.205$; t-value = 3.385; p-value < 0.001). In summary, the findings support H1c and H1d, indicating that supervision and staff development have a positive and significant influence on civic virtue and conscientiousness. However, the relationships with altruism and sportsmanship (H1a and H1b) are not statistically significant, suggesting that these dimensions of OCB are less affected by SSD in this context.

With respect to the second set of hypotheses, the results illuminate the relationships between interpersonal relationships (IRR) and various dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour. Turning to H2a, the study find that interpersonal relationships exhibit a positive relationship with altruism. However, this relationship is not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.050$; $t\text{-value} = 1.011$; $p\text{-value} = 0.312$), suggesting that Interpersonal Relationships do not significantly influence altruistic behaviour among employees. Similarly, H2b suggests that the relationship between IRR and sportsmanship (SPO) is positive. Still, like H2a, this relationship is not statistically significant ($\beta = -0.005$; $t\text{-value} = -0.081$; $p\text{-value} = 0.935$). However, moving to H2c, an intriguing result is observed. The relationship between IRR and civic virtue (CVV) is positive and statistically significant ($\beta = 0.150$; $t\text{-value} = 2.049$; $p\text{-value} = 0.040$), indicating that IRR significantly enhance civic virtue among employees. H2d demonstrates a positive relationship between interpersonal relationships and conscientiousness, and this relationship is highly statistically significant ($\beta = 0.212$; $t\text{-value} = 3.066$; $p\text{-value} = 0.002$). In summary, the findings support H2c and H2d, indicating that interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant influence on civic virtue and conscientiousness, respectively. However, the relationships with altruism and sportsmanship (H2a and H2b) are not statistically significant, suggesting that these dimensions of OCB are less affected by Interpersonal Relationships in this context.

The next set of hypotheses explore the relationships between vision and goals (VGO) and various dimensions of OCB. With respect to H3a, the results reveal a positive relationship between VGO and altruism, albeit not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.040$; $t\text{-value} = 0.693$; $p\text{-value} = 0.488$). Similarly, H3b suggests a positive relationship between VGO and sportsmanship (SPO), yet this relationship is not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.020$; $t\text{-value} = 0.296$; $p\text{-value} = 0.767$). Turning to H3c, a noteworthy result is observed. The relationship between VGO and civic virtue (CVV) is negative and statistically significant ($\beta = -0.200$; $t\text{-value} = -2.534$; $p\text{-value} = 0.011$). This indicates that Vision and Goals have a significant negative impact on civic virtue among employees. H3d demonstrates a robust negative relationship between VGO and conscientiousness (CON), which is highly statistically significant ($\beta = -0.280$; $t\text{-value} = -3.737$; $p\text{-value} < 0.001$). In summary, the findings support Hypotheses 3c and 3d, suggesting that Vision and Goals have a significant negative influence on civic virtue and conscientiousness. However, the relationships with altruism

and sportsmanship (H3a and H3b) are not statistically significant, implying that these dimensions of OCB are less influenced by Vision and Goals in this context.

Table 7.15: Structural path parameters between constructs of leadership and OCB

Structural path	Estimate	S.E.	t-value	P-value
Altruism_<---Interpersonal relationship	.05	.049	1.011	.312
Civic virtue_<--- Interpersonal relationship	.15	.073	2.049	.040**
conscientiousness _<--- Interpersonal relationship	.21	.069	3.066	.002*
Sportsmanship_<--- Interpersonal relationship_	-.01	.056	-.081	.935
Altruism _<---Supervision and staff development	-.06	.046	-1.256	.209
Civic virtue _<--- Supervision and staff development _	.15	.064	2.334	.020**
conscientiousness _ <--- Supervision and staff dev't _	.21	.060	3.385	.001*
Sportsmanship _ <--- Supervision and staff development _	.02	.063	.328	.743
Altruism _ <---Vision and goal orientation_	.04	.057	.693	.488
Civic virtue _ <--- Vision and goal orientation _	-.20	.079	-2.534	.011**
conscientiousness _ <--- Vision and goal orientation _	-.28	.075	-3.737	.001*
Sportsmanship _ <--- Vision and goal orientation _	.02	.066	.296	.767
*0.05 level of statistical significance				
**0.01 level of statistical significance				

Empowerment and OCB

The second research objective focused on evaluating the relationship between empowerment and OCB. This section of the thesis is dedicated to presenting the findings related to the objective. The fourth set of hypotheses deals with the intricate relationships between meaningfulness (MNG) and the various dimensions of OCB as indicated in Table 7.16. When the t-values are more than + 1.96 or – 1.96 then the relationship is significant the 0.05 level of significance. H4a reveals a substantial and highly statistically significant positive relationship between meaningfulness and altruism ($\beta = 0.445$; t-value = 8.490; p-value < 0.001). This suggests that heightened levels of meaningfulness significantly enhance altruistic behaviours among employees. H4b presents a similar pattern, showing a strong and highly statistically significant positive relationship between meaningfulness and sportsmanship ($\beta = 0.383$; t-value = 8.397; p-value < 0.001). The findings support that greater meaningfulness leads to increased sportsmanship within the organisation.

Moving to H4c, we observe a positive relationship between meaningfulness and civic virtue (CVV), which is statistically significant ($\beta = 0.124$; $t\text{-value} = 2.177$; $p\text{-value} = 0.030$). This result indicates that meaningfulness has a modest yet significant influence on civic virtue. Finally, H4d demonstrates a positive relationship between meaningfulness and conscientiousness which is statistically significant ($\beta = 0.111$; $t\text{-value} = 2.029$; $p\text{-value} = 0.042$). The results show that increased meaningfulness fosters conscientious behaviour among employees. In summary, the findings strongly support Hypotheses 4a and 4b, suggesting that meaningfulness significantly and positively impacts altruism and sportsmanship. Moreover, they provide evidence for the positive, albeit somewhat moderate, influence of meaningfulness on civic virtue (H4c) and conscientiousness (H4d).

The next set of hypotheses examined the relationships between Autonomy/Decision-making (ADM) and the various dimensions of OCB. Beginning with H5a, the results indicated a negligible negative relationship between autonomy/decision-making and altruism ($\beta = -0.009$; $t\text{-value} = -0.285$; $p\text{-value} = 0.776$). This result indicates that autonomy/decision-making doesn't significantly impact altruism. Similarly, for H5b, we find a minimal positive relationship between autonomy/decision-making and sportsmanship (SPO) ($\beta = 0.003$; $t\text{-value} = 0.073$; $p\text{-value} = 0.942$), which is not statistically significant. In contrast, moving on to H5c, there exists a robust and highly statistically significant positive relationship between autonomy/decision-making and civic virtue ($\beta = 0.231$; $t\text{-value} = 5.117$; $p\text{-value} < 0.001$). Since the $t\text{-value}$ (5.117) is more than 1.96 it implies that autonomy/decision-making significantly fosters civic virtue among employees. Finally, H5d demonstrates a positive and highly statistically significant relationship between autonomy/decision-making and conscientiousness (CON) ($\beta = 0.136$; $t\text{-value} = 3.154$; $p\text{-value} = 0.002$). These results show that heightened autonomy/decision-making leads to enhanced conscientious behaviour among employees. In summary, the findings suggest that autonomy/decision-making has a significant and positive influence on civic virtue (H5c) and conscientiousness (H5d). However, it does not significantly affect altruism or sportsmanship (H5a and H5b).

The relationships between competence and various dimensions of OCB are examined in the next set of hypotheses. Regarding H6a, the result uncovers a substantial and highly statistically

significant positive relationship between competence and altruism ($\beta = 0.319$; t-value = 9.576; p-value < 0.001). This finding indicates that competence significantly enhances altruistic behaviours among employees. Similarly, H6b demonstrates a robust and highly statistically significant positive relationship between competence and civic virtue ($\beta = 0.298$; t-value = 6.526; p-value < 0.001). This suggests that competence significantly fosters civic virtue among employees. H6c shows another positive and highly statistically significant relationship between competence and conscientiousness ($\beta = 0.297$; t-value = 5.674; p-value < 0.001). These results indicate that heightened competence is associated with increased conscientious behaviour among employees. Finally, H6d demonstrates a significant and highly statistically significant positive relationship between competence and sportsmanship (SPO) ($\beta = 0.239$; t-value = 6.639; p-value < 0.001). This implies that competence significantly enhances sportsmanship behaviour among employees. In summary, the findings strongly support H6a, H6b, H6c, and H6d, suggesting that competence has a substantial and positive influence on altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship.

Table 7.16: Structural path parameters between constructs of employee empowerment and OCB

Structural path	Estimate	S.E.	t-value	P-value
conscientiousness _ <---meaningfulness_	.111	.055	2.029	.042**
altruism _ <--- meaningfulness _	.445	.052	8.490	.001*
civic virtue _ <--- meaningfulness _	.124	.057	2.177	.030**
sportsmanship _ <--- meaningfulness _	.383	.046	8.397	.001*
altruism _ <---autonomy/decision-making_	-.009	.031	-.285	.776
civic virtue _ <--- autonomy/decision-making_	.231	.045	5.117	.001*
conscientiousness _ <--- autonomy/decision-making_	.136	.043	3.154	.002*
sportsmanship _ <--- autonomy/decision-making_	.003	.034	.073	.942
altruism _ <---competence_	.319	.033	9.576	.001*
civic virtue _ <--- competence _	.298	.046	6.526	.001*

Structural path	Estimate	S.E.	t-value	P-value
conscientiousness _ <--- competence _	.297	.052	5.674	.001*
sportsmanship_ <--- competence _	.239	.036	6.639	.001*
*0.05 level of statistical significance				
**0.01 level of statistical significance				

Leadership and Empowerment

The third research objective focused on assessing the relationship between leadership and OCB. This section of the thesis is dedicated to presenting the findings related to the objective. This section focusses on the relationship between leadership and empowerment. The model as well as the fit indices between these two concepts is presented next. This followed by a discussion of the results.

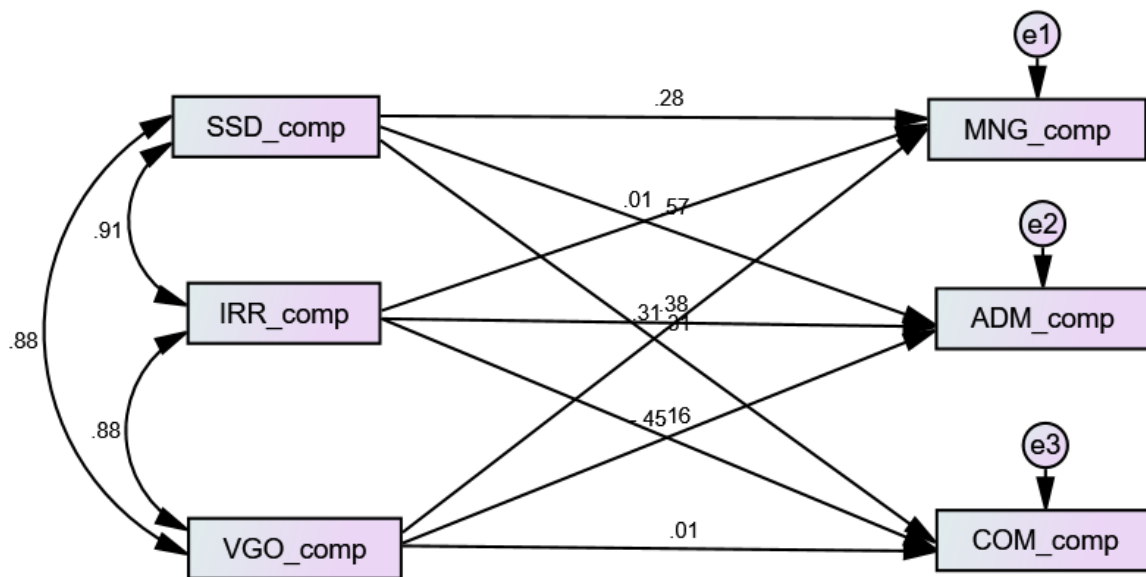


Figure 7.3: SEM Model 2: Leadership and Empowerment

Table: 7.17: Goodness of Fit for SEM Model 2

Measure	Estimate	Threshold
CMIN	288.044	--
DF	97	--
CMIN/DF	2.97	Between 1 and 3
CFI	0.873	>0.9
IFI	0.874	>0.9
NFI	0.873	>0.9
RMSEA	0.046	<0.050

Various metrics are utilized to evaluate the appropriateness of a model based on established benchmarks in the literature. The overall adequacy of a structural equation model is typically assessed using the likelihood-ratio chi-square statistic (Alavi et al., 2020) with Bagozzi and Yi (1988) proposing a CMIN/df ratio of less than 3 as desirable. In Table 7.17, the CMIN/df value (2.97) falls below this threshold. Additionally, other goodness-of-fit indicators such as CFI, IFI, and NFI are recommended to exceed 0.90 to be deemed acceptable. Although the obtained model indices for CFI, NFI, and IFI were below 0.90, they were still considered to indicate a marginal fit.

The relationships between supervision and staff development (SSD) and different dimensions of empowerment, specifically meaningfulness (MNG), autonomy/decision-making (ADM), and competence (COM) are discussed next. The results are provided in Table 7.18. When the t-values are more than + 1.96 or – 1.96 then the relationship is significant the 0.05 level of significance. The results indicate a positive relationship between supervision and staff development (SSD) and meaningfulness (MNG) in the context of the study. This relationship is statistically significant ($\beta = 0.209$; t-value = 2.811; p-value = 0.005). Therefore, Hypothesis 7a is supported, suggesting that higher levels of supervision and staff development enhance the sense of meaningfulness in terms of empowerment. This implies that organisations emphasizing SSD are more likely to make employees' roles and tasks feel more meaningful, potentially resulting in more engaged and motivated employees. Moreover, the results for the relationship between SSD and autonomy/decision-making (ADM) are noteworthy. The findings show a robust positive

relationship ($\beta = 0.542$; $t\text{-value} = 5.482$; $p\text{-value} < 0.001$), and this relationship is statistically significant. Consequently, Hypothesis 7b is supported. This suggests that organisations that provide effective supervision and staff development are likely to empower their employees with a higher degree of autonomy and decision-making authority. Such empowerment can lead to more autonomous and responsible employees who take ownership of their tasks and decisions. Finally, regarding the relationship between SSD and competence (COM), the results reveal a positive and statistically significant relationship ($\beta = 0.261$; $t\text{-value} = 2.821$; $p\text{-value} = 0.005$). Hence, Hypothesis 7c is supported. This indicates that supervision and staff development contribute to enhancing employees' sense of competence in their roles. When employees perceive their roles as fostering competence, they are likely to be more confident and proficient in their work, which can lead to improved job performance and job satisfaction.

Furthermore, the study examines the relationships between interpersonal relationships and different dimensions of empowerment, specifically meaningfulness, autonomy/decision-making and competence. The results for the relationship between interpersonal relationships and meaningfulness indicate a very small positive relationship, although it is not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.008$; $t\text{-value} = 0.114$; $p\text{-value} = 0.909$). Therefore, Hypothesis 8a is not supported. This suggests that in the context of this study, interpersonal relationships do not significantly influence the perceived meaningfulness of employees' roles. Moreover, the findings for the relationship between interpersonal relationship and autonomy/decision-making are quite significant. The results reveal a robust positive relationship ($\beta = 0.355$; $t\text{-value} = 3.690$; $p\text{-value} < 0.001$), and this relationship is highly statistically significant. Consequently, Hypothesis 8b is supported, indicating that interpersonal relationships significantly empower employees with autonomy and decision-making authority. This empowerment can lead to more autonomous and responsible employees who take ownership of their tasks and decisions. Regarding the relationship between interpersonal relationship and competence, the results show a positive but non-significant relationship ($\beta = 0.136$; $t\text{-value} = 1.513$; $p\text{-value} = 0.130$). Hence, Hypothesis 8c is not supported. This implies that interpersonal relationships do not have a significant influence on the perceived competence of employees in their roles.

The next set of hypotheses involves the investigation of the relationships between the leadership dimension of vision and goal and the empowerment dimension of competence. With respect to

H9a, the results for the relationship between vision and goal and meaningfulness suggest a positive and statistically significant relationship ($\beta = 0.246$; $t\text{-value} = 3.537$; $p\text{-value} < 0.001$). Therefore, H9a is supported. This implies that in the context of this study, leadership focusing on vision and goals significantly enhances employees' perceived competence. Employees in such leadership scenarios are likely to feel more competent in their roles, which can lead to improved job performance and satisfaction. Furthermore, the findings for the relationship between vision and goal and autonomy/decision-making are also significant but in the negative direction. The results show a robust negative relationship ($\beta = -0.454$; $t\text{-value} = -4.928$; $p\text{-value} < 0.001$). Consequently, Hypothesis 9b is supported. This suggests that leadership emphasizing vision and goals may have a constraining effect on employees' autonomy and decision-making authority. Such leadership may be more directive and less participative, resulting in a lower sense of autonomy among employees. Finally, regarding the relationship between vision and goal and competence, the results indicate a very small positive relationship, although it is not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.010$; $t\text{-value} = 0.114$; $p\text{-value} = 0.909$). Thus, Hypothesis 9c is not supported. This implies that leadership focusing on vision and goals may not significantly influence employees' perceived competence in their roles.

Table 7.18: Structural path parameters between constructs of leadership and employee empowerment

Structural path	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
meaningfulness <---supervision and staff development_	.209	.075	2.811	.005
autonomy/decision-making <---supervision and staff dev't_	.542	.099	5.482	***
competence _ <--- supervision and staff development_	.261	.093	2.821	.005
meaningfulness <--- interpersonal relationships _	.008	.073	.114	.909
autonomy/decision-making <--- interpersonal relationships _	.355	.096	3.690	***
competence <---_ interpersonal relationships _	.136	.090	1.513	.130
meaningfulness <--- vision and goals orientation_	.246	.070	3.537	***
autonomy/decision-making <--- vision and goals orientation _	-.454	.092	-4.928	***
competence <--- vision and goals orientation _	.010	.086	.114	.909
*** 0.001 level of statistical significance				

Source: field data, 2023.

7.7.2 Hypotheses outcome of moderated effects

The fourth research objective focused on examining the moderating and mediating role of empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. This section of the thesis is dedicated to presenting the findings related to the moderating role of empowerment. The structural equation model (SEM) results indicate the potential moderating effects of different empowerment dimensions (meaningfulness, autonomy/decision-making, competence) on the relationship between leadership (supervision and staff development (SSD), interpersonal relationships (IR), and vision and goals (VGO), and various dimensions of OCB. Table 7.19 provides the results of the moderation tests.

Firstly, H10 assesses the moderation effect of meaningfulness on the relationship between staff development and altruism. The interaction term suggests a negative but insignificant relationship between the interaction of meaningfulness and supervision and staff development (SSD) and altruism (ALT) ($\beta = -0.025$; $t\text{-value} = -1.820$; $p\text{-value} = 0.069$). Thus, it can be concluded that the moderation effect of meaningfulness in the relationship between SSD and altruism is not significant.

H11a examines the moderation effect of autonomy/decision-making (ADM) on the relationship between supervision and staff development (SSD) and sportsmanship (SPO). The results show a positive but non-significant relationship ($\beta = 0.013$; $t\text{-value} = 0.678$; $p\text{-value} = 0.498$). This implies that Autonomy/decision-making does not significantly moderate the relationship between supervision and staff development (SSD) and sportsmanship (SPO).

H11b explores the moderation effect of autonomy/decision-making (ADM) on the relationship between interpersonal relationships (IR) and conscientiousness (CON). The results indicate a negative and statistically significant relationship ($\beta = -0.059$; $t\text{-value} = -2.723$; $p\text{-value} = 0.006$). The significant $p\text{-value}$ suggests that Autonomy/decision-making moderates the relationship between Interpersonal Relationship and conscientiousness.

H11c examines the moderation effect of autonomy/decision-making (ADM) on the relationship between inter-personal relationship and civic virtue (CVV). The results show a positive but non-significant relationship ($\beta = 0.011$; $t\text{-value} = 0.476$; $p\text{-value} = 0.634$). The non-significant $p\text{-value}$ suggests that the interaction between IR and civic virtue is not moderated by ADM.

H12a explores the moderation effect of meaningfulness (MNG) on the relationship between vision and goals (VGO) and altruism (ALT). The results indicate a positive and highly statistically significant relationship ($\beta = 0.083$; $t\text{-value} = 4.337$; $p\text{-value} < 0.001$). The significant p -value suggests that meaningfulness (MNG) significantly moderates the interaction between VGO and altruism.

H12b assesses the moderation effect of competence (COM) on the relationship between vision and goals (VGO) and conscientiousness (CON). The results show a positive but non-significant relationship ($\beta = 0.028$; $t\text{-value} = 1.100$; $p\text{-value} = 0.271$). The non-significant p -value suggests that the interaction between VGO and conscientiousness is not significantly moderated by Competency (COM).

Table 7.19: Structural path parameters of moderating effect of employee empowerment constructs on the relationship between constructs of leadership and employee empowerment

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
conscientiousness _ <--- _ interpersonal relationship X_autonomy/decision-making	-.059	.022	-2.723	.006*
altruism _ <--- supervision and staff development X_meaningfulness	-.025	.014	-1.820	.069
sportsmanship_ <--- _ supervision and staff development _X_ autonomy/decision-making	.013	.019	.678	.498
altruism _ <--- _ vision & goal orientation X meaningfulness	.083	.019	4.337	.001*
conscientiousness _ <--- _ vision & goal orientation X_competence	.028	.026	1.100	.271
civic virtue_ <--- _ interpersonal relationship _X autonomy/decision-making	.011	.023	.476	.634
*0.05 level of statistical significance				
**0.01 level of statistical significance				

7.7.3 Hypotheses outcome of mediated effects

As mentioned earlier, the fourth research objective focused on assessing the moderating and mediating role of empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. This section of the thesis is dedicated to presenting the findings related to the mediating role of empowerment.

The findings from the Process Macro analysis suggest that the dimensions of empowerment, including meaningfulness, autonomy/decision-making, and competence, have a mediating influence on the relationship between leadership constructs (specifically, supervision and staff development (SSD), interpersonal relationships (IR), and vision and goals (VGO) and the different dimensions of OCB (civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and altruism). Thus, all the mediation hypotheses were all accepted or supported.

The mediation hypotheses were examined using the method suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2008). The bootstrapping technique was used in this process. In this study, the procedure for analysis involved bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples to test the statistical significance of the mediation effect using Process Macro by Hayes (2022). In mediation analysis, a t-value greater than 1.96 indicates statistical significance, suggesting that the mediator has a significant effect. However, for a more robust confirmation of significance, the confidence interval for the indirect effect should be examined. If the lower and upper bounds of this interval do not include zero, it confirms that the relationship is significant, indicating that the mediator significantly influences the outcome variable. Partial mediation is established when there is a significant direct path from an independent variable to a dependent variable, as well as a significant indirect path from the same independent variable to the dependent variable via the mediator. On the other hand, full mediation is determined when the direct path from an independent variable to a dependent variable is not significant, but there is a significant indirect path from the independent variable to the dependent variable through the mediator (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

7.7.3.1 Mediating role of Autonomy/Decision-making

The mediation analysis results indicate partial mediation for hypotheses H13a to H13l. The total effect is equal to the sum of the direct effect and the indirect effect. In each case, the total effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is significant, suggesting a direct relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable. Additionally, the indirect effect through the proposed mediator (autonomy/decision-making) is also significant, indicating that the mediator partially explains the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable.

Hypotheses H13a, H13b, and H13c explore the relationships between different leadership constructs (supervision and staff development, vision and goals, interpersonal relations) and

autonomy/decision-making as a mediator, with civic virtue as the outcome variable. These hypotheses collectively indicate partial mediation effects. Starting with hypothesis H13a, which examines the impact of supervision and staff development on civic virtue through autonomy/decision-making, the findings reveal significant total ($\beta = 0.4012$, $p < 0.001$) and direct effects ($\beta = 0.1965$, $p < 0.001$) of supervision and staff development on civic virtue. This suggests that supervision and staff development positively influence civic virtue among employees. Furthermore, the indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making is also significant ($\beta = 0.2047$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This implies that while supervision and staff development directly impact civic virtue, they also indirectly influence it by promoting autonomy in decision-making among employees. This finding underscores the role of autonomy/decision-making as a mechanism through which supervision and staff development contribute to civic virtue. Moving on to hypothesis H13b, which investigates the effects of vision and goals on civic virtue through autonomy/decision-making, similar patterns emerge. The total effect of vision and goals on civic virtue is significant ($\beta = 0.3397$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.1600$, $p < 0.001$), indicating a direct positive influence of vision and goals on civic virtue. Moreover, the indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making is also significant ($\beta = 0.1797$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting partial mediation. This implies that while vision and goals directly foster civic virtue, they also indirectly influence it by promoting autonomy in decision-making among employees. This underscores the importance of autonomy/decision-making as a pathway through which vision and goals impact civic virtue. Lastly, in hypothesis H13c, which examines the effects of interpersonal relations on civic virtue through autonomy/decision-making, similar findings are observed. The total effect of interpersonal relations on civic virtue is significant ($\beta = 0.3845$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.1885$, $p < 0.001$), indicating a direct positive impact of interpersonal relations on civic virtue. Additionally, the indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making is also significant ($\beta = 0.1960$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This suggests that while interpersonal relations directly contribute to civic virtue, they also indirectly influence it by promoting autonomy in decision-making among employees. This highlights the role of autonomy/decision-making as a mechanism through which interpersonal relations influence civic virtue. Conclusively, hypotheses H13a, H13b, and H13c collectively demonstrate that supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and interpersonal relations have both direct and indirect effects on civic virtue through their impact

on autonomy/decision-making. This underscores the importance of autonomy/decision-making as a mediator in these relationships, indicating partial mediation.

For hypothesis H13d, which examines the impact of supervision and staff development on autonomy/decision-making and its subsequent influence on sportsmanship, the total effect of supervision and staff development on sportsmanship is significant ($\beta = 0.2808$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.1755$, $p < 0.001$). This suggests that supervision and staff development positively influence sportsmanship behaviours among employees. However, the indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making is also significant ($\beta = 0.1054$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that a portion of the influence of supervision and staff development on sportsmanship is mediated by autonomy/decision-making. This implies that while supervision and staff development directly impact sportsmanship, they also indirectly affect it through fostering autonomy in decision-making among employees. Similarly, in hypotheses H13e and H13f, which explore the effects of vision and goals and interpersonal relations on autonomy/decision-making and its subsequent influence on sportsmanship, the results show a similar pattern. The total effects of vision and goals (H13e: $\beta = 0.2937$, $p < 0.001$) and interpersonal relations (H13f: $\beta = 0.2635$, $p < 0.001$) on sportsmanship are both significant, as are their direct effects on sportsmanship (H13e: $\beta = 0.2034$, $p < 0.001$; H13f: $\beta = 0.1594$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, the findings from hypotheses H13d, H13e, and H13f suggest that supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and interpersonal relations contribute to sportsmanship both directly and indirectly through their effects on autonomy/decision-making. This highlights the importance of autonomy/decision-making as a mechanism through which these leadership behaviours influence employee behaviours, indicating partial mediation in these relationships.

In hypotheses H13g, H13h, and H13i, the focus is on examining the relationships between supervision and staff development, vision and goals, interpersonal relations, and autonomy/decision-making, with conscientiousness as the outcome variable. These hypotheses reveal partial mediation effects. Beginning with hypothesis H13g, which investigates the impact of supervision and staff development on conscientiousness through autonomy/decision-making, the findings demonstrate significant total ($\beta = 0.4288$, $p < 0.001$) and direct effects ($\beta = 0.2557$, $p < 0.001$) of supervision and staff development on conscientiousness. This suggests that supervision

and staff development positively influence conscientious behaviours among employees. Additionally, the indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making is also significant ($\beta = 0.1731$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that a portion of the influence of supervision and staff development on conscientiousness is mediated by autonomy/decision-making. This implies that while supervision and staff development directly impact conscientiousness, they also indirectly affect it by promoting autonomy in decision-making among employees. Moving on to hypothesis H13h, which explores the effects of vision and goals on conscientiousness through autonomy/decision-making, the results follow a similar pattern. The total effect of vision and goals on conscientiousness is significant ($\beta = 0.3451$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.1810$, $p < 0.001$), indicating a direct positive influence of vision and goals on conscientious behaviours. Moreover, the indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making is also significant ($\beta = 0.1641$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting that part of the impact of vision and goals on conscientiousness is mediated by autonomy/decision-making. This implies that vision and goals not only directly foster conscientious behaviours but also indirectly influence them by promoting autonomy in decision-making among employees.

Lastly, in hypothesis H13i, which examines the effects of interpersonal relations on conscientiousness through autonomy/decision-making, similar findings are observed. The total effect of interpersonal relations on conscientiousness is significant ($\beta = 0.4083$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.2401$, $p < 0.001$), indicating a direct positive impact of interpersonal relations on conscientious behaviours. Furthermore, the indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making is also significant ($\beta = 0.1682$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This suggests that while interpersonal relations directly contribute to conscientiousness, they also indirectly influence it by promoting autonomy in decision-making among employees. These results indicate that hypotheses H13g, H13h, and H13i collectively demonstrate that supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and interpersonal relations have both direct and indirect effects on conscientiousness through their impact on autonomy/decision-making. This underscores the importance of autonomy/decision-making as a mechanism through which these leadership behaviours influence employee conscientious behaviours, indicating partial mediation in these relationships.

Hypotheses H13j, H13k, and H13l focus on understanding the relationships between supervision and staff development, vision and goals, interpersonal relations, and autonomy/decision-making,

with altruism as the outcome variable. These hypotheses collectively reveal partial mediation effects. Starting with hypothesis H13j, which investigates the impact of supervision and staff development on altruism through autonomy/decision-making, the findings indicate significant total ($\beta = 0.2968$, $p < 0.001$) and direct effects ($\beta = 0.1759$, $p < 0.001$) of supervision and staff development on altruism. This suggests that supervision and staff development positively influence altruistic behaviours among employees. Moreover, the indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making is also significant ($\beta = 0.1209$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that a portion of the influence of supervision and staff development on altruism is mediated by autonomy/decision-making. This implies that while supervision and staff development directly impact altruistic behaviours, they also indirectly affect them by promoting autonomy in decision-making among employees. Moving on to hypothesis H13k, which examines the effects of vision and goals on altruism through autonomy/decision-making, the results follow a similar pattern. The total effect of vision and goals on altruism is significant ($\beta = 0.3142$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.2129$, $p < 0.001$), indicating a direct positive influence of vision and goals on altruistic behaviours. Furthermore, the indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making is also significant ($\beta = 0.1012$, $p < 0.001$), suggesting partial mediation. This implies that while vision and goals directly foster altruistic behaviours, they also indirectly influence them by promoting autonomy in decision-making among employees.

Lastly, in hypothesis H13l, which explores the effects of interpersonal relations on altruism through autonomy/decision-making, similar findings are observed. The total effect of interpersonal relations on altruism is significant ($\beta = 0.2899$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.1750$, $p < 0.001$), indicating a direct positive impact of interpersonal relations on altruistic behaviours. Additionally, the indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making is also significant ($\beta = 0.1149$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This suggests that while interpersonal relations directly contribute to altruistic behaviours, they also indirectly influence them by promoting autonomy in decision-making among employees. This means that hypotheses H13j, H13k, and H13l collectively demonstrate that supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and interpersonal relations have both direct and indirect effects on altruism through their impact on autonomy/decision-making. This underscores the importance of autonomy/decision-making as a

mechanism through which these leadership behaviours influence employee altruistic behaviours, indicating partial mediation in these relationships.

In conclusion, autonomy/decision-making partially mediates the relationship between the leadership constructs (supervision and staff development, vision and goals, interpersonal relations) and the outcome variables (civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, altruism), there are still direct effects of the leadership constructs on the outcomes even after accounting for the mediator. This indicates that other factors not included in the model may also influence the outcome variables. Therefore, organisations may need to consider additional variables or interventions to fully explain and promote these outcome variables among employees.

Table 7.20: Summary of Mediating Role of autonomy/ decision-making

Hypothesis	Relationship	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Confidence Interval		t-statistics	Conclusion
					Lower Boundary	Upper Boundary		
H13a	Supervision and staff development --> autonomy/decision-making --> civic virtue	.4012 (0.00)	.1965 (0.00)	.2047	.1469	.2658	5.16	Partial mediation
H13b	Vision and goals --> autonomy/decision-making --> civic virtue	.3397 (0.00)	.1600 (0.00)	.1797	.1164	.2497	4.2251	Partial mediation
H13c	Interpersonal relations --> autonomy/decision-making --> civic virtue	.3845 (0.00)	.1885 (0.00)	.1960	.1336	.2616	5.1251	Partial mediation
H13d	Supervision and staff development --> autonomy/decision-making --> sportsmanship	.2808 (0.00)	.1755 (0.00)	.1054	.0657	.1507	5.2426	Partial mediation
H13e	Vision and goals --> autonomy/decision-making --> sportsmanship	.2937 (0.00)	.2034 (0.00)	.0903	.0544	.1324	6.2439	Partial mediation
H13f	Interpersonal relations --> autonomy/decision-making --> sportsmanship	.2635 (0.00)	.1594 (0.00)	.1041	.0635	.1481	4.9138	Partial mediation
H13g	Supervision and staff development --> autonomy/decision-making --> conscientiousness	.4288 (0.00)	.2557 (0.00)	.1731	.1190	.2291	7.0479	Partial mediation
H13h	Vision and goals --> autonomy/decision-making --> conscientiousness	.3451 (0.00)	.1810 (0.00)	.1641	.1033	.2286	4.9316	Partial mediation
H13i	Interpersonal relations --> autonomy/decision-making --> conscientiousness	.4083 (0.00)	.2401 (0.00)	.1682	.1140	.2271	6.8309	Partial mediation

Hypothesis	Relationship	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Confidence Interval		t-statistics	Conclusion
H13j	Supervision and staff development --> autonomy/decision-making --> altruism	.2968 (0.00)	.1759 (0.00)	.1209	.0790	.1672	5.4040	Partial mediation
H13k	Vision and goals --> autonomy/decision-making --> altruism	.3142 (0.00)	.2129 (0.00)	.1012	.0621	.1462	6.7538	Partial mediation
H13l	Interpersonal relations --> autonomy/decision-making --> altruism	.2899 (0.00)	.1750 (0.00)	.1149	.0724 (0.00)	.1634	.1634	Partial mediation

7.7.3.2 *Mediating role of Meaningfulness*

For hypotheses H14a, H14b, and H14c, which examine the relationships between different leadership constructs and the mediator of meaningfulness, leading to the outcome of civic virtue, the results indicate partial mediation. With regards to H14a, the total effect of supervision and staff development on civic virtue is significant ($\beta = 0.4012$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.2265$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through meaningfulness is also significant ($\beta = 0.1747$, $p < 0.001$), supporting partial mediation. This suggests that while supervision and staff development directly contribute to civic virtue, part of this effect is mediated by the perceived meaningfulness of work tasks. Similarly, in terms of H14b, the total effect of vision and goals on civic virtue is significant ($\beta = 0.3397$, $p < 0.001$), along with the direct effect ($\beta = 0.1111$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through meaningfulness is also significant ($\beta = 0.2285$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This implies that vision and goals influence civic virtue not only directly but also indirectly through their impact on the meaningfulness of work.: Likewise, in respect of H14c, the total effect of interpersonal relations on civic virtue is significant ($\beta = 0.3845$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.2172$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through meaningfulness is also significant ($\beta = 0.1673$, $p < 0.001$), supporting partial mediation. This suggests that interpersonal relations contribute to civic virtue both directly and indirectly through their influence on the perceived meaningfulness of work. Thus, the findings imply that while supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and interpersonal relations directly impact civic virtue, part of their effect is channelled through the perception of meaningfulness in work tasks. This underscores the importance of fostering a work environment where employees find their tasks meaningful, as it contributes to their engagement in civic virtues within the organisation.

For hypotheses H14d, H14e, and H14f, which examine the relationships between different leadership constructs and the mediator of meaningfulness, leading to the outcome of sportsmanship, the results indicate varying degrees of mediation. With regards to H14d, the total effect of supervision and staff development on sportsmanship is significant ($\beta = 0.2808$, $p < 0.001$). However, the direct effect is not significant ($\beta = 0.0585$, $p = 0.60$), suggesting that meaningfulness fully mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and sportsmanship. The indirect effect through meaningfulness is significant ($\beta = 0.2223$, $p < 0.001$), indicating full

mediation. This implies that the impact of supervision and staff development on sportsmanship is entirely explained by the perceived meaningfulness of work tasks. Similarly, with respect to H14e, the total effect of vision and goals on sportsmanship is significant ($\beta = 0.2937$, $p < 0.001$). On the other hand, the direct effect ($\beta = 0.0533$, $p = 0.11$) is not significant. Again, meaningfulness fully mediates this relationship, with a significant indirect effect ($\beta = 0.2404$, $p < 0.001$), indicating full mediation. This suggests that the influence of vision and goals on sportsmanship is entirely mediated by the perceived meaningfulness of work tasks. Likewise, with regards to H14f, the total effect of interpersonal relations on sportsmanship is significant ($\beta = 0.2635$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.0543$, $p = 0.07$), which is not significant. Once more, meaningfulness fully mediates this relationship, with a significant indirect effect ($\beta = 0.2092$, $p < 0.001$), indicating full mediation. This implies that the impact of interpersonal relations on sportsmanship is entirely explained by the perceived meaningfulness of work tasks. These findings highlight the crucial role of meaningfulness in explaining the relationship between leadership constructs and sportsmanship. Supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and interpersonal relations influence sportsmanship primarily through their impact on the perceived meaningfulness of work tasks. This underscores the importance of fostering a work environment where employees find their tasks meaningful, as it contributes significantly to their engagement in sportsmanlike behaviour within the organisation.

For hypotheses H14g, H14h, and H14i, which investigate the relationships between different leadership constructs and the mediator of meaningfulness, leading to the outcome of conscientiousness, the results suggest varying levels of mediation. In terms of H14g, the total effect of supervision and staff development on conscientiousness is significant ($\beta = 0.4288$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.2755$, $p < 0.001$). However, the indirect effect through meaningfulness is also significant ($\beta = 0.1533$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This suggests that while meaningfulness partially mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and conscientiousness, there are additional pathways through which supervision and staff development directly influence conscientious behaviour among employees. Similarly, in terms of H14h, the total effect of vision and goals on conscientiousness is significant ($\beta = 0.3451$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.1281$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through meaningfulness is also significant ($\beta = 0.2170$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This indicates that meaningfulness partially

mediates the relationship between vision and goals and conscientiousness, implying that vision and goals impact conscientious behaviour both directly and through their influence on the perceived meaningfulness of work tasks. Likewise, for H14i, the total effect of interpersonal relations on conscientiousness is significant ($\beta = 0.4083$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect ($\beta = 0.2583$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through meaningfulness is also significant ($\beta = 0.1500$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This suggests that meaningfulness partially mediates the relationship between interpersonal relations and conscientiousness, indicating that while interpersonal relations directly impact conscientious behaviour, they also influence it indirectly through their effect on the perceived meaningfulness of work tasks. Overall, these findings highlight the importance of meaningfulness as a mediator in explaining the relationship between leadership constructs and conscientiousness. While supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and interpersonal relations have direct effects on conscientious behaviour, they also impact conscientiousness indirectly through their influence on the perceived meaningfulness of work tasks. This underscores the significance of creating a work environment where employees find their tasks meaningful, as it contributes to their conscientious behaviour within the organisation.

Hypotheses H14j, H14k, and H14l focus on understanding the relationships between supervision and staff development, vision and goals, interpersonal relations, and meaningfulness, with altruism as the outcome variable. These hypotheses collectively reveal partial mediation effects and full mediation. For H14j, supervision and staff development directly impact altruism with a significant total effect ($\beta = 0.2968$, $p < 0.001$). The direct effect is also significant ($\beta = 0.0588$, $p < 0.001$), indicating that part of the effect of supervision and staff development on altruism is explained by meaningfulness. The indirect effect through meaningfulness is also significant ($\beta = 0.2379$, $p < 0.001$), supporting partial mediation. This suggests that while there is a direct influence of supervision and staff development on altruism, part of this effect is mediated by the meaningfulness employees derive from their work. Also, for H14k, vision and goals have a significant total effect on altruism ($\beta = 0.3142$, $p < 0.001$). However, the direct effect ($\beta = 0.0588$, $p < 0.0$) is not significant, while the indirect effect through meaningfulness ($\beta = 0.2554$, $p < 0.001$) is significant. This indicates that meaningfulness does fully mediate the relationship between vision and goals and altruism. Finally, for H14l, interpersonal relations significantly influence altruism with a significant total effect ($\beta = 0.2899$, $p < 0.001$). The direct effect ($\beta = 0.0709$, $p <$

0.001) is also significant. Furthermore, there is a significant indirect effect through autonomy/decision-making ($\beta = 0.2190$, $p < 0.001$), supporting partial mediation. This suggests that while interpersonal relations directly impact altruism, part of this effect is mediated by meaningfulness. These results emphasise the varied pathways through which different leadership constructs affect altruistic behaviours among employees, highlighting the importance of understanding both direct and indirect influences in shaping altruistic tendencies within organisations.

Table 7.21: Summary of Mediating Role of meaningfulness

Hypothesis	Relationship	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Confidence Interval		t-statistics	Conclusion
					Lower Boundary	Upper Boundary		
H14a	Supervision and staff development --> meaningfulness --> civic virtue	.4012 (0.00)	.2265 (0.00)	.1747	.1043	.2503	5.4371	Partial mediation
H14b	Vision and goals --> meaningfulness --> civic virtue	.3397 (0.00)	.1111 (0.00)	.2285	.1558	.3070	2.4401	Partial mediation
H14c	Interpersonal relations --> meaningfulness --> civic virtue	.3845 (0.00)	.2172 (0.00)	.1673	.1012	.2350	5.4456	Partial mediation
H14d	Supervision and staff development --> meaningfulness --> sportsmanship	.2808 (0.00)	.0585 (0.60)	.2223	.1502	.3080	1.8830	Full mediation
H14e	Vision and goals --> meaningfulness --> sportsmanship	.2937 (0.00)	.0533 (0.11)	.2404	.1588	.3327	1.6094	Full mediation
H14f	Interpersonal relations --> meaningfulness --> sportsmanship	.2635 (0.00)	.0543 (0.07)	.2092	.1373	.2912	1.8241	Full mediation
H14g	Supervision and staff development --> meaningfulness --> conscientiousness	.4288 (0.00)	.2755 (0.00)	.1533	.0766	.2356	7.0398	Partial mediation
H14h	Vision and goals --> meaningfulness --> conscientiousness	.3451 (0.00)	.1281 (0.00)	.2170	.1391	.3032	2.9421	Partial mediation
H14i	Interpersonal relations --> meaningfulness --> conscientiousness	.4083 (0.00)	.2583 (0.00)	.1500	.0811	.2233	6.8772	Partial mediation
H14j	Supervision and staff development --> meaningfulness --> altruism	.2968 (0.00)	.0588 (0.00)	.2379	.1636	.3208	1.9818	Partial mediation
H14k	Vision and goals --> meaningfulness --> altruism	.3142 (0.00)	.0588 (0.06)	.2554	.1749	.3519	1.8563	Full mediation
H14l	Interpersonal relations --> autonomy/decision-making --> altruism	.2899 (0.00)	.0709 (0.00)	.2190	.1487	.2987	2.5022	Partial mediation

7.7.3.3 *Mediating Role of Competence*

For hypotheses H15a, H15b, and H15c, which examine the relationships between different leadership constructs and the mediator of competence, leading to the outcome of civic virtue, the results indicate partial mediation. For H15a, the total effect of supervision and staff development on civic virtue is significant ($\beta = 0.4012$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.2176$, $p < 0.001$). Additionally, the indirect effect through competence is significant ($\beta = 0.1836$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This suggests that while supervision and staff development directly contribute to civic virtue, part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. Similarly, for H15b, the total effect of vision and goals on civic virtue is significant ($\beta = 0.3397$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.1409$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1988$, $p < 0.001$), supporting partial mediation. This implies that vision and goals directly influence civic virtue, but part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. Again, for H15c, the total effect of interpersonal relations on civic virtue is significant ($\beta = 0.3845$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.2079$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1766$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This indicates that while interpersonal relations have a direct impact on civic virtue, part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. This means that these results demonstrate that supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and interpersonal relations have significant direct effects on civic virtue. However, part of these effects is mediated by employees' perceived competence, highlighting the importance of fostering competence in the workplace to enhance civic virtue.

For hypotheses H15d, H15e, and H15f, which examine the relationships between different leadership constructs and the mediator of competence, leading to the outcome of sportsmanship, the results indicate partial of mediation. With respect to H15d, the total effect of supervision and staff development on sportsmanship is significant ($\beta = 0.2808$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.1237$, $p < 0.001$). However, the indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1572$, $p < 0.001$), supporting partial mediation. This suggests that while supervision and staff development directly contribute to sportsmanship, part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. For H15e, the total effect of vision and goals on

sportsmanship is significant ($\beta = 0.2937$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.1406$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1532$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This implies that vision and goals directly influence sportsmanship, but part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. Again, for H15f, the total effect of interpersonal relations on sportsmanship is significant ($\beta = 0.2635$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.1116$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1518$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This indicates that while interpersonal relations have a direct impact on sportsmanship, part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. These results suggest that supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and interpersonal relations have significant direct effects on sportsmanship. However, part of these effects is mediated by employees' perceived competence, highlighting the importance of fostering competence in the workplace to enhance sportsmanship.

For hypotheses H15g, H15h, and H15i, which investigate the relationships between different leadership constructs and the mediator of competence, leading to the outcome of conscientiousness, the results suggest partial mediation. With respect to H15g, the total effect of supervision and staff development on conscientiousness is significant ($\beta = 0.4288$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.2672$, $p < 0.001$). However, the indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1616$, $p < 0.001$), supporting partial mediation. This suggests that while supervision and staff development directly contribute to conscientiousness, part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. Similarly, for H15h, the total effect of vision and goals on conscientiousness is significant ($\beta = 0.3451$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.1608$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1843$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This implies that vision and goals directly influence conscientiousness, but part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. Again, with respect to H15i, the total effect of interpersonal relations on conscientiousness is significant ($\beta = 0.4083$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.2513$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1570$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This indicates that while interpersonal relations have a direct impact on conscientiousness, part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. Thus, these results suggest that supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and

interpersonal relations have significant direct effects on conscientiousness. However, part of these effects is mediated by employees' perceived competence, underscoring the importance of fostering competence in the workplace to enhance conscientious behaviour.

Hypotheses H15j, H15k, and H15l focus on understanding the relationships between supervision and staff development, vision and goals, interpersonal relations, and competence, with altruism as the outcome variable. For H15j, the total effect of supervision and staff development on altruism is significant ($\beta = 0.2968$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.1045$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1923$, $p < 0.001$), supporting partial mediation. This implies that while supervision and staff development directly contribute to altruistic behaviour, part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. Similarly, with respect to H15k, the total effect of vision and goals on altruism is significant ($\beta = 0.3142$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.1288$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1853$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This suggests that vision and goals directly influence altruistic behaviour, but part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. Finally, with regards to H15l, the total effect of interpersonal relations on altruism is significant ($\beta = 0.2899$, $p < 0.001$), as is the direct effect on competence ($\beta = 0.1079$, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect through competence is also significant ($\beta = 0.1820$, $p < 0.001$), indicating partial mediation. This implies that while interpersonal relations have a direct impact on altruistic behaviour, part of this effect is mediated by employees' perceived competence. In summary, these results highlight that supervision and staff development, vision and goals, and interpersonal relations have significant direct effects on altruism. However, part of these effects is mediated by employees' perceived competence, emphasizing the importance of fostering competence in the workplace to promote altruistic behaviour.

Table 7.22: Summary of Mediating role of competence

Hypothesis	Relationship	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Confidence Interval		t-statistics	Conclusion
					Lower Boundary	Upper Boundary		
H15a	Supervision and staff development --> competence --> civic virtue	.4012 (0.00)	.2176 (0.00)	.1836	.1265	.2484	5.9351	Partial mediation
H15b	Vision and goals --> competence --> civic virtue	.3397 (0.00)	.1409 (0.00)	.1988	.1302	.2728	3.6126	Partial mediation
H15c	Interpersonal relations --> competence --> civic virtue	.3845 (0.00)	.2079 (0.00)	.1766	.1195	.2397	5.8447	Partial mediation
H15d	Supervision and staff development --> competence --> sportsmanship	.2808 (0.00)	.1237 (0.00)	.1572	.0995	.2247	4.1595	Partial mediation
H15e	Vision and goals --> competence --> sportsmanship	.2937 (0.00)	.1406 (0.00)	.1532	.0936	.2255	4.5685	Partial mediation
H15f	Interpersonal relations --> competence --> sportsmanship	.2635 (0.00)	.1116	.1518	.0940	.2208	3.8631	Partial mediation
H15g	Supervision and staff development --> competence --> conscientiousness	.4288 (0.00)	.2672 (0.00)	.1616	.1069	.2218	7.7053	Partial mediation
H15h	Vision and goals --> competence --> conscientiousness	.3451 (0.00)	.1608 (0.00)	.1843	.1188	.2613	4.2779	Partial mediation
H15i	Interpersonal relations --> competence --> conscientiousness	.4083 (0.00)	.2513 (0.00)	.1570	.1048	.2171	7.4445	Partial mediation
H15j	Supervision and staff development --> competence --> altruism	.2968 (0.00)	.1045 (0.00)	.1923	.1280	.2663	3.8709	Partial mediation
H15k	Vision and goals --> competence --> altruism	.3142 (0.00)	.1288 (0.00)	.1853	.1189	.2600	4.6278	Partial mediation
H15l	Interpersonal relations --> competence --> altruism	.2899 (0.00)	.1079 (0.00)	.1820	.1222	.2516	4.1349	Partial mediation

7.7.4 Summary of direct and moderated hypotheses

Table 7.23 provides a summary of the direct and moderated hypotheses and whether the hypotheses were supported. For the mediated hypotheses, there is no summary of them in a tabular for since all of them were supported.

Table 7.23: Summary of hypotheses

Hypothesis	Result
Hypothesis 1a (H1a): Supervision and staff development has a positive and significant influence on altruism.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 1b (H1b): Supervision and staff development has a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 1c (H1c): Supervision and staff development has a positive and significant influence civic virtue.	Supported
Hypothesis 1d (H1d): Supervision and staff development has a positive and significant influence conscientiousness.	Supported
Hypothesis 2a (H2a): Interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant influence on altruism.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 2b (H2b): Interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 2c (H2c): Interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant influence on civic virtue.	Supported
Hypothesis 2d (H2d): Interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness.	Supported
Hypothesis 3a (H3a): Vision and goals has a positive and significant influence on altruism.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 3b (H3b): Vision and goals has a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 3c (H3c): Vision and goals has a positive and significant influence on civic virtue.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 3d (H3d): Vision and goals has a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness	Not Supported
Hypothesis 4a (H4a): Meaningfulness has a positive and significant influence on altruism.	Supported
Hypothesis 4b (H4b): Meaningfulness has a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.	Supported
Hypothesis 4c (H4c): Meaningfulness has a positive and significant influence on civic virtue.	Supported
Hypothesis 4d (H4d): Meaningfulness has a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness.	Supported
Hypothesis 5a (H5a): Autonomy/Decision-making has a positive and significant influence on altruism.	Not Supported

Hypothesis	Result
Hypothesis 5b (H5b): Autonomy/Decision-making has a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 5c (H5c): Autonomy/Decision-making has a positive and significant influence on civic virtue.	Supported
Hypothesis 5d (H5d): Autonomy/Decision-making has a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness.	Supported
Hypothesis 6a (H6a): Competence has a positive and significant influence on altruism.	Supported
Hypothesis 6b (H6b): Competence has a positive and significant influence on sportsmanship.	Supported
Hypothesis 6c (H6c): Competence has a positive and significant influence on Civic Virtue.	Supported
Hypothesis 6d (H6d): Competence has a positive and significant influence on conscientiousness.	Supported
Hypothesis 7a (H7a): Supervision and staff development has a positive and significant effect on meaningfulness.	Supported
Hypothesis 7b (H7b): Supervision and staff development has a positive and significant effect on autonomy.	Supported
Hypothesis 7c (H7c): Supervision and Staff development has a positive and significant effect on competence.	Supported
Hypothesis 8a: Positive interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant effect on meaningfulness of work	Not Supported
Hypothesis 8b: Interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant effect on employees' autonomy/decision-making.	Supported
Hypothesis 8c: Positive interpersonal relationships have a positive and significant effect on competence	Not Supported
Hypothesis 9a (H9a): Leadership's vision and goals has a positive and significant influence on meaningfulness.	Supported
Hypothesis 9b (H9b): Leadership's vision and goals has a positive and significant influence on autonomy.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 9c (H9c): Leadership's vision and goals has a positive and significant influence on competence.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 10 (H10): The positive and significant impact of Supervision and staff development on altruism is amplified when the meaningfulness of work is introduced as a moderator.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 11a (H11a): The positive and significant influence of Supervision and staff development on sportsmanship is amplified when Autonomy/decision-making is introduced as a moderator	Not Supported
Hypothesis 11b (H11b): The positive and significant effect of interpersonal relationships on conscientiousness is amplified when autonomy/decision-making is introduced as a moderator.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 11c (H11c): The positive and significant effect of interpersonal relationships on civic virtue is amplified when autonomy is introduced as a moderator.	Not supported

Hypothesis	Result
Hypothesis 12a (H12a) The positive and significant effect of vision and goals on altruism is amplified when Meaningfulness is introduced as a moderator	Supported
Hypothesis 12b (H12b) The positive and significant effect of vision and goals on conscientiousness is amplified when Competence is introduced as a moderator.	Not Supported

7.8 TESTS FOR SIGNIFICANT MEAN DIFFERENCES

Employing inferential statistics (T-test, ANOVA), this section addresses research objective 5 which is to determine the extent to which individuals from different gender, age, educational level, and job level/category groups differ significantly regarding leadership, employee empowerment and OCB. This section examines significant mean differences in respondents' perceptions of the study's key sub-constructs—leadership, empowerment, and OCB—across demographic variables such as age, gender, educational level, and job level. The analysis delves into how these demographic factors influence specific dimensions of leadership (supervision and staff development, interpersonal relationships, vision and goal orientation), empowerment (meaningfulness, autonomy/decision-making, competence), and OCB (altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue).

The purpose of this analysis is to explore potential variations in how different demographic groups experience and exhibit these constructs. By identifying such differences, the findings provide nuanced insights into the contextual factors that may shape leadership practices, empowerment perceptions, and OCB behaviours within organisations. This analysis complements the structural equation modelling (SEM) results, offering a broader understanding of the interplay between demographic characteristics and the core variables of the study.

Gender was investigated using the independent T-test while the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistical measure was used for age, educational level, and job level.

7.8.1 Gender

Independent T-test was employed to statistically test the significance of the difference in means between males and females for Leadership, Employee empowerment and OCB. The results of the Independent T-test are presented in Tables 7.24 and Table 7.25.

Table 7.24: Mean values for Gender

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leadership				
Supervision and Staff development	Male	270	4.70	1.11
	Female	175	4.65	1.12
Interpersonal relationships	Male	270	4.65	1.17
	Female	175	4.65	1.10
Vision and goal orientation	Male	270	4.79	1.03
	Female	175	4.71	1.07
Overall Leadership	Male	270	4.71	1.06
	Female	175	4.67	1.06
Empowerment				
Meaningfulness	Male	270	5.10	.84
	Female	175	5.08	.80
Autonomy/decision making	Male	270	4.53	1.04
	Female	175	4.55	.99
Competence	Male	270	5.03	.87
	Female	175	4.94	.90
Overall empowerment	Male	270	4.82	.75
	Female	175	4.78	.77
OCB				
Altruism	Male	270	5.17	.74
	Female	175	5.08	.80
Sportsmanship	Male	270	5.19	.69
	Female	174	5.08	.79
Conscientiousness	Male	270	4.90	.85
	Female	175	4.86	.86
Civic virtue	Male	270	4.86	.84
	Female	175	4.82	.85
Overall OCB	Male	270	5.03	.69
	Female	174	4.96	.75

Source: Field data, 2023.

Table 7.24 presents the mean scores with corresponding standard deviation between males and females and the factors of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB. For each of the factors of leadership, there were differences in the mean scores observed between males and females. In all instances, the mean for males were relatively higher than those of females. The statistical significance of the differences between males and females were determined by means of an independent T-test and the results are provided in Table 7.25.

Table 7.25: T-test for Gender of employees with respect to leadership, empowerment and OCB

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Variables									Lower	Upper
Leadership										
Supervision and Staff development	Equal variances assumed	.04	.83	.50	443	.61	.05	.10	-.15	.26
	Equal variances not assumed			.49	368.94	.61	.05	.10	-.15	.26
Interpersonal relationships	Equal variances assumed	.39	.52	.01	44	.99	.00	.11	-.21	.21
	Equal variances not assumed			.01	386.15	.99	.00	.10	-.21	.21
Vision and goal orientation	Equal variances assumed	1.11	.29	.79	443	.42	.08	.10	-.11	.27
	Equal variances not assumed			.78	361.34	.43	.08	.10	-.12	.28
Overall Leadership	Equal variances assumed	.02	.86	.43	443	.66	.04	.10	-.15	.24
	Equal variances not assumed			.43	372.87	.66	.04	.10	-.15	.24
Empowerment										
Meaningfulness	Equal variances assumed	.74	.38	.28	443	.77	.02	.08	-.13	.18
	Equal variances not assumed			.28	385.99	.77	.02	.07	-.13	.17

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Variables									Lower	Upper
Autonomy/ decision making	Equal variances assumed	.32	.57	-.13	443	.89	-.01	.09	-.20	.18
	Equal variances not assumed			-.13	382.76	.89	-.01	.09	-.20	.17
Competence	Equal variances assumed	1.54	.21	1.07	443	.28	.09	.08	-.07	.26
	Equal variances not assumed			1.07	364.15	.28	.09	.08	-.07	.26
Overall empowerment	Equal variances assumed	.09	.76	.45	443	.65	.03	.07	-.11	.17
	Equal variances not assumed			.45	367.57	.65	.03	.07	-.11	.17
OCB										
Altruism	Equal variances assumed	1.45	.22	1.27	443	.20	.09	.07	-.05	.24
	Equal variances not assumed			1.25	352.35	.21	.09	.07	-.05	.24
Sportsmanship	Equal variances assumed	1.37	.24	1.50	442	.13	.10	.07	-.03	.24
	Equal variances not assumed			1.46	331.96	.14	.10	.07	-.03	.25
Conscientiousness	Equal variances assumed	.00	.93	.42	443	.67	.03	.08	-.12	.19
	Equal variances not assumed			.42	367.19	.67	.03	.08	-.12	.19
Civic virtue	Equal variances assumed	.05	.81	.48	443	.62	.04	.08	-.12	.20
	Equal variances not assumed			.48	368.57	.62	.04	.08	-.12	.20
Overall OCB	Equal variances assumed	.55	.45	1.02	442	.30	.07	.06	-.06	.20

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Variables									Lower	Upper
	Equal variances not assumed			1.00	348.32	.31	.07	.07	-.06	.21

Source: Field data, 2023

The T-test analysis provided the following results:

- There were no statistically significant differences between males and females with regards to Leadership.
- There were no significant differences between males and females with regards to Employee empowerment.
- There were no significant differences between males and females with regards to OCB.

The result indicate that males and females do not differ significantly on how they view leadership, employee empowerment and OCB in public universities in Ghana.

7.8.2 Age

ANOVA was employed to test whether respondents from different age groups differed with regards to leadership, employee empowerment and OCB. The mean scores are provided in Table 7.26 and the results of the ANOVA analysis are presented in Table 7.27.

Table 7.26: Mean values for age groups

Variables	Age	N =445	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Leadership					
Supervision and Staff development	between 18 - 25 years	85	4.98	.88	.09
	26 - 30 years	75	4.66	1.05	.12
	32 - 35 years	76	4.25	1.45	.17
	36 - 40 years	94	4.59	1.14	.12
	41 - 45 years	60	4.70	1.03	.13
	46 - 50 years	30	5.06	.64	.12
	51 - 55 years	17	4.90	.77	.19

		N =445	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Variables	Age				
	56 - 60 years	8	4.51	1.17	.42
Interpersonal relationships	between 18 - 25 years	85	4.93	.93	.10
	26 - 30 years	75	4.54	1.17	.14
	32 - 35 years	76	4.28	1.43	.16
	36 - 40 years	94	4.61	1.11	.11
	41 - 45 years	60	4.59	1.08	.14
	46 - 50 years	30	5.18	.72	.13
	51 - 55 years	17	4.91	.89	.22
	56 - 60 years	8	4.41	1.27	.45
Vision and goal orientation	between 18 - 25 years	85	4.98	.84	.09
	26 - 30 years	75	4.70	1.04	.12
	32 - 35 years	76	4.41	1.33	.15
	36 - 40 years	94	4.72	1.06	.11
	41 - 45 years	60	4.75	.93	.12
	46 - 50 years	30	5.18	.62	.11
	51 - 55 years	17	4.97	.96	.23
	56 - 60 years	8	4.63	1.17	.41
Overall Leadership	between 18 - 25 years	85	4.96	.85	.09
	26 - 30 years	75	4.64	1.02	.12
	32 - 35 years	76	4.31	1.37	.16
	36 - 40 years	94	4.65	1.06	.11
	41 - 45 years	60	4.68	.98	.13
	46 - 50 years	30	5.14	.62	.11
	51 - 55 years	17	4.93	.85	.22
	56 - 60 years	8	4.52	1.17	.42
Empowerment					
Meaningfulness	between 18 - 25 years	85	5.11	.76	.08
	26 - 30 years	75	5.07	.79	.09
	32 - 35 years	76	4.99	.96	.11
	36 - 40 years	94	5.13	.76	.08
	41 - 45 years	60	5.11	.85	.11
	46 - 50 years	30	5.31	.74	.14
	51 - 55 years	17	4.87	.93	.23
	56 - 60 years	8	5.02	1.04	.37
Autonomy/ decision making	between 18 - 25 years	85	4.31	.99	.11
	26 - 30 years	75	4.43	1.00	.12
	32 - 35 years	76	4.51	1.06	.12
	36 - 40 years	94	4.61	.99	.10
	41 - 45 years	60	4.66	1.04	.13

		N =445	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Variables	Age				
	46 - 50 years	30	4.94	.97	.18
	51 - 55 years	17	4.58	.98	.24
	56 - 60 years	8	4.94	1.07	.38
Competence	between 18 - 25 years	85	4.97	.87	.09
	26 - 30 years	75	4.97	.76	.09
	32 - 35 years	76	4.88	1.01	.12
	36 - 40 years	94	5.04	.81	.08
	41 - 45 years	60	5.06	.85	.11
	46 - 50 years	30	5.32	.66	.12
	51 - 55 years	17	4.88	1.22	.29
	56 - 60 years	8	4.54	1.51	.53
Overall empowerment	between 18 - 25 years	85	4.74	.73	.08
	26 - 30 years	75	4.79	.69	.08
	32 - 35 years	76	4.73	.77	.09
	36 - 40 years	94	4.87	.71	.07
	41 - 45 years	60	4.84	.83	.11
	46 - 50 years	30	5.07	.75	.14
	51 - 55 years	17	4.68	.94	.23
	56 - 60 years	8	4.58	1.15	.41
OCB					
Altruism	between 18 - 25 years	85	5.07	.74	.08
	26 - 30 years	75	5.08	.75	.09
	32 - 35 years	76	5.14	.66	.08
	36 - 40 years	94	5.18	.82	.08
	41 - 45 years	60	5.21	.80	.10
	46 - 50 years	30	5.36	.57	.10
	51 - 55 years	17	4.92	.89	.21
	56 - 60 years	8	4.73	1.19	.42
Sportsmanship	between 18 - 25 years	85	5.20	.70	.08
	26 - 30 years	75	5.09	.74	.08
	32 - 35 years	76	5.19	.63	.07
	36 - 40 years	94	5.16	.76	.08
	41 - 45 years	60	5.07	.85	.11
	46 - 50 years	29	5.28	.59	.11
	51 - 55 years	17	4.96	.88	.21
	56 - 60 years	8	5.12	.98	.34
Conscientiousness	between 18 - 25 years	85	4.93	.78	.08
	26 - 30 years	75	4.77	.83	.09

		N =445	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Variables	Age				
	32 - 35 years	76	4.80	.92	.11
	36 - 40 years	94	4.89	.96	.09
	41 - 45 years	60	4.90	.78	.10
	46 - 50 years	30	5.22	.63	.12
	51 - 55 years	17	4.79	.89	.22
	56 - 60 years	8	4.82	.91	.32
Civic virtue	between 18 - 25 years	85	4.81	.83	.09
	26 - 30 years	75	4.66	.86	.09
	32 - 35 years	76	4.83	.78	.09
	36 - 40 years	94	4.91	.88	.09
	41 - 45 years	60	4.90	.91	.12
	46 - 50 years	30	5.12	.67	.12
	51 - 55 years	17	4.91	.90	.22
	56 - 60 years	8	4.72	1.04	.37
Overall OCB	between 18 - 25 years	85	5.01	.69	.07
	26 - 30 years	75	4.90	.70	.08
	32 - 35 years	76	4.99	.65	.07
	36 - 40 years	94	5.03	.775	.08
	41 - 45 years	60	5.02	.775	.09
	46 - 50 years	29	5.24	.56	.10
	51 - 55 years	17	4.89	.84	.20
	56 - 60 years	8	4.85	.92	.33

Table 7.26 presents the results of the means with corresponding standard deviations for each of the age categories in terms of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB. For each of the factors of leadership, there were significant mean differences between the various age categories. The statistical significance of the mean differences between the age categories was determined by the analysis of variance (ANOVA) as presented in Table 7.27.

Table 7.27: ANOVA results for Age

Variables		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Leadership						
Supervision and Staff development	Between Groups	27.89	7	3.98	3.36	.002*
	Within Groups	517.76	437	1.19		
Interpersonal relationships	Between Groups	28.12	7	4.02	3.19	.003*
	Within Groups	549.24	437	1.26		
Vision and goal orientation	Between Groups	20.07	7	2.87	2.71	.009*
	Within Groups	462.89	437	1.06		
Overall Leadership	Between Groups	24.84	7	3.55	3.28	.002*
	Within Groups	472.25	437	1.08		
Empowerment						
Meaningfulness	Between Groups	3.35	7	.48	.69	.67
	Within Groups	299.11	437	.68		
Autonomy/decision making	Between Groups	12.93	7	1.85	1.81	.08
	Within Groups	447.21	437	1.02		
Competence	Between Groups	6.61	7	.94	1.21	.29
	Within Groups	339.70	437	.77		
Overall empowerment	Between Groups	3.99	7	.57	.99	.43
	Within Groups	251.01	437	.57		
OCB						
Altruism	Between Groups	4.57	7	.65	1.12	.35
	Within Groups	255.05	437	.58		
Sportsmanship	Between Groups	2.06	7	.29	.54	.80
	Within Groups	237.07	436	.54		
Conscientiousness	Between Groups	5.31	7	.76	1.05	.39
	Within Groups	316.75	437	.73		
Civic virtue	Between Groups	5.50	7	.79	1.09	.36
	Within Groups	312.62	437	.72		
Overall OCB	Between Groups	2.88	7	.41	.80	.59
	Within Groups	223.99	436	.51		
*Statistically significant at 1%						

From the ANOVA analysis, the following results were obtained:

- There were statistically significant differences between the various age groups as regards to leadership.
- There were no significant differences between the various age groups as regards to employee empowerment and OCB.

The ANOVA analysis reveals that age significantly influences leadership perceptions, indicating that different age groups may have distinct leadership preferences. However, the lack of significant differences in employee empowerment and OCB across age groups suggests that these factors are perceived similarly regardless of age. This finding aligns with studies by Gyekye et al. (2015), which found no significant age-related differences in OCB. Conversely, it contrasts with research by O'Driscoll and Roche (2017), which indicated that older workers are more likely to engage in positive work behaviours. These mixed results highlight the complexity of age-related dynamics in organisational settings and suggest that other variables may mediate these relationships.

Specifically, the supervision and staff development showed a statistically significant relationship with age at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. The mean score (ranges 4.6617 - 4.9789) for respondents younger than 32 were higher compared to respondents aged 32-35 years (4.25). Similarly, respondents older than 35 years also had higher mean scores (ranges 4.5052 - 5.0653) compared to respondents aged between 32–35 (4.25). The results indicate that respondents in the age category 32–35 years are less concerned about the importance of supervision and staff development as a dimension of leadership in public universities in Ghana.

The leadership dimension of interpersonal relationships showed a statistically significant relationship with age at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. An observation of the means scores (Table 7.26) indicates that the mean score (ranges 4.5446 - 4.9312) for respondents younger than 32 were higher compared to respondents aged 32-35 years (4.2814). Similarly, respondents older than 35 years also had higher mean score (ranges 4.4135 - 5.1769) compared to respondents aged between 32–35 (4.2814). The results indicate that respondents in the age category 32–35 years are less concerned about interpersonal relationships as an important dimension of leadership in public universities in Ghana.

The leadership dimension of vision and goal orientation presented a statistically significant relationship with age at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. The observation from the mean scores (Table 7.26) revealed that the mean score for respondents younger than 32 (ranges 4.7037 - 4.9817) were higher compared to respondents aged 32-35 years (4.4094). Similarly, respondents older than 35 years also had higher mean scores (ranges 4.6389 - 5.1815) compared to respondents aged between 32–35 (4.4094). The results indicate that respondents in the age category 32–35 years are less likely to value the Vision and goal orientation of a leader as critical to leadership in public universities in Ghana.

Overall, there was a statistically significant relationship between age and leadership at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. The mean score (ranges 4.6367 - 4.9639) for respondents younger than 32 were higher compared to respondents aged 32-35 years (4.3136). Similarly, respondents older than 35 years also had a higher mean score (ranges 4.5192 - 5.1412) compared to respondents aged between 32–35 (4.3136). The results indicate that respondents in the age category 32–35 years view the leadership of immediate supervisors in public universities in Ghana of less importance when it involves leadership.

With the F-Statistics being significant for Leadership and its dimensions, a further post-Hoc analysis was done. The Bonferroni multiple comparison tests were conducted to examine the differences between the groups. Table 7.28 illustrates the results, indicating between which of the age categories the differences were found.

Table 7.28: Post-Hoc results for age

Variable	Age category (I)	Age category (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Supervision and Staff development	18 - 25 years	32 - 35 years	.732	.174	.001*	.19	1.2690
	32 - 35 years	18 - 25 years	-.73	.174	.001*	-1.27	-.1888
		46 - 50 years	-.82	.24	.016**	-1.55	-.0776
	46 - 50 years	32 - 35 years	.82	.24	.016**	.08	1.55
Interpersonal relationships	18 - 25 years	32 - 35 years	.65	.18	.008*	.09	1.21
		18 - 25 years	-.65	.18	.008*	-1.21	-.09

Variable	Age category (I)	Age category (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	32 - 35 years	46 - 50 years	-.89	.24	.007*	-1.66	-.14
	46 - 50 years	32 - 35 years	.89	.24	.007*	.14	1.65
Vision and goal orientation	18 - 25 years	32 - 35 years	.57	.16	.013**	.06	1.08
	32 - 35 years	18 - 25 years	-.57	.16	.013**	-1.08	-.06
		46 - 50 years	-.77	.22	.015**	-1.47	-.07
	46 - 50 years	32 - 35 years	.77	.22	.015**	.07	1.47
Overall leadership	32 - 35 years	18 - 25 years	-.65	.16	.002*	-1.17	-.14
		46 - 50 years	-.83	.22	.007*	-1.53	-.12
	46 - 50 years	32 - 35 years	.83	.22	.007*	.12	1.53
*Statistically significant at 1% **Statistically significant at 5%							

The following statistically significant differences were found at the 5% level of significance between the different age categories of respondents:

- Supervision and staff development: a statistically significant difference was found between age category 32-35 years and 46-50 years ($p=0.016$). This finding indicates that respondents in the age category of 46-50 years, as compared to respondents in the age category of 32-35 years, are more likely to value effective supervision and opportunities for Staff development as critical characteristics of leadership in public universities in Ghana.
- Vision and goal orientation: A statistically significant difference was found between the age category 18-25 years and age category 32-35 years ($p=0.013$), and between 32-35 years and 46-50 years ($p=0.015$). This finding indicates that respondents in the age category of 32-35 years are less concerned about the value of a leader having a vision and goal orientation than staff in the 18-25 and the 46-50 years age category.

The following statistically significant difference was found at the 1% level of significance between the age categories of respondents:

- Supervision and staff development: A statistically significant difference was found between age category 18-25 years and 32–35 years ($p=0.001$). This finding indicates that respondents in the age category of 18–25 years are more likely to regard effective supervision and opportunities for staff development as critical components of leadership in public universities in Ghana.
- Interpersonal relationships: A statistically significant difference was found between respondents in the age category of 18-25 years and age category of 32–35 years ($p=0.008$), and between 32–35 years and age category of 46-50 years ($p=0.007$). This finding indicates that respondents in the age category of 18–25 years and age category of 46–50 years regard interpersonal relationship of leaders as more important than respondents in the age category of 32–35 years.
- Overall leadership: A statistically significant difference was found between respondents in the age category of 32-35 years and age category of 18–25 years ($p=0.002$) and between age category of 32–35 years and age category of 46–50 years ($p=0.007$). The overall leadership results indicate that respondents in the age group 32-35 years reported the lowest scores in terms of leadership compared to respondents in the age group 46-50 years which reported the highest scores in terms of leadership.

7.8.3 Educational level

This section presents the results of the relationship between educational level of participants and the variables of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB. The results in Table 7.29 provides the mean values per educational level.

Table 7.29: Mean values for educational level

Variables	Educational level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Leadership				
Supervision and Staff development	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.44	1.34
	Undergraduate	112	4.62	1.18
	Graduate	134	4.65	1.08

Variables	Educational level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Postgraduate	147	4.83	.98
	Other	7	4.51	1.12
Interpersonal relationships	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.40	1.42
	Undergraduate	112	4.59	1.22
	Graduate	134	4.63	1.07
	Postgraduate	147	4.79	1.04
	Other	7	4.35	1.09
Vision and goal orientation	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.57	1.15
	Undergraduate	112	4.69	1.17
	Graduate	134	4.72	.99
	Postgraduate	147	4.90	.95
	Other	7	4.71	.97
Overall Leadership	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.47	1.25
	Undergraduate	112	4.64	1.15
	Graduate	134	4.67	1.01
	Postgraduate	147	4.84	.96
	Other	7	4.52	1.04
Empowerment				
Meaningfulness	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.87	0.91
	Undergraduate	112	5.02	0.88
	Graduate	134	5.03	0.85
	Postgraduate	147	5.26	0.70
	Other	7	5.16	0.67
Autonomy/decision making	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.37	1.23
	Undergraduate	112	4.40	1.00
	Graduate	134	4.39	0.98
	Postgraduate	147	4.85	0.91
	Other	7	4.33	1.42
Competence	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.80	0.87
	Undergraduate	112	4.88	1.02
	Graduate	134	4.94	0.82
	Postgraduate	147	5.19	0.81
	Other	7	4.91	0.86
Overall empowerment	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.66	0.88
	Undergraduate	112	4.71	0.79
	Graduate	134	4.73	0.75
	Postgraduate	147	4.99	0.67
	Other	7	4.65	0.59

Variables	Educational level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
OCB				
Altruism	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	5.00	0.70
	Undergraduate	112	5.08	0.83
	Graduate	134	5.07	0.84
	Postgraduate	147	5.26	0.64
	Other	7	5.30	0.46
Sportsmanship	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	5.08	0.76
	Undergraduate	112	5.13	0.77
	Graduate	134	5.07	0.83
	Postgraduate	146	5.26	0.60
	Other	7	5.27	0.33
Conscientiousness	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.89	1.09
	Undergraduate	112	4.91	0.78
	Graduate	134	4.78	0.94
	Postgraduate	147	4.96	0.74
	Other	7	4.65	0.58
Civic virtue	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.89	0.79
	Undergraduate	112	4.67	0.94
	Graduate	134	4.81	0.86
	Postgraduate	147	5.01	0.77
	Other	7	4.75	0.43
Overall OCB	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	45	4.97	0.72
	Undergraduate	112	4.95	0.74
	Graduate	134	4.93	0.80
	Postgraduate	146	5.12	0.61
	Other	7	4.99	0.33

As indicated in Table 7.29, for each of the factors of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB, there were differences in the means between the various educational level categories. The statistical significance of the mean differences between the various educational level categories was determined by means of an analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results are presented in Table 7.30.

Table 7.30: ANOVA results for educational level

Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Leadership					
Between Groups	6.95	4	1.74	1.42	0.23

Variables		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Supervision and Staff development	Within Groups	538.69	440	1.22		
Interpersonal relationships	Between Groups	6.76	4	1.69	1.30	0.27
	Within Groups	570.61	440	1.29		
Vision and goal orientation	Between Groups	5.32	4	1.33	1.23	0.29
	Within Groups	477.64	440	1.09		
Overall Leadership	Between Groups	6.23	4	1.56	1.39	0.24
	Within Groups	490.86	440	1.12		
Empowerment						
Meaningfulness	Between Groups	7.27	4	1.82	2.71	0.030**
	Within Groups	295.19	440	.67		
Autonomy/decision making	Between Groups	20.77	4	5.19	5.19	0.000*
	Within Groups	439.38	440	.99		
Competence	Between Groups	9.08	4	2.27	2.96	0.020**
	Within Groups	337.24	440	.77		
Overall empowerment	Between Groups	8.08	4	2.02	3.60	0.007*
	Within Groups	246.93	440	.56		
OCB						
Altruism	Between Groups	4.43	4	1.11	1.91	0.11
	Within Groups	255.19	440	.58		
Sportsmanship	Between Groups	2.89	4	.72	1.34	0.25
	Within Groups	236.23	439	.54		
Conscientiousness	Between Groups	2.66	4	.66	.92	0.45
	Within Groups	319.39	440	.73		
Civic virtue	Between Groups	7.59	4	1.89	2.69	0.031**
	Within Groups	310.53	440	.71		
Overall OCB	Between Groups	3.12	4	.78	1.53	0.19
	Within Groups	223.75	439	.51		

*Statistically significant at 1%

**Statistically significant at 5%

From the ANOVA test, the following results were obtained:

- There were no significant differences between respondents from the different educational level groups and leadership.
- There were statistically significant differences between respondents from different educational level groups and employee empowerment (meaningfulness, autonomy/decision making and competence)
- There were no significant differences between respondents from different educational level groups and OCB except for civic virtue.

Meaningfulness as a dimension of employee empowerment, showed a statistically significant relationship with educational level at the 5% (≤ 0.05) level of significance. From Table 7.29, the mean score (ranges 5.0230 - 5.2556) for respondents from undergraduate, graduate, postgraduate and other educational groups were higher compared to respondents with a SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH educational level (4.8667). The results indicate that respondents with education level other than SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH were more likely to value the meaningfulness of their work as a critical component of empowerment.

The employee empowerment dimension of autonomy/decision making showed a statistically significant relationship with respondents' education level at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. A critical observation of the means scores (Table 7.29) indicates that the mean score (4.8458) for respondents with a postgraduate level of education was higher compared to the mean score (ranges 4.3333 – 4.3988) of respondents in other educational level categories. The results indicate that compared to respondents in all the other educational level categories, respondents in the postgraduate education level category are more likely to value Autonomy/decision making as a critical component of employee empowerment in public universities in Ghana.

Competence as a factor of empowerment was statistically significant related to respondents' educational level at the 5% (≤ 0.05) level of significance. The observation from the mean scores (Table 7.29) revealed that the mean score (5.1882) for respondents with a postgraduate educational level was higher compared to respondents in the remaining educational level categories (4.800 - 4.9048). The results indicate that compared to respondents in all other educational level categories, respondents with a post graduate qualification value competence as critical to empowerment.

Overall, there was a statistically significant relationship between educational level and employee empowerment at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. Similar to the dimensions of leadership, the mean score (4.9942) for respondents in the postgraduate educational level category was higher compared to respondents in the other educational level categories (ranges 4.6539 - 4.7328). The results indicate that respondents with a postgraduate qualification regard the meaningfulness of work, autonomy, and competence as critical to being empowered.

Civic virtue is the only dimension of OCB that was significantly related to educational level at the 5% (≤ 0.05) level of significance. The results in Table 7.29 indicate that the mean score for respondents in the postgraduate educational level (5.0060) was higher compared to the mean scores of respondents in the other educational level categories (ranges 4.6696 - 4.8889). The results indicate that respondents with a postgraduate qualification are more likely to engage in civic virtue as a dimension of OCB than respondents in the other educational level categories.

With F-statistics being significant for employee empowerment and that of civic virtue as a dimension of OCB in terms of education, a post Hoc analysis was done. The Bonferroni multiple comparison tests were conducted to examine the differences between the educational groups. Table 7.31 shows the results, indicating between which of the educational level categories the differences were found.

Table 7.31: Post Hoc analysis of educational level

Bonferroni							
Dependent Variable	Educational level	Educational level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Meaningfulness	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	Postgraduate	-.39	.14	.055	-.78	.01
	Postgraduate	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	.39	.14	.055	-.01	.78
Autonomy/decision making	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	Postgraduate	-.48	.17	.055	-.96	.01
	Undergraduate	Postgraduate	-.45	.13	.004*	-.80	-.09
	Graduate	Postgraduate	-.46	.12	.001*	-.79	-.12
	Postgraduate	SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH	.48	.17	.055	-.01	.96
		Undergraduate	.45	.12	.004*	.09	.80
		Graduate	.46	.12	.001*	.12	.79
Competence	Undergraduate	Postgraduate	-.31	.11	.054	-.62	.002
	Postgraduate	Undergraduate	.31	.111	.054	-.002	.62
Overall employee empowerment	Undergraduate	Postgraduate	-.28	.09	.028*	-.55	-.02
	Graduate	Postgraduate	-.26	.09	.037*	-.51	-.01
	Postgraduate	Undergraduate	.28	.09	.028*	.02	.55
		Graduate	.26	.09	.037*	.01	.51

Bonferroni							
Dependent Variable	Educational level	Educational level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Civic virtue	Undergraduate	Postgraduate	-.34	.11	.015*	-.63	-.04
	Postgraduate	Undergraduate	.34	.11	.015*	.04	.63

The following statistically significant differences between the various educational level categories was found at the 5% level of significance:

- Overall employee empowerment: a statistically significant difference was found between respondents with a Postgraduate qualification and graduates ($p=0.037$), and postgraduates and undergraduates ($p=0.028$). This finding indicates that respondents who had a postgraduate qualification are more likely to be empowerment in public universities in Ghana than those at a graduate or undergraduate level of education.
- Civic virtue: a statistically significant difference was found between postgraduate level of education and undergraduate level of education ($p=0.015$) in terms of civic virtue. The result indicates that respondents with a postgraduate qualification are more likely to exhibit civic virtue as a dimension of OCB in public universities in Ghana compared to respondents with an undergraduate level of education.

The following statistically significant differences were found between the various educational level categories of respondents at the 1% level of significance:

- Autonomy/decision making: A statistically significant difference was found between postgraduate educational level and graduate educational level ($p=0.001$), and postgraduate educational level and undergraduate educational level ($p=0.004$). The result indicates that respondents with a postgraduate qualification value autonomy/decision making as a critical component of employee empowerment in public universities in Ghana.

7.8.4 Job level

The results of the relationship between the job level of respondents and Leadership, Employee empowerment and OCB are discussed in this section. The mean values per job level for Leadership, Employee empowerment and OCB are provided in Table 7.32.

Table 7.32: Mean values of Job level

Variable		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
LEADERSHIP				
Supervision and Staff development	Junior staff	116	4.77	1.01
	Senior staff	198	4.56	1.12
	Senior academic staff member	85	4.75	1.10
	Senior administrative staff member	46	4.81	1.30
Interpersonal relationships	Junior staff	116	4.67	1.07
	Senior staff	198	4.56	1.15
	Senior academic staff member	85	4.66	1.14
	Senior administrative staff member	46	4.93	1.26
Vision and goal orientation	Junior staff	116	4.81	.91
	Senior staff	198	4.65	1.04
	Senior academic staff member	85	4.83	1.13
	Senior administrative staff member	46	4.98	1.16
Overall Leadership	Junior staff	116	4.75	.93
	Senior staff	198	4.59	1.07
	Senior academic staff member	85	4.75	1.10
	Senior administrative staff member	46	4.91	1.21
EMPOWERMENT				
Meaningfulness	Junior staff	116	5.01	.74
	Senior staff	198	5.01	.89
	Senior academic staff member	85	5.19	.77
	Senior administrative staff member	46	5.42	.75
Autonomy decision making	Junior staff	116	4.27	1.01
	Senior staff	198	4.45	.99
	Senior academic staff member	85	4.84	.87
	Senior administrative staff member	46	5.03	1.12
Competence	Junior staff	116	4.86	.87
	Senior staff	198	4.91	.91
	Senior academic staff member	85	5.20	.80
	Senior administrative staff member	46	5.34	.79
Overall empowerment	Junior staff	116	4.66	.77
	Senior staff	198	4.73	.76

Variable		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Senior academic staff member	85	4.99	.63
	Senior administrative staff member	46	5.15	.77
OCB				
Altruism	Junior staff	116	5.00	.77
	Senior staff	198	5.09	.82
	Senior academic staff member	85	5.27	.61
	Senior administrative staff member	46	5.42	.65
Sportsmanship	Junior staff	116	5.07	.79
	Senior staff	198	5.09	.78
	Senior academic staff member	85	5.28	.54
	Senior administrative staff member	45	5.38	.63
Conscientiousness	Junior staff	116	4.81	.90496
	Senior staff	198	4.79	.89
	Senior academic staff member	85	5.05	.61
	Senior administrative staff member	46	5.14	.84
Civic virtue	Junior staff	116	4.76	.85
	Senior staff	198	4.71	.87
	Senior academic staff member	85	5.11	.70
	Senior administrative staff member	46	5.16	.83
Overall OCB	Junior staff	116	4.91	.73
	Senior staff	198	4.92	.76
	Senior academic staff member	85	5.18	.54
	Senior administrative staff member	45	5.27	.68

Table 7.32 provides the means with corresponding standard deviations for each of the job levels in terms of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB. For each of the factors of leadership, employee empowerment and OCB, there were differences in the means observed between the various job levels. The statistical significance of the differences between the various job levels for leadership, employee empowerment and OCB are presented in Table 7.33.

Table 7.33: ANOVA results of Job level

Variable		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
LEADERSHIP						
Supervision and Staff development	Between Groups	4.83	3	1.61	1.31	0.27
	Within Groups	540.82	441	1.23		
Interpersonal relationships	Between Groups	5.33	3	1.78	1.37	0.25
	Within Groups	572.04	441	1.30		
Vision and goal orientation	Between Groups	5.45	3	1.82	1.68	0.17
	Within Groups	477.51	441	1.08		
Overall Leadership	Between Groups	4.82	3	1.61	1.44	0.23
	Within Groups	492.27	441	1.12		
EMPOWERMENT						
Meaningfulness	Between Groups	7.86	3	2.62	3.92	0.009*
	Within Groups	294.61	441	.67		
Autonomy decision making	Between Groups	29.07	3	9.697	9.92	0.000*
	Within Groups	431.07	441	.98		
Competence	Between Groups	12.74	3	4.25	5.61	0.001*
	Within Groups	333.58	441	.76		
Overall empowerment	Between Groups	11.81	3	3.94	7.14	0.000*
	Within Groups	243.20	441	.55		
OCB						
Altruism	Between Groups	7.76	3	2.59	4.53	0.004*
	Within Groups	251.85	441	.57		
Sportsmanship	Between Groups	5.51	3	1.84	3.46	0.016**
	Within Groups	233.62	440	.53		
Conscientiousness	Between Groups	7.47	3	2.49	3.49	0.016**
	Within Groups	314.59	441	.71		
Civic virtue	Between Groups	14.73	3	4.91	7.14	0.000*
	Within Groups	303.39	441	.69		
Overall OCB	Between Groups	8.19	3	2.73	5.5	0.001*
	Within Groups	218.68	440	.50		

*Statistically significant at 1%

**Statistically significant at 5%

The ANOVA analysis revealed the following results:

- There were no significant differences between respondents from different job levels as regards to leadership.
- There were statistically significant differences between respondents from different job levels as regards to employee empowerment.
- There were statistically significant differences between respondents from different job levels as regards to OCB.

Meaningfulness as a dimension of employee empowerment, showed a statistically significant relationship with job level at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. With reference to Table 7.32, the mean score (5.4224) of senior members (administrative) staff were higher compared to the mean score of respondents in the junior and senior staff job level (5.0123) category. Similarly, senior members (administrative) staff had a higher mean score (5.4224) compared to senior members (academic) staff (5.1916). The results indicate that senior members (administrative) staff value the meaningfulness of work as more important than senior members (academic) staff members or employees on the other job levels.

Autonomy and decision making showed a statistically significant relationship with job level at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. A critical observation of the means scores (Table 7.32) indicates that the mean score (5.0326) for senior members (administrative) staff was higher compared to junior staff and senior staff (ranges 4.26687 – 4.4512). Similarly, senior members (administrative) staff had higher mean scores (5.0326) compared to the scores of senior academic staff members (4.8431). The results indicate that senior administrative staff members in particular value Autonomy/decision making as an important empowerment tool in public universities.

Competence presented a statistically significant relationship with job level at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. The observation from the mean scores (Table 7.3) revealed that the mean score (5.3406) for senior administrative staff members was higher than the mean score of senior academic staff members (5.1916). Similarly, senior administrative staff members had higher mean scores compared to senior staff (4.9057) and junior staff (4.8563). The results indicate that senior

administrative staff members value competence as critical to being empowered in public universities.

Overall, there was a statistically significant relationship between job level and employee empowerment at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. Similar to the dimensions of empowerment, the mean score (5.1471) for senior administrative staff members was higher compared to the mean score of senior academic staff members (4.9886). Similarly, senior administrative staff members had higher mean scores (5.1471) compared to the mean scores of senior staff (4.7331) and junior staff (4.6572). The results indicate that senior administrative staff members are particularly concerned about the importance of empowerment.

Altruism, as a dimension of OCB, showed a statistically significant relationship with job level at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. According to Table 7.32, the mean score of senior administrative staff members (5.4185) were higher compared to the mean score of junior staff (5.0) and senior staff (5.0871). Similarly, senior administrative staff members had a higher mean score (5.4185) compared to the mean score of senior academic staff members (5.2676). The results indicate that senior administrative staff members are more likely than staff in other job levels to engage in altruism in public universities in Ghana.

Sportsmanship has a statistically significant relationship with job level at the 5% (≤ 0.05) level of significance. A critical observation of the means scores (Table 7.32) indicates that the mean score for senior administrative staff members (5.3833) was higher compared to the mean score of junior staff (5.0608) and senior staff (5.0878). Similarly, senior administrative staff members had a higher mean score (5.3833) compared to the mean score of senior academic staff members (5.2824). The results indicate that senior administrative staff members, compared to respondents in other job levels, are more likely to demonstrate sportsmanship.

Conscientiousness has a statistically significant relationship with job level at the 5% (≤ 0.05) level of significance. According to the mean scores (Table 7.32), the mean score for senior administrative staff members (5.1398) was higher compared to the mean score senior academic staff members (5.0487). Similarly, senior administrative staff members had a higher mean score compared to the mean score of senior staff (4.7987) and junior staff (4.8054). The results indicate

that senior administrative staff members are more likely to demonstrate conscientiousness compared to respondents in the other job levels. Interestingly, the result showed that junior staff are more conscientious than senior staff.

Civic virtue has a statistically significant relationship with job level at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. An observation of the means scores (Table 7.32) indicates that the mean score (5.1579) for senior administrative staff members was higher compared to the mean score of junior staff (4.7619) and senior staff (4.7102). Similarly, senior administrative staff members had a slightly higher mean score (5.1579) compared to the mean score of senior academic staff members (5.1088). The results indicate that senior administrative staff members are more likely to demonstrate civic virtue compared to respondents from other job levels. Senior academic staff members are also more likely to demonstrate civic virtue compared to senior and junior staff.

Overall, there was a statistically significant relationship between job level and OCB at the 1% (≤ 0.01) level of significance. Similar to the dimensions of OCB, the mean score of senior administrative staff members (5.2718) was higher than the mean score of senior academic staff members (5.1769). Similarly, senior administrative staff members had a higher mean score (5.2718) compared to the mean score of senior staff (4.9210) and junior staff (4.9085). The results indicate that senior administrative staff members are more likely to demonstrate OCB compared to respondents in the other job levels.

The Bonferroni multiple comparison tests were conducted to examine the differences between the job level groups. Table 7.34 provides the results, indicating between which of the job levels the differences were found.

Table 7.34: Post HOC for job level

Variable	Job level	Job level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Meaningfulness	Senior admin staff member	Junior staff	.41**	.14	.025	.03	.79
		Senior staff	.41**	.13	.014	.06	.77
Autonomy/ decision making	Senior academic staff member	Junior staff	.58*	.14	.000	.24	.95
		Senior staff	.39**	.13	.014	.05	.73
		Junior staff	.76*	.17	.000	.31	1.22

Variable	Job level	Job level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	Senior admin staff member	Senior staff	.58*	.16	.002	.15	1.01
Competence	Senior academic staff member	Junior staff	.34**	.12	.039	.01	.67
	Senior admin staff member	Junior staff	.48*	.15	.009	.08	.89
		Senior staff	.44**	.14	.014	.06	.81
Altruism	Senior admin staff member	Junior staff	.42**	.13	.010	.07	.77
		Senior staff	.33**	.12	.046	.004	.66
Civic virtue	Senior academic staff member	Junior staff	.35**	.12	.021	.03	.66
		Senior staff	.39*	.11	.001	.11	.68
	Senior admin staff member	Junior staff	.39**	.14	.041	.01	.78
		Senior staff	.45*	.14	.007	.08	.81
Overall empowerment	Senior academic staff member	Junior staff	.33**	.11	.011	.05	.61
		Senior staff	.26**	.09	.050	.00	.51
	Senior admin staff member	Junior staff	.49*	.13	.001	.15	.83
		Senior staff	.41*	.12	.004	.09	.74
Overall OCB	Senior academic staff member	Junior staff	.27**	.10	.048	.001	.54
		Senior staff	.26**	.09	.032	.013	.49
	Senior admin staff member	Junior staff	.36**	.12	.021	.035	.69
		Senior staff	.35**	.13	.016	.042	.66

*Statistically significant at 1%

**Statistically significant at 5%

The following statistically significant differences were found at the 5% level of significance between the job level categories of respondents:

- **Meaningfulness:** A statistically significant difference was found between senior administration staff members and junior staff ($p=0.025$), and senior administrative staff members and senior staff ($p=0.014$). This finding indicates that senior administrative staff members value meaningfulness of work as a tool of empowerment more than junior and senior staff.
- **Autonomy/decision making:** A statistically significant difference was found between senior academic staff members and senior staff ($p=0.014$). This finding indicates that senior academic staff members regard autonomy and decision making as a tool of empowerment as more important than senior staff.

- Competence: A statistically significant difference was found between senior academic staff members and junior staff ($p=0.037$), and between senior administrative staff members and senior staff ($p=0.014$) as regards to the role of competence in being empowered. This finding indicates that senior academic staff members place a higher value on the importance of competence as an empowerment tool as compared to junior staff. Senior administrative members also regard competence more important than senior staff.
- Altruism: A statistically significant difference was found between senior administrative staff members and junior staff ($p=0.010$), and between senior administrative staff members and senior staff ($p=0.046$). This finding indicates that senior administrative staff members are more likely to demonstrate altruism compared to junior and senior staff.
- Civic virtue: a statistically significant difference was found between senior academic staff members and junior staff ($p=0.021$), and between senior administrative staff members and junior staff ($p=0.041$). This finding indicates that junior staff are less likely to demonstrate civic virtue compared to senior academic and senior administrative staff members.
- Overall empowerment: A statistically significant difference was found between senior academic staff members and junior staff ($p=0.011$), and senior academic staff members and senior staff ($p=0.050$). Senior academic staff members value empowerment more than junior and senior staff.
- Overall OCB: A statistically significant difference was found between senior academic staff members and junior staff ($p=0.048$) and between senior academic staff members and senior staff ($p=0.032$). Similarly, a significant difference was found between senior administrative staff members and junior staff ($p=0.021$), and between senior administrative staff members and senior staff ($p=0.016$). This finding indicates that senior academic and senior administrative staff members are more likely to demonstrate OCB than junior and senior staff.

The following statistically significant differences were found at the 1% level of significance between the job level of respondents:

- Autonomy/decision making: A statistically significant difference was found between senior academic staff members and junior staff ($p=0.000$). The difference between senior administrative staff members and junior staff ($p=0.000$), and that of senior administrative staff members and senior staff ($p=0.002$) were also statistically significant. The results indicate that in terms of empowerment, senior academic and senior administrative staff members value autonomy and decision-making as more important than junior and senior staff.
- Competence: A statistically significant difference was found between senior administrative staff members and junior staff ($p=0.009$). This result indicates that senior administrative staff members regard opportunities to improve their own competence as very important compared to junior staff.
- Overall empowerment: A statistically significant difference was found between senior administrative staff members and junior staff ($p=0.001$) and senior administrative staff members and senior staff ($p=0.004$). This finding indicates that senior administrative staff members value employee empowerment more important than junior and senior staff.

Civic virtue: A statistically significant difference was found between senior academic staff members and senior staff ($p=0.002$) and between senior administrative staff members and senior staff ($p=0.007$). This finding indicates that senior academic staff members and senior administrative staff members are more likely to demonstrate civic virtue compared to senior staff.

With reference to the results, leadership plays a critical role in terms of employee empowerment and OCB. It is, therefore, important that public universities in Ghana invest in leadership competency. This will ensure that leaders of public universities carry out their assigned duties to promote empowerment and encourage subordinates to engage in OCB. From the study, three factors are core to leadership competence in public universities: Leaders that exhibit good interpersonal relationships, have a vision and goal orientation, and invest in effective supervision and staff development. A leadership competency framework, based on the findings of this study should thus enable public universities in Ghana to enhance better performance through its human resources.

7.9 SUMMARY

This chapter provided the results of the statistical analysis. Descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted. A structural equation model was done to determine the relationships between leadership, empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour. Here both direct and moderated hypotheses were tested using AMOS. Furthermore, the statistical tool Process Macro was used to test the mediated analysis. In addition, T-tests and ANOVAs were conducted to investigate the significant differences between the demographic groups as regards to leadership, employee empowerment and OCB.

Chapter 8: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter discusses the research findings with a focus on integrating the findings with current literature regarding leadership, empowerment, and OCB in public universities. The discussion of the findings is structured according to the study objectives. The chapter also discusses the practical implications of the study's findings. In addition, recommendations based on the findings are made for the development of leadership competencies to ensure the empowerment of employees and their willingness to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour. This chapter is the last chapter and provides the final conclusions of the study.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on presenting the results of the study. It covered the structural equation modelling with the outcomes of the direct, moderated, and mediated effects hypotheses, as well as tests for significant mean differences concerning respondents' ages, gender, educational level, and job level. This final chapter discusses the findings in detail and relates them to other studies as well as the theoretical framework (Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Social Empowerment theories) underpinning the study. As a reminder, the study sought to develop a leadership competency framework to promote the empowerment of employees and enhance OCB in the workplace. The objectives of this study are to investigate the relationship between leadership and OCB, assess the relationship between empowerment and OCB, and analyse the relationship between leadership and empowerment. Additionally, the study aims to examine the moderating and mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. It also seeks to determine the extent to which individuals from different gender, age, educational level, and job level differ regarding leadership, empowerment, and OCB. Finally, the study aims to develop a leadership competency framework for appointing and developing leaders at universities in Ghana to ensure the empowerment of employees and the enhancement of OCB. The next section will discuss all the hypotheses related to the relationship between leadership and OCB.

8.2 LEADERSHIP AND OCB

The first research objective focuses on investigating the relationship between leadership and OCB. The discussions in this main section are dedicated to achieving this research objective. The constructs for leadership in this study include supervision and staff development, interpersonal relations and vision and goals. OCB constructs included altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness. Specifically, sections 8.2.1, 8.2.2 and 8.2.3 are related to the first research objective.

8.2.1. Influence of Supervision and Staff Development on OCB

OCB is often associated with leadership in organisations because it impacts how employees perceive their work environment and relationships with colleagues and supervisors. Effective leadership practises frequently foster a positive organisational culture, which encourages employees to engage in OCB activities such as assisting co-workers, going beyond their job responsibilities, and contributing to the overall well-being of the organisation. By building a friendly and inclusive work environment, strong leadership can inspire and drive individuals to demonstrate OCB (Tran & Choi, 2019). In this study, the researcher sought to investigate the relationships between supervision and staff development and various dimensions of OCB namely, altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness. The findings offer interesting insights into these dynamics.

The results reveal a negative relationship between altruism and supervision and staff development, although this relationship is not statistically significant. This indicates that while there is a trend suggesting that increased supervision and staff development might correspond with reduced altruistic behaviour, the effect is not strong enough to be conclusive. The lack of statistical significance suggests that the relationship may be more complex and mediated by other unmeasured factors, such as organisational culture, employee personality traits, or contextual influences unique to the work environment. These findings challenge the conventional expectation that supervision and staff development would inherently promote altruistic behaviours, such as helping colleagues voluntarily.

This outcome aligns with studies that suggest a nuanced understanding of the impact of leadership practices on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). For instance, Hui et al. (1999) argued that structured supervision might sometimes suppress intrinsic motivation for discretionary behaviours, as employees perceive their roles as more rigidly defined. Similarly, Podsakoff et al. (2000) noted that certain leadership practices could inadvertently shift employee focus away from voluntary contributions to meeting formal job expectations. On the other hand, Wang et al. (2005) highlighted that the quality of leader-member relationships could mediate the impact of supervision on altruistic behaviours, with high-quality relationships fostering a more collaborative and supportive environment.

The findings can also be interpreted through the lens of the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, which emphasises the role of individualized leader-member relationships in shaping employee behaviours. In this study, it is possible that supervision and staff development practices may not uniformly create high-quality leader-member exchanges. According to the theory, when these practices are implemented in a way that prioritizes compliance or rigid task adherence, they may limit the development of trust and respect essential for fostering altruistic behaviour. As Dansereau et al. (1975) noted, strong LMX relationships often lead to in-group dynamics where altruism is more prevalent, while weaker exchanges may result in out-group dynamics characterized by minimal voluntary efforts.

In essence, while supervision and staff development are crucial components of leadership, their influence on altruism may depend significantly on the quality of the leader-member relationship and broader organisational factors. Future studies could explore these mediating variables to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms driving altruistic behaviour in workplace settings.

Furthermore, the results indicate a positive relationship between supervision and staff development (SSD) and sportsmanship (SPO), though this relationship is not statistically significant. This suggests a possible tendency for employees to exhibit increased sportsmanship behaviours, such as tolerating inconveniences and maintaining a positive attitude in challenging situations, when they receive greater supervision and staff development. However, the lack of statistical

significance implies that SSD alone may not be a strong predictor of sportsmanship. Other factors, such as organisational culture, interpersonal dynamics, or individual employee characteristics, may play a more prominent role in fostering sportsmanship behaviours.

The findings align with prior research highlighting the complexity of relationships between leadership practices and organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB). For instance, Podsakoff et al. (2000) suggested that while leadership initiatives such as staff development might encourage cooperative attitudes, their influence on sportsmanship could be indirect and mediated by factors like perceived fairness and trust in leadership. Similarly, Organ et al. (2006) emphasised that sportsmanship often depends on employees' perceptions of workplace equity and job satisfaction, which are not directly tied to SSD practices. These studies suggest that leadership actions must be complemented by a supportive organisational environment to significantly impact sportsmanship behaviours.

The results can also be interpreted through the lens of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, which emphasises the quality of the relationship between leaders and individual subordinates as a critical determinant of employee behaviour. In the context of sportsmanship, high-quality leader-member exchanges may amplify the effects of SSD by fostering mutual respect, trust, and a sense of inclusion within the in-group. According to Dansereau et al. (1975), employees in high-quality exchanges are more likely to go above and beyond their formal job responsibilities, including demonstrating sportsmanship, because they feel valued and supported. Conversely, in low-quality exchanges, where the leader-subordinate relationship is more transactional, the impact of SSD on sportsmanship may be diminished. The lack of a statistically significant relationship in this study could reflect variability in the quality of these exchanges across the organisation.

The study reveals a positive and statistically significant relationship between supervision and staff development (SSD) and civic virtue, suggesting that these leadership practices play a crucial role in fostering civic virtue among employees. Civic virtue, characterized by responsible and proactive behaviours such as active participation in committees, attending meetings, and engaging in university policy debates, appears to be significantly enhanced when employees perceive their supervisors as supportive and committed to their professional growth. This finding aligns with the

broader notion that a developmental and supportive organisational culture promotes employee engagement and voluntary contributions that go beyond prescribed job duties.

This outcome is consistent with prior research on OCB. Podsakoff et al. (2000) emphasised that leadership behaviours that prioritize staff development and foster open communication can cultivate a sense of responsibility and commitment among employees, thus encouraging civic virtue. Additionally, Organ et al. (2006) highlighted that employees who perceive strong support and opportunities for growth from their leaders are more likely to feel invested in the organisation's success, leading to greater participation in organisational governance and activities. These studies affirm that SSD provides the necessary environment for employees to exhibit civic virtue by creating a sense of ownership and accountability.

The findings also align with the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, which underscores the importance of high-quality exchanges between leaders and subordinates in shaping employee behaviour. High-quality LMX relationships are built on trust, mutual respect, and individualized support, which can enhance employees' willingness to engage in behaviours that benefit the organisation, such as civic virtue. According to Dansereau et al. (1975), employees in the in-group—those who enjoy a close, supportive relationship with their leader—are more likely to engage in extra-role behaviours like attending meetings or participating in organisational discussions. This suggests that the positive effect of SSD on civic virtue may be mediated by the quality of leader-member relationships. Employees who feel supported and developed by their leaders may perceive themselves as integral to the organisation's success, prompting them to actively contribute to its governance.

Additionally, the research demonstrates a robust positive relationship between supervision and staff development and conscientiousness. This relationship is highly statistically significant. The results indicate that supervision and staff development play a pivotal role in promoting conscientiousness among employees (Peters et al., 2024). Conscientious employees are diligent, reliable, and committed to fulfilling their roles responsibly. This aligns with the expectation that organisations investing in the development and support of their employees can enhance conscientiousness, leading to more responsible and dependable behaviours within the workplace.

The positive relationship between SSD and conscientiousness can also be explained through the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, which posits that high-quality relationships between leaders and subordinates promote behaviours that benefit the organisation. Leaders who invest in staff development and provide supportive supervision foster trust and respect within the leader-member relationship. This, in turn, encourages employees to demonstrate conscientious behaviours as part of their commitment to the leader and the organisation. According to Dansereau et al. (1975), employees in high-quality LMX relationships are more likely to go above and beyond their formal job descriptions, which aligns closely with the conscientious behaviours observed in this study.

8.2.2 Influence of Interpersonal Relationships on OCB

This study also investigated the intricate relationships between interpersonal relationships and various dimensions of OCB. The findings reveal a multifaceted connection, shedding light on the nuanced ways in which interpersonal relationships influence different facets of OCB.

The study investigated the relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism, hypothesizing a positive and significant impact. However, the results did not support this expectation, indicating that employees' interactions and relationships with their colleagues do not significantly influence their altruistic behaviours within the organisation. This suggests that other factors, such as organisational culture, may play a more substantial role in fostering altruism. This finding aligns with previous research by Smith et al. (2020), which highlights the complexity of the relationship between interpersonal relationships and various dimensions of OCB.

Relating these findings to the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, it becomes evident that the quality of the relationship between leaders and subordinates can significantly impact employee behaviours. According to LMX theory, high-quality leader-member exchanges, characterized by trust, respect, and mutual obligation, can foster positive behaviours such as altruism. In this study, the lack of a significant relationship between interpersonal relationships and altruism may indicate that the leader-member exchanges were not strong enough to influence altruistic behaviours. This aligns with Dansereau et al. (1975), who noted that in-group members, who have high-quality

exchanges with their leaders, are more likely to exhibit positive behaviours, while out-group members, with lower quality exchanges, may not.

Similarly, the examination of interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship yielded non-significant results, suggesting that workplace interactions do not significantly influence employees' sportsmanship behaviours. This finding aligns with the idea that different dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) may be influenced by distinct sets of determinants, indicating that fostering sportsmanship may require other organisational strategies or interventions (Knez et al., 2019). These results, while not directly confirming the relationship, emphasise the need for a nuanced understanding of how interpersonal relationships are linked to different facets of OCB.

Relating these findings to the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, it becomes evident that the quality of the relationship between leaders and subordinates can significantly impact employee behaviours. According to LMX theory, high-quality leader-member exchanges, characterized by trust, respect, and mutual obligation, can foster positive behaviours such as sportsmanship. In this study, the lack of a significant relationship between interpersonal relationships and sportsmanship may indicate that the leader-member exchanges were not strong enough to influence sportsmanship behaviours. This aligns with Dansereau et al. (1975), who noted that in-group members who have high-quality exchanges with their leaders are more likely to exhibit positive behaviours, while out-group members with lower-quality exchanges may not.

Conversely, as the analysis shifts to explore the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue, it uncovers a statistically significant positive relationship. This implies that positive interactions and relationships with colleagues can indeed foster civic virtue among employees, encouraging them to actively participate in the organisational “civic life.” Notably, this finding is substantiated by earlier studies, such as Khan et al. (2020), which highlight the potential of interpersonal relationships in nurturing civic-minded behaviours within the workplace. Similarly, the relationship between interpersonal relationships and conscientiousness is also statistically significant. This indicates that favourable interactions and relationships significantly shape employees' conscientiousness, underscoring the importance of a supportive social

environment in promoting responsibility and reliability. These results align with existing literature, including the work of Khaola and Musiiwa (2021), which illustrates the role of interpersonal relationships in bolstering conscientious behaviours.

Relating these findings to the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, it becomes evident that the quality of the relationship between leaders and subordinates can significantly impact employee behaviours. According to LMX theory, high-quality leader-member exchanges, characterized by trust, respect, and mutual obligation, can foster positive behaviours such as civic virtue and conscientiousness. In this study, the significant relationships between interpersonal relationships and both civic virtue and conscientiousness suggest that strong leader-member exchanges are likely contributing to these positive outcomes. This aligns with Dansereau et al. (1975), who noted that in-group members, who have high-quality exchanges with their leaders, are more likely to exhibit positive behaviours, while out-group members, with lower quality exchanges, may not.

In essence, this study's findings underscore the nuanced and context-dependent nature of the relationship between interpersonal relationships and various OCB dimensions. While altruism and sportsmanship do not appear to be significantly influenced by these relationships, the dimensions of civic virtue and conscientiousness are notably positively impacted. These results reinforce the intricate interplay between workplace relationships and OCB and suggest that different dimensions may be shaped by a unique set of influences and contextual factors (Knez et al., 2019). Studies in the literature provide both supporting and non-supporting evidence for these findings, further highlighting the complexity of these relationships in an organisational context.

8.2.3 Influence of Vision and Goals on OCB

The analysis of the relationship between vision and goals orientation and various dimensions of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) reveals a consistent pattern of non-support for these relationships. The findings of this study imply that within public universities in Ghana, the presence of a clear organisational vision and well-defined goals does not significantly influence the four dimensions of OCB: altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. This challenges the prevailing assumption in organisational behaviour literature that a strong vision fosters positive discretionary behaviours. For instance, while Budur and Demir (2022) and Kimeto

and K'Aol (2018) reported a positive relationship between organisational vision and OCB, the current findings suggest that such associations may be context-dependent and not universally applicable. These findings might indicate that academic environments, compared to corporate or other organisational settings, have unique structural or cultural characteristics that mediate the influence of vision on employee behaviour.

Moreover, these results align with previous research by Green et al. (2018), which found that altruistic behaviours were not directly linked to an organisation's vision in their study. This suggests that employees may engage in altruistic acts based on interpersonal dynamics, intrinsic motivations, or localized team cultures, rather than being driven by an overarching organisational vision. Similarly, Johnson and Wu (2020) did not find a significant association between vision and civic virtue, further reinforcing the notion that employees' engagement in civic-related behaviours, such as attending meetings or participating in governance, may stem from other factors, such as institutional norms, personal values, or leadership styles.

Additionally, the findings resonate with Smith and Baker's (2019) research, which reported no significant relationship between vision and conscientiousness. This suggests that conscientious behaviours—such as going beyond formal duties or adhering to high standards—may not necessarily be influenced by an organisation's vision and goals. Instead, they may be more closely tied to individual personality traits, job-specific expectations, or intrinsic motivations. In academic settings, where autonomy and intellectual freedom are highly valued, employees may prioritize self-direction and personal achievement over alignment with organisational vision.

Taken together, these findings highlight the potential contextual nuances that influence the relationship between vision and OCB. In academic environments, employees may derive their motivation and engagement from factors such as collegial relationships, academic freedom, or intrinsic satisfaction, rather than from organisational vision. This underscores the need for tailored strategies to foster OCB in such settings, where leadership approaches may need to focus more on interpersonal relationships, empowerment, and recognition rather than solely emphasizing vision and goals. Future research could explore these dynamics further to provide deeper insights into the drivers of OCB in academic contexts.

Relating these findings to the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, it becomes evident that the quality of the relationship between leaders and subordinates plays a crucial role in shaping employee behaviours. According to LMX theory, high-quality leader-member exchanges, characterized by trust, respect, and mutual obligation, can foster positive behaviours such as OCB. In this study, the lack of a significant relationship between vision and OCB may indicate that the quality of leader-member exchanges was not strong enough to influence OCB. This aligns with Dansereau et al. (1975), who noted that in-group members, who have high-quality exchanges with their leaders, are more likely to exhibit positive behaviours, while out-group members, with lower quality exchanges, may not.

In essence, the findings of this analysis indicate that vision and goals, as a standalone factor, does not have a significant influence on the various dimensions of OCB. While these results do not support the positive relationships, they provide valuable insights into the complexity of OCB determinants, emphasizing that factors beyond organisational vision and goals play pivotal roles in shaping these behaviours. This study's findings are further confirmed by previous studies that similarly did not find strong relationships between vision and OCB dimensions (Johnson & Wu, 2020; Smith & Baker, 2019; Green et al., 2018).

8.3 EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT AND OCB

The second research objective focuses on examining the relationship between employee empowerment and OCB. The discussions in this section are dedicated to achieving this research objective. Employee empowerment is often used by organisations as a tool to improve organisational effectiveness (Shahab et al., 2018). Psychological empowerment has been reported to have a positive significant effect on employee OCB, and the higher the level of employee empowerment, the more likely employees will engage in OCB (Akbar et al., 2018). Specifically, sections 8.3.1, 8.3.2 and 8.3.3 are related to the second research objective.

8.3.1. Influence of Meaningfulness on OCB

The study reveals a consistently positive and significant relationship between meaningfulness and all dimensions of OCB, highlighting the critical role that meaningful work plays in fostering altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. These findings align with existing research, which underscores the impact of meaningful work on enhancing employees' proactivity, prosocial behaviour, and organisational commitment. For instance, Albrecht et al. (2021) identified meaningful work as a key driver of employee engagement and extra-role behaviours, while Dai et al. (2021) demonstrated that employees who find meaning in their work are more likely to engage in behaviours that benefit their colleagues and the organisation. Hieu (2020) similarly observed that meaningful work fosters a sense of purpose, which translates into higher levels of discretionary effort and organisational commitment.

The findings also resonate with the principles of Social Empowerment Theory, which emphasises the importance of creating an empowering work environment to enable employees to realize their potential and contribute meaningfully. According to Wallace and McIntyre (2021), meaningfulness in work acts as a psychological resource, empowering employees to align their personal values with organisational goals. This alignment fosters a sense of intrinsic motivation, which encourages employees to go beyond their formal job roles and engage in OCB. Social Empowerment Theory posits that when employees perceive their work as meaningful, they experience a stronger sense of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, all of which contribute to enhanced organisational citizenship behaviours.

Furthermore, the study's findings support the notion that meaningful work provides employees with a sense of purpose and fulfilment that motivates them to contribute positively to their organisations. For example, meaningfulness has been linked to altruism, as employees who find value in their work are more inclined to help their colleagues (Dai et al., 2021). Similarly, employees experiencing meaningful work demonstrate higher levels of sportsmanship by maintaining a positive attitude, even in challenging circumstances. Civic virtue and conscientiousness are also positively influenced by meaningfulness, as employees who feel their work is purposeful are more likely to engage in proactive behaviours, such as participating in organisational governance and adhering to high standards of reliability and diligence.

8.3.2. Autonomy/Decision-making and OCB

The relationship between autonomy/decision-making and the dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) shows mixed outcomes. While the study finds that autonomy/decision-making does not significantly influence altruism and sportsmanship, it has a significant positive impact on civic virtue and conscientiousness.

The finding that autonomy and decision-making do not significantly influence altruistic behaviours suggests that granting employees independence in their roles may not directly motivate selfless acts, such as helping colleagues. While prior studies, like Barghouti et al. (2023), have linked autonomy to increased motivation and engagement, this study highlights that altruism may instead be driven by factors like empathy, emotional intelligence, or organisational culture. In academic settings, where both autonomy and collaboration are valued, this disconnect implies that fostering altruism might require focusing on relational factors, such as team trust, supportive leadership, or recognition of prosocial behaviour, rather than solely emphasizing decision-making autonomy. These findings encourage a more nuanced approach to cultivating altruism, recognizing the need for interpersonal and cultural strategies in promoting this key aspect of OCB.

Moreover, the finding that autonomy and decision-making do not significantly influence sportsmanship, a dimension of OCB characterized by employees' willingness to tolerate inconveniences and maintain a positive attitude, has important implications for organisational leadership and culture. While autonomy is widely associated with job satisfaction and motivation (Barghouti et al., 2023), its lack of impact on sportsmanship suggests that this behaviour may be influenced more by personal attributes, emotional resilience, or the broader organisational climate rather than by the level of independence employees have in their roles. This aligns with studies like Green et al. (2018), which highlight the role of interpersonal dynamics and team cohesion in fostering sportsmanship but contrasts with research by Kim and Beehr (2021), which links autonomy to positive workplace attitudes. In academic institutions, where autonomy is often an inherent feature of many roles, additional decision-making freedom may not significantly affect sportsmanship, as it may be perceived as a standard expectation rather than a motivational factor. This suggests that promoting sportsmanship requires more than just granting autonomy—it necessitates creating a supportive organisational culture, emphasizing teamwork, and providing

recognition for collaborative and resilient behaviours. Leaders must prioritize relational and cultural interventions, such as fostering psychological safety, offering emotional support, and encouraging team cohesion, to inspire employees to maintain positivity and adaptability in challenging situations. This highlights the need for a multidimensional approach to enhancing OCB that goes beyond autonomy and addresses the unique needs of the organisational context.

Furthermore, regarding the relationship between autonomy and civic virtue as well as the relationship between autonomy and conscientiousness, these results align with prior research. For example, Tao et al. (2018) demonstrated that autonomy fosters civic virtue by encouraging employees to actively participate in organisational governance and decision-making processes. Similarly, Hall (2023) observed a strong relationship between autonomy and conscientiousness, noting that employees with decision-making latitude are more likely to exhibit proactive behaviours, such as reliability and diligence, which exceed their formal job requirements.

The findings emphasise the importance of autonomy and decision-making in cultivating behaviours that align with broader organisational goals. Autonomy allows employees to feel a sense of ownership and responsibility in their roles, which is particularly critical for promoting behaviours like civic virtue and conscientiousness. As Hao and Long (2018) and Qasim et al. (2020) suggest, autonomy provides employees with the psychological freedom to engage in discretionary efforts that benefit the organisation. Jehanzeb and Morhanty (2020) further support this by highlighting that decision-making autonomy enhances employees' intrinsic motivation, fostering proactive engagement in tasks that go beyond their basic job descriptions.

These mixed findings underscore the complexity of the relationship between autonomy and OCB. While autonomy is a powerful driver of certain OCB dimensions, such as civic virtue and conscientiousness, its influence may be less pronounced in fostering altruistic and sportsmanlike behaviours. This variation suggests that the benefits of autonomy might depend on the specific context of the work environment and the nature of the tasks. Understanding these nuances is crucial for organisations aiming to leverage autonomy as a tool to enhance overall employee engagement and citizenship behaviours.

The findings regarding the relationship between autonomy/decision-making and dimensions of OCB align with the principles of Social Empowerment Theory, which emphasises the role of empowering work environments in fostering employees' intrinsic motivation and engagement. Social Empowerment Theory posits that when employees perceive they have autonomy and control over their decision-making processes, they feel more competent and valued within their roles, which enhances their willingness to engage in proactive and discretionary behaviours. The significant positive influence of autonomy on civic virtue and conscientiousness observed in this study reflects this theoretical perspective, as empowered employees are more likely to actively participate in organisational governance and exceed their formal job responsibilities. These behaviours, rooted in a sense of meaningful involvement and psychological empowerment, highlight the importance of decision-making autonomy in creating an empowered workforce that is committed to organisational success.

8.3.3. Competence and OCB

The findings demonstrating a robust positive relationship between competence and all dimensions of OCB—altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness—are well-grounded in Social Empowerment Theory. This theory underscores the role of competence as a key element of psychological empowerment, highlighting that employees who perceive themselves as skilled and capable are more likely to exhibit behaviours that benefit their organisations beyond formal job requirements. Competence instils confidence in employees, enabling them to engage in altruistic acts, such as helping colleagues, as supported by Rasit and Che Ab Razab (2018), and to maintain a positive attitude in challenging situations, aligning with Podsakoff et al. (2000). Moreover, competence fosters active participation in organisational governance (civic virtue), as observed by Tao et al. (2018), and encourages discretionary behaviours like conscientiousness, which are essential for organisational success.

The theoretical framework of Social Empowerment Theory explains these relationships by suggesting that competence creates a sense of mastery and self-efficacy, which motivates employees to contribute meaningfully to their work environment. Competent employees are likely to feel empowered to take initiative and engage in OCB behaviours, as they are confident in their ability to make a positive impact. These findings highlight the organisational value of investing in

skill development and training programs to enhance employees' competence, thereby fostering a culture of empowerment that drives OCB. In essence, Social Empowerment Theory provides a lens through which the pivotal role of competence in shaping OCB can be understood, affirming that empowered, skilled employees are integral to organisational effectiveness.

8.4 LEADERSHIP AND EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

The third objective of this study aims to analyse the relationship between leadership and empowerment. The discussions in this section are dedicated to achieving this research objective. Specifically, sections 8.4.1, 8.2.2 and 8.2.3 are related to the third research objective.

.8.4.1 Supervision and Staff Development and Employee Empowerment

The findings indicate that supervision and staff development significantly and positively impact all three key dimensions of employee empowerment: meaningfulness, autonomy, and competence. As supported by Lysova et al. (2019), effective supervision fosters a deeper sense of meaningfulness by helping employees connect their work to organisational goals and values. Similarly, Hall (2023) finds that supervision and development efforts enhance employees' autonomy in decision-making, enabling them to feel more control and ownership over their work. The findings also align with Llorente-Alonso (2024), who highlights the importance of supervision in fostering competence, as employees are provided with the necessary resources, training, and support to enhance their skills and capabilities. These results underscore the critical role that supervision and staff development play in empowering employees, improving their self-efficacy, and creating an environment that promotes job satisfaction, motivation, and high performance.

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory further enriches the understanding of these findings by emphasizing the importance of individualized, high-quality relationships between leaders and subordinates. According to LMX, employees with strong, positive relationships with their leaders are more likely to experience empowerment, as leaders offer more guidance, support, and opportunities for personal development. When supervisors engage in staff development and provide effective supervision, they enhance employees' perceptions of meaningfulness, autonomy, and competence, which aligns with the principles of LMX. Employees who are in the “in-group”

of LMX are likely to feel more empowered, as they receive tailored support from their leaders, fostering a sense of belonging and motivation to exceed expectations. Thus, LMX theory helps explain why supervision and staff development are so impactful in promoting employee empowerment, as these practices nurture high-quality, supportive relationships that empower employees to contribute more effectively to the organisation.

8.4.2 Interpersonal Relationships and Employee Empowerment

The relationship between interpersonal relationships and employee empowerment reveals mixed findings across the dimensions of meaningfulness, autonomy, and competence.

First, with regards to the relationship between interpersonal relationships and the meaningfulness of work, the findings indicate that this relationship is not statistically significant. This suggests that positive relationships between employees and their colleagues or superiors do not significantly contribute to enhancing the meaningfulness of their work. While it is commonly believed that positive interactions and support from colleagues can enhance the meaningfulness of work, this finding suggests that in this specific context (public universities in Ghana), interpersonal relationships may not have a substantial influence on how employees perceive the meaningfulness of their tasks. This finding does not align with studies emphasizing the importance of social support and relationships in enhancing meaningful work (Tajvidi et al., 2021).

On the other hand, the results indicate that interpersonal relationships have a significant positive effect on employees' autonomy in decision-making. This suggests that when employees in public universities in Ghana have good relationships with their colleagues and superiors, they are more likely to feel that they have the autonomy to make decisions in their work. Supportive and collaborative relationships can foster trust and confidence among employees, which, in turn, can lead to an increased sense of autonomy. This finding is in line with research highlighting the link between positive interpersonal relationships and employees' perceived autonomy (Collie et al., 2018). The influence of positive relationships on autonomy is significant and aligns with the notion that a positive work environment can empower employees to make independent decisions.

However, the results also indicate that interpersonal relationships do not significantly affect employees' sense of competence. While positive relationships are often associated with greater job satisfaction and well-being, this finding suggests that these relationships may not significantly contribute to employees' perceived competence in this context. This finding contradicts studies that highlight the role of interpersonal relationships in building employees' self-efficacy and competence (Chien-Chi et al., 2020).

The findings regarding interpersonal relationships and employee empowerment can be well understood through the lens of the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory. According to LMX, the quality of the relationship between leaders and their subordinates is crucial in determining the level of empowerment experienced by employees. In this study, the positive and significant impact of interpersonal relationships on autonomy aligns with LMX, which posits that high-quality relationships, characterized by trust, mutual respect, and support, empower employees by providing them with more autonomy and decision-making latitude. While interpersonal relationships did not significantly affect meaningfulness and competence, the relationship with autonomy suggests that when employees feel valued and supported in their interpersonal exchanges, they are more likely to take ownership of their work and feel empowered in decision-making. This finding reinforces the LMX theory, underscoring the importance of strong, supportive leader-member relationships in fostering an empowered, autonomous workforce. However, as noted in the study, the strength of these effects may depend on other contextual factors within the organisation, highlighting the complexity of the leader-member dynamic.

8.4.2 Vision and Goals Orientation and Empowerment

The relationship between leadership's vision and goals and employee empowerment across meaningfulness, autonomy, and competence is a topic of interest.

The results indicate that leadership's vision and goals significantly and positively influence how employees experience their work's meaningfulness. This suggests that when leaders effectively communicate their vision and goals to employees, it increases the meaningfulness employees in public universities in Ghana attach to their work. In organisations where leaders inspire and motivate employees by sharing a compelling vision, employees are more likely to find their work

meaningful. This finding aligns with research emphasizing the role of visionary and transformational leadership in fostering a sense of meaningful work (Steinmann et al., 2018). Effective communication of a clear vision provides employees with a sense of purpose and direction, contributing to their tasks' meaningfulness.

However, the results indicate that leadership's vision and goals do not significantly influence employee autonomy. In other words, the communication of a vision and goals by leadership does not seem to empower employees with greater autonomy in their decision-making. The absence of a significant relationship implies that while leadership's vision and goals may inspire and provide direction, they may not directly translate into granting employees more decision-making freedom. This result differs from some studies that suggest visionary leadership can enhance employees' autonomy and empowerment (Gao & Jiang, 2019). The absence of this relationship suggests that factors other than the visionary aspect of leadership may influence employee autonomy in academic institutions.

Similarly, the results indicate that leadership's vision and goals do not significantly influence employees' sense of competence. This means that employees' perception of their competence is not significantly influenced despite visionary leadership and goal setting. Competence in this context refers to the employees' confidence in their abilities to carry out tasks effectively. While visionary leadership may inspire and motivate, it does not directly contribute to employees' self-efficacy or confidence in their job-related skills. This finding contrasts with studies that emphasise the role of leadership in enhancing employee competence (Mazzetti & Schaufeli, 2022)

The mixed findings regarding the relationship between leadership's vision and goals and employee empowerment can be interpreted through the lens of the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory. While LMX theory primarily focuses on the quality of relationships between leaders and subordinates, it also emphasises that leaders' actions—such as articulating a clear vision and setting goals—can influence employees' perceptions of their work and sense of empowerment. The finding that leadership's vision enhances the meaningfulness of work aligns with LMX, as leaders who effectively communicate a compelling vision tend to strengthen the leader-member relationship by inspiring employees and providing a sense of purpose. However, the lack of a

significant impact on autonomy and competence suggests that while visionary leadership may enhance the emotional and motivational aspects of work (as supported by transformational leadership theory), other factors—such as the level of trust, support, and individualized attention from leaders—may be more critical in influencing employees' autonomy and competence. This underscores the idea within LMX that empowerment is multifaceted and that while a strong vision is important, personalized, high-quality exchanges with leaders are necessary to empower employees in areas like autonomy and competence fully.

8.5 MODERATING ROLES OF EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND OCB

The fourth objective of this study focuses on examining the moderating and mediating roles of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. The discussions under this main section focus on achieving the moderating role of employee empowerment. Specifically, sections 8.5.1 to 8.5.6 are related to the fourth research objective.

8.5.1 Moderating role of meaningfulness in the relationship between supervision and staff development and altruism

The moderating role of meaningfulness in the relationship between supervision and staff development, and altruism was not significant. In essence, when supervision and staff development enhance the meaningfulness of employees' work, it does not necessarily lead to a significant increase in altruistic behaviour. This finding suggests that supervision and staff development can make employees' work more meaningful, but it does not guarantee that employees will engage in altruistic behaviours.

One possible explanation for this result is that altruistic behaviour is influenced by more than just the meaningfulness of work. Altruism often involves personal values, motivations, and individual differences. Even when employees find their work meaningful, they may not engage in altruistic behaviours if they lack intrinsic motivation or if other factors, such as time constraints or personal priorities, outweigh the influence of meaningfulness.

A study by Allan et al. (2019) have shown that while meaningful work can enhance organisational citizenship behaviours, the relationship is not always straightforward. There are most likely other factors and contextual elements that moderate the influence of meaningfulness on altruistic behaviours. In conclusion, while meaningful work can make a job more satisfying, it may not be the sole factor determining whether employees engage in altruistic behaviours, and the relationship is likely influenced by various complex factors that were not investigated by this study.

8.5.2 Moderating role of autonomy/decision-making in the relationship between supervision and staff development and sportsmanship

The moderating role of autonomy/decision-making in the relationship between supervision and staff development, and sportsmanship was not confirmed by the findings of this study. The absence of support for this moderation effect implies that the association between supervision and staff development, and sportsmanship is not influenced by autonomy and decision-making power. Providing employees with more autonomy or decision-making powers will not necessarily lead to a display of sportsmanship.

It is important to note that the relationship between leadership, autonomy, and organisational citizenship behaviours is complex and context dependent. Empirical research by Zheng et al., (2019) suggests that situational factors, organisational culture, and individual differences can influence the relationship between leadership and employees' behaviours. Therefore, the lack of support for the notion that autonomy influences the relationship between leadership and OCB might be specific to this study's context and sample. It is possible that in other contexts or under different conditions, the moderation effect could be more pronounced.

8.5.3 Moderating role of autonomy/decision-making in the relationship between interpersonal relationship and conscientiousness

The study examined the moderating role of autonomy/decision-making on the relationship between interpersonal relationships and conscientiousness. However, the findings indicate that the moderating effect of autonomy/decision-making is not supported.

This suggests that the strength of the relationship between interpersonal relationships and conscientiousness remains relatively consistent, regardless of the level of autonomy/decision-making. In other words, while interpersonal relationships positively influence conscientiousness (this relationship was supported in this study in H2d), the extent of this influence does not significantly change based on the level of autonomy and decision-making granted to employees.

Some empirical studies corroborate these findings, suggesting that the relationship between leadership dimensions, specifically interpersonal relationships, and conscientiousness is not significantly affected by variations in autonomy/decision-making. The absence of a significant moderating effect aligns with the perspective that effective interpersonal relationships play a pivotal role in promoting conscientiousness, irrespective of the autonomy given to employees. This aligns with the idea that strong interpersonal bonds and supportive leadership are crucial drivers of conscientious behaviour in the workplace, as highlighted by Liu et al. (2024).

While some studies indicate that autonomy and decision-making can influence work-related outcomes, in the context of conscientiousness influenced by interpersonal relationships, the presence or absence of autonomy/decision-making moderating effects is not significant. This suggests that conscientiousness is primarily driven by interpersonal relationships with leaders rather than the level of autonomy or decision-making authority granted to employees, highlighting the importance of fostering positive leader-employee relationships in encouraging conscientious work behaviour.

8.5.4 Moderating role of autonomy/decision-making in the relationship between Interpersonal relationships and civic virtue

The study explored the moderating role of autonomy/decision-making in the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue. However, the findings reveal that autonomy does not moderate the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue. Thus, employees' civic virtue will remain relatively consistent, regardless of the level of autonomy/decision-making granted to them.

Some empirical studies corroborate these findings, indicating that the moderating effect of Autonomy/decision-making on the relationship between Interpersonal relationships and Civic virtue is not statistically significant. This aligns with the fact that strong positive interpersonal relationships are crucial for fostering civic virtue among employees, and variations in autonomy do not significantly alter this relationship (Yao & Chang, 2017).

While autonomy and decision-making may influence various aspects of employee behaviour and empowerment, it appears that the relationship between interpersonal relationships and civic virtue is not influenced by autonomy/decision-making. civic virtue is primarily driven by the quality of interpersonal relationships between leaders and employees, underscoring the significance of cultivating positive leader-employee relationships in promoting civic virtue within organisations.

8.5.5 Moderating role of meaningfulness in the relationship between vision and goals and altruism

This study investigated the role of meaningfulness in moderating the relationship between vision and goals and altruism. It suggests that the positive and significant effect of vision and goals on altruism becomes more pronounced when the meaningfulness of work is increased. This implies that when employees find their work meaningful, they are more likely to align themselves with the goals and vision set by leaders and engage in altruistic behaviours.

Evidently, meaningfulness plays a crucial role in amplifying the relationship between leadership's vision and goals and employees' altruistic actions (Rego et al., 2017). This supports the notion that leaders who effectively communicate their vision and goals can inspire altruistic behaviours among employees, especially when the work itself is perceived as meaningful.

8.5.6 Moderating role of competence in the relationship between vision and goal, and conscientiousness

The study sought to also investigate the moderating role of competence in the relationship between vision and goals and conscientiousness. This means that the positive and significant effect of vision and goals on conscientiousness is enhanced when competence is taken into consideration.

However, the findings indicate that competence does not play a role when evaluating the relationship between Vision and Goal and Conscientiousness.

The findings indicate that even when employees perceive their leader as highly competent, the impact of vision and goals set by leadership does not significantly contribute to increased conscientiousness. This suggests that competence alone is not enough to amplify the positive relationship between leadership's vision and goals and employees' conscientiousness behaviour. While some studies suggest that competence and competence-building activities can enhance conscientiousness and work-related dedication (Ibua, 2017), the findings in this study indicate that competence does not significantly moderate the influence of leadership's vision and goals on conscientiousness.

In academic work contexts, leaders may need to focus on other factors or strategies to promote conscientiousness among employees. Simply increasing employee competence may not be sufficient to increase the influence of leadership's vision and goals on conscientiousness. This underscores the complexity of the relationship between leadership and conscientiousness, indicating that multiple factors may be at play in different organisational settings.

8.6 MEDIATING ROLES OF EMPOWERMENT ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND OCB

The fourth objective of this study focuses on examining the moderating and mediating roles of employee empowerment in the relationship between leadership and OCB. The discussion under this main section focuses on achieving the mediating role of employee empowerment. Specifically, this section of the study discusses the mediating roles of all the employee empowerment constructs on the relationship between leadership and OCB constructs. Specifically, sections 8.6.1 to 8.6.3 are related to the fourth research objective.

8.6.1 Mediating role of autonomy/decision-making in the relationship between all leadership and all OCB constructs

Autonomy/decision-making partially mediates the relationship between all constructs of leadership and OCB. In the case of supervision and staff development, autonomy/decision-making partially mediates the relationship with civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and altruism. This means that while supervision and staff development have a direct effect on these OCB dimensions, part of this effect is also mediated by the autonomy/decision-making provided to employees.

In the case of vision and goals, autonomy/decision-making partially mediates the relationship between vision and goals and civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and altruism.

The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory can help explain these findings. According to the LMX theory, the quality of the relationship between a leader and a follower can influence the behaviours and attitudes of that follower. Autonomy/decision-making can be seen as an indicator of the quality of the relationship between a leader and a follower. When leaders empower their followers by providing them with autonomy and decision-making authority, they are likely to develop a higher-quality exchange relationship with those followers. This, in turn, can lead to increased OCB, as followers feel more valued and committed to the organisation (Mulligan et al., 2021).

The findings support the fact that autonomy/decision-making is a key factor in the relationship between leadership behaviours and OCB. By providing their followers with autonomy and decision-making authority, leaders can enhance the quality of their relationships with their followers and increase their followers' engagement in OCB. This finding is also supported by several studies that found that employee empowerment mediates the relationship between leadership and OCB (Sarwar et al., 2022; Sattar et al., 2020; Saira et al., 2020).

8.6.2 Mediating role of Meaningfulness in the relationship between all Leadership and OCB constructs

The findings in chapter seven suggest that meaningfulness partially mediates the relationship between some constructs of leadership (supervision and staff development, vision and goals, interpersonal relations) and some constructs of OCB (civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, altruism). In the case of supervision and staff development, meaningfulness partially mediates the relationship with civic virtue, sportsmanship, and conscientiousness. This means that while supervision and staff development have a direct effect on these OCB dimensions, part of this effect is also mediated by the perceived meaningfulness of the work.

On the other hand, in the case of vision and goals, meaningfulness fully mediates the relationship with sportsmanship and altruism. This means that the effect of vision and goals on these OCB dimensions is entirely explained by the perceived meaningfulness of the work. In addition, Meaningfulness fully mediates the relationship between supervision and staff development and sportsmanship as well as interpersonal relationship and sportsmanship. These findings suggest that the perceived meaningfulness of the work plays an important role in explaining how leadership behaviours influence OCB dimensions. When employees find their work meaningful, they are more likely to engage in behaviours that benefit the organisation. These findings are in support of the studies of Sarwar et al. (2022), Sattar et al. (2020) and Saira et al. (2020). Their studies found that psychological empowerment or employee empowerment mediates the relationship between leadership and OCB.

These findings can be further understood through the lens of the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory and social empowerment theory, which provide valuable frameworks for interpreting the mediating role of meaningfulness. The LMX theory emphasises the quality of the relationship between leaders and their subordinates, suggesting that high-quality exchanges foster trust, respect, and support, leading to positive employee outcomes such as Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs). The study's results align with this perspective, as leadership constructs like supervision, staff development, and vision likely enhance meaningfulness by signalling that leaders value and invest in their employees, thereby encouraging OCBs. Similarly, social empowerment theory underscores the importance of empowering work environments where

individuals perceive their roles as significant and impactful. The findings that meaningfulness mediates the relationship between leadership behaviours and OCB dimensions suggest that when leadership practices convey a clear vision and goals or foster strong interpersonal relations, employees feel empowered and find greater purpose in their work, which drives their discretionary efforts to benefit the organisation. These theoretical perspectives highlight the intricate mechanisms through which leadership influences OCBs, underscoring the role of perceived meaningfulness as a bridge between empowerment and employee engagement.

8.6.3 Mediating role of competence in the relationship between Leadership and OCB

The findings in Chapter Seven suggest that competence partially mediates the relationship between all constructs of leadership and OCB. This means that while leadership behaviours have a direct effect on these OCB dimensions, part of this effect is also mediated by the perceived competence of the employees.

In the case of supervision and staff development, competence partially mediates the relationship with civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and altruism. This means that while supervision and staff development have a direct effect OCB, part of this effect is also mediated by the perceived competence of the employees.

In the case of vision and goals, competence partially mediates the relationship with civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and altruism. This means that while vision and goals have a direct effect on these OCB dimensions, part of this effect is also mediated by the perceived competence of the employees.

These findings suggest that the competence of an employee plays an important role in explaining how leadership behaviours influence OCB dimensions. When employees feel competent in their work, they are more likely to engage in OCB (Mazzetti & Schaufeli, 2022).

The findings of this study are supported by studies of Sarwar et al. (2022), Sattar et al. (2020) and Saira et al. (2020). These studies found that psychological empowerment or employee empowerment mediates the relationship between leadership and OCB.

The role of competence in mediating the relationship between leadership behaviours and OCB can be further contextualized through the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory and social empowerment theory. The LMX theory posits that high-quality relationships between leaders and employees foster an environment of mutual trust and recognition, which enhances employees' perceptions of their own abilities and competence. When leadership behaviours, such as supervision, staff development, and the articulation of vision and goals, reinforce employees' skills and capabilities, they contribute to a sense of competence that motivates employees to engage in OCBs. Social empowerment theory complements this perspective by emphasizing the psychological empowerment employees feel when they perceive themselves as competent and capable within their roles. This sense of empowerment not only boosts intrinsic motivation but also drives employees to go beyond their formal job requirements, aligning with the observed mediation of competence in the study. Thus, leadership behaviours that affirm employee competence play a dual role: directly fostering OCB and indirectly enhancing it through empowerment-related constructs, as supported by the findings of Sarwar et al. (2022), Sattar et al. (2020), and Saira et al. (2020).

8.7 VARIATIONS IN LEADERSHIP, EMPOWERMENT, AND OCB ACROSS DEMOGRAPHIC AND JOB-RELATED FACTORS

Research objective 5 of the study was to determine the extent to which individuals from different demographic groups differed regarding the variables of leadership, empowerment and OCB. The demographics under consideration included gender, age, educational level and job level. In terms of gender, despite differences in the mean values observed for males and females, there was no statistically significant difference in the views of males and females on the dimensions of leadership, empowerment, and OCB.

The lack of statistically significant differences in the perceptions of leadership, empowerment, and OCB between males and females suggests that gender may not be a determining factor in shaping these workplace dynamics within public universities in Ghana. This indicates that leadership and empowerment strategies designed to promote OCB are likely to be equally effective for both male

and female employees. The findings imply that gender-neutral leadership approaches could foster inclusivity and equity in these institutions. By eliminating the need for gender-specific interventions, this insight simplifies the design of human resource policies and strategies aimed at improving workplace performance and engagement. Furthermore, the findings align with Clarke (2016), who found no significant gender differences in OCB performance, reinforcing the idea that employees' willingness to go beyond their formal job descriptions is not inherently linked to their gender.

However, these results also highlight the importance of acknowledging contextual nuances that may emerge in other studies. For instance, Chaluvadi (2015) observed contextual differences in leadership styles between genders but noted that these differences did not significantly impact leadership perceptions. While this aligns with the current findings, it suggests that organisational culture or external social norms may moderate the relationship between gender and leadership perceptions. On the contrary, Alan et al. (2020) found that gender differences in leadership willingness emerge during adolescence, which may suggest that while these differences are present in earlier stages of life, they diminish or become less relevant in professional settings such as public universities. This contrast underscores the need for further research to explore how developmental and societal factors interact with workplace dynamics to shape leadership perceptions across genders.

The practical implications of these findings are significant for public universities in Ghana. Leaders can focus on developing inclusive practices and policies that promote empowerment and OCB without needing to differentiate by gender. This equality-oriented approach can enhance workplace cohesion and reduce the likelihood of gender biases in leadership development programs. Additionally, organisations should ensure that male and female employees have equal opportunities to participate in leadership training and empowerment initiatives, as this could further reinforce a culture of equality and inclusivity. At the same time, it is essential to remain vigilant to any underlying or subtle biases that may not have been captured in the study but could still affect workplace dynamics. By focusing on universal strategies to strengthen empowerment and OCB, public universities can create a supportive environment that benefits all employees, regardless of gender.

Across the various age groups, there were differences in the mean values recorded across the dimensions of leadership, empowerment and OCB. There were significant differences between the various age groups with regards to supervision and staff development, interpersonal relationships, and vision and goal orientation. The findings indicate that respondents aged 32–35 years were less likely to perceive leadership as a critical factor in empowering them or promoting OCB in public universities in Ghana. This contrasts with the perspectives of respondents below 32 years and those above 35 years, who were more likely to view leadership as essential in fostering empowerment and OCB. One possible explanation for this difference is that individuals in the 32–35 age range may experience a career plateau or have higher expectations of leadership, leading to a diminished perception of its importance. This aligns with the findings of Gyekye et al. (2015), which suggest that mid-career employees often have unique challenges that influence their engagement levels. However, it contrasts with research by O'Driscoll and Roche (2017), which found older employees to be less influenced by leadership in shaping their workplace behaviours. The implication is that leadership strategies should be tailored to address the specific motivational and developmental needs of mid-career employees, as their perceptions and engagement with leadership can differ significantly from those at other career stages. Providing targeted interventions, such as career development opportunities or mentoring programs, could help bridge this gap and align their perceptions with the broader organisational goals.

Furthermore, there were no statistically significant differences in the views of the various age groups on the various dimensions of employee empowerment and OCB. The finding that there were no statistically significant differences in the views of various age groups on the dimensions of employee empowerment and OCB suggests that these factors are perceived similarly across different age groups. This implies that age does not play a significant role in shaping employees' perceptions of empowerment and OCB within the organisation. This finding aligns with the study by Gyekye et al. (2015), which found no significant age-related differences in OCB. However, it contrasts with research by O'Driscoll and Roche (2017), which indicated that older workers are more likely to engage in positive work behaviours. These mixed results highlight the complexity of age-related dynamics in organisational settings and suggest that other variables may mediate these relationships.

Respondents with different educational levels shared varying views on leadership, employee empowerment, and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) according to the mean scores. There were no significant differences between respondents from different educational level groups regarding leadership. However, significant differences were recorded between educational levels and employee empowerment. In public universities in Ghana, individuals who had reached at least the undergraduate level were more inclined to recognize the value and significance of their work. Additionally, autonomy and decision-making were more likely to be appreciated by respondents with postgraduate education compared to those with graduate, undergraduate, and SSS/SHS/VOC/TECH educational levels. The results also showed that respondents with postgraduate education valued competence as a critical factor of empowerment. This finding aligns with the study by Giorgidze (2017), which found a correlation between educational level and perceptions of empowerment in higher education institutions. Similarly, Rana and Singh (2016) noted significant differences in empowerment based on educational qualifications in the IT industry.

Regarding empowerment, the results suggested that postgraduates were more likely to consider themselves empowered. Feelings of empowerment were important to organisational success, because empowered staff were more likely to value their institutions, and mostly likely increase their levels of commitment and performance within their institutions (Saleem et al., 2019). Thus, it was important for leadership of the public universities to identify ways to improve feelings of empowerment among the employees with lower educational levels.

The study's finding that civic virtue was the only dimension of OCB exhibiting significant differences across educational levels provides critical insights into how educational attainment shapes organisational behaviour. Specifically, respondents with postgraduate qualifications demonstrated a higher likelihood of engaging in civic virtue behaviours, reflecting their broader organisational perspective and commitment to institutional well-being (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). This suggests that higher educational attainment may enhance an individual's ability to recognize and act upon their roles as proactive organisational citizens. These findings align with previous research emphasizing the positive association between education and advanced

organisational behaviour, such as civic engagement and participatory leadership (Khan et al., 2019). This implies a need for public universities to promote educational advancement opportunities as a means of fostering greater OCB, particularly civic virtue, among employees.

Conversely, the absence of significant differences in perceptions of leadership's role across educational levels indicates that leadership effectiveness in empowering employees and promoting OCB transcends educational qualifications. This uniformity underscores the universality of effective leadership principles, emphasizing the need for inclusive leadership training programs that address the needs and expectations of employees at all qualification levels (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Institutions can use these insights to develop leadership models that prioritize empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviours universally, reinforcing the broader applicability of leadership initiatives regardless of employees' educational backgrounds. Such initiatives can foster a collaborative culture that benefits the entire organisational structure.

Differences in mean values were observed between different job levels of respondents and their views on leadership, employee empowerment, and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The findings reveal significant differences between job levels and the dimensions of empowerment, including meaningfulness, autonomy/decision-making, and competence. Senior administrative staff members were notably the most likely to perceive these dimensions as essential to employee empowerment. This suggests that employees in higher-ranking positions may have a greater appreciation for opportunities to make decisions, find purpose in their roles, and leverage their skills to contribute meaningfully to organisational goals. These results align with Shahab et al. (2019), who found that employees in senior roles often experience higher levels of psychological empowerment due to their access to more responsibilities and decision-making authority. Conversely, employees in lower-level roles may not experience the same level of empowerment, potentially due to limited autonomy and perceived lack of influence over organisational outcomes (Li et al., 2017). The implication of this finding is that leadership in public universities should consider tailored strategies to foster a sense of empowerment across all job levels. This could include providing junior and mid-level staff with opportunities to participate in decision-making processes, aligning tasks with their professional skills, and creating pathways for

career development. Doing so could help bridge the empowerment gap between job levels, ultimately enhancing organisational performance and employee satisfaction.

The findings also revealed significant differences between job levels and OCB, with senior administrative staff members being the most likely to exhibit altruism, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue compared to respondents at other job levels. This suggests that employees in senior administrative roles may feel a stronger sense of responsibility and commitment to their institutions, potentially due to their greater influence, job stability, or alignment with organisational goals. These findings are supported by Shahab et al. (2019), who noted that senior employees often display higher levels of OCB due to increased organisational trust and psychological empowerment. Conversely, employees in junior roles may have fewer opportunities or incentives to exhibit discretionary behaviours, as noted by Podsakoff et al. (2018). Interestingly, no significant differences were found between job levels and leadership perceptions, implying that leadership is valued consistently across all levels, regardless of position.

The implication of this finding is that leadership and human resource strategies in public universities should focus on encouraging OCB among all job levels by fostering a supportive work environment. Providing equal opportunities for professional development, recognizing and rewarding OCB at every level, and promoting inclusive decision-making processes could bridge the gap in OCB engagement between job levels. Moreover, aligning job roles with employees' intrinsic motivations and ensuring that all staff feel valued could encourage discretionary behaviours across the board, ultimately benefiting institutional performance and collaboration.

However, the lack of significant differences in leadership perceptions across job levels in this study contrasts with the findings of Newman et al. (2017), who observed that leadership styles tend to vary significantly across different organisational levels. This divergence suggests that, within the context of public universities in Ghana, leadership practices may be perceived as consistent across job levels, potentially due to standardized leadership approaches or uniform organisational policies. On the other hand, Newman et al.'s findings highlight the possibility that leadership perceptions might vary in organisations with more decentralized structures or distinct leadership expectations for different hierarchical levels. The implication is that while public universities may

benefit from consistent leadership practices that promote equity, there may be missed opportunities to tailor leadership styles to better address the unique needs of employees at various job levels, as suggested by Newman et al. (2017). This calls for further exploration of the factors contributing to this uniformity and whether a more differentiated leadership approach could enhance employee engagement and performance across job levels.

8.8 LEADERSHIP COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK

The proposed Leadership Competency Framework integrates insights from empirical findings, theoretical foundations, and existing literature to provide a holistic approach to leadership development, employee empowerment, and the promotion of OCB. This framework builds upon the study's core constructs—Leadership, Employee Empowerment, and OCB—to articulate a practical, competency-based strategy for fostering effective leadership and positive organisational outcomes in public universities in Ghana.

Leadership Development and Competencies

The framework emphasises the importance of visionary leadership, where leaders are encouraged to articulate and communicate compelling visions and goals. Competencies such as resilience, knowledge management, stakeholder engagement, training methodologies, ethical leadership, collaboration and team-building, and emotional intelligence are identified as critical for leaders to inspire and guide their teams effectively. For example, resilience equips leaders to navigate challenges and uncertainties in higher education, while knowledge management supports informed decision-making and strategic planning. Similarly, ethical leadership builds credibility and trust, fostering a work environment conducive to employee motivation and commitment. These competencies align with the findings of Niewiesk and Carrity-Rokous (2021), who grouped leadership competencies into themes of context, content, process, and communication, and Ruben et al. (2017b), who highlighted the criticality of personal, organisational, and communication skills.

Empowerment Initiatives and Competencies

Employee empowerment is significantly enhanced by competencies such as mentorship and development opportunities, which are crucial for nurturing talent, fostering growth, and promoting a learning culture within the organisation. Skill development initiatives ensure that employees possess the necessary capabilities to excel in their roles and contribute effectively to organisational objectives. Positive interpersonal relations, visionary and transformational leadership, and effective communication further empower employees by providing them with autonomy, decision-making authority, and a sense of ownership in their work. This aligns with the findings of Spreitzer (1995), who emphasised the importance of psychological empowerment in enhancing employee performance and satisfaction. Additionally, studies by Avolio and Bass (2004) highlight the role of transformational leadership in fostering an empowering work environment.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) and Competencies

The framework also incorporates strategies to recognize and reward OCB, Competencies related to building a friendly and inclusive work environment, effective supervision and staff development, fostering meaningfulness and purpose, and promoting trust, open communication, and mutual respect are essential for encouraging OCB dimensions such as altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship. For instance, meaningful work tasks and an inclusive environment motivate employees to engage in discretionary behaviours that benefit the organisation. These competencies are supported by Tran and Choi (2019) and Peters et al. (2024), who underscore the role of supportive cultures in driving positive employee behaviours.

Implementation Considerations

The proposed framework is grounded in the results of the SEM and mediation analyses conducted in the study, which demonstrate the interrelationships between leadership behaviours, employee empowerment, and OCB. This evidence-based foundation ensures the framework's relevance and applicability. It is also informed by established leadership competency models that classify competencies into analytic, personal, communication, organisational, and positional categories (Ruben et al., 2017b), emphasizing the comprehensive scope of the framework.

By focusing on leadership development, empowerment initiatives, and OCB promotion, the framework provides a strategic blueprint for public universities in Ghana to enhance leadership effectiveness, foster employee empowerment, and cultivate a collaborative and productive work environment.

Based on the competencies required of leaders, Figure 8.1 provides a graphical representation of a leadership competency framework.

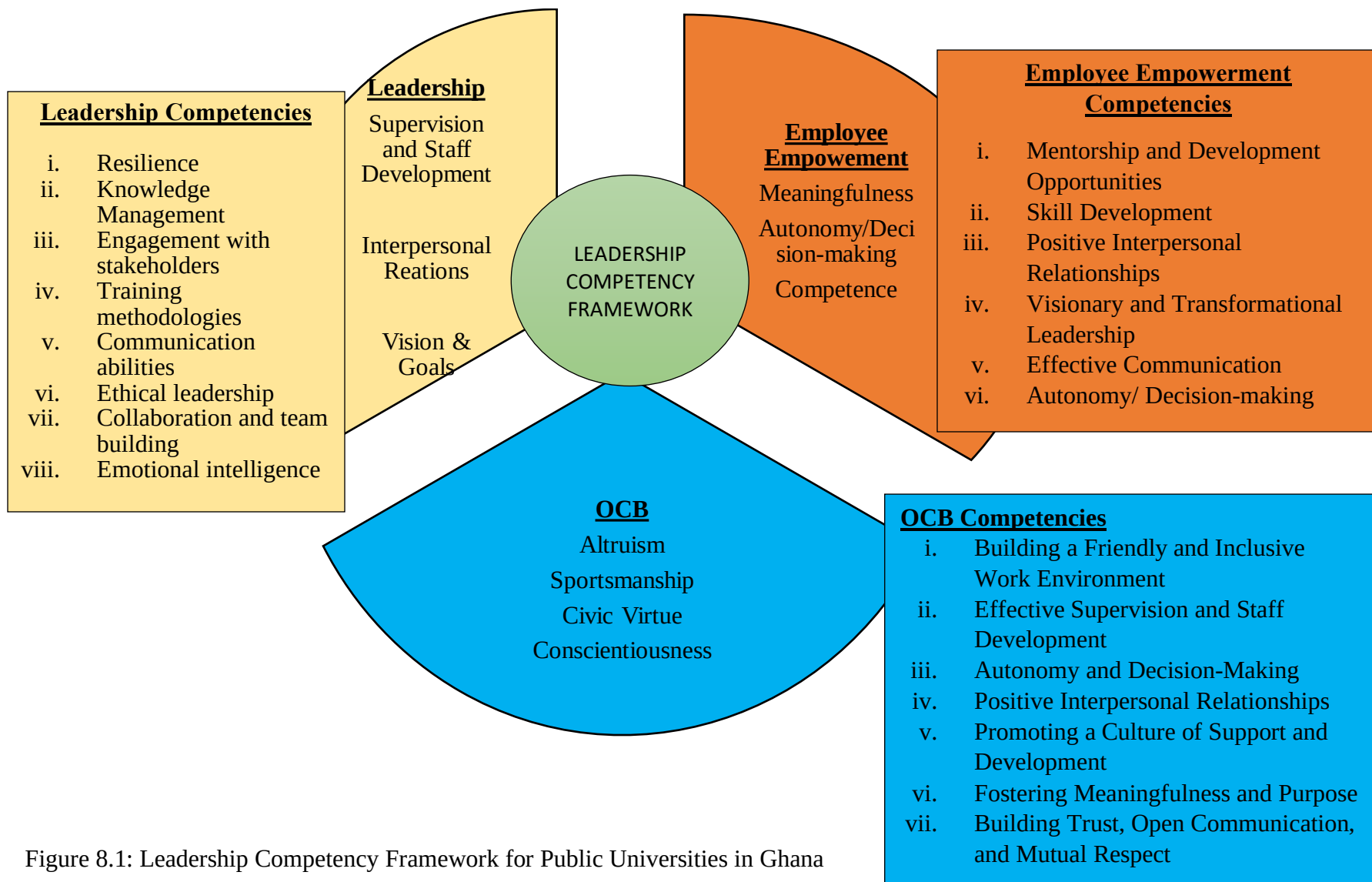


Figure 8.1: Leadership Competency Framework for Public Universities in Ghana

8.9 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

This section of the thesis presents the theoretical, methodological and practical contribution of the study. The theoretical contributions would be discussed first, and this would be followed by the methodological contribution. Finally, the practical implications would be discussed last.

8.9.1. Theoretical contribution

This study makes significant theoretical contributions by integrating the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory and the Social Empowerment Theory to examine the interplay between leadership, empowerment, and OCB. It bridges gaps in the existing literature by presenting a comprehensive framework that demonstrates how leadership styles and empowerment dimensions collectively influence employees' voluntary, citizenship-like behaviours. Through the lens of the LMX theory, the study highlights the importance of high-quality leader-member relationships in fostering empowerment, as these relationships provide employees with trust, respect, and support, which are critical for enabling OCB. Simultaneously, using Social Empowerment Theory, the research underscores how meaningfulness, autonomy, and competence—the core dimensions of empowerment—enhance employees' sense of agency and intrinsic motivation to engage in discretionary behaviours that benefit the organisation. By linking these theories, the study offers an integrated model that advances theoretical understanding, illustrating the dynamic interdependencies between leadership practices, empowerment mechanisms, and OCB. This cohesive perspective provides a foundation for further exploration of how organisational environments can strategically foster empowerment and encourage OCB through leadership.

By focusing on public universities in Ghana, this study provides valuable contextual insights into the application of leadership and OCB theories within a centralized and bureaucratic governance system. The findings highlight the unique challenges posed by hierarchical authority structures, which often constrain participatory leadership practices and limit avenues for employee engagement and empowerment. For instance, the rigidity of bureaucratic systems can hinder leaders' ability to foster high-quality, individualized relationships with employees, as emphasised in Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory, thereby affecting the development of trust, respect, and support necessary for promoting OCB.

Additionally, the study sheds light on how dimensions of empowerment, such as autonomy and decision-making, are shaped by the organisational context, aligning with Social Empowerment Theory. In a system where decision-making is centralized, opportunities for employees to experience meaningfulness and competence in their roles may be limited, which in turn influences their propensity to exhibit OCB. These findings provide a nuanced understanding of the interplay between leadership and OCB in academic institutions, particularly in a non-Western setting where cultural, institutional, and systemic factors differ significantly from those in Western-centric studies. By addressing this gap, the study enriches the global discourse on leadership and OCB, challenging the universality of existing theories and advocating for their contextual adaptation. It underscores the need for more research in similar settings to develop frameworks that are not only theoretically robust but also practically relevant to diverse organisational and cultural contexts. This contribution expands the applicability of leadership and OCB theories, offering a foundation for rethinking leadership strategies in higher education systems worldwide.

This study makes a significant theoretical contribution by empirically validating the dual role of empowerment as both a mediator and a moderator in the relationship between leadership and OCB. By exploring these dual roles, the research provides a nuanced understanding of how empowerment operates within organisational contexts. As a mediator, empowerment explains the pathway through which leadership influences OCB, highlighting that leadership styles contribute to fostering meaningfulness, autonomy, and competence among employees, which in turn drive their engagement in discretionary, citizenship-like behaviours. This mediating role aligns with Social Empowerment Theory, which emphasises the importance of psychological empowerment in motivating employees to go beyond formal job requirements to benefit their organisation.

As a moderator, empowerment influences the strength of the relationship between leadership and OCB, revealing that leadership's impact on OCB varies depending on the level of employee empowerment. For instance, leaders who foster high levels of empowerment create an environment where employees feel trusted and capable, amplifying the effects of leadership on OCB. This moderating role also connects with Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory, which

highlights the importance of individualized and high-quality leader-member relationships in empowering employees and encouraging voluntary contributions.

By empirically validating these dual roles, the study deepens the theoretical conceptualization of empowerment in organisational settings, illustrating its dynamic and multifaceted influence on the interplay between leadership and OCB. This expanded perspective not only contributes to the theoretical discourse on empowerment but also provides actionable insights for practitioners seeking to enhance employee engagement and performance through strategic leadership and empowerment practices.

This study makes a substantial contribution to the literature by adopting a multidimensional approach to examine and validate the constructs of leadership, empowerment, and OCB. By breaking these concepts into distinct, measurable sub-dimensions—such as leadership vision, meaningfulness within empowerment, and altruism in OCB—the research offers a granular understanding of how these constructs operate in organisational settings. This approach moves beyond traditional, monolithic frameworks and underscores the importance of examining these constructs in their full complexity.

The study specifically validates these dimensions within the unique context of Ghanaian public universities, where centralized and hierarchical governance systems present distinct challenges to leadership and employee engagement. The findings provide empirical support for the applicability of leadership vision in inspiring employees, meaningfulness as a central element of empowerment, and altruism as a critical dimension of OCB. By doing so, the study aligns with Social Empowerment Theory, which emphasises that psychological empowerment stems from meaningful and fulfilling work experiences, as well as Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory, which highlights the role of leadership vision in fostering strong, trust-based relationships that encourage discretionary, citizenship-like behaviours.

These validated dimensions also pave the way for improved operationalization and measurement in future research. For instance, the construct of meaningfulness can serve as a robust metric for assessing empowerment initiatives across diverse cultural and organisational settings, while

leadership vision can be further explored as a driver of employee motivation and OCB. Additionally, the validation of altruism within the Ghanaian higher education context enriches the global discourse on OCB by highlighting cultural and contextual nuances, offering a template for comparative studies in other regions. By integrating a multidimensional perspective, the study not only advances theoretical discussions but also equips scholars and practitioners with more precise tools for assessing and enhancing leadership, empowerment, and OCB.

8.9.2 Methodological contribution

Firstly, this study makes a significant methodological contribution by employing a robust quantitative design to examine the intricate relationships among leadership, empowerment, and OCB. By integrating advanced statistical techniques, such as Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), the research provides a nuanced understanding of how these constructs interact dynamically within organisational settings. SEM allows for simultaneous testing of multiple relationships and pathways, offering a comprehensive view of both direct and indirect effects, including mediation and moderation. This methodological rigor strengthens the validity and reliability of the study's findings and demonstrates the value of SEM in uncovering complex interdependencies in organisational research.

The study also innovatively incorporates contextual variables specific to the Ghanaian public university setting, bridging quantitative methods with contextual insights. The integration of statistical analysis with contextualized interpretations allows for a deeper understanding of how leadership styles and empowerment mechanisms influence OCB behaviours within a centralized, bureaucratic governance structure. This approach highlights the importance of considering cultural and institutional factors when applying quantitative techniques, ensuring that findings are not only statistically robust but also contextually relevant.

Furthermore, the validation of SEM in this study underscores its applicability in testing advanced hypotheses, such as the dual role of empowerment as both a mediator and moderator. This methodological contribution enriches the field of organisational studies by demonstrating how quantitative tools can be adapted to address complex theoretical models across diverse settings. It also provides a template for future research to incorporate sophisticated analytical techniques

while maintaining sensitivity to the unique characteristics of the study environment. By combining methodological precision with contextual depth, the research sets a benchmark for how quantitative and contextual analytical techniques can be harmonized to advance theoretical and practical understanding of organisational dynamics.

Moreover, the study makes a notable methodological contribution by effectively operationalizing complex, multi-dimensional constructs such as leadership, empowerment, and OCB. Through the adoption and adaptation of established scales, the research ensures both theoretical rigor and practical relevance in its measurements. Key constructs, including the dimensions of empowerment—meaningfulness, competence, autonomy (decision-making)—are empirically validated within the unique organisational and cultural context of Ghanaian public universities. Similarly, the study examines the components of OCB—altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship—demonstrating how these behaviours manifest in a centralized and bureaucratic academic environment.

This approach highlights the importance of refining global scales to align with local contexts, addressing the potential limitations of applying universally designed instruments in culturally distinct settings. By empirically testing these constructs, the study not only establishes their relevance but also enhances their adaptability to environments characterized by hierarchical structures and cultural nuances. For instance, the dimension of meaningfulness in empowerment is contextualized within academic institutions where intrinsic motivation is shaped by leadership practices and institutional frameworks. Similarly, civic virtue and sportsmanship are examined considering the participatory opportunities and constraints inherent in bureaucratic governance systems.

The adaptation and validation of these constructs provide a valuable reference point for future research in comparable settings. They offer guidance on how multi-dimensional constructs can be effectively operationalized to reflect local realities without compromising their theoretical foundations. This methodological contribution ensures that the findings are both generalizable to similar non-Western contexts and applicable to a global understanding of leadership,

empowerment, and OCB. By bridging theoretical scales with practical relevance, the study lays a foundation for nuanced and contextually informed organisational research.

8.9.2 Practical Implication

The findings of this study have significant implications for leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB in the context of public universities in Ghana. A key contribution is the development of a Leadership Competency Framework, which provides a structured approach for enhancing leadership practices in the educational sector. This framework can serve as a practical tool for identifying, cultivating, and assessing leadership skills tailored to the unique challenges and opportunities within public universities.

Moreover, the study emphasises the importance of leadership strategies that foster employee empowerment and encourage OCB. By integrating these findings into institutional policies and professional development programs, universities can create a more inclusive and participatory environment. This, in turn, can enhance employee engagement, productivity, and overall institutional performance.

These practical insights are especially relevant for the centralized and bureaucratic governance structures typical of Ghanaian public universities. Implementing the Leadership Competency Framework, alongside targeted interventions informed by the study's findings, has the potential to address existing gaps in leadership effectiveness and promote a culture of collaboration and innovation within the academic environment.

The findings on gender, age, educational levels, and job levels highlight the necessity for adaptive and inclusive leadership approaches in public universities. Leaders must recognize and tailor their leadership styles to address the unique needs, expectations, and perceptions of various demographic groups. For instance, younger employees and those with postgraduate education tend to place higher value on empowerment dimensions such as meaningfulness, autonomy, and competence. In contrast, mid-career employees and individuals with lower educational qualifications may require targeted initiatives to enhance their sense of empowerment and engagement.

The study underscores the importance of recognizing and supporting OCB across all job levels within public universities. Acknowledging and rewarding OCB as a core component of human resource management strategies can enhance workplace collaboration, employee engagement, and overall performance. To achieve this, institutions should create an enabling environment that fosters voluntary participation in OCB, as such behaviours are not formally mandated or enforceable. Leaders can play a pivotal role by cultivating a culture of appreciation, where altruism, civic virtue, and other OCB dimensions are explicitly valued and rewarded.

Furthermore, the findings suggest that demographic diversity should be integrated into leadership development programmes and organisational policies. Tailored training initiatives for leaders could focus on equipping them with the skills to navigate demographic nuances effectively, such as addressing the varying perceptions of leadership and empowerment among different age and educational groups. By promoting inclusive leadership practices, public universities can not only enhance individual employee contributions but also build a more cohesive and dynamic organisational culture.

Creating inductive work environments is essential to encouraging employees to engage in OCB voluntarily. This can include fostering open communication, offering opportunities for professional development, and ensuring equitable recognition of contributions across all job levels. Such environments not only motivate employees to go beyond their formal job descriptions but also align their efforts with the strategic goals of the organisation. In doing so, public universities can maximize the potential of their diverse workforce and drive sustainable organisational success.

8.10 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Studies are designed to ensure the validity and reliability of the results. This section focuses on the limitations of the study and measures that were implemented to eliminate the influence of limitations on the results.

Selection of Public Universities: The selection of the four public universities was made using convenience sampling. Thus, all the public universities in Ghana were not given an equal chance of being included in the study. This has implications for the study results as the selected four universities may not be a probability representation of all public universities. To reduce the implication of this on study results, the subsequent selection of study participants in the four public universities was rigorously done using probability sampling approaches.

Study population and sample: The university staff population is very dynamic. Therefore, the number of staff at the time of sample size determination may have changed (most likely increased) before the completion of the study. For instance, one of the public universities was relatively new and was still in the process of expanding and recruiting staff. Thus, the sample size may not be a true representation of the current and evolving staff population of public universities. However, the results of the study are generalisable as rigorous statistical approaches were used in determining sample size with a 10% increased sample size to take care of anticipated changes in population and a possible low response rate.

Data collection: Gatekeepers were used in data collection in each of the four public universities. The random selection of respondents might not have been rigorously followed by all gatekeepers and this may affect the results of the study. To reduce the effect of this on the study, the gatekeepers were trained on the participant's selection process, and statistical approaches such as Cronbach alpha were computed on data obtained to ensure reliability and validity before data was used for inferential analysis.

To ensure the privacy and confidentiality of the study participants, questionnaires were self-administered. The possibility of respondents interpreting questions differently may lead to answers that skewed the data. To reduce the effect of this on study results, the data obtained was rigorously cleaned removing all incomplete responses and responses that are illogical from the dataset, in addition to the use of tests to test for reliability and validity of the data.

Lastly, the population consisted exclusively of university staff as such the results may not be generalised to employees working in other non-academic organisations. However, certain aspects

of the study results may be adapted by any organisation that wishes to improve its leadership and employee empowerment to influence OCB for organisational growth.

8.11 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

While this study provides valuable insights into the relationship between leadership, employee empowerment, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) in public universities in Ghana, the limitations identified suggest opportunities for future research. Addressing these limitations can deepen the understanding of the studied phenomena and broaden the applicability of the findings.

Firstly, future studies could address the limitation of convenience sampling by employing probability sampling to include a larger and more representative sample of public universities in Ghana. Expanding the scope to encompass all public universities, and possibly private universities, would provide a broader perspective and enhance the generalizability of the findings. Comparative studies across different types of universities may also reveal unique patterns and insights relevant to varying institutional contexts.

Moreover, given the dynamic nature of university staff populations, future research could employ a longitudinal design to track changes over time. This approach would provide a more accurate representation of staff dynamics, particularly in newly established or rapidly expanding institutions. Longitudinal studies would also allow for the examination of how leadership practices and empowerment initiatives influence OCB over extended periods, providing richer insights into causality and long-term impacts.

Again, the study's focus on university staff limits its generalizability to non-academic organisations. Future studies could replicate the research in other organisational settings, such as corporate, governmental, or non-profit sectors, to explore the universality of the leadership, empowerment, and OCB relationships. Comparative research between academic and non-academic organisations would further elucidate the contextual factors that influence these constructs.

Moreover, to address potential biases introduced by gatekeepers and the self-administration of questionnaires, future research could employ alternative data collection methods, such as interviews, focus groups, or mixed-method approaches. These methods would allow researchers to capture a more nuanced understanding of participants' perceptions and reduce the risk of misinterpretation of questionnaire items.

Furthermore, while this study focused on meaningfulness and competence as mediators, future research could investigate other potential mediating and moderating variables, such as psychological safety, job satisfaction, or organisational culture. Exploring these variables could provide a more comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms through which leadership and empowerment influence OCB.

Finally, future studies could also build upon the leadership competency framework proposed in this study by exploring practical implementation strategies. This could include examining resource requirements, timelines, potential challenges, and solutions. A deeper exploration of implementation formalities would enhance the strategic applicability of the framework in diverse organisational settings.

8.12 CONCLUSION

This study delved into the critical dimensions of leadership, employee empowerment, and OCB within the context of Ghanaian public universities. The insights drawn from this research shed light on the pivotal role of visionary leadership in these institutions. Leaders who effectively communicate a compelling vision and goals create a sense of purpose and motivation among employees, ultimately enhancing job satisfaction and motivation.

Moreover, the study emphasises the significance of employee empowerment in driving behaviours that go beyond routine job tasks. Autonomy/decision-making, enhanced competence, and meaningful work are key factors in empowering employees, leading to heightened commitment and performance. For public universities, providing training and development programs that

address educational disparities and empower staff at all levels is essential to motivate the workforce and boost commitment to the institution. Empowering employees, irrespective of their educational background, is pivotal to a motivated and dedicated workforce. Furthermore, this research highlighted the gender-neutral perspective in the perception of leadership, empowerment, and OCB among employees in Ghanaian public universities. It implies that leadership, empowerment, and OCB initiatives should be designed and executed without any gender bias, ensuring equal opportunities for both male and female employees. To thrive in today's dynamic educational landscape, institutions should consider adapting leadership styles to address age-related expectations and recognise OCB across all job levels. By doing so, institutions can create an environment that fosters empowered, engaged, and visionary employees, propelling them toward excellence and success.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



UNISA HRM ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 12 January 2022

Dear Mrs Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane

**Decision: Ethics approval from
January 2022 to January 2027**

NHREC Registration #: (if applicable)

ERC Reference #: 2021_HRM_008

Name: Mrs Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane

Student #: 58528784

Researcher(s): Name: Mrs Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane
E-mail address, telephone # 58528784@mylife.unisa.ac.za,
+233 207631553

Supervisor(s): Name: Prof Mariette Coetzee
E-mail address, telephone # coetzm@unisa.ac.za,
012 429 3008

Co-supervisor(s): N/A

Working title of research:

A leadership competency framework for the empowerment of employees and the enhancement of organisational citizenship behaviour in public universities in Ghana

Qualification: PhD (Human Resource Management)

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa HRM Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for N.A.K Dsane for a period of **five (5) years**.

*The **low risk application** was **reviewed** by a Sub-committee of URERC on 21 October 2021 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The ethics application was approved on 12 January 2022.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

- 1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached.**



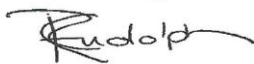
University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

2. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
3. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the HRM Committee.
4. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
5. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
6. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
7. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance
8. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **January 2027**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

*The reference number **2021_HRM_008** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,



Signature

Chair of DREC: Dr EC Rudolph

E-mail: rudolec@unisa.ac.za

Tel: (012) 429 2586



Signature

Executive Dean: Prof MT Mogale

E-mail: mogalmt@unisa.ac.za

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APPENDIX B1: QUESTIONNAIRE

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY:

“A leadership competency framework for the empowerment of employees and the enhancement of organisational citizenship behaviour in public universities in Ghana”.

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane, a PhD student from the Department of Human Resource Management, University of South Africa. I would be most grateful if you could spare some time from your busy schedule to complete this survey. The survey takes a maximum of 30 minutes and as a purely academic exercise, your identity will be anonymized, and findings shared with relevant stakeholders.

The study aims to help improve human resource management systems at universities in Ghana. I realise that completing a survey requires sacrificing time and humbly ask for your assistance in helping me complete the study successfully. I am of the firm belief that your experiences in the university system will provide valuable input to the study.

Thank you in advance for availing your valuable time and support. I really appreciate.

Yours sincerely,

Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane

INFORMATION SHEET

Dear Prospective Participant,

You are invited to participate in a research study, entitled **“A leadership competency framework for the empowerment of employees and the enhancement of organisational citizenship behaviour in Public Universities in Ghana”**.

The study is being conducted by Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane under supervision of *Professor Mariette Coetzee* (both from the University of South Africa - UNISA). Your participation in this study is voluntary and you are free, at any point in the process, to withdraw from the study without offering any explanation.

Aim of the study

The study aims to (1) investigate the relationship between the constructs of leadership, empowerment and OCB, (2) determine whether employees differ significantly regarding leadership, empowerment and OCB attributes in terms of their age, gender, job level and educational level and (3) develop a leadership competency framework to empower employees and enhance organisational citizenship behaviour.

Participation

Kindly note that names and employee numbers will not be requested, and all information derived herein will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Completion of the survey

The questionnaire consists of the following five parts: Demographic Information of respondents, Work related questions, Leadership Skills and Style of Supervisor, empowerment and organisational citizenship behaviour. We have tried to keep the questions simple and easy to answer. As such, the estimated time to complete this questionnaire is approximately 20-30 minutes.

Procedure

You are required to complete the questionnaire and informed consent form electronically online and submit it to the researcher.

Confidentiality, privacy and anonymity

The information provided and the results of the study will be completely confidential. The study is for research purposes only and the results may be published in an accredited academic journal. General research findings will be reported and no individual results.

Retention of records

Electronic information will be encrypted and saved on a Universal Serial Bus (USB) flash drive as well as an external hard drive. This will be kept for period of five years as per the data retention policy of UNISA before it is destroyed.

Remuneration for participating in the study

No incentives or payment will be offered directly or indirectly for participating in this study.

Ethical approval of study

The study received written approval from the University of South Africa and can be provided upon request.

Disclosure of results

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, you are welcome to contact the researcher, Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane on +233 243376304, email 58528784@mylifeunisa.ac.za. You may contact the researcher if you require any further information. If you have any concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact *Professor Mariette Coetzee* at 012 429 4488 or Coetzm@unisa.ac.za.

Willingness to participate and benefits.

Kindly indicate your willingness to participate by clicking “Yes” after reading the Informed Consent statement. By clicking ‘Yes’, you acknowledge that you understand the contents of the Informed Consent statement and the nature of the study and agree to take part in the study.

May I thank you in advance for assisting me to conduct this study. I realise that your time is also valuable and appreciate the sacrifice you are making in completing the questionnaire.

Yours Sincerely

Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I have read the information sheet for this study and fully understand the purpose of the study which is being conducted by Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane.

I clearly understand that:

- participation is voluntary, confidential and anonymous;
- the information gathered from the completed questionnaires will be used for research purposes only;
- the information concerning me will be treated as confidential, and will not be made publicly available; and
- individual feedback will not be provided to participants.

I accept to participate in this study and will voluntarily provide accurate information for the purposes of the study.

Please indicate your willingness to participate in this study by ticking **Yes/No**

☐ **YES**

☐ **NO**

Section A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender

CODE	CATEGORY DESCRIPTION	TICK
1	Male	
2	Female	

2. Age (in years)

CODE	CATEGORY DESCRIPTION	TICK
1	Between 18 – 25 years	
2	26 – 30 years	
3	32 – 35 years	
4	36 – 40 years	
5	41 – 45 years	
6	46 – 50 years	
7	51 – 55 years	
8	56 – 60 years	

3. Educational level

CODE	CATEGORY DESCRIPTION	TICK
1	SSS/SHS/Vocational/Technical level of education	
2	Undergraduate Level of education	
3	Graduate level of Education	
4	Postgraduate level of Education	
5	Other (Specify)	

4. Job level

CODE	CATEGORY DESCRIPTION	TICK
1	Junior staff	
2	Senior staff	
3	Senior member (Academic)	
4	Senior member (Administrative)	

5	Other (Specify)	

SECTION B: LEADERSHIP

Rate your immediate supervisor's behaviour on the statements below.

	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
S/N	My immediate supervisor ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	goes out of the way to make others feel good to be around him/her						
2.	helps others with their self-development						
3.	does not impose his/her own ideas onto employees						
4.	helps others to understand his/her visions through the use of tools, such as images, stories, and models						
5.	has an ever-expanding network of people who trust and rely upon him/her						
6.	has genuine interest in me as an individual						
7.	makes it easy for me to admit to mistakes						
8.	is flexible towards change						
9.	trusts me to take decision/initiatives on important issues						
10.	delegates effectively						
11.	works together with employees in resolving a problem						
12.	has a wide network of links to external environment						
13.	does ensure that new and innovative ideas are used in solving problems						
14.	effectively promotes the achievements of the department/organisation to the outside world						

	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
S/N	My immediate supervisor ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	can communicate effectively the vision of the authority/department to the public community						
16.	is accessible to staff at all levels						
17.	encourages independent thinking						
18.	keeps in touch by using face-to-face communication						
19.	is focused on long-term goals						
20.	defines boundaries of responsibility						
21.	is proactive in addressing problems						
22.	involves staff when making decisions						
23.	keeps people informed of what is going on						
24.	adheres to rules and policies to perform tasks correctly						
25.	places the interest of the department above self-interest						
26.	encourages people to think of completely new approaches/solutions to problems						
27.	encourages strategic, rather than short-term thinking						
28.	invests time in all employees and not only in high performing individuals						
29.	encourages the questioning of traditional approaches to the job						
30.	responds in a crisis situation by communicating measures that need to be followed						
31.	is decisive when required						
32.	is prepared to make difficult decisions						
33.	is self-confident						

	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
S/N	My immediate supervisor ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	is resilient to setback						
35.	inspires and motivates employees toward goal achievement						
36.	expresses concern for people						
37.	ensures that the resources are available for goal achievement						
38.	makes decisions based on information that is available at a particular time						
39.	recognises and praises me on achievements						
40.	pays attention to the needs of employees						
41.	is concerned with meeting deadlines						
42.	offers emotional support to employees						
43.	invests in building good interpersonal relationships						
44.	takes corrective actions when employees under perform						
45.	allows me to attend training/ workshops on matters that are relevant but not directly related to my job						
46.	is competent in terms of work-related knowledge						

SECTION C: EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT

The following are statements related to employee empowerment. Rate (by ticking) your level of empowerment by agreeing or disagreeing to the following statements.

S/N	Statement	Strongl y Disagre e	Disagre e	Slightly Disagre e	Slightl y Agree	Agree	Strongl y Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	I am confident about my ability to do my job						
2.	The work that I do is important to me						
3.	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job						
4.	My impact on what happens in my department is large						
5.	My job activities are personally meaningful to me						
6.	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department						
7.	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work						
8.	I really care about what I do on my job						
9.	My job is well within the scope of my abilities						
10.	I have considerable opportunity for freedom in how I do my job						
11.	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job						
12.	My opinion counts in departmental decision-making						
13.	The work I do is meaningful to me						
14.	I have significant influence over what happens in my department						
15.	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities						
16.	I have a chance to use personal initiative in carrying out my work						

Source: Adapted from Spreitzer', 1995.

Indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements on empowerment.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
S/N	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	My level of empowerment is closely tied to my immediate supervisor's leadership style						
2.	My level of empowerment is closely tied to the training that I have received						

SECTION D: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements related to your behaviour at work.

S/N	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	I assist my co-workers with their tasks						
2	I am willing to assist my supervisor voluntarily whenever he/she needs assistance.						
3	I do not mind standing in for colleagues on leave						
4	I go beyond the call of duty to ensure the completion of a project/task						
5	I try to assist others so that they do not encounter problems in their job						
6	I have the organisation's interest at heart when conducting my duties						
7	I provide suggestions to improve the performance of the department/organisation						
8	I speak highly of my organisation outside of the work environment						

S/N	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I truly believe that my organisation takes employees' interest at heart						
10	I am prepared to accept a small pay increase in times of financial difficulties faced by the organisation						
11	I make an effort to acquire generic life skills that will benefit myself and the organisation						
12	I aim to protect my organisation from internal threats						
13	I have a clear job description.						
14	I keep strictly to the tasks outlined in my job description						
15	I abide by the rules and regulations of the workplace						
16	I am punctual for work.						
17	I feel guilty when taking long breaks at work						
18	I see it as my duty to attend voluntary functions organised by the organisation						
19	I keep myself updated with information concerning my organisation						
20	I regularly attend work meetings to keep abreast with changes in the organisation						
21	I will report irregularities to ensure good governance of my organisation						
22	I seldom complain about minor issues in the workplace.						
23	I share information with colleagues to avoid problems from occurring						

S/N	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I maintain a positive attitude when confronted with difficulties						
25	I am able to bear the inconveniences that may arise in the organisation						
26	I am willing to develop my work-related skills						
27	I am polite to my co-workers						
28	I respond to messages or emails promptly						
29	These days everyone must look out for themselves at work						
30	I make it my duty to consult others before I make a decision impacting on their work						
31	We work as one big family at work						

IT IS WITH GREAT APPRECIATION THAT I THANK YOU FOR SACRIFICING TIME TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

APPENDIX B2: QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

Dear Academic Colleague

My name is Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane, a PhD candidate of the University of South Africa. I am currently undertaking research for my doctoral thesis on the topic “A Leadership Competency Framework for the Empowerment of Employees and the Enhancement of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in Public Universities in Ghana.”

The aim of this study is to develop a leadership competency framework for the appointment and development of academic leaders.

I have already completed a survey among staff (academic and administrative) at four public universities in Ghana and I now have to make some practical recommendations on the appointment and development of academic leaders. Findings from the study reveal that leadership should exhibit the following factors:

Vision and goal orientation

1. Communicates organisational goals.
2. Builds external networks.
3. Adheres to rules and policies.
4. Delegates effectively to achieve goals.

Interpersonal relationship

1. Accept change/new ideas.
2. Easily accessible
3. Non-intimidating

Supervision and staff development

1. Leads through Communication
2. Takes decisions.
3. Encourage staff involvement and growth.

4. Diligent in driving Result
5. Utilizes resources efficiently.
6. Shows care toward employees.

HOW CAN YOU ASSIST?

The next step in this research is to make recommendations on how each of the actions listed above could be implemented in a practical way in the workplace. Please assist me by indicating which actions have been implemented at your workplace that speak to some of the factors listed above.

I will be grateful if you could share your views (through phone call or zoom call or another convenient channel) on the best ways the above listed elements on leadership can be implemented in public universities in Ghana to empower employees.

APPENDIX C : PUBLIC UNIVERSITIES PERMISSION LETTERS

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
DIRECTORATE OF HUMAN RESOURCE
TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SECTION

Fax: 233-3321-32484
E-mail: tds@ucc.edu.gh
ucclib@ucc.gn.apc.org
csucc@nccs.com.gh
udlp@mantse.gh.com
ve_ucc@yahoo.com
Website: <http://www.ucc.edu.gh>
In case of reply please quote:



Telephone: 233-3321-32480/3
Telex: 2552, UCC, GH
Telegrams & Cables: University, Cape Coast

UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref: TDS/100/V.4/098
Your Ref:

17th November, 2021

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

INTRODUCTORY LETTER: MRS. NANA ADWOA KONADU DSANE

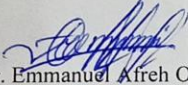
We write to introduce Mrs. Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane, a PhD candidate offering PhD in Human Resource Management at the University of South Africa (UNISA).

As part of the requirement of her programme, Mrs. Dsane is conducting a research on the topic "*A Leadership Competency Framework for the Empowerment of Employees and Enhancement of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour in Public Universities in Ghana*". The study is being conducted under the supervision of *Professor Marriette Coetzee*.

She has obtained permission from the University to collect data from staff of your Directorate/College/Faculty/School/Department. This is for academic purpose only. Mrs. Dsane is also required to send a copy of her thesis, when completed, to the University.

We therefore kindly request you to grant her the necessary audience/assistance. You may please contact me via cowusu@ucc.edu.gh or 0244466185 for further information.

Thank you.


Mr. Emmanuel Afireh Owusu
Senior Assistant Registrar
For: REGISTRAR

cc: Registrar, UCC
Director, DHR



RO/CEN/ADM

November 19, 2021

Mrs. Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane
P O Box KB 223
Korle-Bu, Accra

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO STUDY

I WRITE to inform you that permission has been granted to enable you collect data from Staff of KNUST for your research on the topic: Leadership Competency Framework for the Empowerment of Employees and Enhancement of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in Ghanaian Public Universities". This is in relation to your PhD programme in Human Resource Management at the University of South Africa.

Upon completion, you are required to give a copy of your report to KNUST. You may liaise with the Assistant Registrar (Staff Training and Development) for assistance, where necessary.

Thank you.

EFUA ARKU
SENIOR ASSISTANT REGISTRAR(RO)
for: **REGISTRAR**

cc: Vice-Chancellor
Pro Vice-Chancellor
Provosts
Dean of Students
Deputy Registrar (HRD)
Deputy Registrar (Academic Affairs)
Deputy Registrar (URO)



UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR

DIVISION OF HUMAN RESOURCE

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Our Ref: HR/S.6/VOL.1/

Date: 2nd December, 2021

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

INTRODUCTORY LETTER: NANA ADWOA KONADU DSANE (MRS.)

We write to introduce to you Mrs. Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane who is a PhD Candidate offering a PhD in Human Resource Management at the University of South Africa (UNISA).

As part of the requirements of her programme, Mrs. Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane is conducting research on the topic “*Leadership Competence Framework for the Empowerment of Employees and Enhancement of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour in Ghanaian Public Universities*”. The study is being conducted under the supervision of *Professor Marriette Coezzette*.

She has obtained permission from the University to collect data from staff of your Directorate/College/Faculty/School/Department. This is for academic purpose only.

We therefore kindly request you to grant her the necessary audience/assistance.

Thank you

Patricia Kaitoo

for: Deputy Registrar, Division of Human Resource



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Institute of Health Research

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My Ref: UHAS/IHR/G-30



PMB 31
Ho, Volta Region
Ghana

November 18, 2021.

Nana Adwoa Konadu Dsane (Mrs.)
P. O. Box KB 223
Korle-Bu
Accra

Dear Madam,

**RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH STUDY AT YOUR
INSTITUTION FOR MY PHD DEGREE**

Your request for permission to undertake research study at the University of Health and Allied Sciences, Ho refers.

We hereby grant you approval to conduct the research study at the University of Health and Allied Sciences, Ho. You are required to provide the University with a copy of the full research report upon completion.

Please do not hesitate to contact me for further information via email roo@uhas.edu.gh and telephone on 0244061270.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Fidelis E. Y. Anumu'.

Fidelis E. Y. Anumu
Head, Research Operations