Leadership Behaviors and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Mediating Role of Job Involvement

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ABSTRACT

The study examined the effect of leadership behaviors (transformational (TFL) and transactional (TSL) on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) while assessing the mediating role of job involvement. The investigation involved 209 employees from 45 different hospitality institutions (20 hotels, 10 guesthouses and 15 restaurants) in Accra, Ghana. Using multiple regression analysis, findings indicated that both leadership behaviors increase employees' engagement in OCB in the Ghanaian hospitality industry. It further established that job involvement mediated between TSL behaviors and OCB. However, we did not find support for our argument that job involvement can mediate TFL and OCB. The implications of these results for theory and practice are discussed.

I.   INTRODUCTION

Globalization and competition coupled with the growth of the service economy globally require employees in service organizations such as hotels to make rapid decisions without much consultation and discussions with their leaders (Jung and Yoon, 2013; Jha, 2014). This is because the above factors have raised service experience expectations of customers in the hospitality environments. As a result, customers increasingly now expect services and products to exceed their expectations. However, as service-oriented organizations, customer experience in the hospitality sector is extremely reliant on face-to-face interactions between service consumers and workers (Baum, 2015; Tracey, 2014; Madera, Dawson, Guchait and Belarmino, 2017). In this regard, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) of workers in the hospitality industry are important (Koyuncu, Burke, Astakhova, Eren and Cetin, 2013; Jha, 2014). Hospitality institutions where employees tend to engage in OCB can enhance their core competences, improve service quality, enhance customer satisfaction and potentially perform better than their competitors (Chiang and Hsieh, 2012; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff and Blume, 2009; Tang and Tang, 2012; Wang and Wong, 2011). Generally, OCB is voluntary, beneficial to people and organizations, and it is not a part of the formal system of the organization (e.g. Ma, Qu, Wilson and Eastman, 2013; Özduran and Tanova, 2017; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff *et al*., 2009; Wang, 2014). For instance, Organ (1988) describes OCB as an "individual behavior at work that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal rewards system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (p.4).

A potential antecedent of OCB in the hospitality industry is leadership behavior (Koyuncu *et al*., 2013; Zou, Tian and Liu, 2015). According to Koyuncu *et al*. (2013), front-line workers make significant contributions to hotels' competitiveness, and that leadership behaviors may be critical in eliciting desired employee behaviors. Zou *et al*. (2015) also posit that stakeholders in the hospitality industry should recognize leadership behaviors as instrumental in remedying the deficiencies of hotel employment for enhanced results. Recently, Chen and Wu (2017) call on researchers in the hospitality field to explore the most effective leadership behaviors that can inspire front-line employees to exhibit OCB. Admittedly, the effects of leadership behaviors, specifically, transformational leadership (TFL) and transactional leadership (TSL) behaviors on OCB have been examined in the hospitality industry and in other sectors (see Bilgin, Kuzey, Torlak and Uyar, 2015; Cho and Dansereau, 2010; Jha, 2014; Mekpor and Dartey-Baah, 2017; Park, Song, Yoon and Kim, 2013; Patiar and Wang, 2016; Sechudi and Olivier, 2016; Tracey and Hinkin, 1994).

However, findings of these studies still lack consistency. For example, leadership behavior may have positive (Jha, 2014; Mekpor and Dartey-Baah, 2017), negative (Patiar and Mia, 2009), or no effect (Bilgin *et al*., 2015; Tracey and Hinkin, 1994) on OCB. Aside, we observe that majority of the studies (e.g. Bilgin *et al*., 2015; Cho and Dansereau, 2010; Patiar and Wang, 2016; Park *et al*., 2013; Sechudi and Olivier, 2016) mainly focused on TFL behavior with less attention being paid to TSL behavior. This concentration on either TFL or TSL has resulted in the lack of a more comprehensive TFL/TSL and OCB model (Patiar and Mia, 2009; Uen *et al*., 2012). Hence, the first research objective is to contribute to literature by investigating the effect of leadership behaviors (TFL and TSL) on OCB in the Ghanaian hospitality industry.

In addition, a survey of the literature reveals that mediators employed in previous studies include commitment and job satisfaction (e.g. Bilgin *et al*., 2015), individual and group-level justice perceptions (e.g. Cho and Dansereau, 2010), envy (e.g. Kim, O'Neill and Cho, 2010), trust (e.g. Mackenzie, Podsakoff and Rich, 2001), and psychological ownership (Park *et al*., 2013). However, studies investigating the mediating role of job involvement in the relationship between leadership behaviors and OCB are quite rare to find. This to some extent confirms Wang, Tsui and Xin's (2011) observation that in spite of the constant calls to examine the potential mechanisms through which leadership behaviors can affect employee outcomes, little research has been forthcoming. Hence, the second research objective is to propose job involvement as a mediator that can affect the relationship between leadership behaviors and OCB.

II.   LITERATURE REVIEW

A.   Theoretical Relevance

Over the years, various theories of leadership have emerged to explain the concept of leadership, leadership behaviors and leader-follower interactions; for instance, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory. The LMX theory was developed by Graen and his associates (Graen, Novak and Sommerkamp, 1982; Graen and Scandura, 1987). The theory is defined as an interpersonal relationship between a leader and a subordinate which relates to follower outcomes (Graen *et al*., 1982; Graen and Scandura, 1987; Keller and Dansereau, 1995; Sparrowe and Liden, 1997). When the leader and the members are in high quality relationship, the leader becomes a resource, which provides employees with support. This enhances employees' commitment and makes employees become psychologically safe (Spreitzer, 2007). Psychological safety is important for fostering employees' job involvement and satisfaction (Kahn, 1990). Employees in higher-quality exchange situations experience open communication with their supervisors (Yrle, Hartman and Galle, 2002). This help in providing them with the required information to carry out their work more efficiently and effectively. In addition, employees in a high-quality LMX tend to have higher quality exchange relationships with co-workers in the form of social support and other citizenship behaviors (Sherony and Green, 2002).

Aside the LMX theory, social exchange theory provides a framework in the study of employee-organization relationships for the past few decades (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) states that when employees perceive that they are involved in trustworthy exchanges with the organization they work for, they experience a sense of felt obligation that invites reciprocation through positive inclinations and behaviors that benefit the organization (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). The theory suggests that "citizenship behavior will appear when an employee experiences positive feelings and an affinity towards the organization. Thus, the individual is motivated to respond to the organization's demand, resulting in positive experiences" (Jha, 2014, p. 19). This clearly indicates that the proposition of OCB is linked to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Aselage and Eisenberger, 2003).

B.   Leadership Behaviors

The concept of leadership has been defined in various ways (e.g., Kouzes and Posner, 2002; Lussier and Achua, 2004; Northouse, 2004). Kouzes and Posner (2002) for instance, defined "leadership as a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow" (p.20). Similarly, Lussier and Achua (2004) describe leadership as the "influencing process of leaders and followers to achieve organizational objectives through changes" (p.5). Various leadership behaviors have been identified. This study however, focuses on the TFL and TSL behaviors as these are considered as the most dominant and trending leadership behaviors (Dartey-Baah, 2016; Dartey-Baah, 2015; Riaz and Haider, 2010; Webb, 2009). Consequently, Dartey-Baah (2015) coined the concept of "Transfor-sactional" leadership to reflect this dominant thinking and orientation towards the two leadership behaviors in the literature. This orientation towards these two leadership behaviors may be due to the widely held view that the best and resilient leaders are those who know when it is appropriate to exhibit either transformational or transactional leadership behaviors (Boyne, 2010; Dartey-Baah, 2015; Lee, Cheng, Yeung and Lai, 2011).

C.   Transformational Leadership Behavior (TFL)

According to Podsakoff, Mackenzie and Bommer (1996), TFL can be viewed as behavior of a leader that influences both values and aspirations of followers. It activates higher-order needs and arouses subordinates to go beyond self-interest for the benefit of the entire organization. Earlier, Bass (1990) maintains that leaders practice TFL when they widen and "elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir their employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group" (p.21). TFL has a positive future, and through inspirational motivation, communicate the vision to the followers (Bass, 1990; Bono and Judge, 2004; den Hartog, van Muijen and Koopman, 1997). In line with this, Bass (1990) argues that TFL is characterized by four main behaviors, which are: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. Rafferty and Griffin (2006) later on added the fifth dimension, known as vision.

Rafferty and Griffin (2006) describe vision as charismatic expressions of a positive future through inspirational communication and confidence building. Leaders engage in idealized influence by communicating an exciting vision of the future (Yukl, 1981). Inspirational motivation refers to "the extent to which a leader stimulates enthusiasm among subordinates for the work of the group and says things to build subordinate confidence in their ability to perform assignments successfully and attain group objectives" (Yukl, 1981, p. 121). Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) posit that leaders who practice intellectual stimulation give meaning to their organizations and to their followers' work. Intellectual stimulation behaviors involve the ability of a leader to challenge its subordinates to think 'outside the box' as they try to find solutions to problems they face in their work environment. This leadership behavior makes workers become more involved, committed to the organization as well as excel on their job (Shamir *et al.*, 1993). Individual consideration can simply be described as leaders' ability

to coach, support as well as stimulate their followers (Avolio and Bass, 1995; den Hartog *et al.*, 1997; Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008).

D.   Transactional Leadership (TSL) Behavior

TSL theories are based on the view that the relationship between leaders and their followers are characterized by a series of exchanges between them (Avolio and Bass, 1995; Dartey-Baah, 2016; Den Hartog *et al.*, 1997; Lai, 2011). TSL behavior in Dartey-Baah's (2016) views can be described as the capacity of leaders to use extrinsic rewards to influence their subordinates to achieve a particular goal. There are three sub-dimensions of TSL behavior (Bass, 1990). They are contingent rewards, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive) or and laissez-faire, or non-leadership behavior. With respect to contingent reward, the leader assigns work to his followers and then rewards them for carrying out the assignment (Bass, Avolio, Jung and Berson, 2003; Bass, 1990; Gill, 2006). Passive management by exception refers to a situation where the leader waits passively for errors to happen before taking corrective action. In most cases, such leaders take corrective measures only when procedures and standards for accomplishing tasks are not being met (Bass, 1990). On the other hand, active management by exception refers to management practice or leadership behavior where the leader keenly monitors the performance of subordinates or followers by focusing on deviations from rules and standards so that he or she can take necessary corrective action (Bass, 1990; Wu, Liu, Song and Liu, 2006).

E.   Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

The idea of OCB pioneered by Organ (1988) and Bateman and Organ (1983) was based on the assumption of "extra role behavior" of Katz (1964). Katz's (1964) work examines innovative and spontaneous behavior beyond role prescriptions and distinguishes between high and low performers. Organ (1988) defines OCB as "individual behavior at work that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) originally identified two sub-dimensions for OCB. They are altruism and general compliance but Organ (1988) excluded general compliance, and added new dimensions. Altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, courtesy and sportsmanship are the dimensions of OCB, and have been widely used by researchers (Özduran and Tanova, 2017; Podsakoff, McKenzie, Paine and Bachrach, 2000; Ma *et al.*, 2013; Wang, 2014).

Altruism is related to helping a specific colleague in organizational task accomplishment or problem-solving (Law, Wong and Chen, 2005). Conscientiousness (Özduran and Tanova, 2017) is described as behaviors that involve going beyond the minimum requirements of one's job or position. Civic virtue includes the activities of participating in social activities as well as attending meetings. Courtesy as an OCB, refers to employees' behaviors that inform co-workers of potential dangers or difficulties that can affect their smooth performance of work. Finally, sportsmanship refers to the willingness of workers to work without complaining. They employ positive work attitudes and behaviors although they may be facing some challenges and distressful situations (Özduran   and   Tanova,   2017).   OCB   improves   performance   and

competitiveness of organizations (Smith *et al.*, 1983) and "contribute to the creation of the structural, relational, and cognitive aspects of social capital" (Bolino, Turnley, and Bloodgood, 2002, p.517).

F. Job Involvement

Early studies on job involvement can be traced back to the work conducted by Sherif and Cantril (1947). Job involvement is defined as the extent to which one identifies or is preoccupied with their job, relates positively to a whole host of outcomes of interest to organizations such as employee OCB and commitment (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005; Newstrom, 2007). Job involvement is a construct, which leads to an inner state of activation. It is determined by the intensity of activation as well as the effectiveness of the direction. Its intensity results from personal, product and situation-specific factors. A high degree of involvement in one's job leads to intensified search activities and better information-seeking behavior, while low involvement levels describe a state of little cognitive effort (Baum and Kabst, 2013).

G. Development of Hypotheses and Conceptual Model

1. Leadership behavior and OCB

The role of leadership behavior in encouraging OCB for organizational effectiveness has become a major research agenda (Bilgin *et al.*, 2015; Boyne, 2010; Brownell, 2010). As a result, various studies have been conducted in attempt to ascertain the nature of their relationship. For instance, Mackenzie *et al.* (2001) reveal that TFL behavior significantly predicts OCB. Recently, in their analysis of 159 employees and their supervisors in a Korean banking study, Dansereau (2010) shows that TFL behavior indirectly affects OCBs via perceived fairness and justice. Similarly, Suliman and Al Obaidli (2013) indicate that TFL and TSL significantly enhance OCB in the banking sector in United Arab Emirates. Likewise, in the Ghanaian banking industry, Mekpor and Dartey-Baah (2017) find positive contributions of both leadership behaviors to workers' tendency to engage in more OCB. Relatedly, Sechudi and Olivier (2016) reveal that the dimensions of TFL behavior facilitate military or servicemen's OCB.

While the preceding studies (Dansereau, 2010; Mekpor and Dartey-Baah, 2017; Sechudi and Olivier, 2016; Suliman and Al Obaidli, 2013) focused mainly on the banking industry and the defense sector, some researchers have investigated the topic in the tourism and hospitality industry. Bilgin *et al.* (2015) for example, examine how charismatic leadership can affect OCB in the Turkish hospitality industry. Using structural equation modelling, the results show that charismatic leadership behavior has no influence on organizational citizenship behavior. This result contradicts the findings of similar studies (Jha, 2014; Kim *et al.*, 2010) in the hospitality industry that found positive results. For instance, in India, Jha (2014) examined how TFL predicts OCB using data from 319 employees of different five-star hotels. The results indicated that TFL behavior raises OCB. Prior to this, Kim *et al.* (2010) examined 233 front-line hotel employees, and reveals that "employees perceiving a poor working relationship with their supervisor committed less voluntary helping behaviors towards coworkers than their counterparts" (p.530). Arustei (2013) also argues that leadership behavior is important

for the success and competitiveness of organizations in the hospitality industry, as they require extensive human efforts, committed and flexible workforce who can speedily resolve customer concerns on the spot without much discussions and consultations with their superiors. Based on the above discussions, we proposed the following hypotheses:

H1a: TFL behavior significantly increases OCB among workers in the hospitality industry.
H1b: TSL behavior significantly increases OCB among workers in the hospitality industry.

2.   Mediation role of job involvement

The need to examine potential mechanisms through which leadership behavior can affect employee and organizational outcomes are noted in the literature (Wang *et al*., 2011). Although very limited studies have investigated leadership behaviors and job involvement, available evidence suggests that leadership behavior can lead to job involvement. Sheikh, Newman and Al Azzeh's (2013) for example, used cross-sectional survey data from 229 employees of 10 organizations in the United Arab Emirates, and show that TFL behavior has positive effect on job involvement. Prior to this, a meta-analysis by Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran (2005) suggest that the dimensions of TFL behaviors positively and significantly predict employees' job involvement. Generally, employees who are highly involved in their jobs tend to find their jobs satisfying (Sharma, Srivastava, Ningthoujam and Arora, 2012; Cohen, 1995). When employees are involved in their work, they remain on their job activities even in their spare time thinking of how best they can do their work and achieve desired results.

Employees who are involved in their jobs may feel competent and more willing to help colleagues to perform their jobs (Mudrack, 2004). This indicates that job involvement can significantly influence OCB (Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin and Lord, 2002; Yeh, 2013). Indeed, studies have confirmed that job involvement can influence OCB. For instance, using survey data from 283 nurses from a hospital in Israel, Diefendorff *et al*. (2002) demonstrate that employees who are highly involve in their job display high OCB. The above discussions clearly indicate that leadership behavior can predict OCB and job involvement, and job involvement can also predict OCB. This suggests that job involvement can provide mechanism through which leadership behaviors can affect OCB. Consequently, we propose that job involvement mediates the relationship between leadership behaviors and OCB. Specifically, we hypothesized that:

H2a: Employee job involvement mediates the relationship between TFL behavior and OCB.
H2b: Employee job involvement mediates the relationship between TSL behavior and OCB.

The above hypotheses are summarized and presented in the conceptual model below.

Figure 1
Conceptual framework before analysis
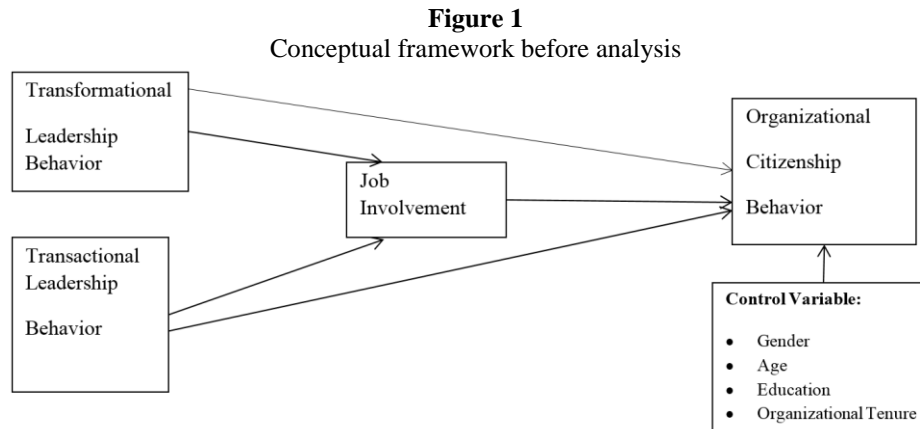
III.   METHODOLOGY

A.   Sample and Data Collection

This study collected data from employees in the Ghanaian hospitality industry, one of the leading hospitality industries in Africa. A Bloom Consulting Country Brand Ranking for Trade and Tourism reported by Graphic Online (2016) indicated that Ghana is the ninth most attractive country in Africa to international tourists. Indeed, the hospitality industry is one of the fastest growing industries in Ghana. According to Ghana Tourism Authority (2012), the star-rated hotels in Ghana grew from 1,345 in 2005 to 1,747 in 2010. Aside the star-rated hotels, there are 137 guesthouses, 1176 budget as well as 67 supplementary accommodations across the nation. There has been high hotel occupancy rate, especially in star-rated hotels in the last decade. The report revealed that there are about 80% occupancy rates on average for 4-star rated hotels. These clearly indicate that the industry is experiencing significant growth and becoming increasingly competitive. This means that organizations in the industry need to encourage their employees to exhibit high level of OCB and job involvement through appropriate leadership behaviors. This is because OCB and job involved employees tend to make significant contributions to the performance and competitiveness of service-oriented organizations (see Chiang and Hsieh, 2012; Podsakoff *et al*., 2009; Özduran and Tanova, 2017; Organ, 1988; Wang, 2014).

The study specifically targeted employees operating in hotels, guesthouses and restaurants in Accra, the capital city of Ghana. There are 358 hotels and 32 guesthouses in the Greater Accra region (Ghana Hotels Association, 2018) and 451 restaurants (Ghana Yello website, 2018). The choice of Accra as the study area was motivated by the revelations by Ghana Tourism Authority (2012) that these categories of hospitality institutions are dominant in Accra. The study used a convenience sample of 45 hospitality institutions; 20 (44.44%) hotels, 15 (33.33%) restaurants, and 10 (22.22%) guesthouses. In all, 258 questionnaires were personally distributed to employees in the 45 hospitality institutions of which 209 valid questionnaires representing 81.01% were analyzed. The collection of the data from these key categories of hospitality institutions was to obtain

views of different workers in the sector on how leadership behaviors affect their desire to engage in OCB in the sector, and also to facilitate generalization of the findings.

The demographic details of the respondents are displayed in the Table 1. From the results, 15 (7.18%) were less than 20 years; 118 (56.46%) were 21-30 years; 57 (27.27%) were 31-40 years; 10 (4.78%) were 41-50 years and 9 (4.31%) were 51-60 years old. The gender distribution indicated that 100 (47.85%) were males, and 109 (52.15%) were females. In terms of their educational background, 91 (43.54%) had Senior High School education; 74 (35.41%) had Bachelor degree; 23 (11.00%) had Master's degree, and 21 (10.05%) attained other educational qualifications. Furthermore, their organizational tenure distribution indicated that 27 (12.92%) were less than a year old; 137 (65.55%) were 1-5 years old; 31 (14.83%) were 6-10 years old, and 14 (6.70%) were 11 years and more in their present organizations.

Table 1
Demographic background of the respondents

Demographic Details	Frequency	Percentage
Age (in years):		
Under 20	15	7.18
21 – 30	118	56.46
31 – 40	57	27.27
41 – 50	10	4.78
51 – 60	9	4.31
Gender		
Male	100	47.85
Female	109	52.15
Education:		
Senior High School	91	43.54
Bachelor Degree	74	35.41
Master's Degree	23	11.00
Other	21	10.05
Organizational Tenure:		
Less than 1 year	27	12.92
1 – 5 years	137	65.55
6 – 10 years	31	14.83
11 years and more	14	6.70
Job Position:		
Finance and Accounts Officers/Assistants	31	14.83
Administrative Officers/Assistants	9	4.31
Waiters/Waitresses	26	12.44
Cooks	11	5.26
Supervisors	26	12.44
Client Services and Marketing Executives	51	24.40
Front Desk Executives/Receptionists	39	18.66
Human Resource Officers/Assistants	7	3.35
Security/Cleaning	9	4.31

B.   Measures

1.   Leadership behavior

Leadership behaviors (TFL and TSL) were assessed using Bass and Avolio's (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire [MLQ 5X Short]. It is a 31–item questionnaire. Nineteen (19) assessed TFL behavior while 12 assessed TSL behavior. Sample items under TFL behavior were: *"My Manager goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group; My Manager talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished; My Manager expresses a compelling vision of the future".* Sample items under TSL behavior were: *"My Manager provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts; My Manager focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, expectations and deviations from standards".* The scale was measured on a five point Likert scale where; 1 = not all true; 2 = once in a while; 3 = sometimes; 4 = fairly often, and 5 = frequently, if not almost. In a recent study by Wells and Pearch (2011), a Cronbach's alpha (α) of 0.88 and .071 were reported for the TFL and TSL scale in the MLQ 5X Short respectively. In this present study, TFL and TSL behaviors had Cronbach's alpha values of 0.94 and 0.61 respectively.

2.   Organizational citizenship behavior

OCB was measured using the 24-item scale developed by Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) comprising the dimensions of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue. The scale has a Cronbach's alpha value of .94 (Klein and Verbeke, 1999; Lam, Hui and Law, 1999) and responses are measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= Never (strongly disagree) to 5= Always (strongly agree). Sample statements on this scale were *"Attendance at work is above the norm; obeys company rules and regulations even when no one is watching; tries to avoid creating problems for coworkers".* The present study recorded Cronbach's alpha value of 0.90.

3.   Job involvement

Job involvement was measured using the 10-item scale that was developed by Kanungo (1982). The scale had a Cronbach's alpha value of .81 (Kanungo, 1982); and responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= Strongly disagree to 5= Strongly agree. Sample items were *"the most important things that happen to me involve my present job; I live, eat, and breathe my job; I have very strong ties with my present job that would be very difficult to break; I consider my job to be very central to my existence".* The scale had a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.74 in this present study.

Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency, that is, how closely related a set of questions/items are as a group. The test for the Cronbach's α values of the various scales is necessary because according to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), questionnaires adopted for a study must be tested to ensure their accuracy in helping to achieve the objectives of the study. Specifically, it helps to test the effectiveness of the scale to measure the variables of the study. It also helps to test reliability: the consistency of the items of the scale. According to Sekaran (2003), α values less than 0.60 are considered poor. However, α values derived from the pilot study met the reliability requirements to use the instrument since all the variables tested had α values above 0.60.

4.   Control variables

The study used some demographic variables, specifically, age, gender, education and organizational tenure as control variables as they have the potential to influence the relationship between employee job involvement, OCB and leadership behaviors. This was in line with previous researches (e.g. Bauer and Green, 1996; Cho and Dansereau, 2010; Özduran and Tanova, 2017) which controlled for these variables. They were coded as dummy variables for the analyses as follows: Age (1 = 40 years and less, and 0 – otherwise), Gender (1 = male and 0 = otherwise), Education (1 = tertiary education; 0 = otherwise), and Organizational tenure (1 = 5 years and less, and 0 = otherwise).

5.   Data analysis

The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, Pearson Moment correlation and Linear Multiple regression with the aid of SPSS version 22.0. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the demographic variables of the respondents and also for testing some assumptions underlying regression analysis such as normal distribution. Pearson correlation was used for establishing preliminary relationship between the study variables. Regressions were used to test the direct and indirect effect of leadership behavior on OCB. Harman's one-factor test was used for the investigation of common method bias (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). The basic assumption of this technique is that; "if a substantial amount of common method variance is present, a single factor will emerge from the factor analysis or the majority of the covariance will be concentrated in one of the factors" (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003, p. 889). The analysis showed that the highest variance explained by a single factor was 20.45%, thereby indicating no significant concerns for existence of common method bias. Normality and multicollinearity were also checked. Using the criteria of absolute values of less or greater than 1.96 or -1.96, $p < 0.05$; 2.58 or -2.58, $p < 0.01$, and 3.29 or -3.29, $p < 0.001$ (Field, 2009), overall all the variables were normally distributed at 5% level of significance.

Multicollinearity was also investigated using variance inflation factor (VIF). The investigation revealed a VIF of 1.22 as the highest when the control variables, the mediator and independent variable (s) were used on the dependent variable. This was well within the minimum threshold of not more than 10. Aside, the correlations between the independent variables (see Table II) were less than 0.70 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Hence, it is concluded that there were no serious multicollinearity issues.

IV.   RESULTS AND FINDINGS

A.   Descriptive and Pearson Correlation Analysis

The descriptive and Pearson correlation results are shown in Table 2. From the results, OCB is positively and significantly related to TFL behavior (r = 0.30, $p < 0.01$), TSL behavior (r = 0.20, $p < 0.05$), and job involvement (r = 0.33, $p < 0.01$). Similarly, job involvement is significantly and positively correlated with TSL behavior (r = 0.19, $p < 0.01$), but has insignificant association with TFL behavior (r = 0.04, $p > 0.05$).

Table 2
Descriptive and Pearson correlation analysis

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. OCB	3.45	0.64	1.00							
2. TFL Behavior	3.53	0.83	0.30**	1.00						
3. TSL Behavior	2.91	0.54	0.20**	0.05	1.00					
4. Job Involvement	3.09	0.65	0.33**	0.04	0.19**	1.00				
5. Age	0.91	0.28	0.02	-0.09	0.02	-0.16*	1.00			
6. Gender	0.47	0.52	0.04	0.15*	-0.10	0.09	-0.27*	1.00		
7. Education	0.57	0.50	-0.06	-0.01	0.07	0.06	-0.24**	-0.03	1.00	
8. Tenure	0.79	0.41	-0.27**	-0.16*	0.00	-0.11	0.16*	-0.02	0.11	1.00

** Significant at 0.01 (1%)   * Significant at 0.05 (5%)

B.   Hypotheses Testing

1.   Testing the relationship between TFL behavior, OCB and job involvement

The two–step regression results testing H1a is shown in Table 3. The results in Model 1 and Model 2 of Table 3 are used to test the hypothesis that TFL behavior will increase OCB significantly (H1a). Control variables are entered in Model 1, with TFL behavior added in Model 2. The interpretation for H1a is based on the results in Model 2. From the findings, TFL behavior ($\beta = 0.27$, $p < 0.001$) has significant positive effect on OCB. This finding provides empirical support for hypothesis H1a. Baron and Kenney (1986)'s three-step procedure for mediation analysis is used to test H2a. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), there are four conditions for mediation: the predictor variable must significantly predict the outcome variable; the predictor variable must significantly predict the mediator; the mediator must significantly predict the outcome variable, and the predictor variable must predict the outcome variable less strongly when the mediator is controlled (i.e., partial mediation). Full mediation occurs when the predictor variable is insignificant when the mediator is controlled. However, given Baron and Kenny's (1986) recommendation, there should be a significant correlation between the mediator and the independent variable for mediation analysis, we are unable to proceed to test hypothesis (H2a) which argues that job involvement can mediate between TFL behavior and OCB. This is because there is no significant relationship between job involvement (mediator) and TFL behavior (independent variable) (see results in Table II above). Indeed, when the test was performed (see Model 2, 4 and 5), it confirmed that job involvement does not serve as a mediator in the relationship between TFL and OCB as only two of the four conditions described above were supported. As noted earlier, TFL significantly predicted OCB (condition 1 supported). Condition two was not supported since TFL did not significantly predict job involvement ($\beta = 0.004$, $p > 0.05$). Similarly, condition three was supported because job involvement has significant effect on OCB ($\beta = 0.31$, $p < 0.001$). However, condition four was not supported because TFL failed to predict OCB less when job involvement was controlled in Model 5.

Table 3
Regression analysis of TFL behavior on OCB

	Job Involvement		Organizational Citizenship Behavior		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model5
Age	-0.12	-0.12	0.09	0.09	0.13
	(-1.56)	(-1.55)	(1.16)	(1.31)	(1.92)
Gender	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.03	0.01
	(0.89)	(0.87)	(0.93)	(0.39)	(0.10)
Education	0.05	0.05	0.002	-0.004	-0.02
	(0.67)	(0.67)	(-0.03)	(-0.06)	(-0.30)
Tenure	-0.10	-0.10	-0.28***	-0.24**	-0.21**
	(-1.45)	(-1.42)	(-4.07)	(-3.53)	(-3.22)
TFL Behavior		0.004		0.27***	0.27***
		(0.06)		(4.07)	(4.29)
Job Involvement					0.31***
					(5.01)
R^2	0.04	0.04	0.08	0.15	0.24
Change in R^2	-	0.00	-	0.07***	0.16***
F-value	2.10	1.67	4.42**	7.13***	10.82***

*** Significant at 0.001 ** Significant at 0.01   t – values are in parenthesis

Table 4
Regression analysis of TSL behavior on OCB

	Job Involvement		Organizational Citizenship Behavior		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Age	-0.12	-0.12	0.09	0.08	0.12
	(-1.56)	(-1.60)	(1.16)	(1.16)	(1.69)
Gender	0.06	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.06
	(0.89)	(1.18)	(0.93)	(1.25)	(0.94)
Education	0.05	0.04	-0.002	-0.02	-0.03
	(0.67)	(0.49)	(-0.03)	(-0.24)	(-0.39)
Tenure	-0.10	-0.10	-0.28***	-0.28**	-0.25***
	(-1.45)	(-1.46)	(-4.07)	(-4.15)	(-3.86)
TSL Behavior		0.20**		0.21**	0.15*
		(2.91)		(3.11)	(2.32)
Job Involvement					0.28***
					(4.31)
R^2	0.04	0.08	0.08	0.12	0.20
Change in R^2	-	0.04	-	0.04**	0.07***
F-value	2.10	3.44*	4.42**	5.62***	8.19***

*** Significant at 0.001 ** Significant at 0.01 * Significant at 0.05   t – values are in parenthesis

2. Testing the relationship between TSL behavior, OCB and job involvement

The results testing H1b and H2b are shown in Table 4. The results in Model 4 show that TSL behavior ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$) has significant positive effect on OCB. Hence, hypothesis that TSL will significantly increase employee OCB (i.e., H1b) is supported. Furthermore, to test for the mediating effect of job involvement on TSL and OCB (i.e., H2a) based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) three-step procedure, results in Model 2, Model

4 and Model 5 in Table 4 are used. The results show that job involvement significantly predicted OCB ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.001$) (see Model 5). TSL behavior significantly predicted job involvement ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$) (see Model 2), and OCB ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$) (see Model 4), but has less significant effect on OCB ($\beta = 0.15$, $p < 0.05$) when job involvement is controlled (see Model 5). This means that job involvement partially mediates TSL behavior and OCB. This empirical evidence supported H2b.

V.   DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A.   Discussion

This study investigates the effect of leadership behaviors on OCB while assessing the mediating role of job involvement in the Ghanaian hospitality industry. The first objective sought to determine whether TFL and TSL behaviors have significant positive effects on OCB. The empirical results revealed that both leadership behaviors have significant positive effects on OCB. This result supports the findings of similar studies (Jha, 2014; Kim et al., 2010; Mekpor and Dartey-Baah, 2017). This means in hospitality institutions where leaders seek the interests of their employees, and encourage them to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group" (Bass, 1990, p.21), they are more likely to display more OCB to enhance the competitiveness of their organizations. The findings further suggest that leaders can make their employees engage in OCB for example, assisting co-workers and finding innovative ways for doing their jobs at their spare time by inspiring, motivating and challenging their intellectual potentials. Provision of incentive schemes and rewards by leaders (Bass et al., 2003; Bass, 1990; Gill, 2006) can also stimulate or increase employees' OCB. When leadership behaviors instill confidence in their workers, they will be more willing to work without complaining although they may be facing some challenges and distressful situations (Özduran and Tanova, 2017).

Moreover, the study findings give credence to Arustei's (2013) assertion that leadership behavior is important for the success and competitiveness of organizations in the hospitality industry, as they require extensive human efforts, as well as committed and flexible workforce who can speedily resolve customer concerns on the spot without much consultations with their superiors. It further indicates that leadership behaviors can bring about a high-quality LMX which will in turn inspire employees to engage in higher quality exchange relationships with co-workers in the form of social support. In this regard, the findings buttress LMX theory (Sherony and Green, 2002; Graen et al., 1982) which argues that employees in higher-quality exchange situations experience open communication with their supervisors, and can have sufficient information to engage in OCB by taking decisions and actions that are beneficial to their organizations. It is however essential to recognize that this result contradicts the findings of Bilgin et al. (2015) which showed that TFL behavior has no influence on OCB in the hospitality industry. In our view, the limited focus of Bilgin et al.'s work on only charismatic leadership, one of the four sub-dimensions of TFL behavior instead of the general leadership behavior construct could partly account for their findings.

The second research objective examined the mediating effect of job involvement on leadership behaviors (TFL and TSL) and OCB. The empirical results show that job involvement mediates between TSL behaviors and OCB. The findings confirm the

proposition of the Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) which argues that when employees perceive that they are involved in trustworthy exchanges with the organization, they actively get involved and embed themselves in their work which eventually benefits their organizations. This suggests that job involvement provides mechanism through which TSL behaviors can affect OCB. However, conditions for job involvement to mediate between TFL behavior and OCB were not fulfilled contradicting the expectation that job involvement will mediate the relationship between TFL and OCB. The analysis revealed that TFL did not predict job involvement significantly. Inference can be drawn from the demographic details of the respondents in an attempt to provide reasons for this particular finding. It was seen that majority of the respondents were between 21 and 30 years of age, and with regard to tenure, majority of them had worked between 1 and 5 years. It can be deduced that these respondents, working in a labor-intensive industry as the hospitality industry in a developing country, are generally youthful, with very young careers, and thus they may place more emphasis on rewards and monetary gains from leaders rather than inspiration, charisma and motivation from their leaders as factors that influence the involvement in their jobs. Dartey-Baah and Amoako (2011) argued that as a result of the unfavorable economic conditions in Ghana, most issues regarding labor border on wages and salaries; and therefore, most Ghanaian workers would be driven more by factors such as monetary gains and rewards to perform better at work, thus buttressing the point being made. Furthermore, it was noted earlier that the intensity of job involvement results from personal, product and situation-specific factors (Baum and Kabst, 2013), thus, it may be the case that their preferences for rewards from their leaders may be a greater factor in determining the intensity of their job involvement rather than their needs/preferences for charismatic, inspirational and motivational leadership behaviors. These, perhaps, may be the reasons accounting for this particular finding.

B.   Practical Implications

The findings of the study have several implications for practice. It highlights the significant contributions of leadership behaviors in realizing the numerous benefits of employee OCB and job involvement. The literature indicates that hospitality institutions with employees who tend to engage frequently in OCB can enhance their core competences and perform better (Chiang and Hsieh, 2012; Wang and Wong, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2009) than their competitors. This means leaders should develop quality relationship with their subordinates through inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, charismatic influences and the use of contingent reward schemes to facilitate their workers' tendency to exhibit job involvement and OCB.

Furthermore, leadership capacities of managers and supervisors in the sector should be developed through training and coaching so that their behaviors and interactions with their workers can make them go beyond the rules in the resolution of urgent customer problems. Moreover, regular assessment and audit of the leadership skills of managers and supervisors in the sector is essential. This can be achieved through quarterly leadership surveys with the aim of identifying deficiencies in leaders' skills and knowledge so that timely corrective actions can be taken to deal with problems that may be identified. Aside, in recruiting new supervisors and managers, leadership qualities should be emphasized. In this way, hospitality organizations will be promoting quality

and effective leadership behaviors that will elicit desired employee behaviors and outcomes, which invariably benefit hospitality organizations.

C.   Theoretical Implications and Extensions

This study contributes to literature in a collectivist society like Ghana and by extension Sub-Saharan Africa. The reason being that most of the past studies on leadership behavior and OCB were carried out in Western countries (Boyne, 2010; Lee et al., 2011; Meyer and Allen, 1991), which tend to promote individualistic behaviors (Kim and Park, 2003). This study is even more relevant given the increasingly collective culture in which many institutions now operate (Agarwal, 2016).

      The study demonstrates that job involvement is an important mechanism through which TSL behaviors can affect employees' engagement in OCB. This is an important extension in the literature; given Wang et al.'s (2011) assertion that in spite of the constant calls to examine the potential mechanisms through which leadership behaviors can affect employee and organizational outcomes, little research has been forthcoming. Thus, this study's findings can deepen understanding of the nature of the relationship between OCB and leadership behaviors in Sub-Saharan Africa. Moreover, majority of the previous studies (e.g., Bilgin et al., 2015; Cho and Dansereau, 2010; Patiar and Wang, 2016; Park et al., 2013; Sechudi and Olivier, 2016) mainly focused on TFL behavior with less consideration of TSL behaviors, thereby making previous studies lack some comprehensiveness in that regard and hence making this work a welcome addition to the existing body of knowledge on the issues under discussion.

VI.   LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The use of cross-sectional data may serve as a limitation, as it makes it difficult to infer causality. In addition, this study focused only on employees of hospitality institutions, hence, its applications to other sectors particularly; non-service oriented organizations should be done with some caution. Furthermore, the use of purely quantitative research approach in the study of leadership behaviors and employee behaviors may limit the application of the findings.

      Based on the above research limitations, we recommend that future studies employ longitudinal data in the study of leadership behavior and employee OCB. Such studies should integrate qualitative methods with quantitative methods. They could also conduct comparative analysis of service-oriented and non-service oriented organizations as it has the potential to enhance our understanding of the topic. In spite of the above research limitations, the study contributes significantly to deepening stakeholders' understanding of the critical roles of leadership behaviors in eliciting desired employee behaviors and actions for improved performance and competiveness. It also makes significant extensions to the literature by proposing and empirically confirming job involvement as an important mechanism through which leadership behaviors can increase OCB among employees.

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