



Organizational Citizenship Behavior Among Employees of Public Higher Learning Institutions: The Role of Internal Corporate Social Responsibility

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ABSTRACT

This study was necessitated by the lack of research on internal corporate social responsibility (CSR) and organizational citizenship behavior among employees of higher learning institutions in Ghana, as well as the claim that employees of public higher learning institutions in Ghana lack commitment, motivation, trust, and engagement. The research focused on the impact of internal CSR on the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) of employees in public higher learning institutions in Ghana. Employees of public higher education institutions across the country were selected using stratified random and convenience sampling techniques. The data were analyzed using SEM, confirmatory, and exploratory factor analyses. The findings of the study showed that internal CSR has a significant role to play in the OCB of workers in public higher learning institutions in Ghana. Incentives and motivation, as well as organizational justice and fairness, were found to influence the employees' OCB. The study provides recommendations for management and stakeholders' strategic decisions.

KEYWORDS

Incentives and Motivation, Organizational Justice and Fairness, Public Institutions, Public Universities, Social Exchange Theory, Stakeholders, Structural Equation Modelling, Training and Development

INTRODUCTION

Every organization requires competent human resources. To accomplish their vision, purpose, and objectives, institutions, particularly public ones, must pay close attention to their human resource and organizational citizenship behavior. These actions are the main components that contribute to the overall productivity of employees within an organization. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) refers to employee behavior that is not part of a job description or a contract but is advantageous

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to the organization's success (Cek & Eyupoglu, 2020; Organ, 2015; Ocampo et al., 2018; Atatsi et al., 2021). Employees engage in them to help their colleagues and the institutions where they work (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020; Vázquez-Rodríguez et al., 2021).

OCB is classified by frequency and intensity (Ocampo et al., 2018; Organ, 2015). The frequency dimension is related to both the number of employees who exhibit certain behaviors and their frequency (Sypniewska, 2020; Organ, 2015). The intensity measures the employee's involvement in OCB and the nature of these behaviors (Glavas & Kelly, 2014). While it is true that workers do not exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors to be rewarded by their employers, some variables have been identified as being important in the manifestation of OCB among employees (Romaiha et al., 2019; Lavy, 2019). Some of the motivating factors of employee OCB are employee development and training, healthcare policy, organizational justice and fairness, and work-life balance (El-Garaihy et al., 2014; Lavy, 2019; Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020; Romaiha et al., 2019; Mallick et al., 2014; Ocampo et al., 2018; Rose et al., 2016; Somech & Ohayon, 2020; Sarasu et al., 2021).

Internal corporate social responsibility which aims to serve the needs of employees (Sacconi & Degli, 2009; Looor-Zambrano et al., 2022; George et al., 2020), may have a significant role to play in the OCB of employees. Internal CSR is found to improve employee motivation and happiness by knowing that employers care about their well-being. It is also found to encourage employees to exhibit behaviors critical to the organization's overall success (Sun & Yu, 2015; Chan et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2016; Almatrooshi et al., 2015).

Higher education institutions (HEIs) are vital to the socio-economic development of society and the well-being of citizens (Ahmed, 2021; Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2021; Atatsi et al., 2021). As a commercial concern, a higher learning institution creates strategic policies, structures, and processes to guarantee long-term success (Kromydas, 2017; Galvis, 2018). Employees, students, communities, governments, institutions, and partners are all stakeholders of HEIs. Higher education institutions have several corporate obligations (Jongbloed et al., 2008; Galvis, 2018; Valk & Kratovitš, 2021), however, the most important ones are the employees (Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2021). Thus, higher education's corporate social responsibility must benefit its workers more than any of the other stakeholders (Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2021; Atatsi et al., 2021; Cek & Eyupoglu, 2020).

Most public servants in Ghana have a bad reputation when it comes to their OCB (Atatsi et al., 2021; Sigman et al., 2019). Employees in public institutions in Ghana are said to lack the dedication, motivation, trust, and involvement needed to propel public institutions forward (Sigman et al., 2019). Sadly, similar attitudes and behaviors pervade all public tertiary institutions in Ghana. Higher education employees are renowned for their frequent strike actions, standoffs, and chronic tardiness (Atatsi et al., 2021).

Internal corporate social responsibility may have a major influence on these behaviors of workers. For instance, salaries and bad working conditions are seen as the precursor of all strike actions and other standoffs (Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2021; Atatsi et al., 2021). While several studies exist on internal corporate social responsibility in other service sectors, few studies are found on the relationship between internal corporate social responsibility and organizational citizenship behavior in higher educational institutions, creating a significant research vacuum (Atatsi et al., 2021; Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2021; Cek & Eyupoglu, 2020; Ahmed, 2021; Eyupoglu, 2016; Rose et al., 2016). Meanwhile, the few studies on internal corporate social responsibility in higher educational institutions have mostly been conducted in the West, with little research from emerging economies. On the other hand, the limited studies on internal corporate social responsibility in emerging economies have concentrated significantly on how internal CSR influences the performance of employees and organizations (Sun & Yu, 2015; Chan et al., 2020; Kim et al., 2016; Adu-Gyamfi, et al., 2021; Atatsi et al., 2021). This study empirically examines the effect of internal corporate social responsibility on the organizational citizenship behavior of employees of public higher learning institutions in Ghana.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review focuses on internal corporate social responsibility, employee organizational citizenship behavior, the study's hypotheses, and the empirical review of related work.

Internal Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Corporate social responsibility refers to the activities and policies of an organization that takes into account the needs of its stakeholders and the company's triple bottom line (Macassa et al., 2017; Cavazotte & Chang, 2016; Mory et al., 2016; Jung & Ali, 2017). Although the concept of corporate social responsibility may be different across organizations, corporate social responsibility is usually to reduce poverty, protect the environment, improve health, and improve education (Mory et al., 2016; Sun & Yu, 2015; Kim et al., 2016; Macassa et al., 2021; Jia et al., 2019). CSR involves social responsibility in an organization towards two different groups of people: those outside the company and those inside the company (Macassa et al., 2017; Jia et al., 2019). According to recent research (Luu, 2020; Ko et al., 2018; Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2021; He et al., 2019; George et al., 2020), firms must be equally engaged in both internal and external corporate social responsibility to achieve optimum performance (Sun & Yu, 2015). For businesses and academics alike, internal CSR has become an essential component to achieve success (Atatsi et al., 2021; Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2021).

Internal CSR refers to business organizations' efforts to satisfy employee needs (Kim et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2019; Luu, 2020; Ko et al., 2018; Chan et al., 2020; Sun & Yu, 2015). Providing excellent employee health and safety, guaranteeing employee growth and development, and enhancing organizational employee fairness are some examples (Cavazotte & Chang, 2016; Mory et al., 2016). Human resources such as training, development, and participation are all included in internal corporate social responsibility (Macassa et al., 2021). According to Obeidat et al. (2018), internal CSR is a stakeholder approach to fulfilling stakeholder demands and interests affected by the organization's operations. It is an action taken by an organization to improve the professional and personal lives of its employees, influencing their performance, productivity, and profitability. Employees will work harder to repay firms based on the notion of reciprocity (Jia et al., 2019; Chaudhary & Akhouri, 2018; El Akremi et al., 2018).

Dimensions of Internal CSR

- **Working environment:** Mory et al. (2016) defined internal CSR as dealing with workplace health and safety issues. According to Mugesani et al. (2017), a healthy workplace atmosphere reduces absenteeism and lowers health insurance rates. Sánchez-Hernández et al. (2021) argue that a healthy workplace creates a healthier workforce, and hence a healthier population. Sun and Yu (2015) posit that a healthy working environment is vital in the corporate sector to attract and retain quality personnel as well as develop a strong brand image. Chan et al., (2020) stressed that ensuring a healthy work environment benefits employee productivity.
- **Employee training and development:** Employee training and development is an organization's investment in creating a culture of continuous learning, assisting the workers in expanding their knowledge and sharing their thoughts (Mory et al., 2016a; Jia et al., 2019; Asfaw et al., 2015). Organizations that offer training and development programs for their employees, according to Kim et al. (2016), enjoy high levels of employee satisfaction and minimal employee turnover. Employee training and development, according to Nzeru et al. (2015), has become one of the most important human resource practices of organizations because of its significant positive impact on both employee and organizational performance.
- **Employee empowerment:** Employee empowerment is concerned with the well-being of employees (Cavazotte & Chang, 2016). It is defined as the extent to which a company allows its employees to choose their roles or responsibilities (Sun & Yu, 2015). Employee empowerment,

according to Adu-Gyamfi et al., (2021), has a significant impact on the actions of workers in an organization. Empowerment of employees improves employee knowledge and professional growth, enables employees to respond to customer needs, and create high-level performance goals (Nzeru et al., 2015; Mugesani et al., 2017; Flammer & Luo, 2017).

- **Incentives and motivation:** Widhianingrum (2018) describes incentives and motivation as rewards that are given to the employee to achieve performance. As a result, it is sometimes considered a stimulant to increase activity (Ogohi, 2019; Chan et al., 2020). Financial or non-financial rewards might be used as incentives and motivation (Widhianingrum, 2018; Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2021a; Macassa et al., 2021; Sánchez-Hernández et al., 2021). According to García-Izquierdo et al. (2012), incentives and motivation impact employees' sense of organizational justice and work satisfaction. In addition, incentives and motivation ensure employee job security, job promotion, and pride for accomplishment. Based on an extensive meta-analysis of 25 years of previous research that examined incentives and motivation and employee productivity, the argument that incentives and motivation undermine both motivation and employee productivity is refuted (García-Izquierdo et al., 2012; Sekhar et al., 2013; Ogohi, 2019).
- **Organizational justice and fairness:** Employees' perceptions of justice and fairness in an organization are referred to as organizational justice (Swalhi et al., 2017). Employees' perceptions of corporate policies and practices, such as perceived organizational support and organizational fairness, have been shown to influence the performance of employees (Mugesani et al., 2017). Organizational justice and fairness benefit both employees and the organization in areas such as job satisfaction, reduced employee stress levels, decreased employee absenteeism, and better levels of employee engagement (Asadullah et al., 2017; Swalhi et al., 2017; Pan et al., 2018; Mengstie, 2020). An organizational environment that is seen as unfair contributes to decreased employee performance and even spiteful behavior on the side of workers (Pan et al., 2018).

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

Organizational citizenship behavior refers to the voluntary, non-mandatory contributions workers make to their employers, whether or not they are required to do so (Organ, 2015). Organizational citizenship may be aimed toward a coworker or the organization itself. OCBs towards colleagues may include behaviors such as providing a ride home, suggesting ways to improve a colleague's job, and putting paper into the shared printer (Organ, 2015). Organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward a company by an employee include helping with the recruitment of suitable people for specific positions, making suggestions to improve workplace facilities, and working unpaid overtime (Eyupoglu, 2016; Ocampo et al., 2018). These are desirable behaviors are difficult to develop within traditional organizational structures (Chan et al., 2020).

Organ (2015) defined five aspects of OCB that serve as the basis for the creation of other dimensions of OCB. They are altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. According to Organ (2015), altruism is a selfless act of helping others. Organ (1988) defined conscientiousness as the degree of dedication to one's job above the legal requirements. Courtesy includes acts and attitudes aimed at avoiding problems and mitigating their potential effects (Organ, 1988; 2015). Civic virtue evaluates how workers feel connected to the business and how they embrace workplace responsibilities including working hard, participating, and caring for the company (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Organ, 2015). Organ (2015) defines sportsmanship as the behavior of happily tolerating the irritations that are unavoidable in an organization.

OCB in the Service Industry

OCB in the service sector is viewed as one of the critical components in human resource management in the twenty-first century (Dirican & Erdil, 2016). The service sector in the twenty-first century has been shown to concentrate more on OCB exhibited toward consumers than any other sort of OCB

analyzed (Ocampo et al., 2018). Dastyari and Shahabi (2014) state that one of the most essential factors in service firms is the quality of client service provided by employees. As a result, employees are a crucial part of any organization's overall success. Service quality may be improved by the level of trust shown in employees by clients, according to Dastyari and Shahabi (2014). OCB in the service sector has received a great deal of academic interest in the twenty-first century due to the rapid expansion of that sector (Ocampo et al., 2018). The present academic literature has shown that OCB has become a major focus in the private service sector such as banks and hotels (Ocampo et al., 2018). Although the academic sector has received some level of attention, it is very insignificant compared to the other service and non-service sectors.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Social Exchange Theory (SET)

This study is driven by the social exchange theory (SET). The social exchange theory postulate that individuals seeking to interact with society and the environment make cost-benefit evaluations (Jonason & Middleton, 2015). According to the theory an employee will engage in a behavior if the employee perceives to gain more from it than would lose (Ko & Hur, 2013). An employee will avoid an activity if the employee perceives the expense will outweigh the benefit (Elstad, et al., 2011; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As a result of its capability to ascertain the effect of one action on the other, the social exchange theory has been used by many researchers to measure the influence of organizations' policies and actions on their employees (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Elstad, et al., 2011; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In the area of internal CSR, the social exchange theory has been used to examine how workers perceive internal CSR and how it affects employees' attitudes (Ko & Hur, 2013). Using the social exchange theory, the study examines how employee training and development, incentives and motivation, and organizational justice and fairness, influence the OCB of employees.

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Employee Training, Development, and OCB

Training and development is the process of improving existing knowledge, skills, and abilities via workshops, seminars, conferences, and other activities (Mory et al., 2016; Jia et al., 2019; Asfaw et al., 2015). Employee training and development seek to improve employees' skills, knowledge, and attitudes (Eyupoglu, 2016). Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004) found that organizations with excellent learning opportunities and frameworks may encourage OCBs. Employers may help workers "internalize values of accurate information, transparency, problem orientation, and accountability" by providing the appropriate learning environment. Noor (2009) found that the training and development opportunities provided to teachers in a Pakistani University were related to their OCB. Similarly, Ahmed (2021) found a significant relationship between training and development and OCB in academic institutions in Saudi Arabia. Training and development may assist an employee to develop a service-oriented OCB (Krishnan et al., 2017). Based on the above assertions and results from previous studies the authors hypothesize that:

H1: Training and development of employees of public higher institutions in Ghana are related to organizational citizenship behavior.

Incentives and Motivation, and OCB

Employees who are less incentivized and motivated may feel unappreciated by their employers, affecting their OCB. Promoting excellent employees, on the other hand, may reduce OCB, particularly

if promotion is the main focus of the employees. Hui et al. (2000) and Kim et al. (2013) found that OCBs tend to diminish following a promotion, particularly when the individual feels that further progress is unlikely. Meanwhile, incentive and motivation such as promotions, training, remuneration, pay increase choices, performance evaluations, and material resources given to workers may influence their OCB, according to social exchange theory (Dulebohn et al., 2005; García-Izquierdo et al., 2012; Sekhar et al., 2013; Ogohi, 2019). Hence the second hypothesis of the study to be tested stresses that:

H2: Incentives and motivation in public higher institutions in Ghana are related to employees' organizational citizenship behavior.

Organizational Justice and Fairness, and OCB

Organizational fairness is a person's perception of and reaction to how an organization treats them (Lopez-Cabarcos et al., 2015). According to Greenberg (1993), if employees are treated fairly at work, they will act altruistically toward that organization. A fair employer, according to social exchange theory, would encourage employees to reciprocate by adopting positive attitudes and actions (Moorman & Byrne, 2005). Organizational justice has three components: distributive, procedural, and interactional (Asadullah et al., 2017; Swalhi et al., 2017; Pan et al., 2018; Mengstie, 2020). This study focuses on procedural justice, which is concerned with perceived fairness in the processes, policies, and programs in an organization (Asadullah et al., 2017; Swalhi et al., 2017; Pan et al., 2018; Mengstie, 2020). Treatment by superiors and peers seen as fair, equitable, and courteous is critical at public higher education institutions. Particularly at public higher education institutions, this view is likely to lead to OCB that benefits the overall organization (Chiaburu, 2007; Moorman & Byrne, 2005). Conversely, unfair treatment may force employees to engage in contractual economic exchange agreements, decreasing the probability of OCB in the workplace (Moorman & Byrne, 2005). The authors therefore hypothesize that:

H3: Organizational justice and fairness in public higher institutions in Ghana are related to employees' organizational citizenship behavior.

Figure 1 presents the model of the study.

Figure 1. The model of the study showing the relationship among the constructs



Empirical Review

Eyupoglu (2016) investigated the prevalence of OCB among academics at a private institution in North Cyprus. The academic staff displayed good organizational citizenship behavior toward the institution, according to the authors. Human resource elements such as motivation, employee training and development, salary and incentives, and other internal factors had a key impact on academic staff's OCB. Using a sample of public prison staff, Vázquez-Rodríguez et al. (2021) investigated how the combined impacts of organizational features, leadership behaviors, and individual characteristics result in the lack of OCB. The lack of emotional commitment, work satisfaction, and interactional justice was revealed to be a prerequisite for the absence of OCB.

Internal CSR and organizational commitment in the service industry in Vietnam were investigated by Thang and Fassin (2017). Internal CSR was found to have a positive significant relationship with corporate commitment. Labor relations, health and safety, and training and education all had a significant impact on organizational commitment, however, work-life balance and social conversation did not. Adu-Gyamfi et al. (2021) examined CSR's internal characteristics to see how they affected social performance at Ghana's higher education institutions. The authors focused on the impact of five internal CSR factors on social performance: health and safety, human rights, training and development, workplace diversity, and work-life balance. Health and safety, workplace diversity, and training and development all had a positive and significant influence on social performance. Human rights and work-life balance, on the other hand, had no significant impact on social performance.

Dirican and Erdil (2016) examined the association between academic staff's age, gender, position, and tenure, as well as their OCB and counterproductive work behavior. The study's participants were chosen from fifty public universities in Turkey. According to the findings, older academic staff had greater OCB and less counterproductive work behavior than younger employees. Furthermore, there was no difference in OCB directed against coworkers and the academic institution between men and women. Sun and Yu (2015) focused on how internal corporate social responsibility affects employee performance, using organizational commitment as a mediator. The study's subjects were drawn from Multan, Pakistan's service sector. Employee empowerment, training and development, work-life balance, and health and safety of internal CSR all had a significant positive influence on employee performance.

METHODOLOGY

Sample Size and Data Collection

The survey was conducted among employees of traditional and technical universities in Ghana. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), as well as structural equation model (SEM) was used to analyze the data for the study. CFA and SEM need a sample size of at least 150 observations, according to Anderson and Gerbing (1988). Hair et al. (2010) indicate that exploratory factor analysis requires a sample size of 100 or above. Large sample sizes are also required for factor analysis according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Based on these recommendations and also taking into consideration limited resources, this research selected 600 workers from Ghana's traditional and technical institutions, 300 from the former and 300 from the latter. Stratified sampling techniques of equal proportion and convenience sampling techniques were used to select the sample for the study.

Questionnaires were used to collect the data for the study. As a result of the pandemic, the questionnaires were distributed to the employees online, through their emails and WhatsApp. The self-administered method of data collection was applied in the survey. In all, a total of 530 questionnaires were filled out and returned. Out of this total number of returned questionnaires, 519 were found to be usable for the study. Hence, 519 questionnaires were used for the data analysis. This number represented a response rate of 86.5%, which is highly recommended for such a study. The high

response rate is justified by the fact that the data collection took a longer period – 4 months and also more follows were done. The demographic profile of the participants of the study is shown in Table 1.

Measures

The study's questionnaire was based on existing scale assessments of organizational citizenship behavior and internal corporate social responsibility. Internal corporate social responsibility of employees was assessed using 5 items (training and development) from Nguyen (2012), 10 items (incentives and motivation) from Dysvik et al. (2013), and 9 items (organizational justice and fairness) from Greenburg (1994). Four questions from King and Grace (2010) were used to assess the organizational citizenship behavior of the employees.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using IBM SPSS 21 and IBM AMOS 21 (IBM, Armonk, NY, USA). Exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and reliability analysis were performed to assess the scales' suitability. Hair et al. (2010) recommended evaluating the discriminant and convergent validities of all scales. Construct Reliability (CR) > 0.7 and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) > 0.5 were used to demonstrate reliability and convergent validity (see Table 6). A variety of fit indicators were employed to assess each scale's fit.

RESULTS

Demographic Profile

Table 1 shows the demographic profile of the participants of the study. A total of 519 employees of public higher learning institutions in Ghana participated in the study. Out of this total employees that participated in the study, 61.8% (321) were male and 38.2% (198) were female. The age profile of the participants of the study reveals that 15.4% (80) of the participants were less than 25 years, 37.4% (194) were between 25-34 years, 27.6% (143) were 35-44 years and 19.7% (102) were more than 45 years. The educational profile of the participants reveals that the majority (48.9%) of the participants of the study possessed a Master's Degree, 31.2% (162) possessed Ph.D., 15.8% (82) possessed Bachelor's Degree, and 4.0% (21) possessed other certificates. The tenure profile of the participants of the study reflects the fact that the survey was conducted among employees who had worked in higher education institutions for a long time and know the issues influencing their organizational citizenship behavior. The tenure profile of the participants of the study reveals that majority (46.4%) of the participants have been working in higher learning institutions for 10-20 years, while 27.2% (141) have been working in higher learning institutions for more than 20 years. A little over 26% of the participants of the study were found to have been working in higher learning institutions for less than 10 years. In terms of the participants' managerial role, the results of the study revealed that 22.4% (116) of the participants had a managerial role, while 77.6% (403) did not have any managerial role.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the study variables. Following the standard procedure, all items that were worded negatively were reversed, after which tests of normality, multicollinearity, and influential variables were tested and satisfied before proceeding to the parametric tests. As a result of this procedure, all outliers were spotted and consequently deleted from the data. The descriptive statistics of the data after all abnormalities have been dealt with are shown in Table 2. As shown in the table, all the variables were found to be normally distributed as indicated by the values of the skewness and kurtosis. Asymmetry and kurtosis values between -2 and +2 are acceptable for a normal univariate distribution (George & Mallery, 2010). Hair et al. (2010) and Byrne (2010) define normal data as having skewness between 2 and +2 and kurtosis between 7 and +7. The results of the

Table 1. Demographic profile of participants

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	321	61.8
Female	198	38.2
Age		
Less than 25 years	80	15.4
25-34 years	194	37.4
35-44 years	143	27.6
>45 years	102	19.7
Educational Level		
Ph.D.	162	31.2
Masters	254	48.9
Bachelors	82	15.8
Other	21	4.0
Tenure		
Below 10 years	137	26.4
10-20 years	241	46.4
Above 20 years	141	27.2
Managerial Role		
Yes	116	22.4
No	403	77.6

multicollinearity test, as indicated in the table, reveal that there is no issue of a high degree of linear intercorrelation between explanatory variables. As a rule of thumb, a variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance values greater than 5 to 10 and lower than 0.1 to 0.2 respectively, indicate a problematic amount of collinearity (Kim, 2019). Meanwhile, the mean and the standard deviation values of the variables indicate that the participants were highly in agreement with most of the scaled items.

Table 3 shows the correlation among the constructs. The results show that there is a correlation between organizational citizenship behavior, which is the outcome variable, and training and development ($r = .202, p < .05$), organizational justice and fairness ($r = .403, p < .05$), and incentives and motivation ($r = .324, p < .05$). The correlation among the predictor variables indicates a weak to mild correlation, supporting the lack of multicollinearity among the predictor variables. Among the control variables, gender is the only variable found to have a significant correlation with all the constructs (organizational citizenship behavior, training and development, organizational justice and fairness, and incentives and motivation).

Exploratory Factor Analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on two main constructs – organizational citizenship behavior, and internal corporate social responsibility. The internal corporate social responsibility construct was further split into three – Training and development (5 items), organizational justice and fairness (9 items), and incentives and motivation (10 items). Organizational citizenship behavior had four items. The EFA was performed to identify the dimensions of all these four constructs. The

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of study variables

Variables	Mean	SD.	Min.	Max.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Tolerance	VIF
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	4.37	0.68	1.67	5.00	-1.139	2.032	-	-
OCB2	4.37	.70	1.00	5.00	-1.51	1.56		
OCB3	4.34	.76	1.00	5.00	-1.64	1.41		
OCB4	4.39	.63	1.00	5.00	-1.00	1.00		
Training and Development	4.11	0.93	1.25	5.00	-1.233	1.408	.900	1.112
TD1	4.17	.94	1.00	5.00	-1.58	1.55		
TD2	4.09	1.02	1.00	5.00	-1.35	1.42		
TD4	4.13	.93	1.00	5.00	-1.54	1.05		
TD5	4.04	1.10	1.00	5.00	-1.50	1.79		
Organizational Justice and Fairness	4.33	0.52	1.50	5.00	-2.121	6.921	.638	1.566
OJS6	4.33	.67	1.00	5.00	-1.23	1.88		
OJS7	4.31	.78	1.00	5.00	-1.29	1.06		
OJS8	4.29	.73	1.00	5.00	-1.34	1.30		
Incentives and Motivation	4.02	1.01	1.00	5.00	-1.606	1.413	.673	1.485
IM7	4.08	1.03	1.00	5.00	-1.38	1.56		
IM8	4.06	1.11	1.00	5.00	-1.30	0.95		
IM9	3.92	1.22	1.00	5.00	-1.23	0.50		
IM10	4.01	1.12	1.00	5.00	-1.30	1.00		

Table 3. Correlation among constructs

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
(1) Gender	1								
(2) Age	-.040	1							
(3) Education	.013	.156**	1						
(4) Tenure	-.068	-.103*	-.019	1					
(5) Managerial Role	.021	-.068	.145**	.391**	1				
(6) Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	.156**	.000	.054	.036	.074	1			
(7) Training and Development	.107*	-.037	.011	.066	.032	.202**	1		
(8) Organizational Justice and Fairness	.169**	.027	.059	-.018	.096*	.403**	.313**	1	
(9) Incentives and Motivation	.141**	.035	.020	.000	.064	.324**	.220**	.570**	1

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

EFA using Promax with Kaiser Normalization rotation method and principal component analysis method was applied to identify the dimensions of the constructs. The dataset was further evaluated using Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. To evaluate the suitability of performing factor analysis on the data set, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was used. The population correlation matrix variables should be uncorrelated for an EFA, therefore the Bartlett test of sphericity is employed to test this claim. Items that did not have significant factor loading on any construct (<0.30), those with significant loadings on two or more factors, and those with low communalities (0.30) were deleted. In the first EFA, one item was deleted from the organizational citizenship behavior construct, as well as from the training and development construct. On the other hand, six items were deleted from organizational justice and fairness, as also incentives and motivation constructs. In the next EFA, all the items fell into the acceptance criteria and converged into the four main constructs.

The final results of the EFA, as shown in Table 4, reveal that 82.493% of the total variance was explained by the constructs. Communalities based on eigenvalue of 1 and factor loadings ranged between 0.617 and 0.973 and between 0.769 and 0.996, respectively. The results of the KMO (KMO = 0.848) test show that there is strong evidence of factorability. If the calculated KMO value is higher than or equal to .60, then there is adequate evidence that the observed variables are influenced by at least one common factor, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). This result, therefore, shows that there is strong factorability and support for the usage of EFA. On the other hand, Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant with a p -value=0.000, which supports the hypothesis that the population correlation matrix variables are uncorrelated for an EFA.

Table 4. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results of Constructs

Construct and items	CV	FL	VE	Construct Factorability
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour			14.862	KMO = .848 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square = 7308.748, df=91, p-value=.000
OCB2	.617	.995		
OCB3	.625	.930		
OCB4	.665	.996		
Training and Development			40.299	
TD1	.789	.965		
TD2	.812	.890		
TD4	.818	.955		
TD5	.820	.904		
Organizational Justice and Fairness			7.274	
OJS6	.845	.785		
OJS7	.871	.821		
OJS8	.894	.769		
Incentives and Motivation			20.058	
IM7	.911	.902		
IM8	.940	.927		
IM9	.968	.859		
IM10	.973	.930		

Notes: CV: Communality value; FL – Factor loading; KMO – Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin; VE – Variance explained

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on all four constructs to assess and validate measurement models. Goodness-of-fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker–Lewis index (TLI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and other model fit indices were computed to determine the appropriateness and the fitness of the constructs. Table 5 shows the results of the confirmatory factor analysis. The results of the CFA of all the constructs were found to be excellently fitted. This result was achieved after common method bias was examined and corrected.

Reliability and Validity

Using a validation method typical to the field, the measurement construct was subjected to the examination of reliability and validity. The reliability of all the constructs was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability scores. The construct is considered reliable when the Cronbach's alpha score and composite reliability score are above the recommended cut-off of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010). Table 6 shows the results of the reliability and validity of the constructs. As indicated in the table, composite reliability scores and Cronbach's alpha values of all the constructs were found to meet the threshold criterion. Hence, the reliability of all the scales got established. Furthermore, all constructs were tested for convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is supported if the average variance extracted (AVE) estimates for each underlying construct exceed 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010). Discriminant validity on the other hand is established when the shared variance between any two constructs is less than the square root of the AVE by the items measuring the construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results as shown in Table 6 shows that there is strong evidence of convergent validity as well as discriminant validity among the constructs. Meanwhile, evidence of strong discriminant validity of the constructs is also evidenced in the maximum shared variance (MSV) estimates. Discriminant validity is established when the maximum shared variance is less than the average variance extracted (Gaskin & Lim, 2016).

Common Method Bias

Survey research is prone to common method bias (CMB), according to most experts (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Bias may be controlled procedurally and statistically, according to Podsakoff et al. (2012). In the analysis, both methods were used. Protection of participants' anonymity, minimization of

Table 5. Model fit indices of confirmatory factor analysis

Measure	Estimate	Threshold ¹	Interpretation
CMIN	116.934	--	--
DF	57	--	--
CMIN/DF	2.051	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI	0.992	>0.95	Excellent
SRMR	0.025	<0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.045	<0.08	Excellent
GFI	0.970	>0.95	Excellent
AGFI	0.944	>0.80	Excellent
NFI	0.984	>0.95	Excellent
TLI	0.987	>0.90	Excellent
PClose	0.746	>0.05	Excellent

Note: ¹ Hair et al. (2010); Gaskin & Lim (2016)

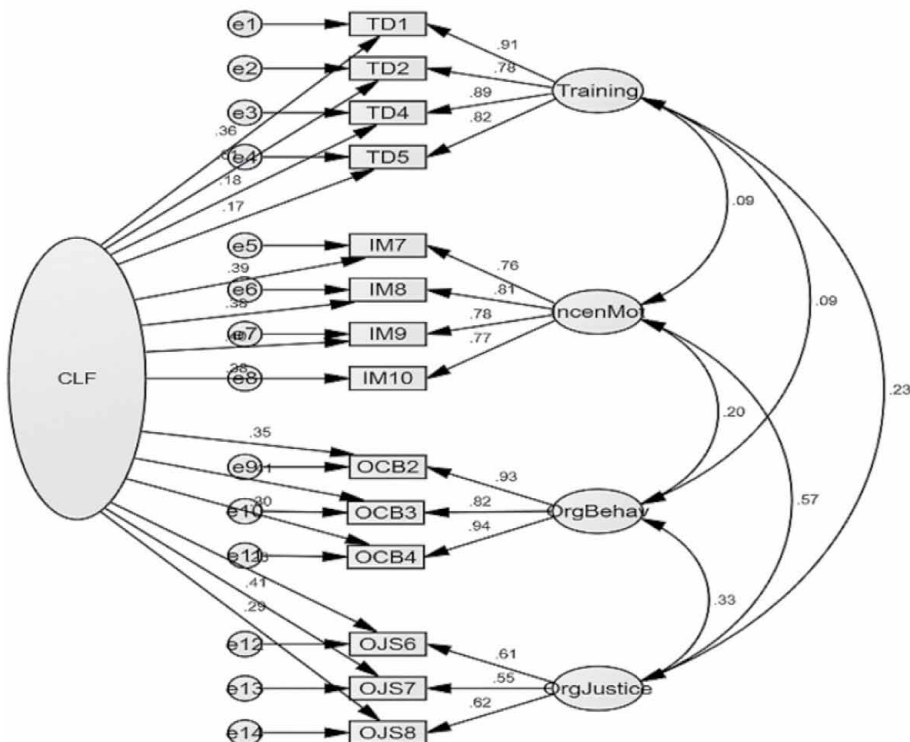
Table 6. Reliability and validity of constructs

Constructs	α value	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
(1) OCB	0.970	0.926	0.807	0.109	0.943	0.898*			
(2) Training and Development	0.944	0.913	0.724	0.055	0.923	0.086	0.851*		
(3) Incentives and Motivation	0.708	0.863	0.613	0.321	0.865	0.204	0.086	0.783*	
(4) Organizational Justice and Fairness	0.926	0.719	0.552	0.321	0.621	0.330	0.234	0.567	0.742*

Note: CR – Composite reliability; AVE – Average variance extracted; *Values in the diagonal of the correlation matrix are the square root of AVE; MSV – Maximum shared variance; MaxR(H) – Maximum reliability

participants' anxiety, improvement of scale item wording, and differentiation of variables (predictors and outcomes) were all implemented throughout the procedures. As recommended by Archimi et al. (2018), the statistical remedy was implemented using the common latent factor (CLF) technique. By simply adding a latent component to the CFA model, Archimi et al. (2018) proposed connecting it to all observed items. Then compare the model's standardized regression weights to those of a model without CLF. However, if the discrepancies are significant, the CLF is kept and the factor score is imputed (Gaskin & Kim, 2016). The common method test was conducted by comparing the unconstrained common latent model to the fully zero constrained common latent factor model. Figure 2 shows the CLF model of the CMB. The results of the chi-squared test $\chi^2 = 169.774$, $df = 14$, $p < .000$

Figure 2. Common method bias analysis model



indicated the existence of substantial variance in the model. The chi-squared test result revealed a significant shared variance, hence the CLF was retained and factor scores were imputed for the analysis.

Hypotheses Testing – Model Path Analysis of Structural Equation Model

In the structural equation model analysis, all the path coefficients were estimated. The results of the structural model are found to fit well based on the overall model fit indices:

$$\chi^2_{(1)} = 1.297; p < .000; CFI = 0.99; SRMR = 0.015; RMSEA = 0.024; CMIN/DF = 1.297; PClose = 0.511$$

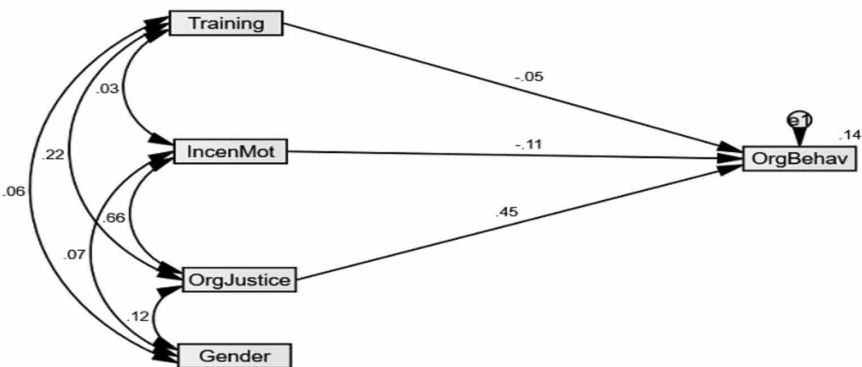
Overall, the hypothesized structural equation model did reasonably well in explaining the variance ($R^2_{(OCB)} = 14\%$). Table 7 shows the path analysis of the structural model relating to the hypotheses of the study. Hypothesis 1 stated that the training and development of employees of public higher institutions in Ghana are related to organizational citizenship behavior. This hypothesis is not supported ($\beta = -.039, p > .05$). Hypothesis 2 stated that incentives and motivation of employees in public higher institutions in Ghana are related to organizational citizenship behavior. This hypothesis is supported ($\beta = .091, p < .10$). Hypothesis 3 stated that organizational justice and fairness of employees in public higher institutions in Ghana are related to organizational citizenship behavior. This hypothesis is supported ($\beta = .855, p < .01$). Figure 3 shows the structural equation model.

Table 7. Results of the hypotheses of the study

	Path			Estimate (β)	S.E.	C.R.	Sig.	Label
H1	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	<---	Training and Development	-.039	.033	-1.189	.235	Not Supported
H2	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	<---	Incentives and Motivation	-.091	.047	-1.928	.054*	Supported
H3	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	<---	Organizational Justice	.855	.107	8.008	.000***	Supported

Note: β = standardized beta coefficients; S.E. = standard error; C.R. = critical ratio; * $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$ Sig=significance value (p-value)

Figure 3. Structural equation model and path analysis



DISCUSSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The study examined the effect of internal corporate social responsibility on the organizational citizenship behavior of employees of public higher learning institutions in Ghana. The study has revealed that organizational justice and fairness have a significant impact on the organizational citizenship behavior of employees in public higher learning institutions in Ghana. The organizational justice and fairness in public higher learning institutions are seen by the employees as the most significant factor in their organizational citizenship behavior. This finding is consistent with previous studies, which have shown that organizational justice and fairness have a significant effect on employee engagement, organizational commitment, and job performance (Asadullah et al., 2017; Swalhi et al., 2017; Pan et al., 2018; Mengstie, 2020). Vázquez-Rodríguez et al. (2021) found that the absence of interactional justice was the necessary condition for the absence of OCB. In Ghana, working conditions to a large extent are established by the state and as a result, employees expect that such conditions are applied in a fair and just manner. At the organizational level, any unjust and unfairness in the implementation of those working conditions is met with negative organizational citizenship behavior of different kinds. At the state level, employees in public higher learning institutions are of the view that the resources of the state belong to every citizen of the country, as a result, any unjust and unfair treatment of public employees should not be entertained. Such unjust and unfair treatment has led to the several strike actions and stand-offs between the government and the workers at the public tertiary institutions in Ghana (Chiaburu, 2007; Moorman & Byrne, 2005).

The result of the present study has also indicated that incentives and motivation have a negative effect on the organizational citizenship behavior of employees in public higher learning institutions in Ghana. Two main reasons could account for this findings. The first is that incentives and motivation, such as promotion, may result in a decrease in OCB when employees feel that there is no room for further promotion or improvement (Hui et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2013). A reasonable proportion of the employees in the public higher learning institutions in Ghana were found to possess Ph.D. and Master's Degree. They may therefore feel that they do not have many other opportunities for further incentives and motivation packages, since they already enjoy almost all the existing incentive and motivation packages. The second reason is that incentives and motivation packages in public higher learning institutions in Ghana are very inadequate. Hence, employees do not feel that these incentives and motivation packages have any major significant positive effect on their organizational citizenship behavior. This is likely to be the case as the beta estimates show that although there is a negative effect of incentives and motivation on OCB, the beta coefficient is very small, and is only significant at the level of 10 percent. This implies that a future increase in these incentives and motivation packages could lead to a positive impact on OCB among the employees. This result is however inconsistent with findings in the literature which have shown that incentives and motivation have a significant effect on employee behaviors and job outcomes (Widhianingrum, 2018; Macassa et al., 2021; Sánchez-Hernández et al., 2021; García-Izquierdo et al., 2012). However, the result supports the claim that incentives and motivation undermine both motivation and employee productivity (Deci et al., 1999).

The results of the study revealed that training and development have no significant effect on the organizational citizenship behavior among the employees at the public higher learning institutions in Ghana. This result is also inconsistent with previous research that training and development have a significant effect on the behavior and job outcomes of employees (Eyupoglu, 2016; Thang & Fassin, 2017; Adu-Gyamfi et al., 2021; Dirican & Erdil, 2016; Sun & Yu, 2015).

The present study provides significant theoretical and managerial implications for creating and providing a conducive working environment in public higher learning institutions in Ghana and also ensuring organizational citizenship behavior. First, the study adds to the growing body of literature on internal corporate social responsibility and organizational behavior in public higher learning institutions. Unlike many other studies, this study has established that internal corporate social responsibility is related to organizational citizenship behavior in two dimensions, incentives

and motivation, and organizational justice and fairness. More attention to these dimensions will motivate employees in public higher learning institutions, especially those in Ghana, to exhibit positive organizational citizenship behavior for organizational success.

The study also provides significant managerial implications to strengthen the impact of internal corporate social responsibility on organizational citizenship behavior among employees of public higher learning institutions in Ghana. Management of public higher learning institutions, governments, fair wages, and salaries commission, and various stakeholders of public higher learning institutions should pay more than the usual attention to incentives and motivation as well as organizational justice and fairness to help resolve the issue of frequent strike actions and negative OCB among employees in public higher learning institutions in Ghana.

CONCLUSION

A review of literature on internal corporate social responsibility had revealed that a few research works on internal corporate social responsibility and organizational citizenship behavior in public higher learning institutions in emerging economies have been conducted. In Ghana, no research was found in the literature examining the internal corporate social responsibility and organizational citizenship behavior among employees in higher learning institutions. To fill out this gap, this study examined the effect of internal corporate social responsibility on the organizational citizenship behavior of employees of public higher learning institutions in Ghana. Three main internal corporate social responsibilities – employee training and development, incentives and motivation, and organizational justice and fairness, that were found in the literature to likely have an effect on employees' OCB were examined. In this study, training and development were found to have no significant effect on the OCB of employees in public higher learning institutions in Ghana. This lack of significant effect is not surprising because employees may be feeling that training and development in public higher learning institutions in Ghana are not enough. The results of the study on the other hand indicate that incentives and motivation, as well as organizational justice and fairness, have a significant effect on employees' OCB. The implication of this result is that incentives and motivation, as well as organizational justice and fairness, should be of keen interest to management, governments, and various stakeholders of public higher learning institutions in Ghana.

Limitations and Future Research

In the effort to examine the effect of internal corporate social responsibility on the organizational citizenship behavior of employees in public higher learning institutions in Ghana, certain limitations were encountered. The first limitation encountered in the present study is that the study examined only three components of internal corporate social responsibility – training and development, incentives and motivation, and organizational justice and fairness. In the future, it would be beneficial to examine other internal corporate social responsibilities that could also impact the organizational citizenship behavior of employees in public higher learning institutions in Ghana. Secondly, although internal corporate social responsibility is found in public higher learning, this study was limited to only public higher learning institutions in Ghana. Future studies could be carried out to examine the organizational citizenship behavior among employees in private higher learning institutions in Ghana, to further stimulate theoretical development as well as furnish potentially valuable decision strategies to management, government, and various stakeholders of higher learning institutions in Ghana. Thirdly, because certain specific internal corporate social responsibility (incentives and motivation, and organizational justice and fairness) affects organizational citizenship behavior, future research can be extended to establish the impact of these components of internal corporate social responsibility on employee and organizational performance of public higher learning institutions in Ghana. Further, a Ghanaian sample was used in this research; hence, results need to be generalized across different countries for stronger validation and application of the results.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors of this publication declare there is no conflict of interest.

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