

**PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP-BEHAVIOUR AND  
PERSONALITY FACTORS AS PREDICTORS OF  
JOB-BEHAVIOURS AMONG NIGERIAN WORKERS**

By

**Gabriel Aunde AKINBODE**  
(*NCE, B.Sc Ed, M.Ed, M.Sc Psychology*)  
(900302047)

.....

Being a thesis submitted to the School of Postgraduate Studies,  
University of Lagos in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the  
award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) in Psychology

**SUPERVISORS:**  
Dr. O.B. Fagbohunbe  
Dr. (Mrs). K.O. Ayenibiwo

**MARCH 2011**

**SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES  
UNIVERSITY OF LAGOS**

*CERTIFICATION*

This is to certify that the Thesis:

**“PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP-BEHAVIOUR AND PERSONALITY  
FACTORS AS PREDICTORS OF JOB-BEHAVIOURS AMONG  
NIGERIAN WORKERS.”**

Submitted to the  
School of Postgraduate Studies  
University of Lagos

For the award of the degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (Ph.D)  
is a record of original research carried out

by

**Gabriel Aunde AKINBODE**  
In the Department of Psychology

SUPERVISORS  
Dr. O.B. FAGBOHUNGBE  
Dr. K.O AYENIBIOWO

**MARCH 2011**

## **DEDICATION**

Dedicated to the Glory of  
Almighty God  
The Author and Giver of Life

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the following people, for without their guidance support and encouragement, this research would not have been possible. Firstly, my supervisors Professor Nwagbo Eze (Rtd.) for providing the much needed emotional and material support. Secondly, Dr. O.B Fagbohunge, Dr (Mrs.) K.O. Ayenibiowo, whose supervision, wisdom, knowledge and guidance have enriched the quality of this study. The combination of their areas of expertise not only ensured all-round support throughout the entire study, but also enhanced the quality of this thesis. They were always available to me despite their own hectic schedules. I am eternally grateful for their constant support and encouragement. This study is truly the direct results of informed suggestions, and painstaking and constructive criticism from erudite scholars in the department of psychology, namely; Professor K.A Oguntuashe, Professor O.O.A. Makanju, Professor G.A Sote, Professor B.A Folarin, Late Professor P.F. Omoluabi, Dr. Ibi Agiobu-Kemmer, Dr. (Mrs) E.F Akinsola, and Dr. Femi Akintayo, all whose thoughtful criticism at different times helped to focus the study properly. I also appreciate the moral support of my noble friends and colleagues: Mr. Ayodeji (Brother), Mr. Femi Lawal, Mrs A. Ojo, Mrs U.N Israel. Dr. (Mrs) Jane Agbu, Dr. Charles Umeh. I am also grateful to my External Examiner, Prof. Funmi Togonu-Bickersteth for her thoughtful and constructive criticism, as well as proffering direction to solutions where needed.

I wish to appreciate the support of the following who have in one way or another helped with data collection: Mr. Folorunso of the (Federal Ministry of Works and Housing; Dn. O.B Amoran and Mrs J.U Ogbonna of the Federal Ministry of Education; Mr and Mrs Oladapo (Nipost HQs Lagos), Mr Femi Odediran (Express Discount, Lagos), Mr. Okufuwa (The Guradian, Lagos HQs office), Mrs B. Okunola (WEMA Bank, HQ, Lagos), Mr. F. Monye (Zenith Bank, HQs Lagos), Mr. Gbolahan Olowude (IGI HQs, Lagos), Mrs E. Giwa (Cornerstone Insurance, HQs Lagos), Mr. Afolabi Moses (OASIS Insurance, HQs Lagos), Mr Wola Ojo (Nigerian Security Printinting and Minting, Lagos Office) and Mr. K. Odukoya (UBA, HQs Lagos).

I am thankful to my wonderful wife Mrs. A Akinbode, and my children Esther, Hezekiah, Deborah and Dorcas for their perseverance and patience; and for allowing me to pursue my passion. Their unwavering support, encouragement and understanding were the tonic I needed to succeed. I appreciate you all for your faith in me. Deserving special mention is my mother Mrs. Comfort. A Akinbode, Revd. & Mrs. J.O. Akintayo and Revd. A O. Morawo for their prayers.

Finally, I am grateful to the School of Postgraduate Studies for the Graduate Fellowship Awards I received during the period of this study.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title Page	i
Certification	ii
Dedication	iii
Acknowledgement	iv
Table of contents	v
List of Tables and Figure	viii
Abstract	ix

### CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1	Background to the Study	1
1.1.1	Organisational Commitment	4
1.1.2	Job Involvement	6
1.1.3	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)	8
1.2	Understanding Leadership Behaviour and Workplace Behaviour	13
1.2.1	What is Leadership?	13
1.3	Understanding Personality and Workplace Behaviour	16
1.3.1	What is personality?	16
1.4	Statement of the Problem.	19
1.5	Aim and Objectives of the Study	21
1.6	Research Questions	22
1.7	Research Hypotheses	23
1.8	Significance of the study	24
1.9	Scope of the Study	25
1.10	Operational Definitions of Variables	25

### CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

2.1	Theoretical Review	30
2.1.1	Trait Theory of Leadership	31
2.2	Behavioural Theories of Leadership	34
2.2.1	The Role Theory	34
2.2.2	McGregor, (1960)'s Theory X and Y	36
2.2.3	Tannenbaum's Flexibility-Sensitivity Theory	37
2.2.4	Initiation of Structure and Consideration Theory	37
2.2.5	Employee Orientation and Production Orientation Theory	39
2.2.6	Blake-Mouton Managerial Grid (1964) theory	39
2.3	Participative Leadership Theories	42
2.3.1	Lewin's Leadership Model	43
2.3.2	Likert's Leadership Model	44
2.3.3	Situational Theories of Leadership	45
2.3.4	Hersey and Blanchard Life-Cycle Theory	47
2.3.5	Vroom and Yetton's Normative Model	50
2.3.6	House's Path-Goal Theory of Leadership	52
2.4	Contingency Theories	54
2.4.1	Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Theory	54

2.4.2	Transactional Leadership Theories	57
2.4.3	Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory	57
2.4.4	Transformational Leadership Theory	59
2.4.5	Bass's Transformational Leadership Theory	60
2.4.6	Burns' Transformational Leadership Theory	62
2.4.7	Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Challenge Hypothesis	64
2.4.8	Max Weber's Social Action Theory	65
2.5	Theories of Personality and Workplace Behaviour	66
2.5.1	The Trait Theories of Personality	67
2.6	Conceptual Framework	75
2.7	Theoretical Framework for the Study	76
2.7.1	Path-Goal Theory (House, 1971)	77
2.7.2	Cognitive Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977)	78
2.7.3	Mead (1934)'s Symbolic Interaction Theory	79
2.7.4	Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory	82
2.8	Empirical Review	84
2.8.1	Leadership-Behaviour and Organisational Commitment	84
2.8.2	Leadership-behaviour and Job involvement	91
2.8.3	Leadership-Behaviour and OCB	92
2.9.	Personality and Workplace behaviours	94
2.9.1	Personality and Organisational Commitment	96
2.9.2	Personality and Job Involvement	98
2.9.3	Personality and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	103
2.10	Subordinate Personality and Perception of Leader Influence Behaviour	107

### **CHAPTER THREE: METHOD**

3.1	Phase 1: Development of Leadership Behaviour Description Inventory	108
3.1.1	Study Location	108
3.1.2	Sample Selection and Characteristics	108
3.1.3	Design	109
3.1.4	Instruments	109
3.1.5	Procedure	110
3.1.6	Trial Testing of LBD-Inventory	111
3.1.7	Scoring	111
3.1.8	Exploratory Factor Analysis	111
3.2	Phase 2	112
3.2.1	Study 1: Validation of the New LBD-Inventory	112
3.2.2	Study Location	113
3.2.3	Participants	
3.2.4	Design	113
3.2.5	Instruments	113
3.2.6	Training of Research Assistants	114
3.2.7	Procedure	114
3.3	Phase 2: Study 2: Prediction of Job-Behaviours	115
3.3.1	Research Setting	
3.3.2	Population	115
3.3.3	Participants	115
3.3.4	Sampling Technique	116
3.3.5	Research Design	118
3.3.6	Instruments	118
<b>3.3.7</b>	<b>Scoring of each instrument</b>	<b>120</b>

3.3.8	Procedure	122
3.4	Data Analysis	123

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS**

4.1	Development and Validation of LBD—35	124
4.2	PHASE 2: Study 2 Prediction of Job-Behaviour	129
4.3	Hypotheses Testing:	135

## **CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION** 145

## **CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION**

6.1	Conclusion	159
6.2	Summary of Findings	161
6.3	Implications of findings	164
6.4	Limitations and Future Directions	166
6.5	Recommendations	167
6.6	Contributions to knowledge	168

## **REFERENCES** 169

## **APPENDIXES** 194

## LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURE

Table 2.1	Summaries of Sampled Organisations and Sampling Techniques	115
Table 2.2	Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	115
Table 3:	Mean and Standard Deviations of the Scores of Participants on the LBD-35	122
Table 4:	Correlations between Leadership-Behaviour Dimensions and Measures of Similar Behaviour, Theoretically Related Behaviour.	124
Table 5:	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	124
Table 5.1:	Total Variance of the Factors in Scale (LBD-35)	125
Table 5.2	Items, Communalities and Their Factor Loadings (Rotation = Varimax)	126
Table 6:	Percentage Incidence of Five-Dimensional Leadership Behaviour among Workers	127
Table 7:	Percentage Incidence of Big-Five Personality Factors among Workers	129
Table 8:	The Mean and Standard Deviation of Scores of Participants Dependent Measures	130
Table 9:	Summary of Inter-correlation of Measures	132
Table 10:	Summary of Pearson's 'r' inter-correlation matrix of leadership-behaviours and subordinates organizational commitment (N = 504)	134
Table: 10.1:	Summary of multiple regression analyses showing the independent and joint prediction of leadership behaviour on organizational commitment	134
Table 11:	Summary of Pearson 'r' inter-correlation matrix of leadership-behaviours and subordinates job involvement. (N = 504).	135
Table 11.1:	Summary of multiple regression analysis showing the independent and joint prediction of leadership behaviour on organisational involvement	136
Table 12:	Summary of Pearson's 'r' inter-correlation matrix of leadership-behaviours and subordinates OCB (N = 504)	137
Table 12.1:	Summary of Multiple regression analysis showing the independent and joint prediction of leadership behaviour on OCB	137
Table 13:	Summary of Pearson's 'r' inter-correlation matrix of personality factors and sub-ordinate organizational commitment	138
Table 13.1:	Summary of multiple regression analysis showing the independent and joint prediction of personality factors on organizational commitment	139
Table 14:	Summary of Pearson's 'r' inter-correlation matrix of personality factors and sub-ordinates organisational involvement.	140
Table 14.1	Summary of multiple regression analysis showing the independent and joint prediction of Big-Five personality factors on organisational involvement	140
Table 15:	Summary of Pearson's 'r' inter-correlation matrix of personality factors and sub-ordinates OCB (N = 504)	141
Table 15.1:	Summary of multiple regression analysis showing the independent and joint prediction of personality factors on OCB	142
Table 16:	Summary of MANOVA Results	143
Figure 1:	Perceived leadership-subordinate personality model of job behaviour	75



## Abstract

*The study examined perceived leadership-behaviour and personality factors as predictors of job-behaviours among Nigerian workers. Employees' perceptions constituted the central features of a model underlying the study, as they were believed to be related to the individual level of change outcomes. A sample of 8 work group comprising 504 employees (made up of 285 males and 219 females) drawn from human service oriented private and public sectors participated in the study. Precisely, 249 and 255 of these workers were drawn from private sector and public sector organizations, respectively. Participants' job tenures ranged from 1-18 years, with a mean tenure of 8.4 years and their age ranged between 24 to 59 years.*

*The study was carried out in two stages, using survey design. The first phase was the development and validation of a leadership-behaviour description scale (LBD-35). The second stage involved the determination of the relationships among perceived leadership-behaviour, personality factors and job-behaviours. It was hypothesized that (i) LBD-35 will be reliable and valid. (ii) Worker's perceptions of leadership-behaviours will significantly predict organisational commitment, organisational involvement and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). (iii) Personality factors of extraversion, conscientiousness and openness to experience would significantly predict organisational commitment, job involvement and OCB. The participants responded to LBD-35 (the new instrument), Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (SBDQ), Big-Five Inventory (BFI), Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS), Job Involvement Scale (JIS), Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS). The data collected were analyzed using correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA).*

*Result obtained showed that: (i) the newly developed test (LBD-35) was found to be reliable and valid by having high reliability and validity coefficients. (ii) Interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership-behaviour had significant positive correlations with organisational commitment constructs and OCB. (iii) interpersonal relations significantly contributed 19.3% to the observed variance in organisational commitment. (iv) interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership-behaviour contributed about 10.9 % of the observed variance in OCB. (v) extroversion and openness to experience correlated positively with OCB ( $r = .148$ ).*

(vi) extroversion significantly contributed 22.5% to the observed variance in OCB. (vii) autocratic leadership-behaviour was found to be counter-productive to workers organisational commitment, OCB and organisational involvement, but it is capable of promoting organisational involvement among extroverted workers. (viii) interaction between interpersonal relations and extraversion, as well as interaction between emancipatory leadership-behaviour and extraversion was significant on job involvement and OCB respectively.

Based on the findings recommendations were made one of which is that team building programmes should be instituted to stimulate and encourage high-quality boss-subordinate/co-workers relationships. Implications for the research and practice of human resource management and industrial-organizational performance were discussed.

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background to the Study

As twenty-first century vista of knowledge continues, life at work continues to change in many ways. Competitive organisational environments, demographically diverse workforces, technological advances and unending wave of newness, are just few of those changes. These changes increasingly require flexibility and excellence from workers, because availability of equipment and machines in any work setting no longer guarantee performance (Helgesen, 1990). Performance requires among other things; functional leadership, knowledge, skills, abilities and other human characteristics that all workers should possess for optimal organisational functioning (Limerick, 1992). In the light of seeming declining organisational effectiveness that is ravaging private and public sector work, how can excellence from employees be encouraged? Even though there are many aspects of an employee's work life that may contribute to performance, one of the most important concerns is the relationship between employees and their managers/supervisors. Specifically, the manner in which managers/supervisors ask employees to undertake tasks may result in critical differences in employees' performance, commitment and involvement. As part of human characteristics, every man is endowed with certain measure of dispositional tendencies which are wrapped-up in our personality (Fagbohunbe & Longe, 2003). These tendencies unfold as human beings continue to interact. The tendency to demonstrate appropriate behaviour in any social interaction therefore depends strongly on the quality of the interaction. In work setting for example, the individual chooses to identify with his job, and demonstrate absolute loyalty or withhold appropriate behaviour, depending on the perception of the quality of psychological relationship between him, colleagues and particularly his superior/manager.

Two lines of past research lead to the belief that supervisory influencing behaviours and subordinates' personality factors exert their effects on employee's job outcomes. Firstly, that it is not the overt influence behaviour of supervisors that results in different job outcomes in workers; rather the 'meanings' of the supervisory influencing tactics are important for predicting job outcomes in workers (Morrison, Jones & Fuller, 1997). How do employees interpret the influencing behaviours of their supervisors? How do these interpretations relate to job outcomes such as commitment, involvement and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), or emotional distress? (Endler & Magnusson, 1976; Fagbemi, 1981; Morrison, Jones & Fuller, 1997; Vandenberghe, & D'hoore 2000). Secondly, the growth of the emerging consensus that a five-factor model of personality often times called the Big-Five (McCrae, & Costa, 1987; Goldberg, 1990; Digman, 1990; Kanfer, Ackerman, Murtha & Goff, 1995) can be used to describe the most salient aspects of personality structure in work setting.

In recent times, attention of management practitioners is directed to how individuals or groups are influenced to render their legitimate duties in organised work setting. In view of this seeming development, research should be directed towards how employees' personality can affect the interpretation of the influence behaviours of their supervisors and consequently, how these interpretations relate to job outcomes.

The testimony to this fact is the emerging paradigm that suggests a strong linkage between subordinates' perception of leader's leadership-behaviour (a situational factor), subordinates' personality factors and eventual job outcomes. In fact, researches in the developed world and Africa have shown that job satisfaction, productivity and organisational commitment are affected by leadership-behaviour, (Ahmed, 1985; Alo, 1982; Esigbone, 2000; Foke, 2001; Dunham-Taylor, 2000; Kraut, 1970; Eze, 1988; Eze, 1994; Stordeur, Vandenberghe & D'hoore 2000; Morrison, Jones & Fuller., 1997; Fagbohunge, 2009).

Also, a few studies on personality and situational influences on behaviour provide support for “interactionism”: an idea that behaviour is best predicted by the interaction of person and situation (Endler & Magnusson, 1976). The emphasis of this interactionist view point is that behaviour is being altered constantly by the individual’s internal disposition interacting with his or her perception of the changing situations. In work setting for example, and according to interactionism, the person is not a passive component but an interactional active agent in this interaction process (Endler, & Magnusson, 1976). The important part of the person aspect of interactionism is how a person perceives the “*situation*”, i.e., its meaning to the person. Studies have also shown that employees’ attitudes to work do affect their performance, and in turn the attitudes of employees are influenced by personal characteristics and job characteristics (DeSantis and Durst, 1996). Despite the fact that recruiters and human resources (HR) managers value the importance of workers’ personality characteristics as well as technical skills, the use of personality tests is still very limited and treated with reservation. Nigerian managers simply resort to drawing inferences about candidate’s personality from employment interviews exclusively (Oladimeji, 1999).

In line with this global attention in this direction Suar, Tewari and Chaturbed (2006) have shown that subordinates’ perception of leadership style has a significant relationship with commitment to the organisation and job satisfaction. Several major studies have found a positive relationship between these variables; these include studies by scholars such as Newman (1974); Porter, Campon and Smith (1976), Mathieu and Zajack (1990) and Wilson (1995). However, research evidence in Nigeria, as far as this relationship are concerned, has been quite inconclusive and reveal mixed evidence (Eze, 1983; Fagbohunge, 1981; Esigbone, 2000). Meanwhile, social psychologists have demonstrated that how people think, feel, act, lead and follow is not only a function of the personality and pre-dispositional factors, but also shaped, to a large extent, by the prevailing psycho-social factors in the environment people find themselves. In other words, what others around us are doing,

thinking, feeling, acting and how they structure the environment have marked impact on our thoughts, emotions and behaviour. Social psychologists have investigated these powerful situational factors, seeking to understand how we influence others and are influenced by the presence of and actions of others, whether actual, imagined, or implied (Allport, 1985).

#### **1.1.4 Organisational Commitment**

Organisational commitment is defined as the “relative strength of an individual’s identification and involvement in a particular organisation” (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982), and a “psychological link between an employee and his or her organisation that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organisation” (Allen & Meyer, 1996), hence, paving the way for employees to be satisfied with the organisation in which they work can be said to be as crucial as providing goods and services (Çöl, 2004). Organisational commitment is of considerable interest to psychologists because there is strong evidence of links between high levels of commitment and favourable organisation outcomes. At the individual level of analysis, commitment predicts important employee behaviours such as staff turnover, absenteeism, or organisational citizenship or extra-role behaviour, and performance (Steers, 1977; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Gelade & Gilbert, 2006).. Furthermore, when aggregated to the organisational subunit level, high levels of commitment are associated with improved levels of customer satisfaction and sales achievement (Gelade & Young, 2005).

Organisational commitment has become an issue of great importance to be dealt with, because it helps to increase employees’ performance (Shore & Martin, 1989; Meyer, Paunonen, Gallatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Meyer, John, Allen, Natalie & Smith 1993; Meyer et al., 2002; Siders, George & Dharwadkar, 2001; Jaramillo, Mulki & Marshall, 2005)

and also helps to minimise the turning up late to work, absenteeism, and leaving or quitting the organisation.

Although organisational commitment was initially conceived as a reflection of observed behaviours (Becker, 1960), Porter, Steer, Mowday and Boulian (1974) emphasised the longitudinal aspects of organisational commitment and conceptualised this attitudinal view by defining organisational commitment "...in terms of the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation: such commitment can generally be characterised by at least three factors:

- (i) a strong belief in and acceptance of organisation's goals and values
- (ii) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation
- (iii) a definite desire to maintain organisational membership" (Hoffman, Inelson, & Stewart, 2010).

The concept of organisational commitment has become a major focus of a number of studies; however, no comprehensive definition to cover all disciplines has yet been rendered (Morrow, 1983). The foremost reason for it is that researches from different fields of study such as Sociology, Social Psychology and Organisational Behaviour have dealt with the topic based on their field of study. Hence, it is no surprise that the literature accommodates a variety of different definitions related to organisational commitment (Çöl, 2004). Organisational commitment has been defined by the researchers as the level of involvement and identification with a given organisation. In the context of this definition, organisational commitment embraces the following three elements. These are (a) the acceptance of organisational goals and a strong belief in these goals (b) willingness to exert substantial efforts on behalf of the organisation (c) having a definite desire to maintain organisational membership (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Agarwal, Decarlo & Vyas, 1999; Nijhof, De Jong & Beukhof, 1998).

Employees with high level of organizational commitment have significant contributions to the achievement of the organization under competitive conditions (Feldman & Moore, 1982). Commitment of employees to the organization and using all his/her skills and expertise for the advancement of the organization concerned is a significant issue. Establishment may have a preference to work with those with high level of organizational commitment. The reason for this is the belief that challenges encountered on the way to reaching goals may be overcome by such employees. Attributes of employees in terms of organisational commitment is the key guide for the success of the business.

### **1.1.5 Job Involvement**

There are many definitions of job involvement, for example, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) defined job involvement as the degree of daily absorption a worker experiences in his or her work activity; it reflects whether the person considers conscientiousness and work affirmation the main foci. Job involvement is defined as the degree to which a person psychologically identifies with his job. Job involvement is related with the work motivation that a person has with a job (Bashaw & Grant, 1994; Hackett, Lapierre, & Hausdorf, 2001; McElroy, Morrow, Crum & Dooley, 1995; Blau, 1986; Blau & Boal, 1987).

In addition, job involvement represents the extent to which a person's self-esteem depends on his or her work efficiency. These two dimensions – psychological identification with work and the importance of work productivity or efficiency to individual self-esteem are key factors in employee job involvement. Human behaviour plays a significant role in maximising organisational effectiveness, regardless of technological development. In particular, any effort to maximise organisational effectiveness requires a higher degree of job involvement among members of an organisation (Elankumaran, 2004).

Job involvement is the internalization of values about the work or the importance of work according to the individual. Job involvement may appraise the ease with which a person can



be further socialised by an organisation. Organisational socialisation is the process by which an individual understands the values, abilities, behaviours, and social knowledge indispensable for an organizational role and for taking part in as a member (Ramsey, Lask & Marshall, 1995). It is a belief about one's current job and is a function of how much the job can satisfy one's wishes. Highly job involved individuals make the job a central part of their personal character. Besides, people with high job involvement focus most of their attention on their job (Hackett, Lapieri, & Hausdorf, 2001).

Job involvement is grouped into four diverse categories. These categories are: (1) work as a central life interest, (2) active participation in the job, (3) performance as central to self-esteem, and 4) performance compatible with self-concept. In work as a central life interest, job involvement is thought of as the degree to which a person regards the work situation as important and as central to his/her identity because of the opportunity to satisfy main needs. In active participation in the job, high job involvement hints the opportunity to make job decisions, to make an important contribution to company goals, and self-determination. Active participation in the job is thought to ease the achievement of such needs as prestige, self-respect, autonomy, and self-regard. In performance as central to self-esteem, job involvement implies that performance on the job is central to his/her sense of worth (Ramsey, Lask & Marshall, 1995; Blau & Boal, 1987).

Job involvement is a function of individual differences and the work situations. Thus demographic and work experience variables are expected to relate to job involvement. Positive relationships are expected with age, tenure, years in occupation, education, child bearing, and gender. There is no evidence for a strong relationship between job involvement and performance (Cohen, 1999). Job involvement is negatively associated with intentions to quit and positively related to job satisfaction and organizational climate perceptions (McElroy, Morrow & Wardlow, 1995, 1999). In the same way, Blau and Ryan (1997) put

forward that job involvement and organizational commitment are negatively related to absenteeism, withdrawal intentions and turnover as well as lateness and leaving work early whereas it is positively related to work effort and performance. Individuals with high levels of both job involvement and organizational commitment should be the most motivated to go to work and to go on time. Individuals with low levels of job involvement and organizational commitment should be the least motivated. Both highly motivated and non-motivated employees may miss work or come late for excusable reasons (e.g., illness, religious holiday, vacation time, and transportation problems). However, highly motivated employees cannot be thought as non-motivated employees to miss work or come late for inexcusable reasons. Individuals with higher levels of job involvement and organizational commitment are likely to exhibit less unexcused lateness and unexcused absence than individuals with lower levels of job involvement and organizational commitment (Blau, 1986; Blau & Boal, 1987).

#### **1.1.6 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)**

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) can be defined as defending the organisation when it is criticised or urging peers to invest in the organization (Turnipseed & Murkison, 2000) or a behavior that exceeds routine expectations (Daniels, Joireman, Falvy & Kamdar, 2006). Organisational citizenship behaviour, typically, refers to behaviours that positively impact on the organisation or its members (Poncheri, 2006). The term Organisational citizenship behaviour first emerged in the literature of work and organisational psychology in the early 1980s, when Organ with his colleagues (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) in an effort to explain the satisfaction-causes-performance relationship, suggested an alternative form of job performance, which they called citizenship behaviour. In establishing the basis for this alternative for job performance, they argued that job performance has been partly misunderstood as quantity of output or quantity of craftsmanship (Bateman & Organ, 1983). OCB has been introduced by Smith, Organ and Near (1983) and has been defined as discretionary behaviour that goes beyond one's official role and is

intended to help other people in the organization or to show conscientiousness and support toward the organization (Borman, 2004). Behaviour covered by the term “organisational citizenship” can reasonably be expected to enhance co-workers’ productivity, enhance managers’ productivity, free up organisational resources for other productive purposes, help coordinate activities between team members’ and work groups, make the organization a more satisfying place to work and thus help attract and retain productive employees, maintain performance consistency and stability, and improve organisational adaptability. Through all these means, such behaviours should contribute to organisational effectiveness (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

Organ (1988) defined OCB as “the individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation.” In this view therefore, OCB is a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable (Organ, 1988). Shapiro, Jacqueline, Kessler & Purcel. (2004) argues OCB to be an extra-role behavior i.e. it is any behaviour not officially required by the organisation, rather its practice depends solely on the consent of employee as a consequence of the organizational environment. OCB makes the impact on organization effectiveness; OCB should have a particular impact on the overall effectiveness of organizations by adding to the social framework of the work environment (Todd, 2003).

Begum (2005) argues that organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is referred to as a set of discretionary workplace behaviours that exceed one’s basic job requirements. They are often described as behaviours that go beyond the call of duty. Other examples of OCB are willingness to take steps to prevent problems with other employees, and obeying organization rules, regulations and procedures even when no one is watching (Chompookum & Derr, 2004). Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie (2006), highlights the building on the conceptual

work of Organ (1988), Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). Also, MacKensie, Podsakoff, and Praine (1999) define the following five major categories of organizational citizenship behaviour:

- **Altruism:** Discretionary behaviours on the part of employees that have the effect of helping a specific others with an organisationally relevant problem (e.g. supportive actions to assist others and going beyond the requirements of the job).
- **Conscientiousness:** Discretionary behaviours on the part of employees that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organisation in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, and so forth.
- **Sportsmanship:** Willingness of the employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining in order to "avoid complaining, petty grievances, railing against real or imagined slights, and making federal cases out of small potatoes" (Organ, 1988).
- **Courtesy:** Discretionary behaviour on the part of an individual aimed at preventing work-related problems with others from occurring.
- **Civic virtue:** Behaviour on the part of an individual that indicates that he/she responsibly participates in, is individual in, or is concerned about the life of the company (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

The concept of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) has been extensively explored over the past two decades (Organ & Kovovsky, 1989; Organ, 1988, 1994; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Organ and Lingil, 1995; Podsakoff & MacKenzie 1997; Paine & Organ, 200; Erturk, Yilmaz & Ceylan, 2004)). Indeed, research has been devoted to studying the antecedents of OCB as well as its various dimensions (Xu, 2004). The largest portion of the research has examined attitudinal predictors of different constructs of OCB (Organ & Paine, 1999) particularly in English speaking countries; it is a point of interest to see whether such relationships will be obtainable among Nigerian (a non-English Culture ) workgroups.

Organ (1988) revealed that studies that examined the structure of OCB agree that it is a multidimensional concept bearing at least two dimensions, a “personal” and an “impersonal” construct. These are altruism and conscientiousness (or generalized compliance) respectively. Altruism refers to behaviour, which is directed towards an individual in face-to-face situations aiming at helping him/her (e.g., assisting someone with a heavy workload, or orienting new colleagues at work), directed not only towards colleagues, although this is the most frequent use, but also towards outsiders (e.g., customers, clients, suppliers), as long as these actions have organizational relevance (Organ, 1988). The impersonal form of OCB, called either conscientiousness or generalized compliance, is directly helpful to other people within the firm (peers, supervisors, or subordinates) in running the organization in general, such as being punctual, giving advance notice if unable to attend meeting or work. Mostly, it includes instances where the employee carries out certain role behaviour well beyond the minimum level required from the position (Organ, 1988).

From this antecedent, it appears that there is a strong dispositional dimension to the tendency to either engage or withhold appropriate organizational citizenship behaviour in the workplace. Support for dispositional antecedents came from the emergence of the Big-Five in the personality field in the early 1990s which brought a new opportunity for research in the field of OCB. Two of the Big-Five 5 dimensions appear relevant to organizational citizenship behaviour. One, agreeableness, pertains to the ease or difficulty one has in getting along with people, or how good-natured one is with respect to interpersonal relationships. Two, conscientiousness pertains to reliability, dependability, punctuality, and discipline (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Kickul & Neuman, 1998; Van Scotter & Motowildo, 1996; Miller, Griffin & Hart, 1999; Nikolaou & Robertson, 2001) and extra-role personality orientation (Midili & Penner, 1995).

There is persuasive evidence that OCB is an outcome consistent with a social exchange relationship (Deckop, Mangal & Cirka, 1999). Organizational concern emerged as the motive most closely related to OCB directed towards the organization (Grojean, Dick, Christ, & Wieseke, 2006). OCBs yield significantly higher outcomes in the long term than in the short term for the organization (Daniels, Joireman, Falvy & Kamdar, 2006). The importance of OCB can be realized by the argument of Koys (2001) who suggests; Organizational citizenship behavior had an impact on profitability but not on customer satisfaction.

Also, individuals engage in OCB as a form of reciprocity based on organizational treatment (Shapiro, Jacqueline, Kessler & Purcell, 2004). The 'best' performing workers produced the strongest link between performance and functional participation, which is a helping-type (*Altruism*) OCB, as found by (Turnipseed & Murkison, 2000). Employee attitudes were found to influence subsequent organizational citizenship. Indeed, as citizenship appears to consist of discretionary behaviours, how the employee perceives the organization (as evidenced by his/her attitude toward it) would likely predispose this employee to either perform or withhold such performance (Grojean, Dicks, Christ & Wieseke, 2006). Results indicate that perceptions of citizenship performance predict overall performance equally well across all task performance levels (Coole, 2003). Results from the studies of Yorges (1999) suggest, that creating a group atmosphere can have detrimental consequences, particularly regarding OCB (*due to competition*). Deckop, Mangal & Cirka (1999) argues that, for employees low in value commitment, a pay-for- performance system appears to be a disincentive for engaging in OCB.

The belief among theorists is that as more employees engage in OCB, the organisation becomes more successful (Yen & Neihoff, 2004). OCB and CWB (Counterproductive Work Behaviour) were significantly negatively correlated (Baker, 2005), which means that a person high on OCB scale will not show any such behavior posing an averse effect to production. Interestingly, the study of Deckop, Mangal & Cirka (1999) suggested that age of employee

had a negative and a marginally significant effect on OCB. Such behavior (*i.e. Organizational Citizenship Behavior*) might enhance coworkers' or supervisors' productivity, help coordinate activities, increase the stability of organizational performance, and help the organization attract and retain employees (Borman, 2004).. Employees who perform citizenship behaviors may be more likely to elicit support from their organizations (Moorman et al. 1998).

Cohen and Vigoda (2000) pointed out that OCB improve organisational effectiveness through various ways. According to these authors, some of OCB's benefits include:

- i. Improved co-worker and managerial productivity
- ii. Superior efficiency in resource use and allocation
- iii. Reduced maintenance expenses
- iv. Better coordination or organization of activities across individuals, groups, and functional departments
- v. Improved organisational attractiveness for high-quality new recruits
- vi. Increased stability in the organisation's performance
- vii. Enhanced organisational capability to adapt effectively to environmental changes.

## **1.2 Understanding Leadership Behaviour and Workplace Behaviour**

### ***1.2.1 What is Leadership?***

Leadership comes from the Anglo-saxon word "laedan", meaning to go, and is defined as guiding, conducting, proceeding, or being foremost. Leadership has been defined in terms of individual's traits, leadership behaviour, interaction patterns, role relationship, follower perception, influence over followers, influence on task goals, and influence on organisational culture. According to Goods (1959), leadership is the ability and readiness to inspire, guide or manage others. Dictionary of Behavioural Sciences (1973) defined leadership as the exercise of authority in initiating, directing, or controlling the behaviour or attitude of others, and

bring out their consent, those qualities of personality and training, which make the guidance, and control of others successful. According to Hemphill (1949), leadership is the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing the organisational goals and objectives for changing an organisation's goals and objectives.

Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik (1961) explained leadership in terms of interpersonal influence, which is defined as influencing people to co-operate towards some goals, which they come to find desirable. Halpin (1966) stated that a successful leader contributed to group objectives and to group relationship. He describes leadership behaviour in two dimensions of initiating structure and consideration. Davis (1986) contended that leadership is the ability to persuade others to seek defined objectives enthusiastically. To Hersey and Blanchard (1988) leadership is a process of influencing the activities of an individual within a group in its effort towards goal achievement in given situation. Koontz and Wehrich (1990) suggested that leadership is influence, that is, the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the achievement of group goals. Yuki and Vanfleet (1998) stated that leadership is viewed as a process that includes influencing the task objectives and strategies of a group or organization; influencing people in the organization to implement the strategies and achieve the objectives, influencing group maintenance and identification, and influencing the culture of the organization. In line with this position, Terry (1988) concluded that leadership is, essentially, a continuous process of influencing behaviour. A leader breaths life into group and motivates it towards goals. Keys and Case (1990) defines leadership as the process of influencing and supporting others to work enthusiastically toward achieving objectives consistent with these earlier definitions Yulk (1994) defined leadership as the ability of one person to influence a group of persons toward the achievement of common goals. When comparing leadership styles, the focus typically is on the effectiveness of leaders' effectiveness. Effectiveness in turn, typically is viewed as the extent to which the leader's group or organization performs its tasks successfully or attain s



its goals (House & Aditya, 1997). Leaders have the essentials of authority, power and influence to lead followers to their goals. The use of these essentials has change from the past, to the present and the present into the future business and organisational environment. Leadership affects individuals and groups through variety of ways such as job satisfaction, empowerment, job performance, involvement and retention.

Despite the multitude of ways in which the leader has been conceptualized, several components can be identified as central to the phenomenon of leadership. These are (a) leadership occurs within a group context, (b) leadership is a process, (c) leadership involves influence, (d) leadership involves goal attainment, and (e) leadership is interaction of power between leaders and others. As a result of these central issues the concept of leadership style has generated series of research. In fact, leadership has become a subject of for serious and scientific study. The reasons for this development are clearly associated with the tremendous growth of complex, industrial societies of modern years and connected problems both in terms of leadership style adopted in various organizations (both public and private), respect of the expectations, values interpersonal skills of subordinates as well as the participation in decision-making and human relations. Problems of these kinds stimulated research into ways of making organisational setting favourable toward the achievement of the organisations' objective, and at the same time knowing more about the human involvement in the whole process. An increasing interest in human behaviour at work could be ascribed, somewhat callously perhaps, to a concern for people at work simply as one of the factors that determine leadership style, or alternatively.

Subordinate's perceptions of leader's leadership behaviour or influence tactics on overall job attitudes and behaviours have empirical support in the literature. Results from a number of studies have demonstrated that the meanings underlying supervisor influence tactics were significantly associated with different job outcomes in employees. Though, the most

researched, the concept is the least understood phenomenon in organizational behaviour (Burns, 1978).

### **1.3 Understanding Personality and Workplace Behaviour**

#### ***1.3.1 What is personality?***

Mackinon (1944) pointed out that there are two primary uses of the word “personality” in English, and they correspond to a German terms “Personlichkeit” and “Personalitat” (Driskell, Hogan & Salas, 1987). Personality in the first sense “Personlichkeit” refers to a person’s social reputation, to his or her unique stimulus value; it is a purely external view of personality. Personality in this sense is conferred or socially bestowed and is only imperfectly related to individual intra-psyche processes –personal traits are functions of social situation (Dewey, 1922). Personality in the second sense “Personalitat” , refers to the structure (intra-psyche processes such as hopes, fears, aspiration, motive, complexes) within a person that explain why that person creates his or her unique social reputation (Hogan, 1965). Both definitions are meaningful, but serves different scientific purposes.

Nevertheless, to psychologists individual is unique in dealing with the world in his or her own ways, hence what makes an individual different from and how to identify and describe these differences and compare with others is what psychologists’ referred to as personality (Fagbohunge and Longe, 2003). Phares, (1984) defined personality as the “patterns of characteristics thoughts, feeling, and behavior that persist over time and situations and that distinguishes one person from another”. Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith & Hilgard, (1987) defined personality as that “characteristic patterns of behaviour, thought, and emotion that determine a person’s adjustment to the environment”. Myers (1992) sees personality as “characteristics patterns of thinking, feeling and acting”. Burger, (1993) contended that personality is a “consistent behaviour patterns originating within the individual”

These definitions reveal six critical aspects of personality. First, personality is “*consistent*”. In other words, a person’s behaviour patterns display some stability. This consistency in behaviour exists across time and across situations. Second, personality originates “*within*” the individual. This is not to say external sources do not influence personality. Certainly inter-personal relationships affect the kind disposition that is cultivated. But behaviour is not solely a function of situational factors, (Burger, 1993). Third, the definitions focus on the individuals “*behaviour*”. Social psychologists know people are different and often respond in different ways to the same situation. However, these psychologists look at how the average person behaves in a given situation, ignoring individual differences.

Fourth, the definitions focus on “*overt behaviour*” such as thoughts, emotions, perception and attitudes, etc. Personality is a concept that is used both in social psychology and everyday settings to describe and explain individual differences between people. It is usually seen as unique to, and an essential element defining the nature of the person concerned. It is also thought to be largely stable, that is, it only changes over significant periods of time or due to major life events. Fifth, personality refers to those “*aspects/characteristics that distinguish a person*” from everybody else. This simply implies that personality is a person’s psychological signature; the behaviours, attitudes, motives, tendencies, outlooks, and emotions with which he or she responds to the world. In this sense, personality is both characteristic of and unique to a particular person. The sixth aspect of these definitions is that personality “*persists over time and across situations*”. This implies a measure of consistency in behaviour – a tendency to act or think in certain ways in many different situations. Thus, the concept of personality tends towards a degree of predictability and stability in an individual.

In view of these, personality psychologists believe that behaviour is the result of interaction between personality characteristics and the social-physical conditions of the environment.

But, as will be seen later in this study, personality theorists differ in the extent to which they believe behaviour is internally controlled -determined by the personal characteristics of the individual and therefore fairly consistent, or external controlled -determined by the particular situation in which the behaviour occurs, (Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith & Hilgard, 1987). Korman (1971) suggested that work behaviour is based on implementation of a self-concept. The worker varies his performances to be congruent with a positive or negative self-evaluation. A worker who has high self-esteem attempts to perform well in order to be congruent with his-concept and becomes dissatisfied if his performance remains low. A low self-esteem worker does not attempt to perform well and becomes dissatisfied if his performance is high (and hence incongruent with self concept). It follows therefore that involvement in performance should be higher for high self esteem workers than for low.

Costa and McCrae's (1985, 1987, in Furnham, 1997) suggested five dimensions of personality. The authors have built on earlier work by both Eysenck and Cattell and developed a popular model on personality. The 'Big-Five' traits that they proposed are; extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness neuroticism, and openness to experience. Details of various personality dimensions are provided below.

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>Prototypical Characteristics</b>	<b>Illustrative Adjectives</b>
conscientiousness	Responsible, dependable, able to plan, organized, persistent, need for achievement, persistence, scrupulousness	Organized, systematic, thorough, hardworking, planful, neat, dependable (careless), (inefficient), sloppy), (impulsive), (irresponsible).
Extraversion, Surgency, Sociability	Sociable, talkative, assertive, ambitious, active, dominance, tendency to experience positive emotions.	Extroverted, talkative, assertive, gregarious, energetic, self-dramatising. (reserve), (introverted), (quiet), (shy), unassertive), (withdraw).
Agrreableness	Good-nurtured, cooperative, trusting, sympathy, altruism (hostility), (unsociability)	Sympathetic, cooperative, warm, tactful, considerate, trustful (cold), (rude), (unkind), (independent).
Emotional stability, Adjustment, (Neuroticism)	Calm, secure, not nervous  (predisposition to experience anxiety, anger, depression, emotional instability)	Unenvious, relaxed, calm, stable, confident, effective.  (moody), (touchy), (nervous), (self-doubting).
Openness to experience, Intellectance, Culture	Imaginative, artistically sensitive, aesthetically sensitive, intellectual, depth of feeling, curiosity, need for variety.	Intellectual, creative, artistic, imaginative, curious, original. (unimaginative), (simple), (dull), (literal-minded)

*Note: Prototypical characteristics and adjectives taken from McCrae & Costa (1989), Mount, Barrick & Strauss. (1994), and Hogan (1991); items in parentheses define the opposite pole of each dimension.*

#### **1.4 Statement of the Problem.**

Today, work organizations in Nigeria “cultivate and fertilize” negative reactions among workers through ‘leadership failure’. Managers/supervisors use top-down, command and control management techniques, where bosses have failed to develop working relationships that foster trust, respect and confidence among their staff. These leadership atmospheres are suspected to demean, disrespect and demotivate employees, leading to seeming erosion of motivational tendencies, organisational commitment and job involvement (Fagbohunge, 1981; Eze, 1985, 1988, 1994; Alarape & Akinlabi, 2000). Lack of recognition of individual performance, lack of good communication, innovation and general mistrust toward managers/supervisors are suspected reactions employees experience in the work place as a

result of leadership failure (McIntire, 2002; Howard & Howard, 2000; Suar, Taweri & Chaturbedi, 2006). In order to protect himself or herself probably, the average Nigerian worker is suspected to have become apathetic toward the workplace. Where opportunities are not available to quit the organisation, workers' become emotionally or mentally withdrawn from the organization.

In recent times it appears that optimal organisational functioning has dropped significantly, compared to what is obtainable in the past. The capacity of an average Nigerian worker to give extra discretionary contribution that is neither required nor expected without "rubbing" his/her hands has almost become a tall dream. Individual worker chooses to withhold organizational citizenship behaviour as a direct result of his/her perception of the negative experience in the workplace.

Given this background, it is suspected, on one hand, that behaviours of managers and supervisors (or better still management style/approach) and the way such behaviours are perceived by subordinates are affecting the job behaviours of workers. On the other hand, the way subordinates perceived their bosses' leadership behaviour is more of a function of their personality (dispositional factors). If Nigerian workers are given the opportunity to describe their bosses' leadership or supervisory behaviour, many would probably describe them as corrupt opportunist –"Monkey dey work baboon dey chop". This perception is inimical to favourable disposition to work and as a result has serious implications for followership. These perceptions have the potential of discouraging workers from readiness and capacity to make significant contributions to organisational success. They also have the tendency of being reflected in subordinates' general attitude to work, motivational tendencies etc.

This study recognises the fact that organizational variables such as job status/cadre, tenure, reward system, organizational type and personal-social aspect of traditional work environment are responsible in part for the observed job behaviour (see Fagbohunge 2002;

Eze, 1985;) Nevertheless, available literature revealed mixed evidence about how subordinates' perceived leader-behaviours and personality factors would influence job behaviour negatively or positively (Fagbohunge, 1981; Eze, 1985; Alarape & Akinlabi, 2000; Howard & Howard, 2000; Udegbe, Okuramen & Shenge, 2001; Nikolaou & Robertson, 2001; Suar, Taweri & Chaturbedi, 2006). Also there has been a virtual dearth of research that has linked leadership behaviour and subordinates' personality with the complete taxonomy of organizational commitment, involvement and OCB. A number of previous studies investigated relations between an isolated facet of leader behaviour, as well as isolated facets of the five-factor model and job satisfaction (Fagbohunge, 1981; Eze, 1986; Aboloko, 1985; Ogunyinka, 1992; Tuckenbrodt, 2000; Judge, Heller & Mount, 2002). Therefore, there is a knowledge gap or, at best, very scanty industrial organisational leadership research in Nigeria which indicates or supports conceptual linkage between perceived leadership behaviour, personality characteristics and job behaviour.

In view of these realizations, the current research examined subordinates' perception of leader leadership-behaviour and personality factors on organisational commitment, job involvement, and OCB, with a view to seeking answers to fundamental questions of the incidence of leadership failure in organisations, declining industrial efficiency and negative job behaviours among Nigerian workgroups.

### **1.5 Aim and Objectives of the Study**

The broad aim of this research was to investigate the influence of subordinates workers' personality factors and perceptions of boss leadership-behaviour: and how these affect organizational commitment, job involvement, and organizational citizenship behaviour among Nigerian workers with a view of improving industrial efficiency.

In order to achieve this broad aim, the following are the specific objectives of the study:

1. To develop and validate a leadership-behaviour description scale.
2. To investigate the influence of perceived interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership-behaviours on workers' organisational commitment.
3. To investigate the influence of perceived autocratic leadership-behaviour on workers' job involvement.
4. To investigate the influence of perceived interpersonal relations, emancipatory, and productive leadership-behaviours on workers' organisational citizenship behaviour.
5. To establish how much of organizational commitment could be predicted by personality attributes.
6. To determine how much of the variation in workers' job involvement could be predicted by personality attributes
7. To determine how much of the variation in workers' organisational citizenship behaviour could be predicted by personality attributes.
8. To investigate how perceived leadership-behaviour and personality factors could jointly predict workers' organizational commitment, job involvement and organisational citizenship behaviour.

## **1.6 Research Questions**

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. Will Leadership-Behaviour Description (LBD-35) inventory validly and reliably measure leadership-behaviour?
2. Will organisational commitment be predicted by workers' perception of bosses' interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership- behaviours?
3. Will job involvement be predicted by workers' perception of bosses' autocratic leadership-behaviour?



4. Will OCB be predicted by workers' perception of bosses' interpersonal relations, emancipatory and productive leadership-behaviours?
5. Will workers' organizational commitment be predicted by extraversion, conscientiousness and openness to experience?
6. Will workers' job involvement be predicted by extraversion, conscientiousness and openness to experience?
7. Will workers' OCB be predicted by extraversion, conscientiousness and openness to experience?
- 8a. Will the interaction between the personality attributes of extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience and autocratic leadership-behaviour predict workers' job-behaviours?
- 8b. Will the interaction between extraversion and interpersonal relations cum productive leadership- behaviours predict workers' job involvement?

### **1.7 Research Hypotheses**

1. LBD-35 will have high reliability and validity coefficients
2. Workers who perceive their boss to be high on interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership-behaviour will be more committed *to* their organizations than workers who perceive their boss to be low on these two variables.
3. Workers who perceive their bosses to be high in autocratic leadership-behaviour will be less involved in their jobs than workers who perceive their bosses to be low on this variable.
4. Workers who perceive their boss to be high on interpersonal relations, emancipatory and productive leadership-behaviour will show more OCB than workers who perceive their boss to be low on these variables.

5. Organisational commitment will be significantly higher among workers who are extroverted, conscientious and open to experience than among workers who score low in these attributes.
6. Job involvement will be significantly higher among workers who are extroverted, conscientious and open to experience than among workers who score low in these attributes.
7. OCB will be significantly higher among workers who are extraverted, conscientious and open to experience than among workers who score low in these attributes.
- 8a. Workers who are extraverted, conscientious and open to experience and who work under autocratic leadership-behaviour will score low on organisation commitment, job involvement and OCB than their counterparts who rated their bosses' low on autocratic leadership-behaviour.
- 8b. Extroverted workers under bosses who are productive and effective in interpersonal relations leadership-behaviours will be more job involved than their counterparts who are not extroverts under same productive and interpersonal relations leadership-behaviour.

### **1.8 Significance of the study**

Since this study is designed to evaluate the relationship between leadership-behaviour, personality factors and workers' job-behaviour in Nigeria. The results provide:

1. What constitutes leadership-behaviour problems? And how workers interpret or perceive the supervisory behaviours of their supervisors.
2. Base-line empirical data to examine the dimensionality of subordinate perceptions of their managers/supervisors leadership behaviour. Thereafter, organizations can use the knowledge obtained to assess supervisory behaviour and also guide appointment and promotion into leadership positions.

3. Far reaching bases for intervention strategies in the area of conflict resolution in industrial relations in work organisations.
4. Empirical data to verify which personality structure is consistent with promotion of workplace performance and industrial organizational efficiency; thereby assisting human resource practitioners to develop appropriate recruitment policy that incorporates personality assessment vis-à-vis predicted work-behaviours.
5. Support for employee training and leadership career development initiatives to help organisations' shape the future organisations and industrial efficiency in Nigeria.

### **1.9 Scope of the Study**

The study covers Nigerian workers from public and private sectors who are working in service oriented workplaces in Lagos and Abuja Metropolis. The ethnic and religious diversity of Lagos and Abuja as well as the commercial and administrative nerve centres makes research samples more representatives of Nigerian workers than other towns. Apart from the geographical scope of the study, functionally, the study was limited to the following demographic and psychological factor: organizational type, job cadre, tenure, personality (dispositional attributes) and subordinates perception of leadership behaviour. In addition, sample was restricted to only those workers who have job tenure of at least three years, because it is required that he or she must have been on full-time work relationship with a particular boss either in a public or private sector.

### **1.10 Operational Definitions of Variables**

**Perceived Leadership-Behaviours:** These refer the meaning subordinates derived from social interaction with their boss and how these meanings are modified by the individual's interpretation of meaning which eventually guide and determine action (behaviour). This was measured in this study by individual workers' ratings of his/her supervisor or manager's leadership-behaviour as measured by Leadership Behaviour Description Inventory (LBD-35).

Among the dimensions of leader leadership behaviour under investigation are those described below as:

- **Interpersonal Relations Leadership-Behaviour:** this refers to a dimension of boss leadership-behaviour in which the subordinate perceives the boss as possessing the following qualities: supportive and enduring relationship, mutual understanding and synchronise interaction. Such a boss is considered as such if he or she was rated high on this attribute, as measured by LBD-35.
- **Emancipatory Leadership-Behaviour:** this refers to a dimension of boss leadership-behaviour in which the boss is perceived to possess the following qualities: transformational act, modeling acts, positive exemplary acts, human development acts, societal change acts, and the act of initiating and promoting subordinate's self-development. A boss will be seen as such if greater percentage of subordinates' rated him or her as high in this attribute, as measured by LBD-35.
- **Autocratic Leadership-Behaviour:** this refers a dimension of boss leadership-behaviour in which the boss is perceived by subordinates as demonstrating excessive control, refusal to explain actions, blowing-up and criticising, decides in details what work and how work shall be done, puts the welfare of the unit above that of the subordinates. Such a boss is thereby rated by subordinates' as being high in autocratic control leadership-behaviour.
- **Productivity Leadership-Behaviour:** this refers to a dimension of boss leadership-behaviour in which the boss is perceived by subordinates to demonstrate excellent nurturant-task and participative leadership, pushes the staff for greater effort, emphasises meeting deadline for duties, work subordinate to capacity, encourages attendance at relevant training courses, and provides opportunity for skill development on the job.
- **Patriotic Leadership-Behaviour:** this refers to a dimension of boss leadership behaviour in which the boss is perceived by subordinates to demonstrate fairness, trusting

relationship, organizational justice, and tolerance of diverse beliefs, ability to transform goodwill into vision and hope for better life.

**Personality:** refers to those relatively stable and enduring characteristics, i.e., natural and acquired habits, interests, complexes, sentiments, ideas, opinions and beliefs of an individual that distinguishes a person from other people and at the same time form a basis for predictions concerning person's future behaviour, as measured by the Big-Five personality inventory (BFI). Personality supposedly accounts for the what, why and how of human functioning.

**Workplace Personality:** refers to those relatively stable and enduring characteristics; acquired habits, interests of an individual that endure over time and that account for consistent patterns of responses and promote good performance in the workplace, as measured by the "Big-Five" (BFI)

- **Extroversion:** this is a dispositional or personality attribute, where the person's scoring high in this attribute (as measured by BFI) is summarily described as being outgoing, sociable, fun loving, affectionate, friendly and talkative, open and bold as opposed to being secretive, shy and excessively silent.

- **Agreeableness:** this is also a dispositional or personality attribute in which a person scoring low on this attribute is described as being obverse, antagonistic, jealous, irritable, headstrong, mistrust, proud and skeptical; callous and unsympathetic; uncooperative, stubborn and rude; pathologically negative. High scorers are described as compassionate, good-natured and eager to cooperate and avoid conflict (as measured by BFI).

- **Conscientiousness:** this is a dispositional or personality attribute, and anybody that scores high on this attribute as measured by BFI is described as being hardworking, ambitious, energetic, reliable, punctual, scrupulous, disciplined and persevering as opposed to being careless, undependable and unscrupulous.

- **Neuroticism:** this is also a dispositional or personality attribute. Anybody that scores high on this attribute is interpreted as being very poised, secretive, and nervous, anxious, insecure as opposed to being composed open and excitable. This measured by a subscale of BFI

- **Openness to experience:** this is a dispositional or personality attribute whereby a person scoring high on the attribute is interpreted as being polished, original, imaginative, intellectual, daring and having broad interests; artistically sensitive as opposed to being unreflective and crude. This measured by a subscale of BFI.

**Job-Behaviour:** refers to attitudes and pattern of actions and interactions of members of an organization that directly or indirectly affect its effectiveness. In the context of this study, such actions and interaction finds expressions in organisational commitment, organisational involvement, and organizational citizenship behaviour, as measured by organisational commitment scale (OCS), Organisational involvement scale (JIS), and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS) respectively.

**Organizational Commitment:** Organisational commitment is a psychological state that characterises the employee's relationships with the organization, whereby people sink their whole heart and soul into that in which they believe, and so offer their time, talents, resources, energy and anything else required to succeed in endeavours to which they are committed; it involves job identification, job involvement and job loyalty. This was measured by Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS). A person scoring high on the attribute is interpreted as being committed to the organization.

**Organisational Involvement :** Organisational involvement in the context of this study implies the degree to which an individual is identified psychologically with his/her work, the importance of his/her work to his total self-image, the internalization of values about the goodness of work, and the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self-

esteem. This was measured by Organisational Involvement Scale (JIS). A person scoring high on the attribute is interpreted as being organisational involved.

**Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale:** this refers to behaviour typical of employees who contribute to the welfare or effectiveness of their organization by going beyond the duties prescribed in their jobs. That is, they give extra discretionary contributions that are neither required nor expected. The most frequently used term for this phenomenon is *organizational citizenship behaviour*. It is also referred to as *pro-social organizational behaviour* and *extra-role behaviour*. This is measured by Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCB scale). Individuals that score high on the attributed are interpreted as being favourably disposed to organization extra-role behaviour.

**Workers' Personal-Social Factors:** in the context of this study, workers' personality factors are identified as those workers' primary social variable obtainable in all workers which are capable of impacting positively or negatively on workers' behaviour, e.g., gender, job tenure, marital status, age, experience, number of trainings attended, education, religion and ethnic affiliation.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

#### 2.1 Theoretical Review

There are several distinct theoretical bases for leadership. Because of a persisting interest over a period of years in the phenomenon of leadership, many leadership theories and models have been developed. The leadership theories, according to Stogdill (1974), represent serious attempts to gain an increasingly more sophisticated understanding of the nature of leadership. The recent classification of leadership theories as advanced by Stogdill (1974) are: (1) Great man theories; (2) Environmental theories; (3) Personal – situational theories; (4) Interaction expectation theories; (5) Humanistic theories; (6) Exchange theories (7) Behavioural theories; (8) Perceptual and cognitive theories.

In addition, some theories have been put forward to explain the specific qualities and behaviours that differentiate the leaders from the majority. These theories can be grouped under seven main headings:

- (a) Trait theory
- (b) Behavioural theories
- (c) Participative leadership theory
- (d) Situational theories
- (e) Contingency theories
- (f) Transactional leadership
- (g) Transformational leadership



### **2.1.1 Trait Theory of Leadership**

Prior to 1945, the trait theory was one of the first systematic attempts to study leadership. In the early 1900, leadership traits were studied to determine what made certain people great leaders. The theories that were developed were called “great man” theories because they focused on identifying the innate traits and characteristics possessed by great social, political, and military leaders (e.g., Abraham Lincoln, Churchill, Mohandas Karam, Chand Gandhi). It was believed that a person is born either with or without the necessary traits for leadership. The basic assumption of this theoretical position is that people are born with inherited traits, and that some of these traits are particularly suited to leadership. The proponents contended that people who make good leaders have the right (or sufficient) combination of traits.

During that time, research concentrated on determining the specific traits that clearly differentiated leaders from followers (Bass, 1990; Jago, 1982). According to Tead (1935), there are ten qualities that are essential for effective leadership; physical and mental energy, a sense of purpose and direction, enthusiasm, friendliness and action, integrity, technical masters, decisiveness, intelligent teaching skill and faith. Barnard (1938), on the other hand, lists the following traits or qualities: physique, skill, technology, perception, knowledge, memory, imagination, determination, persistence, endurance and courage.

Furthermore, the traits that commonly impress upon the leader fall into two categories: inherent personal qualities and the acquired tendencies. In an attempt to identify and measure leadership qualities and the inherent leadership traits that screen leaders from non-leaders, it was concluded by Jennings (1961) that fifty years of study failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders.

A review of the research literature using this trait approach to leadership has revealed few significant or consistent findings (Gibb, 1954). In a major review in 1948, Stogdill (1974) suggested that no consistent set of traits differentiated leaders from non-leaders across a variety of situations. An individual with leadership traits who was a leader in one situation might not be a leader in another situation. Personal factors related to leadership continued to be important, but researchers contended that these factors were to be considered as relative to the requirements of the situation. Stogdill analysed and synthesized more than 124 trait studies that were conducted between 1904 and 1947. Stogdill's survey identified a group of important leadership traits that were related to how individuals in various groups become leaders. Stogdill (1974) identified the following traits and skills as critical to leaders.

Stogdill's Leadership traits and Skills:

Traits	Skills
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adaptability to situations</li> <li>• Alert to social environment</li> <li>• Ambitious and achievement oriented</li> <li>• Assertive</li> <li>• Cooperative</li> <li>• Decisive</li> <li>• Dependable</li> <li>• Dominant (desire to influence others)</li> <li>• Energetic (high activity level)</li> <li>• Persistent</li> <li>• Self-confident</li> <li>• Tolerant of stress</li> <li>• Willing to assume responsibility</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clever (intelligent)</li> <li>• Conceptually skilled</li> <li>• Creative</li> <li>• Diplomatic and tactful</li> <li>• Fluent in speaking</li> <li>• Knowledgeable about group task</li> <li>• Organized (administrative ability)</li> <li>• Persuasive</li> <li>• Socially skilled</li> </ul>

*Source: Stogdill, R.M. (1974). Handbook of Leadership: A survey of the literature, New York: Free Press*

His results showed that the average individual in the leadership role is different from the average group member in the following ways: (a) intelligence, (b) alertness, (c) insight, (d) responsibility, (e) initiative (f) persistence, (g) self-confidence, and (h) sociality. The findings of Stogdill's survey also indicated that an individual does not become a leader solely because

he or she possesses certain traits. Rather, the traits that leaders possess must be relevant to the situations in which the leader is functioning. As stated earlier, leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in another situation. Dwelling on this proposition McCall & Lombardo (1983) researched both success and failure and identified four primary traits by which leaders could succeed or 'derail':

- Emotional stability and composure: calm, confident and predictable, particularly when under stress.
- Admitting error: owing up to mistakes rather than putting energy into covering up.
- Good interpersonal skills: able to communicate and persuade others without resort to negative or coercive tactics.
- Intellectual breadth: able to understand a wide range of areas, rather than having a narrow (and narrow-minded) area of expertise.

Lipham (1981) pointed out that the lists of traits often included were somewhat contradictory e.g. kind but firm, pensive but active, steady but flexible, forceful but coercive. The test scores responsible for identifying leadership traits were not predictive of leader effectiveness in the institutions; and the trait theory completely ignored the interaction between the individual and the group.

In recent years, there has been resurgence of interest in the trait approach in explaining how traits influence leadership (Bryman, 1992). Lord, DeVader & Alliger. (1986) found that personality traits were strongly associated with individual's perception of leadership. Similarly, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) have gone so far as to claim that effective leaders are actually distinct types of people in several key respects. Further evidence of renewed interest in the trait approach can be seen in the current emphasis given by many researchers to visionary and charismatic leadership.

In short, the trait approach is alive and well. It began with an emphasis on identifying the qualities of great persons: next, it shifted to include the impact of situations on leadership, and most currently, it has shifted back to re-emphasise the critical role of traits in effective leadership (Northouse, 2001). It is pertinent to emphasise here that trait theory has been criticized for pigeon-holing all leaders into a long list of universal traits thereby failing to make allowances for individual, situational and cultural differences. The assertion might be true, but it is also true that there are some few qualities that a leader, no matter where he operates, must possess for him to become an effective leader. For instance, abilities, particularly intellectual and cognitive abilities, which are inherited and which are part of the leadership definition remain one of such characteristics without which a leader cannot truly lead (Eze, 1995). The presence or absence of these abilities among Nigerian managers is still in doubt and questionable in view of the high rate of leadership failures in work organisations.

## **2.2 Behavioural Theories of Leadership**

The theories concentrate on observed behaviour and posited that leaders can be made, rather than being born. Moreover, that successful leadership is based on definable, learnable behaviour. Behavioural theories of leadership do not seek in-born traits or capabilities. Rather, they look at what leaders actually do. If success can be defined in terms of describable actions, then it should be relatively easy for other people to act in the same way. This is easier to teach and learn than to adopt the more ephemeral 'traits' or 'capabilities'. The behavioural theories, therefore, can be thought in terms of the manner in which the leaders actually behave as observed by subordinates.

Researchers studying this style or behaviour approach determined that leadership is composed of, essentially, two general kinds of behaviour: task behaviour and relationship behaviour. Task behaviour facilitates goal accomplishment; they help group members to

achieve their objectives. Relationship behaviour help subordinates feel comfortable with themselves, with each other, and with the situation in which they find themselves. The main purpose of the behaviour approach is to explain how leaders combine these two kinds of behaviour to influence subordinates in their efforts to reach a goal. Behavioural leadership theory is a big leap from the Trait Theory, in that it assumes that leadership capability can be learned, rather than being inherited.

### **2.2.1 The Role Theory**

According to Merton (1957)'s role theory of leadership, people define roles for themselves and others based on social learning and reading. Also, people form expectations about the roles that they and others will play. The theory also assumes that people subtly encourage others to act within the role expectations they have for them. The proponents contended seriously that people will act within the roles they adopt. As human beings, it is widely believed by the proponents of this theory that we all have internal schemas about the role of leaders, based on what we read, discuss and so on. We subtly send these expectations to our leaders, acting as *role senders*, for example, through the balance of decisions we take upon ourselves and the decisions we leave to the leader. Leaders are influenced by these signals, particularly if they are sensitive to the people around them, and will generally conform to these, playing the leadership role that is put upon them by others. Within organizations, there is much formal and informal information about what the leader's role should be, including 'leadership values', culture, training sessions, modeling by senior managers, and so on. These and more including contextual factors act to shape expectations and behaviours around leadership. Role conflict can also occur when people have differing expectations of their leaders. It also happens when leaders have different ideas about what they should be doing versus the expectations that are put upon them. Nevertheless, role expectations of a leader can vary from one specific to a specific broad idea within which the leader can define his/her own

style. When role expectations are low or it, then this may also lead to role conflict (Merton, 1957).

### **2.2.2 McGregor, (1960)'s Theory X and Y**

McGregor (1960)'s dual concept of Human behaviour assumes the authoritarian style to be theory X and the democratic style to be theory Y. Theory X assumes an average person who dislikes work and has to be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened, prefers to be directed to avoid responsibility. Such a worker generally, has relatively low ambitions, low degree of maturity and obviously calls for a tough and authoritarian behaviour by a leader. The authoritarian style of leadership behaviour is based on the assumption that the power of leaders is derived from the position they occupy. Theory Y assumes that a person with self-direction and self-control makes an effort to achieve the objectives under proper conditions, has a relatively high degree of imagination and creativity in the solution of organisational problems.

The democratic style assumes that the power of leaders is granted by the group they are to lead so that people can be creative and self-directed, if properly motivated. These are not only two sets of assumptions that leaders can carry with their subordinates. However, these are the two extremes and between these two extremes, there can be a variety of shades or combinations or assumptions or theory X and Y that leaders can perceive of the followers. The views of theory X and Y were further closely studied by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958).

Although many research studies could be categorized under the heading of the behaviour approach namely, X and Y theory by McGregor, (1960), the IOWA leadership studies by Lewin, Lippit and White in late 1930, Likert's management system in 1961, Group dynamic studies by Cartwright and Zander, 1960 etc., but the Ohio State University studies, Michigan

University studies and the studies by Blake and Mouton are strongly representative of the ideas in this approach. By looking closely at each of these groups of studies, a clear picture can be drawn of the underpinning and implications of the behaviour theory.

### **2.2.3 Tannenbaum's Flexibility-Sensitivity Theory**

Tannenbaum's (1961) Flexibility-Sensitivity Theory is more concerned with group and individual as distinct from those of organisations. Tannenbaum and his colleagues, Weschler and Massarik, see leadership mainly as "interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed through a communication process. Effective leadership, in this case, depends primarily on the success of the leader in influencing the behaviour of follower in various situations which depends in turn on the leader's perceptual flexibility to the quantity and quality of stimuli in the group environment; and his action flexibility, that is the leader's repertoire of behavioural skills and ability to communicate.

### **2.2.4 Initiation of Structure and Consideration Theory**

In 1945, the Bureau of Business at Ohio State University initiated a series of studies on leadership. An interdisciplinary team of researchers from Psychology, Sociology, and Economics developed and used Leaders Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) to analyse leadership in numerous types of groups and situations. The Ohio State University studies attempted to identify various dimensions of leader's behaviour (Hemphill and Coons, 1957). The staff defined leadership as the behaviour of an individual when directing the activities of group members towards a goal attainment. Eventually, the group narrowed the description of leader behaviour to two dimensions, i.e., initiating structure and consideration that substantially accounted for most of the leadership behaviour described by subordinates. Initiating structure refers to the leader's behaviour in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work group and in endeavouring to establish well-defined

patterns of organisation, channels of communications, and methods of procedure. On the other hand, consideration refers to behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff (Halpin, 1959). Shartle (1966) and his colleagues, who have been referred to earlier, conducted the leadership studies in Ohio and pointed out the criteria of leadership behaviour, of which one is sometime, called the human relation and the other described as the 'get out of the work dimension'.

It is concluded that the higher the meeting point of these two dimensions, the better the leadership behaviour. When a leader receives from his colleagues the scores equally at a high plane, on both the dimensions, he is considered to be very much effective. If a leader has high consideration for his staff members, if he exhibits a real interest in the personal needs of the members of the group even when he is taking initiative in getting the work done from them, he is considered to be an effective leader. High scores on the dimension of initiating structure manifest the behaviour of the leader who clarifies goals, and organizes for the completion of task. His leadership behaviour can be called to be more institution-oriented. A leader, who receives high score on consideration and low score on initiating structure, is more person-oriented and is less effective. According to this approach, if a leader has low score on both the dimensions, he is not effective with this pattern of behaviour. Leaders prove to be effective when they show scores high enough on both dimensions.

There is consistent evidence that leaders secure somewhat higher performance and job satisfaction if high consideration is their dominant leadership style. Considerate leaders are concerned about the human needs of their colleagues. They try to build teamwork and help colleagues with their problems. Structured, task-oriented leaders, on the other hand, believe that they get results by keeping people constantly busy and urging them to work.



### **2.2.5 Employee Orientation and Production Orientation Theory**

A group of researchers from the survey research centre at the University of Michigan began their studies of leadership behaviour, giving special attention to the impact of leader's behaviour on the performance of small groups (Cartwright and Zander, 1960). The studies identified two types of leadership behaviour, which they called employee orientation and production orientation. Employee orientation describes the behaviour of leaders who approach subordinates with a strong human relations emphasis. They take interest in workers as human beings, value their individuality, and give special attention to their personal needs. Employee orientation is very similar to the cluster of behaviours identified in the Ohio State Studies as "consideration". Production orientation refers to leadership behaviours that stress the technical and production aspects of a job. From this orientation, workers are viewed as a means for getting work accomplished (Bowers and Seashore, 1966).

### **2.2.6 Blake-Mouton Managerial Grid (1964) theory**

Perhaps the most well-known model of managerial behaviour is the managerial grid, which first appeared in the early 1960s and since that time, has been refined and revised several times (Blake and McCanse, 1991; Blake and Mouton, 1964, 1978, 1985). It is a model that has been used extensively in organisational training and development. The Blake-Mouton Managerial Grid (1964) is a well publicized contribution to the study of leadership. The authors identify two critical dimensions for assessing effective leadership, namely, concern for group members and concern for the task. Leaders may be concerned for their people and they also must also have some concern for the work to be done. The question is, how much attention should they pay to one or the other? This is a model defined by Blake and Mouton in the early 1960's.

These factors are independent and leaders may combine all possible grading of either of them, e.g., high on both; low on both; high on one and low in the other. The Managerial grid, which has been renamed the leadership grid, was designed to explain how leaders help organisations to reach their purposes through two factors; concern for production and concern for people. Although, these factors are described as leadership orientation in the mode, they are closely parallel to the task and relationship leadership behaviours.

Concern for production refers to how a leader is concerned with achieving organisational task. It involves a wide range of activities, including attention to policy decisions, new product development, process issues, workload, and sales volumes, to name a few. Concern for production refers to whatever the organisation is seeking to accomplish. Concern for people refers to how a leader attends to the people within the organization, who are trying to achieve its goals. This concern includes building organisational commitment and trust, promoting the personal worth of employees, providing good working conditions, maintaining a fair salary structure, and promoting good social relations (Blake and Mouton, 1964).

The leadership grid joins concern for production and concern for people in a model that has two intersecting axis. The horizontal axis represents the leader's concern for production, and the vertical axis represents the leader's concern for people. Each of the axes is drawn on a point scale on which score of one represents minimum concern and score of nine represents maximum concern. The basic concept is explained into 9x9 model according to which the authors propose that the most effective managers achieve an exact balance between concern for task performance and concern for group members and their relationships, thereby justifying a 9:9 rating. By plotting scores from each of the axes, various leadership styles can be illustrated.

According to Blake and Mouton (1964), the five leadership styles are described as follows:

<b>Concern for people</b>	high	Country club mgt		Team mgt
	medium		Middle of the road mgt	
	low	Impoverished mgt		Authority-compliance
		Low	Medium	High
<b>Concern for Production</b>				

*Source: Blake, R.R. & Mouton, J.S. (1961). Group dynamics – Key to decision making, Houston: Gulf Publishing Co.*

1. Style 1-1: management is impoverished management – low concern for people and low concern for production. Usually characterized by minimum effort to get the work done. Basically lazy approach, avoids as much work as possible. This style is sometimes called Laissez-Faire management, because the leader abdicates his or her leadership styles.
2. Style 9-1: Management is task or authority-compliance management – Low concern for people but High concern for production. Strong focus on task, but with little concern for people. Focus on efficiency, including the elimination of people wherever possible.
3. Style 1-9: management is country club management – high concern for people but low concern for production. Care and concern for the people, with a comfortable and friendly environment and collegial style. But a low focus on task may give questionable results.
4. Style 5-5: management is middle-off the road management – an intermediate amount of concern for both production and people satisfaction. A weak balance of focus on both people and the work. Doing enough to get things done, but not pushing the boundaries of what may be possible.
5. Style 9-9: Management is team or democratic management – high concern for both production and people’s morale and satisfaction. Firing on all cylinders: people are committed to task and leaders are committed to people (as well as task).

Blake and Mouton (1964) argue strongly that the 9- 9 management style (Team management) is the most effective type of leadership behaviour. According to them, this style results in improved performance, low absenteeism and turnover of staff members, and high people satisfaction. This is a well-known grid that uses the Task-versus Person preference that appears in many other studies, such as the Michigan Leadership Studies and the Ohio State Leadership Studies.

### 2.3 Participative Leadership Theories

According to the participative leadership theorist’s viewpoint, involvement in decision-making improves the understanding of the issues involved by those who must carry out the decisions. People are more committed to actions where they are involved in the relevant decision-making. It is assumed also that people are less competitive and more collaborative when they are working on joint goals. The theory contended strongly that when people make decisions together, the social commitment to one another is greater and thus increases their commitment to the decisions (Coch & French, 1948; Tannenbaum & Alport, 1956; Tannenbaum & Schmitt, 1958). As a result, several people deciding together make better decisions than one person alone.

<b>&lt; not Participative.....Highly Participative &gt;</b>				
Autocratic decision by leader	Leader proposes decision, listen to feedback, then decides	Team proposes decision, leader has final decision	Joint decision with team as equals	Full delegation of decision to team

Source: French, J.R.P. Israel, J. & As, D (1960). *An experiment on participation in a Norwegian factory. Human Relations, 13, 3-19.*

A participative leader, rather than taking autocratic decisions, seeks to involve other people in the process, possibly including subordinates, peers, superiors and other stakeholders (French & Israel, 1960). Often, however, as it is within the managers’ whim to give or deny control to

his or her subordinates, most participative activity is within the immediate team. The question of how much influence others are given thus may vary on the manager's preferences and beliefs, and a whole spectrum of participation is possible, as shown in the table below:

### 2.3.1 Lewin's Leadership Model

Lewin, Lippit & White (1939) in a leadership decision experiments in 1939 identified three different styles of leadership around decision-making:

- **Autocratic:** In the autocratic style, the leader takes decisions without consulting with others. The decision is made without any form of consultation. In Lewin, et al (1939) experiments, they found that this cause the most level of discontent. An autocratic style works when there is no need for input on the decision, where the decision would not change as a result of input, and where the motivation of people to carry out subsequent actions would not be affected whether they were or were not involved in the decision-making.
- **Democratic:** In the democratic style, the leader involves the people in the decision-making, although the process for the final decision may vary from the leader having the final say to them facilitating consensus in the group. Democratic decision-making is usually appreciated by the people, especially, if they have been used to autocratic decisions with which they disagreed (Lewin, et al, 1939). It can be problematic when there are a wide range of opinions and there is no clear way of reaching an equitable final decision
- **Laissez-faire:** The laissez-faire style is to minimize the leader's involvement in decision-making, and hence allowing people to make their own decisions, although they may still be responsible for the outcome. Laissez-faire works best when people are capable and motivated in making their own decisions, and where there is no

requirement for a central coordination, for example, in sharing resources across a range of different people and groups (Lewin, et al, 1939).

In Lewin, Lippit & White (1939) experiments, they discovered that the most effective style was democratic. Excessive autocratic styles led to revolution, whilst under a laissez-faire approach, people were not coherent in their work and did not put in the energy that they did when being actively led.

### **2.3.2 Likert's Leadership Model**

Rensis Likert (1967), dwelling on Lewin's model, also identified four styles of leadership, in particular around decision-making and the degree to which people are involved in the decision:

1. ***Exploitative authoritative***: In this style, the leader has a low concern for people and uses such methods as threats and other fear-based methods to achieve conformance. Communication is almost entirely downwards and the psychologically distant concerns of people are ignored.
2. ***Benevolent authoritative***: When the leader adds concern for people to an authoritative position, a 'benevolent dictatorship' is formed. The leader now uses rewards to encourage appropriate performance and listens more to concerns lower down the organization, although what they hear is often rose-tinted, being limited to what their subordinates think that the boss wants to hear. Sometime there may be some delegation of decisions, but almost all the decisions are still made centrally.
3. ***Consultative***: The upward flow of information here is still cautious and rose-tinted to some degree, the leader is making genuine efforts to listen carefully to ideas. Nevertheless, major decisions are still largely centrally made.

4. **Participative:** At this level, the leader makes maximum use of participative methods, engaging people lower down the organization in decision-making. People across the organization are psychologically closer together and work well together at all levels.

This theory is a classic 1960s view in that it is still very largely top-down in nature, with the cautious addition collaborative elements towards the Utopian final state.

### **2.3.3 Situational Theories of Leadership**

It was after 1950 that attention towards interaction between leaders and many variables within their work situation, which influenced their effectiveness, was drawn. Social psychologists contended that the best action of the leader depends on a range of situational factors. As a result, social psychologists began the search for situational variables that had impact on leadership roles, skills, and behaviour and on followers' performance and satisfaction. The emphasis is on the behaviour of leader and their group members and various situational variables. With this emphasis on behaviour and environment, more encouragement is given to the responsibility of training individuals in adopting styles of leader behaviour to varying situations.

Situational leadership is based on interplay among (1) the amount of guidance and direction a leader gives, (2) the amount of socio-emotional support a leader provides, and (3) the readiness level that followers exhibit in performing a specific task, function or objectives. This concept was developed to help people attempting leadership, regardless of their role, to be more effective in their daily interactions with others. It provides leaders with some understanding of the relationship between an effective style of leadership and the level of readiness of their followers. According to this theory, selecting the appropriate style requires the leader to determine the readiness of the followers. Follower readiness has two components:

1. Ability - describes whether employees have the necessary knowledge, skills and experience to perform the task.
2. Willingness - describes whether the employees have the motivation, commitment and confidence to do the task.

Readiness in situational leadership is defined as the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task. People tend to be at different levels of readiness depending on the task they are being asked to do. Readiness is not a personal characteristic; it is not an evaluation of a person's traits, values, age, and so on. Readiness is preparing a person to perform a particular task (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988). Factors that affect situational decisions include motivation and capability of followers. This, in turn, is affected by factors within the particular situation. The relationship between followers and the leader may be another factor that affects leader behaviour as much as it does for follower behaviour. Leaders' perception of the follower and the situation will affect what they do rather than the truth of the situation. The leader's perception of themselves and other factors such as stress and mood will also modify the leaders' behaviour. Yukl (1989) seeks to combine other approaches and identifies six variables:

- Subordinate effort: the motivation and actual effort expended.
- Subordinate ability and role clarity: followers knowing what to do and how to it.
- Organization of the work: the structure of the work and utilization of resources
- Co-operation and cohesiveness: of the group in working together.
- Resources and support: the availability of tools, materials, people, etc.
- External coordination: the need to collaborate with other groups

Leaders under this framework work on such factors as external relationships, acquisition of resources, managing demands on the group and managing the structures and culture of the group. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) identified three forces that led to the leader's action:



the forces in the situation, the forces in the follower and also forces in the leader. This recognizes that the leader's style is highly variable, and even such distant events as family argument can lead to the displacement of activity of a more aggressive stance in an argument than usual. Maier (1963) noted that leaders not only consider the likelihood of a follower accepting a suggestion, but also the overall importance of getting things done. Thus in critical situations, as leader is more likely to be directive in style simply because of the implications of failure.

#### **2.3.4 Hersey and Blanchard Life-Cycle Theory**

In the leadership models developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969; 1988; 2007) in their research efforts, the terms task behaviour and relationship behaviour are used to describe concepts similar to consideration and Initiating structure of the Ohio State Studies. The life cycle or situational theory, states that effective leadership results from the relationship between a leader's style and the readiness of his followers. A follower's readiness is likely to increase over the life cycle of his relationship with the leader, calling for a change in the leader's style over time. It posited that leaders should adapt their style to follower development style (or 'maturity'), based on how ready and willing the follower is to perform required tasks (that is, their competence and motivation). The four styles suggest that leaders should put greater or less focus on the task in question and/or the relationship between the leader and the follower, depending on the development level of the follower.

Task behaviour in this theoretical position refers to behaviours in which the leader specifies an individual's or group's duties, activities, and responsibilities by goal setting, organizing, scheduling, directing and controlling, to explain what activities each one is to do and when, where, and how, tasks are to be accomplished.

Relationship behaviour refers to the communication behaviour of the leaders, such as listening, giving support, facilitating interactions, providing feedback, and supporting individuals and group; maintain personal relationship between themselves and members of their group by opening up channels of communication (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).

Combining these two dimensions results into four basic styles of leadership behaviour:

Leadership Style in response to follower development level		Follower Development Level			
		Low		High	
		R <sup>4</sup>	R <sup>3</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>	R <sup>1</sup>
		Task/Directive Behaviour			
		Low		High	
Relationship/Supportive Behaviour	High		S <sup>3</sup> Participating/Supporting	S <sup>2</sup> Selling/Coaching	
	low	S <sup>4</sup> Delegating /Observing			S <sup>1</sup> Telling/Directing

*Source: Hersey, P., Blanchard, K.H & Johnson, D.E.(2007).Management of Organisational Behaviour Leading Human Resource. New York: Prentice Hall*

1. **Telling/Directing:** Follower R<sup>1</sup>-low competence, low commitment/unable and unwilling or insecure. Leader- high task focus, and low relationship focus. When the follower cannot do the job and is unwilling or afraid to try, then the leader takes a highly directive role, telling them what to do but without a great concern for the relationship. The leader may also provide a working structure, both for the job and in terms of how the person is controlled. In other words, the leader guides, directs, establishes guidelines, provides specific instructions, and closely supervises performance. A dysfunctional telling-style leader dictates without really considering the employees at all. At times, the leader may first find out why the person is not motivated and if there are any limitations in ability. These two factors may be linked, for example, where a person believes they are less capable than they should be, may be in some form of denial or other coping. The follower may also lack self-confidence as a

result. Meanwhile, if the leader focused more on the relationship, the follower may become confused about what must be done and what is optional. The leader thus maintains a clear 'do-this' position to ensure all required actions are carried out properly.

2. ***Selling/Coaching***: Follower R<sup>2</sup>:- some competence, variable commitment/unable but willing or motivated. Leader:- high task focus, and high relationship focus. When the follower can do the job, at least to some extent, and perhaps is over-confident about their ability in this, then 'telling' them what to do may demotivate them or lead to resistance. The leader at this time needs to 'sell' another way of working, explaining and clarifying decisions. The leader explains decisions, clarifies them and persuades employee to follow them as necessary. Too intense selling, however, can result in badgering at employees with too much structure and consideration. The leader thus spends time listening and advising and where appropriate, helping the follower to gain necessary skills through coaching methods.
3. ***Participating/Supporting***: Follower R<sup>3</sup>: High competence, variable commitment/able but unwilling or insecure. Leader: Low task focus, and high relationship - The leader shifts significant responsibility to the followers, encourages employees to participate in decision-making, and facilitates collaboration and commitment. In extreme cases, the leader can bend too far to accommodate the will of the employees, rather than correctly judging the appropriate amount of participation. When the follower can do the job, but refusing to do it or otherwise showing insufficient commitment, the leader need not worry about showing them what to do, and instead is concerned with finding out why the person is refusing and thence persuading them to cooperate. Although, there is less excuse here for followers to be reticent about their ability, and the key is very much motivation. If the causes are found then they can be addressed by the leader. The

leader therefore spends time listening, praising and otherwise making the follower feel good when they the necessary commitment (Hersey & Blanchard, 2007).

4. ***Delegating/Observing***: Follower R<sup>4</sup>: High competence, high commitment/ able and willing or motivated. Leader: Low task focus, and low relationship focus. The leader only observes and monitors employee's performance after giving them responsibility for decisions and implementation. Improper application of this style can result in the leader disengaging too much from the decision making process. Particularly, when the follower can do the job and is motivated to do it, then leader can basically leave them to it, largely trusting them to get on with the job although they also may need to keep a relatively distant eye on things to ensure everything is going to plan. Followers at this level have less need for support or frequent praise; although as with anyone, occasional recognition is always welcome (Hersey & Blanchard, & Johnson, 2007).

To sum up the situational leadership theory, according to Hersey and Blanchard (1988), there is no one best way to influence people. Which leadership style a person should use with individuals or groups depends on readiness level of the people the leader is seeks to influence.

While there are many situational models and theories, some of them have received wide attention in leadership research. Some of the important situational theories that attempt to isolate critical situational factors affecting leadership effectiveness are explained below.

### **2.3.5 Vroom and Yetton's Normative Model**

Vroom and Yetton (1973) normative model of leadership emphasized that decision acceptance increases commitment and effectiveness of action. The model was premised on the assumption that participation increases acceptance. For Vroom and Yetton (1973) decision quality is the selection of the best alternative, and is particularly important when

there are many alternatives. It is also important when there are serious implications for selecting (or failing to select) the best alternative. Decision acceptance is the degree to which a follower accepts a decision made by leader. Leaders focus more on decision acceptance when decision quality is more important. Vroom and Yetton defined different decision procedures. Two are autocratic (A1 and A2), two are consultative (C1 and C2) and one is Group based (G2):

- A1: Leader takes known information and then decides alone.
- A2: Leader gets information from follower, and then decides alone.
- C1: Leader shares problems with follower as a group, listens to ideas and then decides alone.
- C2: Leader shares problems with followers as a group, listens to ideas and then decides alone.
- G2: Leader shares problems with followers as a group and then seeks and accepts consensus agreement.

Situational factors that influence the method are relatively logical:

1. When decision quality is important and followers possess useful information, then A1 and A2 are not the best method.
2. When the leader sees decision quality as important but followers do not, then G2 is inappropriate.
3. When decision quality is important, when the problem is unstructured and the leader lacks information/skill to make the decision alone, then G2 is best.
4. When decision acceptance is important and followers are unlikely to accept an autocratic decision, then A1 and A2 are inappropriate.
5. When decision acceptance is important but followers are likely to disagree with one another, then A1, A2 and C1 opportunity for differences to be resolved.

6. When decision quality is not important but decision acceptance is critical, then G2 is the best method.
7. When decision quality is important, all agree with this, and the decision is not likely to result in from an autocratic decision then G2 is best.

### **2.3.6 House's Path-Goal Theory of Leadership**

Path-Goal Theory (House, 1971) was developed to describe the way that leaders encourage and support their followers in achieving the goals they have been set by making the path they should take clear and easy. In particular, leaders:

1. Clarify the path so subordinates know which way to go.
2. Remove roadblocks that are stopping them going there.
3. Increasing the rewards along the route.

The theory emphasizes the relationship between the leaders' style and the characteristics of the subordinates and the work setting. The underlying assumption of path-goal model is derived from expectancy theory, which suggests that subordinates will be motivated if they think they are capable of performing their work, if they believe their efforts will result in a certain outcome, and if they believe that the payoffs for doing their work are worthwhile. House and Mitchell ((1974) describe four major types of leadership that shows how leadership style can affect employees' behaviours and attitudes:

1. ***Directive***: Telling followers what needs to be done and giving appropriate guidance along the way. This includes giving them schedules of specific work to be done at specific times. The leader tells employees what he expects of subordinates, gives them guidance about what they should do, and shows them how to do it. This may be used when the task is unstructured and complex and the follower is inexperienced. This

increases the follower's sense of security and control and hence is appropriate to the situation (House & Mitchell, 1971).

2. ***Supportive***: considering the needs of the follower, showing concern for their welfare and creating a friendly working environment. This increases the follower's self-esteem and making the job more interesting. Also, the leader shows concern for the well-being and needs of the employees by being friendly and approachable. This approach is best particularly when the work is stressful, boring or hazardous (Evans, (1990).
3. ***Participative***: the leader involves followers in decision making, consults them about their views of the situation, asks for their suggestions, considers those suggestions in making a decision, and sometimes lets the subordinates make decisions. This approach is best when the subordinates are expert and their advice is both needed and they expect to be able to give it.
4. ***Achievement oriented***: the leader helps employees set challenging goals both in work, and in self-improvement (and often together). The leader makes conscious effort to reward the accomplishment of these goals, and encourages employees to assume responsibility for achieving the goals. The leader shows faith in the capabilities of the follower to succeed. This approach is best when the task is complex.

The path-goal model proposes that the scope of the job and the characteristics of the subordinates moderate the relationship between a leader's behaviour and subordinates' performance and job outcomes. More specifically, *if there is ambiguity in the mind of the subordinate about his or her job, the leader should clarify the path to work-goal attainment; and if the path is already clear, a leader demonstrating high initiating structure will reduce subordinate's satisfaction.* The theory states in part, that subordinates accept a leader's behaviour when they perceive that that behaviour will lead to their present and future job satisfaction and motivation. It states also that the leader's behaviour can motivate subordinates, if behaviour is perceived by them as being capable of making it possible for

them to achieve their organizational goals (Ejiogu, Achumba & Asika, 1995). That is, the leader's behaviour must be supportive of the subordinates' goal accomplishment. Particularly, it further states that leaders behaviour is motivational to the subordinates if goal accomplishment is tied to appropriate reward and finally, the leader's behaviour must be capable of always guiding and supporting the subordinates in their goal accomplishment.

Some situational variables have been identified by Filley and House (1969) as having important influence on leadership effectiveness. These include the age and experience of the previous incumbent of the office of leader, the community within which the organization functions, the size and psychological climate of the group, the personalities of group members, cultural expectations of subordinates and the kind of job the leader holds. Situational variables have become almost universally accepted as having significant influence on the way a leader behaves.

## **2.4 Contingency Theories**

Contingency theorists' viewpoints posited that the leader's ability to lead is congruent upon various situational factors, including the leader's preferred style, the capabilities and behaviours of followers and also various other situational factors. Contingency theories are a class of behavioural theory that contends that there is no one best way of leading and that a leadership style that is effective in some situations may not be successful in others. An effect of this is that leaders who are very effective at one place and time may become unsuccessful either when transplanted to another situation or when the factors around them change.

### **2.4.1 Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Theory**

Widely respected as the father of the contingency theory of leadership, Fiedler (1967) has developed the leadership contingency model by studying the styles of many different leaders who worked in different contexts, primarily, military organisations. He assessed leader's



styles, the situations in which they worked, and whether or not they were effective. After analysing the styles of hundreds of leaders who were both good and bad, Fielder and his colleagues were able to make empirically grounded generalizations about which styles of leadership were best and which styles were worst for a given organisational context. This theoretical position assumes that leaders prioritize between task-focus and people-focus. Relationships, power and task structure are the three key factors that drive effective styles.

Fiedler (1967) proposed that leadership made unique contribution to the leader-focused approach: interactional theory or the “LPC” theory of Fiedler (1967). Fiedler postulated that the qualities needed for successful leadership depend on certain variables found in different situations, which may be classified according to the degree to which they favour or do not favour the leader. The theory dwelt on three criteria, which he considered to be very critical in classifying leadership situations namely:

- (i) ***Leader-members relations***: the extent to which the leader has the support and loyalties of the subordinates and relations with them are friendly and co-operative. Whether or not the subordinates trust and like their leaders.
- (ii) ***Task structure***: the extent, to which tasks are standardized, documented and controlled, i.e., the nature of the task in terms of ease or difficulty, e.g., structured and unstructured. The extent to which group’s goals and performance are clearly defined.
- (iii) ***Position power***: the extent to which the leader has authority to assess subordinate performance and give reward or punishment. The authority vested in the leadership situation, e.g., power to hire and fire etc; the extent to which the leader controls rewards and punishments for subordinates.

If we divide each of these three into high and low, it translates into  $2 \times 2 \times 2 = 8$  types of leadership situations. The most favourable being where the leader-member relations are good and task structured and position power are high. The least favourable is where leader-member

relations are poor, and task structured and position power is low. Recent investigators have gradually come to the conclusion that effective leadership represents a strong interaction between the characteristics of the leader himself and the characteristics of the situation (including the characteristics of the people to be led) in which leadership takes place.

Further, Fiedler states that, the situations are favourable to the leader if all three of the above dimensions are high. In other words, if the leader is generally accepted by followers, if the task is very well structured and everything is spelled out, and if a great deal of authority and power is formally attributed to the leader's position, the situation is very favourable. If the opposite exists, the situation will be very unfavourable for the leader. Fiedler was convinced that the favourableness of the situation combined with the leadership style determines effectiveness.

Based on research findings, contingency theory posits that certain styles will be effective in certain situations. Individuals who are task motivated - low Least Preferred Co-Workers (LPC) score will be effective in both very favourable and in very unfavourable situations, that is, in situations that are going along very smoothly or when things are out of control. Individuals who are relationship motivated (high LPC score) will be effective in moderately favourable situations, that is, in situation in which there is some degree of certainty but things are neither completely under their control nor out of their control. The leader who makes a wrong decision in this highly unfavourable type of situation is probably better off than the leader who makes no decision at all. In order to predict effective and ineffective styles of leadership, Fiedler, used interaction of leader personality (as measured by the less preferred co-workers the LPC) and the leadership situation on the other hand (as measured by leader member relations, task characteristics, and leader position power).

### **2.4.2 Transactional Leadership Theories**

Some of the foremost assumptions of Transactional leadership Theories are that people are motivated by reward and punishment. Social systems work best with a clear chain of command. When people have agreed to do a job, a part of the deal is that they cede all authority to their manager. The prime purpose of a subordinate is to do what their manager tells them to do. Descriptively, the transactional leader works through creating clear structures whereby it is clear what is required of their subordinates, and the rewards that they get for following orders. Punishments are not always mentioned, but they are also well-understood and formal systems of discipline are usually in place. According to the transactional theorist when the transactional leader allocates work to a subordinate, they are considered to be fully responsible for it, whether or not they have the resources or capacity to carry it out. When things go wrong, then the subordinate is considered to be personally at fault, and is punished for their failure (just as they are rewarded for succeeding). The transactional leader often uses management by exception, working on the principle that if something is operating to defined (and hence expected) performance then it does not need attention. Exceptions to expectation require praise and reward for exceeding expectation, whilst some kind of corrective action is applied for performance below expectation (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975). Transactional leadership is based on contingency, in that reward or punishment is contingent upon performance.

### **2.4.3 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory**

Leader-Member Exchange Theory, also called LMX or Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory, describes how leaders in groups maintain their position through a series of tacit exchange agreements with their members. LMX theory posited that the types of one-on-one, or dyadic, relationships that develop between the leader and each follower will be somewhat different. Therefore, in any work group, the leader tends to develop special relationships with a few

subordinates (the in-group) or an inner circle of trusted lieutenants, assistants and advisors to whom they give high levels of responsibility, decision influence, and access resources. The in-group pay for their position. They work harder, are more committed to task objectives, and share more administrative duties. They are also expected to be fully committed and loyal to their leader. The out-group, on the other hand, is given low levels of choice or influence, .i.e., they receive less attention or concern from the leader. The character of the leader-member exchange can range from low quality, in which the leader and the subordinates have a negative image of one another and the subordinate does not respect or trust the leader; to high quality in which the leader and the subordinates have a positive view of one another and the subordinates feel that the leader is supportive and provides encouragement. Such difference has been found to affect subordinates' job outcomes such as work performance, loyalty, commitment, attendance and job satisfaction (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002).

LMX model argued that leaders treat subordinates differently at varying degrees and levels contingent on whether the latter are part of the in-group (high-quality relationship) or out-group (low-quality relationship) (Graen and Scandura, 1987). The theory asserts that leaders do not interact with subordinates uniformly (Graen and Cashman, 1975) because supervisors have limited time and resources. "In-group" subordinates (workers who have positive image of their leaders) perform their jobs in accordance with the employment contracts and can be counted on by the supervisor to perform unstructured tasks, to volunteer for extra work, and to take on additional responsibilities. Supervisors exchange personal and positional resources (inside information, influence in decision making, task assignment, job latitude, support, and attention) in return for subordinates' performance of unstructured tasks (Graen and Cashman, 1975). As a result, research shows that mutual trust, positive support, informal interdependencies, greater job latitude, common bonds, open communication, high degree of autonomy, satisfaction, and shared loyalty exist in high-quality relationship (Dansereau,

Graen, and Haga, 1975; Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). In contrast, subordinates who perform only in accordance with the prescribed employment contract are characterized as “out-group” with limited reciprocal trust and support, and few rewards from their supervisors (Deluga, 1998).

Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) describe three major LMX processes and behaviour that can affect employees’ behaviours and attitudes:

1. **Role taking:** the member joins team and the leader assesses their abilities and talents. Based on these, the leader may offer them opportunities to demonstrate their capabilities. Another key factor at this stage is the discovery by both parties of how the other likes to be respected.
2. **Role making:** in the second phase, the leader and member take part in an unstructured and informal negotiation whereby a role is created for the member and the often-tact promise of benefit and power in return for dedication and loyalty takes place. Trust building is very important at this stage, and any felt betrayal, especially by the leader, can result in the member being relegated to the out-group. This negotiation includes relationship factors as well as pure work-related ones, and a member who is similar to the leader in various ways is more likely to succeed.
3. **Re-utilization:** in this phase, a pattern of on-going social exchange between the leader and the member becomes established.

#### **2.4.4 Transformational Leadership Theory**

One of the current approaches to leadership that has been the focus of much research since the early 1980s is the transformation approach. Transformation leadership is part of the “New leadership” paradigm (Bryman, 1992): people will follow a person who inspires them. Recent thinking about effective leadership has supplemented the situational approach with emphasis

on the leader's charisma, ability to develop and implement vision of the organisation, and ability of each worker to act as self-leader that is, also called super leadership, which refers to leading others to lead themselves. According to Manz and Sims (2002), when most people think of leadership, they think of one person doing something to another person. Leadership is about influence and a leader is one who has ability to influence another. The way to get things done is by injecting enthusiasm and energy. A classic leader- one whom everyone recognizes is a leader- is sometimes described as "Charismatic" or "heroic." A popular concept is the idea of a "transformational" leader, one who has the vision and dynamic personal attraction to total organisational change.

Transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms individuals. It is concerned with values, ethic standards, and long-term goals. Transformational leadership involves assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs and treating them as full human beings. It is a process that subsumes charismatic and visionary leadership. Transformational leadership is an encompassing approach that can be used to describe a wide range of leadership, from very specific attempts to influence followers on a one-to-one level to very broad attempts to influence whole organization and even an entire culture.

#### **2.4.5 Bass's Transformational Leadership Theory**

Bass (1985) transformational leadership theory proposed that awareness of task importance motivates people, and a focus on the team or organization produces better work. The proponents of this approach, argue that there are, essentially, two types of leaders, i.e., transactional and transformational. Transactional leaders motivate employees by appealing to self-interest. That is, transactional leaders treat leadership as an exchange or, a "transaction" – relationship between themselves and the employees. In spirit, they are saying, "I will look after your interests if you will look after mine." Bass defined transformational leadership in terms of how the leader affects followers, who are intended to trust, admire and respect the

transformational leader. Bass (1985) identified three ways in which leaders transform followers:

1. Increasing their awareness of task importance and value.
2. Getting them to focus first on team or organisational goals, rather than their own interests.
3. Activating their higher-order needs.

Although nothing may be wrong with this approach, Bass and others argued that this approach fails to lead to the kind of employee commitment and dedication necessary for greatness. To achieve these, the leader must exhibit charismatic or transformational characteristics.

Bass (1985) identified some of these transformational characteristics as:

1. Developing the vision: the leader has superior potential of developing of a vision, a view of the future that will excite and convert potential followers. This vision may be developed by the leader, by the senior team or may emerge from a broad series of discussions. The important factor is the leader buys into it, hook, line and sinker.
2. Selling the vision: the leader constantly sells the vision. This takes energy and commitment, as few people will immediately buy into a radical vision, and some will join the show more slowly than others. In order to create followers, transformation leader has to be very careful in creating trust, and their personal integrity is a critical part of the package that they are selling. In effect, transformational leaders are selling themselves as well as the vision.
3. Finding the way forwards: transformational leaders know the way, and simply want others to follow them. Others do not have a ready strategy, but will happily lead the exploration of possible routes to the promise land.

4. Leading the change: the leader remains up-front and central during the course of action. Always visible and will stand up to be counted rather than hide behind their troops. They show by their attitudes and actions how everyone else should behave. They also make continued efforts to motivate and rally their followers, constantly doing the rounds.

Bass has currently noted that authentic transformational leadership is grounded in moral foundations that are based on four components:

1. Idealized influence
2. Inspirational motivation
3. Intellectual stimulation
4. Individualized consideration

...and three moral aspects:

- The moral character of the leader
- The ethical values embedded in the leader's vision, articulation, and programme (which followers either embrace or reject).
- The morality of the processes of social ethical choice and action that leaders and subordinates engage in and collectively pursue.

#### **2.4.6 Burns' Transformational Leadership Theory**

According to Burns (1978), association with a higher moral position is motivating and will result in people following a leader who promotes this. Theory also proposed that working collaboratively is better than working individually. In this context therefore, transformational leadership refers to the process whereby an individual engaged with others, creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower.



Transformational leaders raise the bar by appealing to higher ideals and values of subordinates. In doing this, they may model the value themselves and use charismatic methods to attract people to the values and to the leader. This type of leader is attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their fullest potential. Burn's view is that transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership, where the appeal is to more selfish concerns. An appeal to social values thus encourages people to collaborate, rather than working as individuals (and potentially competitively with one another). This approach views transformational leadership as an on-going process rather than the discrete exchanges of the transactional approach. Burns points to Mohandas Gandhi as a classic example of transformational leadership. Gandhi raised the hopes and demands of millions of his people and in the process changed himself.

According to Schermerhorn (1996), the special qualities of transformational leaders include:

1. ***Vision***: having ideas and a clear sense of direction, communicating them to others and developing excitement about working hard to accomplish shared "dreams".
2. ***Charisma***: arousing others' enthusiasm, faith, loyalty, pride, and trust in themselves through the power of personal reference and appeals to emotions.
3. ***Symbolism***: identifying "heroes" offering special rewards, and holding spontaneous and planned ceremonies to celebrate excellence and high achievement.
4. ***Empowerment***: helping others to develop and perform, removing performance obstacles, sharing responsibilities and delegating truly challenging work.
5. ***Intellectual stimulation***: getting the involvement of others by creating awareness of problems and stirring their imagination to create high-quality solutions.
6. ***Integrity***: being honest and credible, acting consistently out of personal conviction.

A transformational leader is one who inspires trust, confidence, admiration and loyalty from his or her followers. As a result, followers are motivated to exert high levels of effort out of a

sense of personal loyalty to the leader, if not the organization. The transformational approach to the study of leadership relies heavily on the trait approach. It is believed that effective leaders exhibit several unique characteristics that give them influence over their followers. According to a study conducted by (Conger and Kanungo, 1987); these characteristics include the following:

1. High self-confidence; Charismatic leader's exhibit strong confidence in their own judgments and actions.
2. Ability to articulate a vision; the leader has a unique ability to put into words an idealized vision of what the future could hold. In fact, the greater the disparity between the "status quo" and the idealized vision, the greater the likelihood that followers will attribute extraordinary vision to the leader.
3. Willingness to assume high personal risks to pursue the vision; Charismatic leaders are often seen as willing to assume great risks to pursue their vision. This commitment to the future and self-sacrifice often entices others to follow.
4. Use of unconventional strategies; these leaders often use unconventional behaviour or break accepted norms as a sign of their confidence in their course of action. Such attention- getting behaviour often attracts the admiration of the followers.
5. Perception of leadership as opportunity to effect desirable change in behaviour.

#### **2.4.7 Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Challenge Hypothesis**

James Kouzes and Barry Posner developed a survey (The Leadership Practices Inventory) that asked which, of a list of common characteristics of leaders, were, in their experiences of being led by others, the seven top things they look for, admire and would willingly follow. And over twenty years, they managed ask this of seventy five thousand people. The result of the study showed that people preferred the following characteristics, in order:

- Honest
- Forward-looking
- Inspiring
- Intelligent
- Fair-minded
- Supportive
- Straight forward
- Dependable
- Cooperative
- Determined
- Imaginative
- Ambitious
- Courageous
- Caring
- Mature
- Loyal
- Self-controlled
- Independent

Kouzes and Posner (2002) identified five key successful leadership act (or behaviour):

1. Model the way: modeling means going first, living the behaviours you want others to adopt. This is leading from the front. People will believe not what they hear leaders say but what they see leader consistently do; Leadership by example.
2. Inspire a shared vision: people are motivated most not by fear or reward, but by ideas that capture their imagination.
3. Challenge the process: leaders thrive on and learn from adversity and difficult situations. They are early adopters of innovation.
4. Enable others to act: encouragement and exhortation is not enough. People must feel able to act and then must have the ability to put their ideas into action.
5. Encourage the heart: people act best of all when they are passionate about what they are doing. Leaders unleash the enthusiasm of their subordinates.

In conclusion, charismatic leaders are often seen by followers as change agents, especially when followers are disaffected or unhappy with current events.

#### **2.4.8 Max Weber's Social Action Theory**

Max Weber's Social Action Theory is a perspective that looks at meanings and interpretations of society the social action theory stresses the ability of individuals to exert control over their own actions. The individual is no passive receptacle of society's directives, but an active creator of social behaviour. So it is society which is constructed by the

individuals, and not the other way around, as the social system theory believes. Human beings are capable of conscious thought and this enables them to be aware of themselves and others as social beings. They have their own motives and beliefs, and their own interpretation of the meaning of a situation, they control their own actions. Social action perspectives are so called because of this emphasis on people taking action, on directing their own behaviour. This approach is also known as an interpretive perspective because it sees people interpreting and giving meaning to a situation and to the actions and motives of others.

Max Weber's social action has four types:

- Traditional Social Action=actions carried out by tradition, cultural, habits or customs
- Affective Social Action=emotional actions, expressing emotion
- Instrumental or Purposeful Social Action (*Zweckrationalität*):taking the appropriate steps toward a goal
- Value Rational Action (*Wertrationalität*)=The end justify the means, actions leading to a goal with no thought to its consequences

## **2.5 Theories of Personality and Workplace Behaviour**

Personality is “made up of the characteristic patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviours that make a person unique,” stated Wagner (2008). According to the book, *Organizational Behaviour*, personality is “the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts to and interact with others” (Robbins and Judge (2007)). It was also further discussed in the book that personality determinant could either be heredity or environment. Basically, these determinants exemplify the widely-debated phenomena in science which is nature or nurture. Nature or heredity would comprise factors which are inherent or inborn to a person, for example, physical features and other biological characteristics. Nurture or environment, on the other hand, are factors that shape or influence our personality as we grow up, such as familial upbringing, cultural and traditional norms, and other experiences that influenced us. Personality possesses some fundamental characteristics which include consistency, psychological and physiological, impact behaviours and actions, and multiple expressions.

Wagner (2008) described the aforementioned characteristics as: Consistency - There is generally a recognizable order and regularity to behaviours. Essentially, people act in the same ways or similar ways in a variety of situations. Psychological and physiological - Personality is a psychological construct, but research suggests that it is also influenced by biological processes and needs. Impact behaviours and actions - Personality does not just influence how we move and respond in our environment; it also causes us to act in certain ways. Multiple expressions - Personality is displayed in more than just behaviour. It can also be seen in our thoughts, feelings, close relationships, and other social interactions. Many theories of personality have been proposed, notable among which are: (1) The Trait Theory - understand individuals by breaking down behaviour patterns into observable traits (2) Psychodynamic Theory - emphasizes the unconscious determinants of behaviour, (3) Humanistic Theory - emphasizes individual growth and improvement, (4) Integrative Approach - describes personality as a composite of an individual's psychological processes.

### **2.5.1 The Trait Theories of Personality**

Some schools of thought believe that in an attempt to characterise or describe another person, it is possible to come up with a list of that individual's personal qualities/attributes. But how do we know which of these qualities are most important to an understanding of that person's behaviour? Personality psychologists have asked similar questions themselves. In order to answer them, they have developed a model of personality known as "***Trait Theory***" –a model of personality that seeks to identify the basic traits necessary to describe personality. Trait refers to an enduring dimension of personality characteristics along which people differ (Atkinson, Atkinson, Smith, & Hilgard, 1987). Trait also refers to any characteristics that differ from person to person in a relatively permanent and consistent way. Hence, the trait approach to personality attempts to isolate and to describe the basic properties of the individual that direct behaviour.

Traits theorists do not assume that some people have traits while others do not; rather they assume that people vary on a number of personality dimensions, or scales, each representing a trait. They proposed that all people possess certain traits, but that the degree to which a given trait applies to a specific person varies and can be quantified (Feldman, 2003). Thus, one could rate an individual on scales of intelligence, emotional stability, and aggressiveness and so on. To arrive at a global description of personality, therefore, one would need to know how the individual rated on a number of dimensions. The major challenge for trait theorists using this approach has been to identify the specific primary traits necessary to describe personality, because different theorists have come up with surprisingly different sets of traits (Wiggins, 1997).

(i) *Allport's Trait Theory*

One of the early trait theorists, Allport proposed that traits literally exist in the nervous system and are structures that guide consistent behaviour across a wide variety of situations. Allport also believed that, while traits described behaviour that is common to many people, each individual personality contains a unique constellation of traits. He opposed the idea of dividing people into various types and argued that each individual can be understood only in terms of his or her uniqueness and individuality.

Allport, after a systematic explanation and analysis of 18,000 separate terms, that could be used to describe personality, concluded by suggesting that there are three basic categories of traits. They are "cardinal," "central," and "secondary" traits (Allport, 1960). A cardinal trait is a simple characteristic that directs most of a person's activities. It is relatively rare, and is so general that it influences every act a person performs. An example of this in work setting might be selfishness observed in a worker who is so selfish that virtually every gesture reveals this attribute; such a worker might direct all his/her energy toward self-interest activities.

Most people, however, do not develop all-encompassing cardinal traits, instead, they possess a handful of central traits that make up the core of personality. More typical are “central traits”, which are often, but not always, detectable in behaviour. For example, a person may be generally aggressive but not display this central trait in every situation. Finally, secondary traits are attributes that do not form a vital part of the personality but come into play only in particular situations. They tend to affect behaviour in fewer situations and are less influential than central or cardinal traits.

*(ii) Eysenck’s Theory of Fundamental Personality Traits*

Another trait theorist, Hans Eysenck also used factor analysis to identify patterns of traits, but came to a very different conclusion about the nature of personality (Eysenck, 1994; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1992). He found that personality could best be described in terms of just three major dimensions; extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism which relate to social behaviour. The extraversion dimension relates to the degree of sociability, while the neurotic dimension encompasses emotional stability. Finally, psychoticism refers to the degree to which reality is distorted. By evaluating people along these dimensions, Eysenck has been able to predict behaviour accurately in a variety of situations. These three traits are thought to have a biological basis. Eventually, he proposed that most of the differences observed between people’s personalities can be accounted for by three factors, expressed as bi-polar dimensions.

- 1 Introversion-extroversion: Individuals at the extravert end of the dimension are characterized as ‘stimulus hungry’, requiring a variety of stimulus inputs. Extraverts meet their need for stimulation by engaging in a variety of social and physical activities. Extraverts also tend to be aggressive and unable to keep their feelings under control. At the other end of the dimension are, introverts who are quieter, have fewer friends, and are less active, have fewer interests, serious minded, conscientious and manage to keep their feelings under control.

- 2 Neuroticism-stability: High-scoring individuals on this dimension report anxiety, moodiness, worry, depression and sleep loss are easily upset and if upset take a considerable time to return to an even keel. Conversely, stable individuals experience less emotional upset, embarrassment and worry. When upset, stable individuals quickly return to their emotional baseline.
- 3 Psychoticism: Introduced sometime after the first two factors, it refers to the degree to which reality is distorted. Psychoticism is unlike them in that most individuals have low scores. Moderate scores are obtained by displaying lack of empathy, sensitivity and regard for others. The high scorers are hostile even to relative and friends, enjoy making fools of others and enjoy indulging in dangerous or bizarre activities.

By combining the first two dimensions, four broad characterisations of personality were created: stable-introvert, stable-extravert, neurotic-introvert, and neurotic-extravert. Interestingly, this statistically derived typology corresponds to that developed by Hippocrates in ancient Greece: phlegmatic, sanguine, melancholic and choleric. Hippocrates attributed these four temperaments to the relative level of four essential body fluids or 'humours'; blood, yellow bile, black bile and phlegm.

Eysenck also gave his typology a biological basis, linking it, not with body fluids but with the central nervous system (neuroticism-stability). He proposed that individual differences on the first dimension – introversion-extraversion – are explained by inherited differences in the '*excitatory potential*' of the central nervous system (CNS). Individuals whose excitatory potential are low are predisposed towards extraversion since the bias in their CNS is towards cells being inactive (inhibition) rather than active (excitation). This means extraverts require more going on around them for their brains to function adequately, and thus to maintain a reasonable level of alertness, than introverts who through their higher excitatory potential, are



already reasonably alert and thus less prone to switching their attention to other sources of stimuli: in other words, they are less easily distracted.

On the biological substrate of the introversion-extraversion dimension, he has suggested that an individual's position on the second dimension – neuroticism-stability – reflects the stability of his or her autonomic nervous system (ANS). The ANS is the part of the nervous system not directly under conscious control that carries a number of reflex activities: it is also involved in certain emotional response. Some individuals inherit a *labile* ANS, which responds vigorously to stress and also takes some time to return to baseline. In addition, they experience more spontaneous activity: that is, shifts in activation, which is not clearly attributable to external events. Conversely, some individuals are born with a *stable* ANS characterized by weaker responses to stress a more rapid return to baseline and less spontaneous activity. This means individuals with a *labile* ANS are constitutionally more prone to worry, anxiety, embarrassment and stress than those with a stable ANS. Thus individuals towards the neuroticism end of the dimension have a greater amount of 'free-floating' anxiety, which through conditioning can become attached to events or people. This may mean, for example, that social interaction can, for some individuals, become 'loaded' with a considerable amount of anxiety.

The third factor, psychoticism, is again presumed to reflect physiological differences between individuals. The relationship here has only been tentatively sketched by Eysenck and Eysenck (1976). They pointed that since the behaviour that loaded on to the psychoticism factor are essentially 'male', variation in the levels of androgen, (a male hormone), in a population could be responsible for this factor. This claim still awaits empirical support.

### 2.5.2 Psychoanalytic theory of personality

To this day, Sigmund Freud is the best known and most influential personality theorist. Freud specialised on entirely new perspective for the study of human behaviour. Up to this time, psychology had focused on “consciousness” –that is, on those thoughts and feelings in awareness. Freud, however, stressed that unconscious –a part of the personality of which a person is not aware, the unconscious encompasses all the ideas, thoughts and feelings which are hidden from conscious experience. The unconscious, to Freud, contains “instinctual drives”; infantile wishes desires, demands and needs that are hidden from conscious awareness because of the conflict and pain they would cause if they were part of everyday lives.

Freud compared the human mind to an iceberg. The small part that shows above the surface of the water represents “conscious experience”; the much larger mass below water represents the “unconscious”; a storehouse of impulses, passions and inaccessible memories that affect our thoughts and behaviour. It was this unconscious portion of the mind that Freud sought to explore by the technique of “free association”, “dream” and “slip of the tongue” analysis (Freudian slip).

According to Freud, the basis of human behaviour is to be found in various unconscious instincts, or drives. He distinguished two classes of instincts; life instincts and death instincts. Relatively, little is known about the *death instincts*, which show up as self-destructive, suicidal tendencies when directed toward the self and as aggression or war when directed toward others. Under life instincts, Freud included all those instincts involved in the survival of the individual and of the species; hunger, thirst, self-preservation, and especially sex. It is important to note that Freud used the term sexual instincts to refer not just to erotic sexuality but also the desire for virtually any form of pleasure. In this broad sense, Freud regarded the sexual instinct as the most critical factor in the development of personality.

The life and death instincts are part of what Freud called the “*id*”, the *id* appears at birth and it is a “seething cauldron” of unconscious urges and desires that are continually seeking expression. It is the reservoir of all psychological energies and inherited instincts. According to Freud, the *id* is the true psychic reality because it represents the inner world of subjective experience. The *id* operates according to the “*pleasure principle*”: It tries to obtain immediate gratification and thus to pursue pleasure and avoid pain. Just as soon as an instinct arises, the *id* seeks to gratify it. But since the *id* has no contact with the real world, it has just two ways of obtaining gratification. One is by reflex action, such as coughing which relieve unpleasant sensations at once. Another is by what Freud termed *wish fulfillment*, or *Primary-process thinking*: person forms a mental image of an object or situation that partially satisfied the instinct and relieves the uncomfortable feeling. A worker who is controlled by the *id* does whatever pleases him without considering the impact of this job attitude on the organization that he works for.

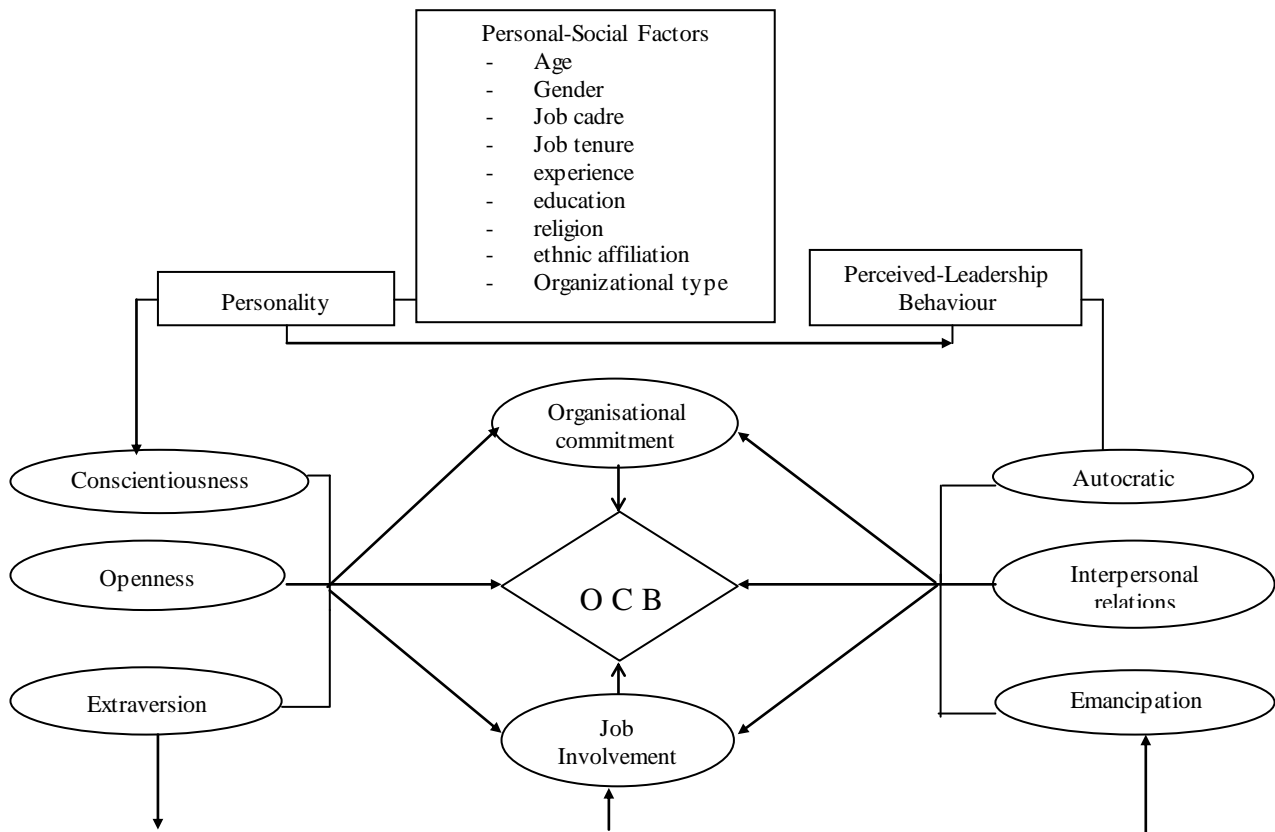
Freud thought that the “*ego*” controls all thinking and reasoning activities. Through the senses, the *ego* learns about the external world. The *ego* also controls the satisfaction of the *id*’s drives in the external world. As noted earlier in seeking to replace discomfort with comfort, the *id* acts according to the pleasure principle. In contrast, the *ego* operates by the reality principle. The *ego* is a referee between the needs of instincts and the demands of society. By means of intelligent reasoning, the *ego* tries to delay satisfying the *id*’s desires until it can do so safely and successfully. For example, if a person is thirsty, the *ego* will attempt to determine how best to obtain something to quench your thirst effectively and safely. Freud called this type of realistic thinking *secondary-process thinking*. A personality that is consisted only of *ego* and *id* would be completely selfish. It would behave effectively but unsociably. A worker whose *ego* is dominant is very realistic. He reasons on the

favourable organizational attitude to put up so that he does not appear as not uncommitted to the organizational behaviour.

Full adult behaviour is governed not only by reality but by morality –that is, by one’s conscience or the moral standards that people develop through interaction with parents and society. Freud called this moral guardian the “*Super-Ego*”, which is the third system in the Freud structure of personality. It represents the voice of morality, the rules of parents and society or the power of authority. The super-ego consists of the ego ideal, those normal and social standards that people come to believe are right. A worker with a functional super-ego is able to balance his needs with that of the organization. He behaves in an organizationally acceptable way. He reciprocates the good treatment of the organization with commitment and involvement with his job. According to Freud, the healthy personality must keep all three systems in balance. Ultimately, if a worker experiences cognitive dissonance in this regards, as a direct consequence of how he/she perceives leadership/supervisory behaviour of the boss, the individual reciprocates such perception by withholding commitment and job involvement and organizational prosocial behaviour.

## 2.6 Conceptual Framework

The hypothesised relationships provide conceptual basis for the relationships between the variables. The model below therefore summarises the conceptual linkage between personality and perceived Leader leadership-behaviours in relation to job-behaviours.



**Fig.1:** *Perceived Leadership Behaviour-Subordinate Personality Model of Workers' Job-Behaviour: G.A. Akinbode, 2010)*

This study has sought to establish a conceptual linkage between personality and perceived Leader leadership-behaviours as influenced by personal-social factors (age, gender, cadre, org. type etc) and inherited factors (inherited Psychological characteristics). From this interactionist viewpoint, Perceived leadership-behaviour and dispositional variables were examined as potential determinants of workplace behaviour. Therefore, Workplace behaviour was therefore conceived as a function (i) the meanings derived from social interaction (boss leadership-behaviours) between subordinates and the boss, (ii) how these meanings are modified by subordinates' dispositional attributes, (iii) actions and reactions to things on the

basis of the perceived meanings (Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Wysock & Kepner, 2000; Suar, Teweri & Chaturbedi, 2006). The conceptual framework suggests “inter-alia” that the meanings derived from social interaction is a function of individual’s dispositional attributes (i.e., extroversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience). It further posited that people’s perceptions of significant others in a social interaction is in a constant state of flux, therefore, ideals and thoughts are being exchanged between individuals’ at all times, as a result of which people’s perceptions would be modified or altered by these interaction. In the light of this, leader or boss influence strategies (interpersonal relations, emancipatory and autocratic leadership-behaviours) as perceived by sub-ordinates becomes a dominant factor in modifying workplace behaviours.

## **2.9 Theoretical Framework for the study**

The theories reviewed show that quality exchange relationships between boss and subordinates is a key factor in promoting effective followership in the workplace. Moreover, personality attributes of individuals’ and the meaning underlying bosses’ leadership-behaviours were associated with different job outcomes in workers. Considering significance of the central issues of focus in this study, the theoretical framework is based upon House (1971)’s Path-Goal Theory, Bandura (1977)’s Cognitive Social Learning Theory and Mead (1934)’s Symbolic Interaction Theory. According to these models, subordinates will be motivated if they believe that relationships and interaction with their boss will result in a certain outcome, and the payoffs for doing their work are worthwhile. Moreover, the theoretical positions emphasises the importance of situational and dispositional sources as determinants of behaviours. Symbolic interactionism holds the principal of meaning to be the central aspect of human behaviour (Blumer, 1969). The theory suggested that humans’ act toward things on the basis of the meaning that things have for them, particularly the meaning derive from social interaction. These meanings are dependent on, and modified by how the

individual interprets his/her perceptions of meaning. Moreover, these perceptions, as well as the interpretation of “derive meanings” are more or less a product of every person’s dispositional attributes.

### **2.9.1 Path-Goal Theory (House, 1971)**

Path-goal theory (House, 1971; 1996) emphasizes the relationship between the leaders’ style and the characteristics of the subordinates and the work setting. The underlying assumption of path-goal model is derived from expectancy theory, which suggests that subordinates will be motivated if they think they are capable of performing their work, if they believe their efforts will result in a certain outcome, and if they believe that the payoffs for doing their work are worthwhile. According to House (1971), House and Mitchell (1974) the theory incorporates four major types of leadership that shows how leadership style can affect employees’ behaviours and attitudes:

1. ***Directive***: the leader tells employees what he expects of subordinates, gives them guidance about what they should do, and shows them how to do it.
2. ***Supportive***: the leader shows concern for the well-being and needs of the employees by being friendly and approachable.
3. ***Participative***: the leader involves employees in decision making, consults them about their views of the situation, asks for their suggestions, considers those suggestions in making a decision, and sometimes lets the employees make decisions.
4. ***Achievement oriented***: the leader helps employees set goals, rewards the accomplishment of these goals, and encourages employees to assume responsibility for achieving the goals.

The path-goal model proposes that the scope of the job and the characteristics of the subordinates moderate the relationship between a leader’s behaviour and subordinates’

performance and job outcomes. More specifically, *if there is ambiguity in the mind of the subordinate about his or her job, the leader should clarify the path to work-goal attainment; and if the path is already clear, a leader demonstrating high initiating structure will reduce subordinate's satisfaction.* The theory states in part, that subordinates accept a leader's behaviour when they perceive that that behaviour will lead to their present and future job satisfaction and motivation. It states also that the leader's behaviour can motivate subordinates, if behaviour is perceived by them as being capable of making it possible for them to achieve their organizational goals (Ejiogu, Achumba & Asika, 1995; House & Aditya 1997). That is, the leader's behaviour must be supportive of the subordinates' goal accomplishment. Particularly, it further states that leader behaviour is motivational to the subordinates if goal accomplishment is tied to appropriate reward and finally, the leader's behaviour must be capable of always guiding and supporting the subordinates in their goal accomplishment (Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

## **2.9.2 Cognitive Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977)**

Cognitive Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) emphasises the importance of environmental, or situational, and dispositional sources as determinant of behaviour. For social learning theory, behaviour is the result of a continuous interaction between personal and environmental variables, i.e., person and situation influence each other reciprocally to predict behaviour. While the Cognitive-social approaches (Bandura, 1977) employ the Skinnerian outlook that behaviour is controlled by reinforcement, i.e., environmental conditions shape behaviour through learning; a person's behaviour, in turn, shapes the environment. Person and situation influence each other reciprocally to predict behaviour. Therefore, the need to understand how the characteristics of the individual interact with the characteristics of the situation becomes a crucial factor in predicting employee's job outcomes. Unlike other learning approaches to personality, "cognitive-social approaches"



emphasize the influence of a person's cognitions, thoughts, feelings, expectations and values in determining personality.

Bandura (1977) suggested that in addition to forming expectancies that they use to evaluate situations, people observe which behaviours are rewarded and which are punished. In work settings for example, these observations eventually lead people to develop “*performance standards*” and right attitudes by which they guide their behaviour. This approach believes strongly that personality develops by repeated observation of behaviour of others. Bandura suggested that people continuously evaluate their current behaviour against an individually developed standard of excellence and are variously successful in meeting the performance standard that they have internalised by placing emphasis on the role played by “self-efficacy”– learning behaviour expectations that one is capable of carrying out behaviour or producing a desired outcome.

The practical implication of this theoretical position is that people are capable of “self-regulating”. In other words, hope is not totally lost for a frustrated worker in work setting. The frustrated worker may modify his/her behaviour and seek reinforcement for other learned behaviour. This performance standard may be modified by his experiences with the environment (e.g., good leadership). He may pick interest in the quality of psychological relationship between himself, the manager/supervisor and co-workers hence regain his original performance standards. Bandura refers to such interaction between personality and the environment as “*reciprocal determinism*”.

### **2.9.3 Mead (1934)'s Symbolic Interaction Theory**

Symbolic interaction theory as proposed by Mead (1934) suggested that symbols were the basis of individual identity and social life. Mead's theory consisted of three key concepts (Griffin, 1997): (i) that human's naturally assign meaning to people and things. With these meanings assigned, we act accordingly, (ii) that meaning emerges from social interaction and

the language used (i.e., meanings come from people, not objects, (iii) that one's own thought process is used to develop his or her own interpretation of symbols. Moreover, the process of role taking shapes one's understanding of others and their self. The fundamental character of symbolic interactionist ideas is suggested by the theoretical proposition that the self reflects society and organizes behavior and by related imagery that addresses the nature of society and the human being, the nature of human action and interaction, and the relationship between society and the person (Blumer, 1969). That imagery begins with a vision of society as a web of communication: Society is interaction, the reciprocal influences of persons who, as they relate, take into account each other's characteristics and actions, and interaction is communication. Influenced by the work of John Dewey, Mead (1934)'s symbolic interactionism insisted that human beings are best understood in relation to their environment (Society for More Creative Speech, 1996). The central theme of symbolic interactionism is that human life is lived in the symbolic domain. Interaction is "symbolic," that is, conducted in terms of the meanings persons develop in the course of their interdependent conduct. The environment of human action and interaction is symbolically defined. It is the environment as it is interpreted that is the context, shaper, and object of action and interaction. Persons act with reference to one another in terms of symbols developed through interaction and act through the communication of those symbols. Work environment is a label aggregating and summarizing such interaction. Workplace environment does not "exist"; it is created and continuously re-created as persons interact. Social reality is a flow of events joining two or more persons. More than simply being implicated in the social process, workplace and the person derive from that process: They take on their meanings as those meanings emerge in and through social interaction.

Workplace is a typical arena in which meanings are continually being defined and re-defined. There are many different and legitimate ways of viewing the social world, particularly in the workplace. The latter is seen as being in a state of flux. Ideas and concepts are being

exchanged between individuals at all times, and people's perceptions of the world are being altered by these interactions. Therefore, people act based on symbolic meanings they find within any given situation. We thus interact with the symbols, forming relationships around them. The goals of our interactions with one another are to create shared meaning. The following are some of the major assumptions of symbolic interactionism:

- We act toward others based on the meaning that those other people have for us.
- Meanings are modified through an interpretive process whereby we first internally create meaning, then check it externally and with other people.
- People are unique creatures because of their ability to use symbols.
- People become distinctively human through their interaction with others.
- People are conscious and self-reflective beings who actively shape their own behaviour.
- People are purposeful creatures who act in and toward situations.
- Human society consists of people engaging in symbolic interaction.
- The "social act" should be the fundamental unit of social psychological analysis.
- Our social structures are worked out through the social interactions with others.
- To understand people's social acts, we need to use methods that enable us to discern the attribute to these acts.

Reality according to symbolic interaction theory is primarily a social product, and all that is humanly consequential –self, mind, society, culture –emerges from and is dependent on symbolic interactions for its existence. Even the physical environment is relevant to human conduct mainly as it is interpreted through symbolic systems. This model consequently suggests that apart from altering people's perceptions of the world by quality exchange (boss-subordinate interpersonal interactions), appropriate intervention strategies should be put in place to ensure the people develop appropriate workplace dispositional attributes through interaction with others. Moreover, the fact that people's interpretation of the meaning derive

from social interaction alters the understanding of what is encountered; leadership atmosphere, therefore, must be seen as a potential instrument of ensuring quality leader-subordinate exchange.

#### **2.7.4 Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalytic theory**

To this day, Sigmund Freud is the best known and most influential personality theorist. Freud specialised on an entirely new perspective for the study of human behaviour. Up to this time, psychology had focused on "consciousness" –that is, on those thoughts and feelings in awareness. Freud, however, stressed that unconscious –a part of the personality of which a person is not aware, the unconscious encompasses all the ideas, thoughts and feelings which are hidden from conscious experience. The unconscious, to Freud, contains "instinctual drives"; infantile wishes, desires, demands and needs that are hidden from conscious awareness because of the conflict and pain they would cause if they were part of everyday lives.

Freud compared the human mind to an iceberg. The small part that shows above the surface of the water represents "conscious experience"; the much larger mass below water represents the "unconscious"; a storehouse of impulses, passions and inaccessible memories that affect our thoughts and behaviour. It was this unconscious portion of the mind that Freud sought to explore by the technique of "free association", "dream" and "slip of the tongue" analysis (Freudian slip).

According to Freud, the basis of human behaviour is to be found in various unconscious instincts, or drives. He distinguished two classes of instincts; life instincts and death instincts. Relatively little is known about the *death instincts*, which show up as self-destructive, suicidal tendencies when directed toward the self and as aggression or war when directed toward others. Under life instincts, Freud included all those instincts involved in the survival of the individual and of the species; hunger, thirst, self-preservation, and especially sex. It is

important to note that Freud used the term sexual instincts to refer not just to erotic sexuality but also the desire for virtually any form of pleasure. In this broad sense, Freud regarded the sexual instinct as the most critical factor in the development of personality.

The life and death instincts are part of what Freud called the “*id*”, the *id* appears at birth and it is a “seething cauldron” of unconscious urges and desires that are continually seeking expression. It is the reservoir of all psychological energies and inherited instincts. According to Freud, the *id* is the true psychic reality because it represents the inner world of subjective experience. The *id* operates according to the “*pleasure principle*”: It tries to obtain immediate gratification and thus to pursue pleasure and avoid pain. Just as soon as an instinct arises, the *id* seeks to gratify it. But since the *id* has no contact with the real world, it has just two ways of obtaining gratification. One is by reflex action, such as coughing which relieve unpleasant sensations at once. Another is by what Freud termed *wish fulfillment*, or *Primary-process thinking*: person forms a mental image of an object or situation that partially satisfied the instinct and relieves the uncomfortable feeling. A worker who is controlled by the *id* does whatever pleases him without considering the impact of this job attitude on the organization that he works for.

Freud thought that the “*ego*” controls all thinking and reasoning activities. Through the senses, the *ego* learns about the external world. The *ego* also controls the satisfaction of the *id*’s drives in the external world. As noted earlier in seeking to replace discomfort with comfort, the *id* acts according to the pleasure principle. In contrast, the *ego* operates by the reality principle. The *ego* is a referee between the needs of instincts and the demands of society. By means of intelligent reasoning, the *ego* tries to delay satisfying the *id*’s desires until it can do so safely and successfully. For example, if a person is thirsty, the *ego* will attempt to determine how best to obtain something to quench your thirst effectively and safely. Freud called this type of realistic thinking *secondary-process thinking*. A personality that is consisted only of *ego* and *id* would be completely selfish. It would behave effectively

but unsociably. A worker whose ego is dominant is very realistic. He reasons on the favourable organizational attitude to put up so that he does not appear as not uncommitted to the organizational behaviour.

Full adult behaviour is governed not only by reality but by morality –that is, by one’s conscience or the moral standards that people develop through interaction with parents and society. Freud called this moral guardian the “*Super-Ego*”, which is the third system in the Freud structure of personality. It represents the voice of morality, the rules of parents and society or the power of authority. The super-ego consists of the ego ideal, those normal and social standards that people come to believe are right. A worker with a functional super-ego is able to balance his needs with that of the organization. He behaves in an organizationally acceptable way. He reciprocates the good treatment of the organization with commitment and involvement with his job. According to Freud, the healthy personality must keep all three systems in balance. Ultimately, if a worker experiences cognitive dissonance in this regards, as a direct consequence of how he/she perceives leadership/supervisory behaviour of the boss, the individual reciprocates such perception by withholding commitment and job involvement and organizational prosocial behaviour

## **2.10 Empirical Review**

### **2.8.1 Leadership-Behaviour and Organisational Commitment**

Various researches have shown that the type of leadership style/behaviour determines the behaviour of subordinates or workers in an organisation. For example, Wayne and Ferris (1990), Wysocki and Kepner (2000) among such studies reported that leadership styles that see workers as generally motivated by money, resistant to change, lacking in job knowledge, and as a means to an end rather than co-operative and hard work tend to retard employee productivity, effectiveness, satisfaction and organizational commitment. In Nigeria, it has been observed that most managers in organisations especially those in the public sector adopt

leadership styles that do not encourage initiative, creativity and autonomy of the employees and this has led to organizational inefficiencies (Fagbohunge, 1981; Omeneki, 1991; Ogunyinka, 1992).

Fagbohunge (1981) in a similar study used leadership behaviour description and industrial turnover questionnaire to determine the behaviour of work supervisors in Nigeria National Population Commission. In the study, 48 junior workers were instructed to rate the behaviour of their leaders by filling the questionnaires, i.e., leadership behaviour description, and industrial turnover questionnaire. The result indicated that democratic style was less associated with high turnover than the autocratic leadership. Tenure and age appears to be a strong predictor of organisational commitment (Fagbohunge, 1981; Aboloko, 1985).

Ejimofo (1987), in a similar study, found out a significant relationship between organizational commitment and leadership style, particularly with autocratic leadership style. No relationship was found between democratic leadership style and organizational commitment. Meanwhile, a related study conducted by Aboloko reported significant relationship (Aboloko, 1985). This result is not surprising, because it is a reflection of superior supervisory practices in the private sector. Also, Esigbone (2000) in a related study on influence of perceived leadership style on employees' job satisfaction reported that democratic leadership style showed a statistically strong significant positive correlation with job satisfaction, while autocratic leadership style showed a weak relation with job satisfaction.

Omeneki (1991) investigated the impact of perceived leadership styles on employee commitment among NITEL workers. The result revealed that there was no significant difference in employees' commitment between workers who perceived their leader/boss as democratic or autocratic. There were no gender differences in workers' commitment. Jobs tenure was also found not to be related to workers' organisational commitment. Ogunyinka,

(1992) in a similar study revealed a positive correlation between democratic leadership style and organisational commitment. A significant positive relationship was also obtained for the relationship between autocratic leadership style, and workers' organisational commitment was not significantly different between public and private sectors. It is also revealed in the results that job tenure does not in any way influence workers' commitment.

Makoto (1997) also investigated the relationship between 3 leadership behaviours (pressure, planning and maintenance) and subordinate morale, skill level, status and need for autonomy. He concluded that for a subordinate with high status (senior staff) planning is the most effective leadership behaviour, while maintenance is more effective with subordinate with low status.

Alarape and Akinlabi (2000) were of the opinion that employees develop their work attitude based on their general perceptions about the actions of their organisations toward them. Such perceptions are formed based on the organizations' policies, procedures and decisions driven by managers. From such perceptions, employees could infer the intentions of the organization toward them and choose to be committed, involved or withdraw their loyalty (Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

Foke (2001) in a similar study investigated the effects of leadership behaviour on job satisfaction, productivity and organizational commitment. The study explored the relationships between five leadership behaviours identified by Kouzes and Posner (2002) and the employee outcomes of registered nurses practising in the general wards, intensive care units and the coronary care unit in an acute hospital. The study concluded that leadership behaviours and employee outcomes were significantly correlated. The regression results indicated that 29% of job satisfaction, 22% of organizational commitment, and 9% of productivity were explained by the use of leadership behaviour, (Foke, 2001).



Ehrhart and Klein (2001), for instance, identified a collection of personality traits and values that correspond to a preference towards leaders who emphasise and promote a clear, inspiring, and challenging vision of the future, the cornerstone of transformational leadership. In particular, employees who like to participate in workplace decisions, but do not especially value job security, were likely to demonstrate a preference for charismatic leaders (Dvir & Shamir, 2003)

Laka-Mathebula (2003) investigated relationship between organisational commitments among 246 employees from 11 institutions of higher learning. There were 45.12% females and 54.51% males. The average age of respondents was 41.9 years. Correlation analysis and multiple regressions indicated a weak prediction of organisational commitment. Jaskyte (2004) revealed that for commitment, the combination of leadership behaviours, participation, work control and subordinate relations explained 48.1% of its variance. Mester, Visser, Roodt, (2003) examined the relationships between leadership style and organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational citizenship behaviour among employees of selected engineering company. A sample of 52 leaders and 276 employees participated in the empirical study. The results of a canonical correlation analysis using the raters data indicated that the most prominent relationship was that between transactional leadership and affective commitment. Furthermore, transformational and transactional leadership did not correlate significantly with the constructs of job involvement and job satisfaction.

Jaskyte (2004) assessed changes in employees' perceptions of leadership behaviour, job design and organizational arrangements and their job satisfaction and commitment. It was hypothesized that employees' perceptions of organizational arrangements, job characteristics, and leadership behaviour would be related to their job satisfaction and commitment. The

result showed that employees' perceptions of leadership behaviour were important predictors of job satisfaction and commitment, (Jaskyte, 2004).

Avolio, Zhu, Koh and Bhatia (2004) examined whether psychological empowerment mediated the effects of transformational leadership on followers' organizational commitment among 520 staff nurses employed by a large public hospital. Structural distance (direct and indirect leadership) was also examined between leaders and followers moderated the relationship, and between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Results from statistical analyses showed that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Similarly, structural distance between the leader and follower moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Elloy (2005) in a related study investigated the influence of superleader behaviours on organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisation self-esteem among 141 employees in a self-managed work team. The results indicated that teams groups that were led by a supervisor who exhibited the characteristics of a superleader had higher levels of organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and organisational self-esteem.

Epitropaki & Martin, (2005) matched the behaviour of leaders with the implicit expectations of their followers and observed that the job satisfaction, commitment to the organization, and well-being of employees improved. This finding suggests that workers-related leadership behaviour is more likely to promote desirable work attitudes in employees. This approach, however, is not feasible unless supervisors and managers can establish the preferences of their followers. Fortunately, research indicates that the personality of followers could influence their leadership preferences. Perryer and Jordan (2005) also investigated the influence of two dimensions of leader behaviour (supportive behaviour and extinction behaviour) on organisational commitment among public sector workers. It was found that,

while controlling for demographic variables, both extinction and supportive leader behaviour affect organisational commitment. Furthermore, a significant interaction of these two variables was found. This indicates that an increase in supportive leader behaviour together with a decrease in extinction leader behaviours will likely lead to a more than proportionate increase in levels of organisational commitment.

Leach (2005) in a related study investigated the relationships between nurse executive leadership and organisational commitment among nurses in acute care hospitals. A cross-sectional, field survey of nurse executives, nurse managers, and staff nurses was conducted to assess nurse executive transformational leadership to organisational commitment. Results revealed an inverse relationship between nurse executive transformational and transactional leadership and alienative (high negative) organisational commitment. Also, a positive association was demonstrated between nurse executive leadership and nurse manager leadership.

Suar, Tewari and Chaturbedi (2006) have shown that subordinates' perception of leadership style has a significant relationship with commitment to the organization and job satisfaction. Several major studies have found a positive relationship between these variables such as Newman (1974); Porter, Campon and Smith (1976), Mathieu and Zajack (1994) and Wilson (1995). Huang, Shi, Zhong & Cheung (2006) investigated the impact of participative leadership on psychological empowerment and organisational commitment 173 employees of Chinese two state owned enterprise. The study found that participative leadership behaviour was associated with organisational commitment, but not with all four dimensions of psychological empowerment.

Akroyd, Jackowski and Legg (2007), in a related study investigated the predictive ability of selected organisational leadership, work role and demographic variables on organisational commitment among 3000 full time radiographers. The participants were surveyed by mail

regarding their commitment to their employers, leadership within the organization that employs them, employer support and demographic information. Result indicated that radiographers were found to only have only a moderate level commitment to their employers. Among the factors that significantly affected commitment were the radiographer's educational level, perceived level of organisational support, role clarity and organisational leadership.

Weaver & Yancey (2010) in a related study investigated the impact of dark leadership on organizational commitment and turnover among 80 employees working for a manufacturing company in a mid-sized, mid-western town. Results indicated that dark leadership (narcissistic, compulsive leader, paranoid leader, co-dependent leader, passive-aggressive leader) was found to be inversely related to the workers' affective commitment to the organization and to the workers' intent to remain with the organization. We examine how organizations can do a better job of identifying and dealing with dark leadership. Salami, (2002) examined demographic and psychological predictors of organisational commitment outside leaders behaviour 320 employees (male = 170, female = 150), randomly selected from 5 service and 5 manufacturing organizations in Oyo State, Nigeria. Measures of biographical data, emotional intelligence, work-role salience, achievement motivation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment were administered on the sample. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to analyse the data collected. Results showed that emotional intelligence, work-role salience, achievement motivation, job satisfaction and all demographic factors except gender significantly predicted organizational commitment of the workers.

Kul & Guclu (2010) also investigated the relationship between school administrators' leadership style and teachers' organizational commitment. Two hundred and ninety-one (291) physical education teachers participated in the study. Results indicated teachers' general perceptions school administrators as "transformational leadership behaviors" and sometimes

“procedural leadership behaviors”. Further analysis revealed that teachers show lower organizational commitment in the compliance sub-dimension, moderate organizational commitment in the identification sub-dimension and higher organizational commitment in the internalization sub-dimension. When sub-dimensions of physical education teachers’ organizational commitment and sub-dimensions of schools administrators’ leadership styles are examined, transformational leadership has 1-a negative moderate significant relationship with adaptation, 2-a positive moderate significant relationship with identification and 3-a positive high significant relationship with internalization. School administrators’ procedural leadership sub-dimension has a positive high significant relationship with only internalization sub-dimension of physical education teachers’ organizational commitment.

#### **2.8.4 Leadership-behaviour and Job involvement**

Jones, James and Bruni (1975) investigated perceived leadership behaviour and employee confidence in leaders as moderated by job involvement among 112 civil service and military engineering employees. Results show that high-job involvement tended to have significantly lower correlations between confidence and trust and leadership variables. Mester, Visser & Roodt, (2003) examined the relationships between leadership style and organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational citizenship behaviour among employees of selected engineering company. A sample of 52 leaders and 276 employees participated in the empirical study. The results of a canonical correlation analysis using the rater data indicated that the most prominent relationship was that between transactional leadership and affective commitment. Furthermore, transformational and transactional leadership did not correlate significantly with the constructs of job involvement and job satisfaction.

Elloy, Everett and Flynn (2007) in an attempt to examined correlates of job involvement explored the portion of common variance shared with job involvement by combinations of

personal and situational characteristics and outcome variables. Correlation and regression analysis supported Rabinowitz and Hall's (1977) profile of job-involved employee: (i.e. the relationship between job involvement and personal situational characteristics and work outcomes are approximately equal in size). Also, situational characteristics (i.e. leadership atmosphere inclusive) and outcome variables are each found to display comparable amount of common variance with job involvement and considerably more than do personal characteristics.

Pupipatphol (2008) in a related study examined the relationships between transformational leadership, job involvement and role of professional nurses in primary care units. Data was collected from 250 professional nurses, randomly selected through simple random sampling technique. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients reveal that transformational leadership was positively related to job involvement of professional nurses' primary care units investigated. Badrul, Hussin, Ghani and Jusoff (2009) examined the influence of ethical leadership on job involvement among 302 lecturers from five polytechnics. The sampled participants comprised of 120 male and 186 female lecturers. 47.7% of the lecturers hold bachelors degrees and 43.5% hold masters degrees. The remaining 8.8% hold diploma as their highest academic qualifications. Pearson correlation analysis revealed that ethical leadership has a low positive relationship with job involvement. However, linear regression analysis shows that ethical leadership is a significant predictor of job involvement, despite its low correlations.

### **2.8.5 Leadership-Behaviour and OCB**

Lagomarsino and Cardona (2003) examine the relationships among leadership behaviour, organisational commitment and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) among 116 medical doctors. Results show that transactional leadership behaviours increase followers' continuance commitment and decrease their growth commitment, whereas transformational leadership behaviours increase followers' growth commitment and also their normative

commitment. Further, organisational commitment mediates in the relationship between leadership and OCB.

Reilly, Lojeski & Ryan (2006) investigated leadership and organizational citizenship behavior among 147 e-collaborative teams. The participants completed a web-based questionnaire describing their organization, current position and their experiences with a recently completed project. Most of the respondents worked in technology-related fields in a variety of organizations with headquarters in the Northeastern corridor and held positions ranging from Vice-president to programmer. Seventeen different organizations were represented and included financial services, manufacturing, healthcare, government, software, and outsourcing industries. The largest functional areas included Information Technology (33%) and Engineering (15%). Respondents' organizations varied considerably in size with half having less than 5,000 employees and half more than 5,000 employees. A hierarchical regression analysis was used to test hypotheses. Measures of leadership and virtual distance were entered in the first step and the cross product of the two variables was entered in the second step. Results showed that both virtual distance and leadership contributed significantly to the prediction of OCB in step 1. The cross-product, added in Step 2, resulted in a significant increase in the multiple correlations suggesting that the influence of leadership differs depending upon the virtual distance of the team member. They, however, concluded that leadership had a stronger influence on OCB when virtual distance was high.

Asgari, Silong, Ahmad, & Sama (2008) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours, leader-member exchange and OCB to assess the impact of six dimensions of transformational leadership behaviours— contribution and affect – on citizenship behaviour and to test the mediating impact of the LMX on the transformational leadership behaviours-citizenship relationship. The participants in this study were 220 full-

time employees with their managers who working in the educational organization in Iran. Data were collected on a structured questionnaire containing standard scales of transformational leadership behaviors, LMX, and organizational citizenship behaviours. Results indicated that dimensions of transformational leadership behaviors are more likely to predict citizenship behaviour than the affect dimension of LMX. Further, LMX is not mediating the relationship of transformational leadership behaviours with citizenship behaviour.

Jiao, Richard & Zhang (2010) examined how perceived organisational instrumentality (the extent to which employees believe that OCB contribute to the functionality and effectiveness of their work unit or organization) and perceived individual instrumentality (the extent to which employees believe that OCB is important to their own interests) relate to employee engagement in OCB and how these perceptions mediate the effects of leadership on OCB. Matched survey from 161 superior-subordinate dyads in a mid-sized financial company in China provided data for the study. The subordinates completed measures of perceived organisational and individual instrumentalities, transformational leadership, and contingent-reward leadership. Supervisors rated subordinates' OCB. Result revealed that perceived organisational instrumentality was related to and explained variance in OCB beyond perceived individual instrumentality. Moreover, perceived organisational and individual instrumentalities partially mediated between leadership (transformational leadership and contingent reward) and OCB.

## **2.9. Personality and Workplace behaviours**

Eze's (1980, 1981, and 1985) studies reported what seems to be one of the most provocative research findings about personality of an average Nigerian worker. He identified the average Nigerian dispositional attributes as Hungry-Greedy—Corrupt-Manipulative (HGCM Personality), characterized by ancestral psychological laziness, habitual indifference to



inquiry, extremely pre-occupied with religion and subsistence living life-style. The shameful attribute of the personality he claimed are the main factors that paint an ugly picture of almost every Nigerian in the areas of efficiency, competence, achievement, intrinsic motivation, honesty, involvement, commitment, satisfaction and productivity (Eze 1981).

The relationship between personality psychology and industrial and organisational psychology has never been close (Hogan, Hogan & Roberts, 1996). Where personality psychologists have focused on clinical and social psychology, applied and industrial organisational (I/O) psychologists have tended to focus on situational explanations of work-related behaviours (Furnham, 2001). The role of affective dispositions in shaping an individual's work-related attitudes is now becoming increasingly accepted by organisational psychologists. After years of research in which attitudes were regarded primarily as a function of the objective or perceived work environment, individual differences in affective disposition are now thought to play an important role in determining how people view their working lives (Barsade, Brief, Spataro, 2003). According to the integrated model of attitudes described by Brief (1998), work-related attitudes depend on both objective circumstances and individual dispositional characteristics such as positive and negative affectivity.

Support for the role of "affect" as an antecedent of work attitudes comes from studies that measure both the attitudes and the affective dispositions of individuals. In a meta-analysis of 205 such studies, Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren and dechermont (2003) found significant true-score correlations between work attitudes, and dispositions and personality traits. For example, job satisfaction correlated .33 with trait positive affect and -.37 with trait negative affect. Extraversion, a personality trait associated with positive affect, correlated .22 with job satisfaction and .22 with organisational commitment; and neuroticism, a personality trait associated with negative affect, correlated -.28 with job satisfaction and -.23 with

organisational commitment. In the second meta-analytic study, Judge, Heller and Mount (2002) found job satisfaction correlated .25 with extraversion and -.29 with neuroticism.

#### **2.9.4 Personality and Organisational Commitment**

Personality characteristics have been identified as playing a key role in organizational commitment (Mowday, Porter & Steer, 1982; Howard & Howard, 2000; Nikolaou & Robertson, 2001). The core of personality and workplace behaviour are the assumptions about the relations between individuals and the contexts they live, work and learn in. Oftentimes management and organizational behaviour practitioners tend to portray the person as largely passive and open to manipulation from managers or supervisors. Recent studies have looked at numerous personality characteristics that affect job outcomes. One of such studies was conducted by Judge, Heller and Mount (2002) in which they investigated the role of the five-factor model factors on job satisfaction— a meta-analysis. They found out that extraversion displayed non-zero relationship with job satisfaction across studies. O'Reilly & Roberts (1973) maintained that attitudes and behaviour toward work are a reflection of the frame of reference the worker brings to work and affect workers' perception of job satisfaction, etc.

In a study that is examining the antecedents of organisational commitment, Camilleri (2002) examined the relationship between personality characteristics and organisational commitment. The participants were 330 fulltime and part-time technical organisational members of a public sector information systems organisation. Hypotheses were based upon the premise that personality preferences have a bearing upon the extent of an employee's level of organisational commitment. It is contended that extraverted and introverted personalities tend to view their working environment differently, thus their level of OC is bound to be different. The degree of organisational commitment is dependent on the personality of the individual was tested. Results revealed significant difference between the organisational commitment level and the personality of the individual.

In another related study, Hoffmann, Ineson & Stewart (2010) investigated three components of organisational commitment: affective, continuance, and normative commitment among 145 operatives in sales and marketing and reservation departments of five-star hotels in Germany. The study examined whether personality is an indicator of organisational commitment. Questionnaires assessing personality type and OC were completed by the sampled participants. The result finds support for a positive relationship between personality and affective commitment. Findings also revealed that personality assessment could determine employees with higher affective commitment and hence identify those persons most likely to contribute to organisational effectiveness and success.

Sharma (2008), in yet another study exploring the personality and adjustment correlates of organisational commitment among college teachers, collected data from 336 full-time teachers of 49 different college (31 private and 18 Government). Obtained data were analysed by applying Product Moment Method of Correlation. Results obtained from the correlational analyses revealed that the personality factors G, H, L, M, and Q3 of 16PF were significant personality correlates of organisational commitment among college teachers. The findings depict that college teachers temperamentally characterised as conscientious, rule-bound, venturesome, socially bold, trusting, adaptable, practical, regulated by external realities, controlled, high in self-concept control; and having home, health, emotional, and occupational adjustment tend to be more committed to their working organisation/institution (Sharma, 2008).

Barrick and Mount (1991) conducted a meta-analysis of studies examining the relationship between scores on the big-five and measures of job performance. They suggested that personality traits can predict some types of work related behaviour but the correlations between a person's score on the test and their job performance rating (often times taken from supervisor's appraisals) are usually very small. That is, there may be some relationship

between scores on personality test and some measures of job performance, but it is not a strong relationship. However, and more generally, Furnham (1997) points out the research evidence on the relationship between a person's score on a personality test and subsequent measures of job performance have not been conclusive. On looking across a range of research studies he estimates that personality traits can account for between 15 and 30 percent of the variance in explaining work behaviour. This implies that, between 70 and 85 percent of the variance in people's work behaviour are explained by factors other than personality traits.

Thus, the frame of reference the worker brings to the job becomes a determinant of satisfaction he is likely to derive from it and this will determine the pattern of response to job satisfaction instruments. Jegede (2004) investigated the effect of personality factors on organizational commitment among 140 public sector workers. The result revealed a significant interaction effect of gender and personality on organizational commitment. Extroversion and introversion did not show significant main effect on organizational commitment.

Many personality researchers in recent years contend that five factors best described almost every significant personality scale (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa, Jr & McCrae, 1992; Hough & Schneider, 1996). The five-factor model, although frequently challenged and debated (e.g., Becker, 1999; Kanfer & Ackerman, 2000; Lee, Ogunfowora, & Aston, 2005; McAdams, 1992; Murtha, Kanfer, & Ackerman, 1996), remains the most pervasive and accepted characterization of personality traits (Goldberg, 1993; Judge & Ilies, 2002). Furthermore, most other formulations extended, rather than reject, this model altogether (Ashton, Lee & Son, 2000; Ashton, Lee, Perugini, Szarota, de Vries, & Di Blas, 2004; Piedmont, 1999).

### **2.9.5 Personality and Job Involvement**

Robinowitz and Hall (1977) argued that job involvement is an individual difference variable, whether primarily an attribute of the person or a response to the work environment. Liao and

Lee (2009) suggested that if job involvement is a stable attribute of a person, it is somewhat akin to a personality characteristic, such that job involvement represents the employee's response to the psychological stimulation that characterizes the job. However, if job involvement reflects the working environment and particular work characteristics, it requires consideration from the perspective of work organization and work design. Rabinowitz, Hall and Goodale (1977) posit that personal and environmental variables are equally important, though Newton and Keenan (1983) indicate that environmental variables can better predict job involvement, whereas another study considers personal attributes more relevant (McKelvey & Sekaran, 1977). Which variables have greater explanation power when it comes to job involvement? Extraversion is a prominent factor in personality psychology, evidenced by its appearance in most personality measures and its important role in major taxonomies of personality (Judge et al., 1999). An extroverted personality tends to be sociable, gregarious, talkative and ambitious (cooper, 2003), so such people often use their working environment to represent a key facet of their lives that enables them to meet their aspirations and exhibit their talents (Hurley, 1998).

Highly extroverted employees likely use their stable, cool-headed, optimistic, and aggressive manner to react to customers' requests, which results in work completion and customer satisfaction. Varca (2004) in a related study predicts that when a person is highly extroverted, he or she usually provides services ahead of time. Smithikrai (2007) in a similar study finds a positive relationship between extraversion and job success, especially in jobs that require interpersonal contacts. Another explanation for the relationship between extraversion and job involvement is that extroverted employees makes better use of their competencies than do employees with low extraversion, which enable them to increase their self-efficacy, which in turn leads to better work efficacy (Berg & Feij, 2003). Considering these and recent analyses of work efficacy for project work, an extroverted disposition appears recommended as critical for advancing job involvement.

Competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline, and deliberation constitute the conscientiousness personality dimension. Although conscientiousness is task-based, it emphasizes goal achievement. The employee recognizes the importance of reaching a goal and expends energetic, long-sustained and untiring efforts (Burch & Anderson, 2004) to obtain satisfaction from performing the duty effectively. Low conscientiousness instead suggests that employee tries to meet only immediate demands, does not care about prospective results, and lacks a sense of goals, mistakenly observes rules (Arthur & Doverspike, 2001) or standards, and performs tasks poorly (Wallace & Vodanovich, 2003).

Smithikrai (2007) posits a positive relationship between conscientiousness and job success, because conscientious persons tend to work toward their goals in an industrious manner. These employees are more likely to believe that their work has special meaning, and thus, they experience greater psychological attachment to their jobs (Li, Lin & Chen, 2007). They also regulate their work behaviour more effectively (Wallace, & Chen, 2006). Judge and Ilies (2002) in a related study reveal that conscientiousness is instrumental to people's work success, as well as their motivation to get along and their desire to be productive. Those high in conscientiousness exhibit the capacity to function or develop in generally productive ways and can accomplish more work more quickly. Thus, a conscientious orientation should correlate positively with job involvement.

Openness to experience, one of the least studied of the Big-Five personality dimensions in terms of job behaviour, includes the ability to be imaginative, unconventional, curious, broadminded, and cultured (Clark & Robertson, 2005). High openness may prompt job efficiency, because work enables these employees to satisfy their curiosity, explore new viewpoints, and develop real interests in their activities (Liao & Lee, 2009). Therefore, they likely distinguish important work activities and combine their observations with appropriate behaviour to develop a work method that maximizes productivity, efficiency, and

effectiveness. Moreover, as work fields expand and workers who are aware of new developments and engage in continuing education and professional growth, which may increase the importance of openness for ensuring positive work efficiency (Lounsbury, Moffit, Gison, Drost & Stevenson, 2007). Openness to experience also suggests an attraction to new ideas, concepts, actions, or feelings (Neihoff, 2006). Persons with higher levels of openness likely achieve greater efficiency at work, because they pursue opportunities to learn new perspectives and deal with ambiguous situations. Furthermore, an employee with an open personality should tend to be task-based, constantly searching for new methods to complete his or her work (Stewart & Nandkeolyar, 2006), which again should strengthen working efficiency.

Agreeableness personality dimension, on the other hand, suggests a courteous, flexible, trusting, good-natured, cooperative, forgiving, soft-hearted, tolerant person (Copper, 2003). Agreeable employees consider personal interactions carefully, such that they offer more constructive responses to customers and to their work. In addition, agreeableness can push staff members to work together, which should result in effective working behaviour (Barrick & Mount, 1991). In turn, a highly agreeable employee likely develops positive perceptions of work efficiency. Because they tend to regard work and career achievement as in keeping with their desire to improve their personal value and earn respect, agreeable employees should be more involved in their jobs. When interacting and cooperating with others, agreeable employees also achieve better effects (Barrick & Mount, 1991), which likely increases work efficiency.

Agreeable employees are co-operative and forgiving, tend to follow rules, and act courteously to get ahead. High agreeableness therefore has critical implications for understanding service-based productive behaviour and efficiency. In this sense, agreeableness provides a valid predictor of criteria that pertain to customer (Mount & Ilies, 2006), because agreeable

persons are more concerned with others's welfare (Ashton & Lee, 2001). The importance of customer service as a valued attribute of workers appears likely to increase in the future, considering the changing demographics of customers that modern employees must serve with ever increasing integration of work with other organisational functions (Lounsbury, Moffit, Gison, Drost & Stevenson, 2007). Consequently, agreeableness should be positively related to job involvement.

Meta-analyses suggest that emotional stability prompts greater job proficiency across occupations (Clarke and Robertson, 2005), whereas neuroticism should be associated with lower job proficiency. A neurotic personality experiences anxiety, depression, anger, insecurity and worry (Barrick and Mount, 1991), which tend to create negative opinions. A neurotic employee probably does not have positive attitude toward work and may lack confidence and optimism, which should result in less ambition and less focus on career goals. Therefore, a negative relationship likely exists between neuroticism and goal direction (Malouff, Schutte, Bauer, Mantelli Pierce, Cordova & Schutte, 1990), such that low goal trends should be due to low work efficiency. Neurotic employees also are less likely to devote themselves to work and more likely to be distracted easily, which increases their behavioural risks and suggests a positive relationship between insufficient work efficiency and neuroticism. In addition, when a person possesses high neuroticism, he/she likely considers feedback a type of threat that produces anxiety and overly intense (Smither, London & Richmond, 2005). Smithikrai (2007) indicates that neuroticism has a significant negative correlation with job success; in the future, neurotic employees may be even less productive at work as globalization and technological advances induce changes in organisational life. Niehoff (2006) notes also that neuroticism appears consistently negatively correlated with leadership emergence and effectiveness. Thus, the neuroticism dimension should be able to predict task-based criteria, such as quantity and quality of work.



### **2.9.6 Personality and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour**

Studies on contextual performance have suggested that traits are likely to be particularly good predictors of contextual performance (Borman Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Morgeson, Reider & Campion, 2005). Empirical research has focused on four major categories of OCB's antecedents: employee characteristics (dispositional variables), task characteristics, and leadership behaviours (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). Another research concludes that there are three basic types of antecedents affecting OCB: Personal factors, perceived situational factors (e.g., job characteristics), and positional factors (e.g., job level) (Holmes, Langford, Welch & Welch, 2003). Other research found that in organisational psychology, there is clearly renewed interest in the role of dispositional affect (Yperen, 2002). Few studies examining the relationship between individual differences and OCB have been conducted, and provided contradictory results (George, 1991; Organ & Near, 1983; Organ & Kovovsky, 1989; Nikolaou & Robertson, 2001). The emergence of the Big Five in the personality field in the early 1990s brought a new opportunity for research in the field of OCB.

A great deal of research has found that certain types of people are more likely to have good citizenship behaviours than others. Thus, while some determinants of citizenship are under the control of managers and organizations, research also indicates that some individuals may simply be more predisposed to engage in citizenship behaviour than others (Bolino, & Turnley, 2003). If personality factors account in considerable measure for differences in job attitudes as indicated by Staw and Ross (1985) and Staw, Bell, and Clausen (1986), it is possible that these are the same dispositional constructs that could account for OCB. Perhaps, then, these personal qualities "explain" the relationship between attitudes and OCB, (i.e. that attitudes and OCB are related only to the extent that both devolve from personality factors). Two studies (Konovsky & Organ, 1995; Organ & Lingl, 1995) have tested this hypothesis in regard to two of the "Big-Five" (McCrae & Costa, 1987) dimensions,

conscientiousness and agreeableness, and found no support for it, but once again the role of sampling error in individual studies precludes a confident conclusion.

Organ and Lingl (1995) in a study that explored the relationship between personality, satisfaction, and OCB, examined the hypothesis that agreeableness and conscientiousness accounted for commonly shared variance between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviours. Their results showed that although agreeableness and conscientiousness were significant predictors of 'work satisfaction- positively and negatively, respectively- it was only conscientiousness that showed a reliable connection to OCB and only in respect to the dimension of generalized compliance. In a meta-analysis published the same year, Organ and Ryan (1995) did not find encouraging results for agreeableness and conscientiousness, the two personality dimensions included in their analyses, however could be as a result of the small number of studies included. A variety of meta-analytic research studies have found that conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability are positively related to different aspects of contextual performance (Hough, 1992; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Hertz & Donovan, 2000; Hogan & Holland, 2003).

In another study, Konovsky and Organ (1996) predicted that agreeableness would relate particularly with altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship, whereas conscientiousness would relate with generalised compliance. The result of correlation analysis they came up with were quite weak: 0.12 between agreeableness and courtesy and 0.15 between conscientiousness and generalised compliance. The results of regression analyses showed that, with the exception of generalized compliance, the dispositional variables could not predict significant variance in OCB beyond that predicted by work attitudes. However, in the case of generalized compliance, the personality dimension of conscientiousness was the strongest predictor of all, accounting for unique variance on the impersonal dimension of OCB. Meanwhile, results of

similar study conducted in Greece did not show any significant relationship between personality and OCB (Nikolaou & Robertson, 2001).

Xu (2004) explored the role cultural values play on the relations between personality variables and OCB. Data were collected from multiple organizations resulting in a sample of 62 pairs of employee-supervisor dyads from U.S. and 64 pairs from China. Results indicated that agreeableness correlated significantly with OCB toward individuals and that hierarchy moderated the relationship between conscientiousness and OCB toward the organization.

Elanain (2007) examines the relationship between personality and OCB among 164 employees of service sector. Controlling for work locus of control and organizational justice, hierarchical regression analysis indicated that openness to experience, conscientiousness, and emotional stability were valid predictors for OCB. However, both extraversion and agreeableness showed no significant relationship with OCB. The intriguing finding of this study is that openness was significantly related to OCB. This result differs from prior research on openness that found few significant relationships. Elanain's (2007) study concluded that openness to experience is a crucial personality characteristic that is related to a person's capability to perform OCB.

Organ and Lingl (1995) examined the hypothesis that agreeableness and conscientiousness accounted for commonly shared variance between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviours. Their results showed that although agreeableness and conscientiousness were significant predictors of 'work satisfaction- positively and negatively, respectively- it was only conscientiousness that showed a reliable connection to OCB and only in respect to the dimension of generalized compliance. In a meta-analysis published the same year, Organ and Ryan (1995) did not find encouraging results for agreeableness and conscientiousness, the two personality dimensions included in their analyses, however, could be as a result of the small number of studies included. For agreeableness they found a sample-weighted mean

estimate of .127 for altruism and .107 for generalized compliance, but in both cases, zero was included in the 95% confidence intervals around the mean, which weakens the generalizability of the result substantially. For conscientiousness the results were more supportive, with a sample-weighted mean estimate of .127 for altruism and .302 for generalized compliance. Unfortunately, the latter estimates were much weaker when only other-ratings of citizenship behaviours were included in the analyses, dropping to .043 and .228 respectively. Nikolaou and Robertson (2001), however, could not establish any links between personality and OCB.

Konovsky and Organ (1996) predicted that agreeableness would relate particularly with altruism, courtesy, and sportsmanship, whereas conscientiousness would relate with generalized compliance. The statistically significant correlations they came up with were quite weak: .12 between agreeableness and courtesy and .15 between conscientiousness and generalized compliance. The results of usefulness and regression analyses showed that, with the exception of generalized compliance, the dispositional variables could not predict significant variance in OCB beyond that predicted by work attitudes. However, in the case of generalized compliance, the personality dimension of conscientiousness was the strongest predictor of all, accounting for unique variance on the impersonal dimension of OCB. These results supported the idea that conscientiousness is the most valuable personality dimension to study, with regard to OCB.

Singh and Singh (2009) investigated the personality variables as predictors of OCB among 188 front level managers comprise 95 (50.55%) employees of public and 93 (49.5%) private sector organizations. Pearson correlation and hierarchical regression analyses indicated that conscientiousness and extraversion dimensions of personality were found to be significantly positively correlated with all the five dimensions of OCB. Agreeableness dimension of personality was significantly positively correlated with all the five dimensions of OCB except

civic virtue. Neuroticism dimension of personality was significantly negatively correlated with sportsmanship, courtesy and altruism dimensions of OCB.

### **2.10 Subordinate Personality and Perception of Leader Influence Behaviour**

From available literature so far, it is seemingly obvious that the implication of subordinate's personality and the perception of leader influence behaviours have not been widely assessed, if at all it has been assessed. Several studies have looked at the implication of leadership behaviour on subordinate's job-behaviour from the leader perspectives. Also, a number of studies have examined the influence of personality on various aspects of job-behaviour. Obviously, none of these studies have examined the implications of subordinate perception of leader leadership influence behaviour as a function of subordinate's personality. Also, no study has attempted to examine joint influence of these two important determinants of job-behaviour. This study therefore seeks to fill this seeming knowledge gap, with a view of expanding knowledge frontier both in the area of measurement of contemporary leadership behaviour and development of leadership behaviour Subordinate personality model of job-behaviour. The findings here will go a long way providing the much needed conceptual linkage, which could serve as a springboard toward intervention efforts and the improvement of service delivery among Nigerian workers.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHOD

The study was carried out in two phases:

Phase 1: Development of Leadership Behaviour Description Inventory (i.e. LBD-35).

Phase 2: Study 1- Validation of LBD-35

Study 2- Prediction of Job-Behaviours

#### PHASE I

##### **3.1 Phase 1: Development of Leadership Behaviour Description Inventory (LBD-35).**

The objective of this phase was to develop Leadership Behaviour Description Inventory (LBD-35) in the contemporary workplace and establish its psychometric properties. The scale is one of the instruments employed in the Phase 2 of the study.

##### **3.1.1 Study Location**

The study was carried out among workers in the south-western part of Nigeria at two specific cities: Lagos and Osogbo.

- (a) Workers of Lagos State Judiciary, Ikeja; and 300 level Distant Learning Institutes (DLI) and MBA students of the University of Lagos during the 2003/2004 session, and
- (b) Workers of Osun State Ministry of Finance.

##### **3.1.2 Sample Selection and Characteristics**

The target populations for this study were workers of service oriented public and private organizations in Lagos State and Osun State. A total number of two hundred and twenty full time workers (comprising 120 males and 100 females) selected by accidental sampling participated in the phase 1 of the study. Phase 1 was segmented thus:

Step 1: item generation

Step 2: item analysis

Sixty workers (comprising of 30 males and 30 females, aged 32-59 years participated in the step 1 of phase 1 of the study (item generation), while One hundred and sixty (160) comprising of 85 males and 75 females of ages 29-61 years participated in the Step 2 of phase 1 (i.e. trial testing of the developed items).

The choice of these participants was basically informed by the nature of their similar socio-economic characteristics and group homogeneity. This makes the group similar in all respects to those who participated in the the Phase 2 of the study.

### **3.1.3 Design**

Survey design was used for this phase of the study in which a newly developed instrument (LBD-35 Inventory) was administered simultaneously with an existing instrument, The Fleishman's Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (SBDQ) to the participants. This was done to establish concurrent validity for the new instrument.

### **3.1.4 Instruments**

1. ***LBD-Inventory***: is a 35-item inventory designed to assess workers perceptions of boss leadership-behaviour in the workplace. LBD-35 inventory was developed for the purpose of this study because of seeming inadequacies and suspected non-compliance of existing scale to obtain a skill measure of contemporary concerns of leadership behaviours in the workplace. The inventory was on 4-point Likert scale response structure, which are Never = 0; Seldom/rarely =1; often = 2; Always = 3. It has both direct and reverse score items.
2. Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (SBDQ): this is a 48-item inventory developed by Fleishman (1953). It is designed to assess two different kinds of specific leadership behaviour/supervisory behaviour in the workplace (democratic and autocratic leadership styles). The author reported 11-months test-

retest reliability of 0.87 and 0.75 respectively. Ejimofor (1987) and Ekpo-Ufot (1981) obtained co-efficient of concurrent validity of 0.14 and 0.33 respectively by correlating the scale with Lodal & Kejner's (1965) Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS).

### **3.1.5 Procedure**

#### **- Construction of items:**

The steps followed in the development of Inventory were (a) the determination of the attribute to be measured, (b) generation of items from the statements that are regularly used to describe contemporary leadership behavior, (c) choosing appropriate scaling procedures that are consistent with the summative linear model (Likert, 1932). Likert (1932) method of summate rating is consistent with the summate model for scaling responses. Ajzen & Fishbein (1975; 1980; 2005) have provided guidelines on the adoption of the Likert techniques. The researcher generated items for the LBD-Inventory from the following sources:

- (a) 73-items/statements were generated from leadership-behavior description exercise among employed MBA and 400 level DLI students of University of Lagos during the 2003/2004 session.
- (b) Consultations with experts in the field of leadership studies in the University of Lagos were done to obtain their judgment and criticism as well as face validity of the items. This exercise reduced the original 73-items to sixty-two.
- (c) These items were later administered to sixty (60) workers in the private and public sectors (Eko Hotel and Federal Inland Revenue, Lagos Ilupeju Office). This comprised 30 (15 public sector and 15 private sector) males and 30 (15 public sector and 15 private sector) females respectively. They were requested to rate the items on a 5-pointscale from "highly descriptive", "somehow descriptive", "undecided", "not descriptive" to "not at all descriptive", to indicate agreement that each item measure



an important aspect of their manager or supervisors supervisory behaviour. Analysis of the data obtained indicated a high degree of agreement (0.92) among the workers. 21 items that had least ratings as either highly descriptive or not highly descriptive for the direct and reverse items were removed, therefore bringing the number of items down to fifty-three (53).

### **3.1.6 Trial Testing of LBD-Inventory**

The 53-items LBD-Inventory was initially administered to two hundred (200) workers from both private and public organizations. The sample comprised one hundred- (100) males and hundred - (100) females, respectively selected by accidental sampling from (i) gainfully employed MBA and 300 level DLI students of University of Lagos during the 2004/2005 session, who were employed with private and public organisation, (ii) Senior and junior workers State ministry of finance in Osun State Government Secretariat, (iii) Senior and junior workers of Lagos State judiciary Ikeja in Lagos. In all, two hundred questionnaires were distributed, while only 160 were returned fully completed given a response rate of 89%.

### **3.1.7 Scoring:**

The completed instruments (LBD-inventory and Fleishman's SBD) were collected and scored. SBDQ was scored according to the scoring instruction provided in test manual by the author, while LBD-Inventory scores was obtained by reversing the values of the reversed items (i.e. 0,3,2, 1 to 1,2,3,4) respectively. Participant scores on on both direct and reverse score items were added together to obtain the individual total score. Details of scoring of the instruments are presented in the next stage of the study.

### **3.1.9 Exploratory Factor Analysis**

Data obtained from 160 participants were subjected to factor analysis to detect factorial structure or the relationships between variables on the 53-item instrument, and also to examine the interrelationships of the items and to detect items with least latent roots for

deletion in line with Ford, MacCallum, & Talt (1986) and Schwab (1980). The subject-to-item ratio was approximately 4. Principal component factoring procedure with varimax rotation was used to factor analyze the data. From the result according to the cluster of items, a five factor solution emerged and are labelled as: Interpersonal relations leadership behaviour - 13 items, Emancipatory leadership behaviour – 7 items, Autocratic leadership behaviour – 6 items, Productive leadership behaviour – 8 items and Patriotic leadership behaviour – 5 items respectively. In line with Kaiser's criterion for item inclusion (Child, 1979), items with latent roots less than 1 were removed or deleted. This procedure reduced the number of valid items to 39. Forcing the data into a two-factor solution to conform to Fleishman's two-factor dimensions did not result in a meaningful configuration of the inventory items, and consequently, exceptionally low reliabilities were obtained.

Further, Meryer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Barlett's test of sphericity was computed. The result revealed acceptable KMO, and significant chi-square in line with Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, (2006). This confirmed that the instrument is indeed factorable and useful. It also show clearly that the respondents perceived five independent leadership behaviours in their workplaces. Chronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of 0.91 was obtained. Pearson product moment statistics was used to obtain the level of relationship between the new measure and Fleishman's SBDQ to obtain concurrent validity of .57

### **3.4 Phase 2:**

#### **3.4.1 Study 1: Validation of the New LBD-Inventory**

The goal of this phase of the study was to examine the reliability and validity of the new Leadership Behaviour Description scale (LBD-35). This was done by computing both the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability and Spearman–Brown equal length split-half coefficient of reliability. Study 1 and 2 are parallel studies, whereby the same group of participants participated.

### **3.4.2 Study Location**

Data for the study were collected from selected private and public organizations in Lagos and Abuja Metropolis. Specifically, the participants were selected from the following Private and public sector organizations: (i) Public organization: Nigerian Security Printing & Minting Company Ltd, NIPOST and Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), Federal /State Ministries of Health, Works & Housing, and Education. (ii) Private Organisations- United Bank for Africa (UBA) Plc Headquarters Lagos; Zenith Bank Plc Headquarters Lagos; WEMA Bank Plc Headquarters Lagos., IGI (Industrial & General Insurance) Headquarters Lagos, OASIS and Cornerstone Insurance Headquarters Lagos, Express Discount Limited. Lagos Office, The Guardian Newspaper, Matori Lagos Office.

### **3.4.3 Participants**

The target population for the study was workers of both private and public human service organization in Nigeria. Specifically, 504 workers comprising 285(56.5%) males and 219 (43.5%) females sampled from seven departments of some selected public and private organizations in Lagos and Abuja metropolis participated in the study. There were 249 (49.4%) drawn from private organizations and 255 (50.6%) drawn from public organizations. Their job tenures with their organizations ranged from (1) to (18) years with a mean tenure of 8 .4 years (SD. = 2.13), their ages ranged from 24 to 59 years with a mean age 39.5 years. Details of participants are presented in the next stage of the study.

### **3.4.4 Design**

A correlational design was used.

### **3.4.5 Instruments**

1. Leadership-Behaviours Description Inventory (LBD-Inventory) – Leadership Behaviour Description Inventory developed by the researcher in the first phase this study (see Appendix III).

2      **Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire: (SBDQ)** Developed by E.A Fleishman (1953) was used to validate LBD-Inventory. It is a 48-items inventory designed to assess two different kinds of specific leadership/supervisory styles in work organizations: Democratic Leadership behaviour and Autocratic leadership behaviour. SBDQ has 11-months test-retest reliability of 0.87 and 0.75 respectively for Democratic and Autocratic leadership style as well as Spearman-Brown's reliability co-efficient of 0.98 and 0.78. Ejimofor (1987) correlate SBDQ with Job and Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Ekpo-Ufot, 1981) to obtain the coefficient of concurrent validity 0.42, 0.336 respectively. Inter correlation matrix of MF-LBDQ subscales and Fleihman's SBDQ is contained in Appendix IV.

### **3.2.6 Training of Research Assistants**

Two research assistants were trained by the researcher. The training covers the following area (i) Understanding the focus of the study vis-à-vis the instruments; (ii) Understanding the nature of workplace and participants in focus; (iii) establishment of good rapport with participants; (iv) How to handle willing, busy workers and also how to revise the instruments with respondents; (v) The need to ensure appropriate order of presentation of the instruments to prevent response set; (vi) Keeping appointments with participants. (vii) Respect of protocol and avoid invasion of participant's privacy; (viii) Obtaining informed consent of the heads of units or departments before questionnaire administration; (ix) General appearance and comportment.

### **3.2.7 Procedure**

Confirmatory factor Analysis was computed to examine further the factorial structure (an aspect of construct validity) of LBD-Inventory earlier obtained during instrument development. CFA showed a moderate fit for the five-factor. The items on the scale loaded into cluster of five factors with significant loadings. However, in order to ascertain that the

data is factorable, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Barlett's tests of sphericity that was conducted revealed acceptable KMO and significant chi-square in line with Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, (2006). Four (4) items that had low loadings (below 0.04) relative to others (i.e., items having latent roots less than one) were considered for removal in line with Kaiser's criterion for item inclusion (Child. 1979).

### **3.5 Phase 2: Study 2: Prediction of Job-Behaviours**

#### **3.3.1 Research Setting:**

The study was carried out among Nigerian employees who are reporting to a superior or super-ordinate in Lagos and Abuja. The cosmopolitan nature of Lagos and Abuja as both the commercial nerve centre and administrative centre of the country respectively make them appropriate for this study. Moreover, headquarters of major private organizations targeted for this study are either in Abuja or Lagos. Also, the Federal ministries targeted as public organization are based either in Abuja or Lagos, particularly as at the time of data collection.

#### **3.3.3 Population**

The population for the study comprises workers of both private and public human service organization in Nigeria, such as federal and state ministries, insurance firms, banks government agencies and parastatals. By this definition, it covers all organization where service delivery and organizational practice require interpersonal interaction among others.

#### **3.3.3 Participants**

The participants for this study consisted of employees selected from private and public service organizations located in Lagos and Abuja in Nigeria. There were 285 males (56.5%), 219 female (43.5%), out of which 249 (49.4%) were drawn from private organizations and 255 (50.6%) were drawn from public organizations. Their job tenures with their organizations ranged from (1) to (18) years with a mean tenure of 8 .4 years (SD. = 2.13), their ages ranged from 24 to 59 years with a mean age 39.5 years.

Specifically, the participants were selected from the following Private and public sector organizations: (i) Public organisation-Nigerian Security Printing & Minting Company Ltd, NIPOST and Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), Federal /State Ministries of Health, Works & Housing, and Education. (ii) Private Organisations- UBA Plc HQ Lagos, Zenith Bank Plc HQ Lagos, WEMA Bank Plc HQ Lagos., IGI (Ind. & General Insurance) HQ Lagos, OASIS and Cornerstone Insurance HQ Lagos, Express Discount Ltd. Lagos office, The Guardian Newspaper, Matori Lagos office. These organizations were so considered simply because they are human service organization. Organisational practices and service delivery are intangible and requires substantial interpersonal contacts.

#### **3.3.4 Sampling Technique**

Participants were selected by simple accidental sampling during office hours from their various offices, while the organizations sampled were selected by purposive sampling technique. A total number of 791 questionnaires were distributed in all the sampled departments. After thorough screening of the questionnaires, only 504 were found fully completed, this gives a response rate of 63.71%. Table 2.1 and 2.2 below presents the graphic picture of sample source, techniques employed, as well as demographic characteristics of respondents.

**Table 2.1 Summaries of Sampled Organisations and Sampling Techniques**

Org.Type	Organisations (By purposive sampling)		Gender (random Sampling)			
	Purposive Sampling	Department/ Staff Strength	Male		Female	
			Output	Returned	Output	Returned
Public	1 Ministry of Health	Food & Drugs (176)	40	28	40	36
	2 Min. of Works/Housing	Engi. Services (190)	63	50	50	27
	3 Min. of Education	Kings/Queens Col. (45)	25	13	25	12
	4 NIPOST	Bulk Post (95)	50	18	50	32
	5 NSPM HQS Lagos	General Admin (56)	20	14	20	11
Private	1 Zenith Bank Plc HQs	Forex operations (52)	23	15	19	11
	2 WEMA Bank Plc HQs	Forex operations (63)	27	17	21	13
	3 UBA Plc HQs	Forex operations (48)	18	9	21	10
	4 Ind. & General Ins HQs	Life & Mkt (97)	47	31	34	23
	5 OASIS Insurance HQs	Life & Mkt (84)	33	21	15	13
	6 Cornerstone Insurance	Life & Mkt (72)	26	11	22	14
	7 Express Discount Ltd	All Depts. (32)	21	10	14	19
	8 The Guardian (Matori)	Circulation (86)	40	23	35	21

Table 2.1 presents, the summaries of number of respondents sampled from different public and private organization, the departments and the sampling procedure employed for sample selection.

**Table 2.2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

Respondents demographics	Demographic Categories	Gender				Total	
		male		Female			
		N	%age	N	%age		
Job Tenure	Under 5 years	161	80.1	177	88.5	338	(84.3%)
	Over 5 years	40	19.9	23	11.5	63	(15.7%)
Religious Affiliations	Christianity	241	84.6	193	88.5	434	(86.3%)
	Moslem	42	14.7	25	11.5	67	(13.3%)
	Others	2	0.7			2	(0.4%)
Age	Under 20 Years		1	0.5		1	(0.2%)
	21-30 Years	65	23.6	59	27.7	124	(25.4%)
	31-40 Years	124	45.1	111	52.1	235	(48.2%)
	41-50 Years	77	28.0	38	17.8	115	(23.6%)
	Over 51 Years	9	3.3	4	1.9	13	(2.7%)
Ethnic Affiliations	Yoruba	184	64.3	147	67.4	331	(65.7%)
	Igbo	44	15.4	40	18.3	84	(16.7%)
	Hausa	7	2.4	5	2.3	12	(2.2%)
	Urobo/Itsekiri	9	3.1	7	3.2	16	(3.2%)
	Others	42	14.7	19	8.7	61	(12.1%)

Table 2.2 show the distribution of respondents by demographic characteristics: job tenure, age, religious and ethnic affiliations.

### 3.3.5 Research Design.

Survey and Ex-Post-Facto designs were used as research design to discover and clarify relationship between subordinate personality factors and perception of their boss's leadership behaviour as predictors of organizational commitment, job involvement, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). These designs were considered appropriate for the study, because the study is measuring what had already occurred (perception), which cannot be readily subjected to experimental manipulation.

### 3.3.6 Instruments

The new instrument, 10-item Biographic Information Questionnaire (BIQ) and five tested and widely used research measures were employed in data gathering:

1. A 10-item **Biographic Information Questionnaire (BIQ)** designed to obtain demographic information such as sex, age, tenure, sex of leader, ethnic affiliation of subordinate and that of the manager or supervisor etc.
2. **Leadership-Behaviours Description Inventory (LBD-Inventory)** – LBD-Inventory this is a 35-item inventory developed for the purpose of the study. The items were derived directly from leadership-behaviour description exercise conducted among selected workers.
3. **Big-Five Inventory (BFI)** developed by John, Donahue, Kentle, 1991; Golberg, 1992; Costa, & Mc Crae, 1992) is a 44-item inventory which assesses personality from a five-dimensional perspective: (a) Extraversion: high energy and activity level, dominance, sociability, expressiveness, and positive emotion. (b) Agreeableness: pro-social orientation, altruism, tender mindedness, trust and modesty. (c) Conscientiousness: impulse control, task orientation, and goal directedness. (d) Neuroticism: anxiety, sadness, irritability, and nervous. (e) Openness to experience: it exemplifies the breadth, depth, and complexity of individual's mental and experiential life. The



coefficients of reliability provided by John et al (1991) are Chronbach's alpha of 0.80 and a 3-months test-retest of 0.85. BFI has a convergent validity co-efficient of 0.75 and 0.85 with the Big-five instrument authored by Costa & Macrae (1992) and Golberg (1992). Umeh (2004) obtained divergent validity co-efficients with University Maladjustment Scale (Kleinmuntz, 1964) to be 0.50, 0.13, 0.11, 0.39 & 0.24, respectively.

4. **Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)**: developed by Buchanan (1974) to measure workers organizational commitment: job identification, job involvement and loyalty. It has 23 items on a 7-point scale. The author reported a co-efficient alpha of 0.86, 0.84 0.92 and 0.94 for job identification, job involvement, loyalty and overall test respectively. Cook & Wall (1980) correlated OCS with Overall Job Satisfaction by Wall, Cook & Wall (1980) and obtained a concurrent validity coefficient of .62. Mogaji (1997) provided the norms for Nigerian samples and they are: 25.87, 28.54, 38.90 and 95.48.
5. **Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (SBDQ)**: Developed by E.A Fleishman (1953). It is a 48-item inventory designed to assess two different kinds of specific leadership/supervisory styles in work organizations: Democratic Leadership behaviour and Autocratic leadership behaviour. SBDQ has 11-months test-retest reliability of 0.87 and 0.75 respectively for Democratic and Autocratic leadership style as well as Spearman-Brown's reliability coefficient of 0.98 and 0.78. Ejimofor (1987) correlate SBDQ with Job and Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Ekpo-Ufot, 1981) to obtain the co-efficient of concurrent validity 0.42, 0.336, respectively.
6. **Job Involvement Questionnaire (JIQS)**: developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and revalidated by Smith, Kendall & Hulin (1969). It is a 20-items questionnaire designed to obtain a measure of worker job involvement. The author reported the Spearman-Brown internal reliability co-efficient ranging from 0.72 to 0.79. They also found that

the scale correlated with four factor scales of JDI measuring work ( $r = 0.29$ ), promotion ( $r = 0.38$ ), supervision ( $r = 0.38$ ), and people ( $r = 0.37$ ). Magaji, (1997) also provided norms for Nigerian samples: male/female ( $n = 600$ ; mean = 41.76)

7. **Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB):** Developed by Moorman, & Blakely (1995). The OCBS is a 19-item, self-report measure of “the extent to which employees have been engaging, within the past three months, in voluntary work behaviours that are described by the scale as being particularly beneficial and helpful to their co-workers and their organisation”. The scale is divided into four dimensions of Individual Initiative, Interpersonal Helping, Personal Industry, and Loyal Boisterism. As instructed by the author of the scale, respondents were requested to rate themselves on each item, using a five point Likert scale. Moorman & Blakely (1985) reported a coefficient alpha of 0.91, and a concurrent validity of 0.83 for the scale. Lawal, (2001) reported a coefficient alpha of 0.89 for Nigerian samples.

### 3.4.7 Scoring of each instrument

Scoring of the instruments was done with the manuals provided by the various authors of the instrument employed.

#### 1. *Leadership-Behaviours Description Inventory (LBD-35 Inventory)*

The instrument was developed and validated by the researcher for the purpose of this research work. Response choices for LBD-35 are weighted 4-point Likert scale ranging from 0= Never, 1= Seldom/rarely, 2= Often, 3= Always. To obtain participants scores on each of the subscales the values of the direct score item of the numbers shaded in the relevant items are added with the values of the reverse items after the number shaded for the reverse scores have been changed from 0,3,2,1 to 01,2,3 respectively. By adding together the scores of both direct and reverse scores for each of the subscales the score obtained for each subscale are written beside the letters representing the subscale for record in the test form.

2. ***Big-Five Inventory (BFI)***

The instrument is on 5-point Likert Scale from 1= Disagree strongly to = Agree strongly. Direct scoring is used for all the items by adding together the values of the numbers shaded in each item to obtain the client's score in each of the subscales as provided in the scoring manual from the author. The subscales are scored separately and the scores written by the sides of the letters A, B, C, D, & E on the test form.

3. ***Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)***

The instrument is on 7-point Likert Scale from 1= Strongly disagree to = 7 Strongly agree. There is direct scoring and reverse scoring of the items. Direct score items were added together by summing the values of the numbers shaded in the relevant items of a 7-point Likert scale. For the reverse score items the values of the number were change from 1,2,3,4,5,6,7 to 7,6,5,4,3,2,1, respectively and these were added together in a reversed manner of the numbers shaded in the relevant items. The results were added to determine the score for the particular scale for each participant. The overall organizational commitment score now give the scores of the three scales for each participant.

4. ***Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (SBDQ)***

The instrument is on 5-point Likert scale from 1= Never to 4 = Strongly Always. There is direct scoring and reverse scoring of the items. To obtain participants score, the value of number shaded for the direct score items are added together to the reverse score items. The shaded numbers are reversed from 0,1,2,3,4, to 0,4,3,2,1 respectively to obtain the participants score on each of the subscales. The two sets were added to obtain the participants scores on each of the subscales. The items for the two scales are:

	Items	No.
Democratic/Consideration	1-28	28
Automatic/Initiating	29-48	20

The result of the direct score and the reverse score items for each of the scales were added together and, the results are written beside A or B on the test form.

#### 5. *Job Involvement Scale (JIQS)*

The instrument is on 4-point Likert scale from 1= Strongly Agree to 4= Strongly Disagree. There is direct scoring and reverse scoring of the items. For direct score items the numbers shaded were added together to obtain the value of the participant's score in relevant items. For reverse score items, the values of the number is changed from 1,2,3,4, to 4,3,2,1 respectively and was added together in a reversed manner for all shaded items. The results were summed up (direct score and the reverse score) to obtain the overall job involvement score.

#### 6. *Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS)*

The scale is on 5-point Likert scale 1= rarely or none of the time; 2 = a little of the time; 3 = some of the time; 4 = a good part of the time; 5 = most or all the time. All are direct score items. Scores of each participant are sum up to obtain the total score on the scale. The total score in relation to mean is an indicator of the extent to which respondents engaged in behaviour described by the scale.

### 3.4.8 Procedure

The seven instruments were stapled together randomly to prevent respondents response set, except the 10-item BIQ that appeared first. This was done to prevent response set since there are quite a few surveys to be completed. Meanwhile, prior to questionnaire administration, consultations were held with the head of human resource units and Departments in each of the organisations selected to describe the study and survey instruments and the motive of the

research. This initial attempt was taken to facilitate and obtain official permission and informed consent from collaborating organisations to use their employees for the study. These steps were considered essential because of the seeming difficulties inherent in seeking cooperation assistance from busy workers.

Final collection of the data was carried out by administering the instruments (questionnaires) to employees in the sampled organisations, with the assistance of two trained research assistants. Respondents were also asked to answer several demographic questions indicating their unique personal data. Names of participants were declared optional, so respondents were assured that their responses were completely anonymous. Only those respondents who were currently employed on full time participated in the study.

### **3.5 Data Analysis.**

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 7.05 was used for data analysis. Apart from computing the mean scores, standard deviations by gender, organizational type and management levels of workers, and other statistical methods that were used include Pearson product moment correlation, regression analysis and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA).

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

Presentation of results for (1) Validation of LBD-Inventory and (2) Main study are presented separately in order to enhance clarity of presentation.

#### 4.1 Development and Validation of LBD--35.

In this section, the major results of the validation study of the LBD-35 is explained in detail. These include the norms (means), the relationship among the items of the new measure, the reliability estimate and validity coefficients as presented in Table 3.

**Table 3: Mean and Standard Deviations of the Scores of Participants on the LBD-35**

Scales (measures)	Nos of items	Male	Female	Mean (M/F)	SD	Reliabilities	
						Alpha	Split-half
Interpersonal relations	12	25.77	28.16	26.80	10.72	.9099	.836
Emancipatory	8	13.14	13.12	13.13	4.30	.7976	.764
Autocratic	7	13.51	13.33	13.43	4.80	.7623	.678
Productive	5	15.25	16.05	15.59	3.49	.2523	.285
Patriotic	3	8.07	8.18	8.12	2.97	.4136	.322
LBD-35	35	78.49	81.65	79.86	20.07	0.9157	.896

*N = 504; \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$*

The results above show that interpersonal relations leadership behaviour received highest mean rating compared to emancipator, autocratic, production and patriotic leadership behaviour, respectively.

#### Reliability

LBD-35 Inventory has a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of .90, .79, .76, .25, and .41 and spearman-Brown Split half reliability of .83, .76, .67, .28, .32 for interpersonal relations leadership behaviour, emancipator leadership behaviour, autocratic leadership behaviour, productive leadership behaviour and patriotic leadership behaviour respectively (see Table 1).

LBD-Inventory overall has Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of 0.92 and a Spearman-

Brown equal length split-half reliability coefficient of 0.896. Overall, the reliability assessments are acceptable; given that this is the first reported study of this type in Nigeria in recent time. This result is very important to this study having produced a significant positive correlation with the age-old measure of Fleishman's SBDQ scale thereby giving validity and credibility to LBD-Inventory as a valid measurement tool for assessing leadership behaviour.

### **Validity**

In order to validate the new leadership behaviour measure Fleishman's SBDQ (1953) was used along with the newly developed LBD-35 Inventory because of its popularity in assessing leadership behaviour. Its frequent use in the past two decades in empirical research has accumulated a wealth of information about the scale's psychometric properties and correlates (Cook, et al. 1981). A measure has a convergent validity to the extent that it co-varies with other measures purported to measure the same or similar constructs (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). A concurrent validity of .416 (significant at  $p < 0.05$ , when  $n = 504$ ) was obtained by correlating the scores on LBD-Inventory with Fleishman's SBDQ, as presented in Table 4.

**Table 4: Correlations between Leadership-Behaviour Dimensions and Measures of Similar Behaviour, Theoretically Related Behaviour.**

Comparison measures		Observed correlations					lbd-35
		mfla	mflb	mflc	mfld	mfle	
Similar behaviour							
Fleishman (1953)							
i.	Democratic leadership style	.389**	.312**	.287**	.250**	.185**	.920**
ii.	Autocratic leadership style	.138**	.301**	.220**	.127**	.076	.875**
iii.	SBDQ	.355**	.410**	.332**	.368**	.180**	.416**
Dissimilar behaviour							
Lodahl and Kejner (1965)							
(a)	Job identification	.372**	.352**	.070	.153**	.086	
(b)	Job Involvement	.198**	.160**	.054	.064	.028	
(c)	Loyalty	.252**	.213**	.045	.075	.103*	
(d)	Organisational commitment	.322**	.282**	.085	.143**	.073	

*N = 504; \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01; \*p<0.05; lbd-a: Interpersonal relations; lbd-b: Emancipatory; lbd-c: Autocratic; lbd-d: Productive; lbd-e: Patriotic; lbd-35: total score.*

### Construct Validity

Factorial structure (an aspect of construct validity) of LBD-Inventory was examined. Factor analysis with principal component factoring and a direct varimax rotation were performed. Wilk's Lambda was used to evaluate the fit of the measurement model. Principal component factoring showed a moderate fit for the five-factor model,  $\chi^2(35, 504) = 51.186, p < 0.05$ . The items on the scale loaded into cluster of five factors with significant loadings. However, in order to ascertain that the data is factorable, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's tests of sphericity were conducted and yielded .952, while chi-square value of 7876.741,  $df = 741$ , at  $p < 0.01$  was obtained (Table 5).



**Table 5: Kaiser-Meryer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity**

<b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.952
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	7876.410
	df	741
	Sig.	.000

As a measure of factorability, KMO values of .60 and above are acceptable (Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, 2006), and the Bartlett's Chi square value is significant, thereby establishing the construct validity of the extracted factors (Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, 2006). The subsequent factor analysis performed produced 5 component factors that conformed to Kaiser's criterion. The result is presented in Table 5.1.

**Table 5.1: Total Variance of the Factors in Scale (LBD-35)**

Factors (Components)	Rotations Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Eigenvalue (Total)	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	7.591	21.689	21.689
2	4.801	13.718	35.407
3	1.955	5.584	40.991
4	1.461	4.174	45.166
5	1.314	3.753	48.919

Varimax rotation was used to maximise the extracted factors and to reduce overlap or cross-loadings to ensure right partitioning. The result shows that the five extracted factors together accounted for about 48.919% of the total variance. Summary of the factor analysis is provided in Table 5.2.

**Table 5.2 Items, Communalities and Their Factor Loadings (Rotation = Varimax)**

Item NOs	ITEMS	Communalities	FACTOR LOADINGS					
			1	2	3	4	5	
			Eigen-values	7.591	4.801	1.955	1.461	1.314
			Percentage of variance explained	21.689	13.718	5.584	4.174	3.753
			Cumulative percentage variance explained	21.689	35.407	40.991	45.166	48.919
Reliability (Cronbach Alpha)	.932	.771	.759	.370	.410			
	<b>Factor 1 Interpersonal Relations leadership behaviour</b>							
1 V16	Ensures and maintains responsibility sharing	.428	<b>.670</b>					
2 V17	A manager who commands the respect and confidence of subordinates	.413	<b>.628</b>					
3 V24	Has an excellent capacity of structure and maintain social interaction	.534	<b>.626</b>					
4 V27	Creates and maintains an atmosphere of mutual trust and understanding	.545	<b>.620</b>					
5 V28	Demonstrates sensitivity to the feelings and needs of other	.492	<b>.617</b>					
6 V29	Builds vision and promotes change	.558	<b>.614</b>					
7 V32	Creates a supportive learning and self-development environment	.555	<b>.611</b>					
8 V34	Does not believe in monetary gratification for official work done	.604	<b>.587</b>					
9 V35	Clarifies individual and team direction, priorities and purpose	.575	<b>.578</b>					
10 V36	Demonstrates superb capacity to structure social interaction	.420	<b>.566</b>					
11 V47	Gives personal attention to members who seem neglected	.564	<b>.556</b>					
12 V46	Gives equal opportunity to all subordinates	.666	<b>.453</b>					
	<b>Factor 2 Emancipatory leadership behaviour</b>							
13 V2	Has a sense of mission, which I share with him/her	.649		<b>.671</b>				
14 V1	Empowers, delegates and develops subordinate potentials	.572		<b>.661</b>				
15 V 6	Frequently responding to subordinates' plights with understanding	.537		<b>.558</b>				
16 V8	Insist on genuine concern for others well-being and development	.556		<b>.548</b>				
17 V11	Inspires others to identify with his/her vision	.497		<b>.497</b>				
18 V9	Demonstrate readiness and patient to absorb interpersonal stress	.596		<b>.459</b>				
19 V4	Skillful ordering of priorities and work processes for efficiency	.588		<b>.433</b>				
20 V10	Has good knowledge of appropriate social control mechanism	.544		<b>.430</b>				
	<b>Factor 3 Autocratic leadership behaviour</b>							
21 V41	Able to enforce existing rules and responsibilities	.660			<b>.667</b>			
22R V15	Initiate and promote subordinate self-development	.580			<b>.658</b>			
23 V13	Persistent in his pursuits of his goals and plans	.509			<b>.633</b>			
24 V14	tough supervisory practices/master-servant relationship	.502			<b>.621</b>			
25 V51	Lacks freedom to truly act himself/herself...	.571			<b>.601</b>			
26 V 50	Has a concern for ethnic security	.570			<b>.500</b>			
27 V53	Indifference to slights and trusts in his/her subordinates	.550			<b>.428</b>			
	<b>Factor 4 Productive leadership behaviour</b>							
28 V39	Time sensitive	.550				<b>.673</b>		
29 V5	Encourages attendance at relevant training courses	.567				<b>.513</b>		
30 V20	Provide opportunity for skill development	.535				<b>.479</b>		
31 V43	Seeks and pursues higher order needs and values	.465				<b>.448</b>		
32 V46	Encourages questioning and critical/strategic thinking	.472				<b>.429</b>		
	<b>Factor 5 Patriotic leadership behaviour</b>							
33 V3	Nurturant-task and participative leadership	.571				<b>.665</b>		
34 V18	Dissociate himself/herself from corrupt executive practices	.617				<b>.573</b>		
35 V49	Demonstrates high sense of responsibility and accountability	.442				<b>.445</b>		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation Note numbers in boldface indicate factor loadings.

Burt-Bank formula was used to determine significant factor loadings and to prevent cross-loadings -items loading on multiple factors (Floyd and Widaman, 1985). The result replicated the result of the standardization process stage. Because all of the factor loadings met the criterion of significance, items that had low loadings (below 0.04) relative to others (i.e. items

having latent roots less than one) were considered for deletion in line with Kaiser’s criterion for item inclusion (Child. 1979). Three (3) items that fell into this category were deleted from inclusion in the eventual main analysis. This brought the total number of items in the inventory to 35, hence named LBD-35. Deleting these items improved model fit  $\chi^2$  (35, 504, = 125.16,  $p < 0.01$ ).

#### 4.2 PHASE 2: Study 2 Prediction of Job-Behaviour

##### Respondents Self-report of Personality and Ratings of Bosses leadership Behaviour

In order to examine the incidence of five dimensional leadership behaviours in both private and public organizations under investigation, percentage ratings of workers were computed by gender, management level and by organizational type. The result is presented in Table 6.

**Table 6: Percentage Incidence of Five-Dimensional Leadership Behaviour among Workers**

Organisational Type	Leadership behaviour dimensions		Gender		Management Levels		
			Male Frequency & %age of ratings	Female Frequency & %age of ratings	Junior Frequency & %age of ratings	Senior Frequency & %age of ratings	
Private Organisations	Interpersonal relations	High	72 53.3%	63 46.7%	81 60.0%	54 40.0%	
		Low	67 57.8%	49 42.2%	72 62.1%	44 37.9%	
	Emancipatory	High	72 53.7%	62 46.3%	79 59.0%	55 41.0%	
		Low	67 57.3%	50 42.7%	74 63.2%	43 36.8%	
	Autocratic	High	73 50.0%	73 50.0%	87 59.6%	59 40.4%	
		Low	66 62.9%	39 37.1%	66 62.9%	39 37.1%	
	Productive	High	83 52.5%	75 47.5%	92 58.2%	66 41.8%	
		Low	56 60.2%	37 39.8%	61 65.6%	32 34.4%	
	Patriotic	High	80 51.6%	75 48.4%	91 58.7%	64 41.3%	
		Low	59 61.5%	37 38.5%	62 64.6%	34 35.4%	
	Public Organisations	Interpersonal relations	High	88 59.1%	61 40.9%	57 38.3%	92 61.7%
			Low	59 56.7%	45 43.3%	36 34.6%	68 65.4%
		Emancipatory	High	80 58.8%	56 41.2%	50 36.8%	86 63.2%
			Low	67 57.3%	50 42.7%	43 36.8%	74 63.2%
Autocratic		High	77 54.6%	64 45.4%	55 39.0%	86 61.0%	
		Low	70 62.5%	42 37.5%	38 33.9%	74 66.1%	
Productive		High	76 54.7%	63 45.3%	51 36.7%	88 63.3%	
		Low	71 62.3%	43 37.7%	42 36.8%	72 63.2%	
Patriotic		High	75 54.7%	62 45.3%	43 31.4%	94 68.6%	
		Low	72 62.1%	44 37.9%	50 43.1%	66 56.9%	

Many of the bosses in the private sector were rated high on productive leadership scale by both male and female subordinates (83 & 75 times respectively). While, patriotic leadership-behaviour was the next from both male and female (80 & 75 times respectively). Autocratic leadership was rated the 3<sup>rd</sup> among private sector bosses (73 & 73) times. Interpersonal relations leadership-behaviour was 4<sup>th</sup> by both male and female workers. The least leader behaviour was emancipatory leadership-behaviour. Given this ratings it is obvious that private sector bosses tend to be more productive and patriotic, many of which are also autocratic. Interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership-behaviour were the least rating in that order among the private sector bosses. In the public sector on the other hand, the bosses were rated higher on interpersonal relations leadership-behaviour (88 & 61 times respectively) by both males and females. Emancipatory leadership-behaviour was rated second (80 & 56 times). Autocratic leadership-behaviour was rated 3<sup>rd</sup> (77 & 64 times by both male and females respectively). The least were patriotic and productive leadership-behaviour. With this result, many of the bosses in the public sector were rated high in interpersonal relations, emancipator leadership and autocratic leadership-behaviour respectively. Similarly, ratings of bosses by management levels follow the same pattern earlier obtained by gender. In comparison therefore, while private sector bosses were being rated highly productive, patriotic and autocratic, their public sector counterparts were rated as being highly interpersonal, emancipator and autocratic.

In order to identify the pattern of Big-Five personality traits among the selected Nigerian workers, workers' self-ratings on Big-Five were converted to percentages depending on whether the individual rated himself or herself high or low in extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience respectively. The result is presented in Table 7.

**Table 7: Percentage Incidence of Big-Five Personality Factors among Workers**

Organisational Type	Personality Factors		Gender		Management Levels		
			Male Frequency & %age of ratings	Female Frequency & %age of ratings	Junior Frequency & %age of ratings	Senior Frequency & %age of ratings	
Private Organisations	Extraversion	Low	76 6.3%	48 38.7%	78 62.9%	46 37.1%	
		High	63 49.6%	64 50.4%	75 59.1%	52 40.9%	
	Agreeableness	Low	64 55.7%	51 44.3%	66 57.4%	49 42.6%	
		High	75 55.1%	61 44.9%	87 64.0%	49 36.0%	
	Conscientiousness	Low	55 57.9%	40 42.1%	58 61.1%	37 38.9%	
		High	84 53.8%	72 46.2%	95 60.9%	61 39.1%	
	Neuroticism	Low	66 63.5%	38 36.5%	60 57.7%	44 42.3%	
		High	73 49.7%	74 50.3%	93 63.3%	54 36.7%	
	Openness to experience	Low	63 58.3%	45 41.7%	70 64.8%	38 35.2%	
		High	76 53.1%	67 46.9%	83 58.0%	60 42.0%	
	Public Organisations	Extraversion	Low	76 63.9%	43 36.1%	46 38.7%	73 61.3%
			High	71 53.0%	63 47.0%	47 35.1%	87 64.9%
Agreeableness		Low	71 59.2%	49 40.8%	48 40.0%	72 60.0%	
		High	76 57.1%	57 42.9%	45 33.8%	88 66.2%	
Conscientiousness		Low	56 59.6%	38 40.4%	39 41.5%	55 58.5%	
		High	91 57.2%	68 42.8%	54 34.0%	105 66.0%	
Neuroticism		Low	62 57.4%	46 42.6%	46 42.6%	62 57.4%	
		High	85 58.6%	60 41.4%	47 32.4%	98 67.6%	
Openness to experience		Low	55 56.1%	43 43.9%	37 37.8%	61 62.2%	
		High	92 59.4%	63 40.6%	56 36.1%	99 63.9%	

In the private sector the pattern of personality ratings of male shows scores high in conscientiousness, openness to experience, agreeableness, neuroticism and extraversion in that order. Among the females, the pattern of personality ratings was slightly different: they were high in neuroticism, conscientiousness, openness to experience, extraversion and agreeableness. In the public sector the pattern personality rating among males high was openness to experience, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness and extraversion respectively. Meanwhile, among the females the pattern of personality ratings was conscientiousness, extraversion, and openness to experience, neuroticism and agreeableness respectively. Coincidentally, conscientiousness, and openness to experience was the first and second dominant personality trait in both private and public sector workplace.

#### 4.2.2 Mean and Standard Deviations of Scores of Participants on Criterion Measures

In order to examine the job behaviours of workers (i.e organizational commitment, job involvement and OCB), mean and standard deviation of scores of participants were computed, by gender, management level and organizational type. The result is presented in Table 8 below.

**Table 8: The Mean and Standard Deviation of Scores of Participants Dependent Measures**

Dependent variables		Gender		Management level		Organisational Type	
		Male N = 285	Female N= 219	Junior N = 246	Senior N = 258	Private N = 249	Public N = 255
Organisational Commitment	Mean	98.29	95.60	97.54	96.73	96.37	97.87
	Std. Deviation	22.25	18.82	18.74	22.72	22.16	19.50
Organisational Involvement	Mean	43.83	45.59	44.67	44.51	44.73	44.45
	Std. Deviation	6.52	6.91	6.27	7.17	7.11	6.36
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	Mean	71.18	68.82	68.99	70.60	68.97	70.65
	Std. Deviation	11.59	12.40	11.09	13.52	12.13	12.40

The results show that organizational commitment of male workers (mean = 98.3; SD = 22.3) was higher than that of female (mean = 95.6; SD = 18.8). Organisational commitment was higher among public sector workers (mean = 97.9; SD = 19.5) compared to private sector workers (mean = 96.4; SD 22.2). Also, organisational involvement appears to be relatively similar, except that mean job involvement for females was higher than that of their male's counterparts. Mean OCB was higher for males (Mean = 71.18; SD = 11.59), senior management (Mean = 70.6; SD = 13.52), and public organizations (Mean = 70.5; SD =12.40). Given the relative large standard deviations reported, the result shows a great deal of variability in workers' organizational commitment, and OCB.

In order to determine the pattern of correlation between job-behaviours and criterion measures, Pearson's product moment correlation analysis was computed. The results are presented in Table 9.

**Table 9: Summary of Inter-correlation of Measures**

		Correlations																		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
Pearson Correlation	1 Interpersonal Relations	1.000	**	**	**	**	**				**	**	**	**	*			**	**	
	2 Emancipatory	.689**	1.000	**	**	**	**				**	**	**	**	*	**		**	**	
	3 Autocratic/Control	.757**	.638**	1.000	**	**	**	**				**	**	**	**	*	**		**	**
	4 Productive	.276**	.274**	.299**	1.000	**													*	
	5 Patriotic	.277**	.211**	.402**	.190**	1.000				*	*	**							**	
	6 Extraversion	.143**	.133**	.123**	.074	.053	1.000	**	**	**	**	**		*	*	**	**		**	
	7 Agreeableness	.018	.058	.130**	.077	.061	.249**	1.000	**	**	**	**								
	8 Conscientiousness	-.005	.017	.046	.068	.078	.189**	.307**	1.000	**	**	**								
	9 Neuroticism	-.009	-.032	.026	.010	.088*	.117**	.234**	.226**	1.000	*	**								
	10 Openness	.161**	.182**	.202**	.034	.088*	.256**	.133**	.179**	.089*	1.000	**		*	**	**	**	**	**	
	11 Job Identification	.372**	.352**	.339**	.070	.153**	.086	.053	.001	.003	.138**	1.000	**	**	**	**	**	**	**	**
	12 Job Involvement	.198**	.160**	.222**	.054	.064	.028	.041	-.021	.019	.005	.433**	1.000	**	**	**	**	**	**	**
	13 Loyalty	.252**	.213**	.143**	.045	.075	.103**	.026	.017	.014	.110**	.424**	.337**	1.000	**	*	**	**	**	**
	14 Individual Initiative	.087	.101*	.108*	.070	.018	.102*	.001	.012	-.027	.168**	.129**	.115**	.130**	1.000	**	**	**	**	**
	15 Interpersonal Helping	.099*	.129**	.143**	.062	-.023	.129**	.051	-.015	-.023	.236**	.117**	.083	.102**	.472**	1.000	**	**	**	**
	16 Personal Industry	-.003	.004	.009	-.041	-.003	.139**	-.027	-.056	.039	.127**	.042	.009	.010	.134**	.197**	1.000	**	**	**
	17 Loyal Boisteism	.300**	.264**	.310**	.098*	.126**	.033	-.052	.015	-.071	.173**	.385**	.307**	.243**	.265**	.346**	.136**	1.000	**	**
	18 Job Involvement	-.172**	-.176**	-.209**	-.027	-.039	-.022	.000	.008	-.001	-.084	-.319**	-.370**	-.239**	-.248**	-.259**	-.058	-.361**	1.000	**
	19 Organisational Commitment	.322**	.282**	.292**	.085	.143**	.073	.039	-.004	.003	.096**	.737**	.689**	.642**	.143**	.108**	.041	.377**	-.351**	1.000
	20 OCB	.189**	.195**	.213**	.107**	.057	.148**	.011	-.009	-.031	.240**	.235**	.177**	.181**	.617**	.690**	.299**	.647**	-.354**	1.000

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Results indicated that good interpersonal relations bring about better organization commitment, organisational involvement and OCB respectfully. Interpersonal relations correlated positively with organizational commitment ( $r = .322^{**}$  at  $p < 0.01$ ), and job involvement ( $r = .198^{**}$  at  $p < 0.01$ ) and with OCB ( $r = .189^{**}$ , at  $p < 0.01$ ). As revealed further emancipatory is positively correlated with organizational commitment ( $r = .282^{**}$ , at  $p < 0.01$ ), organisational involvement ( $r = .160^{**}$  at  $p < 0.01$ ) and OCB ( $r = .195^{**}$ , at  $p < 0.01$ ). Autocratic leadership behaviour also revealed a positive correlation with organizational commitment ( $r = .292$ , at  $p < 0.01$ ), job involvement ( $r = .222^{**}$  at  $p < 0.01$ ), and OCB ( $r = .213^{**}$ , at  $p < 0.01$ ). Meanwhile, productive leadership behaviour indicated a significant positive correlation with only OCB ( $r = .107^*$ , at  $p < 0.05$ ).

From the table, results indicate significant positive correlations between interpersonal relations; emancipatory leadership behaviour and productive leadership behaviour and workers' extraversion as well as openness, indicating support for perceived leadership behaviour and dispositional sources of job-behaviours among workers under investigation. As shown in the Table 9 interpersonal relations, emancipatory, autocratic and productive leadership-behaviour indicates a significant negative correlation with organizational commitment, involvement, satisfaction and OCB respectively.



### 4.3 Hypotheses Testing:

In order to investigate the influence of perceived interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership behavior on organizational commitment, Pearson product moment correlation analysis was computed. The means, standard deviations and inter-correlation are presented in Table 10.

**Table 10: Summary of Pearson's 'r' inter-correlation matrix of leadership-behaviours and subordinates organizational commitment (N = 504)**

Pearson Correlation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Interpersonal relations	1.00								
2 Emancipatory	.689**	1.00							
3 Autocratic	.757**	.638**	1.00						
4 Productive	.276**	.274**	.299**	1.00					
5 Patriotic	.277**	.211**	.402**	.190**	1.00				
6 Job identification	.372**	.352**	.339**	.070	.153**	1.00			
7 Emotional involvement	.198**	.160**	.222**	.054	.064	.433**	1.00		
8 Job Loyalty	.252**	.213**	.143**	.045	.075	.424**	.337**	1.00	
9 Org. commitment	.322**	.282**	.292**	.085	.143**	.737**	.689**	.642**	1.00
<b>Mean</b>	<b>21.85</b>	<b>17.49</b>	<b>16.12</b>	<b>8.92</b>	<b>4.80</b>	<b>27.25</b>	<b>26.74</b>	<b>44.59</b>	<b>97.13</b>
<b>SD</b>	<b>7.79</b>	<b>4.82</b>	<b>4.66</b>	<b>2.57</b>	<b>1.84</b>	<b>8.70</b>	<b>7.31</b>	<b>9.54</b>	<b>20.86</b>

\* - Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

\*\* - Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\*\*\* - Emotional Involvement.

The result indicated that interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership behaviour had significant positive correlations with organizational commitment variables. Also, emotional involvement had significant positive corrections with interpersonal relations, emancipator and autocratic leadership behaviours. Similarly, job identification and loyalty correlated positively with interpersonal relations, emancipator and autocratic leadership behaviours respectively.

In order to determine whether interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership-behavior significantly predict workers' organizational commitment, multiple regression analysis was computed. The result is presented in Table 10.1

**Table: 10.1: Summary of multiple regression analyses showing the independent and joint prediction of leadership behaviour on organizational commitment**

Variables	Beta	T	P	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F <sub>ratio</sub>	Sig
Interpersonal relations	.193	2.722	P<0.05	.340	.116	*13.027	p<0.05
Emancipatory	.102	1.696	Ns				
Autocrtaic/Control	.071	1.006	Ns				
Productive	-.025	-.569	Ns				
Patriotic	.044	.956	Ns				

*Dependent variable: Organizational commitment; \*p<0.05, df = (5,498), N = 504: R<sup>2</sup> is significant.*

The results show that interpersonal relations significantly contributed to the variance in organizational commitment (Beta = .193, t = .2.722 at p<0.05) as measured by MF-LBDQ. Meanwhile, emancipatory leadership-behaviour did not contribute to the prediction of workers' organizational commitment (Beta = .102, t = 1.696, at p>0.05). The joint influence of leadership behaviours, however, yielded significant coefficient of regression R<sup>2</sup> = 0.081 (p<0.05). This implies that only about 8.1% of the observed variance in organizational commitment is accounted for by leadership behaviour. Therefore, it follows that 91.9% of the variance in organizational commitment is accounted for by other factors apart from human relations. The result supports hypothesis 2.

In order to identify the relative influence of leadership-behaviour on job involvement of subordinates, Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was computed. The result is presented in Table 11.

**Table 11: Summary of Pearson 'r' inter-correlation matrix of leadership-behaviours and subordinates job involvement. (N = 504).**

Pearson Correlation	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Interpersonal relations	1.00					
2 Emancipatory	.689**	1.00				
3 Autocratic	.757**	.638**	1.00			
4 Productive	.276**	.274**	.299**	1.00		
5 Patriotic	.277**	.211**	.402**	.190**	1.00	
6 Overall Involvement	-.172	-.176**	-.209**	-.027	-.039	1.00
<b>Mean</b>	21.85	17.49	16.12	8.92	4.80	44.59
<b>SD</b>	7.79	4.82	4.66	2.57	1.84	6.94

\*- Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

\*\*-. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\*\*\*- Overall Involvement: is a composite measure of all facets of job involvement i.e. emotional involvement, cognitive involvement and behavioural involvement.

The result above indicate that autocratic leadership behaviour has a significant negative relationship with overall job involvement ( $r = -.209^{**}$ , at  $p < 0.01$ ). Also, emancipatory leadership behavior has a negative correlation with overall job involvement. Furthermore, interpersonal relations, productive and patriotic leadership behaviors had a negative correlation with overall job involvement. Similarly, cognitive and behavioural involvement subscale show negative correlations with interpersonal relations, emancipator, autocratic, productive and patriotic leadership behaviours. However, emotional involvement subscale shows significant positive correlations with interpersonal relations, emancipatory, autocratic, productive and patriotic leadership behaviours respectively (...see Appendix ix)

**Table 12: Summary of Pearson's 'r' inter-correlation matrix of leadership-behaviours and subordinates OCB (N = 504)**

Pearson Correlation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Interpersonal relations	1.00									
2 Emancipatory	.689**	1.00								
3 Autocartic	.757**	.638**	1.00							
4 Productive	.276**	.274**	.299**	1.00						
5 Patriotic	.277**	.211**	.402**	.190*	1.00					
6 Individual Initiative	.087	.101*	.108*	.070	.018	1.00				
7 Interpersonal helping	.099*	.129**	.143**	.062	-.023	.472**	1.00			
8 Personal Industry	-.003	.004	.009	-.041	-.003	.134**	.197**	1.00		
9 Loyal Boiterism	.300*	.264**	.310**	.098*	.126**	.265**	.346**	.136**	1.00	
10 OCB	.189**	.195**	.213**	.107*	.057	.617**	.690**	.299**	1.00	
<b>Mean</b>	21.85	17.49	16.12	8.92	4.80	17.54	18.25	14.93	20.04	69.82
<b>SD</b>	7.74	4.82	4.66	2.57	1.84	4.16	4.04	5.13	4.36	12.40

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

The above results show that interpersonal relations leadership-behaviour has a significant positive correlation with OCB ( $r = .189^*$ ). Also, emancipatory leadership-behavior has a positive correlation with OCB ( $r = .195^{**}$ ) respectively. Similarly, Productive leadership-behaviour correlate positively with OCB ( $r = .107^*$ ), indicating support for hypothesis 3

Further, in order to find out the relative contribution of leadership-behaviours to the prediction of OCB among the sampled workers, multiple regression analysis was carried out. The result is presented in Table 12.1

**Table 12.1: Summary of Multiple regression analysis showing the independent and joint prediction of leadership behaviour on OCB**

Variables	Beta	T	P	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F <sub>ratio</sub>	Sig
Interpersonal relations	.109	2.095	P<0.05	.236	.058	5.878	p<0.01
Emancipatory	.082	1.524	Ns				
Autocrtaic/Control	.098	1.708	Ns				
Productive	.001	.011	Ns				
Patriotic	-.003	-.068	Ns				

*Dependent variable: OCB; \*\*p<0.01, df = (5,498), N = 504: R<sup>2</sup> is significant.*

The results in Table 12.1 indicate that only interpersonal relations contribute significantly to the observed variance in workers' OCB, - (Beta = 0.109, t = 2.095, at p<0.05). Meanwhile, emancipatory leadership-behaviour shows no significant contribution to the prediction of OCB - (Beta = .082, t = 1.524, at p>0.05). Similarly, autocratic leadership-behaviour shows no significant contribution to the prediction of OCB - (Beta = .098, t = 1.708, at p>0.05). Likewise, productive leadership-behaviour shows no significant contribution to the prediction of OCB (Beta = .001, t = .011, p>0.05). Patriotic leadership-behavior, also did show significant contribution to the prediction of OCB (Beta = -.003, t = -.068 at p>0.05). However, the Fratio (5.878) associated with R<sup>2</sup> = 0.058 shows a significant joint prediction of OCB (p<0.05) indicating a total of 5.8% of this variance in workers OCB was accounted for by leadership-behaviours, while 94.2% of OCB is accounted for by other variables not covered in this study. This result indicates support for hypothesis 4.

The second challenge was to find out the relationship between workers' personality factors, such as extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience and organizational commitment. Table 13 below shows the obtained results, based on Pearson's correlation analyses.

**Table 13: Summary of Pearson's 'r' inter-correlation matrix of personality factors and sub-ordinate organizational commitment**

Pearson Correlation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Extraversion	1.00								
2 Agreeableness	.249**	1.00							
3 Conscientiousness	.189**	.307**	1.00						
4 Neuroticism	.117**	.234**	.226**	1.00					
5 Openness to experience	.256**	.133*	.179**	.089*	1.00				
6 Job Identification	.086	.053	.001	.003	.138*	1.00			
7 Job Involvement	.028	.041	-.021	.019	.005	.433*	1.00		
8 Job Loyalty	.103*	.026	.017	.014	.110*	.424**	.337**	1.00	
9 Organizational commitment	.073	.039	-.004	.003	.096*	.737**	.689**	.642	1.00
<b>Mean</b>	28.50	29.99	29.02	22.58	37.74	27.25	26.74	44.59	97.13
<b>SD</b>	4.62	4.42	4.17	5.38	6.42	8.70	7.31	9.54	20.86

\*\* Correlation is significant at 0.01 levels (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at 0.05 levels (2-tailed)

Results above show a significant positive relationship between openness to experience and organizational commitment ( $r = .096^*$ ). Extraversion had a positive correlation with organizational commitment ( $r = .073$ , but  $p > 0.05$ ). Meanwhile, conscientiousness has a negative correlation with organizational commitment ( $r = -.004$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Inter-correlation matrix also shows that the personality factors under investigation are internally associated as 20 of the inter-correlations were significant either at  $p < 0.05$  or  $p < 0.01$ . Hypothesis 5 is partially supported.

In order to examine the relative contribution of personality factors (Big-Five) to the prediction of organizational commitment, multiple regression analysis was computed. The result is presented in the Table 13.1.

**Table 13.1: Summary of multiple regression analysis showing the independent and joint prediction of personality factors on organizational commitment**

Variables	Beta	T	P	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F <sub>ratio</sub>	Sig
Extraversion	.051	1.080	Ns	.115	.013	1.326	P>0.05
Agreeableness	.028	.570	Ns				
Conscientiousness	-.035	-.726	Ns				
Neuroticism	-.051	-1.126	Ns				
Openness to experience	.086	1.550	Ns				

Dependent variable: Organizational commitment; \* $p < 0.05$ ,  $df = (5, 498)$ ,  $N = 504$ ; R<sup>2</sup> is not significant

Results indicate that extraversion did not contribute to the observed variance in workers organisational commitment, (Beta = .051, t = 1.080, at  $p>0.05$ ). Further, conscientiousness did not show significant contribution to workers' Organisational commitment (Beta = -.035, t = -.726, at  $p>0.05$ ). As further revealed, Openness to experience did not show significant contribution to the observed variance in organisational commitment (Beta = .086, t = .150, at  $p>0.05$ ). Similarly, Agreeableness and Neuroticism did not show significant contribution to the observed variance in organisational commitment of workers.

In order to examine the pattern of relationship between Big-Five variables and job involvement, Pearson's product moment correlation analysis was computed. The result as presented in Table 14.

**Table 14: Summary of Pearson's 'r' inter-correlation matrix of personality factors and sub-ordinates organisational involvement.**

Pearson Correlation	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Extraversion	1.00					
2 Agreeableness	.249**	1.00				
3 Conscientiousness	.159**	.307**	1.00			
4 Neuroticism	.117**	.234**	.226**	1.00		
5 Openness	.256**	.133**	.179**	.089*	1.00	
Job Involvement	-.022	.000	.008	-.001	-.084	1.00
<b>Mean</b>	28.50	29.99	29.02	22.58	37.74	44.59
<b>SD</b>	4.62	4.42	4.17	5.38	6.42	6.74

\*\* Correlation is significant at 0.01 levels (2-tailed)

\* Correlation is significant at 0.05 levels (2-tailed)

Results above show that extraversion had a negative correlation with organisational involvement ( $r = -.022$ ). Likewise, openness to experience also shows a negative correlation with job involvement ( $r = -.001$ ). However, conscientiousness shows very low positive correlation with job involvement ( $r = .008$ ). This result also did not support hypothesis 6.

Multiple regression analysis was computed as presented in Table 14.1

**Table 14.1 Summary of multiple regression analysis showing the independent and joint prediction of Big-Five personality factors on organisational involvement**

Variables	Beta	T	P	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Fratio	Sig
Extraversion	-.067	-1.410	Ns	.122	.015	1.516	p>0.05
Agreeableness	-.025	-.535	Ns				
Conscientiousness	-.070	-1.499	Ns				
Neuroticism	.056	1.245	Ns				
Openness to experience	-.007	-146	Ns				

*Dependent variable: Job involvement; p>0.05, df = (5,498), N = 50: R<sup>2</sup> is not significant.*

The results in Table 14.1 above show that personality trait of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness did not significantly and independently predicts workers' organisational involvement. For extraversion - (Beta = -.067, t = -1.410, at p>0.05), agreeableness - (Beta = -.025, t = -.535, at p>0.05), Conscientiousness - (Beta = -.070, t = -1.499, at p>0.05), neuroticism - (Beta = .056, t = 1.245, at p>0.05) and Openness to experience - (Beta = -.007, t = -.146, at p>0.05). The F-ratio (1.516) associated with the R<sup>2</sup> = 0.015 was not significant (p>0.05) indicating that hypothesis 6 is rejected.

In order to examine the pattern of relationships between extraversion, conscientiousness and openness to experience on workers' OCB, Pearson product moment regression analysis was computed. The result is presented in Table 15.

**Table 15: Summary of Pearson's 'r' inter-correlation matrix of personality factors and sub-ordinates OCB (N = 504)**

Pearson Correlation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Extraversion	1.00									
2 Agreeableness	.249**	1.00								
3 Conscientiousness	.189**	.307**	1.00							
4 Neuroticism	.117**	.234**	.226**	1.0						
5 Openness to experience	.256**	.133**	.179**	.089*	1.00					
6 Individual Initiative	.102*	.001	.012	-.027	.168**	1.00				
7 Interpersonal Helping	.129**	.051	-.015	-.023	.236**	.472**	1.00			
8 Personal Industry	.139**	-.027	-.056	.039	.127**	.134**	.197**	1.00		
9 Loyal Boisterism	.033	-.015	.015	-.071	.173**	.265**	.346**	.126**	1.00	
10 OCB	.148**	.011	.009	-.031	.240**	.617**	.690**	.299**	.647**	1.00
<b>Mean</b>	28.50	29.99	29.02	22.58	37.74	17.54	18.25	14.93	20.04	69.82
<b>SD</b>	4.62	4.42	4.17	5.38	6.42	4.16	4.04	5.13	4.36	12.40

\*\* Correlation is significant at 0.01 levels (2-tailed)

- Correlation is significant at 0.05 levels (2-tailed)

Results above show that extraversion has a significant positive correlation with workers' capacity to demonstrate OCB (r = .148\*\*, at p<0.01). Also, extraversion has a significant

positive correlation with other facets of OCB such as individual initiative, interpersonal helping and personal industry. Likewise, openness to experience correlated positively with OCB ( $r = .240^{**}$ , at  $p < 0.01$ ) and had a significant positive correlations with all facets of OCB (Individual initiative, interpersonal helping, Personal Industry, Loyal Boisterism) respectively. Meanwhile, conscientiousness has very low positive correlation with OCB ( $r = .009$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Neuroticism has an inverse correlation with OCB ( $r = -.031$ ). As revealed, agreeableness also shows very low positive correlation with OCB.

In order to find out the relative contribution of the influence of Big-Five variables to the prediction of OCB among the sampled workers, a multiple correlation analysis was carried out. The result is presented in Table 15.1.

**Table 15.1: Summary of multiple regression analysis showing the independent and joint prediction of personality factors on OCB**

Variables	Beta	T	P	R	R <sup>2</sup>	F <sub>ratio</sub>	Sig
Extraversion	.108	2.352	P<0.05	.266	.071	7.614	P<0.01
Agreeableness	-.024	-.511	Ns				
Conscientiousness	-.033	-.707	Ns				
Neuroticism	-.051	-1.122	Ns				
Openness to experience	.225	4.989	P<0.01				

*Dependent variable: OCB; \* $p < 0.05$ ,  $df = (5, 498)$ ,  $N = 504$ ; R<sup>2</sup> is not significant*

The results in Table 15.1 show that extraversion contribute significantly to the observed variance in workers' OCB (Beta = .108,  $t = 2.352$ , at  $p < 0.05$ ). This implies that about 10.8% of the observed variance in OCB is accounted for by extraversion. Similarly, openness to experience significantly contribute to the observed variance in workers' OCB (Beta = .225,  $t = 4.989$ , at  $p < 0.05$ ). Similarly, it also follows that openness to experience contributed about 22.5% of the observed variance in OCB. Meanwhile, conscientiousness did not show significant contribution to the observed variance in worker's OCB. The F-ratio associated with  $R^2 = 0.071$  shows a significant joint prediction of OCB ( $p < 0.05$ ) indicating that hypothesis 7 is partially upheld with respect to extraversion and openness to experience.



Although the result is significant, it only implies that about 7.6% of this variance was contributed by extraversion and openness to experience; hence about 92.4% of OCB is accounted for by other variables outside this study.

In order to examine the influence of autocratic/control on conscientious, extraverted and openness to experience among the workers, a two-factor multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was computed using extraversion, conscientiousness and openness to experience and autocratic leadership behaviour as independent variables and workers self-report of job involvement, organizational commitment, and OCB as dependent variables. Where appropriate, This MANOVA was followed by univariate ANOVA's. The result is presented in Table 16.

**Table 16: Summary of MANOVA Results**

	Organisational Involvement		Organisational Commitment		Organisational Citizenship Behaviour		Wilks' Lambda
	MSQ	Fratio	MSQ	Fratio	MSQ	Fratio	
Interpersonal Relation (A)	459.458	**10.443	12224.394	**30.001	2326.06	**15.905	P<0.01
Emancipatory (B)	468.593	**10.563	9418.723	**22.792	2364.249	**16.310	P<0.01
Autocratic (C)	394.775	**9.023	6669.286	**16.461	1384.263	**9.455	P<0.01
Productive (D)	204.065	*4.601	3773.234	*8.890	383.764	2.564	P<0.01
Extraversion (E)	67.719	1.527	2145.745	*5.055	1437.754	**9.608	P<0.01
Conscientiousness (F)	126.804	2.796	3304.194	*7.697	960.468	*6.629	P<0.05
Openness to experience (G)	82.431	1.884	2465.499	*6.085	1448.959	**9.897	P<0.05
C * E	443.693	**10.173	147.139	.360	415.354	2.862	P<0.05
C * F	86.470	1.976	945.752	2.334	102.540	.700	Ns
C * G	76.461	1.739	240.235	.583	202.823	1.418	Ns
A * E	276.339	*6.287	227.389	.558	174.262	1.192	Ns
B * E	59.796	1.348	17.008	.041	813.498	*5.612	Ns
D * E	346.980	*7.823	98.564	.232	394.394	2.63	P<0.05

\*\*F is significant at 0.01 levels

\* F is significant at 0.05 levels

MANOVA results in Table 16 above indicate significant main influence of autocratic leadership behaviour on job involvement, organizational commitment and OCB with significant Wilk's Lambda and  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  (Wilk's Lambda =.925 and  $F_{\text{ratios}}(1, 504) = 9.023; 16.461; 9.455$ , at  $p<0.01$ ). Also, interpersonal relations leadership behaviour revealed a

significant influence on job involvement, organizational commitment and OCB with significant Wilk's Lambda = .927, and  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  of (1, 504) = 10.443; 30.001; 15.905. Likewise, significant influence of emancipatory leadership behaviour was observed with significant Wilk's Lambda = 0.937, and  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  of (1, 504) = 10.563; 22.793; 16.310, at  $p < .01$  against job involvement, organizational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour, respectively. Similarly, productive leadership behaviour had a significant influence on organisational involvement and organizational commitment as indicated significant Wilk's Lambda = .979 and  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  (1,504) = 4.601; & 8.890, at  $p < 0.01$ .

Interaction of autocratic leadership and extraversion was significant on job involvement only for the extraverted workers (Wilk's Lambda = \*0.988,  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  (1, 504) = 10.173, at  $p < .01$ ). Given the statistical non-significance of the MANOVA results for the interaction between autocratic and conscientiousness, as well as openness to experience hypothesis 8a was partly accepted.

Indicated in the result also, is the significant interaction influence of interpersonal relations and extraversion on job involvement (Wilk's Lambda = \*0.987,  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  (1, 504) = 6.287, at  $p < .01$ ). Likewise, emancipator leadership and extraversion was significant on OCB (Wilk's Lambda = \*0.988,  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  (1, 504) = 5.612, at  $p < .05$ ). Similarly, productive leadership behaviour and extraversion was significant on job involvement (Wilk's Lambda = \*0.983,  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  (1, 504) = 7.823, at  $p < .05$ ). Hypothesis 8b was accepted.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION

The aim of the study was to explore the influence of workers' perception of leadership-behaviours and personality factors on organizational commitment, organisational involvement, and organisational citizenship behaviour. In an attempt to achieve this aim, the researcher developed a leadership behaviour description scale to obtain a skill measure of contemporary leadership behaviour in a Nigerian workplace. The study was divided into two distinct phases:

Phase 1: Development of Leadership Behaviour Description Inventory (i.e. LBD-35).

Phase 2: Study 1- Validation of LBD-35

Study 2- Prediction of Job-Behaviours

A discussion of the extent to which the results of the studies assisted the researcher to achieve the objectives of the study is the focus of this section.

#### - *Development of Leadership Behaviour Description Inventory (i.e. LBD-35)*

The results in Table 3 reveal that LBD-35 inventory has Cronbach's alpha of 0.92 and Spearman-Brown split-half of 0.88, which are both high and significant. This result indicated support for its reliability. The coefficients obtained are in line with the recommendation of Aken (2003) that the acceptable reliability coefficients of a new test must not be less than .70. The implication of this finding is that LBD-35 could yield similar scores from the same population over time. This finding therefore supported hypothesis 1, which predicted high reliability coefficients for LBD-35.

Similarly, results in Table 4 show that LBD-35 correlated positively and significantly with Fleishman's SBDQ giving a concurrent validity of 0.41 and discriminant validity of 0.47, thereby confirming hypothesis 1, which predicted significant construct and concurrent

validity coefficients between LBD-35 and other related standardized measures. Table 3 and 4 which report the construct validity of LBD-35 through factor analysis shows that 5 independent dimensions of leadership behaviour with significant eigenvalues were extracted. This finding is consistent with principle suggested by Aiken (2003) and Brace, Kemp, and Snelgar (2006). The result of the factor analysis is also in consonant with the findings of Shakeela (2004) and Kouze and Posner (2002, 2008) in which they extracted factors similar to those extracted in this study.

In view of these results, it is obvious that LBD-35 is a reliable and valid psychometric instrument to obtain a skill measure of leadership behaviour in the workplace. This fact is reinforced by the high internal consistency and positive significant correlation with Fleishman's SBDQ. Moreover, the factorial structure examined yielded significant indicator of factorability. For example, KMO measure of sampling adequacy is 0.95, which as a measure of factorability is very good (Brace, Kemp, and Snelgar, 2006). Likewise, the Barlett's Test of Sphericity is significant, which provided support for the multi-dimensional factor structure of LBD-35. This implies that the factors extracted are independent of one another and are invariant. Another implication of this is that the component factors extracted can be thought of as representing different leadership behaviour as perceived by subordinates and are named as such based on the manner of clustering of items. The factors extracted are similar to those extracted by Shakeela (2004) and Kouze and Posner (2008).

#### - **Perceived Leadership-Behaviour, Emotionality and Workplace Behaviour**

Hypothesis 2 which stated that workers who perceive their bosses' to be high on interpersonal relations, and emancipatory leadership-behaviour will be more committed to their organization than workers who perceive their boss to be low on these two variables was supported. Results indicate that interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership-behaviour had significant positive correlations with organizational commitment. Further, it

was established that emotional involvement, job identification and loyalty had significant positive correlations with interpersonal relations, emancipatory and autocratic leadership behaviours.

The finding therefore exemplified the position of House (1971) Path-goal theory which emphasizes the relationship between the leaders' style and the characteristics of the subordinates and the work setting. The theory proposed that subordinates accept a leader's behaviour when they perceive that that behaviour will lead to their present and future job satisfaction and motivation. It states also that the leader's behaviour can motivate subordinates if it is perceived by them as being capable of making it possible for them to achieve their organizational goals. That is, the scope of the job and the characteristics of subordinates moderate the relationship between a leader's behaviour/style and subordinates' job outcomes: performance, satisfaction, commitment involvement etc. The finding is also consistent with the findings of Aboloko (1985), Ejimofor (1987), and Esigbone (2000) that reported significant relationship between organisational commitment and leadership style. The finding supported the findings of Jaskyte (2004), which revealed that a combination of leadership behaviours, participation, work control and subordinate relations explained about 48.1% of the total variance in organisational commitment. The finding is at variance with the finding of Omeneki (1991) and Laka-Mathebula, which reported a weak relationship between leadership behaviours and organisational commitment.

The import of this finding is far reaching bearing in mind the seeming divergence of opinions among researchers about organisational commitment of Nigerian workers. Some researchers believed that Nigerian workers are not committed to their organizations (Fagbohunbe, 1981, Eze, 1985; Munene, & Azuka, (1991). Others believed that they are committed to organizational goals but it is the organizations that do not show commitment to the plight of the workers (Alarape & Akinlabi, 2000). They believe that organizational

commitment reflects one side of the reciprocal relationship between the employer and the employee and as such each party has to play its role. While, it is true that most organizations in Nigeria have experienced and are experiencing restructuring, reengineering, and downsizing which create a sense of job insecurity among the workers arising from government's economic reforms. The current finding is turning management searchlight to leadership atmosphere in the Nigerian organisations. Indeed some researchers found that organizational commitment is a function of several variables such as job satisfaction, motivation, participative decision making, organizational support, financial reward, communication, promotion prospects, and leadership styles (Alarape & Akinlabi, 2000; Brown, 2003; Salami & Omole, 2005). But it appears now that the meaning underlying supervisory or leadership behaviour among the subordinates' is a strong factor in predicting organisational commitment among Nigerian workers.

Hypothesis 3 which stated workers who perceive their bosses' to be high in autocratic leadership-behaviour will be less involved with their jobs than workers who perceive their bosses' to be low on autocratic leadership-behaviour was supported. Result indicated that autocratic leadership-behaviour has a significant negative relationship with organisational involvement. Multiple regression analysis revealed a significant beta weight, indicating that autocratic leadership contributed about 11.8% to the observed variance in workers organisational involvement. As revealed, job involvement (emotional, cognitive and behavioural involvement) was higher among workers who rated their manager's/supervisor's low on autocratic leadership than among workers who rated their manager's/supervisor's high on autocratic leadership.

Interestingly, further analysis revealed that emotional involvement subscale job involvement scale (by Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) correlated positively with emotional involvement subscale of organisational commitment scale (by Buchanan, 1974), and also correlated potively to

interpersonal relations, emancipator, autocratic, productive and patriotic leadership behaviours. Also, cognitive and behavioural involvement subscale of job involvement scale (by Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) correlated negatively with interpersonal relations, emancipatory, autocratic, productive and patriotic leadership behaviours, which suggest the influence of emotionality and affectivity of workers of overall job involvement. It was established that affects and emotionality were significant positive predictors of job involvement, but by the time individual workers think about their jobs and the overall situational and organisational factors and apply such to their experiences in reality their behaviour become modified in the negative direction, and consequently overall involvement drops significantly (as revealed in Table 11, see Appendix ix.).

The result also agrees with the findings of Foke (2001) that leadership behaviours and employees outcomes were significantly correlated. It is also in line with the findings of Wayne and Ferris (1990), Wysock and Kepner (2000) and Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, (2002), which reported that leadership styles that see workers as generally motivated by money, resistant to change, lacking in job knowledge, rather than co-operative and hard working tend to retard employees' productivity, effectiveness, satisfaction.

Furthermore, the result is in agreement with the much-debated poor state of workers involvement among Nigerians and the use of autocratic leadership by managers and supervisors as reported by Eze (1984). Autocratic leadership-behaviour receives the highest rating both in private and public sector workplace. The result is also consistent with the findings of Eze (1985) and Esigbone (2000) which reported that the prevalence of autocratic leadership style among Nigerian managers. This they claim is responsible for dysfunctional work-behaviour among Nigerian workers. These results suggest critical implication for human resource management. The finding also supported the findings of Suar, Tewari and Chaturbedi (2006), Wayne & Ferris (1990) and Esigbone, (2000) that employee's perceptions

of leadership behaviour, particularly autocratic leadership) were significant predictors of low job involvement. The findings extends the findings of Jone, *et al.* (1975), Eze, 1983, Eze, 1985, Fagbohunge (1981), Okhakhume, Attah, & Chimadike (2005) and Badrul, *et al.* (2009) which reported no significant correlations with the constructs of job involvement. This result is consistent with the findings of Magna (1999), Jaskyte (2004),

The trends in these finding is rather not surprising, because the leaders with this personality tend to be conventional, tough and sometimes aggressive. As a result, subordinate perveived the leader negatively, which affects subordinates' motivational tendencies and in turn lead to low job involvement in the workplace. The trend seems to agree with the views of Eze, (1983), Eze, (1982) Fagbohunge (1981), Okhakhume, Attah, & Chimadike (2005) that job involvement is lower among Nigerians because most Nigerian managers are predominantly autocratic. Consequently, that recent researchers have gradually come to the conclusion that effective leadership represents strong interactions between the characteristics of the leader himself and the characteristics of the situations (Ogbuehi, 1981; Munene & Azuka, 1991; Esigbone, 2000). Organizational effectiveness and job involvement of employees has been found to be a function of leadership effectiveness no matter where the research is conducted using the same instrument (Ogbuehi, 1981; Klein & Kim, 1998; Kozłowski & Doherty, 1989; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002). Another far reacing implication of this finding is that autocratic leadership atmosphere has been proven to be highly counter-productive, demotivating and demeaning to employees. It kills co-workers coomitment, participatory management, and organisational dependability.

Hypothesis 4 which stated that workers who perceive their boss to be high on interpersonal relations, emancipatory and productive leadership-behaviour will report more OCB than workers who perceive their boss to be low on these variables was supported. Significant positive correlations were reported between interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership-behaviour and OCB, but multiple regression analysis indicated that only



interpersonal relations significantly and independently contributed about 10.9% of the observed variance in workers OCB. The finding is consistent with the findings of Laomarsino and Cardona (2003), which reported that transformational leadership mediated the relationship between leadership and OCB. Reilly, Lojeski & Ryan (2006) finding that leadership contributed significantly to the prediction of OCB was supported. The findings is also consistent with the findings of Asgaris, et al., (2008) which reported that dimensions of transformational leadership behaviours are more lokely to predict citizenship behaviour. Jiao Richard and Zhang's (2010) findings that perceived organisational instrumentality was related to and explained variance in OCB beyond perceived individual instrumentality is also confirmed. This pattern of findings here is reasuring, in view of the prevailing circumstances among Nigerian workers. Mosts organizations spent almost their fortune to ensure employees discretionary workplace behaviors that exceed their basic job requirements: i.e. behaviours that go beyond the call of duty. The willingness of employees to take steps to prevent problems with other employees, and obeying organization rules, regulations and procedures even when no one is watching has become a factor to watchout for among all employees. Assisting co-worker with a heavy workload, or orienting new colleagues at work, customers, clients, and suppliers care, is a part of employee's unwritten obligations, as long as these actions have organizational relevance.

In this repect the impersonal form of OCB, called generalized compliance, is directly helpful to other people within the firm (peers, supervisors, or subordinates) in running the organization when the leadrrship atmosphere is constructive anr reassuring. Workers develop positive attitudes such as being punctual, giving advanced notice if unable to attend meeting or work. Mostly it includes instances where the employee carries out certain role behaviour well beyond the minimum level required from the position, which are sometimes beyond the call of duty.

- *Dispositional Factors, Affectivity and Workplace Behaviours*

Hypothesis 5 which stated that Organisational commitment will be significantly higher among workers who are extraverted, conscientious and open to experience was rejected. Results show that extraversion and openness to experience had positive correlations with organisational commitment, while conscientiousness had a negative correlation with organizational commitment. Multiple regression analysis did not show significant contribution of extraversion, conscientiousness or openness to experience to the observed organizational commitment. This is probably because the correlations obtained were very low. This finding is consistent with the findings of Barriet and Mout (1991), Nikolaou & Robertson, (2001), Jugde Heller & Mount, (2002) who variously reported low correlation between scores of personality test and some measures of job performance. And also Jegede's (2004) findings that workers' extroversion and introversion did not show significant effect on organizational commitment. The result is also consistent with Furnham (1997) that established that personality traits account for between 15-30% of the variance in work behaviour. This result however, is at variance with number of previous findings such as Howard & Harward (2000), Gelade & Gilbert (2006) and Camilleri (2002) that reported significant relationship between personality characteristics of extraversion and organizational commitment. The finding is also at variance with the finding of Sharma (2008) that reported significant positive relationship between organisational commitment and five of the 16PF personality structure. Hoffmann, Ineson & Stewart's (2010) finding that personality characteristics of extraversion, agreeableness and openness to experience that predicted affective commitment was contradicted by the findings.

Given the trend of the previous findings, which shows seeming improvement outside Nigeria, the finding has a far reaching implication for organisational intervention. It is obvious from the statistics obtained that Nigerian workplace has a preponderance of extraverts,

conscientious and open to experience workers'. The implication of this finding is that people who are expected to show greater commitment to the organization have become generally apathetic toward the workplace and are unwilling to contribute to success of the organization. This might partly be responsible for the perceived decline in optimal organisational functioning in recent years as widely reported. The capacity of an average Nigerian worker to offer their time, talent, skills, resources and energy for the organization has probably depleted over the years. The Individual worker probably chooses to withhold commitment and involvement as a direct result of his/her perception of the negative experience in the workplace. This finding is very instructive, as it x-rays the emergence of erosion of workplace personality among Nigerian workers.

Hypothesis 6 which stated that job involvement will be significantly higher among workers who are extraverts, conscientious and open to experience than among workers who score low in these attributes was rejected. Results indicate that extraversion and openness to experience had a negative correlation with organisational involvement. Conscientiousness shows low positive correlation with organisational involvement. Multiple regression analysis indicated that none of the three variables significantly contributed to the variance in organisational involvement. In contrast with a number of previous finding (Konovsky & Organ, 1995; Organ & Lingl, 1995), extraversion, conscientiousness and openness to experience did not predict job involvement among Nigerian workers under investigation. The findings of Robinoeitz and Hall, and Gooale (1977), Newton & Keenan (1983), McKelvey and Sekaran (1977) that reported that personality and environmental variables predicted various construct of job involvement was contrasted. The finding is also at variance with Hurley, (1998), Varca (2004), and Smithikrai (2007) that reported significant prediction of job involvement with extroversion. One possible explanation to this trend is that conscientious and open to experience individual's are stable, cool-headed, optimistic and aggressive in work completion, work is seen as central life interest and commitment is independent of the nature

of the job. Another explanation for the seeming relationships, particularly between extraversion and organisational involvement is that extroverted employees make better use of competencies than do employees with low extraversion, which enable them to increase their self-efficacy, which in turn leads to better work efficacy as noted by Berg & Feij (2003). Also, open to experience people are usually imaginative, unconventional, curious broadminded and cultured. Therefore, high openness may prompt job efficiency because work enables these employees to satisfy their curiosity, explore new opportunities and develop real interests

Expectedly, such people are expected to be job oriented and should live and breathe their jobs while all the major satisfaction and sorrows of life come from their work. Conscientious workers are less likely to be absent from work and are less likely to steal from the organization. Whatever happens at work or connected with their work has a great significance to him. They are likely to be very sensitive to the inadequacies that usually attend any job environment. They become committed to adjusting to the organisational environment and also to changing those aspects of the organisational environment that demand so much of an adjustment. They demand less technical supervision on the whole, but more personal interaction with supervision. But the present result appears to run contrary to the trend of previous findings. This is an indication of a general unwillingness to perform assigned task and lack of consciousness, which is probably because their superiors have not developed the leadership that is congenial for an ongoing mutual satisfying work situation.

The result amplifies the seeming general declining importance of work to one total self-image, values about goodness of work which is almost lost due to failing expectation from the job. This ugly trend is probably responsible for widely debated poor service delivery, corruption, dereliction of duties, sabotage and declining industrial efficiency, because if one is unwilling to perform assigned task, and lacks conscientiousness, the job will not get done, despite the potential ability.

Hypothesis 7 which stated that OCB will be significantly higher among workers who are extraverted, conscientious and open to experience than among worker's who score low in these attributes is partly accepted. Results indicate that extraversion contributed about 10.8% of the observed variance in OCB, while openness to experience correlated significantly with OCB and contributed about 22.5% of the observed variance in OCB. Conscientiousness unexpectedly shows very low positive correlation with OCB. This finding is consistent with the findings of Barrict and Mout (1991) and Furnham (1997) who reported low correlation between scores of personality tests and this measure of job behaviours. The finding is also consistent with Elanin (2007) that reported that openness was significantly related to OCB. This result difer significantly from prior researches on openness to experience which found a few significant relationships between openness to experience and OCB. Elanin's (2007) study concluded that openness to experience is a crucial personality characteristic that is related to persons' capacity to demonstrate OCB. Singh ad Singh's (2009) findings was partly confirmed, which indicated that extraversion and conscientiousness were found to be significantly positively correlated with all the five dimensions of OCB. The finding is also consistent with Organ and Ryan's findings (1995). Given this result, it is established that extraversion and openness to experience promote working with other people (jobs that requires a lot of interpersonal contact), willingness to try out new and different ideas presented by coworkers and clients, particularly among Nigerian workers.

From this finding, it is clear that some employees contribute to the welfare or effectiveness of their organization by going beyond the duties prescribed in their jobs. Nigerian workers give extra discretionary contributions that are neither required nor expected by their employers. Organisational researchers and practitioner's should bear it in mind that the manifestations of such pro-social behaviour is a product of individual workers' dispositions (which are fairly immutable), or can organizations conduct themselves in ways that bring out such behaviour

in their employees? Research supports both the dispositional and situational antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviour. Support for dispositional antecedents comes from the Big-Five model of personality. Two of the Big-Five dimensions appear relevant to organizational citizenship behaviour. Evidence indicates that some people, given selected aspects of their personality, are more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviours than others. The second explanation for organizational citizenship behaviour-situational antecedents -has at its basis on the concept of organizational justice. It is proposed that if employees believe they are treated fairly, they are more likely to hold positive attitudes about their work. In view of this discovery therefore, it is hereby suggested that organizations should try to promote pro-social behaviour by selecting applicants who have high scores on extraversion and openness to experience.

However, the findings contrasted Organ and Lingl (1995) which reported that agreeableness and conscientiousness accounted for commonly shared variance between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviours. The findings did not agree with Konovsky and Organ (1996) which predicted that agreeableness would relate positively with OCB (altruism or interpersonal helping). As McNeely and Megline (1994) noted, organizations can promote pro-social behaviour by selecting applicants who have high scores on agreeableness and conscientiousness. The second explanation for organizational citizenship behaviour-situational antecedents- has at its basis the concept of organizational justice. It is proposed that if employees believe they are treated fairly, they are more likely to hold positive attitudes about their work.

Hypothesis 8a which stated that workers who are extraverted, conscientious and open to experience and who work under autocratic leadership behaviour will score low on organisational commitment, organisational involvement and OCB than their counterparts under interpersonal relations and emancipator leadership was accepted with respect to autocratic

leadership. MANOVA results indicated significant influence of autocratic leadership on workers' job involvement. As revealed, mean job involvement for workers who rated their bosses low in autocratic leadership was significantly higher than workers who rated their bosses high in autocratic leadership. Interaction between autocratic leadership and extraversion was significant on job involvement. This result is very instructive in the light of the fact that now that organizations give preference to extraverted, conscientious and open to experience candidates as workers, it is only expedient to apply some measures of autocratic control to bring about necessary job involvement. Results also indicate that extraverts have been found to report more commitment and OCB, but may not be necessarily job involved. However, it is possible to invoke organisational involvement on extraverted workers by being autocratic. This result is not surprising, given the nature of extraverts: who are very outgoing, sociable, fun loving, affectionate, impatient and bold. The fact that an extroverted individual is engaged in a number of activities is likely going to affect his dispositions at one point or another. Also, because such individuals are bold and sociable, they have excellent skills in structuring social interaction and mobilising others for a cause. Such an excellent skill should be harnessed favourably to further group processes and group dynamics in the workplace.

Hypothesis 8b which stated that extraverted workers under bosses' who are productive and good in interpersonal relations leadership-behaviours will be more job involved than their counterparts who are not extroverts under same productive and interpersonal relations leadership-behaviour was accepted. Results indicated that interpersonal relations had a significant influence on organisational involvement, organizational commitment and OCB. Similarly, productive leadership behaviour had a significant influence on job involvement and organizational commitment. Interestingly, the result indicated significant interaction influence of interpersonal relations and extraversion on job involvement. Similarly, productive leadership-behaviour and extraversion was significant on job involvement. This

finding becomes more useful in understanding the motivations of employers of labour when they give preference to extraverts, particularly in service oriented organizations where interpersonal interaction is the hallmark of performance. It is important to note here that every interpersonal relation is based on mutual and reciprocal initiating and responding behaviour pattern. It two parties to build it, and both are equally responsible. Therefore, the leader must understand that human beings develop inter-personal relationships and is equally possible for them to change them (in any direction) through consciously planned effort on their part. This indirectly implies that leadership atmosphere that provides latitude for superior interpersonal interaction, emancipatory and productivity will ultimately promote workers job involvement and organisational commitment particularly among extraverted workers.



## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

#### 6.1 Conclusion

The importance of leadership and dispositional variables to the dynamics of the workplace behaviour has made it one of the most widely discussed and researched topics in industrial/organizational psychology and management particularly in recent times. The leadership behaviours of bosses as perceived by the subordinates not only have implications for followership, but also, to a greater extent, subordinate's behavioural dispositions to work. LBD-35 developed, validated and used in this study has proven very useful for assessing supervisory behaviour of bosses in the workplace. People's personalities obviously have an impact on many things they do, if not everything. Despite the fact that low correlations were established between personality measures and some measures of workplace behaviour, individual personality or dispositional attributes have a great impact on overall productivity in the workplace. The current study posited that it is not probably arguable that personality comes to play in workplace behaviour. Findings from of this study seem highly profound and demonstrate quality exchange relationships between boss and subordinates is a key factor in promoting effective followership in the workplace. Moreover, that the meaning underlying bosses' leadership-behaviours were significantly associated with different job outcomes in workers. It was revealed in the study inter-alia that only extraversion and openness to experience significantly account for the observed variance in workers' organisational commitment and OCB. Therefore, for today's organizational functioning, successful interaction between leaders and their followers, as well as appropriate workplace personality appears central to the overall functioning of human service organization.

Although research over the time has provided inconsistent results about the relationship between leadership, dispositional variables and other work-related attitudes and behaviours such as commitment, involvement and organizational citizenship behaviour, the current study has gone a long way to refine and standardize the way in which leadership styles are measured. Recent research seems to be fairly consistent in identifying leadership and dispositional factors (personality) as substantially impacting job commitment and involvement. A review of the recent literature and theories suggests that supervisor's influence tactics, social power and influence, and psychological climate, led us to believe that it is not the overt influence behaviour of supervisors that result in different outcomes in employees: instead the meaning of the supervisor influence tactics are important for predicting outcomes in employees. How do employees interpret the influence behaviours of their supervisors? How does this interpretation relate to outcomes such as commitment, involvement, satisfaction and OCB is a matter of concern for industrial/organizational efficiency. Meanwhile, it is instructive to conclude that social aspects of many traditional workplace environments may overshadow some other unseen factors that affect overall workplace productivity (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002; House, 1971; Watson & Clark, 1997; Jaskyte, 2004; Suar, Tewari and Chaturbedi, 2006; Esigbone, 2000; and Foke, 2000). It is important for organizations to initiate sound intervention programmes in order to attain organizational success.

## 6.2 Summary of Findings

The following are the findings of this study:

1. The results indicate that interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership behaviour had significant positive correlations with organizational commitment variables (Job identification, Job involvement and Job loyalty). Multiple regression analysis revealed that interpersonal relations significantly contributed to the variance in organizational commitment (Beta = .193,  $t = .2.722$  at  $p < 0.05$ ) as measured by MF-LBDQ. The joint influence of leadership-behaviours, however, yielded significant coefficient of regression  $R^2 = 0.081$  ( $p < 0.05$ ). This implies that leadership behaviour accounted for about 8.1% of the observed variance in workers' organizational commitment. Hypothesis 1 is therefore accepted
2. Autocratic leadership-behaviour has a significant negative relationship with organisational involvement ( $r = -.209$ , at  $p < 0.01$ ). The result indicate that autocratic leadership-behaviour significantly contributed to the variance of worker's organisational involvement (Beta = .118,  $t = 2.112$  at  $p < 0.05$ ). Mean scores for low autocratic group (mean = 45.80; SD = 6.85) on organisational involvement is significantly higher than that of the high autocratic group (mean = 43.27; SD = 6.85). Multiple regression analysis yielded significant  $R^2 = 0.058$  and Fratio of 6.101, at  $p < 0.05$ , representing 5.8% of the observed variance in organisational involvement that can be accounted for by autocratic leadership-behaviour. This implies that 95.2% of the variance is accounted for by other factors apart from autocratic/control. The result support hypothesis 2. Further, it was established that emotional involvement subscale job involvement scale (by Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) correlated positively with emotional involvement subscale of organisational commitment scale (by Buchanan, 1974), and also correlated potively to interpersonal relations, emancipatory, autocratic, productive

and patriotic leadership behaviours. Meanwhile, cognitive and behavioural involvement subscale of job involvement scale (by Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) correlated negatively with interpersonal relations, emancipator, autocratic, productive and patriotic leadership behaviours (see Appendix ix).

3. Interpersonal relations and emancipatory leadership-behaviour has a significant positive correlation with OCB ( $r = .189$ ; 195). Multiple regression indicated that only interpersonal relations contributed significantly to the observed variance in workers' OCB, - (Beta = 0.109,  $t = 2.095$ , at  $p < 0.05$ ). Meanwhile, emancipatory leadership-behaviour shows no significant contribution to the prediction of OCB - (Beta = .082,  $t = 1.524$ , at  $p > 0.05$ ). However, the Fratio (5.878) associated with  $R^2 = 0.058$  show a significant joint prediction of OCB ( $p < 0.05$ ) indicating that a total of 5.8% of this variance in worker's OCB was accounted for by leadership-behaviours. This result indicated support for hypothesis 3.
4. Extraversion and openness to experience shows positive correlation with organizational commitment ( $r = .096$  at  $p < 0.05$ ;  $.073$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Meanwhile, conscientiousness has a negative correlation with organizational commitment ( $r = -.004$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Results show that extraversion did not contribute to the observed variance in workers' organisational commitment, (Beta = .051,  $t = 1.080$ , at  $p > 0.05$ ). Furthermore, conscientiousness did not show significant contribution to worker's Organisational commitment (Beta = -.035,  $t = -.726$ , at  $p > 0.05$ ). As further revealed, Openness to experience did not show significant contribution to the observed variance in organisational commitment (Beta = .086,  $t = .150$ , at  $p > 0.05$ ). The result did not support hypothesis 4.
5. Extraversion and openness to experience has a negative correlation with job involvement ( $r = -.022$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ;  $-.001$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Conscientiousness shows very low positive correlation with job involvement ( $r = .008$ ). Multiple regression analysis

indicated that personality trait of extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience did not significantly and independently contribute to the observed variance in worker's organisational involvement. The F-ratio = 1.516 associated with the  $R^2 = 0.015$  was not significant ( $p > 0.05$ ) indicating that hypothesis 5 is rejected.

6. Result also revealed that extraversion and openness to experience correlated positively with OCB ( $r = .148$ , at  $p < 0.01$  &  $r = .240$ , at  $p < 0.01$ ). Meanwhile, conscientiousness shows very low positive correlation with OCB ( $r = .009$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). The results indicate that extraversion contributed significantly to the observed variance in worker's OCB (Beta = .108,  $t = 2.352$ , at  $p < 0.05$ ). This is about 10.8% of the observed variance in OCB. Openness to experience significantly contributed to the observed variance in workers' OCB (Beta = .225,  $t = 4.989$ , at  $p < 0.05$ ), which also implies about 22.5% of the observed variance in OCB. The F-ratio associated with  $R^2 = 0.071$  show a significant joint prediction of OCB ( $p < 0.05$ ). The result support hypothesis 6.
7. There was a significant main influence of autocratic leadership behaviour on job involvement, organizational commitment and OCB with significant Wilk's Lambda and  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  (Wilk's Lambda = .925 and  $F_{\text{ratios}} (1, 504) = 9.023; 16.461; 9.455$ , at  $p < 0.01$ ). Interaction of autocratic/control leadership and extraversion was significant on job involvement only for the extraverted workers (Wilk's Lambda = \*.988,  $F_{\text{ratios}} (1, 504) = 10.173$ , at  $p < .01$ ). Given the statistical non-significance of the MANOVA results for the interaction between autocratic and conscientiousness, as well as openness to experience hypothesis 7 is partly accepted.
8. Finally, results indicate that interpersonal relations leadership behaviour revealed a significant influence on organisational involvement, organizational commitment and OCB with significant (Wilk's Lambda = .927, and  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  of  $(1, 504) = 10.443; 30.001; 15.905$ ). Likewise, significant influence of emancipatory leadership behaviour was

observed with (Wilk's Lambda = 0.937, and  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  of (1, 504 = 10.563; 22.793; 16.310, at  $p < .01$  against organisational involvement, organizational commitment and OCB respectively. Thus, hypothesis 8a was partially accepted. Similarly, productive leadership behaviour had a significant influence on organisational involvement and organizational commitment as indicated by significant Wilk's Lambda and  $F_{\text{ratios}}$  (Wilk's Lambda = .979 and  $F(1,504) = 4.601$ ; & 8.890, at  $p < 0.01$ ). Indicated in the result also, is the significant interaction influence of interpersonal relations and extraversion on organisational involvement (Wilk's Lambda = \*0.987,  $F_{\text{ratios}}(1, 504) = 6.287$ , at  $p < .01$ ). Likewise, emancipatory leadership and extraversion was significant on OCB (Wilk's Lambda = \*0.988,  $F_{\text{ratios}}(1, 504) = 5.612$ , at  $p < .05$ ). Similarly, productive leadership behaviour and extraversion was significant on job involvement (Wilk's Lambda = \*0.983,  $F_{\text{ratios}}(1, 504) = 7.823$ , at  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 8b was accepted.

### **6.3 Implications of findings**

The findings from this study are useful in understanding that job-behaviour is best explained in terms of personal factors, environmental influence (i.e. leadership environment, organizational factors, reward system, etc), that continually interact. The findings will therefore be very useful to human resource practitioners in assessing leadership failure in organizations, using the leadership-behaviour description scale developed as a springboard for developing appropriate intervention program on leadership. In the light of this, the frustrated worker may be assisted to modify his/her behaviour and seek reinforcement for other learned behaviour. In other words, his performance standard may be modified by his experiences with the environment (e.g. good leadership). He may pick interest in the quality of psychological relationship between himself, the manager/supervisor and co-workers, hence regain his original performance standards. Bandura refers to such interaction between

personality and the environment as “*reciprocal determinism*”. This will be possible if the leader creates an atmosphere that:

- (i) model the way
- (ii) inspire a shared vision
- (iii) involve the workers and relevant others
- (iv) challenge the process
- (v) provide information and training about action
- (vi) incorporate likely results of action in advice
- (vii) Enables others to act
- (viii) point out strengths; using persuasion and encouragement
- (ix) approach behaviour change in small steps to enhance subordinate’s self-efficacy
- (x) cultivate and show exemplary act
- (xi) encourage the heart
- (xii) provide incentives, rewards, praise and encourage self-reward
- (xiii) decrease possibility of negative responses that deter positive change

The findings also established that, despite the low relationships between scores on personality traits and some measures of job outcomes, certain unique facets of personality significantly predict job behaviours. The study established that extraversion and openness to experience are valid predictors of appropriate organizational commitment and OCB among Nigerian workers. It shows that workers who are best in their fields are not just good at their jobs and friendly with co-workers, but are resilient, optimistic, and confident and possess superior ability to restrain negative feelings such as anger and self-doubt, thereby focusing on positive virtue of confidence and optimism. In addition, a people with high openness to experience will report organizational commitment, organisational involvement and OCB under variety of leadership environment, while extraversion will only be positive in a job that requires a lot of

interpersonal contact where the boss possesses high interpersonal relations. However, in jobs that are mostly based on individual tasks, the importance of extraversion would be negligible.

#### **6.4 Limitations and Future Directions**

There are several limitations to this study. This research was conducted in a public and private sector organization. Public and private sector organizations differ in their business environment, management practices, and staff attitudes (Eze, 1982; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bordia & Blau, 1998; Fagbohunbe, 2002). Despite this, the influence of employees' dispositional characteristics and perception of leadership-leadership behaviour on job-behaviours should be generalizable across the sector. Moreover, data were collected by self-report instruments and low correlations were reported for the relationships between scores on personality tests and some measures of job-behaviour, which is however consistent with some previous studies (Organ & Lingl 1995; Nikolaou & Robertson, 2001). Even though it appears that personality measures explain so little of the variability in work behaviour, the concept still holds enduring appeal both to psychologists and the general public. However, methodological steps were taken to reduce risk of a negative impact on results. This study suggests several directions of future research. First, the current study is conducted in a Nigerian cultural context. An interesting question is whether the relationships found in this study in a Nigerian context also hold true for other Non-English speaking cultures. Thus, future studies may examine the relationships between the variables under investigation in other Non-English speaking cultures.



## 6.5 Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered for practical applications:

1. Future research should seek to standardize the LBD-35 inventory with a fairly larger sample in both manufacturing and service organizations in order to obtain enduring psychometric properties, which will facilitate the validity and reliability of using the instrument to screen leadership behaviour of management executives.
2. Organizations should, as matter of utmost concern, institute career plans and development policies that incorporate headship and leadership training for management position. Such training and development programme should emphasise; mentoring, interpersonal relations, joint development goals.
3. It is hereby recommended in strong term that team building programme to stimulate and encourage high-quality boss-subordinate/coworkers relationships should be instituted.
4. A corporate culture should be built to allow bosses (supervisors and managers) to sufficiently:
  - model the way
  - inspire a shared vision
  - challenge the process
  - enables others to act
  - encourage the heart
5. Organisational recruitment policies should, as a matter of utmost concern, begin to consider personality assessment in employment policies drives in view of the significance workplace behaviour's predictive potentials.

## **6.6 Contributions to knowledge**

The followings are the significant contributions of the study to knowledge:

1. The development and validation of a Multi-factor Leadership Behaviour Description Inventory (LBD-35 Inventory).
2. The development of perceived Leadership-Behaviour Subordinate-Personality model of Job-behaviours.
3. The study established that interpersonal relations, emancipatory and productive leadership-behaviours promote job involvement among extroverted and open to experience workers.
4. It is also established that autocratic leadership-behaviour is counter-productive, but capable of promoting job involvement among extroverted workers.
5. The study revealed that extraversion and openness to experience significantly promote Organisational Citizenship behaviour.
6. The study also revealed that affectivity and emotionality are significant predictor of job involvement
7. The study provided empirical data that has further enriched management literatures on leadership and human resource management in the workplace.

## REFERENCES

- Aboloko, M.O. (1985). "Organisational commitment among Nigerian workers: A comparative study". *Unpublished M.Sc Project*, Dept. of Psychology, University of Lagos: Lagos.
- Agarwal, S., Decarlo, T.E., & Vyas, S.B. (1999). Leadership behavior and organizational commitment: A comparative study of American and Indian salespersons. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30(4): 724-741.
- Ahmed, S.A. (1985). "The effects of leadership styles on the productivity of workers at Tate & Lyle Nig. Ltd. Oyo". *An unpublished Masters Project*, University of Lagos: Lagos.
- Aiken, L.R. (2003). *Psychological testing and assessment*. New York: Pearson education Group, Inc.
- Ajzen, I. & Fishbein, M. (1975). *Understanding attitude and prediction social behaviour*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Ajzen, I. & Fishbein, M. (1980). "Understanding attitudes and predicting social behaviour." *Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall*.
- Ajzen, I. & Fishbein, M. (2005). "The influence of attitudes on behaviour. In D.Albarracin, B.T. Johnson, & M.P. Zanna (Eds.), *The handbook of attitudes*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Akroyd, D., Jackowski, M.B., & Legg, J. (2007). "Factors affecting radiographers' organisational commitment". *Radiologic Technology*, 78 , 467-475
- Alarape, A.I. & Akinlabi, F.M (2000). "Influence of perceived organizational support and discretionary treatment on work attitude of industrial workers". *African Journal for the Psychological Study of Social Issues*, 5(1), 23-36.
- Allen, N. J. & Meyer, J. P. (1990). "The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization." *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18.
- Allen, N. J. & Meyer, J. P. (1996). "Affective, continuance, and normative commitment: An examination of construct validity". *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49, 252-276.
- Allen, N. J. & Meyer, J.P. (1990). "Organizational socialization tactics: A longitudinal analysis of links tonewcomers' commitment and role orientation". *Academy of Management Journal*, 33: 847-858.
- Allport, A. (1985). The historical background of social psychology. In G. Lindzey, E Aronson (Eds.). *Handbook of Social Psychology*, vol.1 3<sup>rd</sup> Ed., New York: Random House.
- Allport, A. (1960). *Personality and social encounter*. Boston: Beacon Press.
- Alo, O.I. (1982). A look at the Myth of the unmotivated worker. In Ejimofor, P.N.O & Aniagoh, V. A Eds.) *Managing the Nigerian worker*, Longman Nig. Ltd., 55-61

- Arthur, W. & Doverspike, D. (2001) "Predicting motor vehicle crash involvement from a personality measure and a driving knowledge test", *Journal of Prevention and Intervention in the Community*, 22, 35 – 42.
- Asgari, A., Silong, A.D., Ahmad, A., & Sama, B.A. (2008). "The relationship between transformational Leadership behaviors, leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behaviours". *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(4). 165-189.
- Ashton, M. C., Lee, K., & Son, C. (2000). "Honesty as the sixth factor of personality: Correlations with Machiavellianism, primary psychopathy, and social adroitness". *European Journal of Personality*, 14, 359-368.
- Ashton, M. C., Lee, K., Perugini, M., Szarota, P., De Vries, R. E., & Di Blas, L. (2004). "A six-factor structure of personality-descriptive adjectives: Solutions from psycholexical studies in seven languages". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86, 356-366.
- Ashton, M.C. and Lee, K. (2001) "A theoretical basis for the major dimensions of personality", *European Journal of Personality*, 15, 327 – 353.
- Atkinson, R.L., Atkinson, R.C., Smith, E.E., & Hilgard, E.R. (1987). *Introduction to Psychology*. (9<sup>th</sup> Ed.). New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Publishers
- Avolio, B.J., Zhu, W., Koh, W and Bhatia, P. (2004). "Transformational leadership and organisational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance". *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 951–968.
- Ayenibowo, K.O. (2009). Psychological Foundations: A book of readings. In Ayenibowo, K.O. *Research method in psychology* (Edt). Lagos: Department of Psychology, Unilag
- Badrul, T.A., Hussin, S.R., Ghani, N.A., & Jusoff, K. (2009). "The influence of ethical leadership on lectures' job involvement". *Academic leadership: The online Journal*, 7(4)
- Baker, B. (2005). The good, the bad and the ugly: The mediating role of attribution style in the relationship between personality and performance. North Carolina State University.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Barnard, C. I. (1938). *The functions of the executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Strauss, J. P. (1993). "Conscientiousness and performance of sales representatives: Test of the mediating effects of goal setting". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 715–722.
- Barrick, M.R. & Mount, M.K. (1991). "The Big-Five personality Dimensions and job performance A meta-analysis". *Personnel Psychology*, 44, 1-26.
- Barsade, S. G., Brief, A. P., & Spataro, S. E. (2003). The affective revolution in organizational behaviour: The emergence of a paradigm. In J. Greenberg (Ed.), *Organizational behavior: The state of the science*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Bashaw, R.E., & Grant, E.S. (1994). "Exploring the distinctive nature of work commitments: Their relationships with personal characteristics, job performance, and propensity to leave". *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 14(2): 1-16.
- Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership any Performance Beyond Expectations*. New York: the Free Press.
- Bass, B.M. (1990). *Stogdill Handbook of Leadership: A Theory and Research* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.), New York: Free Book.
- Bass, B.M. (1990). "From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision". *Organisational Dynamics*, (Winter): 19-31.
- Bateman, T. S., Organ, D. W. (1983). "Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee citizenship". *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 587-595.
- Becker, P. (1999). "Beyond the Big Five". *Personality and Individual Difference*, 26, 511-530.
- Berker, H.S. (1960). Notes on the concept of commitment. *American Journal of Sociology*, 66, 32-40.
- Begum, N, (2005). The relationship between social power and organizational citizenship behavior: The meditational role of procedural justice, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in context of a private commercial bank in Bangladesh. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Independent University, Bangladesh.
- Berg, P.T., Van-den., & Feij, J.A. (2003). "Complex Relationships Among Personality Traits, Job Characteristics, and Work Behaviors", *Internal Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 11, 326 – 339.
- Blake, R.R. & Mouton, J.S (1968). *Corporate excellence diagnosis*. McGraw-Hill, Int. Books Co.: London.
- Blake, R.R. & Mouton, J.S. (1982). "Theory and research for developing science of leadership." *Journal of Applied Behavioural sciences*, 18 (3).
- Blake, R.R., & McCause, A.A. (1991): *Leadership Dilemmas – Grid Solutions*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing.
- Blake, R.R., & Mouton, J.S. (1961). *Group dynamic –Key to decision making*, Houston: Gulf Publishing Co.
- Blake, R.R., & Mouton, J.S. (1964). *The Managerial Grid*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing.
- Blake, R.R., & Mouton, J.S. (1985). *The Managerial Grid*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing.
- Blau, G.J. (1986). "Job involvement and organizational commitment as interactive predictors of tardiness and absenteeism". *Journal of Management*, 12 (4): 577-584.
- Blau, G.J., & Boal, K.B. (1987). "Conceptualizing how job involvement and organizational commitment affect". *Academy of Management Review*, 12 (2): 288-300.

- Blumer, H. (1969). *Symbolic interactionism: Perspective and method*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Bolino, M.C., & Turney, W.H. (2003). "Going the extra miles: Cultivating and managing employee citizenship behaviour." *Academy of Management Journal*, 17(3), 60-71.
- Bordia, P., & Blau, G., (1998). Pay referent comparison and pay level satisfaction in private versus public sector organizations in India. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 9, 155-167.
- Borman, W. C. & Motowidlo, S. J. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt and W. C. Borman (Eds.), *Personnel selection in organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass.
- Borman, W.C. (2004). The Concept of Organizational Citizenship. Personnel Decisions Research Institutes, Inc., Tampa, Florida, and University of South Florida.
- Bowers, D.G. & Seashore, S.E. (1966). "Predicting organisational effectiveness with a good-factor theory of leadership". *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 14(11), 66-79.
- Brace, N., Kemp, R., & Snelgar, R. (2006). *SPSS for psychologists*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Brief, A. P. (1998). *Attitude in and around organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Brown, B.B. ((2003). *Employees' Organizational Commitment and their Perception of Supervisors' Relations- Oriented and Task-Oriented Leadership Behaviour*. Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Human Development. Falls Church, Virginia
- Bryman, A. 1992). *Charismatic leadership in organisations*. London: Sage: Sage Publications.
- Buchanan, B. (1974). "Building organizational commitment: The socialization of managers in Work organization". *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 19, 533-546.
- Burch, G.S.J. and Anderson, N. (2004) "Measuring person-team fit: Development and validation of the team selection inventory", *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19, 406 – 426.
- Burns, J.M. (1978): *Leadership*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Buss, D.M. (1997). Evolutionary foundations of personality. In Hogan, J. Johnson, H., & Briggs, S (Eds), *Handbook of personality psychology*. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.
- Camilleri, E (2002). "Some antecedents of organisational commitment: Results from an information systems public sector organization". *Bank of Valletta Review*, 25, 1.25.
- Campbell, D., & Fiske, D. (1959). Convergent and discriminant validity by the multitrait-multimethod matrix. *Psychological Bulletin*, 56, 81-105.
- Cartright, D., & Zander, A. (1960). *Group Dynamics Research and theory*. Evanston, IL: Person.
- Child, D. (1979). *The essentials of factor analysis*. London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

- Chompookum, D., & Derr, C. B. (2004). The effects of internal career orientations on organizational citizenship behavior in Thailand. *Career Development International*, 9 (4), 406- 423.
- Clarke, S. & Robertson, I.T. (2005). "A meta-analytic review of the Big-Five personality factors and accident involvement in occupational and monoccupational settings". *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 78(3), 355-376.
- Coch, L. & French, J.R. (1948). Overcoming resistance to change, *Human relations*, 1, 512-532.
- Cohen, A. (1999). "Relationships among five forms of commitment: An empirical assessment". *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20: 285-308.
- Çöl, G. (2004). Örgütsel bağlılık kavramı ve benzer kavramlarla ilişkisi. *Güç Endüstri İlişkileri ve İnsan Kaynakları*, 6 (2): 31-45.
- Conger, J., and Kanungo, R. (1987): *Toward a Behaviour Theory of Charismatic Leadership in Organizational Settings*. Academy of Management Review.
- Cook, J. & Wall, T.D. (1980). "New work attitude measures of trust, organizational commitment and personal need non-fulfilment". *Journal of Occupational Psychology*. 53, 39-52.
- Cook, J.D., Hepworth, S.J., Wall. T.D., & Warr. P.B. (1981). *The experience of work: Acompendium and review of 249 measures and their use*. London: Academic Press, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Publishers.
- Coole, D.R.(2003). The Effects of Citizenship Performance, Task Performance, and Rating Format on Performance Judgments, University of South Florida.
- Cooper, D. (2003). "Psychology, risk and safety," *Professional Safety*, 48, 39 – 46.
- Costa, P. T. Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) professional manual*. Odessa, Florida: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.
- Costa, P.T. & McCrae, R.R (1980). "Influence of extraversion and neuroticism on subjectivity: Happy and Unhappy People". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38, 668-678.
- Costa, P.T. & McCrae, R.R. (1985). *The NEO personality inventory manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Resources.
- Costa, P.T. Jr. and McCrae, R.R. (1992) *Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor (NEO-FFI) Inventory professional manual*, Odessa, FL: PAR.
- Costa, P.T., & McCrae, R.R. (1992). Revised NEO personality inventory (NEO-PI-R) and Five-Factor (NEO-FFI). *Inventory Professional*
- Daniels, D., Joireman, J., Falvy, J., & Kamdar, D. (2006). "Organizational citizenship behavior as function of empathy consideration of future consequences, and employee time horizon: an initial exploration using an in-basket simulation of OCBs". *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36, 9, 2266–2292.

- Dansereau, F., Jr., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). "A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process". *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 13, 46-78.
- Davis, K. (1986): *Human Behaviour at Work*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Deckop, J., Mangal, R & Circa, C. (1999). "Getting more that you pay For: organizational citizenship behavior and pay for Performance Plan". *Academy of Management Journal*, 42, (4). 420-428.
- Deluga. R.J. (1998). "Leader-member exchange quality and effectiveness ratings: The role of subordinate-supervisor conscientiousness similarity". *Group and Organisation Management*, 23, 189-216.
- DeSantis, Victor, & Durst, S. 1996. "Comparing job satisfaction among public and private – sector employees". *American Review of Public Administration*, 26, (3), 327-343
- Dewey, J. (1922). *Human nature and conduct*. New York: Holt.
- Dictionary of Behavioural Science (1973): Editor: Wolman, Benjamin B., New York: Van Nostrand Company.
- Dienesch, R.M., & Liden, R.C. (1986). "Leader-member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development". *Academy of Management Review*, 11, 618-634.
- Digman, J.M. (1990). "Personality structure: Emergence of the five factor model." *Annual Review of Psychology*, 41, 417-440.
- Driskell, J.E., Hogan, R., & Salas, E. (1987). "Personality and group performance. In Hendrick, C., Group processes and inter-group relations". *Review of Personality and Social Psychology*, 9, 90-110.
- Dunham-Taylor, J. (2000). "Nurse executive transformational Leadership found in participative organizations". *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 30(5): 241-250.
- Dvir, T., & Shamir, B. (2003). "Follower developmental characteristics as predicting transformational leadership: A longitudinal field study". *Leadership Quarterly*, 14(3), 327-344.
- Erturk, A., Yilmaz, C., & Ceylan, A. (2004). "Promoting organisational citizenship behaviours: Relative effects of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and perceived managerial fairness. *METU Studies in Development*, 31, 189-210.
- Ehrhart, M. G., & Klein, K. J. (2001). "Predicting followers' preferences for charismatic leadership: The influence of follower values and personality". *Leadership Quarterly*, 12(2), 153-179.
- Eisenberg, A. P. (2000). *The search for integrity: A leadership impact study. Unpublished doctoral dissertation*. DePaul University, Chicago.
- Ejiogu, A, (1995). Values, Attitudes and Behaviour, In Ejiogu, A. Achumba, I., Asika, N. (1995). *Readings in Organisational Behaviour in Nigeria*. Lagos: Malthouse Press Ltd.



- Ejiomofor, B.I. (1987). *Organisation commitment as a function of leadership styles in Nigerian organisations: A study of three commercial banks in Lagos*. Unpublished M.Sc Project, Dept of Psychology, Lagos : University of Lagos.
- Ekpo-Ufot, A. (1981). "Organisational commitment and satisfaction in two different groups of managerial personnel." *Paper Presented at the National Convention of Nigeria Psychological Association.*, Jos.
- Elanain, H. A (2007). "Relationship between personality and organizational citizenship behaviour: does personality influence employee citizenship" .*International Review of Business Research Papers*, 3 (4) 31-43.
- Elankumaran, S. (2004) "Personality, organizational climate and job involvement: An empirical study", *Journal of Human Values*, 10, 117 – 130.
- Elloy, D.F, Everet, J.E & Flynn, W.R. (2007). "An examination of the correlates of job involvement". *Journal of leadership and Organisational Studies*, 14(2), 157-167.
- Elloy, D.F. (2005). "The influence of superleader behaviours on organization commitment, job satisfaction and organisational self-esteem in a self-managed work team". *Leadership and Organisational Development Journal*, 26 (2), 120-127.  
<http://www.emeraldinsight.com/journals.htm?article=143351&show=html>
- Endler,N.S & Magnusson, D.(1976). "Toward an interactional psychology of personality". *Psychological Belletin*, 83, 956-974
- Epitropaki, O. & Martin, R. (2005). "From ideal to real: A longitudinal study of the role of implicit leadership theories on leader-member exchanges and employee outcomes". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 659-676.
- Esigbone, E.M. (2000). "Influence of Perceived Leadership Style on Employee's Job Satisfaction". *B.Sc Research Project, Department of Psychology*, University of Lagos.
- Evans, M.G. (1970). "The effect of supervisory behaviour on the path-goal relationship". *Organisational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 5, 277-298.
- Eysenck, H.J. (1982). *Attention and Arousal: Cognition and Performance*. Berlin: Springer.
- Eyssenck, H.J. & Eysenck, M.W. (1985). *Personality and individual differences: A natural science approach*. New York: Plenum.
- Eyssenck, H.J. & Eysenck, M.W. (1976). *Manual: Eysenck personality questionnaire*. San Diego:Ed ITS.
- Eyssenck, H.J. (1994). "Cancer, personality and stress: Prediction and prevention." *Advances in Behavioural Research and Therapy*, 16, 167-215.
- Eze, N. (1981). "Motivation and work productivity among Nigerian workers". In Ugwuegu, D.C.E. (Ed.) *Organisational Behaviour and Management: A Psychological Perspective*. Ibadan: University of Ibadan Press.

- Eze, N. (1983). "Work motivation, job satisfaction and involvement in Nigeria organisations". A *keynote lecture presented at the first National conference of the Association of Nigerian Industrial Organaisational Psychologist*, Lagos: University of Lagos.
- Eze, N. (1982). Psychological approach to leadership improvement in Nigerian organisations. In J.Y. Opoku (Eds.). *The use of psychology in modern Nigerian*, Annual Conference of the Nigerian Psychological Society, *1*, 87-104.
- Eze, N. (1985). Motivation and attitudes as correlates of decision-making in MNigerian organizations. In Okpara, E (Ed.) *Psychological strategies for national development*, University of Benin: Nigerian Psychological Association.
- Eze, N. (1986). Leadership, alienation and national survival". Paper presented at a national seminar for political debate organize by the Nigerian Psychological Association, University of Lagos, 18-19.
- Eze, N. (1988). "A study of leadership in Nigerian organizations." *ASCON Journal of Management*, 7(1&2), 95-102.
- Eze, N. (1995). *Human Resource Management in African –Problems and Solutions*. Zomex Press: Lagos.
- Eze. N. (1994). "Leadership and development in Africa: A social-psychological analysis". In Sabour, M. (Ed), *Perspectives in Development: Voice from the South. Finland*, Joensuu: University of Joensuu Press, Chap.5, 65-86(b).
- Fagbemi, F. (1981) Major variables that influence the African worker. Unpublished M.Sc Seminar Paper, Dept of Psychology, Unilag.
- Fagbohungebe, O.B (2002). Testing side-bets theory using job tenure, job involvement and organisational commitment. *Journal of School of Management and Business Studies*, 1(1), 30-39.
- Fagbohungebe, O.B. & Longe,S.O. (1994). *Industrial psychology: X-ray of behaviour in Nigerian organisation*. Lagos: Ade-ola Printing Press Ltd.
- Fagbohungebe, O.B. & Longe,S.O. (1999). *Industrial psychology: X-ray of behaviour in Nigerian organisation*. Lagos: Koblex Publishers.
- Fagbohungebe, O.B. & Longe,S.O. (2003). *An introduction to psychology concepts and principles*. Lagos: Ade-ola Printing Press Ltd.
- Fagbohungebe, O.B. (1981). Industrial Turnover as a function of leadership pattern in Nigerian organization. *An unpublished Masters Project*, Dept of Psychology, University of Lagos: Lagos.
- Fagbohungebe, O.B. (2009). *Personnel or human resource managemen: The repository for human resource utilization* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed). Lagos: Olas Ventures.
- Feldman, A.S., & Moore, W.E. (1982). *Labor commitment and social change in developing areas*. Connecticut: Greenwood Press Publishers.

- Feldman, R.S. (2000). *Essentials of understanding psychology*. (4<sup>th</sup> Ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fiedler, F.E. (1967): *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company.
- Filley, A.O. & House, R.J. (1969). *Manasgerial process and organisational behaviour*. Glenview: Scott Foresman and Company.
- Fleishman, E.A. (1953). "Description of supervisory behaviour". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 37, (1). 112-118.
- Fleishman, E.A. (1953). "Leadership climate and human relations training". *Personnel Psychology*, 6, 205-222.
- Floyd, F.J. & Widaman, K.F. (1985). "Factor analysis in the development and refinement of clinical assessment instrument". *Psychological Assessment*, 7, 286-299.
- Foke, C. L.J. (2001). "Leadership behaviours: effects on job satisfaction, productivity and organizational commitment". *Journal of Nursing Management*, 9, 191-204.
- Ford, J.K., MacCallum, R. C., & Tait, M. (1986). "The application of explanatory FA in applied psychology: A critical review and analysis". *Personnel Psychology*, 39, 291-314.
- Ford, J.K., MacCallum, R. C., & Tait, M. (1986). "The Application of Explanatory FA in Applied Psychology: A Critical Review and Analysis", *Personnel Psychology*, 39, 291-314.
- French, J. R., Israel, J., & As, D (1960). "An experiment on participation in Norwegian factory." *Human Relations*, 13, 3-19.
- Furnham, A. (1997). *The psychology of behaviour of work*. Hove: Psychology Press.
- Furnham, A. (2001). Personality and individual differences in the workplace: Person-Organisation-outcomes fit. In Robert, B. W & Hogan, R. (Eds.), *Personality psychology in the workplace*. Washington: America Psychology Association.
- Gibb, C.A. (1954): Leadership. In Gardner, Lindzet (ed), *Handbook of Social Psychology*, Cambridge, Mass: Addison- Wesley Publishing Company.
- Gelade, G. A., & Young, S. (2005). "Test of a service profit chain model in the retail banking sector". *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 78, 1-22.
- Gelade, G.A. & Gilbert, P. (2006). "National differences in organisational commitment: Effect of economy, product of personality or consequence of culture. *Journal of cross-cultural Psychology*, 37(5),542-556.
- George, J.M. (1991). "State of trait: Effects of positive mood on pro-social behaviours at work". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 299-307.
- Golberg, L.R. (1992). The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structure. *Psychological Assessment*, 4, 26-42
- Goldberg, L. R. (1992). "The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structures". *Psychological Assessment*, 4, 26-42.

- Goldberg, L. R. (1993). "The structure of phenotypic personality traits". *American Psychologist*, 48, 26-34.
- Goldberg, L.R. (1990) "An alternative description of personality: The Big-Five factor structure", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59, 1216 – 1229.
- Good, C.V. (1959): *Dictionary of Education*. Second Ed, New York: McGraw Hill.
- Graen, G. B. & U-Bien, M. (1995). "Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective". *Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 219-247.
- Graen, G.B. & Scandura, T.A. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing. In B.M. Staw & L.L. Cummings (eds). *Research in organisational behaviour*. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Graen, G., & Cashman, J. F. (1975). A role-making model in formal organizations: A developmental approach. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership frontiers* (pp. 143-165). Kent, OH: Kent State University Press.
- Grojean, M., Dick, R., Christ, O & Wieseke, J. (2006). Identity and the Extra Mile: Relationships between Organizational Identification and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 17, 283–301.
- Griffin, E. (1997). *A first look at communication theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill
- Hackett, R.D., Lapierre, L.M., & Hausdorf, P.A. (2001). "Understanding the links between work commitment constructs". *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58: 392-413.
- Halpin, A.W. (1956): *The Leadership Behaviour of School Superintendents*. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education the Ohio State University.
- Halpin, A.W. (1956). *The leadership behaviour of school superintendents*. Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University.
- Helgesen, S. (1990). *The female advantage: Women's ways of leadership*. New York, N.Y.: Currency and Doubleday.
- Hemphill, J.K. (1945). *Situational factors in leadership*. Columbia, Ohio: Ohio State University.
- Hemphill, J.K. (1955). "Leadership behaviour association with the administrative reputation of college department". *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 46, 385-400.
- Hemphill, J.K., and Coons, A. E. (1957). Development of the leader behaviour description questionnaire. In R.M. Stogdill & A.E. Coons (Eds), "Leader behaviour and measurement. Columbus: Ohio State University", *Journal of Social Issues*, 12, 41-49.
- Hersey, P., and Blanchard, K.H. (1988). *Management of organizational behaviour, utilizing human resources*. (Fifth edition,) New Jersey: Prentice-Hall International, Inc. Englewood Cliffs.
- Hersey, P., and Blanchard, K.H (1969). Life cycle theory of leadership: Is there a best style of leadership? *Training and Development Journal*, 79, 99-107.

- Hersey, P., Blanchard, K.H & Johnson, D. E.(2007). *Management of organisational behaviour: Leadeing human resources*, NY: Prentice-Hall
- Hoffmann, B, Ineson, E.M. & Stewart, M.I (2010). "Personality as an indicator of organisational commitment."   
<http://www.pc.parnn.ee/vhtooman/Eurochrie/Conference%20Proceedings/Full%20paper>.  
Visited 22/10/2010/10pm.
- Hogan, R. (1965). "Group problem solving. In L.Berkowitz (Wd.), *Advances in experimentatal social psychology*, 2, 99-132.
- Hogan, R. (1991). *Personality and personality measurement*. In M. Dunnette and L. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed). Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Hogan, J. & Holland, B. (2003). "Using theory to evaluate personality and job performance relations: A socioanalytic perspective". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 100-112.
- Hogan, R., & Hogan, J., & Roberts, B.M. (1996). "Personality measurement and employment decisions: Questions and answers". *American Psychologist*, 51, 469-477.
- Hough, J. (1992). The use of principal component and profile analysis in strategic management research in Agricultural cooperatives in South Africa. Contributed paper to the annual conference of the AEASA.
- Hough, L.M., & Schneider, R.J. (1996). Personality traits, taxonomies, and applications in organizations. In K.R. Murphy (Ed.), *Individual differences and behavior in organizations*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- House, R. J. (1971). "A Path Goal Theory of leader effectiveness". *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16, 321-338.
- House, R.J. (1996). Path-gaol theory of leadership: Lessons, legagcy and a reformulated theory. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 323-352.
- House, R.J. & Mitchell, T.R. (1974). "Path-goal theory of leadership". *Contemporary Business*, 3, 81-98.
- House, R. J. & Aditya, R.N.(1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23(3), 409-473.
- Howard, P.J., & Howard, J.M. (2000). The big-five quick start: An introduction to the five-factor model of personality for human resource professional.   
<http://www.centacs.com/quikindx.htm>. Retrieved September 6, 2007.
- Huang, X., Shi, K., Zhhang, Z. & Cheung, Y.L. (2006). "The impact of participative leadership behaviour on psychological empowerment and organisational commitment in Chinese sate a owned enterprise: the moderating role of organisational tenure". *Asia Pacific Journal of*

- Management*, 23 (3), 345-367. <http://www.springerlink.com/content/4601020u65614w54/>  
DOI 23/10/20107pm.
- Hurtz, G. M., & Donovan, J.J. (2000). "Personality and job performance: The Big-five revisited". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 869-879.
- Hurley, R.F. (1998) A customer service behavior in retail settings: A study of the effect of service provider personality, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Sciences*, 26, 115 – 227.
- Jago, A.G. (1982)." Leadership; Perspective in Theory and Research". *Journal of Management Science*. 28(3), pp. 315-336.
- Jang, K.L., Livesley, W. J., & Vernon, P.A. (1996a) the genetic basis of personality at different ages: A cross-sectional twin study. *Personality and Individual Difference*, 21, 299-301.
- Jaramillo, F., Mulki, J.P., & Marshall, G.W. (2005). "A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational commitment and salesperson job performance: 25 years of research". *Journal of Business Research*, 58: 705-714.
- Jaskyte, K. (2004). "Assessing Changes In employees' perceptions of leadership behaviour, Job design, and organizational arrangements and their job satisfaction and commitment". *Journal of Human Service Management*, 27(4), 73-98.
- Jegede, O.J. (2004). The effect of Personality factors on Organisational Commitment among Civil Servants in Nigeria. *Unpublished B.Sc Project: University of Lagos.*
- Jennings, E.E. (1961). "The Anatomy of Leadership". *Management of Personnel Quarterly*, 1(1).
- Jiao, C., Richard, D.A. & Zhang, K. (2010). Leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour: OCB-specific meanings as mediators.  
<http://www.springerlink.com/content/a075h04706648751/>. DOI:10.1007/s10869.01.9168.3
- John, O.P. Donahue, E.M., Kentle, R.L (1991). *The Big-Five Inventory-Version 4a and 54*. Berkeley: University of California, Berkeley Institute of Personality and Social Research.
- Jones, A.P., James, L.R., & Bruni, J. R. (1975). "Perceived leadership behaviour and employees confidence in the leader as moderated by job involvement". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 146-149.
- Judge T.A. and Ilies, R. (2002). "Relationship of personality to performance motivation: A meta-analytic review", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 797 – 807.
- Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Mount, M. K. (2002). "Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: A metaanalysis". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 530-541.
- Judge, T. A., Van Vianen, A. E. M., & De Pater, I. E. (2004). "Emotional stability, core self-evaluations, and job outcomes: A review of the evidence and an agenda for future research". *Human Performance*, 17, 325–346.
- Judge, T.A., Heller, D., & Mount, M.K. (2002). "Five-Factor Model of Personality and Job Satisfaction: A Meta-Analysis". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 530-541.

- Judge, T.A., Higgins, C.A., Thoresen, C.J. and Barrick, M.R. (1999) The Big Five personality traits, general mental ability, and career success across the life span, *Personnel Psychology*, 52, 621 – 652.
- Kanfer, R., & Ackerman, P. L. (2000). “Individual differences in work motivation: Further explorations of a trait framework”. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 49, (3), 470–482.
- Kanfer, R., Ackerman, P.L., Murtha, T., & Goff, M. (1995). Personality and intelligence in industrial and organizational psychology. In M. Zeidner & D. Saklofske (Eds), *International handbook of personality and intelligence*. New York: Plenum, 577-602.
- Keys, B. & Case, J. (1990). “How to become an influential manager”. *Academy of management Executive*, 44, 38-51.
- Kickul, J. R., Neuman, N & George A. (1998). “Organizational citizenship behaviors: Achievement orientation and personality”. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 13(2), 263-279.
- Konovsky, M. A., & Organ, D. W. (1996). “Dispositional and contextual determinants of organizational citizenship behaviour”. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17, 253–266.
- Konovsky, M., & Organ, D. (1996). “Dispositional and contextual determinants of organizational citizenship behaviour”. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 17, 253-266.
- Konovsky, M., & Organ, D. (1996). “Dispositional and contextual determinants of citizenship behaviour”. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, . 17, 253-266.
- Koontz, H & Weihrich, H. (1990). *Essentials of Management*, New York: McGraw-Hill
- Koontz, H. & Weihrich, H. (1998): *Essential of Management*. 5<sup>th</sup> edition, New Delhi; Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company limited.
- Kouzes, A.J & Posner, B. Z. (2008). *The leadership challenge*. Wiley: New: York
- Kouzes, A.J & Posner, B. Z.(2002). *The leadership challenge* (3rd Edition), Jossey-Bass: New: York
- Koys, D. (2001). “The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover on organizational effectiveness: a unit-level, longitudinal study”. *Personnel psychology*, 4. 78-101.
- Kozlowski, S.W & Doherty, M.L (1989). “In tegration of climate and leadership: Examination of a neglected issue”. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74, 546-553.
- Kraut, A.I. (1970). “The predication of employee turnover by employee attitudes.” *American Psychological Association*, Boston,MM.
- Kupfermann, I. (1991d) . Genetic determinant of behaviour. In E.R. Kandel, J.H. Schwartz, & T.M. Jessell (Eds.), *Principles of neutral science*. (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed). New York: Elsevier.

- Kul, M., & Guclu, M. (2010). The relationship between school administrators' leadership style and physical education teachers' organisational commitment. *International Journal of Human Sciences*, 7(2), 89-95.
- Lagomarsino, R.M. & Cardona, P. (2003). Relationship among leadership, organisational commitment and OCB in Uruguayan health institutions. *IESE Working Paper No D/494* <http://www.ssrn.com/abstract=462306>
- Laka-Mathebula, M.R. (2003). Modelling the relationship between organisational commitment, leadership style, human resources management practices and organisational trust. <http://www.upetd.up.ac.za/thesis/available/etd-07062004-112817/.../00thesis.pdf>  
22/10/20109am
- Lawal, O. A. (2001). The influence of ingratiation and self-monitoring on employee behaviour in the workplace. *Unpublished M.Sc Project*, Ibadan.: University of Ibadan.
- Leach, C.W. (2005). "Against the notion of a new racism". *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 15(6), 432-445.
- Lee, K., Ogunfowora, B., & Ashton, M. C. (2005). "Personality traits beyond the Big Five: Are they within the HEXACO space?" *Journal of Personality*, 73, 1437-1463.
- Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R.K. (1939). "Patterns of aggressive behaviour in experimentally created social climate", *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10, 271-301.
- Likert, R. (1932). A technique for the measurement of attitudes, *Archives of Psychology*, 22(140), 234-256.
- Li, I-chuan, Lin, Mei-Chih, Chen, & Ching-Min (2007) Relationship between personality traits, job satisfaction, and job involvement among Taiwanese community health volunteers, *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 16(6), 1061-1067.
- Liden, R. & Maslyn, J. (1998). "Multidimensionality of Leader-member exchange: A empirical assessment through scale development". *Journal of Management*, 24(1), 43-72.
- Limerick, D. (1992). "the shape of a new organization: Implications for human resource management". *Asian Pacific Journal of Humamn Resources*, 30(1), 38-52.
- Lipham J.A. (1981): *Effective Principal, Effective School*. American Association of Secondary School Principals, Reston, VA.
- Liao, C. & Lee, C. (2009). "An empirical study of employee job involvement and personality traits: The case of Taiwan." *International Journal of Economics and Management*, 3(1), 22-36.
- Lodahl, T. & Kejner, M. (1965). "The Definition and Measurement of Job Involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 49, 24-33.



- Lord, R.G., Devader, C.L., and Alliger, G.M. (1986): A Meta-Analysis of the Relation Between Personality Traits and Leadership Perceptions: An Application of Validity Generalization Procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*.
- Lord, R.G., Devader, C.L., and Alliger, G.M. (1986): A Meta-Analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*.
- Lounsbury, J.W., Moffitt, L., Gibson, L.W., Drost, A.W. and Stevenson, M.W. (2007). An investigation of personality traits in relation to the job and career satisfaction of information technology professionals, *Journal of Information Technology*, 22, 174 – 183.
- Mackinnon, D.W. (1944). The structure of personality. In McVHuunt. (Ed.), *Personality and the behaviour disorder*, 1, 348-356. New York: Ronald Press.
- Mackensie, S. B., Podsakoff, P., & Praine, J. B. (1999). “Do citizenship behaviours matters more for managers than salespeople”. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 27,396-410.
- Maier, N.R.F (1963). *Problem solving discussions and conferences:Leadership methods and skills*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Makoto, N (1997). “The effects of leader behaviour and some moderators at sport clubs”. *Japanese Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 37(2), 203-215.
- Malouff, J., Schutte, N., Bauer, M., Mantelli, D., Pierce, B., Cordova, G. and Schutte, E.R. (1990) Development and evaluation of a measure of the tendency to be goal-oriented,
- Manz, C.C., and Sims, H. P. (2002): *The New Super leadership:Leading Others to Lead Themselves*. New Delhi: Viva Books Private Limited.
- Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D.M. (1990). “A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment”. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(2): 171-194.
- McAdams, D. P. (1992). “The five-factor model in personality: A critical appraisal”. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 329-361.
- McCall, M.W., & Lombardo, M.M. (1983). *Off the tract: Why and how successful executives get derailed*. Greenboro, NC: Center for Creative Leadership
- McCrae, R.R. & Costa, P.T. (1987). “Validation of the Five-Factor model of personslity across instruments and observer”. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(1), 81-90.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1989). Reinterpreting the Myers- Briggs Type Indicator from the perspective of the five-factor model of personality. *Journal of Personality*, 57, 17-40.
- McElroy, J.C., Morrow, P.C., & Wardlow, T.R. (1999). “A career stage analysis of police officer work commitment”. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 27 (6): 507-516.
- McElroy, J.C., Morrow, P.C., Crum, M.R., & Dooley, F.J. (1995). Railroad employee commitment and work-related attitudes and perceptions. *Transportation Journal*. 13-24.

- McGregor, D. (1960): *The Human Side of Enterprise*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- McIntire, M. (2002). How to create enthusiastic, committed employees.  
<http://www.imglv.com>. 3/28/2010.
- McKelvey, B. & Sekaran, U. (1977) "Towards a career-based theory of job involvement: A study of scientists and engineers", *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22, 281 – 305.
- McNeely, B.L. & Meglino, B.M. (1994). "The role of dispositional and situational antecedents in pro-social behaviour: An examination of the intended beneficiaries of pro-social behaviour". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 836-844.
- Mead, G.H. (1934). *Mind, Self, and Society*. Ed. by Charles W. Morris. University of Chicago Press.
- Mester, C., Visser, D., & Roodt, G. (2003) "Leadership style and its relation to employee attitudes and behaviour." *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 29 (2), 72-82.
- Merton, R.K. (1957). *Social theory and social structure*, NY: Free Press.
- Meyer, J. P., Allen, N.J. & Smith, C.A. (1993). "Commitment to organizations and occupations: extensions and test of a three-component conceptualization". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78: 538–551.
- Meyer, J. P., Paunonen, S., Gellatly, V., Goffin, I. R. & Jackson, D. N. (1989). "Organizational commitment and job performance: it is the nature of the commitment that counts". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(1): 152-156.
- Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). "Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences". *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61, 20-52.
- Meyer, J.P. & Allen, J.L (1984). "Testing the side-bet theory of organisational commitment: Some methodological considerations". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 372-378.
- Meyer, J.P., Paunonen, S.V., Gellatly, I.R., Goffin, R.D., & Jackson, D.N. (1989). "Organizational commitment and job performance: it's the nature of the commitment that counts". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74: 152-156.
- Meyer, J.P., Stanley, D.J., Herscovitch, L., & Topolnytsky, L. (2002). "Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences". *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61: 20 –52.
- Meyer, John, P. & Allen, N.J.(1984). "Testing the ASide-Bet Theory of organizational commitment: Some Methodological considerations". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69: 372-378.
- Midili, A. R. & Penner, L. A. (1995). *Dispositional and environmental influences on organizational citizenship behavior*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, New York.

- Miller, R. L., Griffin, M. A., & Hart, P. M. (1999). "Personality and organizational health: The role of conscientiousness". *Work and Stress*, 13, 7-19.
- Mogaji, A.A. (1997). "Effect of organisational climate on employees commitment, involvement and motivation in some Nigerian manufacturing industries." Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, Dept. of Psychology, University of Lagos.
- Moorman, R. H. & Blakely, G. L. (1995). "Individualism-Collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behaviour". *Journal of Organizational Behaviour* Mar, 16(2), 127-142.
- Moorman, R., Blakely, G., & Neihoff, B. (1995). "Does received Organizational support mediate the relationship Between procedural justice and organizational Citizenship behavior". *Academy of Management Journal*. 41.(3), 351-371.
- Moorman, R.H. & Blakely, G.L. (1995). "Individual-Collectivism as individual difference predictors of organisational behaviour". *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 16(2), 127-142.
- Morrison, R.S., Jones, L. & Fuller, B. (1997). "The relation between leadership style and empowerment on job satisfaction of nurses". *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 27(5), 27-34.
- Morris, C.G. (1993). *Understanding Psychology*. (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.), New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Morgeson, F. P., Reider, M. H., & Campion, M. A. 2005, "Selecting individuals in team settings: The importance of social skills, personality characteristics, and teamwork knowledge", *Personnel Psychology*, 58(3), 583-611.
- Motowildlo, S.J. & Van-Scotter, J.R. (1994). "Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 475-480.
- Morrow, P.C. (1983). Concept redundancy in organisational research: The case of work commitment. *Academy of Management Review*, 8 (3), 486-500.
- Mottaz, C.J., 1988. Determinants of organizational commitment", *Human Relations*, 41: 467-482
- Mount, M. & Ilies, R. (2006). "Relationship of personality traits and counterproductive work behaviors: the mediating effects of job satisfaction", *Personnel Psychology*, 59, 591 – 622.
- Mount, M. K., Barrick, M. R., & Strauss, J. P. (1994). Validity of observer ratings of the Big Five personality factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 272-280.
- Mowday, R., Steers, R. & Porter, L. W. (1979). "The measurement of organizational commitment". *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14: 224-247.
- Mowday, R.T., Porter, L.W. & Steers, R.M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkages: The Psychology of Commitment, Absenteeism, and Turnover*. New York: Academic Press
- Myers, D.G. (1992). *Psychology*. New York: Worth Publishers.

- Munene, J.C. & Azuka, E. (1991). "some positive outcomes of work participation in nigeria: A Replication". *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, *1*(4), 1-15.
- Myers, I.B. & McCaulley, M.H. (1985). *Manual: A guide to the development and use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Newman, J.E. (1974). "Predicting absenteeism and turnover: a field comparism of Fishbein's model and traditional job attitude measures." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *59*, 610-615.
- Newton, T.J. & Keenan, A. (1983) Is work involvement an attribute of the person or the environment, *Journal of Occupational Behavior*, *4*, 169 – 178.
- Niehoff, B. P., Moorman, R. H., Blakely. G. & Fuller, J. (2001). The influence of empowerment and job enrichment on employee loyalty in a downsizing environment, *Group & Organization Management*, *26* (1): 93-113.
- Niehoff, B.P. (2006) Personality predictors of participation as a mentor, *Career Development International*, *11*, 321 – 333.36 International Journal of E
- Nijhof, W.J., De Jong, M.J., & Beukhof, G. (1998). "Employee commitment in changing organizations: an exploration". *Journal of European Industrial Training*, *22*, 243-248.
- Nikolaou, I. & Robertson I.T. (2001). The Five-factor of Personality and Work Behaviour in Greece. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, *10*(2), 161-186. <http://www.tandf.co.uk/journals/pp/1359432x.html>. Retrieved September 11, 2007.
- Northouse, P.G. (2001). *Leadership, theory and practice*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. California: Sage Publication.
- O'Reilly, C.A., & Roberts, K.H. (1978). "Superior influence and subordinates' mobility aspiration as moderators of consideration and initiating structure". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *63*, 96-102.
- Ogunyinka, A (1992). "Organisational Commitment as a Correlate of Leadership Climate in Private and Public Organisations. *Unpublished B.Sc Project*: University of Lagos: Lagos
- Okhakhume, A.S., Attah, T., & Chimadike, C, A. (2005). "Influence of managerial beliefs and personality on the leadership styles of managers in manufacturing and service organisations." *African Journal for the Psychological Study of Social Issues*, *8*(2), 292-305.
- Oladimeji, A. (1999). *Human resource management in Nigeria*. Business & Institutional Support Associates Limited: Lagos.
- Omeneki, C.G. (1991). Perceive Leadership Styles as a Correlate of Employees Commitment in Nitel. *Unpublished Masters Project*, Dept of Psychology, Lagos: University of Lagos: Lagos
- Organ, D. W, 1988. *Organizational citizenship behavior: the good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

- Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: the good soldier syndrome*. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books.
- Organ, D. W. (1994). "Organizational citizenship behavior and the good soldier". *Personnel selection and classification*, 53-67.
- Organ, D. W. (1997). "Organizational citizenship behavior: Its construct clean-up time". *Human Performance*, 10(2), 85-97.
- Organ, D. W., & Lingl, A. (1995). "Personality, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviour". *Journal of Social Psychology*, 135, 339–350.
- Organ, D. W. & Konovsky, M. (1989). "Cognitive versus affective determinants of organizational citizenship behaviour". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(1), 157-164.
- Organ, D. W. & Paine, J. B. (1999). A new kind of performance for industrial and organizational psychology: Recent contributions to the study of organizational citizenship behavior. In Cooper, C. L., Robertson, I. T. (Eds.). *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, Vol. 14. 337-368. New York: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, Ph. M., & MacKenzie, S. B, (2006). *Organizational citizenship behavior: its nature, antecedents, and consequences*. Thousand OA: SAGE Publications
- Organ, D. W. & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 775-802.
- Paine, J. B. & Organ, D. W. (2000). "The cultural matrix of organizational citizenship behavior: some preliminary conceptual and empirical observations". *Human Resource Management Review*, 10(1), 44-59.
- Perryer, C. & Jordan, C. (2005). "The influence of leader behaviours on organisational commitment: A study in the Australian public sector". *International Journal of Public Administration*, 28(5&6), 379-396))
- Phanes, E.J. (1984). *Introduction to personality*. Columbus, OH: Merrill.
- Podsakoff, P. M. & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). "Impact of Organizational Citizenship Behavior on organizational performance: A review and suggestions for future research". *Human Performance*, 10(2), 133-151.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R, (1990). "Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leaders, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviours". *Leadership Quarterly*, 1, 107-142.
- Poncheri, R. (2006). *The Impact of Work Context on the Prediction of Job Performance*. North Carolina State University.
- Piedmont, R.L. (1999). "Does spirituality represents the sixth factor of personality? Spiritual transcendence and the five-factor model". *Journal of Personality*, 67, 985-1013.
- Pupipatphol, P. (2008.). Impact of transformational leadership style on job involvement. *On-line Digital Journal*. <http://thailand.digitaljournals.org/index/viewfile/446/3981>.

- Rabinowitz, S. & Hall, D.T. (1977) Organizational research on job involvement, *Psychological Bulletin*, 84, 265 – 288.
- Rabinowitz, S., Hall, D.T. and Goodale, J.G. (1977). “Job scope and individual differences as predictors of job involvement: Independent or interactive”, *Academy of Management Journal*, 20, 273 – 281.
- Ramsey, R., Lassk, F.G., & Marshall, G.W. (1995). “A critical evaluation of a measure of job involvement: The use of the Lodahl and Kejner (1965) scale with salespeople”. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 15 (3): 65-74.
- Randall, D. M. (1993). “Cross-cultural research on organizational commitment: A review and application of Hofstede’s Value Survey Module”. *Journal of Business Research*, 26, 91-110.
- Reddin, W.J. (1970): *Managerial Effectiveness*. Tokyo: McGraw Hill.
- Redman, T., & Snap, E. (2005). “I to we: the role of consciousness transformation in compassion and altruism”. *Journal of Management Studies* 42:2 March 2005 0022-2380.
- Reilly, R.R.,Lojeski, K.S. & Ryan, M.R. (2006). “Leadership and organizational citizenship behavior in e-collaborative Teams”. *Human Performance*, 11(2/3), 189-207.
- Salami, S.O. (2008). “Demographic and psychological factors predicting organizational commitment among industrial workers”, *Anthropologist*, 10(1): 31-38.
- Salami, S.O. & Omole, O.A. (2005). Participation in decisionmaking process, incentives and training as predictors of organizational commitment among industrial workers. *African Journal for the Psychological Study of Social Issues*, 8(2): 210-227.
- Scandura, T. A., & Graen, G. B, (1984). “Moderating effects of initial leader-member exchange status on the effects of a leadership intervention”. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 428-441.
- Schermerhorn, J.R. (1996): *Management and Organizational Behaviour Essential*. New Jersey: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Schwab, D.P. (1980). Construct validity in organisational behaviour. In B.M Staw & L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research In Organisational Behaviour*, CF:JAI Press, 3-43.
- Schwab, D.P. (1980). Construct Validity in Organisational Behaviour. In B.M Staw & L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research In Organisational Behaviour*, CF:JAI Press, 3-43
- Shakeela, M. (2004). “A measure of leadership behaviour: Does the Age – Old measure require redefining?”, *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management*, 12(2), 140-151.
- Shapiro, C., Jacqueline, A. M., Kessler I & Purcell, J. (2004). “Exploring organizationally directed citizenship behaviour: reciprocity or ‘it’s my job?’”. *Journal of Management Studies*, 41(1), 102-115

- Sharma, R. (2008). "Personality and adjustment correlates of organisational commitment among college teachers." *The Journal of Progressive Education*, 1(2), 151-178.  
<http://www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:gjpe&volume..21/10/10>
- Shartle, C.L. (1966): *Executive Performance and Leadership*. New York: McGraw- Hill.
- Shaw, J. D., Delery, J. E., Jenkins, G. D., & Gupta, N. 1998. An organizational-level analysis of voluntary and involuntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(5): 511-525.
- Shore, L. M., & Martin, H. J. (1989). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment in relation to work performance and turnover intentions. *Human Relations*, 42(7): 625-638.
- Siders, M.A., George, G., & Dharwadkar, R. (2001). "The Relationship of internal and external commitment foci to objective job performance measures," *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(3): 570-579.
- Singh, A & Singh, A.P. (2009). "Does personality predict organisational citizenship behaviour among managerial "personnel?" *Journal of Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, 35, 291-298.
- Smith, C.A., Organ, D.W., & Near, J.P. (1983). "Organisational citizenship behaviour: Its natures and antecedents". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68(4), 653-663.
- Smith, P.C., Kendall, L.M.& Hulin, C.L. (1969). *The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Smithkrai, C. (2007) "Personality traits and job success: An investigation in a Thai sample", *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 15, 134 – 138.
- Staw, B.M., Bell, & N.E Clausen, J.A. (1986). "The dispositional approach to job attitudes longitudinal test". *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 31, 56-77.
- Steers, R.M., & Spencer, D.G. (1977). "The role of achievement motivation in job design." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62(4), 472-479
- Stewart, G.L. & Nandkeolyar, A.K. (2006) "Adaptation and intraindividual variation in sales outcomes: Exploring the interactive effects of personality and environmental opportunity", *Personnel Psychology*, 59, 307 – 332.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of the literature*, New York: Free Press
- Stordeur, S., Vandenberghe, C. & D'hoore, W. (2000). "Leadership Styles Across Hierarchical levels in Nursing Departments". *Nursing Research*, 49(1), 37-43.
- Suar, D, Teweri, H.R & Chaturbedi (2006). "Subordinates' Perception of Leadership Styles and Their Behaviour". *Psychology and Developing Societies*, 18(1) pp. 95-114.  
<http://pds.sagepub.com/cgi/content/abstract/18/1/95>. Retrieved September 11, 2007.
- Tannenbaum, R. & Schmidt W.H. (1958): *How to Choose a Leadership Pattern*. Harvard Business Review, 36, March-april.

- Tannenbaum, R. & Alport, F.H. (1956). "Personality structure and group structure: An interpretive structure of their relationship through an event structure hypothesis." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 53, 272-280.
- Tannenbaum, R., Weschler, I.R., and Massarik, F. (1961): *Leadership and Organization, A Behaviour Science Approach*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Tead, O. (1935): *The Art of Leadership*. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company.
- Terry, G.R. (1988): *Principles of Management*. Homewood III: Richard D. Irwin.
- The Society for More Creative Speech. (1996). *Symbolic Interactionism as Defined by Herbert Blumer*. <http://www.thepoint.net/~usul/text/blumer.html>.
- Thoresen, C. J., Kaplan, S. A., Barsky, A. P., Warren, C. R., & de Chermont, K. (2003). "The affective underpinnings of job perceptions and attitudes: A meta-analytic review and integration". *Psychological Bulletin*, 129, 914-945.
- Todd, S. A (2003). "Causal model depicting the influence of selected task and employee variables on organizational citizenship behavior. In Turnipseed, D., & Rassuli, A. Performance Perceptions of Organizational Citizenship Behaviours at Work: a Bi-Level Study among Managers and Employees". *British Journal of Management*, 16, 231-244.
- Truckenbrodt, Y. B. (2000). "The relationship between leader-member exchange and commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour". *Acquisition Review Quarterly*, 233-234.
- Turnipseed, D. L. & Murkison, E. (2000). A bi-cultural comparison of organization citizenship behavior: does the OCB phenomenon transcend national culture? *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 8(2), 200-222.
- Udegbe, I.B., Okurame, D.E & Shenge, N.A (2001). Conception of leadership among communities In Nigeria. In I.B. Udegbe (ed.) *Dynamics of Leadership in Contemporary Nigerian Communities*: Ibadan SSRHRN, 27-41.
- Umeh, C.S (2004) . *The impact of personality characteristics on students' adjustment on campus*. Unpublished Ph.D Monograph, Department of Psychology, University of Lagos.
- Van Scotter, J. R., Motowidlo, S. J. (1996). "Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 525-531.
- Varca, P.E. (2004). "Service skills for service workers: Emotional intelligence and beyond", *Managing Service Quality*, 14, 457 – 467.
- Vecchio, R. P., & Boatwright, K. J. (2002). "Preferences for idealized styles of supervision". *Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 327-342.
- Vroom, V.H. & Yetton, P.W. (1973). *Leadership and decision-making*. Pittsburg: University of Pittsburg Press.



- Wagner, T., (2008). "Consequences of work force reduction: Some employer and union evidence". *Journal of Labor Research*, 22(4): 851-862.
- Wallace, J.C. & Vodanovich, S.J. (2003) "Workplace safety performance: Conscientiousness, cognitive failure, and their interaction", *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 8, 316 – 327.
- Wallace, J.C & Chen, G. (2006). "A multilevel integration of personality, climate, self-regulation, and performance," *Personnel Psychology*, 59, 529-557.
- Warr, P.B., Cook, J. & Wall, T. D. (1979). "Scales for the Measurement of Some Work Attitudes and Some Aspects of Psychological Well-being". *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 27, pp. 465-476.
- Wayne, S.J., & Ferris, G.R. (1990). "Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and field study". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(3) 487-499.
- Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., Bommer, W. H., & Tetrick, L. E, (2002). "The role of fair treatment and rewards in perceptions of organizational support and leader-member exchange". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 590-598.
- Weaver, G., & Yancey, G.B. (2010). "The impact of dark leadership on organizational commitment and turnover". Kravis Leadership Institute, *Leadership Review*, 10, 104 – 124.
- Wiggins, J.S. (Ed.). (1996). *The five-factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Wilson, P.A (1985). "The effects of politics and power on organizational commitment of federal executives." *Journal of Management*, 21, 101-118.
- Wysocki, A.F. & Kepner, K.W. (2000). Human resources management in agric-business. A *Publication of the Department of Food and Resource Economic*, Florida Cooperative Extension Service, Institute of food and Agricultural science, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida.
- Xu, X. (2004). *OCB through cultural lenses: Exploring the relations among personality, OCB and cultural values*. A M.A thesis submitted to the Department of Psychology, College of Arts and Sciences, University of South Florida.
- Yen, H., & Neihoff, B. (2004). Organizational citizenship behavior and organizational effectiveness: Finding relationship in Taiwanese banks. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 34(8), 161 7-1 637.
- Yorges, S. (1999). The Impact of Group Formation and Perceptions of Fairness on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 29(7). 1444-1471.

- Yperen, N. W. V. (2003). On the link between different combinations of Negative Affectivity (NA) and Positive Affectivity (PA) and job performance. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35, 1873-1881.
- Yuki, G.A. & Van Fleet, D.D. (1998): Theory and Research on Leadership in Organizations. In Dunnette, Marvin D. and Hough, Leatta (Eds), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. Mambai: Jaico Publishing House, Vol. 3, PP. 147- 197.
- Yulk, G. A. (1998). *Leadership in organizations*. (4<sup>th</sup> ed). New Jeysey: Prentice Hall.
- Yukl, G.A. (1989). Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. *Yearly Review of Management*, 15, 251-289.
- Yukl, G.A. (1994). *Leadership in organisations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.