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**Organisational commitment in Developing Countries: the case of
Nigeria**

By

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Organisational Commitment of the University of Northumbria at
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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the effective measurement of employee commitment within the Nigerian banking sector. The relevance of the research originates from various research findings that shows that in most organisations, evidence abounds of employees' emotional and physiological distancing of themselves from their organisation even when the pay is highly competitive. In addition, there are also evidences of inconsistencies in research outcomes when Western commitment scale is employed within non-Western organisation. This study is therefore aimed at filling literature gaps on identified inconsistencies from the use of Western scales in measuring commitment in non-Western organisations and also to comprehend employee commitment behaviour in organisations within non-Western culture.

In exploring the above issues, this research developed a 28-item, 7-point Likert scaled questionnaire, distributed to 200 participants with a 42% response rate. The research also employed exploratory factor analysis in the form of PCA and Varimax for factor extraction and scale reduction and Cronbach's Coefficient alpha internal consistency measure for reliability assessment. To take the study a step further, the scale was additionally subjected to statistical test using One Way ANOVA, Pearson's Chi-Square test, and Spearman's rank order correlation in measuring employee commitment behaviours, using two variables: income and age.

The outcome from the study was two-fold. The 28 items were reduced to 18 usable items with 3-factor extractions representing three components of commitment. Scale reliability was also measured. The first outcome shows that the scale is indeed a culturally suitable and usable (valid and reliable) scale for the assessment of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria with an alpha score of .930, evidence of strong scale reliability. The second outcome was from the test aimed at assessing the behavioural aspect of employee commitment to their organisation in relation to the two variables income and age. The outcome shows that the higher income earning Nigerian employees (employees within the income band 1.1 million and above), and employees within the age group 31-35 are likely to be less committed to their organisations than their counterparts.

The study concludes with the view that to effectively measure employee commitment to organisations in non-Western Nigerian cultures, requires the development and use of an appropriate and culturally motivated usable and suitable (consistent and dependable) scale. The conclusions are also discussed in terms of the links between income, age and commitment. It identified that high income and age are not necessarily indicators of commitment; rather some factors associated with culture might have stronger influence on employee expression of commitment to their organisation.

Key words: employee commitment, measurement, Nigeria, Banking, National and Organisational culture

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ABBREVIATIONS/DEFINITION OF TERMS

EC	Employee commitment is used in conjunction with organisational commitment or commitment as meaning the same thing.
AC	Attitudinal commitment: This is one of the components of commitment. It is also known as emotional or attitudinal commitment. It is the study of workers expression of emotional feelings towards their organisation or other forces like profession, etc.
CC	Continues commitment: this is one of the components of commitment. It is the study of employee expression of commitment to organisation due to fear associated with one loosing their jobs or costs associated with leaving.
NC	Normative commitment: this is one of the components of commitment. It is the study of employee expression of commitment to organisation due to employee beliefs and feeling of moral obligation to remain employed within the organisation.
OCQ	Organisational commitment questionnaire. An employee commitment scale used in measuring employee commitment to their organisation, developed for Western organisation.
ACS	Attitudinal commitment scale. This is an employee commitment scale used in measuring the emotional aspect of employee expression of commitment to their organisation, developed for Western organisation
CCS	Continuance commitment scale. This is an employee commitment scale used in measuring employee expression of commitment to their organisation due to fear associated with losing once job, developed for Western organisation
NCS	Normative commitment scale. This is an employee commitment scale used in measuring the moral or belief aspect of employee expression of commitment to their organisation, developed for Western organisation
	Hofstede's National Cultural Dimensions
	Differences Between Nigerian Organisational Culture and Nigerian National Culture
PCA	Principal component analysis is one of the statistical instruments used within SPSS in analysis research data. It is found within exploratory factor analysis and aids the successful reduction of scale items and extraction of research components.
ANOVA	One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used in testing the equality of three or more means at one time by using variances

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DEDICATION

In memory of my late father

His Royal Highness (Igwe) **Michael Ogba-Ekirigwe**

The Ogaba-Idu of Ishielu and Ngbo le Izhia

and his ancestors

Ekpuri, Egba-Alobu, and the people of the kingdom: ndu Ebe-Azam, Amaegu and ndu Ngbo le Izhia in Eastern Nigeria, for sacrificing their lives to preserve our culture, identity and communities.

DECLARATION

Statement 1

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being currently submitted in candidature for any degree.

Statement 2

This thesis is the result of my own investigations in relation to the theory (employee commitment) in study, except where otherwise stated and acknowledged within this thesis and its bibliography appended.

Statement 3

I hereby give consent for my thesis (if accepted), to be made available electronically and manually for the purpose of teaching, researching, photocopying, inter-library loan, and for the title, abstract and summary to be made available to outside individuals and organisations so long as acknowledgement to the author is made.

Signed :  (Candidate)

Date: 20/07/2007

Dr. Janice McMillan, Prof. Sharon Mavin and Angela Mcgrane
(Supervisors)

Chapter One
Introduction to the Thesis

Chapter One

Introduction to the Thesis

1.0 Introduction

This chapter is a report on the doctoral research work conducted by the researcher from the commencement of his PhD programme to the conclusion of the academic exercise. It is a brief on the developments, processes and methods used in this research, aimed at conceptualising and developing a culture-motivated commitment scale for the assessment of employee commitment to their organisations in Nigeria.

This chapter is therefore grouped into sections. The first section offers an introduction to the research (research background and purpose). The second section presents the research structure, whereas the third and final section focuses on identifying with the research limitations associated with this study.

1.1 Research Background

Employee commitment has remained one of the most contested and critically reviewed fields of study, (Meyer and Allen 1991, Price 1997, and Swailes 2004) with much of its complications “traceable to definitional and measurement problems” (Somers 1993, p. 185). This is as a result of the ever-growing differences in views and “lack of consensus in construct definition” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 61). However, “although there are many and varied definitions of commitment, they appear to reflect at least three general themes: (1) affective attachment to the organisation, (2) perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation and (3) an obligation to remain with the organisation” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 64). This view seems to summarise the meaning of the present day organisational commitment as practically most of the existing definitions tends to reflect on one or more of the three components of organisational commitment, defined as **affective commitment**: “employee emotional attachment to, and involvement in a particular organisation”, **continuance commitment**: “an awareness of costs associated with leaving the organisation” and **normative commitment**: “a feeling of obligation to continue employment” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 67).

The importance of and foundation to this research study is informed by outcomes from two different findings obtained through the review of various literatures and empirical investigations assessing employee commitment to their organisations. The first outcomes are from the study conducted by the International Survey Research Group (2002) involving 362,950 employees from ten major developed and developing countries consisting of Japan (50%), China (57%), Brazil (79%), UK (59%), USA (67%), Italy (70%), Hong Kong (60%) and Spain (76%) among other European and American countries. The study shows that in most organisations, evidences abound of “employees’ emotional and physiological distancing of themselves from their organisation”, (The Japanese Times, 2002, p. 15) even when the pay is highly competitive. This

study and its outcomes served as a motivator to the researcher. The outcomes ignited the researcher's interests in the study of employee expression of commitment to their organisation. The other influencing outcomes which served as the core basis of this study are findings obtained from various studies on the conceptualisation and measurement of employee commitment using Meyer et al's (1993) scale and other such existing Western scales like Meyer and Allen (1991), Porter et al (1974). These studies tend to suggest a number of inconsistencies with the measurability and the fitness of the tested and reliable Western scale items in a non-Western culture, in that, while such Western measurement scales are generally accepted within the research community for their validity and reliability, when used in Western culture the applicability of such scale with similar results in non-Western cultures (countries) like China, South Korea, Nepal and Turkey, among others, has proved problematic, (Cheng and Stockdale 2003, Lee et al 2001, Gautam et al 2001, Wasti 2002).

In view of the above reasons, researchers are therefore suggesting the redefinition and modification of employee commitment scale or the development of a new scale for the assessment of organisational commitment to suit local culture and organisational needs before its use in a selected non-Western organisation (Allen 2003, Lee et al 2001, and Wasti 2002). In other words, the modification of the scale items to reflect the way things are done (Deal and Kennedy, 1982), specific to the country and organisations in the study.

This argument informed this research's theoretical foundation that "presumably the problem associated with the conceptualisation and measurement of commitment can be solved by improving... procedures and revision or substitution of scale items respectively... or a revise of the measures" to suit local needs, (Lee et al 2001, p. 598).

1.2 Research Objectives

To contribute to knowledge in this area of study, this research will set the following as its research objectives:

1. To explore and develop an appropriate understanding of employee commitment and differences between commitment components: Attitudinal, Continuance and Normative commitment concepts.
2. To explore and develop an appropriate understanding of the relevance of culture in conceptualising and measuring employee commitment in Nigeria.
3. To develop an appropriate methodology and methods to enable successful measurement of employee commitment in Nigeria.
4. To test the developed organisational commitment scale in Nigeria for its validity, reliability, suitability and usability as a discriminator using empirically collected data for original contributions to knowledge on commitment study in Nigeria.

To attain these objectives, the following research question will help inform this research focus.

1.3 Research Question

How can employee commitment be effectively measured in Nigerian organisations?

To explore answers to this research question, the researcher will conduct a review of literatures within Western and non-Western cultural settings and by following this research objective as itemised earlier, this study will be guided towards a productive research conclusion.

1.4 The Purpose of this Study

The purpose of this research therefore, is to identify the weaknesses found in the conceptualisation and measurement of employee commitment in non-Western culture and then advance this knowledge to fill in the gap identified with the measurement of commitment in non-Western culture, using Nigeria as a focal point. The study will therefore aim to explore and develop an appropriate understanding of employee commitment and differences between commitment components: Attitudinal, Continuance and Normative commitment concepts. It will explore and develop an appropriate understanding of the relevance of culture in conceptualising and measuring employee commitment in non-Western (Nigerian) culture. It will develop an appropriate methodology and methods to enable successful measurement of employee commitment in Nigeria and test the developed organisational commitment scale in Nigeria for its validity, reliability, suitability and usability as a discriminator using empirically collected data for original contributions to knowledge on commitment study in Nigeria.

1.5 What This Research Will Do

In order to effectively develop a scale for the successful assessment of employee's commitment to their organisation in Nigeria, this research will attempt to conceptualise and develop a Nigerian organisational commitment definition and scale: A scale that will provide empirical support to the fact that Nigerian employees may be committed to their organisation either because they *want* to be: Emotional attachment and feelings expressed towards organisations (attitudinal commitment), or because they *need* to be: Consideration of costs associated with leaving organisation, sacrifices or limited job alternatives available to employee (continuance commitment), or because they ought to be: Feelings of loyalty and obligation expressed by the employee towards their organisation (normative commitment) or due to other pressures such as loyalty to colleagues, friends and superiors in the workplace or loyalty to family members, (Oloko 1973, Mayer and Allen 1991).

This approach will be most suitable as it will help develop an understanding of commitment behaviours within Nigerian organisational settings by developing and using an effective scale to measure employees' commitment to organisations based on cultural influences. The study therefore requires an understanding and measurement of employee commitment to organisations,

which must “take item (scale) appropriateness into account and involve writing new construct-relevant, culture-appropriate items in the target language (organisation/country), or select from a large pool of items those that seem particularly appropriate for the culture in question... with responses to these new items subjected to... scrutiny and the factor structure of the new scale(s) examined” (Allen 2003, p. 512).

1.6 Structure of the Thesis

This research is chronologically arranged in sequences and according to chapters. With the introductory chapter (this chapter) covering the chapter intents and a brief overview of the rest of the chapters in this study.

1.6.1 Chapter One

Chapter One focuses on providing detailed briefs on the proposed background to the theoretical and empirical research study with added emphasis on the purpose of the research and an overview of the study. It also examines the importance of the research, the research questions, and also provides an overview of the research structure.

1.6.2 Chapter Two

Chapter Two focuses on providing strong theoretical review of various literatures relating to the researchable topic. That is, the evaluation and re-evaluation of previous research works and studies conducted on the concept of employee commitment to their organisations. The chapter therefore will deal with the examination of various historical developments on the study of employee commitment, commitment components and commitment measurement from various perspectives. It will also examine various methods employed so far by a variety of commitment experts in measuring the concept of employee commitment, with strong emphasis on both Western and non-Western studies such as the works of Backer (1960), Porter et al (1974), Meyer and Allen (1991), Meyer et al (1993), Lee et al (2001), Guatam (2001) and Wasti (2001) among others. Findings from their works will also be critically considered to enable the researcher to observe possible consistencies and/or inconsistencies in the measurement of commitment, especially when Western scales are employed for a study in non-Western organisations and what the possible reasons are and implications to such effect. This will inform the identification of possible literature gaps like definitional and measurement limitations associated with the conceptualisation of employee commitment, thereby, informing a new direction to this research study.

1.6.3 Chapter Three

Chapter Three of this research will focus on the study of national and organisational culture and the relevance of culture to commitment study especially in a non-Western environment. In addition, the chapter will explore various characteristics and dimensions of national and organisational culture. Centrally, the chapter will aim to explore various existing definitions on

the concept of culture and its connection and relevance to the concept of employee commitment. It will also seek to understand culture specific to Nigeria and how such knowledge will aid not only the understanding of the concept but also its connection to and with commitment as an aid to the successful conceptualisation and possible measurement of the concept of employee commitment to their organisations in non-Western society.

1.6.4 Chapter Four

Chapter Four will embark on an in-depth literature assessment of employee commitment in Nigeria. The chapter will progress the findings from Chapters Two and Three in identifying possible theoretical findings that successful assessment of employee commitment connects with successful understanding of people's culture. The chapter will also seek to define and understand employee commitment from a Nigerian perspective so as to aid in the development of possible research questions. The chapter will therefore draw its understanding of the concept of commitment from previous studies conducted on the concept of commitment within Nigeria from 1973 to date. Therefore, Chapters Two, Three and Four will represent this research literature chapter. Emerging from the literatures therefore there possibly will be a new or improved direction towards the conceptualisation and measurement of employee commitment from a non-Western Nigerian perspective.

1.6.5 Chapter Five

Chapter Five of the research will focus on a comprehensive study of relevant issues associated with the selection and use of research methodologies and methods connected with this kind of research. The chapter aims to persuasively discuss various research philosophical stances and appropriately justify the research choice of philosophy. The chapter will also identify, define, discuss and justify its choice of research methods for data collection, data analysis and sample selection among others. The approaches to the above issues will be clearly discussed and choices made in recognition of existing procedures established for a study of this kind. The methodology and methods chapter will also include a section discussing possible ways and methods to be employed in the development of the research scale for data collection.

1.6.6 Chapter Six

Chapter Six of this research will concentrate on providing an introductory study on the Nigerian banking sector from which the data for this research study was collected. Although there is a lack of sufficient materials to support a more comprehensive study beyond what this chapter will offer, the chapter will provide a basic yet significant knowledge on the operational activities, size and human resources related challenges facing the Nigerian banking sector. It will also provide a snap shot of the growth within the sector and explore by way of justification the important of this sector to this research study.

1.6.7 Chapter Seven

Chapter Seven of this research will embark upon the first phase of the application of this research's identified and previously discussed method of data analysis. The choice of instrument for data analysis will therefore be put to test. It will therefore aim to assess the suitability of this research study and possible attainment of the research aims, objectives and questions through a pilot study. The study in this chapter will therefore employ the developed employee commitment scale from Chapter Six in collecting data and analysing such data in order to produce a study guide that will inform the main research study. The findings will also help shape the overall research, as possible weaknesses will be identified and actions taken to improve them for a better and more reliable study.

1.6.8 Chapter Eight

Chapter Eight of this research will involve the second phase of this study. It is a chapter designed to put theory into practice by testing the collected main research data from the sample populations. Therefore using the research data analysis tools discussed in Chapter Five, the study will subject the research data to various statistical tests, with research findings discussed, with the intent of linking theory to and with practice and also informing the next chapter on research conclusions and recommendations.

1.6.9 Chapter Nine

Whereas this chapter will aim at drawing conclusions and recommendations to the study, it will also inform the final chapter of the research which focuses on discussing in brief the theoretical outcomes of the study. It will also try to uncover some salient issues identified in the data analysis chapter (Chapter Eight), from which the research identified generic and specific issues for further research will be discussed. The chapter will also focus on identifying research limitations associated with this study and provide recommendations for further research studies.

Chapter 2
Exploring the Concept and Measurement of Employee Commitment

Chapter Two

Exploring the Concept and Measurement of Employee Commitment

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides the fundamental theoretical base to this research. It aims to find a definition of organisational commitment with additional emphasis on studying the measure of organisational commitment. It will, therefore, explore and seek to understand the major developments in the conceptualisation and measurement of organisational commitment and also provide the fundamental theoretical base to this research.

Moreover, the chapter objective will be to review existing literature and explore the origin, developments, meaning and importance of organisational commitment in the present day organisation from a historical standpoint. Consequently, the chapter will investigate commitment measurement using a selection of studies in order to identify the strengths and weaknesses of each measure and its outcomes.

This chapter therefore consists of topics and a section tracing the origin and meaning of modern organisational commitment from the 1940's to date. The historical account also includes various key definitions offered on the concept by various commitment researchers. These key definitions were reviewed and assessed from the viewpoint of strengths and weaknesses on which a conclusion is made and a working definition adopted for this research. The chapter also contains sections on the meaning of measurement, measurement validity and reliability and a section on available studies relating to the assessment of employee commitment.

This approach was used in order to help provide a realistic response to, and expound on, Mowday's (1999, p. 387) views on the need to "ask the question of whether substantive progress has been made in our understanding of organisational commitment and what remains to be learned."

2.1 The Importance of Commitment to Organisations

Having a committed workforce motivated by valuable reasons is beneficial and fundamental to the immediate and long-term success and survival of organisations. They are individuals that are "less likely to be absent and to voluntarily leave their organisations" (Iverson and Buttigieg 1998, p.1; Swailes 2002; Coopey 1995; Iles et al., 1990). They express emotional, moral and other associated positive and/or negative feelings and attitudes towards the organisation based on what they believe about the organisation which is formed by stories and experiences.

Generally, workers and organisational commitment are constructive measures of organisational performance and effectiveness that "has drawn the attention of both academic researchers and practitioners for decades", with growing literatures leading to various findings on the values,

definitions, impact and understanding of the subject (Wong 2004, p. 649; Steers 1977; Shepherd and Mathews 2000; Iverson and Buttigieg 1998; Meyer and Allen 1997; Becker 1992).

While some of the findings have aided the growth of the subject, others have significantly introduced difficulties in conceptualising and developing a common definition, leading to criticisms and growing disagreements among researchers and scholars (Jaros et al 1993; Iverson and Buttigieg 1998; Cohen and Kirchmeyer, 1995). Nevertheless “the concept’s popularity for researchers is increasing” (Suliman and Iles 2000, p. 407). Part of the driver lies with the changing nature of workers’ beliefs and workplace values, goals, atmospheres, and characteristics, superseding compulsory loyalty for workers’ voluntary loyalty, (Shepherd and Mathews 2000; Storey and Sisson 1993), aimed at building holistic “organisational commitment as a desired outcome of human resource management strategies given its links to positive attitudes and behaviour in the pursuit of change” (Swales 2004, p. 187). The above supports the submission that “commitment is linked to positive behavioural intentions and actions that are directly under the control of individuals, which are important components in the achievement of organisational change programmes involving new work goals, new working methods and new structures, and again sustained by new or existing beliefs or confidence in what is believed” (Coopey and Hartley 1991; Guest 1992; Iverson 1996).

The study of organisational commitment is argued to benefit both organisations and managers. Therefore its importance and/or relevance cannot be over-emphasised. For example, in assessing the relationship between organisational ethics and organisational commitment in Singapore, Koh and Boo (2004) argued “investigating organisational commitment is important and useful to organisation leadership and management as organisational commitment has been found to affect other organisational outcomes including turnover intentions (e.g., Lum et al. 1998, and Sims and Kroeck 1994) and company sales and profitability (e.g., Benkhoff 1997, and Brett et al. 1995)”, (Koh and Boo 2004, p. 678).

Organisational commitment is also important and relevant to organisation, its leadership, management and employees because:

1. It has strong “positive effects on organisations” and its functional areas, groups (formal and informal) within the organisation, and the immediate and long-term goals of the organisation (Cullen et al 2001, p. 128).
2. Its importance also underpinned its ability to give interpretation to the meaning of a committed worker and the benefits of a committed employee as one who “tends to identify with the objectives and goals of their organisations and want to remain with their organisations” (Hunt et al. 1989, p. 81).

3. “Organisation commitment association with increased satisfaction (Hunt et al. 1985), performance (Morris and Sherman 1981), and organisational adaptability (Angle and Perry 1981), as well as decreased absenteeism (Hammer et al. 1981) and employee turnover (Abelson, 1983)”, (Valentine et al 2002, p.351) is significant to resource integration, and organisational success/goal actualisation.
4. The ability of “organisational commitment to enhance individual’s perceptions of person-organisations fit, and the degree to which employees take ownership of company values and prefer to help the firm (Mowday et al. 1979), makes it more valuable to the successful development and implementation of HR policy.
5. The belief that “organisational commitment tends to reinforce the existing value structure around employees” (Herndon et al. 2001, p. 74) is significant to managing organisational culture and also aid the successful implementation of organisational change (e.g. Meyer and Herscovitch 2001, and Herscovitch and Meyer 2002).
6. Also organisational commitment is relevant to organisation and employee performance because it “increases employees’ feelings of connectedness to a firm, as well as their support for company values” (Valentine et al 2002, p.352) etc.

Beyond its importance to organisation, its management and employees, the knowledge of the present day commitment would have never existed if researchers from various fields of study did not seek to understand the concept and its relationship with their own fields of study such as HRM, performance and culture among others.

2.1.2 The Academic interest on organisational commitment studies

“The interest of scholars in studying commitment appears to have grown over time. Simply counting their references by decade reveals 29 citations to articles published in the 1970’s, 100 in the 1980’s and 186 in the 1990’s”, (Mowday’s 1998, p. 389) and far more than that, in the academic world of 21st century. A historical review of academic interest in organisational commitment could be dated back sixty years, during the which time some management and psychology academics such as Maslow (1943), Weber (1947), Fayol (1949) and Herzberg (1959) wrote and researched extensively on management theories and organisational psychology, which have contributed to the present day studies of organisational commitment as a field of knowledge discussed earlier in this chapter. The interest to study and contribute to advancing knowledge on commitment arose due to some evidences supporting possible relationships between some concepts and commitment. For example, over the years researchers have attempted to show a relationship between organisational commitment, psychology, HRM and performance.

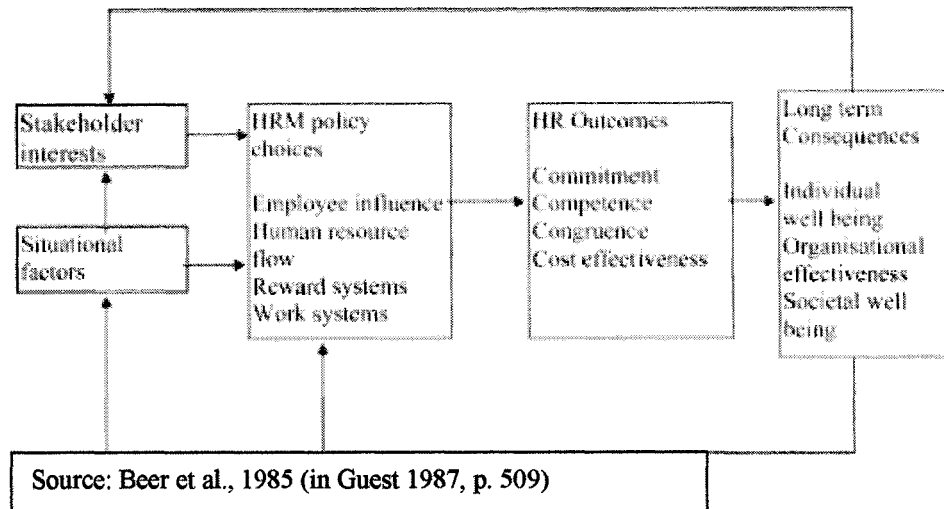
Various attempts to understand organisational commitment, its origin and impact on organisation revealed that “the concept of commitment has been related to a significant

framework in social psychology (the three components of commitment) and is also a “key concept in HRM... that clearly relates with, and dwells at the heart of, any analysis of HRM” (Price 1997, p. 144). There is therefore, a general feeling that organisational commitment is strongly related to, or is a part of, human resource management. This is based on the understanding that HRM is defined as “a philosophy and distinctive approach to people management based on the belief that human resources are uniquely important to sustained business success, aimed at recruiting a flexible, highly committed and capable workforce, managing and rewarding their performance for competitive advantage (Storey 1995, p. 5 and Price 1997). Therefore, if HRM is a belief process that allows for the effective employment and management of a highly capable and devoted/loyal (committed) workforce for organisational success, then it has everything to do with organisational (employee) commitment. It also means “indeed, the whole rationale for introducing HRM policies is to increase levels of commitment so that positive outcomes can ensure” (Guest 1998, p. 42). This view supports Price’s (1997) argument on organisational commitment as a “key concept in HRM... that clearly relates with, and dwells at the heart of, any analysis of HRM”, (Price 1997, p. 144). Swailes (2004) also argued, “commitment based on positive attitudes towards the organisation has become the dominant paradigm in the literature both as a desired outcome of HRM practices and as the most commonly used operationalisation in quantitative studies... used by managers in everyday decision-making in HRM” (Swailes 2004, pp. 188-189).

Such views about HRM and commitment that have existed since the 1980’s (e.g. Meyer and Allen 1984) provide insight that supports Bratton and Gold’s (1999, p. 357), argument “the new HRM practices imply a change in the commitment of employee to their organisation at a psychological level (Bratton and Gold 1994, p. 291)... it “seeks to elicit high commitment from workers and thereby cultivate proactive behaviour with committed workers expending effort levels ‘beyond contract’ for the enterprise.” Researchers like Shepherd and Mathews (2000) believe “Commitment... is an internalised employee belief, often associated with ‘soft HRM’ and a high trust organisational culture.” Commitment towards the organisation results in the maximisation of human resources and increasing employee loyalty and this in turn results in less absenteeism from the workplace and lower labour turnover. This implies that commitment is a tool for effective HRM management of employee work related behaviour. Hence Meyer and Allen (1991) view that committed employees are likely to remain with their organisation and are unlikely to be absent from work. When these elements are coupled they provide signs and evidences of improved organisational performance. In essence, modern HRM “no longer appears to be containment and compliance but competence and commitment” (Farnham and Pimlott, 1990, p. 354). These views demonstrate the strong relationship between organisational commitment and HRM as summarised in the diagram below which confirms the strong impact

commitment has on HRM and the relationship between the two concepts, where commitment is the outcome of HR activities.

Figure 2.1 HR and Commitment Relationship



On the other hand, Keller (1997) examined the relationship between commitment and performance by measuring organisational commitment linking it with performance measure through supervisors' ratings. For instance, Benkhoff (1997) argued "... the main reason why commitment has been one of the most popular research subjects ... over the past 30 years is its assumed impact on performance" (Benkhoff 1997, p. 701). While on the contrary, Maxwell and Steele (2003) argued "the effect of commitment on performance is still only largely assumed and not conclusive" (Maxwell and Steele 2003, p364).

In an attempt to proffer solution to the question and controversies of relationship between performance and commitment, some researchers like Keller (1997) examined the relationship between commitment and performance. He measured organisational commitment, linking it with performance measure through supervisors' ratings. According to Suliman and Iles (2000), "the study results uncovered a weak relationship between the two concepts." However, in comparison with the works of Caruana et al. (1997), Suliman and Iles discovered "significant links between affective commitment and performance while continuance and normative commitment revealed no effect on performance" (Suliman and Iles 2000, p. 409). The complexities of accepting commitment as relating with performance, lies in the fact that "not all kinds of commitment are associated with... performance. In particular, continuance commitment... is unlikely to lead to high job performance. In addition, such commitment is not seen as likely to facilitate personal flexibility and adaptability, unlike normative or affective commitment" (Suliman and Iles 2000, p. 409).

Therefore “at present our understanding of the relationship between various facets of organisational commitment and their relationship to performance remains unclear” (Suliman and Iles 2000, p. 409). This is because “lack of practical evidence is one factor that makes it difficult to draw definitive conclusions; the number of variables affecting employee performance is another.” To put it bluntly, “researchers have not been able to come up with evidence that commitment and performance go hand in hand” (Benkhoff 1997, p. 702). “This is not to diminish the value of investigating employee performance and commitment, but instead to establish the complexity of the relationship between the two” (Maxwell and Steele 2003, p364).

It can therefore be argued that the possible growth and advances in the study of commitment could be as a result of the observed relationship and relevance of the concept to other behavioural fields of study, although in practical terms, the knowledge and study of commitment could date its history back to the studies conducted on management theories by the likes of Weber (1947) and Fayol (1949) as discussed below.

2.1.3 Tracing the origin and meaning of organisational commitment

Organisational commitment has remained one of the most contested and critically reviewed fields of study (Meyer and Allen 1991, Price 1997, and Swailes 2002), with much of its complications “traceable to definitional and measurement problems” (Somers 1993, p. 185). This is as a result of the ever-growing differences in views and “lack of consensus in construct definition” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 61). It therefore “seems useful to ask the question of whether substantive progress has been made in our understanding of organisational commitment and what remains to be learned” (Mowday 1999, p. 387).

Moreover, “although there are many and varied definitions of commitment, they appear to reflect at least three general themes: (1) Affective attachment to the organisation, (2) perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation and (3) obligation to remain with the organisation” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 64). This view seems to summarise the meaning of the present day organisational commitment as practically nothing new has been developed on organisational commitment, except the continued improvement on Meyer and Allen’s (1991) historic research by other researchers. However, getting to the point where commitment can be simply defined, viewed and measured from this perspective took years of critical reviews and changes amidst criticisms and failures of some empirical research.

2.2 Historical Views on the Development of Organisational Commitment

2.2.1 Weber (1947) and Fayol (1949)

The knowledge of present day organisational commitment, once viewed in its early days as “a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his or her actions... even when the

payoffs are not obvious” within a given organisation, (Salancik 1977, p. 62), was found to exist in the original concept present in Fayol’s (1949) principles of management developed during the nineteenth century (Swales 2002, p. 156). Although Fayol (1949) did not explicitly mention commitment as a concept or consider human (employee) behaviour as subject to change for and/or against their organisation, his views showed the relevance of human attitude in creating job continuity and organisational survival. By implication therefore, his views could be argued to inform some of the ideas presently used within the study and application of organisational commitment today. Among such views is the view that employees should place organisational interest above self/personal interests (Fayol 1949, and Swales 2002).

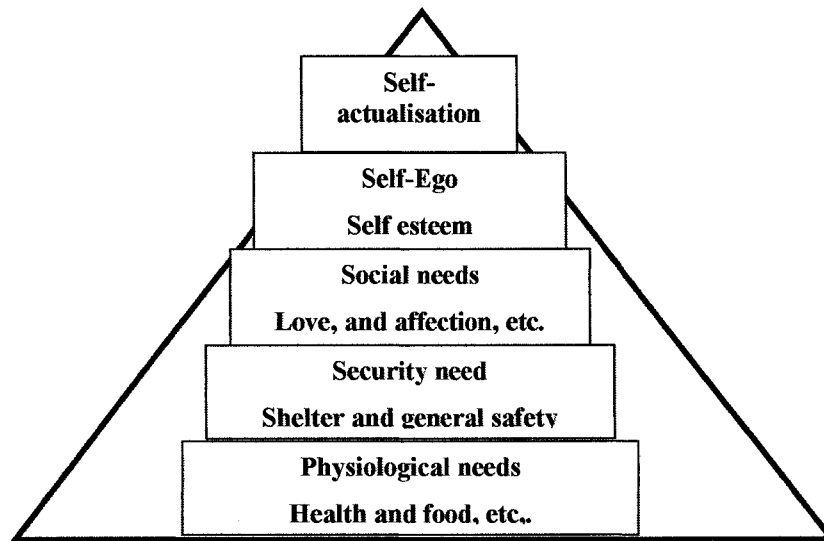
Beyond the connection between Fayol’s (1949) indirect opinions on organisational commitment, Swales (2002) argued that the post-modern organisational commitment theories and concepts have direct association with the works of Weber (1947), which existed before Fayol (1949). According to Swales (2002) “although Weber (1947) did not use a term that translates directly as commitment, the modern concept of organisational commitment can be traced to his interest in the ways that organisations (bureaucracies) are structured and the effects of bureaucratic organisation on the achievement of bureaucratic goals” (Swales 2002, p. 156).

While Swales’ (2002) views may be considered with caution, there are essential elements in his findings based on the explanation that Weber’s concepts were centred on understanding how organisational goals can be actualised through various means. This includes a structured system, rules and career patterns that will accommodate organisational goals and effectively utilise the human resource to achieve them (Swales 2002). However, the relevance of employee as organisational resource that can (1) “identify and involve with a particular organisation” (Porter et al 1974, p, 604), (2) have and express “personal needs and commitments” (Lupton 1966, p. 28) to themselves and to their organisations, was downplayed in Weber (1947) and Fayol’s (1949) contributions. Nevertheless, Weber (1947) and Fayol’s (1949) work, as Swales (2002) suggested, certainly had strong theoretical components that indeed motivated the development of modern organisational commitment theories.

2.2.2 Abraham Maslow (1943) and Frederick Herzberg (1966)

Abraham Maslow (1943), who is today known as the father of the humanist approach to motivation, developed a theory that would form the basis for the continued research and understanding of not only organisational commitment, but also the theory of motivation, job satisfaction and to some extent, employee performance. Maslow introduced the theory of human need, summarised as the hierarchy of needs, see Figure 2.2. He argued that although human needs are insatiable, they tend to function in a hierarchical order and when one need is met (satisfied) another need emerges.

Figure 2.2 Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

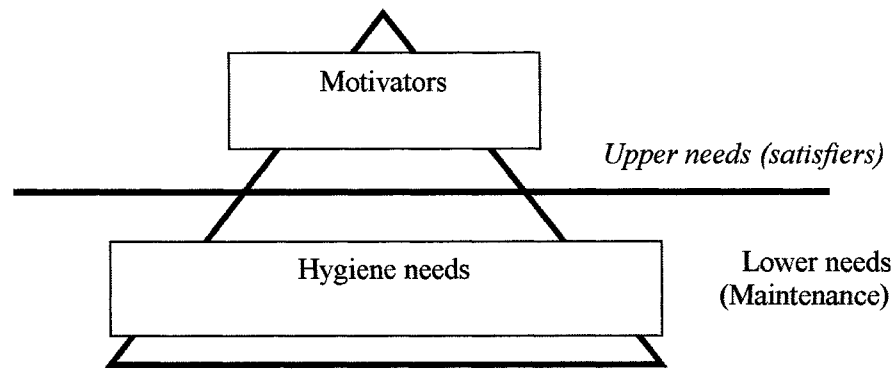


Maslow's theory of need has strong connection with and to the subsequent development of a component of employee commitment: The continuance component of commitment. This element of employee commitment is concerned with the understanding of employee expression of commitment to their organisation as a result of identified costs associated with leaving their organisation. This implies that employees would tend to remain committed to their organisations, as long as they enjoy those benefits that help them satisfy their individual needs.

Although Maslow's (1943) theory was to have strong impact on the development of the theory of organisational commitment, more than any work at its time, the review of his theory by Frederick Herzberg (1966) made the connection between Maslow and commitment more obvious.

Herzberg developed what is known today as the two-factor theory of motivation, see Figure 2.3. Herzberg argued that although human needs are insatiable, they are not necessarily hierarchical as presented by Maslow, but are made up of two basic needs. In other words, human needs can be classified as: Lower "maintenance" needs, which keep employees relatively satisfied and the upper needs "motivators" which are the satisfiers that possibly keep employees fulfilled and committed to long-term organisational goals.

Figure 2.3 Hertzberg's Two-Factor Theory

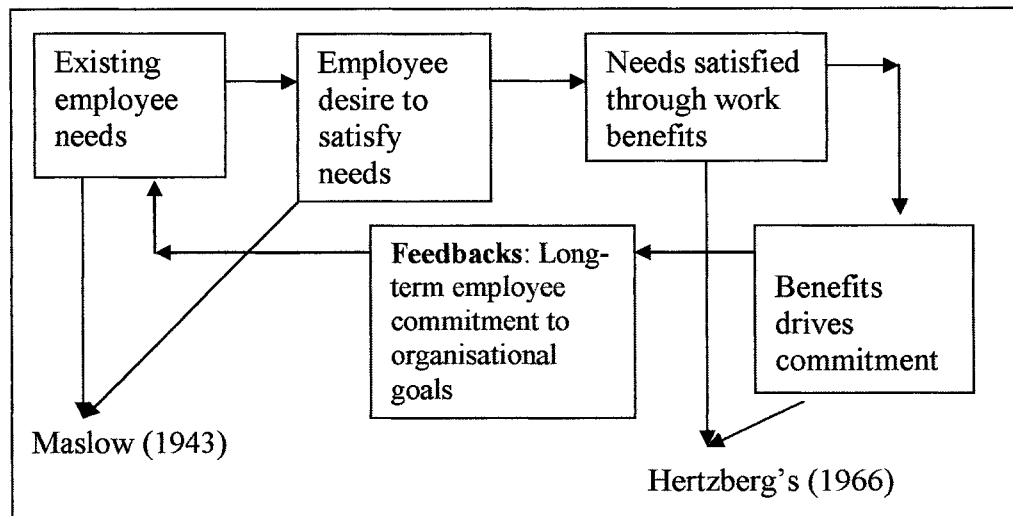


To further buttress Hertzberg's (1966) points, Risher, (2004, p. 13) argued, "Hertzberg studied job and work context factors and their impact on employee motivation. He concluded that work motivation is driven by factors that contribute to feelings of job satisfaction. Those factors include achievements, recognition, responsibility, opportunities for advancement and the work itself. These factors are specific to the way employees feel about their jobs and their success on the job."

Although Hertzberg's (1966) propositions have been criticised in some quarters and the validity of some of his theories questioned, the fundamental benefits of his findings, just like his predecessor (Maslow), can today be linked to the study of organisational (employee) commitment. His views are summed up in the argument that every employee is driven by some basic feelings, desires and/or motives. Such motives, desires and/or feelings can help employees build trust and loyalty towards their organisation, if it is maintained and sustained. However on the contrary, it can also destroy possible employee commitment (basic feelings, desires and/or motives) to their organisation.

In summary therefore, the more employees tend to have such motivation or feelings that drive them to express loyalty to their organisation, the more they are bound to remain with their organisations (Meyer and Allen 1991). In a nutshell, that represents the meaning of employee commitment, which is employee expression of feelings towards their organisation. This is further explained diagrammatically in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4 Employee Incentives to Remain



The above diagram shows how human needs create the desire to work as a means of satisfying such needs. The satisfaction of employee personal/job needs bring fulfilment and trust towards their organisations. This in turn motivates commitment or serves as the basis for employee long-term commitment (emotional feelings, obligations and sacrifices) towards their organisation's goals. The above perception of the idea of commitment originated as a result of Maslow and Herzberg's views on human needs theory.

2.2.3 Foci of commitment: A multidimensional view

Whereas conventional studies on commitment have over the years focused on the study of commitment from an organisational perspective, in more recent years research on commitment has begun to study and perceive employee commitment as having multiple foci and bases. This means that employee commitment is now being viewed from various perspectives based on the understanding that employees may not necessarily be committed only to their organisation but may also be committed to individuals and or groups within the organisation (Becker et al 1995; Reichers, 1985, 1986; Meyer et al 1993). Foci of commitment relates to individuals and or groups within organisations to whom employees express commitment (attachment or obligation). Various research within these areas show that such foci (groups or individuals within organisations that employees may express attachment to) includes: Employees' revered superiors/managers, professional colleagues, profession, union, occupation, and even customers among others, (Morrow 1983; Reichers 1985, 1986, Mowday et al., 1982, Becker 1992, Meyer et al 1993). While the above represents various groups and individuals that employees could be committed to and whereas there are growing interests in the study of employee commitment from a multidimensional perspective, this review will focus on and seek to understand the meaning of employee expression of commitment to their organisation and not necessarily on employee commitment to individuals or groups within the organisation.

2.3 Early Conceptualisation of Commitment

2.3.1 Becker's (1960) theory of commitment

Although this review can argue that Herzberg's (1966) contributions to human need satisfaction and motivation may have indeed influenced further developments in understanding the concept of organisational commitment, the move towards the consolidation and conceptualisation of organisational commitment as a concept and area of specific knowledge began in 1960. "By early 1960, commitment had emerged as a distinctive construct that, following the traditions of industrial and organisational psychology, was used as both independent and dependent variables in studies of theoretical networks" (Swales 2002, p. 156), which the work of the likes of Herzberg (1966) helped to enlarge.

Becker in 1960 developed what may be viewed as the most fundamental theory and definition of organisational commitment. Becker's theory was to give rise to further theoretical and empirical research on organisational commitment and provides the opportunity to explain what commitment in organisational context means. Becker perceived organisational commitment to mean:

"Employee involvement in consistent lines of activity... developed as employees find that their involvement in social organisations has, in effect, made side bets for them and thus constrained their future" (Becker 1960 pp. 33 and 36).

In other words, "commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity" (Becker 1960, p. 32). Supporting Becker's (1960) definition of commitment, Kanter (1968) presented a more explicit argument that commitment takes place in the event of the availability of

"Profits associated with continued participation and a cost associated with leaving" (Kanter 1968, p. 504).

Although Becker (1960) and Kanter's (1968) attempts to define commitment provided a positive direction towards a conceptualisation of commitment, and was indeed a landmark academic achievement in that their contributions led to further enquiries into the knowledge and meaning of commitment, what Becker (1960) and Kanter (1968) defined as commitment and named cohesion commitment, is known today as the employee continuance component of commitment. Kanter (1968) also identified and defined another component of commitment known today as employee emotional feeling (attitudinal component of employee commitment) towards their organisation, group, or profession, Meyer and Herscovitch, (2001) as

"the attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity and emotion to a group" (Kanter 1968, p. 507).

In summary therefore, although Becker and Kanter's research could be criticised for naming the components of commitment as commitment itself, one fundamental fact is that their studies

aided the successful identification of the existence of some components of employee commitment. The finding implies that although commitment is a concept in its own merit, it is however indeed part of a generic concept of employee behaviour rather than a stand-alone theory or knowledge. This discovery has, over the years, remained relevant to the conceptualisation and measurement of commitment today.

2.3.2 Ritzer and Trice's (1969) assessment of Becker's theory

To further expand on the understanding of Becker's theory of commitment, nine years after Becker's (1960) work and a year after Kanter (1968), Ritzer and Trice (1969) empirically assessed the validity of Becker's (1960) theory, Ritzer and Trice (1969), asked respondents to indicate the likelihood they would leave their organisation for various incentives: Pay rises, promotion opportunity and responsibility" (Ritzer and Trice, 1969). According to Shepherd and Mathews (2000), Ritzer and Trice's (1969) scale attempted to establish what specified increments or additional rewards employees would require before considering leaving their current organisation. The factors proposed were: Increase in pay, freedom, status, responsibility and opportunity to get ahead. In a more simplified explanation, Powell and Meyer (2004, p. 160) argued "to measure commitment, they (Ritzer and Trice 1969) developed a set of questions asking how likely respondents would be to leave their organisation given various inducements to do so. e.g., pay, status."

The outcome of Ritzer and Trice's (1969) research was a clear support for Becker's (1960) views on commitment. Both Becker (1960) and Ritzer and Trice (1969) proposed that commitment exists as a result of workers' commitment to their organisations because they need to (continuance). That is, workers are loyal to their organisation as a result of costs associated with leaving the organisation and/or accumulated benefits they may lose (e.g. pensions), if they choose to leave the organisation at that point in time (Meyer and Allen 1991).

It is however significant to note that, like Kanter's study, Ritzer and Trice's (1969) research was another important step towards a better understanding of the concept of employee commitment. This is because their research was aimed at supporting and advancing the idea of commitment measurement and understanding of various antecedences of commitment. Based on the above, Powell and Meyer (2004, p. 158) found over the years "Becker's (1960) theory of organisational commitment has been tested on numerous occasions with mixed results... The reasons for the mixed results have been attributed to so many factors, including the argument that Becker's (1960) theory can be individually distinctive, in that while to "one employee, the threatened loss of a valued organisational benefit might be sufficient to tie him or her to the organisation; for another, it might be the belief that leaving the organisation would require a move to another community and the disruption to family life" (Powell and Meyer 2004 p.161). Other reasons are based on the findings that the methodological approach used in assessing Becker's (1960) theory is insufficient. Moreover, what was defined as commitment was indeed

a component of commitment and not commitment in its totality “...so that, after 40 years, questions about its validity remain” (Powell and Meyer 2004, p. 158).

2.3.3 Porter et al’s (1974) commitment conceptualisation and measure

Following the review of Becker’s (1960) views on commitment, the next significant advancement in conceptualising organisational commitment was the development of techniques and tools “synonymous with positive assessment of the congruence between an individual’s own values and beliefs and those of the organisation” (Swailes 2004, p. 189). This “gathered pace in the 1970’s” (Swailes 2002, p. 156).

Within this period, the urgent need also arose to empirically develop and validate more structured theories and manage the growing problems of the existing “theoretical network that has enlarged but has not produced a proportionate increase in conceptual clarity” (Swailes 2002, p. 156) on organisational commitment. For example, between the times Becker developed his theory on commitment up to 1972 and beyond, various definitions of organisational commitment emerged following the increased research in the field. The following are some of the common definitions:

Employee commitment is...“accumulated benefits, gains or interests (i.e. position, power, money etc.), which could be lost if the activity were to discontinue” (Becker 1960, p. 64).

Others like Stebbins (1970) and Salancik (1977) also defined commitment as:

“The awareness of the impossibility of choosing a different social identity... because of the immense penalties involved in making the switch” (Stebbins 1970, p. 527).

“A state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his own involvement...it is what makes us like what we do and continue doing it, even when the payoffs are not obvious” (Salancik 1977, p. 62).

While the above are some of the commonly used definitions of commitment, most of the criticisms and weaknesses found in these definitions were based on the fact that some of the “researchers from various disciplines ascribed their own meaning to the concept; thereby increasing the complexities involved in understanding the construct” (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001, p. 302). Nevertheless, there is a common acceptance within these definitions that (a) commitment influences the way individual employees would naturally behave; (b) there is also a consensus that employee commitment helps in actualising organisational goals; (c) commitment also builds better relationship between employee and employer and (d) commitment is different from other behavioural concepts like motivation, satisfaction and involvement (see Brown and Brooks 2002, and Meyer and Herscovitch 2001).

Irrespective of the development of various definitions and theoretical views on commitment, the dramatic change in the conceptualisation of organisational commitment began in 1974. This

began when Porter and colleagues developed the first multidimensional meaning to organisational commitment. Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian's definition was to inform the new direction in the perception and definition of organisational commitment. They "studied changes across time in measures of organisational commitment and job satisfaction... among 60 employed psychiatric technician trainees" (Porter et al 1974, p. 603). The result of their research is what Price (1997, p. 336) suggests led to the development of a more generic definition and "valid measure of employee commitment to work organisation". They defined commitment as:

"the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation... characterised by three factors: A strong belief in and an acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation" (Porter et al 1974, p. 27).

What Porter and his colleagues successfully achieved through their definitions in 1974 was to critically direct the minds of researchers to organisational commitment as a body of knowledge that possessed significant organisational success elements. They therefore argued and proposed, "that commitment does not develop simply through emotional feelings: Attitudinal commitment, perceived costs; continuance commitment nor through moral obligation: Normative commitment; but through the interplay of all three components" (Suliman and Iles, 2000, p. 408). It is arguably acceptable within some academic quarters that the definition of organisational commitment propounded by Porter and colleagues "remains among the most frequently used" definition in the literatures (Baird 2004, pp. 437-438).

However, 19 years after Mowday et al (1979) adopted Porter et al's (1974) definition, Mowday (1998) argued that Porter et al's (1974) views and definitions were criticised on the ground that when the definition was put to the test using Porter's measurement tool, it was found wanting. Therefore, "the appropriateness of these measures has been questioned on both conceptual and empirical grounds (see Meyer and Allen 1984, Wasti 2002, p. 526). It is questioned on empirical grounds because it "appeared to be more of a methodological artefact than a reflection of the underlying construct of commitment" (Mowday 1998, p. 389). It is also questioned on conceptual grounds because Porter's definition lacked some of the basic elements that will enable the development and "use of measures of commitment that will correspond to the definitions being applied" (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 61).

2.4 Recent Conceptualisation of Commitment

2.4.1 Meyer and Allen's conceptualisation and measure of commitment

By the 1980's some of the problems associated with the assessment and conceptualisation of commitment such as that associated with Porter et al (1974), were identified and acknowledged. "By 1984, Meyer and Allen proposed a bi-dimensional conceptualisation of organisational commitment that draws on some early works" (Wasti 2002, p. 526). Meyer and Allen (1984)

classified commitment by “labelling the former views (Becker’s 1960 and Ritzer and Trice’s 1969) as continuance commitment and the latter (Kanter’s 1968 and Porter et al’s 1974) as affective commitment.

This improvement of the conceptualisation of commitment components was taken a step further by Meyer and Allen (1991) as they included a third element (component of commitment). The third component was named the normative component of commitment and was originally introduced by Weiner and Vardi in 1980. Weiner and Vardi named their component normative commitment on the conviction that employees could express commitment to their organisation as a result of internalised pressures from colleagues and/or superiors. According to Wiener (1982, p. 421), Weiner and Vardi (1980) defined normative component of commitment as:

“... the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests.”

The inclusion of Weiner and Vardi’s (1980) normative component of commitment in Meyer and Allen’s definitions of commitment in 1991 therefore formed the existence of three components of multidimensional employee commitment as it is known today.

2.4.2 The three-component framework definition of commitment

Meyer and Allen’s (1991) development of the three-component framework of commitment was driven by their realisation that there are “many and varied definitions of commitment,” and that some of these definitions relate with and appear to reflect at least three general themes; employee affective attachment to their organisation, employee perceived costs associated with leaving their organisation and employee feeling of obligation to remain with their organisation” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 64). They therefore classified and defined each of the components of commitment as:

Affective commitment: “Employee emotional attachment to, and involvement in, a particular organisation.”

Continuance commitment: “An awareness of costs associated with leaving the organisation.”

and

Normative commitment: “Feelings of obligation to continue employment” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 67).

Meyer and Allen (1997) assumed that the measurement of organisational commitment is possible and will result to valid findings if commitment is classified and defined from the above three-component perspective. In view of this, Meyer and Allen (1991) also argue that their definitions are informed by the understanding that commitment is a psychological state that has at least three separable components expressed as employee “desire” (affective commitment), “need” (continuance commitment) and “obligations” (normative commitment) to maintain employment in an organisation (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 61).

In other words, Meyer and Allen (1991) identified commitment as having varying components that connect with each other as attitudinal components, continuance and normative components of commitment expressed by employees to their organisations.

Meyer and Allen (1991) therefore argued “employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with an organisation because they want to do so. Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so, and employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to, and should remain with the organisation” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 67). Meyer and Allen’s (1991) proposition was also based on an assumption as summarised by Jaros (1997) in the study of Meyer and Allen’s (1991) research as “one important commonality is the notion that each component should have an effect on an employee’s intentions, and decision, to remain a member of the organisation” (Jaros 1997, p. 320).

Thus the components of organisational commitment was defined by Meyer and Allen (1991) on the conviction that commitment is “a psychological state that (a) characterises the employee’s relationship with the organisation and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organisation” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 67). Suliman and Iles (2000, p. 409) support the above perspective by arguing that different types of commitment have different relationships to organisational behaviour, and that research has consistently demonstrated that affective, continuance and normative commitments are conceptually and empirically distinct, hence the relevance of the distinctions.

2.4.2.1 General overview of each component of commitment

“Affective commitment which can be used interchangeably with attitudinal commitment is composed of items that refer to the emotional attachment of the individual to his/her organisation” (Wasti 2003, p, 539). Attitudinal commitment is at the core or centre of the belief in organisational goals, ethics and principles, sometimes with strong moral attachment, consistency and emotional or sentimental loyalty (Mowday et al. 1982; Etzioni’s 1975; Kanter’s 1968; Allen and Meyer’s 1990). “The attitudinal approach to employee commitment is the most famous approach for conceptualising organisational commitment” (Suliman and Iles 2000, p. 408). (Porter et al. 1974, p. 27) summed up the meaning of attitudinal commitment as “the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in the organisation (Porter et al. 1974).

Continuance commitment: Unlike the affective commitment as Wasti (2003) argued “reflects a need to stay with the organisation due to costs associated with leaving” (Wasti 2003, p, 539), it is a commitment “based on identification with an organisation due to economic and social ties”, and includes Becker’s (1960) “side-bets” theory concerning the “costs” of leaving an organisation, Kanter’s continuance commitment, O’Reilly and Chatman’s (1986) compliance

commitment and Allen and Meyer's (1990) continuance commitment based on low job alternatives and previous sacrifices that bind employees to particular organisations" (Swailes 2004, p, 188).

The normative commitment according to Swailes (2004) "is based on feelings of obligation to an organisation and includes Kanter's (1968) control commitment, O'Reilly and Chatman's notion of identification and Allen and Meyer's (1990) normative commitment (Swailes 2004, p, 188). They are, as Wasti (2003) argued, substances "that tap into feelings of obligation to sustain membership" (Wasti 2003, p, 539) of a chosen organisation by the worker, which has been built over the period of work and interaction within and/or in the organisation. In summary Jacobsen (2000) argued "an individual is attached to an organisation by some (internalised) values that create a feeling of obligation to stay in the organisation." Two mechanisms behind this type of commitment have been discussed. First, normative commitment may be obtained through a socialisation process where the organisation's values and norms are internalised in the employee. Strong fit between the organisation's and the individual's values and norms may create a strong sense of being part of a whole, thereby leading the employee to think that he or she ought to stay in the organisation. But this normative commitment may also be created by more instrumental mechanisms, mostly by how incentives are used. An employee may receive a reward "that creates within the employee a sense of obligation to reciprocate" (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 539; Jacobsen 2000, p. 118). Normative commitment therefore is "the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests" (Wiener 1982, p. 421).

2.4.2.2 is there a Fourth component ?

Whereas Meyer and Allen's (1991) studies helped propagate the idea of three components of commitment, other scholars argue for the existence of a fourth component-behavioural commitment. While some scholars do not identify with the fourth component, others such as Meyer and Allen (1991) tend to see it as an element or a submerged topic in continuance commitment. Salancik (1977) for instance argued behavioural commitment may exist due to precedent or existed behaviour that binds employees to organisations (Salancik, 1977). These may be the behaviours of the employer to the employee or employees to one another, which over the period has become part of the ideological feeling among the workers. In what may be viewed as a contradictory view of behavioural commitment, Jacobsen (2000) argued it is "a more cost-benefit type, and is by some (e.g. Meyer and Allen 1991) termed continuance commitment: A type of commitment based on the fact that leaving an organisation is associated with some costs (employees make "side-bets"), or that one has very few options to the organisation one is currently working in" (Jacobsen 2000 p. 118), therefore, he/she sees it as a necessary ingredient to remain committed to an organisation. According to (Suliman and Iles 2000, p. 408), "the behavioural approach emphasises the view that employee investments (e.g.

time, friendships and pension) in the organisation bind him or her to be loyal to their organisation. It is an approach or commitment based on “profit associated with continued participation and a ‘cost’ associated with leaving” (Kanter 1968, p. 504).

2.4.2.2 Criticism of multiple components of commitments

Although the idea of multiple components of commitment is said to take a holistic view on organisational performance and offer a strong position in building a goal-driven organisation, many scholars and researchers have had reason to criticise and challenge the benefits attributed to perceiving commitment from the multiple component perspective as Meyer and Allen (1991) did.

According to (Gregersen and Black 1996, p. 210), “the notion of multiple facets of commitment within organisation is perhaps not fully generalisable beyond the U.S. Recently, Adler and Boyacigiller (1991) have criticised American scholars for taking a parochial view in their research and not examining the extent to which cultural differences may modify both theory and empirical results. This criticism may well apply to some aspects of the multifaceted approach to commitment proposed by Reichers (1985).

Secondly “theoretically, an individual versus collective value orientation may provide one basis for viewing with some degree of caution the universality of dual or multiple commitments” (Hofstede 1980a, 1980b; Triandis et al 1988), (Gregersen and Black 1996, p. 210).

Thirdly, cultural and ideological differences are some of the fundamental inhibitors of the multiple commitment idea as argued by Gregersen and Black (1996, p.210), “more specifically, managers from individualistic cultures, such as the U.S., tend to view their environment in a more compartmentalised fashion, while managers from collectivist cultures, such as Japan, may conceptualise their work environment in more a “holistic” framework.

Finally, according to Wang (2004, p. 650) “social and economic conditions prevailing in a country may have an effect on the appropriate multidimensional structure of organisational commitment.” Therefore, it may be impracticable to argue that multiple commitments are possible at all organisations due to cultural differences.

2.4.3 Growth in commitment theory due to Meyer and Allen’s (1991) study

The outcome of Meyer and Allen’s (1991) work sparked an immediate growth and extension of research on the definition, classification, relationships and measurement of employee commitment across Western and non-Western organisations. Most studies focused on assessing and identifying the relationship between organisational commitment and behavioural concepts such as job characteristics, employee quality of life, employee job challenges, years of services to the organisation, job satisfaction and employee work related support. Others were on the relationships between organisational commitment and employee career opportunities, job autonomy and employee compensation and organisational ethics among others, (see Igbaria and

Greenhaus 1992, Strong and Meyer 1992, McElroy 2001 and Pelsmacker and Bostyn 2001). Meyer and Allen's (1991) work also increased the research on other antecedents, consequences and measurement of commitment (Koh and Boo 2004).

Although Meyer and Allen's (1991) study facilitated an increase in organisations and academic interests on the study of the relationships and classification of commitment, the dichotomy of the methods and acceptable knowledge of effective development of a universal definition and measurement of organisational commitment remained unsolved. Therefore, following the outcomes of various critical reviews on organisational commitment in 1993, Meyer and his colleagues developed a scale for the assessment of the three-components of organisational commitment (see Ko et al. 1997, Gautam et al. 2001, Wasti 2002, Cheng and Stockdale 2003 and Wang 2004). The significance and strength of their research further enabled the extension of the measure of employee commitment from Western to non-Western organisations (Lee et al. 2001). Therefore, thirteen to fifteen years after the development of Meyer and Allen (1991) and Meyer et al.'s (1993) commitment measurement scale, much empirical research has been conducted on the measure of organisational commitment in Western and non-Western organisations/countries such as China (Lee et al. 2001, Cheng and Stockdale 2003, Shaw et al. 2003 and Wang 2004), Nepal (Gautam et al 2001), South Korea (Ko et al. 1997), Turkey (Wasti 2002) and many Western organisations.

2.4.4 The weaknesses of Meyer and Allen (1991)

Irrespective of the contributions made by Meyer and Allen (1991) towards the present day understanding of employee commitment, their views have also remained among the most controversial in the literatures. The controversies surrounding their contributions are based on common weaknesses. First, the weaknesses found in Meyer et al (1993), as will be discussed in the later section of this chapter, relate to their measurement scale. This connects with the second criticism of the definition of commitment as developed by Meyer and Allen (1991).

Meyer and Allen (1991) are criticised on the inadequacy of their definitions. This finding is based upon the argument that, in real terms "Meyer and Allen offered no definition of commitment that embraced their three components. They thus do not propose a multidimensional view of commitment, but rather advanced three different definitions of commitment" (Price 1997, p. 344). More interestingly, Swailes (2004) observed a strong limitation on Meyer and Allen's (1991) definition of continuance component of organisational commitment. He argued that continuance commitment is more than "an awareness of costs associated with leaving the organisation" (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 67). Swailes (2004) further noted that an employee's awareness of the benefits they will lose or the price they may have to pay if they decide to leave their organisation is not the only core element that makes up continuance commitment. He argued that while the above could be classified as previous

sacrifices, low job alternatives could also contribute to an employee's expression of continuance commitment to their organisation. He therefore defined continuance commitment as:

“commitment based on low job alternatives and previous sacrifices that bind employees to particular organisations” (Swales 2004, p. 188).

Swales' (2004) definition introduced additional elements relevant to the understanding of the continuance component of commitment. He recognised job limitations and an employee's years of sacrifices to their organisation as significant contributors to employee intention to remain employed in an organisation. This view fitted into McGee and Ford's (1987) earlier opinions on continuance commitment, which originated from Becker's (1960) theory of commitment and must have probably been ignored by Meyer and Allen (1991). McGee and Ford (1987) argued that continuance commitment can be taken to mean (1) employee perceived sacrifices associated with leaving their organisation classified as employee sacrifices or high sacrifices and also (2) lack of job alternatives available to employees at such point in time (see Powell and Meyer 2004, and Swales (2004). Therefore Swales' (2004) improved version of McGee and Ford's (1987) earlier observations introduced a two-way approach of perception to continuance commitment which Meyer and Allen's (1991) definitions lacked.

In view of the above, it may be sensible therefore to argue that the use of a more inclusive definition of continuance components of organisational commitment such as that offered by Swales (2004) may be more effective in understanding organisational commitment as a generic body of knowledge, rather than the use of a narrowed definition offered by Meyer and Allen (1991) and adopted for the assessment of organisational commitment in Meyer et al. (1993). Nevertheless, the adoption of Swales' (2004) definition may also pose some difficulties in that continuance commitment also involves costs associated with leaving (Meyer and Allen 1991).

2.5 Organisational Commitment in the 21st Century

Following the significant outcomes in conceptualising organisational commitment and the underpinning controversies surrounding each definition developed from 1960 to 1993, researchers were left with the option of continued review of literatures and to search for methods for improved study on organisational commitment. By 2001, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) reviewed existing theories on organisational commitment to further advance the concept and also to attempt to defuse a number of controversies surrounding commitment definition and measurement.

The outcome of their research was the development of “a general model of workplace commitment in which commitment was defined not as components, but as a generic concept” Vandenberghe et al. (2004, p. 48). That is, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) offered a single definition of commitment as “a concept and not components.” They defined employee commitment as:

“A force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more target” (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001, p. 301)

Although Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) approach of defining commitment from a holistic point of view as shown above disagreed with Meyer and Allen’s (1991) earlier opinion that commitment should be defined by identifying the interrelated components that makes up the concept of commitment. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) holistic approach in conceptualising commitment did however possess some similarities with Meyer and Allen’s (1991) opinion in terms of the basic principles surrounding their views. For example, both authors agreed that commitment exist as a force or motive that drives employees to express feelings towards their organisation. Moreover, Meyer and Herscovitch’s (2001) definition indeed moved forward the search for a definition of commitment. It also explains the interconnectedness between the various components as forces binding employees’ expressions and feelings towards their organisation or goals. However, it did not demonstrate how employees can simultaneously express each of these components of commitment (attitudinal, continuance and normative) towards their organisation.

On investigating the above and the available empirical evidences supporting Meyer and Herscovitch’s (2001) definitions, this research found a total of eleven researches and references conducted between 2001 and 2004 on their theory and propositions. Examples of such research are Powell and Meyer (2004), Dawley et al. (2004), Vandenberghe et al. (2004), Allen (2003), Vandenberghe (2003), Redman and Snape (2005), Meyer et al. (2002), and McElroy (2001). Included in this list is the research conducted by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) to assess the validity of their newly developed theory. Although Siders et al. (2001) and Vandenberghe et al. (2004) have referred to Meyer and Herscovitch’s (2001) work as possessing some degree of soundness, the merit of such claims and the degree of the soundness may be questionable and its reliability may be uncertain until more research is conducted to test the soundness (validity) and dependability (reliability) of their arguments.

Based on the outcomes there remains disagreement, both within and across commitment literatures, about what commitment is; its dimensionality, its frameworks, how it develops and how it affects behaviour. To attempt to provide support to this study, this research will therefore consider a further search to understand and possibly define employee commitment by pulling together information (summarising ideas) originating from various conceptualisations on employee commitment as studied in this chapter from 1960 to date.

This means that employee commitment from this study’s point of view should be conceptualised first as a psychological state with at least three separable components expressed as employee “desire”, “need” and “obligations” to maintain employment in an organisation (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 61). Defining and conceptualising employee commitment from this core perspective (psychological state perspective) should represent the force or motive that

binds or links "... the individual to the organisation" or other elements/groups within the organisation (Mathieu and Zajac 1990, p. 171).

The acceptance of employee commitment definition from a psychological perspective depends on the likelihood of such definition representing the meaning of commitment and also supports the successful measure of commitment. This view is fundamental to the effective conceptualisation of commitment as most studies tend to define what they assume to be commitment and yet cannot successfully measure what has been defined (Allen 2002).

This study will therefore progress further by exploring the measure of employee commitment and how some of the discussed definitions have successfully or non-successfully measured what they defined as employee commitment.

The rationale behind this approach is that at the end of the study, a measurable definition of employee commitment will emerge, leading to a successful conceptualisation and measurement of employee commitment.

2.6 Studies on Employee Commitment Measurement

2.6.1 What is effective measurement?

In order to effectively review various commitment measurements available across cultures, it is most relevant to understand what measurement is, its criterions, validity and reliability. This will be studied before exploring the measurement of commitment. According to Cohen (1989, p. 166):

"Measurement is the assignment of numbers to observations."

Cohen's views on measurement as a process involving the assignment of numbers to an observation is indeed a definition conveyed with simplicity. Nevertheless, the definition is however narrowed by its exclusion of qualitative processes of assigning values to a research observation. That is, the exclusion of non-numerical evaluation of measures in the definition of measurement. In a broader and more inclusive perspective Abel-Smith(1976) defined measurement as:

"Consisting of rules for assigning a value, numerical or non-numerical to an object(s) in a way as to represent quantities, qualities or categories of a characteristic."

The suitability of Abel-Smith's (1976) definition in this research is tied to its inclusion of both qualitative and quantitative processes of assigning rules to research objectives. This is because generally, organisations try to measure both behavioural and logical elements within its system and this is done for many reasons. They seek amongst other things to willingly understand the organisation's environment and to have valid and reliable information as a guide to effective decision-making. Through the measures of organisational activities and resources, the state of organisational health is known and effort made to coordinate resources profitably. In more

practical terms for instance, measuring employee commitment towards an organisation could help provide the necessary information towards effective reward systems, improved performance and resource integration (Pfeffer 1994, 1998, Marchington and Grugulis 2000).

However, achieving successful measure of employee commitment is very complex because it is an attempt to identify employees' contributions to organisational success: Return on investment (Iles et al. 1990, Coopey 1995, Brown 1996 and Jaros 1997). It requires the consideration of issues that relate to the soundness and dependability of measures being used to effectively assess (measure) employee commitment (Santos et al. 2002). This includes validity and reliability issues and other concerns relating to the process of developing and choosing the right measurement scale and scale types.

This section will therefore study the existing measures/scales of employee commitment and their degree of validity and reliability to determine if the problem of employee commitment is indeed definitional as found in previous discussions or if it is a measurement problem. This will then enable further research to search for a solution.

2.7 Assessing Various Scales Used in Measuring Organisational Commitment

Over the years researchers have developed various measures (scales) aimed at producing the most effective assessment of organisational commitment across organisations. "Implicit in the use of these measures (scales) is the assumption that they are measuring one or other forms of commitment and they are commonly used as independent or dependent variables in commitment research" (Swales 2004, p. 189). Hence, as there are various components of commitment, so are the measures or measurement scales used in assessing one component of commitment to the other.

2.7.1 Early assessment of commitment

2.7.1.1 Ritzer and Trice (1969), Hrebiniak and Alutto's (1972) commitment studies

Among the earliest empirical research assessing organisational commitment was that conducted by Ritzer and Trice (1969) aimed at validating Becker's (1960) theory of commitment. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) also developed an instrument to further assess organisational commitment based on Becker's (1960) theory. Although the theory surrounding Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) commitment measurement was not discussed, their views seem to align with Ritzer and Trice's (1969) views. For example, the instrument advanced by Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) consists of four items assessed on a three-point scale. The instrument was administered with; 1 "definitely not", 2 "uncertain" and 3 "definitely yes". Whereas there is a lack of substantial materials assessing the validity of Hrebiniak and Alutto's (1972) instrument, it has been implemented in a number of research studies. This includes the most recent research on the measurement of the relationship between organisational commitment, organisational ethics and employee satisfaction, conducted by Koh and Boo (2004).

2.7.1.2 Weaknesses

Irrespective of the continued use of Hrebiniak and Alutto's (1972) instrument, their contributions along with Ritzer and Trice's (1969) propositions were almost forgotten for many reasons. Among these is that their scale was too narrow to capture and factually assess the totality of organisational commitment. Their instruments were also found to be tools for the measure of the antecedents of affective commitment rather than for the measurement of the components of commitment.

In addition, Shore et al. (2000, p. 430) argued that "the reliability of Ritzer and Trice's (1969) measures is questionable since the formatting did not allow for estimating coefficient alpha." Therefore even though Hrebiniak and Alutto's (1972) instruments reported the average item-total correlation as .690, the reliability of their scale is indeed questionable as it did not meet the minimum score required for a scale to be assumed a reliable scale. In addition, a more appropriate instrument would tend to "question individuals about their perceptions of organisational investments" on such individuals as employees (Shepherd and Mathews 2000).

2.7.2 Porter et al.'s (1974) measurement of organisational commitment

In 1974, Porter and his colleagues developed a more generic scale known as the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) for the assessment of employee commitment to their organisation. Their scale evolved from their definition of organisational commitment as:

"The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation... characterised by three factors: A strong belief in and an acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Porter et al. 1974, p. 604).

According to Shepherd and Mathews (2000, p. 559), "amongst the most popular of scales in the field of organisational commitment is that of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), Porter et al.'s (1974) commitment scale that has occupied a central place among academics, researchers and practitioners alike. Moreover, the relevance of the scale in conceptualising and assessing organisational commitment is attributed to its revealed internal consistency, which has been tested and retested for predictive reliability and validity.

2.7.2.2 Scale composition and focus

Porter et al.'s (1974) scale is a "15 item scale rated on a seven point Likert type to measure three components: (1) Identification; pride in the organisation and the internalisation of its goals and values; (2) involvement; psychological absorption in the activities of one's role for the good of the employing organisation and (3) loyalty; affection for, and attachment to, the organisation; a sense of belongingness manifested as a wish to stay" (Shepherd and Mathews 2000, p. 558).

2.7.2.3 Weaknesses

Although Porter et al.'s (1974) scale has proved to be reliable in some research circumstances (Brown 2003). Mowday (1998) argued that Porter et al.'s (1974) instrument has been put to the test in line with their definition of commitment and was found wanting. The limitations associated with their research as earlier noted are based on issues of suitability from a theoretical and experimental basis (Wasti 2002). The suitability is questioned on empirical grounds because it "appeared to be more of a methodological artefact than a reflection of the underlying construct of commitment" (Mowday 1998, p. 389).

The weaknesses found in Porter et al. (1974) and the need to further consolidate the meaning of organisational commitment and its measurement led to an increased research in organisational commitment. Among such works emerging as a result of the new measurement was that conducted by Mowday et al. in 1979.

2.7.3 Mowday et al.'s (1979) measurement of organisational commitment

Mowday et al.'s (1979) research arose as a result of the need to further advance understanding on organisational commitment using a more simplified scale for the measure of organisational commitment.

2.7.3.1 Scale composition and focus

Mowday and his colleagues "administered their organisational commitment questionnaire of 15 items... to capture the three factors of organisational commitment. Six items were negatively phrased and reverse coded and seven-point Likert scale response categories were used for all items. A nine-item short form which includes only the positively worded item is used" (Price 1997, p. 337). The Mowday version of organisational commitment scale was therefore administered to the participants with a 15-item statement as listed in Table 2.1 with 'R's indicating reverse scored items. The response categories were scored as one to seven, with one assigned to 'strongly disagree' and seven assigned to 'strongly agreed' (Price 1997, p. 337). The other categories are: Two assigned to 'moderately disagree', three assigned to 'slightly disagree', four assigned to 'neither disagree nor agree', five assigned to 'slightly agree', and six assigned to 'moderately agree'.

Table 2.1 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.
2. I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.
3. I feel very little loyalty to this organisation (R).
4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.
5. I find that my values and the organisation's values are very similar.
6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.
7. I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work was similar (R).
8. This organisation really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organisation (R).
10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organisation to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organisation indefinitely (R).
12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organisation's policy on important matters relating to its employees (R).
13. I really care about the fate of this organisation.
14. For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work.
15. Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite mistake on my part (R).

Source: Mowday, R., Steers, R., & Porter, L. (1979) the measurement of organisational commitment, *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, issue 14, pp. 224-247.

The outcome of the research and subsequent theoretical appraisals viewed the scale as almost theoretically impeccable. Its wide acceptance among researchers was also linked to its high quantitative foundation. For example, on assessing the scale, the convergent validity showed “the correlations with a single intention to leave measure range from 31% to 63% and the supervisor's rating of the employee's commitment correlates at 60% with the OCQ...” On the other hand, the reliability measure shows the “coefficient alphas range from .820 to .930, with a median of .90%” (Price 1997, p. 338-339).

2.7.3.2 Weaknesses

Whereas Mowday et al.'s (1979) research recorded a high acceptance among commitment experts. The scale has experienced growing criticisms of its effectiveness in assessing commitment without biasness, due to years of empirical assessment of the measure across organisations and industries. “There is now a substantial critical literature about the OCQ” (Angle and Perry 1981, Ferris and Aranya 1983, Mayer and Schoorman 1992 and Tetrick and Farkas 1988), (Price 1997, p. 339). A consistent negative criticism is that the organisational

commitment questionnaire (OCQ) splits along positive and negative axis, with the literature mostly recommending the use of nine positively worded items only. This recommendation is challenging, since the exclusive use of positively worded items may result in “response-set bias.” On the other hand Mowday et al. (1979) are also criticised on the basis that “the appropriateness of these measures has been questioned on both conceptual and empirical ground (e.g., Meyer and Allen 1984)” (Wasti 2002, p. 526) which was the same criticism faced by Porter et al. (1974). Moreover, the difference between Mowday et al.’s (1979) scale and that of Porter et al. (1974) is almost indistinguishable.

2.7.4 Meyer and Allen (1991) three-component framework of commitment

Informed by the limitations in conceptualising and measuring organisational commitment and to further advance on the theory of commitment conceptualisation and assessment, in 1991, Meyer and Allen developed a new scale for the measurement of commitment. They considered and selected elements for inclusion in their scale items on the basis of a series of decision rules that took into account the distribution of responses on the seven-point agree-disagree scale for each item, item-scale correlation, content redundancy and desire to include both positively and negatively keyed items (Meyer and Allen 1997, p. 117). The outcome was the development of 24 scale items representing eight items per component of commitment. In order words, eight items for attitudinal commitment, eight for normative commitment and eight for continuance components of commitment.

The usefulness and success of Meyer and Allen’s (1991) research and scale items established evidences of substantial scale “reliability exceeding 70%” (Meyer and Allen 1997, p. 120). The success can also be seen in the research outcomes that followed after. Such research includes that of Meyer et al (1993) discussed in the subsequent pages. Meyer and Allen’s (1991) research also influenced to a greater degree the highest theoretical and empirical research ever conducted on organisational commitment across Western and non-Western organisations from 1991 to date, as discussed in previous sections of this research.

2.7.4.1 Weaknesses

Despite the general supportive evidences on Meyer and Allen’s (1991) theories and scale of organisational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) argued for the review of Meyer and Allen’s (1991) instruments and theories. The reason behind the proposition: Suggestion for review and improvement of Meyer and Allen’s (1991) research was associated with some findings arising from further tests conducted in order to establish instrument effectiveness. According to Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 122) there are strong evidences in various empirical studies that “support the need for further refinements in the conceptualisation and measurement of commitment.” among which are (1) the size of the scale, (2) the repetitiveness of some scale items and (3) the non-suitability of a number of items in the scale. For example, on review of Meyer and Allen’s (1991) scale, “Vandenberg and Self (1993) found that the factor structure of

the affective component and continuance component of commitment scales were somewhat unsuitable during the early months of employment” (Meyer and Allen 1997, p. 122). In other words, the affective and continuance commitment section of the scale is not suitable for newly employed workers in an organisation. This implies that using Meyer and Allen’s (1991) version of organisational commitment scale to assess commitment may not yield positive outcomes for beginners. Nevertheless, Meyer et al. (1993), seem to recognise this weakness and therefore set out to assess them.

2.7.5 Meyer et al’s (1993) six item organisational commitment scale

In tackling the limitations found in assessing organisational commitment and also to further improve on its measurement, Meyer and his colleagues in (1993) reviewed some of the existing and usable scales on commitment. They developed an improved and generic version of organisational commitment scale, with the aim of assessing the various components of organisational commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment) as both dependent and independent components expressed by employees towards their organisations. Meyer et al.’s (1993) approach was informed by the assumption that “an employee’s relationship with an organisation might reflect varying degrees of all three” components of commitment (Meyer and Allen 1997, p. 13). That is, there is a likelihood that an employee may hold emotional attachments, feeling of obligations and have low job alternative and/or previous sacrifices to their organisation. Therefore, the new scale is aimed at assessing and identifying these components and how they relate with each other and the degree of their influence on employee behaviour towards their organisation.

2.7.5.1 Scale composition and focus

The first successful outcome of Meyer et al. (1993) was the reduction of the Meyer and Allen (1991) scale size from 24-items (eight items for affective, eight for continuance and eight for normative commitment) to 18-items scale items at six points per component of commitment. See Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Revised Organisational Commitment Scale Items

Affective commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organisation.
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation.
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation.
6. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Continuance commitment

7. Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organisation now.
10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.
11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

Normative commitment

13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now.
15. I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now.
16. This organisation deserves my loyalty.
17. I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
18. I owe a great deal to my organisation.

Source: Meyer, J., Allen, N., and Smith, C. (1993) commitment to organisations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualisation, *Journal of Applied Psychology, issues 78*, pp. 538-551.

This significant development was aimed at eliminating items that tends to repeat themselves or items that are not necessarily needed in the scale as found in Meyer and Allen (1991). Therefore by integrating the various components of commitment, Meyer et al. (1993) developed a usable commitment scale. The six point scale items per component was responded to in a five (5) point Likert scale, arranged from (0), to represent 'strongly disagree' to (5), representing 'strongly agreed'.

2.7.5.2 Positive issues

Although Meyer et al.'s (1993) organisational commitment scale items have been challenged and have in some instances been respectively reduced to four and five scale items per

component, (see Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) and Wasti (2001). Nevertheless, its validity is almost impeccable and has been generally accepted within the research community due to its qualities of simplicity, reliability, (Price 1997) and suitability in measuring the relationships (independency and dependency) between the various components of commitment (Brown 2003 and Cohen 1996). For example, some studies have examined the reliability alphas of Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale. Among these are the research conducted by Cohen (1996), which found reliability alphas of .790 for affective commitment, .690 for continuance commitment and .650 for normative commitment. Dunham et al. (1994) also found alpha ranges of .740 to .870 for affective commitment, .730 to .810 for continuance commitment and .670 to .780 for normative commitment. Ko (1996) found "the coefficient alpha reliabilities... of affective commitment as (Sample 1 = .880, Sample 2 = .870), continuance commitment as (Sample 1 = .580, Sample 2 = .640) and normative commitment as (Sample 1 = .780, Sample 2 = .760)" (Price 1997, p. 344).

Although most of these results were based on the assessment of organisational commitment within Western organisations, Meyer et al. (1993) significantly exposed the possibility of a successful measurement of organisational commitment across Western and non-Western organisations. For instance it is observed that there is an increasing number of research studies aimed at conceptualising and measuring organisational commitment across non-Western organisations using Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale from 1993 to date. A typical example is Buchko et al.'s (1998) study of organisational commitment in Russia. He found that the Meyer and Allen (1991) and Meyer et al. (1993) theories of organisational commitment and commitment measurement scale are generally applicable to Russia" (Buchko et al. 1998, p. 109). Some other researchers (Gautam et al. 2001, Lee et al. 2001 and Wang 2004) also assessed organisational commitment in other non-Western organisations using Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale.

2.7.5.3 Weaknesses

Informed from the above facts therefore, it may be sensible to suggest that the measure of organisational commitment using Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale will represent the most effective means of commitment measurement. This assumption is based on its degree of validity and reliability irrespective of the organisational type, circumstances and geographical settings.

However, as previously noted, some of the critical weaknesses in Meyer and Allen (1991) which reflects in Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale when tested in Western and non-Western organisations is that of narrowed definitions of the continuance commitment (Swales 2004), and the definition of the components of commitment as a generic concept (Mowday 1998).

2.8 Commitment Measurement in Non-Western Culture

Another weakness found in Meyer et al. (1993) relates to measurement problems, as evidences from some researches suggest a number of inconsistencies with the use of Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale and their scale outcomes in non-Western organisations (Wang 2004). For instance, in a

study of the three-dimensional component model of organisational commitment in South Korea, Lee et al. (2001, p. 598) found that, “the Korean version of commitment did not reach an acceptable level of internal consistency. Moreover, some analysis revealed that some items in the Korean research did not perform as well as they did in previous research conducted in North America” using the same Meyer et al. (1993) scale.

Also, Cheng and Stockdale (2003) measured the validity of the three-component scale in China. They found that normative and affective commitments were significantly higher in the Chinese sample than in previously published samples from Canada. In their research outcome, continuance commitment in the Chinese sample was “lower than the Canadian... samples” (Cheng and Stockdale 2003, p. 465). Earlier, in 1997, Ko et al. in their South Korean research, found the reliabilities of the affective commitment scale (ACS) and the normative commitment scale (NCS) were acceptable, whereas the reliability of the continuance commitment scale (CCS) was low. The three scales also had acceptable convergent validity, whereas the ACS and the NCS lacked discriminant validity. The construct validity of the ACS was supported whereas, the construct validities of the CCS and the NCS were questionable” (Ko et al. 1997, p. 961). Therefore, since reliabilities below .70 are generally considered unacceptable, this means that the reliabilities for affective and normative commitment are acceptable, whereas those for continuance commitment are not” (Price 1997, p. 344). Other researchers (Shaw et al. 2003, Gautam et al. 2001 and Wasti 2002) also echoed similar findings in their various researches on organisational commitment using Meyer et al.’s (1993) scale in China, Nepal and Turkey respectively.

It can therefore be argued that conducting research on commitment measurement in a non-Western organisation using the Western organisational commitment measurement tools such as that of Meyer et al. (1993), may be problematic. The consequence therefore, is the non-successful measurability and generalising of research findings in non-Western organisations (Lee et al. 2001 and Gautam et al. 2001). This view agrees with Lee et al.’s (2001, p. 598) empirical conclusions that indeed, “it is possible that Meyer et al’s (1993) measure of commitment does not generalise to non-Western cultures.” Also, while referring to the Meyer et al. (1993) scale/assessment of commitment, Meyer et al. (2002) advised and concludes that “issues concerning the generalisability of the model (scale) in other cultures, admittedly, cannot be factually argued, for the number of studies conducted outside North America is still relatively small, and the number of studies from any particular country is smaller still” (Meyer et al. 2002, p. 24). Lee et al. (2001) and Meyer et al.’s (2002) views identifies with the fact that there is the need to further study to understand the cause of the inconsistencies in the measure of organisational commitment in non-Western organisations using a more acceptable Meyer et al (1993) scale, and how the problem can be effectively managed.

2.8.1 Possible causes of measurement inconsistencies

According to Becker (1960) “for a complete understanding of a person’s commitment, one needs an analysis of the systems of values in the world the individual lives. It is necessary to discern what kinds of things are conventionally wanted and what losses feared in a society in order to understand the employee–employer bond in that context” (Wasti 2002, p. 545). “Therefore, any study into organisational commitment should remain sensitive to the special characteristics of the sample group, including national traits attributable to cultural factors”, (Wang 2004, p. 651). This is because the knowledge of people’s culture (the way people do things around them) is very relevant for effective study of employee (people’s) commitment to their organisation.

In view of the above, some researchers have attributed the problems associated with the measurability of organisational commitment in non-Western organisations to many factors, including cultural and language differences, translation difficulties, word interpretations and perceptions to meanings and values of words (Lee et al. 2001). Other problems are differences in procedures and method or technique of measurement (Ko et al. 1997) which also influence the content of the measurement scale being used. In simple terms, the problems associated with the unsuccessful assessment of organisational commitment in non-Western organisations using Meyer et al.’s (1993) commitment scale is attributable to the differences between one organisation and people’s culture to the other. This unique difference in culture is what influences people’s behaviour and directs their way of life and controls their commitment and involvement to organisational life. Others are the non-suitability of the items in the scale being used for the research. Chapter three of this research will be devoted to the comprehensive study of culture in Nigeria.

2.8.2 Possible measurement solutions

To provide a lasting solution to the problem of unsuccessful measurability of organisational commitment, researchers argued on a possible modification of measurement scales to suit local culture and organisational needs before its use in a selected organisation (Gautam et al. 2001, Wasti 2002 and Allen 2003). Others suggest the modification of scales for the development of a generalised measurement instrument, (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001). The opinion for modification fits into an earlier view held by Cook and Wall (1980; 1981) that the design of organisational commitment scale was carried out with Western employees in mind as is the case in Meyer and Allen (1991) and Meyer et al. (1993). It is therefore assumed that the Western organisational culture and pattern of behaviour must have influenced the phrasing and content of the scale. Consequently the global nature (generalising) of the scale is questionable and a possible solution was to develop other commitment assessment tools suitable for each culture. For example, the development of a Turkish organisational commitment scale, used in assessing

organisational commitment in Turkey by Wasti (2001) as a scale suitable for the assessment of commitment in a non-Western culture.

2.8.3 Modification of commitment scale in non-Western organisations (Turkey)

The call for the modification of scale and or the development of new scale to fit the concerned culture may have influenced the efforts towards the modification of Meyer et al.'s (1993) organisational commitment scale to fit into the measure of organisational commitment in Turkey by Wasti in 2002. The aim of Wasti's (2002) research was to understand the relevance of culture in the conceptualisation and measurement of commitment in non-Western culture. The outcome of her study was the development of an effective scale for the measure of organisational commitment in Turkey, see table 2.5.

2.8.3.1 Scale composition and focus

The modified version of Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale was supported with seven newly developed items named by Wasti (2003, p. 539) as "Emic items (the culture specific items) to assess other aspects of organisational commitment interests found in Turkey as "a predominantly collectivist society" (Wasti 2001, p. 525). While on the other hand, five items in the scale represents employee affective commitment to their organisation, with three items representing employee continuance commitment scale items from Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale.

Figure 2.5 the Turkey Model (Scale) of Organisational Commitment

<p>Affective commitment</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own2. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation {R}3. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation {R}4. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation {R}5. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me <p>Continuance commitment</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">6. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to7. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now8. If I had not put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere <p>Universal or Emic items</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">9. EAC1. I feel a sense of "ownership" for this organisation10. EAC2. I feel it is prestigious to be a part of this organisation11. EAC3. I identify with the goals of this organisation12. ECC1. It would be difficult for me to get used to a new organisation13. ECC2. I would not want to start from scratch at another organisation14. ECC3. The longer I stay with this organisation, the harder it is to leave15. ECC4. There is no guarantee that other places will be better, at least I know this place
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Source: S. A. Wasti (2002) affective and continuance commitment to the organisation: test of an integrated model in the Turkish context, *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*: 26, pp. 525–550

Among the key findings in Wasti's (2002) research which showed strong differences between outcomes from the specifically developed Turkish scale and that of Meyer et al. (1993) is the indication "that for Turkish employees, continuance commitment develops not only as a result of investments in the organisation and perceived lack of alternatives but also from generalised norms for loyalty and the approval of the employee's in-group" commitment as a result of loyalty to colleagues or superior (Wasti 2002, p. 546). Wasti's (2001) findings in the Turkish experiment and such other researches from countries like South Korea by Lee et al. (2001) and Gautam et al. (2001) in Nepal, supports the previous argument that in developing a new scale or modifying an existing scale, local culture: Peoples values and the ways things are done, should be vitally considered before commitment can be effectively measured (Lee et al. 2001 and Wasti 2001).

It is interesting to also note that while Wasti was conducting a research with the aim of improving on the understanding of commitment measurement and theory within a non-Western setting, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) were reviewing the theories of organisational commitments in the same year. Their aim, just like Wasti (2001) and Lee et al. (2001) was to further advance the concept of commitment and attempt to defuse some of the complexities in commitment conceptualisation and measurement. The outcome of their research was the development of five major propositions of organisational commitment, among which is their new definition of commitment (Vandenberghe et al. 2004). The other finding was the development of a measurement scale that tends to look at commitment related issues. Their research also supports the urgent modification of the existing commitment scales like Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale items, especially in relation to the normative and continuance component of commitment.

However, it is noted from Vandenberghe et al.'s (2004) work that most of the scale items are repetitions of Meyer et al. (1993) scale items. Therefore the new Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) scale may or does possess the same weaknesses found in Meyer et al.'s (1993) six item organisational commitment Scale. Furthermore, the scale and its theories failed to integrate the fundamental findings necessary for the understanding of employee commitment to their organisation, that is, the avoidance of organisational culture, which essentially, is the way things are done and the way people (employees) value things within their organisation (Deal and Kennedy 1983, Lee et al 2001 and Wasti 2001).

2.9 Conclusions

From the above reviews, the challenge facing the successful, effective measurement of organisational commitment therefore depends not only on the development of a workable definition of organisational commitment, but also on the development of scales that integrate specific organisational culture and national culture. Therefore, Lee et al. (2001, p. 598) argued "presumably the problem of assessing organisational commitment can be solved by improving... procedures and revision or substitution of scale items, respectively... or a revision of the measures" not only to suit local needs but to comprehend their way of doing things and what makes them develop both emotional and obligatory feelings towards their organisation and remember past sacrifices. Therefore a scale that assesses commitment should reflect not only the universal concept of employee commitment as a psychological state with at least three separable components; "desire", "need" and "obligations" to maintain employment in an organisation (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 61), but should also consider the local views on the meaning of commitment.

The above therefore calls for the review of the existing scales like Meyer et al.'s (1993), among others, for effective and successful assessment of organisational commitment. A review that

will include a wild search for the actual meaning of employee commitment with the intent of integrating and acknowledging organisation's and people's (employees') "patterns of values, ideas and other symbolic-meaningful systems that shape behaviours and the artefacts produced through behaviour" (Kroeber and Parsons 1958, p. 583). In other words, employees' "patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting... including their embodiments in artefacts... values" (Kluckhohn 1951, p. 86), their "deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs (Johnson and Scholes 1997, p. 53) that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 9), must be considered in developing effective measurement scales of commitment; mostly in Nigeria with its multiple tribes, values and norms (Oloko 1973).

2.9.1 Chapter Summary

This chapter has given a historical view of the development of employee commitment and its definitions. Various definitions from different commitment experts as they relate with the components of employee commitment were also discussed. Each section took a critical view at the most influential academic that contributed significantly to the advancement of employee commitment.

The chapter also examined the developments in the design of employee commitment scales for the measure of commitment across Western and non-Western organisations from 1969 to date as found in various literatures. The chapter also took a critical review on some available studies on commitment measurement with their significant contributions to the advancement of employee commitment measurement observed.

The extent of the benefits and impact on the overall knowledge of commitment were also considered including the meaning of commitment, commitment measurement research focus and scale outcomes, with its strengths and weaknesses examined. Attempts were also made to a reasonable degree in pointing out some noticeable reasons behind such weaknesses.

On commitment conceptualisation, the study concludes that although "substantive progress has been made in our understanding of employee commitment" (Mowday 1999, p. 387), there seems to be a lack of generalisable definitions of employee commitment, as the existing definitions do not always produce positive results in various cultures. This therefore presented the views emerging from various contributions that local culture (knowledge) may be relevant in understanding and effectively assessing employee commitment within a given society. Hence the need for further review of literatures on employee commitment measurement techniques, their strengths and weaknesses and possibly to understand the best approach to conceptualise, define and measure organisational commitment within a chosen organisation or culture.

In line with the above, outcomes from the studied commitment measurement scales from Ritzer and Trice (1969), Porter et al. (1974), Mowday et al. (1979), Meyer and Allen (1991), Meyer et al. (1993), Wasti (2001), and Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), including the research studies

conducted by Lee et al. (2001) and Guatam et al. (2001) in China and Nepal respectively, interestingly concludes with the discovery of a reoccurred problem found in earlier arguments on commitment by Mowday (1999). In other words, there seems to be a lack of generalisable and effective scale for the measure of organisational commitment across Western and non-Western organisations. However, from Lee et al.'s (2001, p. 598) argument, such problems "presumably can be solved by improving... procedures and revision or substitution of scale items, respectively..." to suit local needs. That is to develop measures (scale) that reflect the definition of employee commitment based on specific cultures. Nevertheless, accommodating the universal or core essence of commitment. Therefore, employee commitment can be effectively measured within a selected organisation by redefining commitment and developing a commitment scale that is culturally specific to the community in study.

In view of the above, therefore, can employee commitment be effectively measured in Nigeria by redefining and revising Meyer et al.'s (1993) and other such scales, or developing culturally specific scale for the measure of commitment? Attempts will be made to answer this question in the subsequent chapters in this research.

Chapter Three

Relevance of Culture in Conceptualising Employee Commitment

Chapter Three

Relevance of Culture in Conceptualising Employee Commitment

3.0 Introduction

This chapter progresses the review of literatures in Chapter Two on the conceptualisation and measurement of employee commitment with emphasis on understanding organisational and national culture as fundamental to a successful assessment of commitment in Nigeria. The chapter aims to establish a definition of organisational and national culture. It also aims to relate this meaning to Nigeria for a clear understanding of the cultural dimensions and characteristics that fit into Nigerian organisational circumstances and help inform the methodology and methods of this research.

The chapter is arranged in sections to identify with the study of culture. The first section deals with an understanding of the relevance of culture in the study of commitment. The section attempts to classify culture into national and organisational. This section is further expanded by the study of the meaning of culture types and the differences between them. Finally, a deeper and more analytical study is conducted on the dimensions and characteristics of national culture, with additional study conducted on organisational culture frameworks. This chapter will therefore lead into the study of organisational commitment in Nigeria. It will also help in developing the appropriate scale for the effective assessment of commitment in Nigeria.

3.1 Appreciating Factors Relevant to Commitment Study in Nigeria

“Nigeria is representative of countries in sub-Saharan Africa due to its large population and huge natural resources (including oil), with many... companies and... national infrastructures including education, banking, cooperatives, and transport and communication systems” (Okunoye 2003, p. 3-4). Amidst these advantages and vast promising potentials, organisations even in the most remote part of Nigeria, as Aminu (2004, p. 1) noted, are “experiencing business crises.” These crises are due to many factors, among which are poor application and wrong allocation of national resources and “infrastructural capability of the country” (Odedra et al. 1993) and also the degree of political, social and economic decay in the public, individual and corporate life of the nation (see Herbst and Soludo 2004, and Oyewumi 2004). These situations have, in effect, changed the national culture of Nigerian employees and the way they respond and generally behave towards work and organisation.

On acknowledging the need to address cultural, political and social problems, some organisations have within the last five years employed “a mass of technocrats that had the capability to design a comprehensive reform program” (Herbst and Soludo 2004, p. 1) for the restructuring and transforming of their organisation-wide culture and activities, including organisational goals. These actions were taken not only to motivate employee commitment to their organisations, but were also based on the understanding that culture (national,

organisational and/or individual) has a strong influence on both management practices and employee behaviours towards their organisations and attitude to work (Hofstede 1997, Straub et al. 1997, Weisinger and Trauth 2002, and Anandarajan et al. 2000).

Therefore, understanding employee commitment and effectively measuring its components in Nigeria requires an understanding of organisational and national culture peculiar to Nigeria. That is to understand and appreciate the values, norms, belief systems and other factors that characterise and influence the Nigerian employees' behaviours and commitment to work and organisation.

3.2 The Nature of Culture: A Debate

The concept of culture has been discussed and researched for many years (Lok 1997, p.73) with many methods and approaches to its conceptualisation and therefore many debates on its definitions and frameworks from various schools exist (e.g. Management, Anthropology, Sociology, social and organisational psychology etc). This has also led to various misconceptions about culture and debates on its nature as there are now various types of cultural dimensions, frameworks and characteristics, hence, the lack of a universally acceptable definition of culture.

“The debate on the nature of culture can be seen from two perspectives” (Lok 1997, p. 78), the positivists' views and the phenomenological ideas of culture. The “positivistic structural or functional approach conceptualises culture as a “rigid” variable (subsystems and components), whilst the phenomenologists view it as “a process of enactment, a root metaphor or something emerging from social interaction” (Legge 1995, Ogbonna and Wilkinson 1990, Lok 1997, p. 78-79). A controllable variable that connects with a flexible and dynamic element of organisational behaviour. It represents a way of life that can change and be changed to suit an organisation's present needs and/or circumstances. Therefore to understand culture from this perspective will mean to have in-depth knowledge of an organisation's dynamic way of life.

For the purpose of this study, a balanced approach will be adopted in appreciating culture, as that seems to be a more realistic and applicable approach. In addition, culture will also be studied by classifying it into organisational and national culture.

3.3 Differentiating Organisational Culture from National Culture

To understand organisational culture requires an attempt to differentiate between the two approaches to culture.

1. The first primary distinction between organisational culture from national culture can be found in “the assumed ‘shared’ values held in organisations and the ‘unique’ values which could be identified as specific to national culture” (Mwaura et al. 1998, p. 213). This aspect of national culture will be discussed later. The assumed ‘shared’ values held by an

organisation and its members represents what Schein (1991) called the basic assumption: A basic assumption not necessarily learned by or through the social environment, but through the work environment. It is obtained from work socialisation and therefore informs the person's approach to work life.

2. Another difference relates to the fact that organisational culture, although very flexible and easy to acquire, could also be strongly resisted as it is associated with the organisation's beliefs, identity and dignity.
3. Also values that are acceptable and applicable to a group of people in an organisation operating as a sub-unit of a larger society, whereas national culture relates to and with the larger macro society in which the organisation exists.

To further provide insight into the concept of culture the following sections will attempt to discuss each type of culture in greater detail.

3.4 What is Organisational Culture?

According to Hofstede et al. (1990), the term organisational culture was first used in Silverzweig and Allen (1976) and has thereafter remained a common term and concept used in differentiating between organisational and national cultures.

Wilson (2001, p. 354) also argued "the concept of culture has principally stemmed from the study of ethnic and national differences in the disciplines of sociology, anthropology and social psychology." Wilson's (2001) view is in line with a previous opinion from Lok (1997, p. 75), that "organisational culture has its roots in these two disciplines with organisational culture literatures suggesting that the popular approach to examining this concept is to focus on organisational culture as a social construct. The social construct can be seen as societal value systems, values, beliefs and assumptions of organisations, which can be integrated into the socialisation process of the organisation" Lok (1997, p. 75), as learned from or influenced by the larger society.

Therefore, examining organisational culture from a social construct perspective, the most popular and recent definitions of organisational culture that "set off a widespread interest in the study of culture" (Rollinson and Broadfield 2002, p. 567) towards the end of the 20th century were those offered by Deal and Kennedy (1982), Peters and Waterman (1982), and Schein (1992) in which organisational culture was defined as:

"The way we do things around here" (Deal and Kennedy 1982, p. 4)

"A dominant and coherent set of shared values conveyed by such symbolic means as stories, myths, legends, slogans, anecdotes and fairy tales" (Peters and Waterman 1982, p. 103).

and

“Culture refers to: (a) The values that lie beneath what the organisation rewards, supports and expects; (b) the norms that surround and/or underpin the policies, practices and procedures of organisations; (c) the meaning incumbents share about what the norms and values of the organisation are” (Schneider, 1988, p. 353).

“A pattern of basic assumptions - invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adoption and internal integration - that has worked well enough to be considered valuable and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems” (Schein 1992, p. 9).

Although the above definitions were developed at various times by various authors, based on the common assumptions that organisational culture as a concept and a pattern of behaviour (way of life), is found expressed in organisations’ stories, symbols, rituals, legends etc., as shared values developed, taught and adopted as the best ways of doing things in such organisations. It must be emphasised that there are many other definitions of organisational culture but the above tends to sum up almost all the other definitions. Therefore, pertinent to this study is the fact that from the above it is evident “that the concept of organisational culture is a complex issue”, in that while there seems to be no consensus in relation to the definition that captures the essence of culture in its totality, the majority of existing definitions have some shared social construct such as values, understanding, beliefs and expectations (Lok 1997, p. 78).

In addition Schein’s (1992) definition seems to have correctly expressed in a very simple way an understandable description of organisational culture. This is because the definition integrates the idea that culture is both a dynamic/evolving (flexible) and well-entrenched (rigid) way of life: “The customary and traditional way of doing things, which is shared to a greater or lesser degree by all members, and which the new members must learn and at least partially accept in order to be accepted” (Jacques 1952, p. 251). This in other words introduces organisational culture as a concept that shapes the progressiveness of the human element and their values and also impacts on the economic prosperity of organisations (Harrison and Huntington 2000) and “ensures the various parts of the organisation are all working to a common end and provide the very basis of competitive advantage” (Kemp and Dwyer 2001, p. 79), thereby serving as a source of motivation to the employees as part of the organisation.

The usefulness/relevance of the above definitions from a social construct perspective is also established due to its connectedness to and with Haggett’s (1975, p. 238) definition that “culture describes patterns of behaviour that form a durable template by which ideas and images can be transferred from one generation to another, or from one group to another.” This definition and that of Schein (1992) are significant to the present day meaning of organisational culture because they identified with and expressed the key organisational culture perspectives that distinguish it from other kinds of culture such as national culture.

In recent times the perception of organisational culture has in some quarters moved from being a social interaction to more of an organisational “variable”, in other words, the view of culture

as being 'what organisations have', which might be weak or strong (Harrison 1972). "Initially, within organisational theory, scholars used the culture concept as a metaphor to study organisations as forums in which meanings are constructed and expressed through social interactions" (Wilson 2001, p. 3534). The definitions of organisational culture as studied above clearly identified the fact that "the transfer of behaviour does not take place through genetics, but instead takes place through the social interaction between members of a group." This view supports the social construct nature of organisational culture as a pattern of behaviour that is subject to change and can be taught to members by means of continues social interactions between and among members. The above definitions also tend to view culture from a variable point of view. It sees culture from the point of view of what organisations have, that distinguishes them from others.

From this research viewpoint therefore, organisational culture is a variable, a shared phenomenon and a root metaphor "a pattern of basic assumptions - invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adoption and internal integration - that has worked well enough to be considered valuable and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems" (Schein 1992, p. 9) that are both visible and hidden (soft and hard or weak and strong) and shapes the way organisations do things around them (Deal and Kennedy 1982). Organisational culture is a psychological or intellectual indoctrination of members into a patterned way of life or beliefs that have worked and is working in helping them to understand the world around them.

3.4.1 The nature/characteristics of organisational culture

"To fully understand the complexity of the organisational culture literature it is necessary to explore the various perspectives of culture that have been adopted by the organisational behaviourists and other researchers in this field" (Wilson 2001, p. 356). However there is yet to be uniformity in culture characteristic classification, as culture has so far been classified according to its perceived features, which on one hand has been greeted with cautions and controversies. The dichotomy arising from these controversies is observed from various opinions expressed by some culture experts in their attempts to appropriately classify culture according to its perceived features. For example, Wallach in (1983) identified and classified organisational culture into three characteristics: Bureaucratic, supportive and innovative. However, Goffee and Jones (1998) identified four possible culture characteristics classifications, which include networked, mercenary, fragmented and communal culture characteristics. Whilst Martin (1992) proposed three culture characteristics that have remained more popular than the rest. Martin (1992) argued that culture characteristics can be classified as integration, differentiation and culture fragmentation.

Martin's (1992) classifications of culture characteristics into the integrationist, differentiationist and culture fragmentationist views have remained one of the most popular. Rollinson and Broadfield (2003, p. 571) explained that the popularity in Martin's (1992) characteristics rests in its simplicity and people's ability to identify with the idea behind the three elements. Moreover the various characteristics of culture as defined by Martin (1992) are applicable to both organisational and national circumstances.

3.4.1.1 Integrationist perspective

The integrationist culture characteristic is "an organisation-wide phenomenon which consists of shared values to which all or most employees subscribe" (Martin 1992). It is a culture characteristic that portrays stronger consensus among members with stronger loyalty and commitment to common organisational goals (Wilson 2001, Schein 1991, Deal and Kennedy 1982). Therefore the more integrated members are in pursuing or agreeing to a common goal, the better, stronger or more integrated the culture is, but the more differentiated it is, the more it is assumed that there are differences, hence weaknesses (Martin 1992).

3.4.1.2 Fragmentation perspective

Martin (1992) describes the fragmentation culture characteristic as "where organisations are so full of ambiguities and inconsistencies that frames of reference are individual and constantly changing so culture is inherently unstable." The fragmentation perspective "views ambiguity as the norm, with consensus and dissension co-existing in a constantly fluctuating pattern influenced by events and specific areas of decision making" (Wilson 2001, p. 357).

3.4.1.3 Differentiation perspective

The differentiationists see culture from the perspective that organisations are made up of different groups with their own sub-cultures. The emphasis therefore is that these organisational subsystems and/or subcultures can co-exist amidst existing differences.

Whereas the above represents the various perspectives or approaches to culture, most organisations tend to adopt the most suitable approach based on their circumstances and organisation types. In addition, the choice of an organisation's cultural approach also depends on the organisation's needs and other factors, hence no single method may necessarily be argued to be better than the other. Moreover, the choice of each method may also depend as Wilson (2001, p. 357) noted, on the applicability of the perspective and the possible measurability of the approach, considering the fact that "there are also major methodological differences between the three perspectives... with most studies identifying differentiation perspectives which have tended to be quantitative... fragmentation perspectives have tended to research specific incidents or issues (qualitative)." On the other hand, Schein in Frost et al. (1991) argued that adoption may also be associated with ideological factors and influences

within a given organisation. In other words, the choice of approach may be a result of the belief and value systems found within the organisation.

It is however important to note, as Wilson (2001) argued, that the existence of such controversies and diverse perceptions may, as a matter of fact, lead to more complications and misunderstandings of organisational culture and its dimensions. However, the most promising solution would be further empirical study on culture so as to proffer solutions.

3.5 What is National Culture?

There are existing controversies on the meaning of national culture.

According to Hofstede (1980, pp. 9 and 25) national culture is:

“the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede 2001, p. 9).

It is “a collective mental programming specific to the individual national” way of life. It is the embodiment of the ways a group of people or peoples have accepted to conduct themselves, respond, and position their mind on what they want, which is subject to change at any given point in time when it is seen that a better option exists or when forcefully or convincingly compelled to change the way they do things, which may be subject to resistance.

Thus, national culture, like organisational culture, is a psychological or intellectual indoctrination of members into a patterned way of life or beliefs. However, in relation to organisations, culture is taught to existing and new members and it is possible that those members may refuse to accept it or may drop the culture once they end their membership with the organisation. Whereas national culture is a belief system and a way of life that members are born into and therefore grow to appreciate as the only or best way to perceive, think and act. In fact, according to Mwaura et al. (1998, p. 213):

“national culture thus has values as its central components... with beliefs, habits and convictions.”

Furthermore, from a traditional African perspective, national culture is fundamental to people’s daily life because it “allows for the sharing of emotions and meanings and creates a way of life for human beings. It is a tool people can use to understand how their society, community or organisation operates and to know how they should behave within it” Ba Banutu-Gomez (2002, p. 30). National culture is, as defined by the African tribes of the Manjako ethnic group in The Gambia, Guinea-Bissau and Senegal:

“our world of yesterday, our world of today and our world of tomorrow which creates and nurtures cooperation, development and sustainability among our people and our society.”

The Igbo tribe (nation) in Southeast Nigeria, like their Manjako ethnic brothers, see culture (omenala) from various perspectives. Based on telephone interviews carried out by the researcher, the following meanings/words were used to represent culture. Some of the interviewees spoke in English, while others spoke in Igbo and gave self interpretation to their own statements in English. They perceived and defined national culture as:

1. Omenala: “practices that is peculiar to us and just to us.”
2. Culture is (ejirimara mba. Ihe ndi obodo meputara ejiri mara ha), “our identity, what defines us by nature.”
3. “Our culture (omenala anyi) is our hereditary way of life that is dynamic.” (subject to review depending on the aspect of culture concerned).
4. “Our culture is (omume anyi: umere anyi) our behaviour, Ihe ejiri mara anyi: what we are known for.”

In conclusion therefore, culture is perceived within the Igbo tribe as:

“our (people’s) identity, a peculiar (remarkable), dynamic and hereditary way of life that defines us and our behaviour by nature.”

National culture therefore represents the life of the people and shapes the “people’s pattern of life and perimeter for direction” Schein (1992, p. 9). It symbolises the beliefs and values that are “rooted not only in individual experiences, but also in society, group and organisational experiences, accumulated over time” (Schein 1992, p. 9). It represents, manifests and consists of symbols, distinctive achievements of human groups, heroic deeds, including their embodiment in artefacts, studied, “acquired” and transferred to new members (newly born children) of the nation (tribe/community) and the outside world (Kluckhohn 1951 and Hofstede 2001) and “considered as valuable and therefore as the correct way to perceive, think, feel... and also act” (Schein 1992, p. 9).

The above traditional (Igbo, Gambian, Guinea-Bissau and Senegal) views, fit into Schein’s (1992, p. 9) definition of culture studied earlier, as:

“a pattern of basic assumptions - invented, discovered or developed by a given group... therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems.”

The tribal (Igbo, Gambian, Guinea-Bissau and Senegal) views and definition by Schein (1992) identify with national culture as a mirror of society which allows for the understanding of people’s past and present ways of doing things and “the sharing of emotions and meanings” Ba Banutu-Gomez (2002, p. 30). Schein’s (1992) view also explained, as earlier noted, the connection between culture and commitment and the need to understand culture before assessing employee behaviour (commitment) towards their organisation, as effective assessment

of employee commitment is determined by one's knowledge of the employees' culture (Wasti 2003, and Guatam 2003) and by extension, employees' individual factors (Roberts et al. 2004).

To further identify the key characteristics discovered in Schein's (1992) definition of culture which fit into the tribal African perception of culture, the following section outlines and discusses some of the key word(s) that represent the meaning of culture from the above study.

1. A pattern of basic assumptions.
2. Invented, discovered or developed by a group: Organisation of people or nation.
3. As it learns to cope with its problems of external adoption and internal integration.
4. Learning what has worked well enough to be considered valuable and
5. Taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems.”

The above point to the fact that national culture is not only an essential part of a people's way of life, but is an invisible - yet tangible, stable - yet in some ways dynamic, (Rollinson and Broadfield 2002) identity, behaviour and pattern of life (structure and processes); taught, preserved and exercised (enforced) by a group of people for continuity. National culture represents the conscious and unconscious beliefs, perceptions and feelings, in other words, assumptions that enable values (philosophies and goals) and people's actions and reactions to circumstances within their immediate and long term future. It therefore impacts and is part of the way people behave and commit themselves to goals, organisations and society at large.

3.5.1 National culture dimension

Whereas a distinction has previously been made between national and organisational culture, a further distinction can also be made on the approaches used in its measurement. For example, organisational culture from the functionalists' perspective is viewed and measured as “something the organisation ‘has’, whereas national culture is what people within the larger society ‘is’ (Hofstede et al. 1990, Moenaert et al. 1994). “This distinction between the national and organisational culture is important as the two are composed of different elements”, hence the need to understand such elements or dimensions of national culture that makes it a relevant study in conceptualising commitment (Garrett et al. 2006, p. 296).

This study will look into culture dimensions using Hofstede's approach to culture. This will be linked further to culture and commitment in Nigeria.

3.5.2 Hofstede's dimensions of national culture

In 1980 Hofstede engaged in research that will significantly alter the way academics conceptualise and measure national culture. Hofstede administered a questionnaire across 50 countries with the intent of conceptualising, classifying and measuring national culture and its

underlying values. The outcome of his investigation was the identification of four dimensions of culture as:

1. Individualism vs Collectivism.
2. High vs Low Power Distance.
3. Strong vs Weak Uncertainty Avoidance.
4. Masculinity vs Femininity.

Hofstede defined each of these dimensions as follows:

3.5.3 Power Distance (High vs Low Power Distance)

Power Distance is the “extent to which less powerful members of organisations and institutions accept and expect that power is distributed unequally” (Hofstede and Bond 1988, p. 10). Hofstede argued that whereas some societies may possess and practice high power distance culture, others may experience low power distance. This is further expounded in Garrett et al.’s (2006, p. 296) interpretation of Hofstede’s dimensions that “in high power distance societies, therefore, it is expected that a functionalised structure will be prevalent, keeping the important line management positions in play (Hoppe, 1993). There will be greater use of formalisation and centralisation integration mechanisms.” The table below provides the differences between the low and high power distance culture, with its characteristics.

Figure 3.1 Hofstede’s Power Distance Culture Classification

Low Power Distance	High Power distance
Subordinates expect to be consulted	Subordinates expect to be told what to do
Boss should be resourceful democrat	Boss should be benevolent autocrat
Privileges and status symbols frowned upon	Privileges and status symbols expected
Teachers expect initiatives from students in class	Teachers are expected to take all initiatives in class
Hierarchy in organizations seen as exploitive	Hierarchy in organizations reflects natural differences
Inequalities between people should be minimized	Inequalities between people are expected and desired
Parents and children treat one another as equals	Children respect parents and parents expect obedience

3.5.4 Individualism vs Collectivism

The second culture classification (Individualism–Collectivism) relates to “the degree to which people act toward individual or group goals (Hofstede 1980; Triandis 1989). Garrett et al. (2006, p. 296) summed up the general view on individualism and collectivism culture characteristics. They argued “in the individualist society, the individual is the centre of the psychological field and the self is experienced as distinct from the group” (Triandis 1989). This dimension has wide-ranging implications on: Group membership (Triandis 1989); communication, with individualist societies being prone to use explicit low-context communication styles (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1998); and wealth creation (e.g. Shane 1993). This dimension is also regarded as a key differentiator between Western and African cultural groupings (see Hofstede 1991; Ralston et al. 1997).

The table below provides further insight into the Individualism and Collectivism culture dimension.

Figure 3.2 Hofstede’s Individualism and Collectivism Culture Classification

Individualism	Collectivism
Identity is based on the individual	Identity is based on one’s social network
I do, therefore I am	I am, therefore I do
Work relationship is seen as contract based on mutual advantage	Work relationship is seen in moral terms, like family link
Task prevails over relationship	Relationships prevail over task
Employment decisions supposed to be based on skills and rules	Employment decisions reflect person’s group connections
Speaking one’s mind indicates honesty	Harmony should be maintained and confrontation avoided
Low-context communication (direct)	High-context communication (indirect)
Rule-breaking leads to guilt and loss of self-respect	Rule breaking leads to shame and loss of face
Management is management of individuals	Management is management of groups

3.5.5 Masculinity vs Femininity

The third Hofstede culture dimension is the Masculinity and Femininity dimension, which expresses “the degree to which Masculine values like assertiveness, performance, success and competition prevail, making individuals more assertive and goal-directed as opposed to emphasising warm and social relationships (Hofstede 1991; Nakata and Sivakumar 1996).

Whereas in the masculinity society, efforts focus on individuals' ability to explore and achieve goals, sometimes independently with limited trust, "in Feminine societies, people play a far more important role. Members tend to have greater trust, communication, team spirit and low conflict. Upper management should initiate a more supportive environment combining task responsibilities and people skills" Garrett et al. (2006, p. 296).

The table below provides further insight into the Femininity and Masculinity culture dimension.

Figure 3.3 Hofstede's Femininity and Masculinity Culture Classification

Femininity	Masculinity
Gender roles overlap	Distinct gender roles
Nurturance	Assertiveness
Stress on equality, solidarity, and quality of work life	Stress on equity, competition, and performance
Managers use intuition and strive for consensus	Managers are expected to be decisive and assertive
Humility and modesty are important	Men are assertive; women are tender
Conflict resolution by compromise and negotiation	Conflict resolution by fighting out over issues

In the above description, Nigeria and other West African countries were all classified under high power distance, collectivist and femininity with traditional, tribal customs and colonial influences as part of its cultural history/dimensions as shown in Figure 3.4 below under the section on African Region.

3.5.6 Uncertainty avoidance

The uncertainty avoidance is summarised by Garrett et al. (2006, p. 296) as "it represents a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede 1980, 1991). The basis for this is the ability for society members to deal with unstructured situations which are novel, unknown, surprising and different from those normally encountered in everyday life (Hofstede 1991). "High uncertainty avoidance society members manage unstructured situations through the implementation of strict laws, rules and security measures (Hofstede, 1991)."

On analysing his findings, Hofstede concludes that societies differ from one another and can be distinguished using the above four cultural dimension classifications. For example a society with High Power Distance ie the extent to which power is utilised and structured among members of a group of community will always depend on the mighty (those with power) to give directives which must be obeyed, sometimes without questioning. Also a society that falls

within the Collectivist dimension will always have its members integrated into a common way of life, which they learn as they grow from birth and such a way of life is protected diligently as it represents the people's identity and all they stand for.

Although Hofstede's (1980) view on cultural dimensions has been criticised for, among other things, its attempt to cage or rigidly classify culture into four dimensions, his views and instrument remain prominent in identifying and classifying national culture (Okunoye 2003). The tables below summarise Hofstede's (1980) findings on culture and its classification from High vs. Low Power Distance, Individualism vs. Collectivism, to Femininity vs. Masculinity culture, with the fourth table providing further insight into his research outcomes.

Figure 3.4 Hofstede's National Cultural Dimensions

<i>Region/County</i>	Individualism-Collectivism	Power / Distance	Uncertainty/Avoidance	Masculinity-Femininity	Other Dimensions
North America (USA)	Individualism	Low	Medium	Masculine	Arnae (mutual dependence): authority is respected but superior must be a warm leader
Japan	Collectivism and Individualism	High and Low	High	Masculine/Feminine	
Europe: Anglo	Individualism	Low/medium	Low/medium	Masculine	
Germanic: West Slavic, West Urigic	Medium Individualism	Low	Medium/high	Medium/High Masculine	
China	Collectivism	Low	Low	Masculine/Feminine	Emphasis on tradition, Marxism, Leninism. and Man Zedong thought
Africa	Collectivism	High	High	Feminine	Colonial traditions; tribal customs
Latin America	Collectivism	High	High	Masculine	Extroverted; prefer orderly customs and procedures

Source: Raghu Nath and Kunal K. Sadhu, "Comparative Analysis. Conclusions, and Future Directions," in *Comparative Management -A Regional View*; Raghu Nath, ed. (Cambridge MA: Ballinger Publishing Company, 1988), p. 273.

3.5.7 Revisiting Hofstede classification

Although Hofstede's research on culture could be argued to represent one of the most comprehensive study on organisational behaviour and culture, involving more than 15 countries (cultures) across various continents, the validity of some aspects of Hofstede's

research has been questioned by some scholars in that over the years, Hofstede studies has been put to test and examined with critical weaknesses identified. For example, a review of Hofstede study as it applies to Africa in general and Nigeria in particular, shows that his study seems to lack a good understanding of the prevailing culture within the inner part of the society. Hofstede decision to categorise and classify West Africa into one culture, see (Hofstede 2001, Exhibits 4.1, P. 151 and 6.3, p. 286) may seem unrealistic as although there are some traces of common pattern of behaviour, each African tribe and nation has diverse and different culture as will be explore later and also as evident in the works of Ogbor and William (2001).

In addition, it is also important to note that the classification of West African culture as Feminine under the Masculinity and Femininity section of figure 3.4 above may not necessarily represent a true picture of Nigerian culture dimension. This is because as will be explored later, from Ogbor and Williams (2003) and Ehigie and Umoren (2003), in most Nigerian tribes and society, masculinity tend to be predominant although a balance between Femininity and Masculinity could be found in some urban areas Okunoye (2003)

The rigid and somewhat universal classification of culture into four dimensions as Hofstede's did can be argued to represent one of the key weaknesses in his research. On that note, one may be tempted to argue that Hofstede's work lacks validity as culture, being a unique and distinctive pattern of behaviour identical to a group or nation and subject to spontaneous changes as people interact with their environment, may not necessarily be classified in such a manner. Hence the problem with the classification of West Africa as a Feminine society when in reality, most West Africa nations and countries has evidence of masculinity. Nevertheless one is constrained in this research, to depend on Hofstede's work irrespective of the above weaknesses. This is because there is almost no other authentic source for the identification and classification/study of Nigerian culture from organisational and behavioural perspective. In that while various studies on culture from varied perspectives can easily be found within the Western society, such, may not be the case within the non-Western society of West Africa like Nigeria that is highly under researched (Obadan and Odusola 2000, and Obisanan and Onifade 2000) hence the relevant of this study. Although this study identifies with and acknowledges the weaknesses associated with Hofstede, the researcher will however, employee Hofstede's classification of culture into four dimensions for the purpose of this study due to lack of alternatives.

3.6 Applying Culture Dimensions and Characteristics in Nigeria

3.6.1 Nigeria, a collectivist high power distance and integrativists' culture

Based on Hofstede's analysis, Nigeria is classified as a society with Collectivist culture and as a Collectivist society, integrationist cultural characteristics seem most suitable for Nigeria with evidence of high power distancing. Although this research does not aim to study every aspect of national and organisational culture but to understand its relevance in studying commitment, effort is made in providing an overview of what may be called a conventional Nigerian culture through power structure and value systems in Nigeria. This is because a power structure and value system are identified from the works of Ogbor and Williams (2003) to have significant impact on the way Nigerian organisations and employees relate with one another and also inform their way of life and commitment to work and organisation (Gbadamosi 2003). The power culture also exposes some elements of the Collectivist dimension in Hofstede's (1980) research and Martin's (1992) integrationist characteristics in Nigeria. Hence the need to provide an insight into the power structure and value system that characterises Nigerian society.

3.6.2 What is power structure?

Power structure, according to Johnson and Scholes (1997), exists as part of culture and is likely to reflect in the organisation and/or society and is generally exercised and delegated to the members as a group and/or individuals. Price (1997) identified and classified power into three categories: The centralisation of power; the autonomy of power and; the basis of power.

3.6.2.1 Centralisation of power

“The degree to which power is differentially distributed within an organisation” (Hall 1982, pp. 114-115)

Although Hall's (1982) definition is highly simplified and uniquely distinct, nevertheless the definition seems to concentrate more on identifying and understanding the extent to which power is decentralised across establishments and not necessarily on its centralisation. To further assess and obtain a suitable definition, Iverson and Roy's (1994, p. 19) views on centralisation of power is studied. Their definition, in many ways, seems to capture the essence of power centralisation as suitable and applicable to this study. They defined centralisation as:

“The extent to which power is concentrated in an organisation or society.”

Iverson and Roy's (1994) definition is most suitable for this study because according to Price (1997, p. 449), they supposed that a “maximum degree of centralisation would exist if all the power in an organisation were exercised by a single individual or a group of individuals, while the minimum degree of centralisation would exist if all the members of the organisation or society shared equally in the exercise of power.” In other words, organisation and national culture can be understood and classified according to the degree of power concentration in the hands of few or several people across its operations. Such concentration may also affect the way

individuals reason and commit themselves to their organisation or society. Price (1997, p. 449) further noted that the importance of centralisation and the degree of its impact as a culture to an organisation or even a nation, can be well understood when issues of “participative management, hierarchy of authority, close-general supervision, monocratic-democratic authority, executive-colleague authority, unilateral-bilateral decision making, and devolution” is examined within the organisational or national context. Centralisation therefore, looks at how powers are distributed and the process (if any) of delegation of such powers and to what level of management or workers it is given.

In the Nigerian context, there seems to be a high concentration or centralisation of power on a few individuals who are management and members of the leadership and decision-making teams in both private and public sectors of the economy. Such individuals holds very strong power with abilities (authorities) to decide who does what at what time and who stays in the organisation/group or leaves.

3.6.2.2 The autonomy of power

The second category of power termed ‘the autonomy of power’ was defined by Selznick (1953, pp. 29-37) as:

“The degree to which an organisation has power with respect to its environment.”

Although autonomy could be referred to or used by some people as referring to job or work autonomy, it can also apply to which state or country has power with respect to its environment. It is a type of power strategically exercised by organisational or political leaderships, in making decisions and/or enforcing laws and orders that will impact on or control other aspects of the total organisation or nation. This type of power is therefore mostly applicable to government, its agencies or organisations as legal entities with authorities (Price 1997). In a “typical business firm, no strategic decision is made substantially by units external to the firm; the top executives generally determine its operations. Either implicitly or explicitly, autonomy is the focus of concern in organisational studies dealing with strategy, and the exercise of political power in the society,” (Price 1997, p. 446). Autonomy is indeed the study of the power as it is utilised mostly from the strategic level of the organisation or nation, while centralisation of power as earlier studied focuses on power concentration and not on the ability to exercise such power over one’s environment (power autonomy). The autonomy of power therefore may not necessarily apply to this study from a cultural context.

3.6.2.3 The basis of power

The third and final categorising of power is the basis of power referred to by Price (1997, p. 457) as:

“The reason one person conforms to the intentions of another person.”

In other words, Price (1997) argued that the basis of power is simply the motive behind people's willingness to be controlled by another: A voluntary or forceful submission to another person's will. Although the study of this aspect of power has been ongoing, with its early investigation conducted by French and Raven (1959) and later by Bendix (1960), there are indeed limited literatures on the field. However, a common analogy of the concept, based on the above definition, shows that it is the ability to exercise or exert considerable influence over an employee or a member of a community by the virtue of one's position, influence and affluence or even due to one's social status (Price 1997, and Iverson and Roy 1994). In other words, it is an indirect study of the motives behind employee commitment to an organisation due to external group influences.

In consideration of all of the above types of power culture as already discussed, the basis of power and the centralisation of power seem to capture the interest of the researcher and this research's views on what culture is. In addition, it attempts to show the operationalisation of culture from a collectivist dimension and the integrativist characteristics from a Nigeria perspective. However, before concluding which of these segments of culture applies to Nigerian society and if Hofstede's (1980) dimensions suit Nigerian circumstances, a study of the Nigerian power structure and value system is necessary.

3.6.3 The culture of power structure in Nigeria

Within the traditional and modern Nigerian society, the degree of actual power available to individuals and employees to exercise and the perceived influence one has on or over those in power (authority), determines the volume of respect a person could have among his/her peers, fellow workers and or members of his/her family and/or friends. Okunoye (2003) observed in his research that in the traditional Western Nigerian society, power structure is well established and the assumption that "everyone has freedom of expression and equal rights could likely yield another outcome..." Therefore, there is a gap between the leaders, who are preferably older, and their subordinates. Contrary behaviour (even when not necessarily wrong) by any member of the community can be interpreted as disloyalty and attract punishment" (Okunoye 2003, pp. 6-7).

This is a slightly different scenario to that in the Eastern part of Nigeria, mostly occupied by the Igbo tribe, where traditionally, members of a community have some degree of freedom of expression and can also to an extent criticise the community leadership (Okapra's "first born male children of each kindred" and other traditional age grades and women groups), (Achebe 1956). By 'first born male child', it refers to 'Okapra's', the older members of the society. Nevertheless, the dominant power structures in Nigeria are the systems of power structure found in the Northern and Western parts of Nigeria as identified in Okunoye (2003). It is therefore easy, as Okunoye (2003) argued, to recognise who the leaders and people in position of power

are using many factors, including: Age, the degree of respect, influence, affluence, command of wealth and the degree of absolute power they control with little or no checks.

In most organisations as in society at large, respect can be gained not necessarily by the wealth of knowledge possessed by one, but also by consideration of their age. In addition to age, gender also shapes respect and relationships. According to Eberegbulam (1990), the male gender and older people tend to enjoy more respect and influence to a greater degree what happens within and around them. Therefore, the older the employees are, the more they command respect among peers and can even influence policies as their words are perceived as words of wisdom.

Okunoye (2003) further noted that the extent of power distancing found in Nigeria, not only as a culture dimension, but also as a strong aspect of people's ways of life, is expressed and exposed through subordinate/superior relationships. This for instance is because "superiors are often inaccessible, moreover, the power holders are entitled to privileges in their organisation and society with limited opportunities for subordinates to question superiors' actions or directives.

The importance of age in a Nigerian community and work culture cannot be over emphasised. This is evident from the above discussion on Nigerian culture in which age is identified as very important and can/does to some extent influence employees' expression of commitment to their organisations.

3.6.4 Types of power structure in the traditional Nigerian system

According to Ogbor and Williams (2003, p. 12), "a frequent observation during this period of fieldwork was the extent to which Ogah (superior), as a form of deference, has replaced the names of superior officers. This form of deference is not, however, restricted to the lower-level organisational (society) members, but seems to permeate all levels of the organisational and societal hierarchy." In fact, "the six most salient features of traditional leadership and authority in the Nigerian culture are: (1) Theocracy; (2) gerontocracy; (3) hereditary legitimacy; (4) paternalism and personalism; (5) symbolic titles and (6) affectivity and diffuseness in the quality of an official relationship. To discuss these further, the researcher has adopted the explanations and argument offered in Ogbor and Williams 2003, as examined below.

3.6.4.1 Theocracy

Theocracy refers to leadership legitimisation by a belief that all authority is from God (a supreme and also tribal deity) and therefore cannot be challenged. For example, "among the three dominant ethnic groups in the Nigerian society (the Hausa-Fulani's, Igbo's, and Yoruba's), as well as in other minority groups, one of the basic sources of authority is the ability to invoke supernatural powers sanctioned by a particular religious system. Among the Hausa-Fulani's, the emir (who is the traditional monarch and religious head) possesses a wide range of powers, augmented by appeals to the ideals of Islam, which combine temporal power and religious

authority in the person of the ruler (Ogbor 1990). Among the Igbo tribe for instance, law and customs are believed to have been handed down from the spirit world from time immemorial between one group of ancestors to the other. Traditionally, the Igbo people believe that their gods and ancestors are directly involved in the running of their community affairs” (Ogbor and Williams 2003, p. 12).

Ogbor and Williams (2003, p. 12) further argued that Gerontocracy represents other types of power structures: The Igbo’s age-grade system exemplifies social stratification where age groups perform specific duties within the community. Future influence in the community is determined by membership in age groups. Implicit in these authority relationships is the belief that because of their age, the elders stand between the gates of earth and the unseen world. Thus, disobeying the authority of the elders is taken to mean a departure from the behaviour approved by the gods and ancestors, a behaviour that makes such individuals vulnerable who should therefore be discouraged by attracting synonymous punishment.

3.6.4.2 Hereditary legitimacy

The traditional society of the Hausa-Fulani is divided into a ruling class (sarakuna) and a commoner class (talakawa). Membership in either class is usually fixed at birth. Eligibility for the highest office of state, the emirship, is confined to descendants of an emir whose mantle was attained in more or less ancient times. The hereditary principle also determines access to the bulk of the other high offices of state, including those reserved for heirs of ancient freeborn holders of certain offices and titles.

3.6.4.3 Paternalism and personalism

An incumbent authority holder is expected to give protection to the group he or she is chosen to lead. The allegiance of persons to superiors in this context is secured through and expressed in the receipt of patronage ranging from gifts, the award of office and title to full economic support. Beneficiaries of such support, protections and favours, in return owe the authority holder loyalty. Leaders maintain their positions while they render their obligation to the people, i.e. continuous provision of the protection and assistance they are duty bound to provide. Should their ability to do this diminish, should leaders no longer be able to fulfil this paternalistic role, the members of the group will transfer their allegiance to some other individual who can more adequately play the paternalistic role.

3.6.4.4 Symbolic titles

Great importance is attached to titles in Nigerian culture, both traditional and religious. A title is a symbol that distinguishes the individuals in authority from non-authority holders. Affectivity and Diffuseness in the Quality of Official Relationships: Nigerian authority patterns are based on subordinate loyalty to superiors rather than some impersonal standard of official relationship. This affective value facilitates expressive relationships over instrumental ones. A related facet is

that the duties and obligations involved, and the rewards and benefits attached to the performance of duties are not precisely defined; they are instead characterised by a cultural orientation of diffuseness of functions and rewards.

3.6.4.5 Social hierarchy (structure)

In addition to the power structure, there exists in Nigerian cultural systems, “a well-defined family and communal hierarchical structure.” For instance, “it is a societal norm to treat senior members with absolute respect and obedience. Their opinions are often accepted and their judgments are not to be publicly questioned” (Okunoye 2003, pp. 6-7). This societal norm is also applicable and very obvious in many modern organisational settings. The senior members of the society in this sense represent the older community members and by implication organisation members.

Some modern organisations tend to adopt a more flexible power culture found in the traditional Northern part of Nigeria where “the hierarchy is less pronounced and the social stratification is somewhat blurred” (Okunoye, 2003, p. 7). Nevertheless, power culture is visible and its structures are also well defined, understood and highly respected among organisational (society) members with high reverence to those occupying the positions therein. In a nutshell, “the power culture and its hierarchical settings in the community are reflected in the organisation” (Okunoye 2003, p. 9). For instance, being a manager or in charge of a department in an organisation may not necessarily mean that an individual is the one who decides what should be done and how it should be done in that department. In most instances, they are the voice and representative only of the leadership and are expected to follow rule and pass on directives to the subordinates from the centralised leadership (power source).

While this is a picture of Nigerian power structures, there is also a common value that characterises the Nigerian nation, organisation and employees.

3.6.5 People’s values

According to Rokeachi (1972), value is the act of having a lasting or consolidated belief or assurance that one’s state of mind or condition of life is most preferred or acceptable than otherwise. While this is subject to argument, in a more philosophical but practical definition of values, (Hofstede 2001, p. 5) paraphrased Kluckhohn’s (1967) views on value as “a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over the other.” The use of the words ‘a broad tendency’ and ‘prefer’ makes the theory of value a more probabilistic theory, subject to change at any time. Nevertheless, the view represents a more acceptable opinion on value as it sees people’s values as subject to change as learning, sharing and interaction increases and the environment changes.

Value is therefore the act of one having a lasting or consolidated belief or assurance that one’s state of mind or condition of life is most preferred or acceptable than otherwise, (Kluckhohn

1967 and Hofstede 2001). Kluckhohn (1967) presupposes that value is a person's situation and concerns at a given period in time, which in the long term informs their beliefs and behaviours or pattern of living, based on some inherent or fundamental circumstances that have formed part of their experiences acquired within their environment. This view on value seems most applicable to Nigerian employees because traditionally, Nigerian society has strong beliefs in and acceptance of the place of deities, ancestors, human leadership, and God in their personal and community life. This perception of life and living has, over the years, informed their pattern of belief and in some ways influenced their perception of work. The adherence to and availability of these values is perceived as obedience and submission to such powers, which enables and is essential to communal progression (Obisanan and Onifade 2000). These values are found in organisational, societal and individual stories, symbols, modes of salutations, attitude to work and relationships with colleagues and superiors (see Ogbor and Williams 2003 and Okunoye 2003). They "underlie the structural and operational parameters of organisational and social life" in Nigeria (Dent 1991 in Ashkanasy and Holmes 1995, p. 20).

3.7 The Fitness of Culture Dimensions and Characteristics to Nigeria

The importance of this study is that it creates a picture of the shared value system (culture) that characterises the Nigerian nation, which also influences organisations and employees within it. According to Okunoye (2003), the study of culture specific to a nation or people has illuminated the fact that people are directly influenced by their own identity norms and values and controlled by social, economic and educational factors. For instance, the Nigerian value system and culture in relation to education is summarised in the example given in Okunoye's (2003) study. Okunoye (2003, pp. 6-7) identified that "while training and learning without any formal certification could be acceptable for employment in Western industrialised countries, employees in developing countries like Nigeria would normally like to have a certificate for their training. The reason for this is the importance attached to certificates (certificates culture) as evidence of knowledge and a source of power and the prospect of getting a well-paid job, based on the extent of certified training an employee has. The fitness of the culture dimension and characteristics as studied above in Nigeria is further summarised below. The section also provides insight into the relevance of culture in conceptualising people's commitment behaviour to their organisation.

3.8 Culture: A Summary of Nigerian Perspective

This research acknowledges, in line with Hofstede's (1980, 1991) view, that there are significant differences between organisational and national culture, that each individual nation or organisation will tend to behave according to their culture and its influences. Hofstede (1980), for instance, accepted that the United States has less power distancing culture and can easily delegate authority more than their Chinese and West African (Nigeria) counterparts, who

according to Lok and Crawford, (2003, pp. 323-5) have the “existence of high power distance values and a bureaucratic culture that is distinctive among firms.” Such distinctive characteristics even determine leadership styles, management positions and levels of individual commitment to their organisation (Lok and Crawford, 2003, p. 325). In addition, evidence shows that in Nigeria, age and income (wealth) in most instances also determine the degree of respect one earns and also influences one’s social status, regardless of one’s occupation (Eberegbulam 1990). This also implies that an employee’s commitment to their organisation could be directly linked to their age and degree of income or wealth.

These differences therefore may provide positive outcomes in one culture and produce negative results in another. Hence the uniqueness of national culture and the different acclaimed values attached to organisational culture.

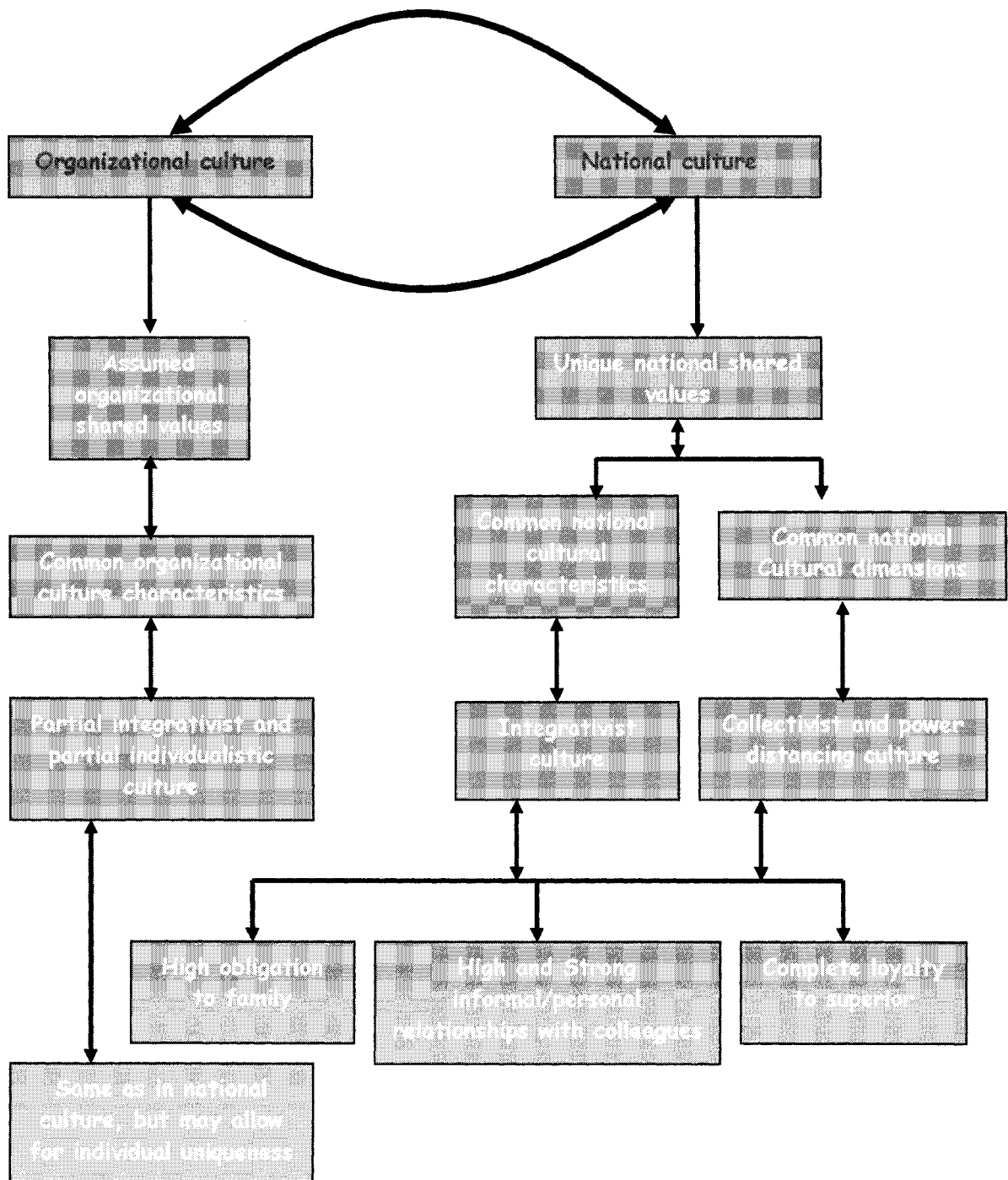
What the above views illustrate is that somehow the various characteristics of culture (integrationist, differentiationist and fragmentationist) are all, in one way or another, a correct approach to the conceptualisation of national and organisational culture, although somehow each of the characteristics tends to operate independently depending on whether the study relates to national or organisational culture Harris and Ogbonna (1998). In addition however, the conflict in classification and mode of assessment of culture also indicates the degree of confusion in the categorisation and understanding of culture and its measurement. It thus confirms as earlier noted that even commitment should be studied based on distinctive national culture and acclaimed organisational culture and their characteristics, relative and relevant to the understanding of the people in the study.

Therefore, the common or prevailing national culture characteristics and dimensions as found in the above study which are also most suitable for Nigeria as concluded by Hofstede (1980, 1991, and 2003), is the collectivists’ dimension of national culture and the integrativist culture characteristics empirically proven to relate to Nigeria based on Ogbor’s (1990), Obisanan and Onifade’s (2000), Ogbor and Williams’ (2003) and Okunoye’s (2003) findings.

In addition, the integrationist perspective tends to relate to high power distancing found in Hofstede’s (1980, 2001) study of culture in West Africa (Nigeria). Its exercise in most Nigerian systems can be easily observed and similar to the differentiationist perspective, has a strong impact on employee behaviour, commitment and perception of an organisation. Part of this collectivist and integrationist culture is expressed when or as employees (subordinates) are expected to submit with no or little questioning, to their superiors’ directives. Therefore, by submitting to superiors as a basic requirement for effective functioning of the organisation or society, the degree of power distance between superiors and subordinates is observed (Ogbor and Williams 2003).

In summary therefore, it is theoretically and empirically evidenced that Nigeria as a society, based on Hofstede's (1980, 1991) research, falls under the collectivism and power distancing dimensions of national culture. It is also evidenced that Nigerian collectivist and power distancing culture fits with Martin's (1992) integrativist organisational cultural characteristics (Ogbor and Williams 2003) and therefore should inform the basis for further study into how Nigerian employees express commitment to their organisation as influenced by their culture. This view is also diagrammatised in Figure 3.5 below.

Figure 3.5 Differences between Nigerian Organisational Culture and Nigerian National Culture



The above diagram explains in pictorial form the possible differences and relationships existing between organisational and national culture. The key element separating both types of culture is the degree of shared values held by members. While to a member of a nation, the value system is strong and represents his/her identity and even personality and meaning of life, to the organisation member the organisation's culture may be one of the supposed ways of performing a job or leading a group of people in the workplace in order to make the company more profitable and satisfy shareholders (owners of the organisation) and therefore may not be worth the risk. Each culture type is represented by their values (unique or assumed shared values) which show the features of each of the elements. For example, the Nigerian national culture provides unique culture dimensions: Collectivist and power distancing culture and a unique culture characteristic: Integrativist culture. Organisations within the same culture (Nigeria) have a combination of integrativist and individualistic culture characteristics because of the influence from their national culture and that of globalisation or Western organisational management ideas. The above figure on Nigerian culture is distinctive to Nigeria and therefore a study of organisational and national culture in another environment may provide different results in another society.

To further comprehend the degree to which national and organisational culture influence's employee behaviour (commitment), one needs to establish through empirical study the significance and impact of culture on employee commitment in Nigeria. In other words, to establish whether Nigerian employees with collectivist, power distancing, national culture and integrative organisational culture assumed to possess the following characteristics, can or do influence employee expression of commitment to their organisations:

1. Mutually dependent on one another.
2. Communication and information flow within the culture and its hierarchies tends to primarily flow within group members (age grades, class, etc, with the words 'us' and 'we' commonly used.
3. People and their history are more appreciated and associated with.
4. Attention is paid to information that concerns guidelines and the responsibilities required of members, with norms and rules respected.
5. Individuals are more committed to collective goals because of their belief in collective goals taking priority over individual goals: By meeting collective goals, individual goals are assumed to have been met.
6. Relationships with group members are both formal and informal and established mostly on trust and on moral bases.

7. Employment is prioritised based on one's relationship with the employer. Therefore the employer will prefer employing family members first as they see the welfare of such people as their responsibility.
8. It can also be argued that in such societies, religion (communal beliefs and convictions) supersedes governance and is fundamental to the existence and survival of the society.
9. There are always identifiable gaps between superiors and subordinates.

For example, one may need to study and confirm if employees' commitment to their organisation depends on, or are influenced by, the collectivist, integrativist and/or power distance views that see beliefs and values in the family system, collective goals and superiority (hierarchy) as essential to progressiveness. In view of this understanding and the quest for the appreciation of organisational commitment in Nigeria, it is necessary at this point to review various existing organisational commitment studies in Nigeria and to identify whether the assumptions found in the culture study are reflected in the study of commitment in Nigeria.

3.9 Culture and Commitment: A Summary of Critical Issues

The aim of this study is not to seek to measure culture as a stand alone concept, but to understand its importance in conceptualising commitment and commitment measurement. This is important as "the influence of national culture on individual behaviour is well established. Also the differences in national cultures are reflected in how organisations are structured, managed, and how powers are utilised within hierarchies" (Chen 2001, Cheng 1995 and Hofstede 1991), (Lok and Crawford 2003, p. 322). This may not be completely said of commitment and culture as there seems to be a lack of sufficient evidence identifying common characteristics between culture and commitment or a significant relationship between them. Lok and Crawford (2003, p. 323) argued that, based on theoretical understanding "Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Peters and Waterman (1982) suggested that organisational culture can exert considerable influence in organisations particularly in areas such as performance and commitment." Nevertheless, Allen et al. (1988) and Wasti (2003) are among the few that have attempted to consider the impact of culture on organisational (employee) commitment, with Wasti (2003) focusing specifically on Hofstede's (1980) individualism and collectivism cultural dimensions.

Some of these studies "investigated the influence of culture more explicitly" (Wasti 2003, p. 534) with a conclusion that culture (be it national, individual or organisational) is relevant to the understanding of commitment and also helps in framing part of individual behaviour and national life. In fact MacPhail and Campbell (2001, p. 1614) assert "that individual behaviour is constructed and negotiated within social and cultural contexts", where individual factors "include one's knowledge, self-perception, self-esteem, attitude and behaviour that impact" on

one's community (Roberts et al. 2004, p. 2) and therefore are part of culture. "The collectivist cultural factor also includes the values, beliefs and ideas of a population" (Roberts et al. 2004, p. 3) which represents the national identity of a people and "presumes that all cultural members are sharing a given perspective equally and identically" (Wasti 2003, p. 534).

The growing interest in this area of research emerged from the outcomes of Lee et al.'s (2001) and Guatam et al.'s (2001) findings on the need to further research the relevance of culture in understanding commitment. The significance of this need was further emphasised in Mayer's (2003) suggestion that there will always be discrepancies in commitment measurement in non-Western organisations due to cultural differences. In other words commitment measurement will only be effective when the culture of the people being studied is considered, understood and used in framing the content of the commitment scale.

Relating these views to the findings from the research conducted by Lee et al. (2001) in China, it was understood that the use of the Western organisational commitment scale was identified to be problematic in non-Western organisations due to cultural differences. It therefore concludes that understanding people's culture is necessary before effective assessment of organisational commitment can be carried out (Mayer and Allen 1997). Although it may seem difficult to easily identify and measure what might be called a specific national, organisational and or individual's culture (Johnson 1992), it can also be concluded that based on existing empirical evidences "differences in the cultural values of individualism and collectivism (among other dimensions) can be argued to influence the relative importance of various facets of organisational commitment" (Wasti 2003, p. 537). In other words, culture indeed impacts on commitment, and to understand and assess commitment within a given cultural boundary, the types and characteristics of cultures relevant to the people in the study should be understood (Lok and Crawford 2003) as was the case in this study.

The subsequent chapter will therefore attempt to explore commitment and its measurement in Nigeria and thereafter develop a commitment measurement instrument that is culture-motivated, for the assessment of commitment in Nigeria.

Chapter Four
Employee Commitment Studies in Nigeria

Chapter Four

Employee Commitment Studies in Nigeria

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is an extension of Chapter Two on organisational commitment in Nigeria. While the earlier chapter concerned itself with studies on organisational and national culture as relevant concepts for the understanding of commitment in Nigeria, this chapter focuses on the actual literature investigating commitment in Nigeria. Therefore the aim of this chapter is to explore available empirical work on employee commitment in Nigeria and to understand outcomes from the studies. In other words, this chapter will review existing literatures and find a definition and measurement of employee commitment that fits into Nigerian organisational circumstances and helps inform the methodology and methods of this research.

The chapter consists of sections on employee commitment studies in Nigeria from 1973 to date. This includes a critical review of literatures on commitment, such as a review of the works of Oloko (1973) and Gbadamosi (2003), which are among the earlier work on commitment in Nigeria. It will also attempt to understand the meaning of employee commitment from a Nigerian perspective among others. The chapter will therefore draw a conclusion to the chapters on literature review and provide a way forward for this study.

4.1 Employee Commitment Studies in Nigeria

A review of available literature on organisations and behaviour-related research in Nigeria confirms, as Ukaegbu (1985) acknowledged, that organisational-based research in Nigeria has mainly focused on issues of economic growth and productivity, with little attention paid to studies on organisational behaviours and employee commitment. The outcome of such neglect has been organisations' inability to identify the benefits of attracting, motivating and retaining committed employees. This does not rule out the fact that there are researches already conducted to assess organisational commitment in Nigeria although they are less than a handful. Among such researches are those conducted by Oloko (1973), Gbadamosi 1995 and 2003).

4.1.1 Oloko's (1973) assessment of employee commitment in Nigeria

In 1973, Oloko measured the influence of location on workers' commitment in Nigeria. His research has, over the years, remained one of the most outstanding and most significant works on employee behaviour involvement and commitment to organisation in Nigeria.

Oloko's (1973) research focused on assessing the "influence of unplanned versus planned factory locations on workers' commitment to industrial employment in Nigeria" (Oloko 1973, p. 189). Centrally "the purpose of the study was to explore the effects which the location of industrial establishments on a number of industrial estates in the Lagos metropolitan area have

on the level of commitment to, and satisfaction with, industrial employment experienced by a sample of 520 rank-and-file factory workers interviewed in Nigeria” (Oloko 1973, p. 189).

Oloko (1973) found on one hand that workers are committed to their organisations because of costs associated with leaving and low job alternatives, that is, workers’ commitment to their organisation and work is determined by continuance commitment and not just because workers have feelings of loyalty and obligation (Normative commitment) or emotional/sentimental loyalty (Affective commitment) to their organisation. Oloko (1973) also found that workers located in a poorly planned factory tend to be more committed than those in a well-planned factory environment. That means workers tend not to be committed to their organisation and work if they are disadvantaged: Made to quit their communal way of living or, as Powell and Meyer (2004, p. 161) in another study summarised it “required to move to another community and the disruption to family life.”

The appropriateness of Oloko’s (1973) research is appreciated on its ability to develop constructive interview questions with strong similarities to later studies by Porter et al. (1974) and Meyer et al.’s (1993) quantitative questionnaire. For instance the participants were interviewed to help establish their degree of “determination to remain in factory work even when they had the opportunity to move to other non-factory types of employment” (Oloko 1973, p. 191). Also on the basis of the interview item total scores, the subjects were separated into three categories of low, medium and high levels of commitment to, and satisfaction with, factory work respectively Oloko (1973). Oloko’s (1973) classification of commitment into low, medium and high levels connects with later research on commitment by Meyer and Allen (1991) and Meyer et al. (1993), in which commitment was classified as attitudinal, continuance and normative components of organisational commitment.

Although Oloko’s findings from research conducted 34 years ago have strong elements of the modern concept of commitment, they may not however be accepted as valid findings applicable to the needs (knowledge of commitment) of present day Nigerian organisations. This is because (1) Oloko’s research was not based solely on the assessment of organisational commitment but on employee involvement and therefore does not offer the necessary valid and reliable information for organisations’ decision making on employee commitment as a contribution to organisational success, (2) Oloko’s (1973) research is criticised amongst other things for its narrowed sample selection, that is, use of an ethnic group (Yoruba’s) in a country with vast ethnic diversities in assessing commitment. Therefore there is the possibility of limited knowledge of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria, in other words, the non-generalisability of Oloko’s (1973) research findings, (3) Oloko used only male participants as a sample population, which made the research lack some degree of equal representation of both male and female workers in a choice organisation (factory) with male and female employees (Sadri and Williamson 1989) and this is a weakness to the research, (4) The research is obsolete,

having been conducted 34 years ago, most of the findings may not apply in today's 21st century organisations.

Irrespective of some of these criticisms, Oloko's (1973) research is one of the very best of the very few empirical researches on organisational commitment in Nigeria, except for the most recent research conducted by Gbadamosi in 1995 and 2003.

4.1.2 Gbadamosi's (1995, 2003) assessment of commitment in Nigeria

Following the works of Oloko (1973), in 1995 Gbadamosi conducted research on employee involvement, which he viewed as a study on employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria. Gbadamosi (1995a) "examined the relationship between organisational involvement and some personal correlations (family involvement, morale, career and non-work satisfaction, turnover intention and anxiety) among 110 Nigerian managers. According to Robinson et al. (1969, p. 79) employee involvement is:

"the degree to which the employees of an organisation are willing to work."

Drawing from the above definition, employee involvement is employees' willingness to work. This implies that employee involvement therefore does not necessarily represent employee expression of commitment to their organisation as Gbadamosi's (1995a) study tends to suggest. Involvement therefore could be seen as employee expression of attitudinal (emotional) aspects or components of commitment as discussed in Chapter Two of this study.

In addition, Gbadamosi (1995a) measured involvement using the Romzek (1989) involvement scale which he also mistakenly argued to mean the measure of employee commitment to their organisation. The scale comprises of positive psychological attachment items emphasising identification and loyalty towards the work organisation and organisational norms for commitment (Gbadamosi 2003, p. 276). The research findings support a strong relationship between employees and their intention to remain involved with their organisation. The finding supports and relates to the previous argument that the study on involvement by Gbadamosi (1995a) is indeed a study that related to employee attitudinal components of commitment and therefore cannot be argued to represent a study of organisational commitment as commitment and involvement are two distinctive areas of study. Therefore, the study and measure of involvement cannot completely represent the study and measure of commitment (Price 1997). Moreover, an employee may be involved in an organisation's activity but not necessarily committed to its goals or other commitment foci (Meyer and Allen 1997).

In the same year (1995), Gbadamosi furthered his studies by "investigating the association among organisational commitment, communication and some behavioural measures of effectiveness... The result obtained indicated that the organisational commitment measured was strongly related to the behavioural measures of effectiveness... The study argued that the commitment of organisational members certainly has a strong role to play in reinforcing

organisational effectiveness (Gbadamosi 1995b)” (Gbadamosi 2003, p. 276). However, (Gbadamosi 1995b) again failed to identify and/or measure the various components of organisational commitment (attitudinal, normative and continence commitment), thereby leaving the problems of effective assessment of employee emotional attachment (attitudinal commitment), perceived costs (continuance commitment) and a feeling of moral obligation (normative commitment) towards organisations in Nigeria unidentified, un-researched and by implication, unknown.

Nevertheless, in 2003, Gbadamosi progressed significantly in his study of organisational commitment in Nigeria but with a wider focus on the African continent. He critically reviewed some historical elements of employee behaviour and commitment to organisations from African traditional perspectives and compared his theoretical findings with organisational commitment in relation to communication, leadership and the voluntary nature of commitment in today’s business circumstances.

In reference to the works of Kamoche and Muuka (2001), Gbadamosi (2003) identified physiological needs as fundamental issues that occupy employees’ minds “rather than the more long-term responsibility of developing individual and team skills towards an organisational stock of knowledge” (Gbadamosi 2003, p. 277). In other words, employees are more concerned with their ‘daily bread’ than with organisational growth. His findings were aligned with Oloko’s (1973) research outcome that relates to the fact that Nigerian workers are committed to their organisations because of costs associated with leaving, disruption to family life and low job alternatives.

However, Gbadamosi’s (2003) research represents a body of theoretical (secondary) opinions on commitment, leadership, communication and other related elements within the African organisational circumstances and therefore is not based on empirical findings conducted specifically for the Nigerian organisations on employee commitment to their organisation. This limitation therefore confirms the lack of up to date empirical research on organisational commitment and commitment measurement in Nigeria. It also shows the need for urgent further study and understanding of the meaning of organisational commitment, before conducting an assessment of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria, that is, an attempt to study and understand outcomes from various research on organisational commitment in Nigeria and also the possible view of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria.

4.2 The Meaning of Organisational Commitment in Nigeria

Chapter Two of this research concludes that understanding and assessing employee commitment in any organisation or society requires an understanding of the meaning of commitment in such culture. This implies an understanding of the meaning of commitment in a communalist Nigerian society (Oloko 1973, and Gbadamosi 2003) before a successful measurement of

commitment can be guaranteed. The first step towards this task will be to revisit this research's earlier opinion in which organisational commitment was assumed to mean:

“the motive that connects employees to their organisations, expressed as emotional attachments, moral obligations, and consideration of limited alternatives, sacrifices and costs associated with leaving their organisations.”

The second task will be to outline in simple terms, the meaning of the core-elements found in the above definition of commitment and thereby theoretically comparing outcomes with such views from Oloko (1973) and Gbadamosi (1995 and 2003) on what commitment is in a Nigerian context. These core elements are:

1. “Emotional attachment” and “involvement” found in employee attitudinal commitment.
2. Low “job alternatives”, previous “sacrifices” and cost of leaving found in employee continuance commitment.
3. “Feelings of obligation”, as part of employee normative commitment.

They are further discussed below.

4.2.1 Emotional attachment

Emotion (emotional) involves a strong feeling towards something/somebody, with attachment meaning to be connected with somebody and/or something and can be summarised following Porter et al.'s (1974) views as employee expression of a strong feeling of connectedness with their organisation, or somebody/something within the organisation.

By applying the meaning of feeling of emotional attachment (attitudinal commitment) to Nigerian employee circumstances or context, what may be observed is a mixed interpretation, understanding and application of the word emotional feeling towards an organisation. This is because conventionally, most Nigerian men may not necessarily express emotions (feelings) towards a thing (organisation) and/or non-family members openly, although it is possible for women to do so more (Achebe 1958, Ladebo, 2004). The women would do so because by tradition, in some Nigerian societies, like the Igbo, Yoruba, Hausa, and Bini, women are not expected to be involved in occupations that will take them outside their matrimonial home; they are rather expected to manage the family and “be submissive to their husbands” (Ehigie and Idemudia, 2000). According to Rosenblatt et al. (1970, p. 112) “they have been taught to seek fulfilment as mother and homemaker. They become less intrinsically committed to work than men and less likely to aspire to a high level of specialised knowledge.” Moreover, “studies on work commitment of females and family obligation have shown that females typically take time off work” (Korabik and Rosin 1990, p. 81) and therefore could be less emotionally attached (committed) to work and an organisation.

However, as Ehigie and Umoren (2003, pp. 78-79) noted, in recent times Nigerian “women are increasingly expected to work when they complete their educational careers.” Therefore the very few Nigerian women with such opportunities as Rosener (1990) argued, are more likely than men to effectively utilise such opportunities by transforming their self-interest into goals of the organisation and their unique socialisation and feminine emotional attachment to the organisation (Ehigie and Umoren 2003).

On the other hand, the men would rather have such feelings inwardly and try to express them through the length of service they can commit to their organisation in order to protect their self-ego in a communalist society like Nigeria (Ehigie and Umoren 2003 and Silvestro 2002). The length of service in this instance means the expressed employee loyalty to the organisation as a result of long term employment in the organisation.

Researchers tends to classify loyalty into: Employee length of service and employee stated willingness, (Loveman 1998; Reichheld 1996; Silvestro 2002) which has been argued to form the primary basis for the definition classification and understanding of loyalty. Petrick (2003, p. 464) argued that “true loyalty is a two dimensional concept comprised of both a psychological attachment (affective loyalty) and a behavioural commitment to the service or source” (Backman and Crompton 1991; Backman and Veldkamp 1995; Pritchard and Howard 1997) which can also be linked to employee length of service and employee stated willingness.

Employee length of service represents the years or period workers spent working for an organisation or the period (years) contributed in continued pursuit of organisational goals, which may possibly include periods of positive and active commitment and time wasted due to dissatisfaction.

On the other hand, loyalty based on employee stated willingness is an employee’s expressed motivation to continue employment in an organisation. Such stated willingness could be in the form of a simple statement such as: I am willing to work harder than I have done in order to help this organisation succeed; I feel very loyal to this organisation, I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation, I talk up this organisation to my friends as being a great organisation to work for (Mowday and Steers 1979; Kalleberg et al. 1996; Meyer et al. 1993).

Therefore loyalty, be it length of time in organisation or stated willingness, is:

“To be committed and completely steadfast in one’s allegiance to a person, cause, or company and to beliefs, practices, and relationship that benefits all involved.” (Smith and Rupp 2002, p. 251).

In addition to expressed loyalty due to length of time Nigerian employees are willing to give to their organisations, it is also possible for Nigerian employees to express strong feeling of attachment to their organisation (1) if the organisation will serve as a means of meeting their

basic needs, (physiological: biological needs), (2) if the employee or any of his family member, or someone the employee reveres has a stake or is part of the organisation's leadership, they can also express strong feeling of attachment (3) if the employee believes the organisation has what it takes to offer them greater career opportunities (Gbadamosi 1995b, Gbadamosi 2003 and Oloko 1973). In this sense, greater opportunities refer to creation of personal wealth (high income). This is very significant to employee expression of commitment as discussed in the previous chapter that in most organisations, as in the society at large, commitment to organisation can be gained based not only on the respect an employee enjoys and the wealth of knowledge possessed by him or her, but mostly on the consideration of their age. In addition to age, gender also shapes respect and relationships (Eberegbulam 1990). Therefore, the older the employees are, the more they command respect among peers and can even influence policies, as their words are perceived as words of wisdom. This fosters commitment as older employees will be unwilling to move to another organisation due to fear of losing such intrinsic benefits.

Therefore, in assessing organisational commitment from an attitudinal perspective in Nigeria one must consider the fact that Nigerian employees are emotionally attached to their organisations conditionally as influenced by continuance and normative pressures associated with age and income (wealth) driven by the quest to gain social status and respect.

The above arguments are theoretical findings based on Oloko's (1973), Ogbor's (1990), Eberegbulam's (1990), Obisanan and Onifade's (2000), Ogbor and Williams' (2003) and Okunoye's (2003) studies, with exception to Oloko's (1973), findings whose weaknesses were that it was research conducted 34 years ago. In addition, Gbadamosi's (1995, 2003) studies, which were based on employee involvement rather than on employee commitment, may no longer be valid in the present day Nigerian organisation, hence the need for newer empirical investigations looking into income (wealth) and age as motivators to employee expression of commitment. Following the above, this study will therefore seek to understand the impact of age and income as hypothetical assumptions on employee expression of commitment to organisation.

4.2.2 'Job alternatives', 'sacrifices' and cost of leaving

'Sacrifices' or 'previous sacrifices' refers to the act of one giving up something that is valuable, while low 'job alternative' is having limited work opportunities for which one receives regular payment or one have the opportunities to choose between two or more jobs. The first element of continuance commitment which is the perceived sacrifices or previous sacrifices in the context of this research implies a consideration of how much of one's time and life is already given in order to contribute to organisational success.

This could imply the perceived employee length of service to their organisation (Loveman 1998, Reichheld 1996 and Silvestro 2002) or other physical and mental services and efforts made

towards organisational success. The 'cost of leaving', on its part, just like sacrifices, refers to the consideration of what the employee may lose, that is, the consideration of the differences between the advantages and disadvantages of leaving the organisation. In other words, the higher the cost of leaving, the minimal possibility of an employee leaving the organisation.

The above circumstances do apply in Nigeria, due to the high rate of unemployment in the labour market. This development has subjected highly skilled workers to accept unskilled jobs and even work outside their job description so as to remain gainfully employed. Due to fear of being unemployed, most workers are also willing to accept more responsibilities and increase their working hours beyond the contractual terms, thereby sacrificing much of their social/personal time without demanding for a corresponding pay/wage, Gbadamosi (2003).

4.2.3 Feeling of obligation: a theoretical argument

Finally, *employee feeling* is something employees express through their mind or senses, while on the other hand obligation is what employees must do because they have promised to do it or because they are expected to do it. Therefore, following Weiner (1982) and Meyer and Allen (1991), employee feeling of obligation could mean employee expression of a particular emotion towards an organisation because they feel they should.

This implies that an employee's moral or contractual promise to show or express a feeling of obligation towards their organisations must be as a result of not only their emotional convictions, but also because they want to and because of what they may lose (in terms of costs associated with leaving or sacrifices; time and years they must have invested into the organisation) and/or what they have gained (Meyer and Allen 1991). This approach to commitment seems realistic in the Nigerian context, especially within the banking and IT sectors where organisations invest heavily on the development of their employees for specific organisational benefits, thus allowing employees to contractually, psychologically and/or morally commit themselves to remaining with their organisations.

The above therefore ties the expression of moral feelings or feeling of obligations (duty) in Nigerian contexts with previous studies on other components of commitment like attitudinal and continuance commitment in Nigeria. This is because employees' expression of moral feelings or obligation to their organisation sometimes is a means by which they can reciprocate the organisation's kindness. The feelings/obligations (obligatory feeling) are also given out of fear of what they (the employee) may lose (e.g. good relationship with management and colleagues amongst other benefits) if such feelings discontinue and the employee opts to leave the organisation.

This further raises the question of whether normative commitment as a component of commitment indeed applies to Nigerian circumstances. This question is dynamic and requires a

study dedicated to uncovering the application/suitability of the normative component of commitment in Nigeria. Therefore this will inform part of recommendation for further research.

The necessity of such study specifically for the Nigerian environment is vital because if, for instance, we assume that, based on the above argument normative commitment is indeed not a component of commitment but is just one of those variables (items) that measures either or both attitudinal and continuance commitment, then we may be questioning Meyer and Allen's (1991) classifications of commitment components, which are universally accepted as valid. Moreover, it will also question the reliability and possibly prove as void, Suliman and Iles' (2000, p. 408) claims that "organisational commitment does not develop simply through emotional attachment (attitudinal commitment), perceived costs (continuance commitment), or moral obligation (normative commitment), but through the interplay of all these three components." In addition, it will also question the argument which supports that "employee psychological attachment 'to their organisation' can reflect a varying combination of these three psychological foundations" (Dockel 2003, p. 38).

Having identified the risks associated with questioning Meyer and Allen's classification of the three components of commitment, it is also relevant to argue that considering the fact that Wasti (2002, p. 525) assessed the degree of these components' validity in non-Western Turkish culture, her research in Turkey, a collectivist society showing support to Becker's (1960) argument that "in a collectivist culture (like Nigeria), the normative nature of the employment relationship would generate expectations for loyalty to the organisation. Moreover, the perceived costs of violating these expectations would be reflected in increased continuance commitment." In this instance, the loyalty referred to according to Wasti's (2002) findings is affective and continuance loyalty originating as a result of people's norms (customs, culture) and not normative (feeling of moral obligation). This finding is also supported by the definition of normative commitment from Wiener (1982, p. 421) who defined normative commitment as

"the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organisational goals and interests."

In other words normative pressures reflect the internal and/or external control that is physically or psychologically exerted on employees, or feelings expressed by employees based on some internal organisational (e.g. colleagues and superiors) pressures and/or external (e.g. family) pressures that influence employees to show commitment, a source of which may be more culturally related rather than obligatory. In this instance, it could be argued that normative commitment in the context of this study, refers to:

"the extent to which employees are culturally influenced or voluntarily obligated to exercise commitment to their organisations either through continued sacrifices (continuance commitment) or by continued expression of feelings of loyalty (attitudinal commitment) to their organisation."

Therefore any sort of obligatory pressure or feelings may not necessarily be normative commitment as a component of commitment, but may be a factor or item that measures attitudinal and or continuance commitment. In that instance, therefore, pressures resulting from employee sacrifices and extra sacrifices and feelings towards their organisation as a result of employees' beliefs, values or any other cultural factors, do not necessarily represent normative commitment, but are enablers of employee "desire" (affective commitment) and "need" (continuance commitment) that "bind employees to particular organisations" (Swales 2004, p. 188).

The above may lead to seeing normative commitment (moral obligation) as a component that taps into the concept of employee commitment to their organisation, and is indeed full of complications as there are possible evidences that employee response to or commitment to organisations due to morality or moral obligation is dependent on the continuance benefits employees have or will enjoy in the organisation or the emotional feelings they have developed over the years for the organisation.

This argument also points to the possible fact that implies that an attempt to classify commitment into components may sometimes be misinforming because what may be classified, defined and measured as normative may well indeed be different from what should be defined and measured as such within different cultures. On the other hand, it may well be that such assumed normative components, being defined and measured, may be the definition and measurement of an aspect of attitudinal and or continuance commitment. This argument therefore reflects the degree of dichotomy still apparent in the conceptualisation of commitment in non-Western cultures, in that "...after more than 40 years, questions about the classification, meaning and measurement of commitment remains unsolved" (Powell and Meyer 2004, p. 158). With no best approach available, the culminating question therefore is, should employee commitment be conceptualised and measured as a single (generic) concept, or as involving only two components: Affective and continuance or as Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed: A three component conceptualisation?

Linking the above arguments to this research, this study will assume that commitment has three components: Attitudinal, normative and continuance components of commitment. In other words, this research will support for the purpose of this study, the existence of three components: Attitudinal, normative and continuance components of commitment. Nevertheless, the researcher will encourage a further and future study on the place of normative commitment within the components of organisational commitment in Nigeria.

4.3 Connecting literature (commitment and culture) to research question

Based on the above literature studies on culture and commitment, a summary can be drawn not only on the impact and importance of culture on people's behaviour, but on employee

commitment to their organisation from a Nigerian perspective, by arguing that commitment is not only employee behaviour (feeling, attitude and belief) towards their organisation, but also a concept that “constitutes part of the every-day life of organisations and people’s reasons for continuing to work and the way they value their work and people in their organisation” (Tomkins and Grove 1983). It is like culture: A way of life, necessary for the sustenance of a nation (people) and/or organisation.

In this instance, this research also identifies and acknowledges, in line with Hofstede’s (1980, 1991) view, that culture is classified into organisational and national cultures. Based on this, each individual nation or organisation will tend to behave according to their culture and its influences. Such distinctive characteristics even determine corporate and national leadership styles, management positions and levels of commitment. In other previous studies for instance, “evidences shows demographic variables such as years in organisation, age, level of education, income and duration (Chen and Francesco 2000, Mathieu and Zajac 1990, Salancik 1977) as having significant impact on organisational commitment” (Lok and Crawford 2003, p. 325). This view may provide positive outcomes in one culture and produce negative results in another. Hence, the differences between the unique values of national culture and the acclaimed values attached to organisational culture.

What the above argument illustrates is that somehow the integrationist, differentiationist and fragmentationist characteristics of culture are all, in one way or another, a correct approach to national and organisational culture conceptualisation, as in most cases each of these characteristics tends to operate side by side with each other (Harris and Ogbonna 1998).

In light of the above, the researcher also understood from the literature that culture exercises direct influence on employee expression of commitment to their organisation. An influence expressed for instance among Nigerian workers, when employees demonstrate high loyalty to their boss (power distancing), to their colleagues and friends within the organisation (integrativist cultural characteristics) and when employees continued working due to pressures from family members (collectivist culture dimension).

It therefore means that conceptualising commitment in Nigeria will be almost impossible if national and organisational culture is ignored. This is because one needs to understand the influence of the Nigerian collectivist culture (e.g. beliefs in family values and influences from colleagues and superiors) on employees’ decision to express commitment to their organisation (Oloko 1973, Gbadamosi 2003 and Ogbor and Williams 2003). This assumption therefore informs this research definition of commitment that is culturally motivated and suitable for a collectivist society as:

“The extent to which employees are psychologically connected to their organisations, sustained by continued desire to remain employed in the organisation, and expressed as

emotional feeling, bonding, involvement and consideration of alternatives, sacrifices, and costs due to internal organisational and external cultural influences.”

This definition seems to effectively suit Nigerian circumstances as it perceives commitment in the light of culture as “constituting part of the every-day life of organisations and people’s reasons for continuing to work and the way they value their work and people in their organisation” (Tomkins and Grove 1983). This new perception/definition of commitment implies that the researcher accepts Meyer and Allen’s (1991) views that commitment measures must assess what is being defined as commitment. Moreover, such definition should, as Lee et al. (2001) recommended, lead to the development of commitment scales based on internal and external cultural factors inherent within the selected organisations and countries. This therefore supposes that the above definition will lead to the effective development of a culturally fit scale for the conceptualisation and assessment of commitment in Nigeria.

The possibility of developing a suitable scale for the assessment of commitment depends on the accurate identification with key features, expressions, meanings and components of commitment and culture, synonymous to, and with, Nigerian society. These core commitment and cultural elements or key features originating from this review of literature from which the Nigerian organisational commitment scale will be developed are:

1. Emotional feelings: Loyalty, connectedness, belonging and involvement in organisations.
2. Employee desires and aspirations.
3. Limited job alternatives, sacrifices and costs associated with leaving the organisation.
4. Employee feeling of moral obligation towards organisation.
5. Collectivist and integrativist cultural components such as beliefs and values common within Nigerian society e.g.:
 - a. Collective and integrative ideas/beliefs of family systems as fundamental to employee loyalty (Ogbor and Williams 2003).
 - b. Expected loyalty from subordinates to superiors (Hofstede 2001, Okunoye 2003, and Obisanan and Onifade 2000).
 - c. Age and income (wealth) as evidence of social status (Eberegbulam 1990).

4.3.1 Connecting literature to research Questions

The rationale behind this research focus on the literature study is to enable for a successful conduct of a deductive research process aimed at not only exploring the theory of organisational commitment in Nigeria, but also to assist in exploring answers to the research question “How can employee commitment be effectively measured in Nigerian organisation?”

As noted in chapter 1, to address this research question, will mean to explore issues set out within the research objectives among which are

1. To explore and develop an appropriate understanding of employee commitment and differences between commitment components: Attitudinal, Continuance and Normative commitment concepts.
2. To explore and develop an appropriate understanding of the relevance of culture in conceptualising and measuring employee commitment in Nigeria.

The literature review starts by examining the various meanings attributed to the concept of organisational commitment from a historical and chronological order. It also explored the measurement of organisational commitment. The outcomes is that there are no universal definition on the concept of commitment as each study tend to define the concept based on what the researcher or the researchers' school of thought things commitment implies Allen (2003). To further explore on this find, the researcher sort the meaning of each definition of commitment from the views presented in Becker's (1960) works to that of Meyer and Allen (1991) and the outcomes seems to suggest that what was defined in most instances as commitment were indeed the definition of either or one of the components of commitment: attitudinal, normative and continuance commitment. Hence the identified difficulties in effectively measuring organisational commitment within organisations.

The above therefore leads to the search for the ways organisational commitment has been measured across organisations. Whereas the research found various commitment measurement scales to exist, from the early scale developed by Ritzer and Trice (1969), and Hrebaniak and Alutto's (1972) for the assessment of Becker's (1960) theory of commitment to that of Porter et al (1974), and to Meyer and Allen (1991) in which commitment was classified into three components. Just as the case was with the definition of commitment, the scales employed for the measurement of commitment were found to show some degree of inconsistencies when applied within non-Western culture as observed in Lee et al (2001), Guatam (2001) in Nepal, and Wasti (2001,2002) in Turkey.

The above find therefore provides the need for further study on the issues associated with the measurement of employee commitment in non-Western culture, considering that the research question aims at providing specific answer to and on "how employee commitment can be effectively measured in Nigeria (a non-Western culture). In exploring available research on this matter showed evidences that suggested that Western scale like that of Meyer and Allen (1991)

are indeed problematic and the possible solution therefore, is for a non-Western research to explore the meaning of commitment within the society in study and also identify with the predominant culture within the organisation/society and through such knowledge, develop scale items that will effectively measure commitment within such society (Lee et al 2001, Wasti 2001 and Allen 2003).

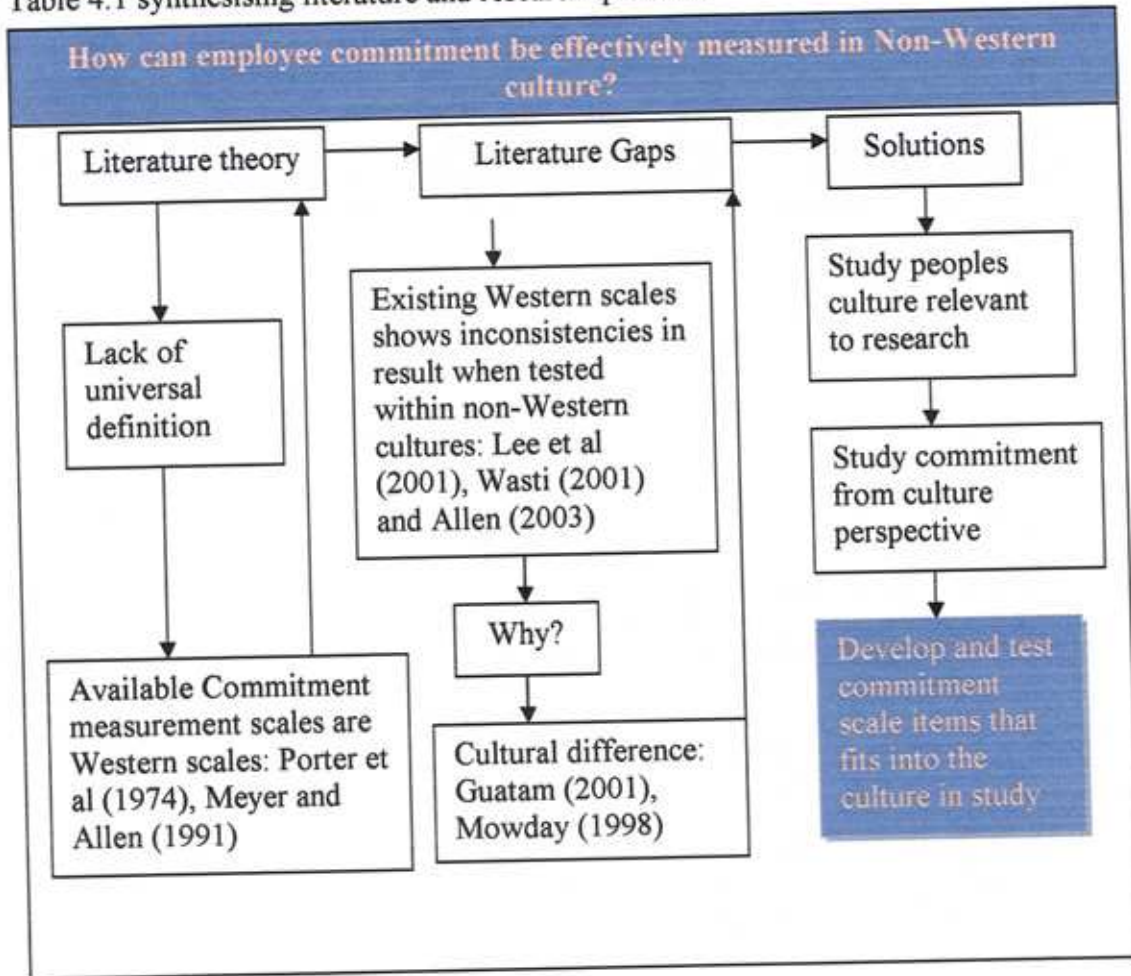
The literature thus summarised its study by providing theoretical knowledge/answer to the research question: How can employee commitment be effectively measured in Nigerian organisations?

The summary arising from the literature learning outcomes or findings is that employee commitment to their organisations can be effectively measured in the non-Western (Nigerian) organisations/society by researchers:

1. Seeking to establish knowledge of employee commitment study within the culture in study. In other words, a theoretical search into the meaning/definition of commitment
2. A search to establish, understand and know the meaning of the predominant culture within the society in study. This is necessary as evidence suggest that the knowledge of peoples culture is relevant in understanding why employees express commitment to their organisation the way they do (Lee et al 2001 and Allen 2003).
3. the knowledge of culture and commitment should thereafter lead to the development of effective scale for the assessment of organisational commitment within the society in question which on its part is a direct answer to this research question

Table 4.1 below, provides further insight into the literature review and its connection or summarised evidences that connects the literature to the research questions.

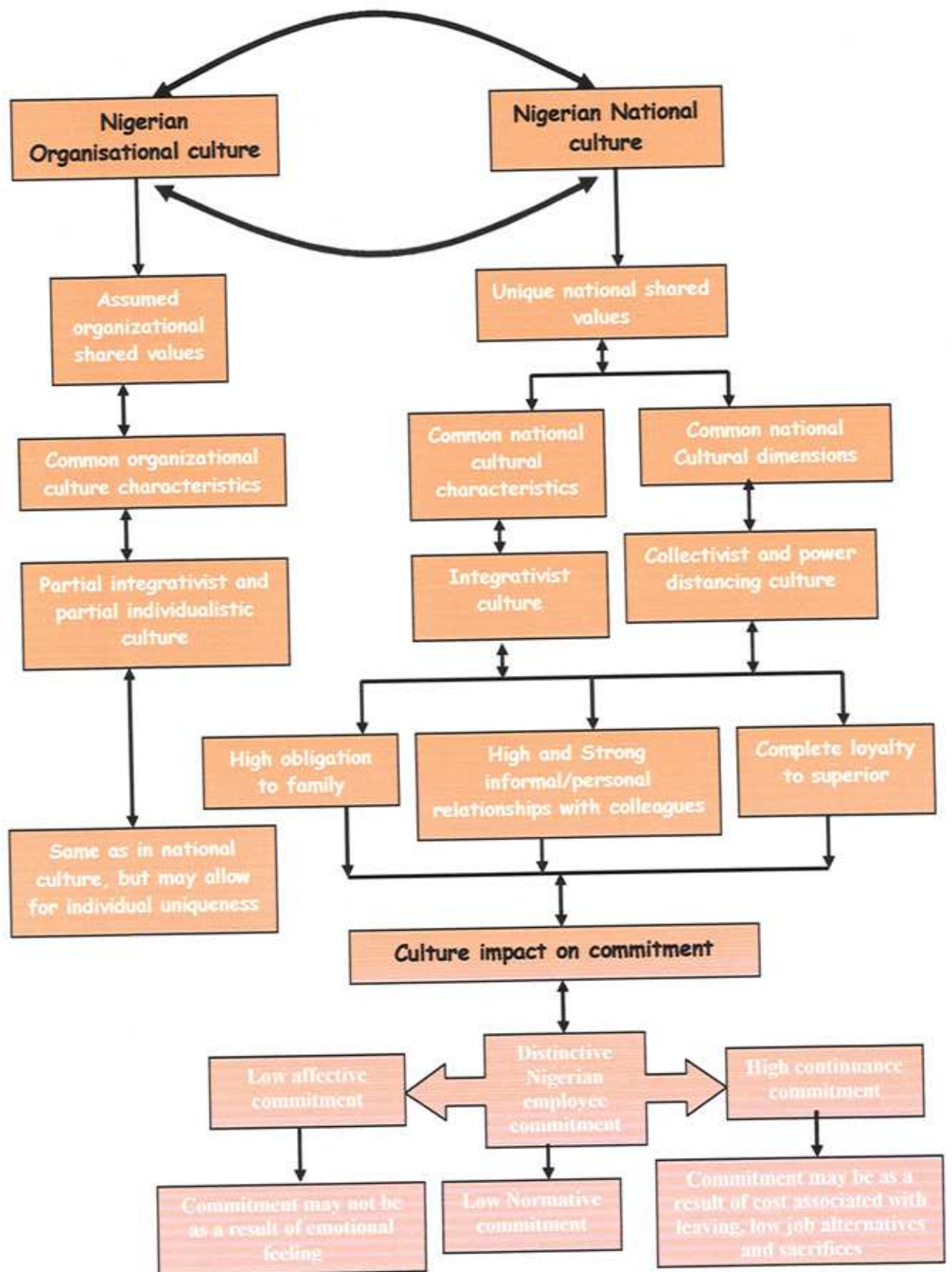
Table 4.1 synthesising literature and research question



The above table therefore provides the link or connection between the outcomes from the review of literature and the research questions. It is therefore the researcher's expectations that when the steps provided within this literature is followed; it will lead to effective conceptualisation and development of a suitable scale for the effective measurement of organisational commitment in Nigeria.

The integration of the above views and the previous components identified in section 4.3 will therefore lead to the emergence of an effective scale for the assessment of organisational commitment in Nigeria. Each scale item will therefore distinctively emerge as the Nigerian culture specific commitment scale item that will support the research aims and objectives and lead to an acceptable result to this research hypothetical assumption. This view is supported by outcomes of the literature study diagrammatically represented in Figure 4.1 below.

Figure 4.1: The Culture Specific Nigerian Employee Commitment Diagram



The above diagram (Figure 4.1) discussed in Chapter Four of this research, explains in pictorial form the possible differences between organisational and national culture and the relationship between culture and commitment. The key elements separating (differentiating) both types of culture are the degree of shared values held by members.

The model also represents an updated model of organisational commitment conceptualisation from the review of literatures. It shows how distinctive national culture can impact on employee commitment by producing a unique culture related or dependent type of commitment. Although this diagram was developed through the study of organisational and national culture and employee commitment in Nigeria and therefore may be argued as being distinctive to Nigeria, it indeed does not represent a model of commitment and culture contextualised to Nigeria only. It is contextualised from feedback and learning from the outcomes of the literature on commitment and culture. It therefore implies that the model could aid the development of scales for the assessment of organisational commitment within Nigeria.

Based on the above view points and outcomes originating from the theories studied above on the conceptualisation and measurement of employee expression of commitment to their organisations within non-Western culture, this research proposes that:

Hypothesis 1

This research employee commitment scale is a suitable (valid and reliable) scale for effective measurement of employee commitment in Nigeria.

Whereas the above hypothetical assumption will inform the basis to this research study, as this research will seek to develop a commitment scale and assess the reliability and validity of the scale. The developed non-Western scale originating from the previously discussed components must also be measured for its usefulness in assessing employee commitment behaviours. The study of the usefulness of the scale in assessing commitment behaviour will be conducted using the variables income (wealth) and age, found to be relevant in influencing employee expression of commitment to their organisations as studied and identified within this chapter in the works of Oloko (1973), Ebergbulam (1990) and Ogbor and Williams (2003). Therefore following the above argument that age and income not only determine individual employee social status within and outside the organisation but also the degree of or the extent of their commitment to their organisation, this research also hypothesises that:

Hypothesis 2

Nigerian high income earning employees are as committed to their organisations as their low income earning counterparts.

Hypothesis 3

Older Nigerian employees are more committed to their organisations than their younger counterparts.

In addition to the above, this study will also seek to uncover a possible relationship between the variables of employee income and age. This is important as studies from Obisanan and Onifade (2000) and Ogbor and Williams (2003) assumed that income (wealth) and age defines people's social status and may likely influence their degree of commitment to their organisations. It therefore seems most appropriate to seek to know if there are possible associations between the variables of income and age. Following such assumptions, this research also hypothesises that:

Hypothesis 4

Ho: There is no relationship between the variables of employee (participants') income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

Hi: There is a relationship between the variables of employee (participants') income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

Hypothesis 5

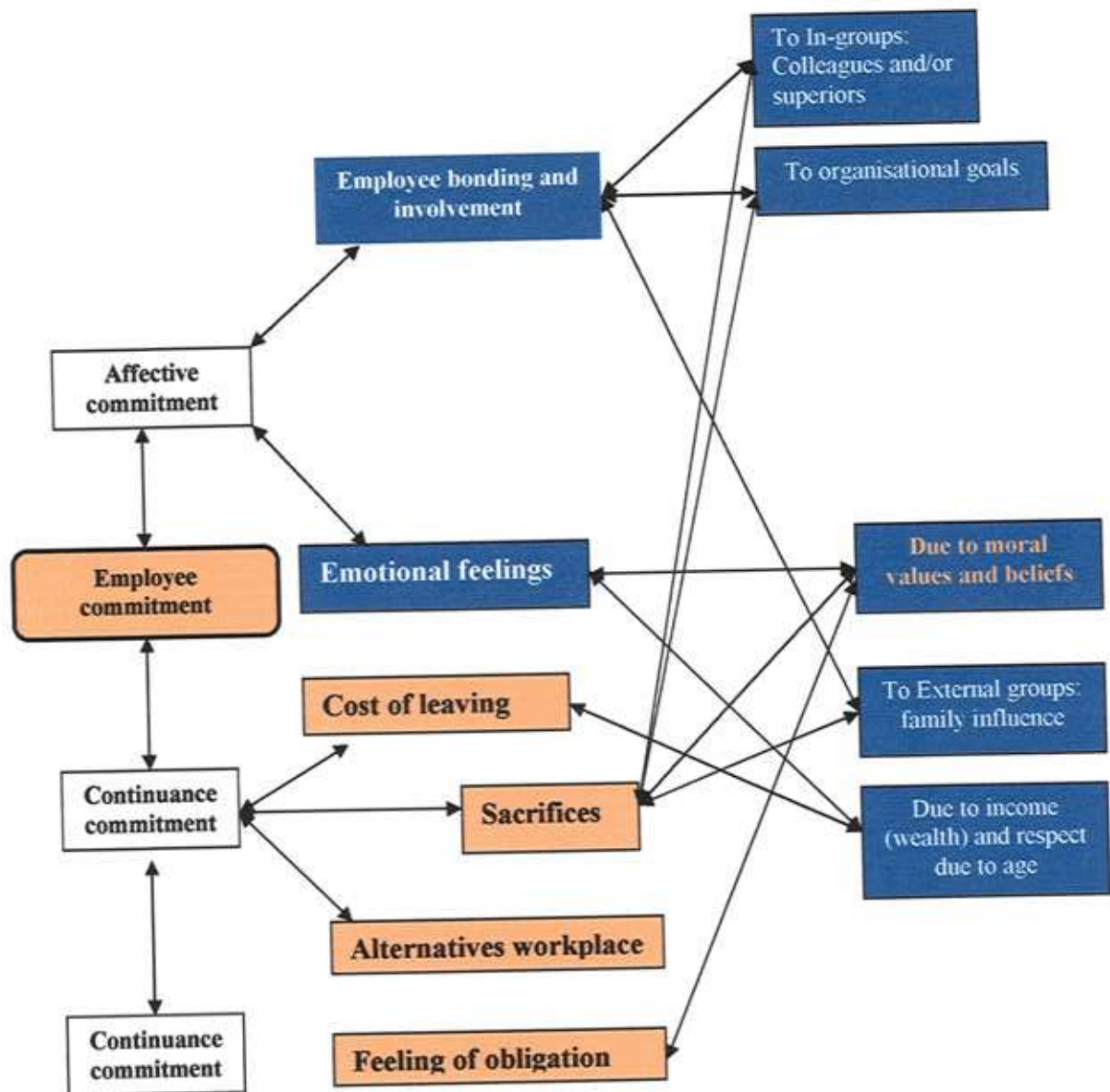
Ho: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are independent of each other.

Hi: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are not independent of each other.

Following the above hypothetical assumptions, the culture based commitment elements and commitment components previously discussed as areas of necessary scale items should specifically fit into the scale for the assessment of commitment in Nigeria as shown in Figure 4.2 below, reflecting elements required for successful commitment measurement scale development.

In other words, the general overview of the integrated culture based employee commitment in Nigeria will appear as shown in the diagrams/model of commitment below. The scale will include statements emerging from the components of commitment (attitudinal, continuance and normative commitment) and the basis (elements) of culture such as distinctive shared national values, beliefs, influence of social status such as age and income (wealth) and other psychological factors like employee's desires and aspirations respectively. The model also represents an updated model of organisational commitment conceptualisation from the review of this research literature. The model is therefore contextualised from the feedback and learning on the outcomes of the literature on commitment in Nigeria. It therefore implies that the model could be generalised to aid the development of scales in a cultural setting for the assessment of organisational commitment.

Figure 4.2 Adjusted Commitment Concepts Connecting Commitment to Two Factor Variables



4.4 Summary of Findings from the Review of Literatures

Although the conceptualisation and measurement of organisational commitment have been critically examined in Chapters Two and Three of this research, with the possible relationships existing between culture and commitment examined, the conclusions arising from this review is summarised below. This includes amongst other things that:

1. Firstly there exist varied definitions of employee commitment, with each definition aimed at interpreting or explaining what the researcher assumed commitment to mean.
2. Secondly the review also found that the measure of commitment in non-Western organisations is problematic and presumably the problem can be solved by understanding

the culture of the nation and organisation and by modifying any existing scale or by developing new scales that will fit into the culture of the concerned area or people being researched (Lee et al. 2001 and Wasti 2001 and 2003).

3. Thirdly, the review found that Meyer and Allen's (1991) views that organisational commitment is classified into components: Attitudinal, normative and continuance commitment, is indeed realistic and applicable to Nigerian circumstances, based on the outcome of Oloko's (1973) and Gbadamosi's (1995 and 2003) research. However, the third component (normative) may need items that are properly and carefully worded before it can be applied to Nigerian circumstances.
4. Fourthly, that while the definition of continuance commitment from Swailes (2004) is more acceptable to this research, that of normative and attitudinal commitment as given by Meyer and Allen (1991) is also adopted for this research. Therefore to have a generic definition that will aid the assessment of organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct (attitudinal, normative and continuance commitment) in Nigeria, this research developed its working definition of commitment by drawing from the strengths found in Meyer and Allen (1991) and Swailes (2004), among other definitions.
5. This review also found that generally, Nigerian employees as noted by Oloko (1973), Gbadamosi (1995 and 2003) and Ogbor and William (2003), will express commitment to their organisation if there will be no disruptions to their family life and as long as the organisation will serve as a source of income for the maintenance of the family system and its members' needs. In addition, it can also be argued that employees may show commitment if there are perceived long term or immediate benefits available to the employee from the organisation - if a member of the employee's family or someone they revere (e.g. godfather) has a stake or is involved with or in the organisation. Alternatively, if there are values or benefits the employee will lose by leaving the organisation (e.g. position of power and/or wealth). Therefore Nigerian employees will express high continuance commitment to their organisation on the basis of income and age as part of the factors that determine social status.
6. This study also found that based on the above (point number 5.) and the fact that Nigeria is a collectivist and integrative society with high power distancing, employees are likely to show high continuance and somewhat similar but lower affective commitment to their organisation as the focus of commitment is to first satisfy basic (physiological) needs.
7. The review also found in its study of Nigerian culture, that:
 - a. Symbolically titles, income (wealth) and age are essential parts of society and act as enablers of commitment for and by the holder. Also title could serve as an

instrument that distinguishes the individuals in authority from non-authority holders (Ogbor and Williams 2003). In addition, it is possible that the older employees may tend to express more commitment to their organisation than their younger counterparts due to the degree of family responsibility they have.

- b. Gender: The male gender is the head of the family and society, while the female counterpart is relevant within the society but more within the family system. The research found that traditionally, issues of gender (male and female in the workplace) are significant in understanding commitment in Nigeria due to cultural influences. This is because Nigerian male employees are less likely to express emotional feeling (attitudinal commitment) towards their organisation, while the females are more likely to do so - if they have the opportunity to work (Ehigie and Umoren 2003).

To further highlight and strengthen the findings from the literature, the researcher adopted a two-way approach as a process for the development and measurement of a culture-specific commitment in Nigeria. The first being to further review literatures on commitment in Nigeria and secondly, to develop a culture-based commitment scale on the above study and conduct a pilot study to assess the reliability of the scale developed from the literature and therefore validate the definition of commitment for further research which will seek to establish a relationship between commitment and national and organisational culture.

4.5 Chapter Summary

From the review of literatures it is understood that organisational commitment may not be effectively measured in Nigeria and other non-Western organisations without a definite understanding of national and organisational culture. Hence the study of culture (Nigerian) as a factor necessary in understanding and assessing commitment in Nigeria. This study was followed by a review of various literatures on organisational commitment in Nigeria. The study focused on the motives and outcomes from previous research on organisational commitment in Nigeria as conducted in the works of Oloko (1973) and Gbadamosi (1995, 2003) which informed this definition of commitment in Nigeria.

By reviewing literatures on organisational commitment in Nigeria and in view of other findings arising from this study, this chapter accepted Lee et al.'s (2001) views and recommendations that organisational commitment can be successfully measured by developing scales based on internal and external cultural factors inherent within the selected organisations and countries. This chapter also accepted Meyer and Allen's (1991) views that commitment measures or measurement scales must assess what is being defined as commitment. Hence the improvement

on the originally developed definition of commitment for this research, with the newer definition connecting with the core cultural and commitment issues originating from the literature findings. This therefore supposes that the definition will lead to the effective development of a culturally motivated scale for the conceptualisation and assessment of commitment in Nigeria.

Finally, the chapter outlined the findings from the review of literatures. The originality of this research and its intent, were also discussed.

Thereafter, this chapter developed the research model which will guide in developing the research scale and scale items for the effective assessment of organisational commitment in Nigeria. It also leads to the development of this research further study in the subsequent chapter on research methods and methodology, including the research scale items' development, aimed at arriving at accurate findings that support the literature outcomes.

Chapter Five
Research Methodologies and Methods

Chapter Five

Research Methodologies and Methods

5.0 Introduction

Generally the choice of a research philosophy is always informed by the nature and type of research one is conducting and also, where applicable, by the need to “employ research strategies most appropriate to the circumstances surrounding any given study” (Davidson 2001, p. 82).

This chapter explains the epistemological and methodological philosophies, strategies and methods surrounding this research. It also aims to explain the methods adopted in relation to the collection, compiling and analysing of data used in investigating the validity and reliability of the scale used and the research findings (Hinkin 1995). This chapter also contributes to closing the gap which exists in the literature on organisational commitment discussed in this research and therefore adds to original knowledge in the field of study.

The chapter therefore consists of sections including introduction, research philosophy, choice of research strategy and research methods of data collection and the validity of the methods employed. This also includes the methods of sample size and population selection and the methods of data analysis and tests of statistical significance amongst others. In simple terms, this chapter provides an overview of the direction followed in the research data collection and its analysis, the outcome of which is the identification of research findings that relate to the research’s original aims and objectives.

5.1 The Choice of this Research Philosophy

Research philosophies are theories that concern the best methods or ways to perceive our world and research into how we can better understand it (Trochim 2000, Ogba 2003). They are commonly classified as views from the positivists and/or the phenomenologists. Whilst the positivist uses logical (deductive: quantitative) processes to understand the world around us, the phenomenologist tends to adopt a theoretical (inductive: qualitative) approach (Ogba 2003). However the intent is to produce the most effective way to comprehend our world and serve as a source of causal knowledge (Trochim 2000).

Therefore, whereas the traditional deductive and “natural science” approach seems to be the dominant approach to research, arguments by some researchers support a shift towards a balanced approach, that is the adoption of both deductive and inductive philosophies in research (Tomkins and Groves 1983, Lee et al. 1999). Although this research will not dwell on such arguments, it is however important to emphasise that “the case for any research method, whether qualitative or quantitative, cannot be considered or presented in the abstract. This is due to the fact that the choice and adequacy of a method embodies a variety of assumptions

regarding the nature of knowledge and the methods through which that knowledge can be obtained, as well as a set of root assumptions about the nature of the phenomena to be investigated” (Morgan and Smircich 1980).

Therefore, the preference of a research philosophy is informed by the nature and type of study one is conducting and also, where applicable, by the need to use research technique that best supports the theories and circumstances surrounding individual study (Davidson 2001, Crotty 1998). This then implies that the choice of research philosophies and by extension, research strategies, should not be based on the arguments of the goodness of deductive against inductive or inductive over deductive, or necessarily on what method the research favours. However, it should be based on understanding and employing the most appropriate philosophy for the most appropriate research strategy and research methods. This is the approach adopted in this research with the research philosophical stance surrounding this study discussed below.

Supplementary discussion and arguments on philosophical issues surrounding choice of research strategy and philosophy can be found in Appendix 3.

5.1.1 The epistemology of this research

Epistemology is “the theory of knowledge embedded in the theoretical perspective and thereby in the methodology” of a research (Crotty 1998, p. 3). According to Gomm (2004, p. 2), epistemology is concerned with the quest of knowing. It poses to understand “the nature of reality and about the possibilities of knowing” and to inquire of what kind are the causes and the principles” (Ross 1994). This research epistemology is grounded in the theory of objectivism as discussed below.

5.1.1.1 What is Objectivism?

The epistemology of objectivism according to Crotty (1998, pp. 5-6) is “the epistemological view that things exist as meaningful entities independently of consciousness and experience, that they have truth and meaning residing in them as objects (objective truth and meaning therefore) and that careful (scientific) research can attain that objective truth and meaning.” However, this research is concerned with understanding knowledge as an objective proof of hypothetical statement/assumptions.

Objectivism as a “system of knowledge comes by interaction or innate mechanism, genetically determined by interaction with the social and physical environment” (Crotty 1998, p. 3). In other words, assumptions may never be proven and/or established as accurate or false; ‘knowledge/knowing’ (epistemology), (Gomm 2004) without undertaking a carefully planned, logical and impartial search to know and understand what is assumed as facts about the world around us. “This is the epistemology underpinning the positivist stance and also this research...and research done in the positivists’ spirit might select to engage in survey research

and employ the quantitative method of statistical analysis” Crotty 1998, p. 6), as discussed in this chapter.

5.1.2 Research theoretical perspectives: What is Positivism?

Many researchers in other fields of studies have attempted to identify the origins of the positivist approach to research and attach the name of the founder to it. According to Crotty (1998, p. 19), “the coining of the word ‘positivism’ is often attributed to Auguste Comte” although this view is questioned by some researchers who suggest that the practice of the positivist idea to research had been in practice years before Comte (Simpson 1982 and Crotty 1998), although such positivists also admit that Comte made the positivist idea more popular than any other researcher or philosopher of his time.

The fundamental idea behind positivism is summarised thus: An effort to study and arrive at “knowledge that is not arrived at speculatively but is grounded firmly and exhaustively in something that is posited. The bases of this kind (of research) are direct experience and not speculation. Therefore, rather than proceeding via some kind of abstract reasoning process, positivists proceed by the study of given (in Latin, in the singular) datum or (in the plural), data” (Crotty 1998, p. 20).

In fact a better explanation to Comte’s original view on positivism is captured in the words of Simpson (1982). Simpson (1982, p. 69) argued, “when Comte talks about positivism, it cannot too often be stressed that he means an attitude of mind towards science and the explanation of man, nature, society, and not some predilection for mathematical (too logical) precision” as some theorists tend to argue. Therefore, positivism from Comte’s view is the practise of research (search for true knowledge) with flexibility yet remaining homogenous. This also entails, as Simpson (1982, p. 78) argued, the use of an approach that centres on attitude of mind towards the search for facts or knowledge without being biased, but by using “methods whereby truth (facts)... can be established... observed, experimented and compared.” This is because, “no social fact can have any scientific (precise) meaning till it is connected with some other social fact; without such connection it remains a mere anecdote, involving no rational utility.” Moreover, the comparison he (Comte) suggests is multifaceted: It includes “cross-cultural comparison” Crotty (1998, p. 23), “characterised by (people’s) way of thinking” amongst other behavioural elements (Raymond Aron 1965, p. 70) as identified in this research.

The above views lay to rest the erroneous idea that positivism is too logical and inflexible to be used for a behavioural or socially based research. Although one of the reasons behind this thinking is that over the years the original concept of the approach (positivism) changed because it “has been passing from the hands of working scientists to those of theoretical scientists and philosophers” (Crotty 1998, p. 23), who have over the years interpreted positivism to suit their needs and fit into their kind of research choice and circumstances. This view does not rule out

the fact that some extremists believe in the rigid application of a logical and generalising process in pursuit of knowledge. However, in view of Comte's opinion, as accepted by the researcher, positivism (as it concerns the conduct of research) is a process of arriving at research conclusions through an organised and convincing process and not by mere assumptions (Crotty 1998).

This research therefore adopts a deductive point of view and positivism as its philosophical stance for organised research activities, strategies, analysis and research findings.

5.2 Issues of Research Methodology and Methods

5.2.1 The choice of research strategy

As earlier noted, the choice of a research strategy is always informed by the nature and type of research one is conducting. It also involves the need to understand and "employ research strategies most appropriate to the circumstances surrounding any given study" (Davidson 2001, p. 82). Therefore, a research strategy suitable for this study will be that which will not only recognise and accommodate this research's needs, but will be an effective research strategy that will aid the:

1. Development and use of scientifically tested facts, theories and hypothesis (Burns 2000), "raised towards what is being researched upon which finally leads to guiding" principles and standards applicable to such circumstances (Ogba 2003, p, 47).
2. Study behaviours in an organisational setting.

This is because the research is centred on conceptualising employee commitment and developing effective scale to measure certain employee (non-management employees) commitment (attitudinal, normative and continuance commitment) to their organisations, based on cultural influences (Meyer and Allen 1997, Lee et al. 2001 and Wasti 2001).

5.2.2 Justifying the suitability of quantitative strategy

As previously noted, the choice of a research strategy, methods and methodologies is always informed by the nature and type of research one is conducting. It therefore involves the need to appreciate and "employ research strategies most appropriate to the circumstances surrounding any given study" (Davidson 2001, p. 82). In view of this, the use of a qualitative strategy, for example a 'case study', in this research was considered; however, it was seen as completely inappropriate. This is because, firstly, the research involves, as earlier noted, the development and use of scales, scale items and measurement of data (Yin 1994 and Lee et al. 1999). Secondly, an accurate study of behaviour in an organisational setting requires that a considerable percentage of a population (a large number of participants) be involved. Thirdly, such study must reflect "the social context in which they were created and the practical concerns of their creators: not simply the authors, but the largest group of people whose actions produced

the theories” (Benson 1977, p. 16). This also implies that the research strategy must be that which allows for and accommodates a study on the behaviour of a large number of people (participants) in a given cultural setting without biases, without the influence/interference of an external body i.e. the researcher.

Fourthly, available literature shows that an appropriate strategy for understanding and measuring employee commitment to organisations must “take item (scale) appropriateness into account. The researcher can either write new construct-relevant, culture-appropriate items in the target language (organisation/country), or select from a large pool of items those that seem particularly appropriate for the culture in question... with responses to these new items subjected to...scrutiny and the factor structure of the new scale(s) examined” (Allen 2003, p. 512). This activity may not be perfectly conducted using qualitative i.e. non-numeric processes. Lee et al. (2001, p. 598) also specifically argued that the problem associated with the development of commitment measurement in non-Western organisations “presumably can be solved by improving...procedures...revision or substitution of scale items respectively...or revision of the measures” of organisational commitment which is most possible when a research strategy that is quantitative in nature is used.

The fifth factor that influenced the choice of this research strategy is the outcome of the researcher’s review of available literatures on employee commitment from 1960 to 2005. The study showed overwhelmingly that almost all the studies on organisational or employee commitment in Western and non-Western organisations from 1960 to date, seem to have been carried out using deductive approaches and survey research strategies (see Shepherd and Mathews 2000, Wasti 2002 and Koh and Boo 2004). In addition, Swailes argued, “commitment based on positive attitudes towards the organisation has become the dominant paradigm in the literature both as a desired outcome of HRM practices and as the most commonly used operationalisation in quantitative studies” (Swailes 2004, p, 188). Hence the need to further advance such positive efforts that have been tested over time and proven to be result-oriented, rather than adopting a non-tested and therefore unproved qualitative method that may offer significant errors.

Finally, Hinkin (1995, p. 968) argued that in developing research scale, every new scale used in organisational research should “measure must adequately and capture the specific domain of interest yet contain no extraneous content.” This fundamental principle requires the use of quantitative researches scales, (Stone 1978 and Hunt 1991) in generating scale items, to help conceptualise and measure organisational commitment successfully.

These arguments therefore justify the adoption of positivism, a deductive approach and the use of a quantitative research strategy in investigating organisational commitment in Nigeria.

Further philosophical and academic arguments on the choice of these research methods and methodologies can be found in Appendix 3 of this research.

5.2.2.1 What is Survey Research Strategy?

Unlike the qualitative research strategies and methods the quantitative research strategies and methods of data collection are commonly concerned with offering and exploring the relationship between two and/or more variables based on a hypothetical research statement. It is commonly argued that survey research has, over the years, remained amongst the most imperative tool for measurement-based research in organisational, applied and social science based research (Trochim 2002). According to Hutton (1990, p. 8):

“Survey research... is the method of collecting information by asking a set of preformulated questions in a predetermined sequence in a structured questionnaire to a sample of individuals drawn so as to be representative of a defined population.”

In line with Hutton’s definition, Rosier (1988) also argued “most surveys are based on samples of a specific target population-group of persons in whom interest is expressed.” Survey research therefore, according to Blaxter et al. (2001, p. 77) is:

“Associated as a research approach with the idea of asking groups of people questions.”

On a more practical perspective, Oppenheim (1966) defined survey research as:

“A form of planned collection of data for the purpose of description or prediction as a guide to action for the purpose of analysing the relationship between certain variables.”

Although this definition seems old-fashioned, it does however convey the actual meaning of survey research in modern times. This means that the definition sees survey research as an organised activity and not an ad-hoc exercise of attempting to collect any sort of information and/or data to arrive at any sort of result. Survey research can be executed in two ways, either by using a question-based interview which most of the time are amiable to qualitative research and not suitable for this research, or by using a quantitative questionnaire which is more positivist in nature as is the case with this research. It is most suitable for this research because it involves finding and establishing relationships between the various commitments and some culture and social variables like income and age as identified in this research’s literatures. A quantitative research survey questionnaire is therefore used in this research as a means of effective data collection, where ‘questionnaire’ refers to the method of data collection as discussed below.

5.3 Methods of Data Collection: Quantitative Survey (Questionnaire)

Quantitative research, as in the positivists’ approach, believes in logical conclusion and dispassionate research based results, which must be executed using scientifically tested facts,

theories and hypothesis (Burns 2000) “raised towards what is being researched upon which finally leads to a guiding law, rules and proved principles applicable to any circumstances” (Ogba 2003, p. 47).

“Questionnaires are the most commonly used method of data collection in field research” (Hinkin 1995, p. 967). They are like a door to the research field under study. Whether empirical activities investigated produce answers or not depends on the formulation of such questions. This research adopts and uses random quantitative survey in the form of a research questionnaire. However, in developing this research questionnaire (scale) a very rigorous and complex yet rewarding approach was adopted as discussed below. The aim was to develop a distinctive quantitative employee commitment measurement scale that fits into, and identifies with, employees’ cultural and other related circumstances and contributes to an organisation’s success in Nigeria as discussed in the literature chapters. The aim is also to advance and augment outcomes from similar researches within Western and non-Western organisations. It is important to note that a quantitative questionnaire as referred to in this study, relates to research statements in the form of scaling.

5.4 Research Scale Development

In planning for and developing of this research scale items, the purpose of the research was to develop a culture suitable scale that can be used in collecting and analysing data that will “provide extensive and authoritative body of factual information on practice in the workplaces (Millward, Bryson and Forth 2000, P. 14 xiv) this was fundamental to the decision on what items were to be included and why. According to Hinkin (1995, p. 967) “developing sound scales is a difficult and time-consuming process” therefore it requires standards and principles as a guide to the development and evaluation of the ‘soundness of measures’, with the outcomes depending on the accuracy and reliability of what is measured. In developing this research scale, the researcher was guided by the eight (8) step scale development processes outlined in Hair et al. (2003, p. 176).

The first step was to search literatures for the understanding and development of the meaning of commitment and identification of its components, as was also demonstrated in Allen and Meyer’s (1990a) approach to the development of their three component commitment scale in the USA and as discussed in chapters two and three of this research. Being that this research was aimed at developing scale suitable for the measurement of commitment in non-Western culture like Nigeria, the development of the Nigerian organisational commitment scale was therefore based on (1) the knowledge obtained from the review and modification of existing Western and non-Western scales like Meyer and Allen (1991), Lee et al (2001), Wasti (2001), and Guatam (2001). These scales items were reviewed in terms of structure and content leading to the 18 items scale employed for the research pilot study, see table 7.5, chapter seven.

Whereas the outcomes from the pilot study showed some degree of reliability, it was however evident that most items from the scale have strong similarity in terms of content and structure with Meyer and Allen (1991) scale and therefore have no uniqueness that will make it culturally suitable for Nigeria.

The reason for lack of distinctiveness could be based on the fact that the questionnaire (scale items) was developed by selecting and improving on a large pool of items from researchers like Porter et al. (1974), Meyer et al. (1993), Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) and Wasti (2001) amongst others, conducted in Western and non-Western culture. The selected items were modified and reworded but were not necessarily developed and structured to appropriately meet the cultural needs of the participants. Therefore to distinguish this research scale from Meyer and Allen's and that of other previous researchers, the key components or elements of culture relating to commitment arising from the theoretical study of commitment in Nigeria as discussed in chapters three and four were reviewed and integrated into the new scale to inform a new 28 items scale for the measurement of organisational commitment in Nigeria. These are issues associated with family pressures/influence on employee decision to express commitment to their organisations (Oloko 1973 and Gbadamosi 2001), values and beliefs in relation with power and authority and age and income as means of gaining social status (respect) in the society (Ogbor and Williams 2002). The "item's (scale) appropriateness was also taken into account, to make sure they were construct-relevant, culture-appropriate items" and that the selected items constituted good scale items for the research (Allen 2003, p. 512). The items therefore were assumed to represent items that tap into Nigerian employees' 'feelings' towards their organisations (Hinkin 1995, p. 969) as discussed in Chapters Three and Four of this research in that items that related to and with culture and commitment were items developed from opinions of participants in a telephone interview conducted by the research on what commitment and culture represents in Nigerian setting. The distinctiveness of the new 28 items scale is obvious, in that for example whereas Meyer and Allen (1991) and Wasti (2001) scale items explored the generic issues associated with attitudinal, normative and continuance components of commitment Their research failed to identify and integrate such influence that family may have on employees decision to express commitment to their organisation, or the influence that employees personal desire can have on members decision to maintain employment in such organisation. Hence the relevance of such items within this research scales like:

1. I will always remain in this organisation as long as my family life is not disrupted
2. I am loyal to this organisation because it cares for my family welfare and my health
3. Loyalty to my family is as important to me as loyalty to organisation

In addition to the above, the development of the research scale was on the basis of a series of decision rules that took into account:

1. The distribution of responses on the 7-point agree disagree scale for each item
2. Scale correlation
3. Content redundancy (Meyer and Allen 1997, p. 117).
4. The desire to include both positively and negatively keyed items (Hinkin 1995, Jackson et al. 1993 and Schriesheim and Hill 1981), in addition to the consideration of
5. Items fitness to Nigerian cultural values and beliefs as it applies to this study in terms of family influence on employee expression of commitment, the influence of colleagues among others and also
6. The distinctiveness of items in terms of its simplicity and understandability

The outcomes from the above as will be subsequently explored is as previously noted, the development of 28 items 7-point Likert scale questionnaire for the measurement of organisational commitment in Nigeria, with key distinctiveness in terms of its cultural suitability for the measurement of employee expression of commitment to their organisations as discussed earlier. The 28 items were developed based on the understanding that the items will indeed tap into the meaning and measure of commitment in Nigeria as expected.

A further detailed step-by-step development process was also adopted for the scale as discussed below.

5.4.1 Approach adopted in scale development

In practically developing the scale, Schwab's (1980) ideas of three stages of developing a valid and usable measurement scale was adopted for this research. These stages include the generation of scale items, the development of the research scale proper and the evaluation and/or assessment of the scale. First, the research approach to the development and assessment of commitment in Nigeria is based on the definition of organisational commitment as noted in Chapters Two, Three, and Four of this research "and in that way, the items in the scales differ from those of other theorists" in some ways (Midgley et al. 1998, p. 116), in that the new scale improved on the weaknesses and strengths found in such other scales (e.g. Porter et al. 1974 and Meyer and Allen 1991). It therefore identifies with the common culture of the Nigerian nation, organisations and employees. It also differs because it is a focused measure of commitment as a generic concept with components rather than with commitment antecedents and consequences.

5.4.2 Step-by-step process of scale items generation

The preparation and development of the scale items evolved through three different stages with sub-stages as outlined below.

The first stage of the process was the selection of the researcher's choice of organisations for the research. This involved a one-week visit to Nigeria, aimed at understanding organisational and employee work life. It also included a visit to the corporate headquarters of some of the organisations from 6th to 11th of January 2004. The outcome of the visit was the researcher's choice to use the industry sector and a selection of organisations within the banking sector for this research. This was based on the understanding that the sector and organisations within it represents the hallmark of the fast growing, well focused and publicly-quoted organisations in Nigeria. The researcher was also convinced that the use of these organisations would offer the research a broad coverage of the Nigerian working class whom this research is aimed at. It would also expose reliable information on the degree of employee commitment to their organisations in Nigeria.

The second stage was to contact the participating organisations. This stage commenced in August 2004 and remained an ongoing process until the conclusion of the research. The process involved communicating with the organisation, sharing of ideas and other collaborative efforts towards the success of the research. These activities helped the researcher build a deep and consolidated relationship and trust with the participating organisations.

Having completed a process of reviewing literatures, in which culture was identified as a significant element in understanding commitment and thereby aided the development of measurement scale in a non-Western organisation, the third stage in the scale development involved direct contact with participants used in developing and validating the research scale items. Participants were contacted mostly via electronic mail, person-to-person contact and by telephone calls. The actual process commenced on 8th September 2004 involving randomly selected participants. The participants included 12 Nigerian employees with a minimum of two year's work experience. The aim was to identify with their understanding of the meaning of commitment from a Nigerian perspective.

Based on the outcome of their feedback and that generated from the review of literatures, a version of the scale was developed in 2005. The draft scale items were further forwarded to four academics and experts in the fields of statistics and HRM in the University (Northumbria) for their professional advice, two of whom are PhD degree holders and the other two with specialist knowledge in scale development and measurement. Additional feedback was also received from three HRM consultants from Nigeria and comments from two HRM officers from the participating organisations. See appendix 2 for further account of scale item development.

5.5 Pilot Study

The first outcome from the scale development activities was the advance of an 18-item scale arranged in order of six items for attitudinal commitment (ACS), six items for continuance commitment (CCS) and six items for normative commitment (NCS) and to be responded in a 7-

point Likert-type scale. To assess the validity and reliability of this scale as a suitable scale for the measurement of commitment in Nigeria, a pilot study was conducted. See Chapter Seven of this thesis for a detailed report on the research pilot study and its outcomes

5.6 Deciding on the Number of Scale Items and Item Size

Following the outcomes from the pilot study and feedback from the research supervisory team and literature review outcomes, it was acknowledged that the scale needed further improvement to help integrate some basic cultural elements that would make the scale culturally specific and suitable for Nigeria. Therefore, to accommodate these fundamental findings, the scale was redesigned and improved. The final challenge in improving the scale was to strengthen it as discussed, in other words, to make the scale a more culture specific scale. This resulted in developing a commitment scale with additional scale items. The process and outcome of the new scale used for this research is further discussed below.

5.6.1 The new scale

In deciding on and selecting the scale item and item size, the number of items to be included in the new scale and the associated problems with having a large scale size were clearly considered. This was necessary as the size of a scale (that is the number of items in a scale and its length) may possibly impinge on or positively motivate scale responses. These concerns, if neglected, may affect the scale's validity and reliability (Hinkin and Schriesheim 1989 and Hinkin 1995). Therefore Porter et al.'s (1974), Meyer et al.'s (1993), Iverson and Buttigieg's (1999) and Wasti's (2001) scale items were revisited with an understanding that although a longer scale may impinge on scale response, the richness of a scale is also necessary for validity to take place.

In view of the above development and the fact that this research is intended to be a quantitative research from a positivist stand point, an interval rating metric Likert scale was developed. For the scale to be culture specific, the items were broadened and increased to inform the new twenty eight (28) items Likert scale, see table 5.1 below. The scale was divided into three broad scale items representing each component commitment; attitudinal, continuance and normative components of commitments and seven subscales scales of commitment factors. These include 16 out of the 18 original scale items developed to generically assess commitment in Nigeria (a scale used for the pilot study) and 12 additional items developed to make the study more culture specific. For example, such item's attempts to assess employee commitment to their organisation in relation to employee personal desires and aspirations, family pressures and loyalty to friends and superiors (power distancing).

Apart from the 16 generic commitment items developed to assess attitudinal, continuance and normative commitment components, the other culture related commitment factors were divided into three items for personal desires, three for family loyalty, three for loyalty to colleagues and

friends and three items for commitment to superiors for a total of 12 new items. The intent is for the scales to help capture and effectively assess the components of employee commitment from a cultural perspective and help inform the degree to which Nigerian employees are committed to their organisations.

The new interval rating 7 point Likert (1932) type commitment scale is to be responded to on a scale of one to seven “to indicate the extent of participants’ agreement or disagreement with a given statement (Hair et al. 2003, p. 156), where seven represents ‘very strongly agree’, six represents ‘strongly agree’, five represents ‘agree’, four ‘neither agree nor disagree’, three ‘disagree’, two ‘strongly disagree’, and one ‘very strongly disagree’, see Appendix 1. The purpose of this improved method is to offer the respondents with more choice and help capture their feelings towards their organisations and provide room for the assessment of the scale’s validity and reliability (Hinkin 1995).

5.6.2 The suitability of the new scale items

Although the newly improved commitment scale items were not part of the result from the pilot study because they were not developed at the time the pilot study was conducted, the scale items assessing employee continuance, normative and attitudinal commitment were all used for the pilot test for scale reliability and validity. The new items in the scale as earlier noted originated from the outcomes of the pilot study and some literature review outcomes. In view of this fact the researcher adopted a new approach to help assess the suitability of the scale and its new items. The process of its development was not only rigorous as discussed above, but also involved the matching of each scale item to commitment and culture components as found and developed in the literature. This exercise is found in Table 5.1 below.

The table below therefore was developed in order to show the relationships and the connectedness between items in the scale and the outcomes from the theoretical review of various literatures on employee commitment and culture (organisational and national culture) specific to Nigeria. It was also developed to support the views available within literatures that show that an appropriate strategy for the understanding and measuring of employee commitment to organisations must “take item (scale) appropriateness into account. Researchers therefore can either write new construct-relevant, culture-appropriate items in the target language (organisation/country), or select from a large pool of items, those that seem particularly appropriate for the culture in question... with responses to these new items subjected to...scrutiny and the factor structure of the new scale(s) examined.” (Allen 2003, p. 512). This research adopted both approaches as explained above in arriving at the research scale items.

Scale Items	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Type/meaning of commitment to be measured	Component of commitment	Culture dimension	Culture characteristic
Commitment due to bonding and involvement											
1. I consider myself an integral part of this organisation.								Strong feeling of connectedness	Degree of Employee Affective Commitment	Individual cultural factors	Differentiationists
2. What occurs in this organisation emotionally affects me								Strong emotional attachment	Degree of Employee Affective Commitment	Individual cultural factors	Differentiationists
3. I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation.								Strong feeling of connectedness	Degree of Employee Affective Commitment	Individual cultural factors	Differentiationists and individual factors
4. This organisation mean so much to me								Strong emotional attachment	Degree of Employee emotional Commitment	Individual cultural factors	Differentiationists
Commitment due to continuance pressures											
5. My life would be very much disrupted if I decided to leave my organisation now.								High cost of leaving organisation	Degree of Employee Continuance Commitment	Collectivism	Differentiationists/ Integratationist
6. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.								Employee High sacrifice to organisation	Degree of Employee Continuance Commitment	Collectivism	Differentiationists/ Integratationist
7. Leaving this organisation now is difficult for me as there are limited available alternatives.								Limited available alternative	Degree of Employee Continuance Commitment due to lack of job alternative	Collectivism	Differentiationists/ Integratationist
8. I cannot leave this organisation now because there is no guarantee that other places will be								Limited/Lack of Job guarantee	Degree of Employee Continuance	Collectivism	Differentiationists/ Integratationist

Scale Items	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Type/meaning of commitment to be measured	Component of commitment	Culture dimension	Culture characteristic
better than this organisation.									Commitment due to lack of job guarantee		
9. It is difficult to leave this organisation now as I don't want to start from scratch at another organisation								High cost of leaving organisation	Employee Continuance Commitment due to cost of leaving	Collectivism	Individual cultural factors
10. Staying with this organisation now, is a matter of necessity.								Employee Commitment to organisation due to need factors	Employee Continuance Commitment (Needs)	Collectivism	Individual cultural factors
Commitment due to emotional and moral feelings											
11. I would feel guilty if I leave this organisation now.								Employee moral obligation	Employee Normative Commitment (Moral/Oblig)	Collectivism	Integratonomist
12. Moving from one organisation to another does not seem right to me.								Employee moral feelings	Employee Normative Commitment (M/feelings)	Collectivism	Integratonomist/ Socialcultural factors
13. I believe that loyalty is important, actually, this organisation deserves my loyalty								Employee moral obligation due to beliefs	Employee Normative Commitment (M/beliefs)	Collectivism	Integratonomist/ Socialcultural factors
14. I do feel a moral obligation to remain in this organisation								Employee moral feelings	Employee Normative Commitment (M/Feelings)	Collectivism	Integratonomist/ Socialcultural factors
Commitment due to personal desires and aspirations											

Scale Items	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Type/meaning of commitment to be measured	Component of commitment	Culture dimension	Culture characteristic
15. I desire to achieve my aspiration in this organisation.								Strong personal desires	Employee Affective (desires) Commitment	Collectivism	Differentiationists/ Individual cultural factors
16. I cannot leave this organisation now because I have great prospect here								Strong personal desires	Degree of Employee Attitudinal Commitment	Collectivism	Differentiationists/ Individual cultural factors
17. I feel more involved in the pursuit of this organisations goal as my personal goals and aspirations.								Strong personal attachment to organisation	Degree of Employee Attitudinal (attachment) Commitment	Collectivism	Integratationist
Commitment to organisation due to family influence											
18. I will always remain in this organisation as long as my family life is not disrupted								Strong commitment attachment to organisation due to family	Employee Normative Commitment	Collectivism	Integratationist
19. I am loyal to this organisation because it cares for my family welfare and my health.								Strong attachment to organisation due to family	Employee Normative Commitment	Collectivism	Integratationist
20. Loyalty to my family is as important to me as loyalty to organisation								Employee moral obligation due to internal family normative pressure (loyalty to family)	Employee Normative Commitment	Collectivism	Integratationist/ socio-cultural factors
Commitment to organisation due to internal											

Scale Items	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Type/meaning of commitment to be measured	Component of commitment	Culture dimension	Culture characteristic
influence: colleagues											
21. I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.								Employee obligation due to internal normative pressure (loyalty to group)	Employee Normative Commitment	Collectivism	Integratonomist/ socio-cultural factors
22. I feel devoted to my colleagues in this organisation more than the organisation itself								Employee obligation due to internal normative pressure (loyalty to group)	Employee Normative Commitment	Collectivism	Integratonomist/ socio-cultural factors
23. I will not leave this organisation now because it will make me lose my friends								Employee continuance and feeling of obligation due to internal pressure (loyalty to individual and/or group)	Employee Continuance and Normative Commitment	Collectivism	Integratonomist/ socio-cultural factors
Commitment to organisation due to internal influence: superiors											
24. I cannot leave this organisation now because someone here has considerable influence over my decision to leave								Employee feeling of obligation due to internal pressure (loyalty to individual)	Employee Normative Commitment	Collectivism	Integratonomist
25. My feeling towards this organisation is dependent on my personal relationship with my boss								Employee feeling of obligation due to internal pressure (loyalty to individual)	Employee Normative Commitment	Collectivism And high power distancing	Integratonomist

Scale Items	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Type/meaning of commitment to be measured	Component of commitment	Culture dimension	Culture characteristic
26. I give my loyalty to this organisation when it is demanded by my superiors								Employee feeling of obligation due to internal pressure (loyalty to individual: superior)	Employee Normative Commitment	Collectivism And high power distancing	Integrationist

Table 5.1: Scale items connection to commitment and culture

5.7 The Role of the Research Method

The role of the random quantitative survey research questionnaire approach (method) as found in the above process of scale development for data collection is therefore to assist in collecting the most appropriate data from the participating sample size of the research population; an exercise aimed at generating the data needed for the research statistical test. By using the above quantification methods of quantitative survey, this study will remain focused and will enrich the quality of the research for a generalising outcome. This is because, “what is of importance in understanding particular research practices” is to appreciate the “methods and processes used in the successful conduct of the research” and how they indeed fit into what is being researched, (Cassell and Symon 2004, p. 2). The strategy, as Robson (1993, p. 150) suggests, consists of developing:

1. “A conceptual framework (research model)”, already discussed in the preceding theoretical studies (review of literature), leading to the development of the research definition of commitment with the key elements identified for the development of a set of research questions/hypothetical assumptions.
2. Appropriate methods and scale for data collection, already discussed above.
3. The statistical analysis of data collected and the sampling strategy as discussed below.

5.8 Methods of Research Statistical Analysis and Measurement

“Statistical analysis is undertaken to identify patterns that are not as easy to see in the data. This is often the case when very large amounts of data need analysis” (Proctor 1997, p. 197). The researcher’s choice of data analysis was influenced by Meyer and Allen’s (1991) and Kaplan’s (2004) views on measurement validity and reliability. Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that every tool or instrument used or developed with the intent of assessing organisational commitment must be able to assess what was defined in the literature of such research as commitment.

Kaplan (2004) concludes that such measures require that the right interpretation is given to what is being measured and this is possible when, for example, “researchers report estimates of reliability coefficients and other parameters for their own data, rather than relying on published reports from other data” (Kaplan 2004, p. 75). On the issues of valid assessment of the definition being used, he argued that actual interpretation should be given on the actual word being used with deference made on the various meanings that exists.

In view of the above facts and in consideration of outcomes from this research review of literature on the meaning of commitment and similar researches that have used the method in assessing commitment, (e.g. Mayer et al. 1997 and Lee et al. 2001), this research is not only designed to

assess commitment in Nigeria, but also to take all the essential steps towards producing a more valid and reliable research outcome. As Flick (1998, p. 53) suggested “the essential criteria for evaluating research questions include not only their soundness and clarity, but also whether they can be answered in the framework, given the limited resources.” In addition, Blaikie (2001) argued that to obtain validity and reliability from research, there is the need of developing hypothesis or research questions that will test what was established in the literature and also provide possible correlation between discovered and or existing variables.

This research is therefore developed to focus on using appropriate statistical tools in providing answers to the following research questions.

5.8.1 The research questions

In line with the understanding that research questions or hypotheses are tentative assumptions made in order to identify, test and provide answers to what a researcher discovered as existing gap in literature or what the researcher uncovered in review of literature as problem under study, Zikmund, (1997). This research will test and attempt to provide answers to this research question:

How can employee commitment be effectively measured in Nigeria using a culture motivated commitment scale?

The need to provide empirically valid and consistent answers to this question is based on the findings that a scale used for the purpose of measuring a concept, developed as a result of a review of literature, must indeed be a scale that should be consistent. That is, such a scale must be tested to confirm that it is indeed measuring what it is intended to measure and that it is tapping into the concept in the study for a better understanding (Hinkin 1995, Lee et al. 1999). Therefore, the knowledge of the correctness of a scale will never exist until its reliability and validity is ascertained. Hence the development of the above questions supported by the following research hypotheses aimed at validating the scale and also proving the relevance of the scale in a successful study of employee commitment in Nigeria.

5.8.2 The research hypotheses

The following statements will inform these research hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

This research employee commitment scale is a suitable (valid and reliable) scale for effective measurement of employee commitment in Nigeria.

Whereas the first hypothesis originates from the research question mentioned earlier, the second, third and fourth hypotheses arose as a result of the need to take the research scale a step further, so

as to prove the scale usability for a successful study of employee commitment behaviour. This research will therefore subject the following hypothetical assumption to test using two variables: income and age found in the literature as relevant cultural factors within the collectivist Nigerian society. The following hypotheses will therefore be tested.

Hypothesis 2

Nigerian high income earning employees are as committed to their organisations as their low income earning counterparts.

Hypothesis 3

Older Nigerian employees are more committed to their organisations than their younger counterparts.

In addition to the above, this study will also seek to uncover a possible relationship between employee income and age which was discussed in the literature as variables that defines people's social status in Nigeria. This will be tested using the following suppositions

Hypothesis 4

Ho: There is no relationship between the variables employee (participants) income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

Hi: There is a relationship between the variables employee (participants) income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

Hypothesis 5

Ho: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are independent of each other.

Hi: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are not independent of each other.

Therefore the research questions and hypotheses are aimed at taking the study a step further in other to conceptualise and test Nigerian employee commitment behaviour towards their organisations, using variables like employee income and age. It will aim at studying employee methods or patterns of expressing loyalty to their organisation in line with their income and age differences in a collectivist power distancing and integrativist culture.

The following paragraphs provide a clear picture of how this research instrument will be used to answer the above research questions and test hypotheses by extracting factors, testing validity and reliability of the scale and analysis of employee commitment behaviours in Nigeria. In discussing these, this section will attempt to provide a general overview of measurement and scaling.

5.8.3 Measurement issues a theoretical perspective

5.8.3.1 What is a measurement scale?

By scale, this research means, as Wolman (1973, p. 333) defined “any series of items that are progressively arranged according to value or magnitude; a series into which an item can be placed according to its quantification.” “In other words, a scale is a continuance spectrum or series of categories, the purpose of which is to represent, usually quantitatively, an item’s person’s or event’s place in the spectrum” (Zikmund 1997, p. 330). Measurement scales include: Nominal, Ordinal, Interval and Ratio scaling.

5.8.3.2 Nominal scale

Nominal scale as simplified in Zikmund (1997, p. 331) is “a scale in which the members or letters assigned to the object serve as labels for identification or classification.” The letter or member is therefore identical or synonymous or is known to represent that to which it is assigned.

5.8.3.3 Ordinal scale

Ordinal scale on its part is “a scale that is arranged in an ordered relationship.” In other words, it is like arranging objects or elements or members in chronological order. As we know, (A) comes before (B) and (C), and (1) before (2), (3), (4) and (5) etc. However the ordinal scale is less concerned with the issues of scale intervals. A good example is where research participants (respondents) are required to respond to a research questionnaire in order of choice, such as: Very good, good, fair and poor, etc.

5.8.3.4 Ratio scale

Ratio scale, unlike the ordinal scale, is concerned with quantification and identification/assignment of absolute (complete) numbers even to zero numbers and intervals to an object(s) of study.

5.8.3.5 Interval scale

Unlike the ratio scale, the interval scale is a “scale that arranges objects according to their magnitude and also distinguishes this ordered arrangement in units of equal intervals.” (Zikmund 1997, p. 332).

In summary therefore, while nominal scale concerns itself with counting (using frequency), ordinal scale is concerned about ranking (non-metric; using mean, median and percentage ranking), while Interval and ratio involves the arithmetic operations focused with order relative magnitude, (metrics scale; using standard deviation and variance and actual qualities using geometric means and coefficient of variance respectively).

5.8.4 What are the types of scale?

As noted above, there are basically two types of scale. They are the metric and the non-metric scale.

5.8.4.1 The metric scale

The metric scale, as its name implies, is the quantitative or arithmetic scale. The interval and ratio scales are all part of the metric scale. The metric scale is subdivided into:

Summated rating scale (Likert scale), numerical scale, semantic differential and graphics scale. While this research is not intending to explain or enter into a detailed discussion on these scale types, it will state that the Likert (1939) scale which may be of interest to this study, is the most common scale used by quantitative researchers and it is a scale that like the summated scale, “attempts to measure attitudes or opinions, typically using a 5, 7, or higher point scale to assess the strength of agreement about a group of statements. When you sum the scales for all the statements, it is referred to as a summated rating scale, whilst, when you use the scale individually, it is referred to as Likert scale” (Hair et al. 2003, p. 158).

5.8.4.2 Non-metric scale

The non-metric scale, or simply the qualitative or comparative scale which nominal and ordinal scales are part of, includes categorical, rank order, sorting, constant sum and paired comparison scales. It is mostly suitable for qualitative research and as with the metric scale this study will not go further into understanding or discussing its components, characteristics and features.

5.8.5 The validity and reliability of measurements

Before adopting and/or developing a measure, it is also necessary to consider other issues relating to the validity of such measures. This is because a valid measure facilitates the outcomes of a research and establishes the research reliability, consistency and acceptability. According to Carmines and Zeller, (1979) measures are assessed for their validity and reliability, and through the tests of reliability and validity; ...instruments are verified as a good measurement tool (Wing and Lui 2001). Consequently, validity, be it criterion-related, content, construct, convergent, discriminant and/or the face validity criteria (Price 1997), “should be sought prior to establishing reliability, since having a reliable measure that does not capture the concept will not aid in building theory” (Price 1997, p. 307).

5.8.5.1 What is Validity?

There are diverse criterion of research and “in many ways the most important criterion of research is validity...concerned with the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research” (Bryman and Bell 2007, p. 41). Various researchers (Neely 1999, Lee 1999 and Price 1997) suppose that a research instrument or scale may be unsound unless it has the capability of proving to have answered, captured and/or gained the attention of the idea(s); questions, thought, assumptions, perception, and/or impression it is intended or planned to assess. Therefore the most

useful way to ascertain the soundness of a research scale would be to test for its validity. In other words, to check for the credibility, dependability, transferability and or conformability of the scale employed in the research. In this instance to check for the trustworthiness of the proposed organisational commitment scale for Nigeria. Such test or assessment for validity can be carried out in many ways including the three main types of validity, which are (1) Measurement Validity (2) Internal validity and (3) External validity

5.8.5.1.2 Measurement Validity

Measurement validity is one of the main validity criterions that “primarily apply to quantitative research and to the search for measures of social scientific concepts” (Bryman and Bell 2007, p. 41). The criterion aims at assessing the soundness of an instrument developed to measure a concept in social science. In other words, it is used in proving the suitability of a scale that is, whether the scale developed for measurement like the proposed organisational commitment scale in Nigeria actually reflects organisational commitment within the non-Western country (Nigerian) context. Centrally the measurement validity aims at proving and answering such questions as, “is the measure being used in measuring a phenomena or concept actually measuring what it is said to be measuring?”

The usefulness of measurement validity in the light of the above cannot be over emphasised bearing in mind that part of the criticisms levelled against some of the existing commitment scales like Porter et al (1974) is that when the scales are tested, they tend to lack evidence that supports the measures as “corresponding to the definitions being applied” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 61). It is therefore useful to suggest that in studying a concept and developing instrument(s) for its assessment, the validity of such instrument, in this instance the ability to understand how the scale represents what is actually being measured, can be ascertained through the conduct of Measurement validity. Therefore if measurement validity is to be employed in this research, it will focus on establishing whether the scale is indeed tapping into and measuring organisational commitment in Nigeria.

5.8.5.1.3 Internal validity

Internal validity on its part, “is concerned with the question of whether a conclusion that incorporates a causal relationship between two or more variables holds water” (Bryman and Bill 2007, p. 41). In other words, internal validity seeks to establish the soundness of an association found or assumed to exist between two or more researchable variables employed in a study as

presented in a research conclusion. This means that for instance, if this research in its findings, established a possible relationship between income, age and commitment, and needs to ascertain and establish the validity of such relationship, it will employ internal validity. The central focus of internal validity in this instance will be to establish that the identified contributory or fundamental relationship between the variables is authentic and therefore the researcher should be rest assured that the result is sound.

5.8.5.1.4 External validity

Unlike measurement and internal validity, external validity is concerned with establishing the generalisation of a research outcome. In other words, it is concerned with “whether the results of a study can be generalised beyond the specific research context” (Bryman and Bill 2007, p. 42). Applying the above to this research, external validity, will seek to establish for instance, that this research outcomes (whatever it will be) can or is applicable beyond the established research framework.

5.8.5.2 What is Reliability?

The most common explanation of reliability is to use the word ‘consistency’, which is a synonym for reliability. Reliability is:

“The extent to which a measure produces the same result(s) when used repeatedly” (Price 1997, p. 307).

In a simple comparison, it can be said that reliability is the degree to which the appraised or assessed phenomenon produces or offers generalising and dependable results continuously. According to Zikmund (1997, p. 334), reliability is:

“The degree to which measures are free from random errors and therefore yield consistent results.”

5.8.5.3 Reliability dimensions

The concept of reliability has two dimensions to its conceptualisation and applications. On one hand is its repeatability and on the other is its internal consistency. The repeatability dimension simply attempts to answer the question of how possible it is to “administer the same scale or measure to the same respondents at two separate points in time to test for stability (Test-retest method)” (Zikmund 1997, p. 334). The stability and consistency of the scale or measure is arrived at when the results of the first and second tests show some degree of similarity. While this method is good it sometimes proves very difficult as respondents may not necessarily remember what their response was immediately after the research.

The second reliability dimension which deals with the issue of internal consistency concerns itself with identifying the “homogeneity of the measure” (Zikmund 1997, p. 335). In order to explain the idea behind the second reliability dimension, Zikmund (1997, p. 335) argued that, for example, “to measure the internal consistency of a multiple item measure, scores on subsets of the items within the scale must be correlated.” Generally, the search for scales’ internal consistency would either be conducted using the Split-half method or by using the equivalent-form method (Bryman and Cramer 2001).

The split-half method involves the division of a result from a research scale or measure into two equal portions, with the results obtained from one portion used to check the result from the other to ascertain if there is a correlation between them. For example, the result from a commitment scale could be divided into attitudinal, continuance and normative components with each result used to check the other.

The internal consistency measure also includes, as mentioned earlier, the equivalent-form method which according to Zikmund (1997, p. 334) is “a method that measures the correlation between alternative instruments, designed to be as equivalent as possible, administered to the same group of subjects.” It is therefore expected that outcomes from the two or more alternative instruments (scales) should show high correlation for reliability to be established, otherwise, there will be a reliability problem (Bryman and Cramer 2001). In brief, Bryman and Cramer (2001, p. 63) conclude that “internal reliability is particularly important in connection with multiple-item scales. It raises the question of whether each scale is measuring a single idea and hence whether the items that makes up the scales are internally consistent.

Therefore an acceptable and usable measure must offer consistency in outcomes and must be dependable (reliable) and capable of capturing or gaining the attention of the idea(s): Thought, assumption, perception and/or impression which it is intended or planned to assess or quantify (Neely 1999 and Lee 1999). A good and acceptable measure should also have and consider issues of validity to be attained as they help to identify the processes of developing effective measures used in assessing organisational performance, including employee commitment to their organisations (Neely 1999).

5.8.6 Problems of measurement

Developing effective measures is often difficult and time consuming. It can also offer misleading information thereby giving erroneous data for decision making. Problems associated with measurement are vast and may include poor definition and poor design of measure amongst others (Lee 1999).

5.8.6.1 Poor definition

As noted above, one of the common weaknesses of measures is that "...measures are... often poorly defined. It is not unusual to observe two people heatedly arguing over some dimension of performance and later find that the root cause of their disagreement was the imprecise definition of a measure" (Neely 1999, p. 206). For instance, when commitment is ill defined, or there is lack of consensus leading to poor definition of commitment as observed in the previous chapter, the result will be "the use of measures of commitment that does not always correspond to the definitions being applied (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 61). Therefore, "the appropriateness of the measures can be questioned on both conceptual and empirical grounds" (Wasti 2002, p. 526). Hence the importance of having a proven definition void of errors in developing valid and reliable measures.

5.8.6.2 Poor measurement design

According to Santos et al. (2002) "It is widely recognised that poorly designed...measurement systems can seriously inhibit the implementation and, consequently, ultimate impact on measurement outcome" (Santos et al. 2002, p. 1248). If a definition is specific and accurate and the design of the measure (measurement scale) lacks focus or is outside the framework, results could be hampered. It is vital therefore to fully realise the importance of developing appropriate measurement frameworks designed with the research context and developed to "integrate balanced and strategically driven...measurement systems..." (Santos 2002, p. 1249).

Informed from these views, Santos et al. (2002) argued that the effective management of the problems associated with the definition and design of measurement, and the identification of appropriate measures...can be significantly assisted if the relationships among measures are mapped and understood" (Santos et al. 2002, p. 1249). Therefore while there are still genuine problems with lack of consensus with the definition of organisational commitment due to poor definitional problems as found in Chapter Two of this research. There are possibilities that also that the problem of developing the right measurement scale may still remain unsolved (Maltz et al. 2003).

This therefore is the focus of this chapter, to study commitment and understand its measurement scales.

5.9 The Procedure used in Testing Scale validity and reliability

The goodness (suitability and usability) of a scale in assessing a concept depends on the scale reliability and validity. In testing for scale goodness, this research will subject both items that will load as predicted and those that will not to validity and reliability test. This will be to confirm

whether items that are “perceived by respondents to tap the predicted construct” are indeed valid or not (Pearce and Gregerson 1991 and Hinkin 1995, p. 969).

This research investigation consists of two stages using the same sample groups. The first stage involves analysis of the data to ascertain issues of research scale reduction, factor extraction, validity and reliability. While the second stage seeks to analyse employee commitment behaviour by using two variables; income and age, in identifying employee commitment to their organisation and assessing possible relationships between the variables with possible impact/implications on employee commitment. It therefore involves using the scale to test and identify the possible degree of employee commitment to their organisations in Nigeria.

5.9.1 Test of statistical significance and data analysis

This research test of scale statistical significance will involve, as earlier noted, the test for data reduction, factor extraction, validity and reliability, including assessment of employee commitment behaviour using two demographic variables; income and age. In other words, this research will conduct its statistical tests using generally accepted statistical instruments for research of this kind. The following paragraphs will therefore discussed in detail each of the statistical tools to be used in assessing this research scale suitability and usability in Nigeria as already discussed in the earlier part of Chapter Two and further discussed in this research.

5.9.2 Why Cronbach’s coefficient alpha internal consistency (reliability)?

Although the research tests the scale reliability using Cronbach’s coefficient alpha internal consistency measure, the researcher would have used the split-half reliability method as previously discussed in this Chapter, of which the implementation would have involved dividing of the scale items into groups. For example, into three groups to represent the components of commitment (attitudinal, continuance and normative components of commitment) before it is tested to show correlations; using simple correlation coefficient and exploratory factor analysis to assess the relationship between the divided items within the groups. The use of the simple correlation coefficient would have also been governed by a simple rule, “the nearer the result to 1 - and preferably at or over 0.7 - the more internally reliable is the scale” (Bryman and Cramer 2001, p. 63).

Nevertheless, the use of Cronbach’s coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability measures is seen to represent a more efficient way of assessing reliability. This is because internal consistency is concerned with assessing the extent to which tests and/or procedures measure the same construct in any study with precision. Cronbach’s coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability measures attempt to measure with accuracy how well a set of items (variables) measure the construct being

studied. For example, how well the commitment components scale items developed for the assessment of organisational commitment in Nigeria measures what it is intended to measure with a good degree of accuracy.

Although Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used instrument in assessing the degree of a scale or items reliability (internal consistency), the original measure of alpha was developed in 1937 by Kuder and Richardson with the assumption that in assessing reliability it can be used to assess data items scored (0 or 1). However Cronbach (1951) improved on the instrument to enable its use and application in accounting for any scoring method (generalisability) and introduced an equation (formula) for the Cronbach's coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability measures. Although this formula may not be needed in analysing internal consistency, as SPSS as a statistical tool can readily calculate and provide answers, it is however given below.

Where:

$$\alpha = \frac{n}{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{\sum Vi}{V_{test}} \right)$$

- n = number of questions
- Vi = variance of scores on each question
- Vtest = total variance of overall scores (not %'s) on the entire test,

Irrespective of the difficulties in understanding formulas (for those that will do anything to avoid statistical calculation), the central aim of using Cronbach's coefficient alpha internal consistency is to help achieve high alpha (correlation and reliability) scores. The general rule governing Cronbach's alpha coefficient is "the higher the correlation coefficient, the higher the internal consistency of the test, and the acceptable range for Cronbach's alpha coefficient internal consistency is usually between 0.7–1.0. This research scale/data will be subjected to statistical test using Cronbach's alpha through SPSS.

5.9.3 Why content validity?

According to Price (1997, p. 307) validity is concerned with "the degree to which a measure captures the concept it is designed to measure." This implies that a measure is invalid unless it has the capability of answering, capturing and/or gaining the attention of the idea(s); questions, thoughts, assumptions, perception and/or impression it is intended or planned to assess (Neely 1999 and Lee 1999).

Although there are various ways of assessing research validity, which include (1) Face or content validity; assumption or acceptance that the content of a scale item seems or appears to be valid or

accurately reflects what it is designed to measure. (2) Construct validity; “the ability of a measure to provide empirical evidence consistent with a theory based on the concept” (Zikmund 1997, p. 337) or (3) Criterion validity; an attempt to show how correlated a measure or scale is with other and/or similar constructs or criteria used within such a field of study.

This research will adopt the face or content validity method. This is because although the face validity is criticised because, as some researchers argued, it seems too simple, and therefore may be prone to errors (Hinkin 1991), nevertheless, it is the most commonly used within the research community. Moreover, the method seems most useful in an empirically based research such as this, where acceptable, logical and clear processes/methods have been adopted in arriving at a research hypothesis, in addition to the review of literatures. Therefore following a clear and logical process in developing the research literature and literature gaps, research questions and scale (questionnaire), the use and adoption of content validity to validate the scale in line with the use of various statistical methods for reliability tests and factor analysis, will help establish that the content of this research scale item are or appears to accurately reflect what it is designed to measure.

This research will therefore use the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient internal consistency, content validity and exploratory factor analysis in form of principal component analysis with varimax to reduce research scale items, extract factors and assess the reliability and validity of the Nigerian organisational commitment scale.

5.9.4 What is an exploratory factor analysis?

By ‘factor analysis’, this research refers to a combination of a family of techniques used in the analysis of data. It can either be an exploratory and/or confirmatory technique. “This family of factor analytic techniques has a number of different uses. It is used by researchers involved in the development and evaluation of tests and scales. It is used to reduce a large number of related variables to a more manageable number, prior to using them in other analyses such as...multivariate of variance” (Pallant 2005, p. 172).

This research focuses on the use of exploratory factor analysis, which although it could be used as a tool for gathering information to explore the relationships or interrelationships among variables (Bryman 2002, Pallant 2005), it is used in this research as a tool for data reduction and factor extraction (Pallant 2005). Although in conducting exploratory factor analysis, two major tools are involved: The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and/or the Factor Analysis (FA), this research adopts PCA because although the tools are in most cases very similar, the difference is that “in PCA, the original variables are transformed into a smaller set of linear combinations, with all of the

variance in the variables being used. In factor analysis however, factors are estimated using a mathematical model, where only the shared variance is analysed” (Pallant 2005, p. 172). Nevertheless, the results produced by both methods are indeed the same most of the time (Zikmund 1997, Tabachnick and Fidell 2001 and Pallant 2005).

5.9.4.1 Why exploratory factor analysis?

The use of exploratory factor analysis in this research and in particular the adoption of principal component is to reduce items and produce smaller numbers of variables and focus on scale components to enable it to capture the actual and intended components and thereby enhance the scale reliability for further research on employee commitment behaviour and possible relationship (correlation) between commitment and other variables such as income and age. Moreover, the Principal Component Analysis is adopted because this research “requires an empirical summary of the data set with a psychometrically sound and simpler mathematical result” (Stevens 1996, pp. 363 and 611).

Whereas exploratory factor analysis is used in this research for data reduction and factor extraction as discussed above, this research will also be inclined to further analyse commitment behaviours in Nigeria using income and age as variables. In conducting such a statistical study, this research will employ statistical instruments such as the One Way ANOVA, Pearson’s Chi-Square and Spearman’s Rank Order correlation analysis as discussed below.

5.9.5 What is a One Way ANOVA?

According to Zikmund (2003, p. 583), analysis of variance is “the investigation of the effects of one treatment variable on an interval-scaled dependent variable; a hypothesis-testing technique to determine whether statistically significant differences in means occur between two or more groups.” One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is therefore a way to test the equality of three or more means at one time by using variances (Lethen 1996). It is a common statistical tool used in comparing the mean of group or groups of independent variables by testing or measuring such differences in order to understand their behaviours. In summary therefore, ANOVA or One Way ANOVA is a Bivariate statistical instrument used “when the means of more than two groups or populations are to be compared” (Zikmund 2003, p. 583).

5.9.5.1 Why One Way ANOVA?

This research intends to adopt One Way ANOVA in its investigation and analysis of data relating to the variables; commitment and employee income and age, in order to establish whether statistically significant differences exist in the scores between each of the variables so as to understand a possible behavioural characteristic pattern of Nigerian employees and their

commitment towards their organisation. In testing for significant differences using ANOVA, this research will assume through the null hypothesis that all the means of the variables are equal.

The research will therefore test the hypothetical assumption that:

Hypothesis 2

Nigerian high income earning employees are more committed to their organisations than their low income earning counterparts.

Hypothesis 3

Older Nigerian employees are more committed to their organisations than their younger counterparts.

The adoption, relevance and test of the above hypotheses are in order to accept or reject the null hypothesis. In addition, it is also to justify and establish the relevance of the literature findings that employees with higher incomes and the elderly may likely express higher levels of commitment to their organisation than their counterparts in a collectivist and power distancing society where age is revered (Oloko 1973, Ogbor and Williams 2003).

5.9.6 What is Chi-Square?

Chi-Square is a statistical instrument used as part of a family of distributions commonly used for the testing of statistical significance. According to Oppenheim (1992, p. 157), Chi-square “allows us to compare our observations with chance expectations, or with expectations based on specific hypothesis.” It is an instrument used in testing for association, in other words, the test of a relationship between variables. Significance in this instance refers to the chance of a Type I error: That is the chance of assuming there is a relationship when in actual fact there is none. Generally, the test of significance is most suitable in random sampling and in social science. Therefore, in a Chi-Square test, a .05 or .5% level is used as a cut-off point to safeguard research for possible errors.

There are various types of Chi-Square tests including Pearson's chi-square, Chi-square goodness-of-fit test, Likelihood ratio chi-square, Mantel-Haenszel's chi-square. However the most commonly used of these types is the Pearson's chi-square test, using SPSS as employed in this research.

5.9.6.1 Why Pearson's Chi-Square?

Pearson's chi-square is generally the most common type of chi-square significance test used in the study of organisational behaviour (Agresti 1996). Its common acceptance is also attributable to the fact that it is used to test hypotheses for the non-existence of association on chosen variables and analysed on columns and rows in a tabular form, making its understanding simpler. The use of chi-

square is most suitable when the statistical test is to establish a strong relationship when the sample size or the value of the variables is large.

As this research will require the test for association (relationship), it will adopt and use Pearson's chi-square in order to test the degree of independence or possible relationships between the variables' incomes and age, in line with employee commitment to their organisation. This research will therefore adopt Pearson's chi-square test in order to accept or reject either the null or alternate hypothesis as stated below.

Hypotheses 5

Ho: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are independent of each other.

Hi: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are not independent of each other.

5.9.7 Why Spearman's rank order correlation?

The Pearson correlation technique is the most commonly used statistical tool in analysing metric data (interval and ratio scales). This research's choice of instrument for the assessment of correlation (association) between the two variables income and age will be Spearman's rank order. The reason for this choice is as Zikmund (2003, p. 628) noted "in situations in which it cannot be assumed that the data are metric (interval and ratio scaled), a nonparametric correlation technique may be substituted for the Pearson's correlation technique."

This statistical tool has therefore been chosen to compute the relationship between the variables income and age (if any), in order to provide further insight into the Nigerian employee commitment behaviours. Spearman's rank order correlation (*rho*) analysis will be used to calculate the strength of the relationship between the variables in order to accept or reject the following hypothetical assumptions:

Hypotheses 4

Ho: There is no relationship between the variables employee (participants) income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

Hi: There is a relationship between the variables employee (participants) income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

5.9.8 Justifying the use of the above statistical instruments

In line with the above arguments, the second stage in the process of this research data analysis aims not only at using the above statistical tools in assessing employee commitment behaviours using income and age, but also for validating or invalidating outcomes of findings on employee

commitment in Nigeria from Oloko (1973), Gbadamosi (1995 and 2003), Ogbor and Williams (2001) as earlier discussed, and other arguments on similar studies in Western and non-Western cultures.

The researcher believes that the statistical and measurement instruments discussed in this chapter are most appropriate and suitable for the confirmation of the scale validity and reliability. They are also suitable for the effective measurement of employee commitment to their organisations in Nigeria and will lead into further understanding of Nigerian employee commitment behaviour to their organisations. Moreover, the adopted statistical and measurement instruments have been widely used in assessing organisational commitment across developed and developing countries and are therefore convincingly appropriate for this research statistical data analysis (Meyer and Allen 1997, Lee et al. 2001). The researcher therefore expects that the test will help the scale manifest as a more generic and generalising expression (definition) of organisational (employee) commitment in Nigeria with the components of employee commitment to their organisation clearly identified, measured and understood.

5.9.8.1 Sources of research data: Primary and secondary sources

The source of data for this research is from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data will include responses from questionnaires to be administered to selected customer service officers randomly selected from approximately an estimated 500 to 1000 customer service officers within the participating organisations in Nigeria. The intent of this exercise will be to “confirm...and address issues of research validity”, reliability and correlations (Ewing and Napoli 2004, p. 3). The secondary source of data is from academic articles, various electronic and printed Journals, books, research theses and referable working papers on organisational commitment, commitment measurement and HRM between 1960 to date, across Western and non-Western environments.

5.9.8.2 The sample method: Simple random method

Issues concerning research sample size and sampling methods are often difficult and needs careful consideration as the wrong sample choice could lead to research errors and biasness (Zikmund 1997 and Proctor 1997). Obtaining the right sample size is fundamental to research success and as Kitchenham and Pflieger (2002, p. 17) noted “the overriding key to understanding sampling is to acknowledge that a valid sample is not simply the set of responses we get when we administer a questionnaire. A set of responses is only a valid sample in statistical terms if it has been obtained by a random sampling process... a valid sample is therefore a representative subset of a target population.” In view of these opinions, this research adopts what it considers to be the most suitable sampling method that will result in the best sample size for the population of choice. The researcher therefore adopted a simple random method. Although the method could be argued to

have some element of stratification because of the grouping of participants according to their organisations operating branches across the six geo-political zones of Nigeria, a simple random method will be used in selecting participants for the research, where simple random method, refers to:

“A simple method that provides assurance to the anticipated participants of their equal chance of being selected/included in the sample for the research” (Zikmund 2001).

In other words, the randomness involved in the simple random method creates an equal chance for each member of a population to be independently selected for research (Zikmund 2001). The reason for adopting the simple random method is to create an equal chance for each member of the research population to be independently selected from the research population size. Other reasons are:

1. To estimate and identify some unknown characteristics of this population.
2. To effectively reach out to a significant percent of the whole population and effectively manage the limited time available for the data collection and the entire study.
3. To obtain accurate (precise), valid (applicable) and reliable (dependable/consistent) results through a well organised process of data collection thereby reducing errors and biasness that may exist.
4. To assess the degree to which the results obtained may be applicable/generalisable to the entire population with the sector.

5.9.8.3 Determining the population size

To help validate the scale, the researcher concluded to take a “sample size needed to appropriately conduct tests of statistical significance” (Hinkin 1995, p. 971). The choice of this research sample size was influenced by earlier opinions from Stone (1978) and Schwab (1980) as summarised in Hinkin (1995, p. 971) “if powerful statistical tests and confidence in results are desired, the larger the sample the better.” The researcher thus reviewed some of the sample sizes used in similar researches on organisational commitment across Western and non-Western organisations as a guide to adequate research sample size. The researcher observed for instance that Wasti’s (2002, p. 536) sample size “comprised of 404 females (45.3%) and 487 males (54.7)” making a total of 891 responses, Shepherds and Mathews’ (2002, p. 370) sample size comprised of “116 responses from company A, 156 from company B and 283 from company C”, giving a total of a 555 sample size.

Also, Chen and Francesco (2003, p. 495) in their research in China on commitment, distributed questionnaires “to 130 supervisors and the subordinates’ questionnaires were distributed to 390”

participants, giving a total of 520 responses. Mowday et al. (1979) used a total of 2563 as a sample size from a “research carried out over a nine-year period” (Price 1997, p. 336) and Ko (1996) used a 278 sample size, while Cheng and Stockdale (2003) used a 226 sample size and Guatam et al. (2001), a total of 103 as a sample size in Nepal, etc. The total sample size of these researches averages 800 with unequal distribution across the countries in which they were used.

In deciding on this research population sample the researcher also considered the fact that “a sample size of 150...should be sufficient to obtain an accurate solution in exploratory factor analysis...and a minimum of a 200 sample size for confirmatory factor analysis (Guadagnoli and Velicer 1988, Hoelter 1983)”, (Hinkin 1995, p. 971). The researcher concluded that using any population sample less than 200 would represent a positive population size for a valid research and will also represent a good sample population for the research.

Considering the nature and type of research one is conducting, the above analogy is not enough to justify the research choice of population size and sample size. Therefore there is a need to further establish the process used in determining the sample population and sample size.

5.9.8.4 Determining the sample size primary variables

Bartlett et al. (2001, p. 43) noted that “a common goal of survey research is to collect data representative of a population.” The reason being that “the researcher uses information gathered from the survey to generalise findings from a drawn sample back to a population with the limits of random error.” The ability therefore, to generate the right sample in which the outcome can be generalised is “one of the real advantages of quantitative research methods” (Holton and Burnett 1997, p. 71). However, the ability to determine the correct sample size is one of the most difficult tasks involved in quantitative activities, as a good sample size will help minimise research “alpha error (finding a difference that does not actually exist in the population)” (Bartlett et al. 2001, p. 42-43).

Cochran (1977) developed a method suitable for the determination of appropriate sample size, using a formula which will be discussed later. While this research does not intend to examine in detail such specialised statistical understanding, Cochran (1977) however emphasised the need to use an organised method to arrive at a research sample size. He noted that in determining research sample size, various issues must be considered including issues of primary variables of measurement which must be considered and incorporated into the formula used in calculating and determining appropriate samples.

In explaining Cochran’s (1977) views, Bartlett et al. (2001, p. 44) explained “for example, if the researcher plans to use a seven point scale (as is the case with this research) to measure a

continuous variable, e.g. job satisfaction, and also plans to determine if the respondents differ by certain categorical variables e.g. gender, tenure, educational level etc., which variable(s) should be used as the basis for sample size? Such consideration of variables will help in getting the right sample size.” Bartlett et al. (2001) further argued that although such method is good, it will however, result in an unnecessarily large sample size. To manage this therefore, he proposed the best approach would be to adopt a logical method of determining the sample, by specifying margins of error for the items that are regarded as most vital to the survey.

The first stage in this logical process would be to identify the type of variables with which one is researching and then estimate the sample size afterwards. These research variables are categorical data variables and they include employee age and income level. However, the margin of error will need to be calculated using statistically accurate formula.

5.9.8.5 The research error estimation (margin of error) for categorical data

Having established the fact that this research variable falls under the categorical data variables, a logical process will therefore be used in developing the research sample size. However, there is the need to first of all establish the research error estimate. In other words (1) To determine the research margin of error (“risk or error the research is willing to accept in the study) and (2) To determine the research alpha level (level of acceptable risk the researcher is willing to accept that the true margin of error exceeds the acceptable margin of error” Bartlett (2001, p. 44-45). Usually in determining sample size alpha level for categorical data variable, .05 or .01 are commonly used with .05 as the most suitable (Bartlett 2001). This research alpha level (level of acceptable risk the researcher is willing to accept), in other words the margin of error for the categorical data variable will be .05. The reason is to allow for the use of and to follow tested, valid and reliable principles (Krejcie and Morgan 1970).

5.9.8.6 Determining the research sample size for categorical data

Although Cochran (1977) produced a reliable formula for the determination of sample size needed for both categorical and continuous variable data, the aim of this section is to establish the sample size needed for the categorical data. Cochran’s (1977) formula used for the determination of

categorical data, in other words the formula for the estimation or determination of the sample size suitable for the assessment of a categorical data is:

$$n_o = \frac{(t)^2 * (p)(q)}{(d)^2}$$

Where

t = value for selected alpha level, (the level of risk the researcher is willing to take that the true margin of error may exceed the acceptable margin of error)

(p)(q) = estimate of variance and

d = acceptable margin of error the researcher is willing to accept (Bartlett et al. 2001, p. 47).

To help users avoid the rigorous processes of calculating the result for the above formula before sample size can be logically arrived at, Bartlett et al. developed a table showing minimum return sample size for both categorical and continuous data variables with consideration of alpha levels, estimate of variance and margin of errors. See Table 5.2 below. Bartlett et al. (2001) recommended in their table that for a population size of 300 to 1000, a minimum sample size of 169 to 278 is needed for categorical data at .05 margin of error. Bartlett et al.'s (2001) table, based on Cochran's (1977) formula has been empirically tested and proved to be reliable and valid. 169-278 will therefore represent this research's expected minimum distributed questionnaire for a possible 30% and above (>30) returnable questionnaire from the sample size for the categorical data variable of .05 margin of error for 300 to 1000 population sample size, which approximately represents the number of employees working within the area of this research interest (customer services and marketing).

Table 5.2 Minimum returned sample size for categorical and continuous data

Population size	Sample size					
	Continuous data (margin of error=.03)			Categorical data (margin of error=.05)		
	alpha=.10 t=1.65	alpha=.05 t=1.96	alpha=.01 t=2.58	p=.50 t=1.65	p=.50 t=1.96	p=.50 t=2.58
100	46	55	68	74	80	87
200	59	75	102	116	132	154
300	65	85	123	143	169	207
400	69	92	137	162	196	250
500	72	96	147	176	218	286
600	73	100	155	187	235	316
700	75	102	161	196	249	341
800	76	104	166	203	260	363
900	76	105	170	209	270	382
1,000	77	106	173	213	278	399
1,500	79	110	183	230	306	461
2,000	83	112	189	239	323	499
4,000	83	119	198	254	351	570
6,000	83	119	209	259	362	598
8,000	83	119	209	262	367	613
10,000	83	119	209	264	370	623

NOTE: The margins of error used in the table were .03 for continuous data and .05 for categorical data. Researchers may use this table if the margin of error shown is appropriate for their study; however, the appropriate sample size must be calculated if these error rates are not appropriate. Source: Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001) *Organizational Research: Determining Appropriate Sample Size in Survey Research* *Information Technology, Learning, and Performance Journal*, volume. 19, number. 1, Spring.

5.9.8.7 The sampling choice and location

The sample choice of this research is drawn from the 300 to 1000 population size of Nigerian banking employees from which 169 to 278 participants will represent the sample size as noted above and will comprise of non-managerial customer relations and customer service officers (staff), working in a number of selected cities within the six geo-political zones of Nigeria. The choice of these employees (sample size and population) is based on the following reasons:

1. They represent (image) the organisation in the eyes of the customers therefore some of the organisations' goodwill comes from their efforts.
2. The profitability of the organisation in some way depends on them.
3. The satisfaction and retention of customers depends on their skill, relationships with customers and their self-motivation.
4. They are not part of the management team and their commitment can be identified to connect with their feelings for the organisation, job or any other reason other than leadership opportunities or benefits (Kotler 2003).

The above key reasons confirm why they are the most suitable sample population for the assessment of employee commitment to their organisation. They also represent the best sample population for the assessment of the scale validity.

The cities and bank branches will include:

1. Lagos State: Ikeja, Apapa, Lagos Island and Victoria Island branches, including the Bank's corporate Head Quarters.
2. Branches within Abakaliki urban areas.

The sample frames for this research are from the selected organisations.

1. Customer Service Officers (SCO).
2. Customers Relations Officers (CAO).
3. First-line counter officers (trading floor officers).

5.9.8.8 Ethical issues and approaches

In consideration of the nature of this research and its involvement with human participants (employees), ethical issues were viewed as fundamental to the successful completion of this research. The researcher set out to identify and address potential or actual ethical issues as they

arose. The first step was to practically observe possible ethical matters that may arise as a result of the culture of the society in which the research was conducted. Among the critical issues identified was the degree of strong influence superiors exhibit over subordinates (power distancing culture), which may impinge on a participant's voluntary involvement in the research. Therefore, the researcher concluded in dealing directly with those participants that demonstrate their willingness to be involved in the project. Moreover, agreement was also reached between the management and the researcher on the anonymity of the organisation and confidentiality of some privileged information which may not be included in this research. This issue also contributed to inhabiting the researcher's original intent to use case study strategy and methods, as the researcher was not also allowed to interview participants but could administer questionnaires without management interference.

The method worked effectively in the pilot study as the administration and collection of data was confidentially and anonymously conducted. This process was also adopted for the main data collection. Participants' confidentiality has been maintained through ongoing good practice during and after the period of research. In other words, the researcher continued with and encouraged:

1. Participants' voluntarily participation in the research.
2. Participants' consent was sought verbally before they engaged in the completion of the questionnaire, and via an introductory letter attached to the questionnaire, see Appendix 2.
3. Participants' identity and information were handled with care and regarded as highly confidential during the period of the research.
4. Participants also remained anonymous. Every aspect of the questionnaire that may indicate participants' names and other personal information including the name of the organisation and department were removed. This however did not impinge on the researcher's ability to recognise the source of the questionnaire (the organisation from which the questionnaire came and not individuals).
5. The research objectives, consequences and benefits were made clearly known to participants from the outset to enable respondents to make their own informed choice on whether to participate willingly or decline.

Interestingly, the research was successfully completed without any major ethical concerns capable of invalidating this research study.

5.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter examined with specific concern this research's epistemological stance with consideration to some of the philosophical (theoretical) views held by some researchers from an objectivist standpoint. The chapter took a balanced viewpoint and critiqued the rigid interpretations given to positivism by some schools of thought and reviewed its meaning from the perspective of Auguste Comte. It concludes therefore that although positivism is a logical research process, it is also a flexible approach to research (Crotty 1998).

This chapter also acknowledged the benefits of using qualitative (phenomenological) approaches in such research and thereafter gave a conclusive justification for this research's adoption of quantitative methods through survey research methods. This chapter also highlighted the benefits and fitness of the survey research strategy as a method of data collection using a quantitative questionnaire as the most suitable method for research data collection.

On the analysis and measurement of the statistical data, the focus was on explaining the processes and tools used in analysing and measuring the collected data for scale validity and reliability. This was done with a view to assessing the content validity of the definition of organisational commitment as developed and adopted in this research. Also the reliability of the scale was discussed with a conclusion to use Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficient method. While the exploratory factor analysis is argued to have the capability of assessing not only the factor structure of the Nigerian organisational commitment scale, but also the "degree to which items in the scale are tapping the same concept" (Bryman and Cramer 2001, p. 261), other statistical tools for the analysis of data like Spearman's rank order correlation and chi-square were also discussed. The process of selecting the sample population and justification for the sample size was also discussed amongst other issues.

In conclusion therefore, there is the need for this study to progress with this research data collection, analysis, findings and conclusions using the discussed research instruments discussed within this chapter. This will help confirm if the above methods will indeed provide valid research outcomes that will provide answers to the research questions and hypothesis.

Chapter Six
Introduction to the Nigerian Banking Sector

Chapter Six

Introduction to the Nigerian Banking Sector

6.0 Introduction

This chapter is focused on understanding and appreciating the Nigerian banking sector, its strengths, challenges and success so far, from a historical and narrative perspective. The aim is therefore to explore and understand the nature of the Nigerian banking (financial services) sector, before, and as at the time of this research and how the system does possibly shape employees' behaviours (commitment to their organisation). This sector was chosen due to its state as one of the most matured sectors in the Nigerian economy, with little or no governmental interference other than the normal regulation of banking activities by a country's Central Bank. This therefore made it a more attractive sector for the purpose of this study.

Moreover, the sector's ability to attract highly skilled employees across the 36 states of Nigeria (that is from and within the six geo-political zones of Nigeria) mean that organisations operating within it represent the hallmark of the fast growing, diverse, well focused and publicly quoted Nigerian organisations and therefore the right place for the study of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria.

Nevertheless, the research acknowledges the fact that there are limited available empirical studies in this sector in relation to HR and or organisational behaviour, especially on employee commitment and behaviours. Hence the attempt to provide an overview or story of the sector and not necessarily an in-depth and critical study as there are insufficient data and information for such discussion. However, the study will provide a somewhat grounded insight into the sector.

6.1 The Story of Banking in Nigeria: Structure, Ownership Growth, Operations and Services

6.1.1 Industry overview

"The Nigerian banking industry is relatively developed compared to some in sub-Saharan Africa. Having recorded tremendous growth over the past 20 years and currently moving towards increased sophistication, the sub-sector had undergone experiences and "lessons learned" which have enabled this growth" (Eke 2003, p. 1).

A review of the present structure of the Nigerian banking sector by the World Bank Financial Review (2000, pp. 3-4), as at May 2000, presented a summary of "Nigeria's banking system as consisting of 51 commercial banks, 38 merchant banks and 1014 community banks. As of December 1997, they constituted 50% of the financial sector's total assets inclusive of central bank assets and 93% of non-central bank assets. Non-bank deposit-taking institutions hold only 1.6% of total assets. Moreover, the banking system grew at about 26% per annum in total assets over the

previous four years. While negative in real terms (-8.7%), banks grew far faster than the non-banks which grew at only 6.5% per annum... Nigeria's bank branch coverage is relatively good with 2050 commercial bank branches (of which 547 are rural), an estimated 1014 community bank branches and 278 People's Bank branches. Together they provide about one branch per 35,000 people, in comparison with its neighbouring country "Ghana" with one bank branch per 57,000 people."

It is important to note that part of the support towards further advancement of the Nigerian banking sector is attributed to what Eke (2003, p. 4) argued as effort channelled "through the liberalisation of the licensing of banks... in that in December 2000, the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) approved the adoption of Universal Banking in Nigeria. Universal Banking allows banks to choose which activity or activities to undertake (clearing house activities, money or capital market activities, insurance services or a combination of the aforementioned). For example, from 2000 to 2002, 14 merchant banks received approval from the CBN to convert to commercial banks." This allows for specialisation and targeted services to customers in a highly competitive environment. Such changes, show the nature of the Nigerian banking sector.

Below is what may be termed the most up to date and comprehensive summary of the Nigerian banking sector size and ownership from the World Bank (2005). Additional information is also found in Beck, Cull and Jerome's (2005) research on banking in Nigeria.

6.1.2 Analysis of banking sector size

The Nigerian "banking system is not excessively concentrated with the four largest banks controlling 38% of total assets, 45% of total deposits and 44% of bank branches. The next ten largest banks (all but one are commercial private banks) control an additional 23% of total assets and 21% of deposits. In terms of performance, it is interesting to note that the four largest banks, despite significantly higher NPLs (18.5% of loans vis. 8.8% for the next ten banks) report considerably higher profits as a percentage of assets. It would be useful to analyse this situation in more depth as it could suggest that the largest banks have substantial advantages in terms of cost of funds and/or earning non-interest income which they do not pass on to customers in lower interest rates and fees, while the next ten banks have significantly higher costs and/or engage in more competitive pricing."

6.1.3 Analysis of bank ownership

"The Nigerian Government-controlled banks constitute a small and decreasing market share and the performance of these institutions is far worse than that of privately controlled banks. In December 1996 there were 20 government controlled banks and 13 additional banks with minority government ownership. Two years later, there were only ten government controlled banks, seven federally controlled and three state controlled, which together have a small 4.6% share of banking

system assets and 12% of the branches. An additional 12 banks with minority government ownership (excluding Afribank for which the Privatisation Bureau is still holding a 30.5% share) have 7.6% of assets. On a combined basis, the government-controlled banks have:

- i) average NPLs amounting to 48% of loan portfolios, while NPLs for the remainder of the system are 15%;
- ii) average net worth equal to -30.6% of total assets, vis. 6.9% for the remainder of the system;
- iii) reported profits of 0.9% of total assets vis. 4.0% for the non-government banks;
- iv) eight of the ten government banks are in distress vis. nine of the 79 banks not so controlled and;
- v) foreign banks do not yet play a significant role in Nigeria. Only two of Nigeria's banks, involving 4% of total assets, are controlled by foreign banks, while an additional 13 privately controlled banks, involving 23% of total assets, have some foreign ownership (see footnote 1). 52 of Nigeria's banks, representing 61% of banking system assets, are 100% Nigerian privately owned.

Seventeen banks, holding a 53% market share in banking system assets and 61% of the branches, were listed on the stock exchange as of September 1998, increasing to 23 by September 1999. As a group, listed banks appear somewhat more profitable than the remaining banks, had somewhat stronger capital positions, and similar quality portfolios. Banking system access to the Nigerian capital market for long-term equity capital appears to be a significant source of ongoing strength. However, while the capital market could be relevant for the sale of some government minority share positions, it may be of more limited use in the privatisation of government-controlled banks given the pervasive distress among that group. Anecdotal evidence suggests that bank price earnings ratios exceed those of other listed companies.”

6.1.4 Control, structure and market activities

The Nigerian banking sector activities are coordinated by the ‘Central Bank of Nigeria’, which is the nation's apex bank with statutory responsibility of regulating, monitoring and formulating policies for the banking system to ensure that operators comply with monetary, credit, and foreign exchange guidelines” (Eke 2003, p. 1).

According to Eke (2003, p. 1) “Banks in Nigeria are comprised of four main categories: Commercial, Merchant, Development and Community Banks. However, there are some other smaller institutions that also carry out banking activities including; Primary Mortgage Institutions,

Finance Companies, and Discount Houses. Common financial products offered include traditional savings, current and fixed deposits, online real-time banking, e-banking and Automatic Teller Machine (ATM) services. Others include International Fund Transfer, Pension Fund Management, Institutional Fund Management, Inter-Bank Money Market, Letters of Credit, fees and other collection services...” A snapshot of the Nigerian banking sector, its structure and soundness can be found in Table 6.1 of this chapter and in Appendix 6 and 7 of this research.

Table 6.1: Structural Characteristic of the Nigerian Banking Industry: 1991-2001

	No of banks	No of branches	New bank entries	Bank Closures	Consolidated (partial)	CRA ₃	CRD ₃	CRA ₅	HHI
1991	114	2107	24	-	-	33	35	40	441
1992	119	2391	5	-	-	46	50	56	1079
1993	120	2484	1	-	-	43	46	56	777
1994	116	2547	-	4	-	48	46	59	757
1995	115	2512	-	1	-	48	53	59	793
1996	115	2551	-	-	-	42	51	52	788
1997	115	2551	-	-	2	40	43	49	736
1998	89	2120	-	26	2	40	43	49	774
1999	90	2305	1	-	1	38	40	47	702
2000	89	2444	2	3	5	37	38	45	466
2001	90	2944	1	-	1	36	34	47	512

CRD= Deposit concentration ratio

CRA= Asset Concentration ratio

HHI = Herfindhal, calculated based on deposits

(HHI= $\sum MS^2$) where MS is market share held by bank i

Source: Asogwa, R.C., (2002, p. 4) liberalisation, consolidation and market structure in Nigerian Banking, Department of Economics, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria.

6.2 Challenges and Crises

It is noted from the World Bank Financial Review (2000, p. 4) that the significant growth and expansion noted above in the Nigerian banking sector is not without hard times and challenges. As “the number of banks expanded rapidly from 41 institutions before 1986 to a high of 120 in 1994”, such was the stiffness of the competition and other associated challenges facing the sector, it resulted in a fall from 120 banks to 89 banks by 2004.

It is important to note that while some of the problems were man-made and due to capitalisation as noted by Prof. Soludo, the Governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria, others were outcomes from the federal government’s earlier move in introducing the indigenisation policy in the sector, which would allow Nigerian citizens to have total control of the sector. According to Beck et al. (2005)

“In the 1970s, the Nigerian authorities introduced an array of direct controls in the banking system, both through ownership as well as through interest rate and credit controls. As part of an ‘indigenisation wave’ that had the goal of securing domestic majority ownership of strategically important sectors, many foreign-owned banks were nationalised, since no Nigerian purchaser could be found. While these shares were formally warehoused for future sale, they effectively were used for political influence in these banks. At the same time that entry into the banking system was restricted, a floor for deposits and a ceiling for lending interest rates were established and a credit allocation quota of up to 70% of a bank’s portfolio was enforced. In the context of the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) in 1986, Nigeria undertook a broad program of financial liberalisation. Interest rates and entry into the banking system were liberalised and credit allocation quotas loosened. At the same time, while ending direct rationing of foreign exchange for the real sector, the government maintained a multiple exchange rate regime, thus opening a new area of arbitrage and rent seeking for financial institutions that had privileged access to foreign exchange auctions. The consequence was the quick entry of many new players into the banking system, especially merchant banks that specialised in foreign exchange operations. Very low entry requirements and the high market premiums that could be earned with arbitrage activities in the foreign exchange markets allowed for returns on equity of 300% or more (Lewis and Stein 2002). The financial sector boom, therefore, was however accompanied by financial disintermediation.”

Other problems also related to Soludo’s (2004, p. 5) proposition that most bank managers (leadership) continued with the attitude of running expansive empires; having very “expensive headquarters, heavy fixed costs and operating expenses leading to a very high average cost for the industry.” Moreover, while inadequate capitalisation and high operational costs are some of the key problems that led to the “experience of financial difficulties” and other bank crises, (World Bank Financial Review 2000, p. 4) other “weaknesses of some of the ailing banks are manifested by their... weak management and poor corporate governance” (Soludo 2004, p. 5). Soludo (2004, p. 6) further highlighted other issues with reference to the “evidenced high turnover in the (banks’) Board, management and staff.” Therefore to survive, some of the existing banks are under “undue pressures to engage in sharp practices” (Soludo 2004, p. 5) and other unprofessional practices (Ojo 1994) such as unnecessary cost cuts from major operation areas and recruitment of “non-technically qualified manpower” (Hayatudeen 1999, p. 15) for less pay. The consequence was a continued increase in labour turnover, amidst stiffer competition and continuous poor annual financial performance.

“This tragic situation led to the continued... foreclosure and technical insolvency of many banks, and finance houses” (Eke 2003, p. 4), in that “the latest assessment shows that while the overall health of the Nigerian banking system could be described as generally satisfactory, the state of

some banks is less cheering. Specifically, as at end-March 2004, the central bank of Nigeria's rating of all the banks classified 62 as sound/satisfactory, 14 as marginal and 11 as unsound, while two of the banks did not render any returns during the period (Soludo 2004, p. 5).

With a lack of available empirical research on bank performances in relation to HR and other organisational behavioural studies apart from Ayadi et al.'s (1998, p. 10) attempt to assess (measure) the efficiency of ten major Nigerian banks which reflects the picture of the entire sector, the outcome was that "only three of the ten banks in the sample are classified as efficient." See Table 6.2 below. A finding that also supports the argument that part of the problems faced by the Nigerian banking sector is that of inefficiency in managing resources, including human resources. Therefore, using Ayedi et al.'s (1998) research findings, it means that out of the 62 banks classified as sound/satisfactory in Soludo's (2004) list, only 18 out of the ten may meet Ayedis et al.'s (1998) efficiency classification/standards. Moreover, one may argue that a lack of organisational efficiency may result in a lack of good employee/employer relationships resulting in poor employee commitment to their organisation.

The outcome of this has a direct relationship with Eifert and Ramachandran's (2004, pp. 52-53) research findings which used a broad benchmark illustration to identify enormous gaps in... employee (labour and skills) utilisation in Nigeria "with Nigeria and Mozambique last in the overall rankings" of the countries that participated in the research. See Tables 6.2 and 6.3, below for an overview of the Nigerian labour productivity rate from 1974 to 1996. By implication, these findings show there are gaps in our understanding of employee commitment to their organisation, as lack of or low commitment could lead to continued labour turnover intention (Meyer et al. 1993) which also amounts to much pressure on organisations to manipulate systems and procedures so as to survive (Soludo 2004).

Table 6.2 Nigerian Banks Efficiency Score 1991-1994

BANK	1991	1992	1993	1994
Bank 1	1.00	1.00	1.00	—
Bank 2	1.00	1.00	1.00	—
Bank 3	1.00	0.96	1.00	1.00
Bank 4	0.16	0.22	0.27	0.37
Bank 5	0.18	0.10	0.38	—
Bank 6	0.24	0.19	0.25	—
Bank 7	0.36	0.23	0.29	—
Bank 8	0.61	0.55	0.85	—
Bank 9	—	0.03	0.07	0.12
Bank 10	—	0.09	0.12	—

Source: Ayadi, O.F, Adebayo, A.O., and Omolehinwa, E (1998) Bank Performance Measurement in a Developing Economy: An Application of Data Envelopment Analysis, *Managerial Finance*, Volume 24 Number 7, p. 10

Table 6.3 Overall Benchmarking: Comparison of Investment Climate Indicators

Country	Macro Stability	Finance	Market Structure	Infrastructure	Skills	Customs	Labor	Business Regulation	Governance	simple average	CPIA #8
Eritrea	0.18	0.48	0.30	0.28	0.27	0.55		0.50	0.57	0.39	3.00
Ethiopia	0.61	0.68	0.58	0.35	0.21	0.18	0.90	0.34	0.47	0.48	3.00
Kenya	0.49	0.55	0.31	0.37	0.58	0.32	1.00	0.39	0.25	0.47	4.00
Mozambique	0.23	0.08	0.34	0.41	0.12	0.14	0.36	0.31	0.41	0.27	3.50
Nigeria	0.23	0.10	0.40	0.41	0.48	0.05	0.49	0.37	0.22	0.31	2.50
Uganda	0.45	0.24	0.59	0.45	0.58	0.68	0.30	0.74	0.30	0.48	4.50
Tanzania	0.55	0.59	0.61	0.22	0.18	0.23	0.49	0.51	0.58	0.44	4.00
Zambia	0.00	0.18	0.31	0.47	0.39	0.73	0.37	0.53	0.28	0.36	3.50
China	0.88	0.89	0.73	1.00	0.82	0.59	0.60	0.62	0.74	0.76	3.50
India	0.65	0.90	0.58	0.61	0.82	0.41	0.25	0.58	0.90	0.63	4.00
Morocco	0.87	0.67	0.73	0.91	0.73	1.00	0.83	0.80	0.94	0.83	3.50
Bolivia	0.86	0.70	0.63	0.50	0.97	0.55	0.34	0.23	0.82	0.62	3.50

Source: Eifert, B, and Ramachandran, V, (2004) Competitiveness and Private Sector Development in Africa: Cross-Country Evidence from the World Bank's Investment Climate Data, *Africa Investment Climate Assessments*, the Regional Program on Enterprise Development and the Development Economics Research Group of the World Bank, August.

Table 6.4: Gross Labour Productivity in Nigeria: 1974-1996

Year	Gross Productivity ('000)	Annual Growth Rate
1975	4.59	-
1976	4.69	-2.77
1977	5.53	-1.72
1979	4.88	-1.39
1981	3.54	-29.53
1983	3.36	-3.93
1985	3.74	20.73
1987	3.22	-3.12
1989	3.61	4.59
1990	3.79	5.26
1991	3.86	1.78
1992	3.87	0.08
1993	3.86	-0.24
1994	3.86	-0.05
1995	3.78	-2.03
1996	3.80	0.58
1974-80	5.09	1.71
1981-90	3.46	-1.91
1991-96	3.84	0.03
1974-96	4.01	-0.17

Obadan, M.I., and Odusola, A.F., (2000), from CBN: Statistical Bulletin (various issues), Nigeria: Economic, Financial and Banking Indicators (various issues); National Planning Commission: National Development Plans (various issues); FOS: Annual Abstract of Statistics (various issues); ILO (1996) and World Bank: African Development Indicators (various issues) and World Tables (various issues).

This line of argument therefore supports the view in this research literature that there is a lack of evidence to support the degree of employee attitudinal normative and/or continuance commitment to their organisations in Nigeria. This is because the knowledge of employee utilisation and their degree of commitment for effective decision making has been left un-researched and therefore unknown, in a country with hundreds of organisations.

The need to study, understand and assess commitment in Nigeria is therefore a considerable challenge which places human resource needs on a par with organisational survival and profitability. It also calls for urgent action as noted by Soludo (2004, p. 6) that “the summary from the foregoing is that the Nigerian banking system faces enormous challenges which if not addressed urgently could snowball into a crisis in the near future.” There is therefore the need for better conceptualisation and measurement of employee commitment, which will enable further decision-making on how to utilise and reposition the workforce and reduce turnover, not only in the banking sector, but also in the larger economy.

This is essential as, as Heimann (2001) noted “the prosperity and strength of any economy relies heavily upon the proper and prudent functioning of the country’s system of financial intermediation. If the financial system is strong, the economy has the ability to grow and the strength to absorb shocks. But if the financial system is weak, it acts as a magnifier of problems, rather than a shock

absorber.” In the same vein, the prosperity and strength of every financial system is also dependent on the degree of committed workforce available within the sector and the extent to which they are committed to the exercise and expression of commitment towards their organisations’ goals.

Therefore, banks are expected to, amongst other things, ensure prudent management of assets and good utilisation of its human resources. They are also expected to facilitate employee loyalty (commitment) and take steps to reduce labour turnover for high employee satisfaction regarding their jobs and organisations. In other words, they are expected to attract and retain highly committed and self-motivated employees for productivity and sustainable growth. These are therefore pre-requisites for economic prosperity in any country as the vehicle for the implementation of not only monetary policy (Alashi 2002, p. 72), but for the increase in economic advancement and decrease in the rate of unemployment. As such knowledge and availability of a committed workforce empowers an organisation’s decision-making processes (Anyanwu 2000).

“The point we are making here is that...in general, the (Nigerian) economy is currently cumulatively saddled with over 15 million unemployed and heavily underemployed persons” (Anyanwu 2000, pp. 58-59). The volume of unemployment, crises facing the Nigerian nation in general and high labour turnover faced by the Banking sector in particular, as already discussed, are evidences of a de-motivated, dissatisfied and uncommitted workforce, and a lack of empirical evidence supporting the contributions and efforts of human resources (employee) as a tool for continued economic prosperity and productivity both at national and organisational levels. Hence the need for this research, to enable the conceptualisation and development of a means of assessing (measuring) employee commitment, which will lead to strategic decision-making for improved retention, motivation and satisfaction of a committed workforce for the banking sector in particular and the Nigerian economy in general. In other words, the development of effective and usable scale for the assessment of employee contribution to an organisation’s success.

The benefit of this knowledge is the enablement of strategic decisions that will earn employee trust and confidence, thereby the ability to retain them and aid their long term commitment (loyalty and allegiance) to the organisation and its goal. “This justifies the choice of the ‘Nigerian banking sector’ as the most appropriate research ground for this study” (Davidson 2001, p. 120) as it represents the most advanced and diversified sector within the Nigerian economy with little and/or no governmental control other than the normal bank regulations.

In conclusion therefore, the analysis of the trends in the industry suggests that the battle for survival amongst various companies serving the financial industry (banking sector) would have to be fought not only on price, product quality, delivery speed, sustainable market share and operating cost” (Davidson 2001, p. 120), but on identifying, understanding, assessing and retaining a long term committed workforce that is willing to express emotional feelings and strive towards the

organisation's goal actualisation. It therefore calls for the development of a valid and reliable means of identifying and assessing employee commitment to their organisations within the Nigerian banking sector which is the intent of this research. This effort will therefore provide valuable and detailed data and information for organisations' decision-making towards investments consolidations, competitive strategies, employee motivation, satisfaction and retention amongst others.

6.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter took a somewhat historic overview of the Nigerian banking sector. It highlighted - based on existing literatures - available issues and challenges facing the sector (e.g. industry size, ownerships, growth, control and problems). It also linked the above challenges - especially the issue of labour turnover - to the problem of poor assessment and understanding of employee commitment, which is empirically proven to relate to commitment (Meyer and Allen 1991) and therefore suggests that a good knowledge of employee commitment can contribute to the improvement of the sector.

In conclusion, it is identified that significant to the sector improvement is the ability to assess and identify the contributions and possible values of the human (workforce/manpower) element in offering a better banking sector. Hence the need to identify and develop a better understanding of employee commitment and the method for the assessment of the degree of workers' commitment to their organisations (banks) and how such commitment can be improved and sustained in the long-run.

Therefore, although the Nigerian banking sector has advanced more than its neighbouring countries (Eifert and Ramachandran 2004) a lot needs to be done to enable further advancement in the sector. This includes the assessment and conceptualisation of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria as an aid to decision-making and as a means to influence and reduce labour turnover.

Chapter Seven
Analysis of Research Pilot Study

Chapter Seven

Analysis of Research Pilot Study

7.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed report on the outcomes from the pilot study conducted in one of the branches of the selected organisations in Nigeria. The chapter focuses on the processes adopted in developing the scale for this pilot study and also the method of data collection employed and the participants involved in the study. It also focuses on the methods adopted in the analysis of the data. The findings from the study are also highlighted, followed by a discussion on the impact and implication of the study to this research, with the limitations and the fitness of the outcomes to this research/chapter objectives and questions discussed.

7.1. Chapter objective

To assess the reliability of this research's 18-item scale and to inform the scale item's suitability for the assessment of employee commitment in Nigeria.

7.1.2 Chapter question

Is this research's 18-item commitment scale reliable and therefore suitable for the assessment of commitment in Nigeria?

7.2 Methods: Scale Development

In conducting the research pilot study the researcher used the developed scale for this research, as discussed in chapter six on the methods and methodology. The 18-item scale questionnaire employed in this research was therefore divided along the three component variables of commitment as discussed in the literature chapter. In other words, the scale was divided into three equal scale items of; six items for attitudinal commitment with two items out of the six reverse coded; six items for continuance commitment and six times for normative commitment, with one item reverse coded for the scale.

As previously noted, the questionnaire (scale items) was developed by selecting and improving on a large amount of items from existing scales such as Porter et al. (1974), Meyer et al. (1993), Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) and Wasti (2001) conducted in Western and non-Western culture and also from items identified from the literature to fit into and associate with commitment in Nigeria. The intention was to identify whether the three components can indeed be proved to have their own related variables and also to assess if the scale items are indeed reliable before they can be used in measuring employee commitment in Nigeria on a larger scale. Some of the selected items were

modified and re-worded to appropriately meet the research needs. The “items’ (scale) appropriateness was also taken into account, to make sure they were construct-relevant items” and that the selected items constituted good scale items for the research (Allen 2003, p. 512). The items therefore, represent items that are assumed to tap into Nigerian employees’ ‘feelings’ (Hinkin 1995, p. 969) towards their organisations, as discussed earlier.

7.3 Participants and Procedures

The pilot scale (research questionnaire) was administered to 36 customer service officers in one of the branches of the participating banks in the city of Abakaliki, Ebonyi State in Nigeria. The branch’s customer relations/service officers significantly represent the “non-managerial employees, who usually have limited contact with very top managers, and are likely to see management’s values and interests as remote from their own” (Redman and Snape 2005, p. 303).

7.4 Ethical Issues

In order to abide by ethical standards set for this research, each participant’s consent was sought and the purpose of the study and how the information obtained would be used was made known to them (the participant) before the study. Therefore responses to the questionnaire were voluntary. Moreover, high levels of confidentiality were maintained and participants’ identity and responses remained anonymous.

7.5 Response Distribution and Demographic Outcomes

A total of 50% of the distributed questionnaires were returned with one questionnaire discounted. The exclusion of this questionnaire was based on the fact that after a careful screening of the scales responded to by the participants, so as to obtain an appropriate and reliable response, the excluded questionnaire was observed to have inappropriate responses to the questions, this is in addition to the missing of some items within the scale. Therefore, to avoid obtaining misleading information from the pilot research, the researcher concluded that it would be appropriate to exclude such data, in favour of more genuine and standard questionnaires.

A total of 35% of the returned questionnaires were from female employees of the bank, while the remaining 65% were from their male counterparts. This is a positive outcome in a high power distancing and collectivist society where masculinity (men) dominates the labour market (Ehigie and Umoren 2003). In terms of respondents’ age, 35% of the respondents were within the age brackets 20-25 and 26-30 respectively, while 5% of the respondents were between 31-35 years and 25% of respondents were 36 years and over.

In the collectivist Nigerian society, marriage and family is deemed very important and sacred, therefore one is either married or single. It is possible to be married but divorced or married but separated or not married but in partnership. However, being in any of these positions is avoided, as culturally it may be seen as taboo (Achebe 1958). Therefore, based on the above responses, 42% of the participants are married while 58% are single workers. Regarding the number of years each respondent has contributed to their organisation, 48% said they had worked between two to three years, 18% for four to five years, 22% for six to eight years and 12% for nine years and above.

The scale was therefore administered as an interval rating scale in the form of a 7-point Likert (1932) type commitment scale of one to seven “to indicate the extent of participants’ agreement or disagreement with a given statement (Hair et al. 2003, p. 156), where seven represents ‘very strongly agree’, six represents ‘strongly agree’, five ‘agree’, four ‘neither agree nor disagree’, three ‘disagree’, two ‘strongly disagree’ and one ‘very strongly disagree’. The reverse coded items were worded in the opposite of the above 7 point scale with one representing ‘very strongly agreed’ and seven ‘very strongly disagreed’, see Appendix 1. The intent of this method is to offer the respondents with more choice and help capture their feelings towards their organisations and provide scope for the assessment of the scale’s reliability (Hinkin 1995).

7.6 Assessing Scale Items Reliability: The Reliability Assessment Instrument

In conducting the test of statistical significance (reliability and correlations) the researcher used a more generally accepted statistical instrument for research of this kind. The Cronbach’s coefficient alpha internal consistency measure is used for reliability assessment. The use of Cronbach’s alpha is due to the instrument being seen to represent a more efficient way of assessing reliability (Pavot et al. 1991). Moreover, internal consistency is concerned with assessing the extent to which tests and/or procedures measure the same construct in the study with precision. Cronbach’s alpha therefore attempts to measure with accuracy how well a set of items (variables) measure the construct being studied (Bryman and Cramer 2001).

For example, how well the commitment components (attitudinal, continuance and normative commitment) scale items, developed for the assessment of organisational commitment in Nigeria, measure what it is intended to measure with a good degree of accuracy. The general rules governing Cronbach’s alpha coefficient which is applied in this research is that the higher the reliability and the correlation coefficient, the higher the internal consistency of the test (Pavot et al. 1991, Bryman and Cramer 2001 and Pallant 2005). The acceptable range for Cronbach’s alpha coefficient internal consistency is usually between 0.7 – 1.0. This research’s internal reliability test assessment was measured using Cronbach’s alpha internal reliability measures through SPSS.

Further discussion on this instrument is found in the methods and methodology chapter of this research.

7.6.1 Outcomes

The 18-item scale reliability test outcomes using SPSS are shown in Table 7.1a below.

Table 7.1a Summary/Statistics of Total Scale Reliability

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.890	18

The above table (7.1a) shows the generic reliability of the 18-item scale. The result shows a high reliability of .890 in a scale of 1 to 10, with the mean score suitable as expected from the range of scores. However, on assessing the reliability of the individual items in the scale as shown in Table (7.1b) below, a different result is obtained, with the minimum reliability shown in the scale as .875 and the maximum as .899 (.900) approximately. It is also found that there is a high correlation in the scale items as most of the items as shown in the item total correlation, give an indication of a high degree of item correlation with the total score. The figures that are .3 and above have a high degree of connectedness with the concept being measured, on the other hand, the figures that are less than .3 (e.g. .222, .090, .149) “indicate that the items are measuring something different from the scale as a whole” (Pallant 2005, p. 92).

Table 7.1b Item-Total Statistics: Reliability of Scale Items

Scale Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
connectedness1	76.65	228.868	.597	.883
connectedness2	76.82	227.779	.597	.882
belonging1	76.82	234.654	.483	.886
desire	76.71	231.721	.476	.886
lack of connectedness	77.24	237.691	.222	.897
lack of belonging	76.24	240.566	.327	.890
cost1	77.82	221.404	.665	.880
sacrifices	78.65	239.368	.373	.889
limited alternative1	78.59	210.132	.738	.876
limited alternative 2	77.35	248.118	.090	.897
cost2	78.76	215.566	.739	.877
cost3	78.41	222.632	.621	.881
moral feeling1	77.88	209.985	.668	.879
loyalty to people	77.82	220.154	.871	.875
moral 2	79.00	223.875	.560	.883
loyalty to organisation	77.06	228.684	.813	.879
obligation	78.41	242.007	.147	.899
lack of moral feelings	78.76	212.691	.746	.876

Furthermore, the grouping of items into the three components of commitment (attitudinal, normative and continuance commitment) for reliability assessment also produced high reliability for each component. Nevertheless, attitudinal commitment showed higher reliability of .802 for six items, while continuance and normative commitment produced similar but relatively lower reliability of .784 and .789 for six items each, respectively. See Tables 7.2a/b, 7.3a/b and 7.4a/b below.

Table 7.2a Attitudinal Component of Commitment Generic Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.802	6

Table 7.2b Attitudinal Component of Commitment Individual Item-Total Reliability Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
connectedness1	27.65	24.493	.624	.757
connectedness2	27.82	24.029	.628	.755
belonging1	27.82	23.904	.753	.733
desire	27.71	23.596	.637	.753
lack of connectedness	28.24	26.691	.211	.877
lack of belonging	27.24	24.441	.727	.740

Table 7.3a Continuance Component of Commitment Generic Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.784	6

Table 7.3b Continuance Component of Commitment Individual Item

-Total Reliability Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
cost1	19.71	27.596	.604	.734
sacrifices	20.53	33.515	.360	.787
limited alternative1	20.47	22.390	.768	.681
limited alternative 2	19.24	36.316	.090	.838
cost2	20.65	24.868	.734	.696
cost3	20.29	26.596	.659	.719

Table 7.4a Normative Component of Commitment Generic Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.789	6

Table 7.4b Normative Component of Commitment Individual Item

-Total Reliability Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
moral feeling1	20.41	25.882	.726	.704
loyalty to people	20.35	32.493	.786	.715
moral 2	21.53	33.140	.501	.766
loyalty to organisation	19.59	37.132	.588	.762
obligation	20.94	37.059	.216	.839
lack of moral feelings	21.29	29.846	.641	.730

The table below provides clear and specific statements for each scale item used in this research with the specific reliability scale outcomes.

Table 7.5 Scale Items with Items Internal Reliability Scores

S/N	Generic Scale Items	Alpha If Item Deleted
1.	I consider myself an integral part of this organisation.	.883
2.	What occurs in this organisation emotionally effects me.	.882
3.	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation.	.886
4.	I desire to achieve my aspiration in this organisation.	.886
5.	I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation. (R)	.880
6.	This organisation does not mean so much to me. (R)	.889
7.	My life and family would be very much disrupted if I decided to leave my organisation now.	.876
8.	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.	.897
9.	Leaving this organisation now is difficult for me as there are limited available alternatives.	.877
10.	I will leave this organisation if there is guarantee that other places will be better than this organisation.	.881
11.	It is difficult to leave as I don't want to start from scratch at another organisation.	.879
12.	Staying with this organisation now, is a matter of necessity.	.875
13.	I would feel guilty if I leave this organisation now.	.883
14.	I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	.879
15.	Moving from one organisation to another does not seem morally appropriate to me.	.899
16.	I believe that loyalty is important, actually, this organisation deserves my loyalty.	.897
17.	I do not feel any moral obligation to remain in this organisation.	.890
18.	There is nothing wrong in moving from one organisation to the other.	.876
	Total Scale Alpha	.890

In summary, the scale developed and used in this research for the assessment of organisational commitment in Nigeria showed a good internal consistency, with the Cronbach alpha coefficient reported for the scale at .890 and for each component of commitment (affective, continuance and normative commitment), reporting a reliability of .802, .784 and .789 respectively.

The research will further explore for scale items factor reduction and extractions to support the internal reliability by using exploratory factor analysis to identify individual scale items (variable) relevant to this research and number of factors in the total scale.

7.7 Test of scale items using Exploratory Factor Analysis/PCA

The meaning, relevance and use of exploratory factor analysis have already been discussed in the earlier chapter on research methods and methodology and therefore will not be discussed further in this chapter, but will be used in the analysis of the collected pilot data. The tables and analysis below show the outcomes from this research exploratory factor analysis using PCA, through SPSS as a suitable statistical tool. The analysis of each relevant item/section in the statistical result is presented in sections as summarised in Appendix 6 and in Tables 7.6i-k below.

7.7.1 Summary of findings

The 18-item organisational commitment scale developed to assess commitment in Nigeria for this research was subjected to principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS, version 12. This also includes items assessing each component of commitment: attitudinal, continuance and normative components of commitment. As (Pallant 2005, p. 191) also observed in her research “prior to performing the PCA the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed...the inspection of the correlation matrix, revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above”. The factorability of the correlation matrix as shown in the above tables was established using Bartlett’s (1954) test of sphericity, which showed components extractions are statistically significant.

Therefore in conducting the research factor analysis, PCA was used for the factor extraction. Table 7.6a in Appendix 6 shows the results from the loading, which identified that out of the 18 items (components) used in assessing commitment, three components (factors) showed an initial Eigenvalues result that is greater than one, with the first components showing a maximum of 7.374, or approximately 41% variance, while the second component is 3.290 or 18.277 % variance and the third, 2.115 or approximately 12% (11.752%). This provides a total of 70.997, approximately 71% of the Initial Eigenvalues percentage of variances. For each component item tested, single factor Initial Eigenvalues percentage of variances extractions score of 57.523%, 50.797%, and 55.021 were recorded on attitudinal, continuance and normative components of commitment respectively. See Tables 7.6d to 7.6h respectively in Appendix 6. Furthermore, on combining items in the scale

by randomly selecting either attitudinal and normative or normative and continuance or continuance and attitudinal components, two factor extractions were identified. See Tables 7.6i to 9.6m respectively in Appendix 6.

In summary therefore, for the individual commitment component items (attitudinal, continuance and normative commitments), only one component was extracted per component. While the combination of randomly selected items informed two components extractions (e.g. three items each from continuance and normative components of commitment). This confirms that the items are indeed measuring the components they claim to measure as established in the literature.

Therefore, below the Eigenvalues is the result of the rotated component (correlation) matrix, examined at greater than .3 ($>.3$), for evidence of high coefficient, that is to identify and address issues of scale items interrelationships, as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). The factor loading scores in Table 9.6d in Appendix 6, therefore show the correlation between factors and individual variables on a scale above .3. Therefore, where a factor loading is less than .3 ($<.3$), it is assumed not to be a factor. But where it is more than .3 ($>.3$), the variable is assumed to be a component of the factor to which it relates. The outcomes as shown in Table 9.6d, Appendix 6, are evidence of a high interrelationship between the variable components with the minimum scale item interrelationship at .210 and the maximum at .944. It also confirms that out of the 18 components, the three factors extracted have high interrelationship with every other component. In other words, the 18 variables fit into three factors (continuance, normative and attitudinal components of commitment), with evidence of high communality of .944, as shown in Table 7.6a below.

Table 7.6a Components Community Extraction

	Initial	Extraction
connectedness1	1.000	.747
connectedness2	1.000	.478
belonging1	1.000	.944
desire	1.000	.798
lack of connectedness	1.000	.089
lack of belonging	1.000	.808
disruption to life/family (cost)	1.000	.638
sacrifices	1.000	.605
limited alternative 1	1.000	.881
limited alternative 2	1.000	.210
cost of leaving(from scratch)	1.000	.852
need to stay (cost)	1.000	.823
moral feeling1	1.000	.781
loyalty to people	1.000	.815
moral 2	1.000	.883
loyalty to organisation	1.000	.826
obligation	1.000	.822
lack of moral feelings	1.000	.780

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.6b Summary Table of Two Factor (Variance) Extraction

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.374	40.968	40.968	7.374	40.968	40.968	5.152	28.620	28.620
2	3.290	18.277	59.245	3.290	18.277	59.245	4.176	23.198	51.819
3	2.115	11.752	70.997	2.115	11.752	70.997	3.452	19.178	70.997

What this implies is that, in total, only three factors are extracted out of the eighteen component loading for this research, using Varimax techniques, see Table 7.6j above, while the rest of the items relate to the three factors (attitudinal, continuance and normative commitment) extractions. An explanation to the variance is shown as a percentage in the right hand column of Table 7.6a, in Appendix 6. A comparison of this finding (result) can be made between Table 7.6k below, showing a three component (factor) extract with its correlated items in un-rotated factors and Table 7.6b, in Appendix 6, showing the value of the rotated factors respectively with significant changes and better results identified in Table 7.6b after rotation.

Table 7.6c Pattern/Structured for Coefficient before Rotation: Component Matrix (a)

	Component		
	1	2	3
loyalty to people	.881	.111	.165
loyalty to organisation	.872	-.240	.087
lack of moral feelings	.844	-.040	-.258
disruption to life/family (cost)	.776	-.157	-.106
connectedness1	.731	-.456	-.075
limited alternative1	.731	.574	-.134
cost of leaving(from scratch)	.721	.563	-.125
moral feeling1	.660	.524	.267
connectedness2	.633	-.099	.258
need to stay (cost)	.628	.424	.499
desire	.625	-.544	.335
lack of connectedness	.256	-.048	-.145
obligation	.146	.740	.503
belonging1	.643	-.708	-.168
lack of belonging	.425	-.666	.429
moral 2	.635	.260	-.642
sacrifices	.471	.109	-.609
limited alternative 2	.097	-.078	.441

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a 3 components extracted.

The reliability of the three factor extraction is also proven (supported) by the outcomes from the scree plot, which is further explained using Catell's (1966) scree test plot shown below.

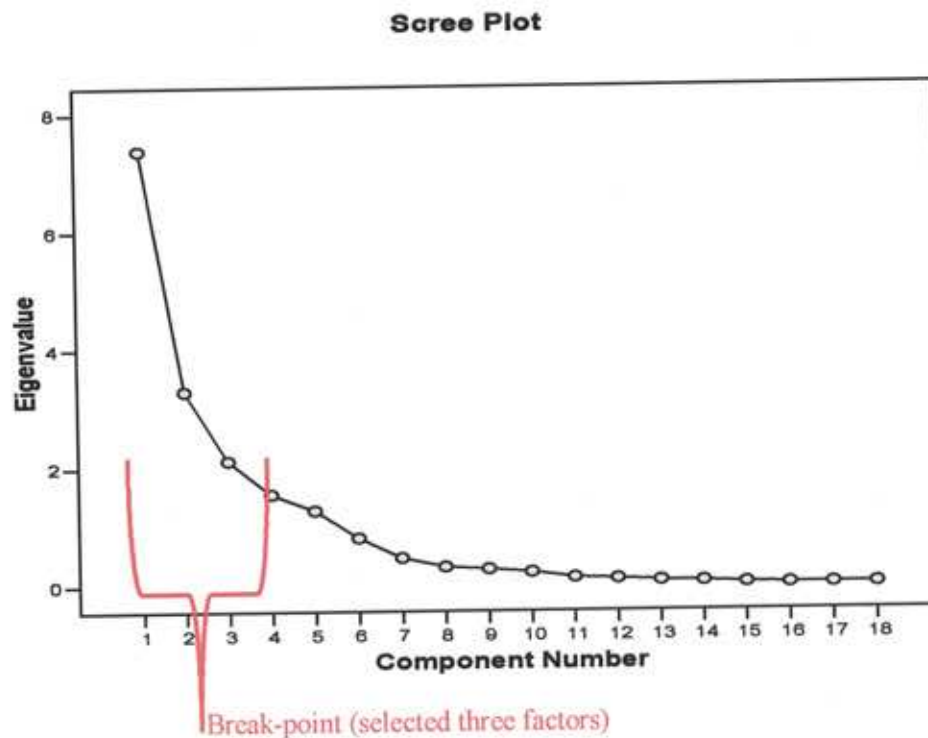


Figure 7.1: Pilot component scree plot

The scree plot shows that the X axis represents the 18item components used in data collection, while the Y axis represents the total or percentage of the Eigenvalues. This shows that the highest Eigenvalue is 7.374, while the lowest is 1.268, from which the three factors are extracted, after which there is a break in the chain. Therefore, based on the above findings, it was concluded that the above extracted three factors should be retained for this research as they indeed revealed the presence of simple structure (Pallant 2005 and Thurstone 1947) and also significantly represented a strong loading for all the variables, accounting for approximately 71% of the total variable. This strongly implies that the interpretation of the three complementing (factors) is consistent with previous research on organisational commitment scale both in Western and non-Western organisations (Mayer et al. 1993, Lee et al. 2001, Wasti 2002), with some attitudinal, continuance and normative commitment component items loading strongly on the first factor which accounts for approximately 41% of the variance, while the second and third items have strong loading from continuance and normative components of commitment, accounting for approximately 18% and 12% of the variances.

7.8 Discussions

The result from this analysis supports the use of items connected with the three factors for the assessment of commitment in Nigeria. It also points to the fact as argued in this literature that commitment in Nigeria should be studied from a three component (continuance and affective components of commitment) perspective in accordance with other empirical studies (Lee et al. 2003, Wasti 2002).

The statistical scale extractions therefore are based on the literature argument that the concept of organisational commitment in non-Western Nigeria has three components (attitudinal, continuance and normative commitment). Therefore, although some literatures argue for two or more components in both Western and non-Western organisations (Wasti 2002), this pilot outcome points to the fact that commitment in non-Western Nigerian organisations may indeed comprise of three components as shown by the above factor extractions.

The outcome from the factor analysis recognised and extracted three factors out of the 18-item scale that supposed to measure multiple variables associated with the three components of commitment. The identified three factors are items that strongly express normative, continuance and affective components of commitment, meaning that the variables are indeed assessing what they are defined as and designed to assess; normative, continuance and attitudinal components of commitment.

This finding therefore seems to confront and provide answers to the questions raised in the literatures (see Chapter 5) of whether normative commitment is indeed a component of commitment. On the other hand, is it merely one of those variables (items) that contribute to the measure of either or both attitudinal and continuance commitment; as employee feelings (emotional attachment) or employee consideration of the moral cost associated with a responsibility he/she believes they owe their organisation? While this research is not designed to argue for or against the fitness of normative commitment as a component of commitment in Nigerian cultural context, it is the researcher's belief and proposal that this issue inform a further study on the nature of normative commitment in Nigeria as a collectivist society, just as Wasti (2002) did in Turkey, even though evidence from this pilot suggests it is indeed a distinctive component of commitment.

In conclusion therefore, and in view of this pilot objective, which is to confirm if this scale is reliable and fit for the assessment of commitment in Nigeria, a statement that is also the pilot study question? The researcher concludes therefore that the scale is indeed reliable at .890 and for that reason suitable. Furthermore the extraction of the three components (factors) using principal

component analysis (PCA) provides for the scale validity. It therefore can be successfully argued that the scale has strong content validity as it indeed measured what it argued and defined as commitment and its components in Nigeria.

However theoretically there is the need to further integrate cultural issues necessary for assessment of commitment in Nigeria, that is, the integration of some cultural elements (factors) in the assessment of commitment. This is necessary as it was established that culture is relevant to the conceptualisation of commitment in Nigeria. Moreover, it is evidently possible that the scale items used in this pilot study can effectively be used in any Western organisation with similar outcomes due to the fact that issues associated with the unique collectivist and integrativist, power distancing culture into which Nigeria fits, was somehow neglected in the development of the scale. This therefore informs part of the pilot research limitation.

7.8.1 Limitations found in the pilot scale items

While this scale is particularly suitable for the measure of employee commitment in Nigeria due to its internal reliability and statistical validity, it is evidently clear that items that will enable this research to establish itself as Nigerian scale/research from a culture and commitment perspective is lacking in the scale. As it stands therefore, the scale is only suitable for the assessment of employee commitment. This could be in Western or non-Western organisations. It therefore requires the development of additional scale items that will assess the relationship between commitment and culture, to help establish empirically that culture influences employee commitment in a collectivist and integrativist Nigerian society as theoretically established in this research literature. This is necessary because such items will tap into cultural issues such as power distancing and collectivist dimensions and integrativist culture characteristics that are currently absent in the scale.

Therefore, if employees' commitment to their organisation is argued to be culturally connected and there is a strong relationship between employee commitment and culture, this must be studied before a successful measurement of commitment in non-Western organisations is carried out i.e. the integration of scale items assessing commitment from a cultural perspective inevitable for a successful study of organisational commitment.

7.8.2 What will this research do?

As a result of the above findings the researcher will, revisit and redesign the research scale so that it is more culturally related and motivated. The new scale will therefore focus on developing a more culture-motivated scale with evidence of power distancing, collectivism and integrativism as cultural dimensions and characteristics applicable to Nigerian circumstances. In redesigning and

improving this research hypothesis, the focus will be on finding a relationship between employee commitment and culture.

Chapter Eight

Research Data Analysis and Findings

Chapter Eight

Research Data Analysis and Findings

8.0 Introduction

This chapter extends this study on the development of an effective instrument for the assessment of employee commitment in non-Western cultures such as Nigeria. In other words this chapter will focus on practically extending the outcomes of the research literature and statistically create an empirical study exploring the behavioural aspects of employee commitment to their organisation. The chapter therefore will document the result of three years of active research study on the subject area, and by extension demonstrate that the instrument developed is a suitable and usable tool for effective measurement and interpretation of employee commitment to their organisation.

The following sections of this chapter will therefore provide a detailed report on the outcomes (findings) from the research data analysis conducted in Nigeria across two geo-political zones of the country, using some of the branches of the participating organisations (banks). The focus will be to analyse, interpret, discuss and understand the data and methods employed in this research data analysis including an understanding of the demographic data in order to obtain usable information.

The chapter is therefore divided into sections. The first section will deal with the analysis of the demographic data. The second section will involve testing the research instrument (scale) for suitability using some statistical and measurement tools by extracting factors relevant to the study and reducing items from the research scale in order to establish research scale reliability and validity. The third section involves the test of the research instrument against the variables income and age, as discussed in the literature chapters, so as to establish the scale as a discriminator, that is, to demonstrate and present the scale as a usable instrument for effective measure of employee commitment behaviour to their organisations. In other words the section aims to demonstrate that the scale is a suitable and usable scale for the effective assessment of commitment in Nigeria.

The final section attempts to briefly and critically discuss, reintroduce and summarise the gaps identified in the research literature review with regard to definitional and measurement aspects of the study of employee commitment and link to the findings from the analysis. It will also reaffirm the relevance of the knowledge of people's culture before a successful study of employee commitment can be executed in a non-Western environment. This also includes a brief on the methodologies and methods used and the outcomes from the analysis produced in the form of discussions of the findings.

8.1 Chapter Aims and Objectives

To empirically establish and present this research questionnaire as a suitable and usable scale for the assessment of employee commitment in Nigeria.

To discuss research outcomes leading to the summary chapter and recommendations for further research.

8.1.1 Chapter question

How can employee commitment be effectively measured in Nigeria using a culture-motivated commitment scale?

The above chapter research question originates from the research hypothetical statement as discussed in Chapter Seven and as highlighted below.

8.2 Section 1: Research Hypothesis, Setting, Sampling and Procedures

In conducting this research study, Chapter Five was dedicated to issues concerning research methodologies and methods and therefore these will not be discussed further. However, this chapter will attempt to apply the discussed statistical instruments in providing solutions to the following research hypotheses as discussed in the literature, methodology and methods chapters.

8.2.1 Research hypothesis

The following are the hypotheses explored within this research study.

Hypothesis 1

This research's employee commitment scale is a suitable (valid and reliable) scale for effective measurement of employee commitment in Nigeria.

Whereas the above hypothesis aims at assessing the dependability, validity and suitability of the Nigerian employee commitment scale, in order to take the research scale a step further, so as to prove its usability for a successful study of employee commitment behaviour, this chapter will subject the following hypothetical assumption to test using two variables: income and age, as previously discussed within the research literature review chapters.

Hypothesis 2

Nigerian high income earning employees are as committed to their organisations as their low income earning counterparts.

Hypothesis 3

Older Nigerian employees are more committed to their organisations than their younger counterparts.

Hypothesis 4

Ho: There is no relationship between the variables employee (participants) income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

Hi: There is a relationship between the variables employee (participants) income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

Hypothesis 5

Ho: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are independent of each other.

Hi: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are not independent of each other.

The dividing of the research hypotheses into two distinctive areas of investigation points to the fact that the research will conduct two empirical studies. While the first study will aim at establishing the reliability, validity and suitability of the Nigerian commitment scale as an effective instrument for the successful measurement of employee commitment to their organisations in Nigeria, the second study will be testing the usability of the scale for the effective study of employee commitment behaviour. Both studies involve quantitative measures using survey instruments with data from the same sample population.

The chapter on research methodologies and methods also discussed in broader terms other issues concerning the research sample population and the processes involved in the development of this research scale as validated in the research pilot chapter. Irrespective of the above, this section will attempt to provide in-depth demographic information on the sample population/size and thereafter progress into the research measurement and statistical analysis.

8.2.2 Research setting, participants and demographic issues

In developing the most appropriate culture-motivated scale (questionnaire) for the assessment of commitment within non-Western Nigerian organisations, a rigorous scale development process was employed as discussed in the methodology and methods chapters. In selecting the scale item and item size, the number of items to be included in the new scale and the associated problems with having a large scale size were clearly considered. This was necessary as the size of a scale (that is the number of items in a scale and its length) may possibly impinge on or positively motivate scale responses. These concerns, if neglected, may affect the scale's validity and reliability (Hinkin and Schriesheim 1989 and Hinkin 1995). Therefore Porter et al.'s (1974), Meyer and Allen's (1991),

Meyer et al.'s (1993), Iverson and Buttigieg's (1999) and Wasti's (2001) scale items were revisited with an understanding that although a longer scale may impinge on scale response, the richness of a scale is also necessary for validity to occur.

In view of the above development and the fact that this research is intended to be a quantitative research from a positivist's stance, an interval rating metric Likert scale was developed. For the scale to be culture-specific, the items were broadened and increased from the previous 18-item commitment scale used for the pilot study, to a new 28-item Likert scale. The scale was divided into three broad scale items representing each component of commitment: attitudinal, continuance and normative components of commitments and seven subscale scales of commitment factors. These included 16 out of the 18 original scale items developed to generically assess commitment in Nigeria, a scale used for the pilot study and 12 additional items developed to make the study more culture-motivated. For example, such items attempt to assess employee commitment to their organisation in relation to employee personal desires and aspirations, family pressures and loyalty to friends (collectivist culture) and superiors (power distancing).

The above factors were adequately represented in the research scale, apart from the 16 generic commitment items developed to assess attitudinal, continuance, and normative commitment components. The other culture-related commitment factors were divided into three items for personal desires, three for family loyalty, three for loyalty to colleagues and friends and three for commitment to superiors, for a total of 12 new items. These items were discussed in the methodology and methods chapter. The intent was for the scales to help capture and effectively assess the components of employee commitment from a cultural perspective and help inform the degree to which Nigerian employees are committed to their organisations.

As discussed in Chapter Five of this thesis, research was conducted within the Nigerian banking sector. A total of 200 questionnaires were administered to customer service officers within the branches of the participating organisations, with 84 usable data, representing 42% of the distributed questionnaires returned (collected) without exclusions. Further attempts were made by the researcher to increase the number of questionnaires received without success. These included the plan for a second visit to Nigeria and the use of electronic communication means such as emails and telephone to re-emphasise, request, educate and inform those participants yet to return their completed questionnaire of the need to complete and return theirs. The plan to revisit participants in person was impossible due to the distance and costs associated with a visit to Nigeria from the UK. In addition, the researcher's choice of telephone and email was rendered impossible as the majority of participants have limited access to telephone and email facilities. An attempt to use participants' line managers was also fruitless because most managers have targets to meet and were

unwilling to allow respondents to use their working hours for such activities. In addition, contacting participants after work hours was impossible as the researcher did not have access to private email addresses and telephone numbers. Moreover, some participants do not have access to such electronic facilities and have indicated an unwillingness to pass on personal details. The researcher was also restrained in adopting such approaches on the basis that it may, on ethical grounds, invalidate the research.

Therefore, whereas the research questionnaire was administered to a 200 sample population, the actual research participants based on the returned questionnaires were 84 (n=84) non-managerial, customer service staff within the Abakaliki (South-Eastern) and Lagos (South-Western) branches of the selected banks. The choice of these sample groups was previously discussed in the research methodology and methods chapter. The respondents represent as earlier noted, the finest of staff with first hand experience in their daily dealings with customers and therefore are involved in not only generating profits for the organisation, but are also essential to the organisation because they represent the image of the organisation and serve as a source of sustainable growth, contributing to profitability and customer retention. As they are not part of the strategic leadership team their commitment can be identified to connect with their feeling for the organisation/goals, job or other internal and external factors, including personal aspirations, income and influence from superiors, amongst others.

The developed Nigerian employee commitment scale was administered to participants in the form of a questionnaire survey. The questionnaire was administered as an interval rating 7 point Likert (1932) type commitment scale to be responded to on a scale of one to seven “to indicate the extent of participants’ agreement or disagreement with a given statement (Hair et al. 2003, p. 156). Where seven represents ‘very strongly agree’, six ‘strongly agree’, five ‘agree’, four ‘neither agree nor disagree’, three ‘disagree’, two ‘strongly disagree’ and one ‘very strongly disagree’, see Appendix 1. The purpose of this improved method is to offer the respondents with more choice and help capture their feelings towards their organisations and provide scope for the assessment of the scale’s validity and reliability (Hinkin 1995).

The questionnaire was administered directly to the participants with the collection of the data involving similar methods at different times. The reason for this approach was to help minimize and maintain limited participant and researcher familiarity which could influence the research outcome (see the literature chapters on the Nigerian cultural system). Moreover, the approach was also used to help build more participant confidence in the process of data collection and to enhance the enforcement of the research policy of participant anonymity and other ethical stances.

Table 8.1 below provides a statistical summary of the demographic information on the research participants, followed by a detailed explanation of outcomes.

Table 8.1 Summary of Research Sample Characteristics

Respondents sex		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	63	75	75	75
	female	21	25	25	100
Respondents Age		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-25	17	20.2	20.2	20.2
	26-30	28	33.3	33.3	53.6
	31-35	26	31	31	84.5
	36-above	13	15.5	15.5	100
Respondents Marital		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	married	44	52.4	52.4	52.4
	single	40	47.6	47.6	100
Respondents Educational Qualification		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	4-5	10	11.9	11.9	11.9
	6-8	45	53.6	53.6	65.5
	9-above	29	34.5	34.5	100
Respondents' years in organisation		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	1	1.2	1.2	1.2
	1-3	37	44	44	45.2
	4-6	30	35.7	35.7	81
	07-9	9	10.7	10.7	91.7
	10-above	7	8.3	8.3	100
Respondents' income bands and percentage scores in Nigerian naira		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	200k-500k	14	16.7	16.7	16.7
	501k-800k	18	21.4	21.4	38.1
	801k-1.1m	4	4.8	4.8	42.9
	1.1-above	48	57.1	57.1	100

While it was not possible for the researcher to identify the percentage of sample population that represents female and male participants, the outputs from the frequency computations as given in

Appendix 5, show that 25% of the returned 84 questionnaires (actual sample size) were from female employees of the participating banks, while the remaining 75% were from their male counterparts. Although the 25% response rate for females falls short of the 35% female response obtained from the pilot study, it is however worthy to note that the sample population (participants) were significantly higher in number in this research than in the pilot study. Moreover, the 25% response is a positive outcome from a high power distancing and collectivist culture (society), where masculinity (men) dominates the labour market (Ehigie and Umoren 2003). It is also encouraging evidence that more women are beginning to take up highly paid and intellectually challenging jobs, formally reserved exclusively for their male counterparts (Oloko 1973, Gbadamosi 2003, Ehigie and Umoren 2003).

In terms of respondents' age, the participants' ages range between 20-36 years and above, with 20.5% of the total participants groups representing the age group 20-25 years. In addition, participants in the age groups 26-30, 31-35, and 36 and above also made up 33.3%, 31% and 15.5% respectively of the total participating population.

In order to be more representative, the researcher extended the demographic items to include participants' marital status. 52.4% of the participants are married, while 47.6% are single workers, with no scores given on divorced, separated and/or widowed participants - a response believed to be culturally motivated (see the literature chapter on the nature of Nigerian culture and pilot study chapter for further discussion).

On respondents' years of service and contributions to active work in their organisations, 1.2% had worked for less than one year, while 44% had worked between 1-3 years, and 35.7%, 10.7% and 8.3% had all been in their organisations between 4-6 years, 7-9 years and 10 years and above respectively. Therefore 79.7% of the total participants had been in their organisation for more than or between 1-6 years. The descriptive data also includes participants' educational qualifications and income. The result showed 16.7% of the participants earn from 200,000 to 500,000 Nigeria Naira, while 21.4%, 4.8% and 57.1% earn from 501,000 to 800,000, 801,000 to 1.1 million and 1.1 million and above per annum respectively with 57.1% representing the highest income earners which is more than half the participating respondents.

8.2.3 The response rate

Whereas there is an ongoing debate among researchers as to what makes a good response rate, it is important to note that response rates using questionnaire surveys may vary depending on the subject area, the importance of the study and the type of respondents. Moser and Kalton (1971) and

Crimp and Wright (1995) support the view that a response rate above 30% represents an acceptable and good response from a research survey.

In line with the above view this research sample population comprises of customer service officers across branches of the participating organisations (banks), within two cities of two geo-political zones in Nigeria. 200 questionnaires were administered with a total of 84 usable data, representing a response rate of 42% of the distributed questionnaire being collected without exclusions. Further attempts were made by the researcher to increase the number of questionnaires received without success.

Based on the earlier arguments from Moser and Kalton (1971) and Crimp and Wright (1995), one can argue that a 42% response rate is indeed an acceptable and good response rate, although a higher response rate would be preferable.

8.2.4 Response bias

Although the administration and collection of data was carefully implemented to limit the degree of error, it is impossible to rule out possible response bias. For example it is possible that some participants may be biased in responding to the questionnaire due to the supposition that a negative response may result in punishment, considering the culture operational within the society in which the research was conducted, as discussed within the research literature chapter. Response bias therefore might exist even though participants were assured that this study was and is independent of the management and that employers would not have access to employee responses. It is also possible that the highly dissatisfied employees with low commitment may see this study as an opportunity to express their anger and may therefore be biased in their approach and response to the questionnaire. Response bias may also be introduced into this study due to the particular wording of the questionnaire, although that limitation was effectively managed during and after the pilot study.

8.2.5 Ethical issues

In order to abide by the ethical standards set for this research, participants' consent was obtained and the purpose of the study and how the information obtained would be used was made known to participants before the study. Therefore response to the questionnaire was voluntary. Moreover, high levels of confidentiality were maintained and participants' identity and responses remained anonymous as discussed within the research methodology and methods chapters.

8.3 Section II: Questionnaire Data Analysis

The first section of the analysis involved the test of scale suitability, that is to examine for the appropriateness of the scale in measuring employee commitment to their organisation. This test is

necessary as its outcome will directly provide answers to the research question. This implies that if the scale is appropriate it can be argued that employee commitment can be effectively measured in Nigeria if an appropriate culture related scale is developed and employed for the assessment of employee commitment to their organisation.

The tests for appropriateness will therefore involve the test for scale item reduction and factor extraction on one hand, and the test for consistency (reliability) of scale items.

8.3.1 Testing for factor analysis and scale consistency

To assess the scale suitability as a tool for effective organisational commitment measurement in Nigeria, exploratory factor analysis in the form of PCA and Varimax, and Cronbach alpha internal consistency are employed in this section as already discussed in the methodology and methods chapter and in this chapter's introduction. The aim is to empirically provide answers to the research question by testing the hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

This research's employee commitment scale is a suitable (valid and reliable) scale for effective measurement of employee commitment in Nigeria.

The first step in the hypothetical test is to conduct research scale item reduction, factor extraction and test of scale reliability using the above-mentioned appropriate statistical instruments.

8 3.2 Scale reductions and factor extraction (exploratory factor analysis)

The above research hypothetical tests and data analysis were conducted using SPSS version 12. This involved the use of exploratory factor analysis in the form of principle component analysis (PCA) through the Varimax method for the factor extraction and scale item reduction.

The meaning, usefulness and benefits of exploratory factor analysis using principal component analysis (PCA) in research of this kind, have already been discussed in this research in Chapter Five and it was found useful, hence its adoption. Therefore any further explanation may lead to repetition.

In conducting this research's factor extraction and analysis, a total of 28-item statements (questionnaire) on organisational commitment were developed and loaded for test (see the 28-item statements questionnaire in Appendix 4). The 28-item statement was developed as a result of the findings from the pilot study that although the 18-item pilot scale was indeed reliable, the items (statements) had strong similarity to the scales originating from Western scales like Meyer and Allen (1993) (see Meyer et al.'s (1993) scale and pilot scale in Chapters Three and Seven respectively). Moreover, the response rate (sample size) for the pilot study was almost statistically

insignificant (see Chapter Seven). Hence the need for the redesigning, modification and development of a more culturally motivated scale; the new 28-item commitment scale used for and in this data analysis.

The 28 scale items statements (see the 28-item statements in Appendix 4) were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation for data/scale reduction and identification of smaller sets of factors with Eigenvalues greater than or equal to 1.0 (Kaiser 1974). “Prior to performing the PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed...the inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above” (Pallant 2005, p. 191). The factorability of the correlation matrix was supported and established using Barlett’s (1954) test of Sphericity, which showed component extractions are statistically significant ($p < .01$).

The outputs from the PCA based on the subjected 28-item scale statements was an 18-item culture-motivated research statement scale as shown in Table 8.2 below, from the rotated factor component matrix, thereby making ten items out of the 28 original scale item statements irrelevant for this research. The PCA analysis therefore reduced the 28 items to 18 relevant and usable scale items with the remaining ten items discarded. The new 18-item scale is deemed to be culturally motivated as some of the scale items seek to uncover the importance and impact of external and internal factors such as friends, families, manager and moral beliefs on individual employee commitment behaviour in a collectivist and power distancing culture like Nigeria. The 18 items are also assumed to be useful items that will enable the successful and effective measurement of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria.

Table 8.2 18-Item Commitment Scale

1. Cost associated with starting afresh
2. Lack of job alternatives
3. Attachment to in-group members
4. Fear of disruption to life
5. Fear of losing friends
6. Feeling of guilt to leave
7. In-group influence to stay
8. Moral belief in remaining in organisation
9. Loyalty due to influence from manager
10. Organisation's care for family welfare
11. High opportunities for employee growth
12. Non-disruption to family
13. Involvement in organisation's goal
14. Availability of career opportunities
15. Emotional feeling of attachment
16. Emotional feeling of importance
17. Emotional feeling of belonging
18. Emotional feeling of affectivity to organisation

The analysis was further expounded to extract commitment factors relevant to the study. The outcome was the extraction from the above 18-item scale, three (3) factor solution/components that correspond to the three components of commitment: attitudinal, normative and continuance, discussed within the research literature chapters. The three factors extracted showed Eigenvalue above .1 (Eigenvalue >1.0). The first component shows a maximum (total) Initial Eigenvalues of (8.630), that is, a cumulative percentage of approximately 48% of the total variances. The second extraction showed a maximum extraction of (3.004), which is approximately 16.7% of the total variances. While the third component showed (1.52), approximately 8.4% of the total variances. This represents a total of 73.1% cumulative percentage of the Initial Eigenvalues of all the variances. This in other words means that the three factor extractions represent a total of 73.1 % of all the eighteen (18) items in the research scale before factor rotation, as show in Tables 8.3a and 8.3b below. The 73.1% cumulative percentage of the Initial Eigenvalues of all the variances shown by the study is a confirmation of the scale representation of all commitment related items found within the scale and used for the study. It is also to some degree evidence of the scales' face validity.

Table 8.3a Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.630	47.947	47.947	8.630	47.947	47.947	5.438	30.210	30.210
2	3.004	16.689	64.636	3.004	16.689	64.636	4.291	23.839	54.049
3	1.526	8.480	73.116	1.526	8.480	73.116	3.432	19.067	73.116

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 8.3b Total Variance Explained without Exclusions

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.630	47.947	47.947	8.630	47.947	47.947	5.438	30.210	30.210
2	3.004	16.689	64.636	3.004	16.689	64.636	4.291	23.839	54.049
3	1.526	8.480	73.116	1.526	8.480	73.116	3.432	19.067	73.116
4	.934	5.190	78.306						
5	.681	3.783	82.089						
6	.625	3.472	85.561						
7	.550	3.058	88.618						
8	.396	2.199	90.817						
9	.384	2.132	92.949						
10	.310	1.723	94.672						
11	.231	1.281	95.953						
12	.220	1.223	97.176						
13	.140	.779	97.956						
14	.129	.714	98.670						
15	.091	.505	99.175						
16	.077	.427	99.602						
17	.046	.257	99.859						
18	.025	.141	100.000						

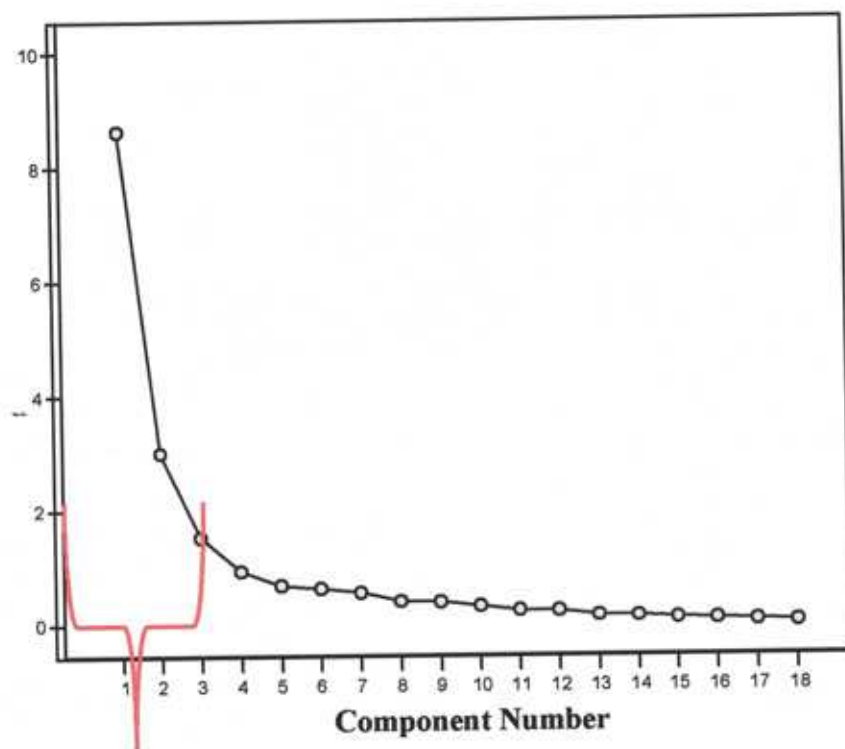
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The three-factor extraction is further assessed to provide evidence of a high interrelationship between the variables used in assessing the components of commitment as previously mentioned from the extracted Eigenvalue value of each component. In other words, the 18-item scale variables were classified to fit into the three-factor extractions as shown in Table 8.6 below. The pattern/structure for coefficients therefore showed that nine out of the 18 scale items relate to and with Factor 1, five items with Factor 2 and four items with Factor 3.

The face validity of this extraction is also supported by the result from the Scree plot shown in Figure 8.1 below, with an Eigenvalue of over 83% from the three-factor extractions out of the 18

item components used in the scale. The outcome of the scree plot is a direct confirmation of the scale face validity and evidence of the three-factor fitness not only to the three components of commitment but also the overall scale ability to assess commitment within the culture and organisation in the study.

Figure 8.1 Components Extraction Scree Plot



Having successfully reduced the scale items from 28 to 18 items and extracted three-factor components, thereby providing strong evidence of scale face validity, the study will further examine the degree of the 18-item scale's internal consistency before its use in furthering this research study.

8.3.3 Measure of scale consistency: Reliability

To further establish the degree to which the research scale is dependable (reliable), the researcher subjected the new 18-item scale extraction from the factor analysis to reliability assessment using Cronbach's alpha internal consistency instrument through SPSS. The choice of Cronbach's alpha is discussed in the methodology and methods chapter. The outcome was a high scale reliability

of .932 alpha for the 18-item generic scale as shown in Table 8.4a below. The high scale reliability score of .932 alpha is a significant shift from the previous .890 alpha score obtained from the 18-item scale developed and used for the pilot study and the low score obtained when reliability assessment was conducted using the original 28-item scale. The upward shift in the score indicates that the excluded ten items from the 28 items “are measuring something different from the scale as a whole” (Pallant 2005, p. 92). The new .932 score is a confirmation of this new 18-item scale’s high levels of consistency. It proves the scale to be a very dependable scale item for the effective assessment of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria.

Table 8.4a Reliability Statistics for Generic Scale Items

Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items
.932	18

Furthermore, each of the three factors extracted from the 18-item scale were also independently subjected to Cronbach’s alpha internal reliability test. The grouping of items into the three components of commitment (attitudinal, normative and continuance) for reliability assessment also produced high reliability for each component, with attitudinal commitment showing the highest reliability score. The first factor comprising of nine items shows a reliability of .931 alpha as shown in Table 8.4b below.

Table 8.4b Reliability Statistics for Factor 1 Scale Items

Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items
.931	9

The second factor comprising of five items showed a reliability score of .887 alpha as shown in Table 8.4c below.

Table 8.4c Reliability Statistics for Factor 2 Scale Items

Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items
.887	5

While the third factor comprising of four items showed a reliability score of .885 alpha as shown in Table 8.4d below.

Table 8.4d Reliability Statistics for Factor 3 Scale Items

Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items
.885	4

The above result provides insight into the strong reliability scores obtained from the assessment of the 18-item scale and on each component extraction with the minimum reliability score on a scale of 1-10 being .885.

The outcome from the assessment of the individual factors/component extracted is evidence that each component on its own is highly consistent and dependable. Each factor extraction is therefore assessing what they claim to measure. It is therefore necessary to seek to understand what these factors are measuring.

8.3.4 Result analysis: Linking extraction to employee commitment

The outcomes from data reduction, factor extraction and reliability assessment, as shown in Tables 8.1 to 8.4, are evidence of scale suitability for the study of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria. It is also a confirmation of high interrelationship between the items and variables used in assessing the three components of commitment discussed within the literature chapter, as components that interpret the meaning of employee commitment. On examining the three-factor extraction from the 18-item variables there is clear evidence that the 18-item scale fits into the three-factor extraction, with the three-factor extractions relating to and fitting into the three components of employee commitment: attitudinal, normative and continuance components, with evidences of high communality of .867 as shown in Tables 8.5 and 8.6 below.

Table 8.5 18-Item Research Scale Components Communalities

Factors/components	Initial	Extraction
1. Emotional feeling of belonging	1.000	.705
2. Emotional feeling of attachment	1.000	.867
3. Emotional feeling of importance	1.000	.764
4. Fear of disruption to life	1.000	.785
5. Feeling of guilt to leave	1.000	.724
6. Cost of starting afresh elsewhere	1.000	.804
7. Lack of job alternatives	1.000	.687
8. Moral belief in remaining in organisation	1.000	.656
9. High opportunities for employee growth	1.000	.728
10. Availability of career opportunities	1.000	.639
11. Involvement in organisation goal	1.000	.691
12. Non-disruption to family	1.000	.701
13. Organisation's care for family welfare	1.000	.780
14. Attachment to in-groups members	1.000	.684
15. Fear of losing friends	1.000	.779
16. Loyalty due to influence from manager	1.000	.690
17. In-group members influence	1.000	.721
18. Emotional feeling of affectivity to org	1.000	.756

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

In addition to the above, the argument for the connection of the three-factor extraction to the three components of commitment is practically evidenced by the rotated factor/component matrix which showed that, of the nine items from the scale in assessing the continuance component of commitment, five items were assessing the normative component and four items were assessing the employee attitudinal component of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria (see Table 8.6 below). The items and their connectivity with each component is clearly outlined in Table 10.6 below with Factor 1 relating with and to continuance commitment, Factor 2 with normative commitment and Factor 3 with the attitudinal component of commitment. Further diagrammatical and general discussions to the extracted factors and items relating to each component is found in Table 8.7 and also extended in the discussion of measure of reliability.

Table 8.6 Pattern/Structure for Coefficients

Components	Component		
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1. Cost of starting afresh	.864		
2. Lack of job alternatives	.823		
3. Attachment to in-group members	.787		
4. Fear of disruption to life	.773		
5. Fear of losing friends	.735		
6. Feeling of guilt to leave	.731		
7. In-group influence to stay	.699		
8. Moral belief in remaining in organisation	.662		
9. Loyalty due to influence from manager	.617		
10. Organisation's care for family welfare		.823	
11. High opportunities for employee growth		.804	
12. Non-disruption to family		.790	
13. Involvement in organisations goal		.778	
14. Availability of career opportunities		.569	
15. Emotional feeling of attachment			.916
16. Emotional feeling of importance			.829
17. Emotional feeling of belonging			.829
18. Emotional feeling of affectivity to organisation			.693

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. A Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

It is important to note that, as earlier discussed, that regarding the factor extraction, while Factor 3 loads only on four items, it indeed accounts for 47.947% of the total variance within the scale items. This implies that the factor extracted is a more general factor and indeed clearly and correctly applies to the assessment of employee emotional (affective) commitment. The same may not categorically be said of Factors 2 and 1 with five and nine items loading at 16.689% and 8.480% variances respectively. This is because by contrast, some items within the five items loading for Factor 2 that should measure employee normative commitment, have items that relate to employee attitudinal (affective) commitment (Factor 3) and employee continuance commitment (Factor 1). This situation also applies to Factor 1 with some items that relate to and with attitudinal and normative commitment, although it should measure continuance commitment. For example,

“employees’ feelings of involvement in organisational goal actualisation” should possibly apply to employee attitudinal commitment, which attempts to focus on employee emotions, belonging and involvement in and to their organisation. This statement is however found to align with normative commitment. Likewise, ‘moral beliefs is a statement that theoretically should associate itself with normative commitment, but is found loading on and with continuance and normative commitment items respectively.

Although this may raise anxiety, it in no way represents a new problem, as some other researchers like Wasti (2001) identified similar issues in their research within their non-Western culture studies of employee commitment. In addition, such concern also extends the argument on the reality of separating normative commitment from continuance and attitudinal components of employee commitment as discussed in the literature chapters.

Pertinent to this study however, is the fact that following the outcome from the review of literatures which critically studied the origin of commitment, its meaning and various definitions offered by various experts on the subject, it is evident from the research outcome that the problem of definition and measurement of commitment as identified in the literatures is culture-related. It is a problem attributable to the fact that people tend to define commitment based on three key factors: What they assume commitment is; what their culture interprets commitment to mean and or what the subject matter they are researching (Mowday 2000, Meyer and Allen 1991).

Therefore, an attempt to measure commitment within a non-Western society without due consideration and integration of cultural elements to the study will lead to conflict of culture, misinterpretation of scale items due to language differences and/or misunderstanding of the purpose of the study. In other words, the knowledge of a people’s culture is fundamental to a successful conceptualisation and measurement of commitment in non-Western organisations, (Lee et al. 2001, Guatam et al. 2001, Allen 2001, Mowday 1991). The justification of this claim was empirically substantiated from the outcomes of research by Lee et al. (2001) in China, Guatam et al. (2001) in Nepal and Wasti (2002) in Turkey and the same can be said of this study of commitment in Nigeria. The outcome (findings) of the factor analysis and test of scale reliability attests to this.

The result from study one using factor analysis and reliability assessment in statistically investigating commitment in Nigeria proves that the scale is suitable i.e. a highly reliable and valid scale for the assessment of employee commitment in Nigeria. This finding provides evidence that corroborate theoretical outcomes from the literature that effective assessment of commitment in a non-Western culture is dependent on the development of commitment scale that is culturally

relevant to the people or organisation in the study. Moreover, the knowledge of people's culture is significant to the development of commitment scale that relates with them because culture is the way people do things, value things and believe in things such as organisations (Deal and Kennedy 1982, Peters and Waterman 1982 and Schein 1992). Therefore, a suitable scale such as the scale used in this research must be developed from the understanding that effective organisational commitment scale must consider the relevance of culture as was the case in this research.

In summary therefore, the generic reliability of the 18-item scale and the subsequent finding of high reliability of the various factors/components of commitment as shown in the tables above, "indicates that the items are measuring" what it indeed they claim to be measuring and that the outcome is indeed dependable and consistent and therefore not measuring "something different from the scale as a whole" (Pallant 2005, p. 92), in line with one of this research's hypothetical assumptions which states that:

Hypothesis 1

The research employee commitment scale is a suitable (valid and reliable) scale for effective measurement of employee commitment in Nigeria.

The extraction of the three factors from the 18 items using principal component analysis (PCA) on its part ties strongly with and indeed represents the components of commitment: attitudinal, continuance and normative commitments found in the literature. Furthermore, the test of reliability establishes the existence of high scale internal consistency. In addition, the evidence of high reliability and face validity supports the cultural nature of the scale as a successful tool for the conceptualisation and measurement of commitment in a non-Western society as found in the literatures.

This therefore supports the research hypothesis that this research's organisational commitment scale is a suitable (valid and reliable) scale for effective measurement of employee commitment in Nigeria. This evidence supports and confirms that the items extracted are indeed measuring the components they claim to measure as established in the literature and therefore possess strong face validity. This summary is found in Table 8.7 below.

Table 8.7 Summary of Scale Factor Extraction and Reliability

Commitment Variables	Factor 3	Factor 2	Factor 1	Community
Factor 3: Employee Attitudinal Commitment				
Emotional feeling of affectivity to org	.693			.756
Emotional feeling of belonging	.829			.705
Emotional feeling of importance	.829			.764
Emotional feeling of attachment	.916			.867
Factor 2: Employee Normative Commitment				
Organisation care for family welfare		.823		.780
High opportunities for employee growth		.804		.728
Non-disruption to family		.790		.701
Involvement in organisations goal		.778		.691
Availability of career opportunities		.569		.639
Factor 1: Employee Continuance commitment				
Cost of starting afresh			.864	.804
Lack of job alternatives			.823	.687
Attachment to in-group members			.787	.684
Fear of disruption to life			.773	.785
Fear of losing friends			.735	.779
Feeling of guilt to leave			.731	.724
In-group influence to stay			.699	.721
Moral belief			.662	.656
Loyalty due to influence from manager			.617	.690
Variance (%)	47.947	16.689	8.480	
Cumulative variance (%)	47.947	64.636	73.116	
Cronbach's Alpha (Total .932)	.885	.887	.931	
Number of items (Total 18)	4	5	9	

8.4 Section III: Behavioural Commitment Data Analysis

Having assessed and demonstrated this research's scale validity and reliability (suitability) by extracting factors relevant to the study using exploratory factor analysis in the form of PCA and Varimax for data reduction and factor extraction, and Cronbach's alpha for scale internal

consistency measurement, this section takes this research a step further by using the research scale questionnaire to conduct further statistical investigations in order to establish and demonstrate the scale's usability for employee commitment behavioural study in Nigeria as discussed in the literature, methodology and methods chapters. This will be achieved by employing various statistical instruments such as one-way between-group analysis of variance (ANOVA), cross-tabulation, Chi-Square test and Spearman's rank order correlation in investigating the impact of participants' age and income on commitment to their organisations. The test will therefore be conducted by subjecting the two variables; employee income and age to commitment test so as to accept or reject the following hypotheses raised within the literature study and further discussed in the methodology and methods chapters:

Hypothesis 2

Nigerian high income earning employees are as committed to their organisations as their low income earning counterparts.

Hypothesis 3

Older Nigerian employees are more committed to their organisations than their younger counterparts

Hypothesis 4

Ho: There is no relationship between the variables employee (participants) income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

Hi: There is a relationship between the variables employee (participants) income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

Hypothesis 5

Ho: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are independent of each other.

Hi: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are not independent of each other.

8.4.1 One-Way ANOVA: Investigating commitment by income

In order to test the behavioural aspect of employee commitment in relation to employee incomes, this research's first null and alternate hypothesis, as mentioned below, is subjected to statistical test using one-way between-group analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Hypothesis 2

Nigerian high income earning employees are as committed to their organisations as their low income earning counterparts.

Following the test of the above hypothetical assumptions, output from the assessment of participant commitment on income showed strong evidence of statistical significance at $p < .05$. level. The sig. level for each commitment component was also measured with the following outcomes: AC (.004) CC (.000) NC (.000) and participants' commitment to their organisation at (.000).

Table 8.8.1 One-Way ANOVA of Employee Commitment by Income Analysis

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
AC	Between Groups	22.248	3	7.416	4.843	.004
	Within Groups	122.514	80	1.531		
	Total	144.761	83			
CC	Between Groups	54.520	3	18.173	10.255	.000
	Within Groups	141.772	80	1.772		
	Total	196.292	83			
NC	Between Groups	50.631	3	16.877	9.894	.000
	Within Groups	136.460	80	1.706		
	Total	187.091	83			
Commit	Between Groups	29.479	3	9.826	9.170	.000
	Within Groups	85.723	80	1.072		
	Total	115.201	83			

The mean score for each income band as shown in Table 8.8.2 below shows some interesting patterns. The commitment score of participants within the income bands 200k to 500k, 501k to 800k and 801k to 1 million were high at 5.2149, 5.8366 and 5.8542 respectively. However, the commitment score of participants within the income band 1.1 and above showed the lowest commitment score at 4.4696. This surprising pattern is evidence of employee expression of low commitment to their organisation by employees within the income band 1.1 million Nigerian Naira and above. This therefore supports the rejection of the null hypothesis on the basis that empirically,

Nigerian high income earning employees (>1.1 million) in this research, expressed less commitment to their organisations than their low income earning (<1 million) counterparts. It therefore implies that income has no influence on Nigerian employees' decision to be committed to their organisation.

Table 8.8.2 Descriptive Analysis of Employee Commitment by Income

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
AC	200k-500k	14	5.6039	.77807	.20795	5.1546	6.0531	4.51	6.79
	501k-800k	18	5.8047	.93401	.22015	5.3402	6.2692	3.68	6.72
	801k-1.1m	4	6.0133	.06344	.03172	5.9124	6.1143	5.96	6.07
	1.1-above	48	4.7247	1.45720	.21033	4.3015	5.1478	1.49	6.75
	<i>Total</i>	<i>84</i>	<i>5.1640</i>	<i>1.32065</i>	<i>.14409</i>	<i>4.8774</i>	<i>5.4506</i>	<i>1.49</i>	<i>6.79</i>
CC	200k-500k	14	4.7721	1.88432	.50360	3.6841	5.8601	1.00	6.48
	501k-800k	18	6.3011	.79873	.18826	5.9039	6.6983	4.16	7.00
	801k-1.1m	4	5.5550	.35678	.17839	4.9873	6.1227	5.25	5.86
	1.1-above	48	4.2991	1.33994	.19340	3.9101	4.6882	1.00	6.44
	<i>Total</i>	<i>84</i>	<i>4.8668</i>	<i>1.53784</i>	<i>.16779</i>	<i>4.5330</i>	<i>5.2005</i>	<i>1.00</i>	<i>7.00</i>
NC	200k-500k	14	3.8866	1.32233	.35341	3.1231	4.6501	1.92	6.32
	501k-800k	18	5.1024	1.44671	.34099	4.3830	5.8219	2.68	6.34
	801k-1.1m	4	5.5437	.93346	.46673	4.0584	7.0291	4.74	6.35
	1.1-above	48	3.3627	1.26772	.18298	2.9946	3.7308	1.24	6.44
	<i>Total</i>	<i>84</i>	<i>3.9267</i>	<i>1.50137</i>	<i>.16381</i>	<i>3.6009</i>	<i>4.2525</i>	<i>1.24</i>	<i>6.44</i>
Com mit	200k-500k	14	5.2149	.88022	.23525	4.7066	5.7231	4.07	6.47
	501k-800k	18	5.8366	.82451	.19434	5.4265	6.2466	4.19	6.70
	801k-1.1m	4	5.8542	.06843	.03422	5.7453	5.9631	5.79	5.91
	1.1-above	48	4.4696	1.16764	.16853	4.1305	4.8086	1.85	6.51
	<i>Total</i>	<i>84</i>	<i>4.9527</i>	<i>1.17812</i>	<i>.12854</i>	<i>4.6970</i>	<i>5.2083</i>	<i>1.85</i>	<i>6.70</i>

8.4.2 One-Way ANOVA: Investigating commitment by age

In order to test the behavioural aspect of employee commitment in relation to employee age, this research's null and alternate hypothesis, as mentioned below, is subjected to statistical test using one way between-group analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Table 8.8.4 Descriptive Analysis of Employee Commitment by Age

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
AC	20-25	17	6.0564	.58324	.14146	5.7565	6.3562	4.96	6.79
	26-30	28	5.3023	1.04005	.19655	4.8991	5.7056	3.00	6.53
	31-35	26	4.4033	1.59803	.31340	3.7578	5.0487	1.49	6.53
	36-above	13	5.2206	1.19404	.33117	4.4990	5.9421	3.82	6.75
	<i>Total</i>	84	<i>5.1640</i>	<i>1.32065</i>	<i>.14409</i>	<i>4.8774</i>	<i>5.4506</i>	<i>1.49</i>	<i>6.79</i>
CC	20-25	17	5.3680	1.75661	.42604	4.4649	6.2712	1.00	7.00
	26-30	28	4.6799	1.53980	.29099	4.0829	5.2770	2.42	7.00
	31-35	26	4.4828	1.55535	.30503	3.8546	5.1110	1.00	6.22
	36-above	13	5.3817	.90819	.25189	4.8328	5.9305	3.78	6.44
	<i>Total</i>	84	<i>4.8668</i>	<i>1.53784</i>	<i>.16779</i>	<i>4.5330</i>	<i>5.2005</i>	<i>1.00</i>	<i>7.00</i>
NC	20-25	17	5.1999	1.35798	.32936	4.5017	5.8981	2.27	6.35
	26-30	28	3.4043	1.33652	.25258	2.8860	3.9225	1.24	6.34
	31-35	26	3.2744	1.06042	.20796	2.8461	3.7028	1.89	6.02
	36-above	13	4.6914	1.51056	.41895	3.7785	5.6042	2.68	6.44
	<i>Total</i>	84	<i>3.9267</i>	<i>1.50137</i>	<i>.16381</i>	<i>3.6009</i>	<i>4.2525</i>	<i>1.24</i>	<i>6.44</i>
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Comm it	20-25	17	5.7999	.84077	.20392	5.3676	6.2322	4.42	6.70
	26-30	28	4.9401	.99473	.18799	4.5544	5.3259	2.98	6.14
	31-35	26	4.2905	1.30622	.25617	3.7629	4.8181	1.85	6.19
	36-above	13	5.1959	.91932	.25497	4.6404	5.7515	4.19	6.51
	<i>Total</i>	84	<i>4.9527</i>	<i>1.17812</i>	<i>.12854</i>	<i>4.6970</i>	<i>5.2083</i>	<i>1.85</i>	<i>6.70</i>

The mean score for employee commitment on age shows employees between the age groups 20 to 25 and 36 and over expressing higher commitment to their organisation at 5.7999 and 5.1959 respectively, whereas, employees within the age groups 26 to 30 and 31 to 35 are at 4.9401 and 4.2905 respectively, expressing lower commitment to their organisations. This interesting and unexpected pattern is similar to that demonstrated within the commitment and income study. Therefore, whereas each of the age groups do express some degree of commitment, the age group 31 to 35 has the highest negative commitment impact on their age, hence the expression of lower commitment towards their organisations.

The above finding therefore supports this research's null hypothesis. The null hypothesis is accepted on the basis that empirically, Nigerian employees within the age group 31 to 35 are

statistically more likely to be less committed to their organisations than their younger (-30) and older (36+) counterparts.

Following the above outcomes from the analysis of employee commitment by age and income as separate variables, this study would further seek to study and link the above variables as discussed below.

8.4.3.1 Linking commitment and variable outcomes

The result from commitment by age differs in comparison with the observations made on employee commitment by income, in which all the income groups expressed higher commitment except for the upper income band, who surprisingly showed lower commitment towards their organisations. The outcome generally raised concern on why older and younger employees within organisations would express higher commitment and those within the middle age groups express lower commitment. Furthermore, it also raises concern as to why employees within the very high income earning groups would express lower commitment to their organisation even though they represent the well paid employee groups. These questions are to be reserved for further investigation, so as to avoid carrying out research that is outside the scope, aims and objectives of this thesis. Nevertheless, this study will aim to consider the degree of possible independence and/or association between the variables income and age employed in this study as tools for further understanding of employee commitment to their organisations in Nigeria.

8.4.3.2 Assessing the independence and relationship of the variables

While this study justified its reluctance to examine the motive behind the expression of low commitment among employee groups within the very high income and age groups, the research will however, attempt to further provide insights into the identified employee commitment behaviours. This study will also attempt to assess the degree of possible independence of the variables income and age using Pearson's Chi-Square test (cross tabulation) as discussed in the methods and methodology chapter. It will subsequently assess a possible relationship between the two variables in line with employee commitment towards their organisation using Spearman's rank order correlations. These statistical tools will therefore be used in order to test, accept or reject each of the related hypotheses previously discussed and outlined below.

8.4.4 Pearson's Chi-Square test of participants' age and income

In order to assess the degree of independence between the variables income and age in relation to employee commitment to their organisation, this research's null and alternate hypothesis as mentioned below is subjected to statistical test.

Hypothesis 4

Ho: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are independent of each other.

Hi: Employee income in Nigeria Naira and age are not independent of each other.

The conduct of statistical tests to investigate for independence of the variables age and income is implemented using Pearson's Chi-Square test.

Following the test of the above hypothetical assumptions, output from the assessment showed a sig. value less than the alpha value of .05 (<.05). In other words, the outcomes showed strong evidence of statistical significance at $p < .05$ level (see Table 8.9.1 below).

Table 8.9.1 Chi-Square Tests of Respondents' Income and Age

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.118(a)	9	.004
Likelihood Ratio	28.977	9	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.983	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	84		

a 10 cells (62.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 62.

In addition to the significance of the statistical outputs, the Pearson Chi-Square test also showed a 24.118 value score in line with the alpha or p-value of .004. The compactness of the p-value which is less than .05 (<.05) can be interpreted to mean there is a significant association between employee age and income.

The findings from the cross-tabulation of the respondents' income band in Nigerian Naira with the age of the respondents establishes that the proportions of participant with income above 1.1 million and proportion of participants within the age groups 31 to 35 with low commitment are significantly high. The result surprisingly aligned the age groups 31 to 35 with the income groups 1.1 million and above who expressed lower commitment to their organisations as shown in Table 8.9.2 below. In other words, the high income earning Nigerian employees within the income band 1.1 million and above represent the same employees within the age groups 31 to 35 that expressed less commitment to their organisations within the Nigerian banking sector.

Table 8.9.2 Respondents' Income Bands in Nigerian Naira * Respondents Age Cross Tabulation

			Age of Respondents				Total
			20-25	26-30	31-35	36-above	
Respondents' income bands in Nigerian naira	200k-500k	Count	6	7	1	0	14
		% within respondents' income bands in Nigerian naira	42.9%	50.0%	7.1%	.0%	100.0%
	501k-800k	Count	6	4	4	4	18
		% within respondents' income bands in Nigerian naira	33.3%	22.2%	22.2%	22.2%	100.0%
	801k-1.1m	Count	2	2	0	0	4
		% within respondents' income bands in Nigerian naira	50.0%	50.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
	1.1-above	Count	3	15	21	9	48
		% within respondents' income bands in Nigerian naira	6.3%	31.3%	43.8%	18.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	17	28	26	13	84
		% within respondents' income bands in Nigerian naira	20.2%	33.3%	31.0%	15.5%	100.0%

The outcome from the above finding is obviously very significant in providing not only an answer to the research hypothesis, but also a direction to further research. The significance of the outcomes from the Pearson Chi-Square test and the outcomes from the cross-tabulation is summarised with the fact that indeed, the variables significantly relate and therefore may not significantly be independent of each other. The results, surprisingly, aligned the age group 31 to 35 with the income

groups 1.1 million and above with low commitment to their organisation. The age group 31 to 35 not only aligned with the income groups 1.1 million, but also represents the largest population group at 43.8%; a significant finding previously observed from the output of the frequency distribution where 57.1% of the participants earn 1.1 million and above. In conclusion therefore, and based on this finding, this study accepts the research alternate hypothesis and rejects the null hypothesis on the basis that empirically, Nigerian employees within the age group 31 to 35 represent the same income group of 1.1 million and above with low commitment to their organisation as shown from the Pearson's Chi-Square test and cross-tabulation results above. In other words, employee income in Nigerian Naira and employee age are not independent of each other.

8.4.5 Spearman's rank order correlation (rho) analysis: age and income

Having empirically explored and established possible dependence of the variables income and age and to further validate the significance of the association between employee commitment by income and age; Spearman's rank order correlation (rho) analysis is used to calculate the strength of the relationship between the two variables: income and age. Emphasis is placed on the highest income earning groups with low commitment and the various age groups with particular interest in the age group 31 to 35 with low commitment to their organisation.

This section of the investigation will therefore attempt to analyse data to establish the degree of association between the variables by subjecting the following hypothetical assumptions to test.

Hypothesis 5

Ho: There is no relationship between the variables employee (participants) income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

Hi: There is a relationship between the variables employee (participants) income bands in Nigeria Naira and age.

To test for the possible relationship between respondents' income bands in Nigerian Naira and respondents' age using Spearman's rank order correlation (rho) "preliminary analysis was performed to ensure no violation of the assumption of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity" (Pallent 2005, p. 127). The outcome of the analysis was a moderately strong positive relationship (correlation) between the two variables: income and age. The correlation coefficient was .416 ($r=.41$), $n=84$, and $p\text{-value} < .0005$, Sig. (2-tailed) of .000. Therefore, r is significant beyond the 1% level (0.01), with participants' (employee) income associated with participants' age (see Table 8.9.3 below for results).

Table 8.9.3 Spearman's Rank Order Correlation of Participants' Income and Age

			Age of Respondents	Respondents' income bands in Nigerian naira
Spearman's rho	Age of Respondents	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.416(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	84	84
	Repondents' income bands in Nigerian naira	Correlation Coefficient	.416(**)	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	84	84

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

The concluding outcome based on the findings is therefore to reject the research null hypothesis and accept the research alternate hypothesis on the basis that there is a relationship and although the relationship is moderately strong, empirically r is significant beyond the 1% level (0.01), with participants' (employee) income associated with participants' age. In other words, Nigerian employees within the age group 31 to 35 are significantly associated with the same income group of 1.1 million and above, with low commitment to their organisation as shown from the Pearson's Chi-Square test and cross-tabulation results above.

Table 8.10 below is presented to summarise all the statistical findings discussed above from the behavioural analysis of employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria. The table therefore provides the numerical outputs from every statistical analysis so far conducted. This is followed by a discussion on this research data analysis and findings.

Table 8.10 Summary of Scores on Behavioural Commitment Analysis

Commitment Variables	Commitment level	Means score	Chi-square Sig. value age+income	ANOVA Sig. values	Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) income+age
Group A: Income					
Group 1: 200k-500k	High	5.2149			
Group 2: 501k-800k	High	5.8366			
Group 3: 801k-1m	High	5.8542			
Group 4: 1.1m +	Low	4.4696			
Group Total		4.9527		.000	
Group B: Age					
Group 1: 20-25	High	5.7999			
Group 2: 26-30	Low	4.9401			
Group 3: 31-35	Low	4.2905			
Group 4: 36+	High	5.1959			
Group Total		4.9527		.000	
Groups	Total		.004	.000	.000
significance scores					
Means score commitment and income		4.9527			
Means score commitment and age		4.9527			
Number of participants	84				
Number of scale items	18				

8.5 Section IV: Discussion on Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Tests

In discussing and summarising the main findings arising from the research data analysis, this section will reflect on the outcomes from the review of literatures and thereafter consider in detail the key findings from the analysis.

8.5.1 Commitment definition and measurement

As previously discussed, the questionnaire (scale) employed in this study was developed from a cultural perspective to assess commitment in Nigeria. This was based on the findings obtained through the review of literatures on commitment that showed “there remains disagreement, both within and across commitment literatures, about what commitment is, its dimensionality and frameworks, how it developed and affects behaviour” (Meyer and Herscovitch 2001, p. 299).

The above assumptions were considered in this study's review of employee commitment in Nigeria, from a Nigerian perspective using the works of Oloko (1973) and Gbadamosi (1995/2005). The findings support the possible existence of employee affective attachment, perceived costs and obligations to organisations. In addition to definitional weaknesses resulting in a lack of consensus on definition, similar concerns were observed on the measurement of employee commitment. Studies also tend to suggest a number of inconsistencies with the measurability and the fitness of the tested and reliable Western scale items in a non-Western culture, in that while such Western measurement scales are generally accepted within the research community for their validity and reliability when used in Western culture, the applicability of such scales with similar results in non-Western cultures (countries) proved problematic (Cheng and Stockdale 2003, Lee et al. 2001, Gautam et al. 2001, Wasti 2002).

This therefore not only reviewed the above opinions, but also practically adopted some of the views in developing an applicable definition of commitment and its measurement scales, originating from the Nigerian context of what commitment is and what commitment is from a universal perspective of what commitment should be. Therefore commitment, in the light of this study, must or should be culturally motivated because culture "constitutes part of the everyday life of organisations and people's reasons for continuing to work and the way they value their work and people in their organisation" (Tomkins and Grove 1983).

In addition to the above approaches, the study adopted income and age which were identified within the literature as valuable variables in the understanding of Nigerian culture in studying commitment in Nigeria, so as to explain the average Nigerian employee's attitude, expression and perception to work and commitment to their organisation. The bases of the above approach were informed by the understanding that the knowledge of employee expression of commitment to their organisation will be better appreciated within Nigeria when the variables income and age are applied to the study. This is because Nigeria as a collectivist and integrativist cultural society operates within a structure where social status and respect could be gained either by age (older men enjoy more respect than their younger counterparts) or by income (the wealthier you are, the more you will gain respect from your peers and society) (Oloko 1973).

The research questions and hypotheses were therefore designed to identify with the above variables, including definitional and measurement issues and provide data that will lead to the successful study of commitment in Nigeria with some interesting results as discussed below.

8.5.2 Study one: items reduction, factor extraction and reliability test

In view of the above reasons, some researchers suggested the redefinition and modification of an employee commitment scale or the development of a new scale for the assessment of employee commitment to suit local culture and organisational needs before its use in a selected non-Western organisation (Allen 2003, Lee et al. 2001 and Wasti 2002).

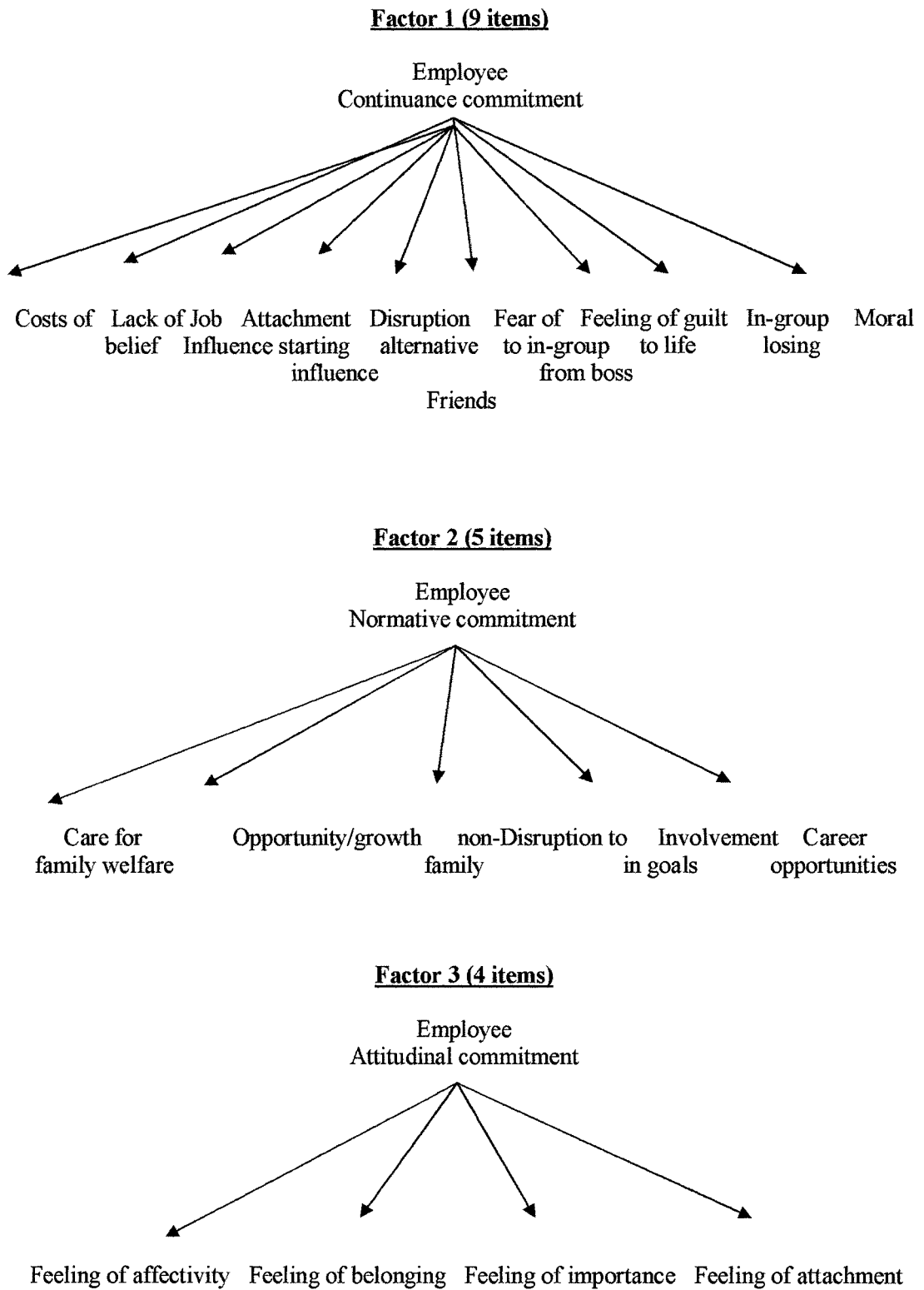
This study adopted such views and in its review of commitment studies in Nigeria established that employee commitment can be effectively measured in Nigeria through the study and development of commitment scales that identify with and incorporates Nigeria's distinctive, collectivist and integrativist culture. It is imperative to note as earlier stated that this view represents the common opinion of various commitment experts as observed in the literatures (Lee et al. 2001 and Wasti 2001).

In furthering this view, this study subjected the developed Nigerian commitment scale to statistical tests to prove its suitability for the study of commitment using appropriate instruments such as PCA and Varimax in the form of exploratory factor tools in extracting factors and reducing this research scale into a manageable and usable scale for this study. Using the above instruments the outcome of study one, as previously noted, was the reduction of 28 scale items to 18 usable scale items. In addition to scale reduction the process also extracted three factors found to relate to and with the three components of commitment known and discussed in the literature chapter as attitudinal, normative and continuance components of commitment.

The extraction of three factors relating to commitment also validates Lee et al.'s (2001) views on the relevance of the knowledge and integration of culture in the development of scale for the successful measurement of commitment in non-Western culture. It also supports Allen's (2003) views that commitment definition must indeed measure what is defined as commitment within the given culture.

On the whole, the result from this analysis supports the use of items connected with the three factors for the assessment of commitment in Nigeria (continuance and affective components of commitment). The connections between each scale item to the three factors are diagrammatically shown below as each statement links with each component.

Diagram 1: The Fitness of 18 Component Items into Three Factor Extractions



The study therefore proved that each item developed within the scale is indeed assessing commitment one of the components of commitment. The overall outcome of this analysis provides strong evidence of a link between successful measurement of commitment and culture. The study reveals a strong positive influence of culture on the successful conceptualisation and measurement of commitment in non-Western culture. The result also proves that the scale (instrument) is a suitable (highly reliable and valid) scale for the assessment of employee commitment in Nigeria. It provides evidences that collaborate with the theoretical outcomes from the literature that effective assessment of commitment in non-Western culture is dependent on the development of a commitment scale that is culturally motivated or relevant to the people or organisation in the study. In other words, the identification and integration of cultural factors/pressures, internal and external to the organisation and employee such as family influence, individual employee desires and aspirations and other influences/pressures from colleagues and superiors, provide the overall importance of culture to the study of commitment.

8.5.3 Reliability of scale

The test of scale reliability with a high score of .930 provides evidence of high reliability of the scale and by implication its overall suitability and dependability. It also establishes the fact that the scale is indeed measuring commitment and not something else (Meyer and Allen 1991).

It could be argued that the scale indeed contains a high degree of reliability and effectively links theory to and with practice, hence the extraction of three component factors of commitment as attitudinal, normative and continuance components of commitment. In addition, the study also provides initial understanding to the subject, given the fact that a good commitment scale should assess the behavioural aspects of employees' expression of commitment to their organisation and possibly assess other commitment foci. In light of the above, the study also identified income and age as fundamental to the understanding of employee commitment behaviour to their organisation in Nigeria. This aspect needs investigating as its outcome will substantially validate the usability of the scale in assessing employee commitment behaviour.

8.5.3.1 Study two: scale usability in commitment behaviours

As previously discussed, in order to further establish the suitability of the scale in assessing employee commitment behaviour, two variables; income and age were employed in testing the scale capability in studying commitment behaviour. The choice of these variables was as a result of the literature findings from the study of commitment in Nigeria, in which it was established, based on Oloko's (1973), Ogbor and Willaims' (2001) and Gbadamosi's (1995, 2001) studies, that Nigerian employees would, due to cultural and culture-related economic factors such as age, family and benefits such as income, express commitment to their organisation. In addition, commitment

may also be expressed due to other cultural pressures such as loyalty to colleagues, friends and superiors in the workplace or loyalty to family members (Oloko 1973, Mayer and Allen 1991), as Nigerian employees (according to the literatures) are more likely to express less commitment to their organisation if there are disruptions to their family life, changes in income and/or other cultural influences, for example, if disrespect is shown to someone who is elderly (Oloko 1973 and Ogbor and Williams 2003). The significance of the study was made manifest when the variables were subjected to statistical tests using Pearson's Chi-Square test and cross-tabulations, including one way ANOVA and Spearman's rank order correlations.

The hypothesis developed for the assessment of the impact of income and age on commitment was designed primarily to prove the scale as a discriminator, in other words, prove that the scale is capable of and suitable for the assessment of employee commitment behaviours. Secondly it was designed to test the validity of the literature views on factors that could drive employee expression of commitment to their organisations in Nigeria. The outcomes from the analysis as discussed previously, was that the higher income earning employees and employees within the age group 31 to 35 are more likely to express less commitment to their organisation than their lower income earning and younger counterparts.

The outcomes from the research investigation provided strong evidence showing that the scale is indeed a discriminator and a usable instrument, capable of identifying with and interpreting employee commitment behaviour. In addition, the outcomes which suggest that the higher income earning employees and employees within the age group 31 to 35 are more likely to express less commitment to their organisation than their lower income earning and younger counterparts, somehow tend to contradict the opinion of those such as Oloko (1973) and Gbadamosi (1995, 2001). Their views from research conducted 33 and 11 years ago respectively argued that Nigerian employees are more likely to express less commitment to their organisation if there are disruptions to their family life, income and/or due to other cultural influences. This research's empirical outcome supposes that age and income are not necessarily indicators of employee commitment, in that, while over 71% of the respondents earn above 1.1 million, they expressed less commitment to their organisation. Similar findings also connect to and with the workers above the age group 31 to 35, even though the older age group (36+) showed evidence of higher commitment to their organisation.

The study also provides insight into the Nigerian employee perception of their organisations and works. It connects with the idea that higher pay is not necessarily a fundamental factor that could motivate employee commitment. Therefore whereas employees might be earning a highly competitive salary, their expression of commitment might be highly distanced from the

organisation. This finding is critical, as previous studies conducted to assess the degree of employee commitment to their organisations by the International Survey Research Group (2002), involving 362, 950 employees from the following ten major developed and developing countries: Japan (50%), China (57%), Brazil (79%), UK (59%), USA (67%), Italy (70%), Hong Kong (60%) and Spain (76%), amongst other European and American countries, show that in most organisations, evidence abounds of “employees’ emotional and physiological distancing of themselves from their organisation” (The Japanese Times 2002, p. 15) even when the pay is highly competitive. It also provides strong insight into employee perception of commitment. The outcome interprets itself by presenting a view that commitment, to an employee, is more than being available to work or the number of years given to any one organisation. It is more to do with a combination of people’s culture; norms and values which help employees perceive work from a particular point of view, emotional feeling, cost of what the employee might lose and moral obligation due to the employee’s willingness to reciprocate the goodwill of an organisation.

The idea therefore, is that the above factors shape the way employees express and perceive commitment and not necessarily income and age. In other words, culture and other commitment components shape employee commitment behaviour expressed as either a higher commitment due to higher pay, or indifference behaviour even when the pay is high, as the case is with this study.

Whereas commitment expression was higher amongst low income earning and younger employees, the motivation (drive) behind such behaviour was not examined. In other words, the factors that lead to or drive higher income earning employees to express lower commitment to their organisation were not explored in this study. This was because such investigation may necessitate further research outside the scope of this study. Nevertheless, the outcomes point to the fact that the scale could be used in providing an insight into commitment behavioural patterns amongst workers within the Nigerian banking sector. Overall, employee expression of commitment might be as a result of some intrinsic values existing within a given organisation or society such as culture and not necessarily due to other extrinsic values such as income (money).

8.6 Summary of Research Outcomes

The study of employees’ commitment to their organisation is fundamental to organisational success and although there are inconsistencies found in the definition and measurement of commitment, evidence arising from this research investigation, supports and confirms the argument that effective conceptualisation and measurement of employee commitment is possible when culturally specific scales are developed and used for the study of employee commitment to their organisation, mostly

in non-Western cultures such as Nigeria. This view was tested using a research instrument developed from a cultural perspective. The findings presented the research scale as a:

1. Suitable (valid) scale for the effective measurement of commitment in Nigeria.
2. Usable and reliable (consistent and dependable) scale for the effective measurement of commitment in Nigeria.

The above therefore provides an answer to the research question:

How can employee commitment be effectively measured in Nigeria?

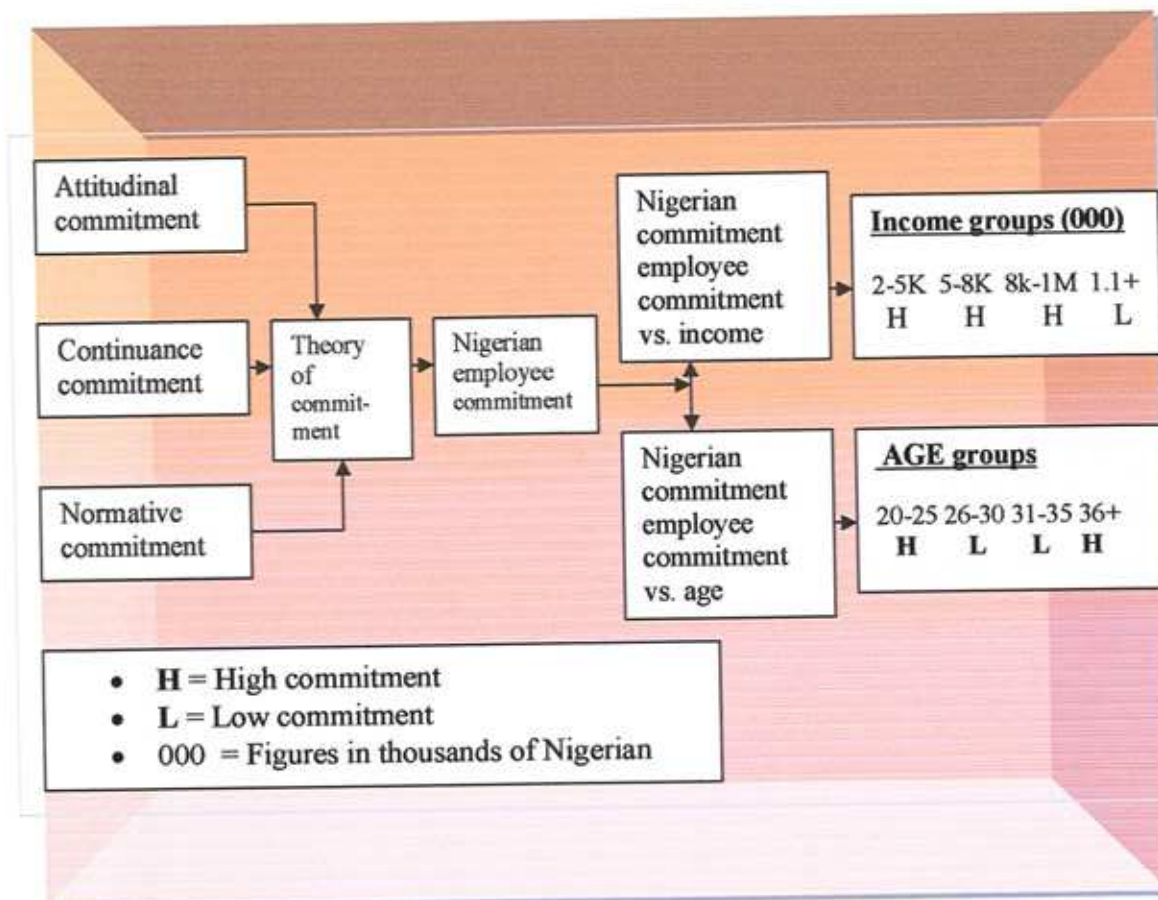
The answer being that employee commitment can be effectively measured in Nigeria when a culturally motivated scale of employee commitment is developed and used in assessing employee commitment to their organisations.

In addition, the study of the scale capability to investigate commitment behaviour shows that the instrument is an appropriate tool for the study of Nigerian employee commitment behaviour. The findings from the research show that:

1. Employees within the higher income earning band in the Nigerian banking sector are likely to be less committed to their organisations than their counterparts.
2. The older Nigerian employees within the age group 31 to 35, are likely to be less committed to their organisation than their counterparts.

This outcome is diagrammatically represented in Diagram 2 below.

Diagram 2 Graphical Summary of Research Findings



8.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter took the research a step further by subjecting the developed culture-motivated scale to statistical tests so as to establish its reliability, suitability and usability for the study of employee commitment to their organisations in Nigeria.

The chapter employed PCA and Varimax in the form of exploratory factor tools in extracting factors and reducing scales into manageable and usable magnitude for this study. The outcome was the reduction of 28 scale items to 18 usable scale items. The process also extracted three factors found to relate to and with the three components of commitment discussed in the literature chapter as attitudinal, normative and continuance components of commitment. This was a useful finding that proved a link between theory and practice.

The chapter also tested the reliability of the scale with a high score of .930, an evidence of high reliability of the scale and by implication, suitability and dependability of the scale.

To further establish the suitability of the scale in assessing employee commitment behaviour, the two variables of income and age were employed in testing the scale's capability in studying commitment behaviour. The choice of these variables was as a result of the literature findings from the study of commitment in Nigeria, in which it was established, based on Oloko's (1973), Ogor and Willaims' (2001) and Gbadamosi's (1995, 2001) studies that Nigerian employees would, due to cultural and culture-related economic factors such as age, family and benefits such as income, express commitment to their organisation. The significance of the study was made manifest with the findings that the higher income earning employees are more likely to express less commitment to their organisation than their lower income counterparts. Secondly, on the test of age, older employees within the age group 31 to 35 are more likely to express less commitment to their organisations than their younger counterparts. The implication of these findings and the need for further investigation will therefore be explored in the subsequent chapter.

Chapter Nine

Research Conclusions and Recommendations

Chapter Nine

Research Conclusions and Recommendations

9.0 Introduction

This chapter forms the fundamental and concluding parts of this research. This chapter will attempt to extend this study and provide a constructive conclusion to three years of active research undertaken by the researcher. This chapter identifies with, and offers significant contribution to the research by discussing issues associated with the research outcomes, leading to the offering of original contributions to knowledge and recommendations for further research.

The chapter is arranged in sections, with each section focusing on significant aspects and issues associated with this study.

The first section will concern itself with a brief overview and discussion on the research outcomes, the research limitations and their implications. This will be drawn from the critical analysis of theories and data relating to employee commitment as studied over the past three years. The second section will focus on research recommendations. Its focus will be to draw from the research findings, as used in addressing the research questions and objectives in providing thoughts and recommendations for future research. The last section will concern itself with a detailed discussion of the research's contributions to knowledge on employee commitment to their organisations.

9.1 Chapter Aims and Objectives

To provide and highlight the original contribution of research to knowledge and reflect upon constructive and understandable research conclusions and recommendations drawn from the critical analysis of theories and data relating to employee commitment as studied over the past three years for future research.

9.1.2 Chapter question

What are the identified commitment issues in conceptualising and measuring employee commitment in non-Western organisations and how can the study of commitment be improved?

9.2 Brief Review

The study on employee commitment to their organisation has been dominated by research aimed at defining and measuring commitment within Western culture. So much so that almost every aspect of employee commitment theory, its definition, measurement and the relationship between commitment and the foci of commitment, such as employee expression of commitment to the organisation, employee commitment to their superiors, colleagues, profession, union and even

external factors such as family and culture, have all been extensively studied within the Western organisation with almost nothing left unresearched (Porter et al. 1974, Mowday et al. 1979, 1982, Meyer and Allen 1991, Meyer et al. 1993, etc). Comparing this to the study of employee commitment in non-Western culture, similar views may not be accepted as little is known of the concept of employee commitment, its definition and measurement within non-Western cultures. Hence the growing inconsistencies in its conceptualisation and measurement with limited studies available for comparison (Wasti 2001, Lee et al, 2001).

This work focused on conceptualising commitment and measuring the behavioural aspects of employee expression of commitment to their organisations in non-Western culture. Chapter Two reviewed prominent research contributions and literatures on employee commitment definition, measurement and employee expression of commitment behaviours across Western and non-Western cultures. The focal point of the reviewed studies was to understand the meaning of commitment and its measurement in non-Western culture and also the effects of variables such as income and age arising from commitment conceptualisation in non-Western Nigerian culture on employee expression of commitment behaviour to their organisation within Nigeria. Whereas the in-depth studies showed varied definitions of commitment, this study identified amongst other things, a lack of an available universal definition of the concept. A problem identified which effects most attempts to conceptualise employee commitment to their organisation. This problem has been neglected and/or ignored in much research until more recently with the works of Wasti (2001) and Lee et al. (2001).

This study also discovered that the problem of definition was attributed to the fact that most studies tend to define commitment based on three key factors; what they (the researcher) assume commitment to be (Mowday 2000), what their (the researcher's) culture interprets commitment to mean, or what they (the researchers) are researching upon (Meyer and Allen 1991). Such a disunited approach to the conceptualisation of commitment as a concept and area of knowledge has, according to Meyer and Allen (1991), strongly hindered various positive attempts to advance the study of employee commitment. In a more positive light, it has also created opportunities for possible critical reviews and further enquiries/research into the meaning of the concept for better conceptualisation of employee commitment to their organisation. This will aid the development of a more generic, usable and culturally suitable definition that will contribute to the assessment of organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct (attitudinal, normative and continuance commitment) that will draw from the strength found in the knowledge of commitment and commitment behaviour in a society (Meyer and Allen 1991 and Swales 2004).

Following the review in Chapter Two, the thesis also focused on studying various methods employed in the measure of employee commitment. These studies identified that the measure of employee commitment in non-Western organisations is problematic, especially when Western commitment scales are used in assessing commitment in a non-Western environment. The reasons behind such difficulties were attributed to the fact that most available commitment measurement scales were developed and tested within Western organisations, the implication being that an attempt to use such tools in a non-Western society will lead to a conflict of culture and misinterpretation of scale items due to language differences and/or misunderstandings of the purpose of the study. In other words, the knowledge of people's culture is fundamental to a successful conceptualisation and measurement of commitment in non-Western organisations (Lee et al. 2001, Guatam et al. 2001, Allen 2001, Mowday 1991).

The justification of the above claim was empirically substantiated from the outcomes of research by Lee et al. (2001) in China, Guatam et al. (2001) in Nepal, Wasti (2002) in Turkey and Allen (2003) in China. Most of these studies subjected the existing Western scales to tests in non-Western organisations with weak results, leading to the modification of such Western scales to fit into the culture being studied before further studies were conducted with improved outcomes (Wasti 2002).

This study therefore identified and advanced, in support of previous studies by Lee et al. (2001), two major solutions to result in the successful conceptualisation and measurement of commitment in a non-Western culture:

1. The redefinition of employee commitment.
2. Modification and/or development of a new commitment measurement scale that is most acceptable within the culture being studied.

The conclusion therefore drawn was that organisational commitment cannot be effectively measured in non-Western organisations without the development and use of a modified scale capable of identifying with the culture of the people (nation) in the study; commitment scales developed with an understanding of the environment/culture in which the organisation or people in the study operate, (Lee et al. 2001 and Wasti 2002). This approach informed the focus of this study, to redefine employee commitment in Nigeria and develop a suitable culture-motivated scale for the assessment of commitment in Nigeria and in addition, to assess the suitability and usability of the scale in the effective measurement of employee commitment in Nigeria as discussed within the research question.

This has been achieved by the researcher embarking on this research study within the selected banking organisations in Nigeria. A hypothesis associated with the above was developed as a result of the literature reviews with the hypothetical assumptions subjected to statistical tests using data collected through questionnaires administered to respondents. The study covered aspects of scale reliability, validity, scale reduction and factor extraction. To advance on the study the test also included the subjection of scale to the test of the behavioural aspects of employee commitment to their organisations in Nigeria using two variables, income and age, previously identified within the literature as relevant factors to employee expression of commitment to their organisations in Nigeria (see Ogbor and Williams 2003 and Okunoye 2003).

The analysis of the data involved the subjection of the 84 usable data from the administered 200 questionnaires to exploratory factor analysis with PCA and Varimax for data reduction and factor extraction, Cronbach's coefficient alpha internal consistency measure for reliability assessment and the Content Validity measure for validity assessment. To take this study a step further, the scale was further subjected to statistical tests in order to analyse commitment behaviours; using One Way ANOVA, Pearson's Chi-Square test and cross-tabulation, using SPSS, version 12. The aim was to observe the possible number of factors that can be extracted from the originally developed 28-item commitment scale. This also includes an attempt to observe whether what is extracted will relate to the identified three components of commitment from the literature; attitudinal, continuance and normative components of commitment.

The outcome from the factor analysis recognised and extracted three factors out of the 18-item scale that supposed to measure multiple variables associated with the three components of commitment. The identified three factors are items that strongly express normative, continuance and affective components of commitment as shown in Chapter 8, in that the variables are indeed assessing what they are defined as and designed to assess.

The identification of three component extractions that strongly associate with the three components of commitment, supports the universality of employee commitment theory. In other words, the findings imply that, whereas the definition and measurement approach to commitment varies according and due to culture and cultural differences, the outcome of a well defined and developed commitment scale must and should always be associated with the universal concepts of employee commitment to their organisation. It means also that every study on employee commitment must be a study that relates with the understanding or perceived understanding of employee expression of emotional feelings (attitudinal commitment) towards their organisation, employee expression of a feeling of moral obligation (normative commitment) and employee expression of concern over costs associated with leaving (continuance commitment) their organisation.

The test of scale reliability produced an alpha score of .930. This outcome, like the previous one, was also evidence of strong scale reliability. This implies that the scale is not only testing what it claims to measure, but it is indeed a scale that is dependable (trustworthy) and consistent with the facts contained within it.

The outcome from the assessment of the behavioural aspects of employee commitment in relation to demographic variables; income and age, shows that the high income earning Nigerian employees (employees within the income band 1.1 million and above) and employees within the age group 31 to 35 represents the less committed workers within the Nigerian banking sector. An additional analysis to establish possible relationship between these variables using Spearman's rank order correlation showed a strong association between the two variables of employee income and age. The significance of this finding cannot be over emphasised as it clearly supports the outcomes originating from the study conducted by the International Survey Research Group (2002) involving 362,950 employees from ten major developed and developing countries consisting of Japan (50%), China (57%), Brazil (79%), UK (59%), USA (67%), Italy (70%), Hong Kong (60%) and Spain (76%) among other European and American countries. In which the study shows that in most organisations, evidences abound of "employees' emotional and physiological distancing of themselves from their organisation", (The Japanese Times, 2002, p. 15) even when the pay is highly competitive. Further discussion on the relevance and implication of these findings is presented in the form of recommendations.

9.3 Implications of the Study

The outcome of this study has important theoretical, practical and future research implications.

1. On the theoretical point of view, this study contributes to existing literature not only on the conceptualisation and measurement of commitment, but also on the study and measurement of commitment in non-Western culture and, significantly, the study and measurement of commitment in Nigeria where the study of commitment has almost no up-to-date literature. The finding supports the assumption that effective commitment measurement in a non-Western culture must be culture-oriented/driven and as a collectivist society, employee expression of commitment to their organisation is a result of many factors, including employee expression of commitment due to fear associated with leaving their organisation because of limited job alternatives, or natural employee emotional attachment to their organisation. Other factors may be culture-related issues such as family, friends and their manager's influence.

2. The result from the study also poses a greater challenge to practitioners in that, while to the academic this study will remain a source of knowledge surrounding employee commitment measurement and conceptualisation within Nigeria, to the practitioners, it is not only an additional empirical theory on the subject of commitment in a developing economy, but also a source of knowledge on some of the intrinsic factors associated with employee behaviour towards their organisation. For example the knowledge that employees within the higher income band are more likely to be less committed to their organisation than their low income counterparts. To the practitioner, therefore, the implication of this study is that high income and belonging to an older age group are not necessarily indicators of high commitment, but that culture as established in this study is fundamental to the degree of employee commitment to their organisation.
3. This knowledge has implications for, and poses greater challenges on, organisational management, demanding an organisation to consider its culture, its overall people management strategy and how to effectively keep employees morally, emotionally and continually involved and attached to their organisation.

9.4 Suggestion for conducting similar research

The finding from the research outcome is highly significant and, drawing from the research methods and methodology approach, it is therefore appropriate to argue that the use of epistemology in the form of objectivism and positivism as this research's philosophical stance is valid. This view is on the grounds that the argument for positivism supposes that there is some degree of reality (facts) and meaning residing in what is being researched, and that such meaning or facts may only be unveiled when a logical and careful process is adopted as a means of obtaining such facts and meaning (Crotty 1998). The researcher therefore strongly believes that the above research outcomes are meaningful providing facts that require further investigation in order to expound what is known and therefore contribute to a deeper knowledge on employee commitment to their organisations especially in non-Western cultures.

It is also important to note that the association of this research's theoretical findings with the outcomes from the empirical study have systematically extended the knowledge on commitment and also made this study essentially significant in modern times. This is because traditionally, the study of organisational commitment has remained one of the most contested and critically reviewed fields of study (Meyer and Allen 1991, Price 1997 and Swailes 2002), with much of its complications "traceable to definitional and measurement problems (Somers 1993, p. 185). This is

as a result of the ever-growing differences in views and “lack of consensus in construct definition” (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 61) and measurement of commitment.

Given the outcomes of this research therefore, one can genuinely argue that a positive solution to the problems associated with the knowledge, study and measurement of commitment mostly in non-Western organisations can be achieved through a process similar to that adopted in this research. This study therefore recommends that to effectively measure employee commitment in non-Western cultures researchers should:

1. Identify the theoretical knowledge underpinning employee commitment in one’s field of study.
2. Identify the significance of organisational and national culture, its characteristics and dimensions within the industry or nation in the study.
3. Adopt or develop commitment definition that is universal, although culturally motivated.
4. Adopt or develop commitment scales with items that are culturally motivated or related.
5. Test the scale using appropriate statistical instruments.
6. Examine findings and compare results.

9.5 Research Contribution to Knowledge and Distinctiveness

9.5.1 Original Contribution

Although there are varied definitions, scales, models and measurements of organisational commitment that distinguishes such studies like Meyer and Allen (1991) from the rest, this research is significantly different and has contributed to research knowledge in the following ways.

1. It represents the first empirical research exclusively on employee commitment to their organisation in Nigeria. The study also provides grounded knowledge of workers’ contribution to their organisation’s success. In other words, the study provides insight into Nigerian employee commitment behaviour and therefore is a good tool for organisations’ decision-making.
2. The study explored an uncommon research area within the Nigerian academic environment and will therefore provide boundless opportunities for further academic related research in an environment with limited research resources on organisational behavioural studies.
3. The definition of commitment as developed in this research is a significant step towards the improvement/reduction in the existing dichotomy on employee commitment conceptualisation within non-Western cultures. The definition is unique because it integrates all the components of commitment into a single concept of commitment and has

further simplified its understanding by connecting it to and with culture in a practical and measurable way.

4. The developed scale for the measurement of commitment is a significant contribution to knowledge as future researchers will have access to an already developed and tested tool for their studies. In addition, due to its culturally motivated nature, it could be argued that the scale lacks some of the measurement weaknesses found in previous Western scales used in the assessment of employee commitment to their organisation in non-Western organisations. The scale and this research therefore represent a positive step towards bridging the gaps identified in the literature as outlined above.
5. Finally, by investigating the behavioural aspects of commitment using income and age as demographic variables, this research opened another chapter into further enquiry in understanding the reasons and factors driving employee expression of commitment to their organisation, not only within non-Western cultures with limited study on the concept of commitment, but also within Western organisations.

9.5.2 Research distinctiveness

Whereas there are varied researches on employee commitment to their organisation, this study is distinctive in the following areas.

1. This research is unique in most aspects, including the fact that whereas most existing scales were designed to fit into the Western perception of commitment and others like Wasti to explore issues associated with in-group influence on employee commitment to their organisation. This research integrates most of the above and further explored family influence and individual desires as elements necessary in exploring employee commitment to their organisations. The integration of family influence is therefore another new distinctive dimension on the study of employee commitment which will require further research for a deeper knowledge into the power of family on the wiliness of employees to express commitment to their organisations.
2. Whereas some of the existing organisational commitment scales like Meyer and Allen (1991) were developed to measure commitment and its foci, this research organisational commitment scale is different because its development was driven by the need to offer a scale that originate from the knowledge of culture predominant within the society in which the study was conducted. In other words, the development of commitment scale items used in the study was not based purely on secondary data, but also on the knowledge of what the employees within this society presumed commitment and its foci to mean, hence the

identification and integration of items that aims at measuring employee expression of commitment to their organisations as a result of moral/obligatory factors (normative commitment), and emotional (attitudinal) influences like family influence and pressures, employee individual desire, etc.. See discussions on scale items development in chapter five.

3. It can also be argued that this study is distinctive in that it complements the growing call for empirical study on the conceptualisation and measurement of commitment in Developing countries Allen (2002). Therefore while Meyer and Allen (1991) research explored commitment in Western organisations, this study not only studied commitment in the West, but also advanced the study by developing understanding of the measurement of organisational commitment across non-Western collectivist culture in general and Nigeria in particular.
4. finally, part of the criticisms against most organisational commitment studies with new scales, has been the inability of such scales to show greater or higher degree of reliability, hence leading to demand for continuous review of such scales Like Porter et al (1974), Meyer and Allen (1991). This research high reliability .932 is not only evidence of the goodness and consistency of the scale, but is a prove of its distinctiveness in that when scales like Porter et al (1974) Meyer and Allen (1991) and Wasti (2001) were tested, they tend to provide some degree of inconsistencies as discussed in chapters two and three of this research. The ability of accurately measuring what it argues and intends to measure is an evidence of the uniqueness of this research scale.

The above distinctive factors therefore support the fact that Nigerian organisations now has a reliable scale suitable for effective measurement of employee commitment to their organisations.

9.6 Research Limitations and Issues of Generalisation

Although this research took a constructive approach in studying research theories and analysing its data, it is however pertinent to note that there are some negligible yet recognisable limitations in the study as outlined and discussed below:

1. As previously noted, one advantage of using both qualitative and quantitative methods in human behavioural research such as this, is that it may provide additional insights into employee commitment from a behavioural perspective. Moreover, although the justification for the use of quantitative methods in this research (see research methodology and methods chapter) is very accurate and self convincing, it could be argued that the use of combined methods may lead to further research into the 'whys' arising from the

research data analysis as discussed in Chapter 8 of this study, e.g. why are employees with high incomes more likely to be less committed to their organisations?

It will therefore be useful for further research to be conducted in Nigeria using qualitative methods such as interviews and or case studies, or a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods, in order to answer research questions such as those arising from this study. In other words, further qualitative research should be encouraged to help compare results and advance knowledge in the use of both methods in the study of employee commitment especially in non-Western cultures.

2. Secondly, whereas it may be useful to suggest for the generalisation of this research outcomes, it may be misleading to suggest such in this research especially as it applies to the second section of the study on the analysis of employee commitment to their organisation in relation to income and age. In other words, the recommendation for the generalisation of the outcomes from the assessment of the impact of income and age on commitment may not be strongly encouraged. The reason for this is that to generalise such findings will naturally require the collection and analysis of data from a large sample Hinkins (2001). This however may not be said of this research in that whereas the sample was statistically significant, the sample used in comparison to the total research population was indeed small and may not be representative enough for generalisation to take place. Therefore, it may be useful to encourage further study with a higher number of respondents.
3. Other limitations associated with this study relate to issues of research response bias as previously discussed; that there is a likelihood that participants may be biased in their response to the questionnaire due to the cultural nature of the country in study as discussed in chapter three of this study. The dominance of collectivist and mixed Feminist and Masculine culture in Nigeria may prohibit individualism, where participants can free respond to a research questionnaire without fear for possible repercussions.
4. There is also the likelihood that there may be research limitation to this study as a result of the researchers reversal to measure commitment using other demographic factors or variables like Years in organisation, Gender, Educational qualification, occupation, etc. it can therefore be argued that there may exist some degree of biasness and control from the researcher on what variable should be assessed and why. A further research may have to address these issues by conducting a more holistic and less item controlled research.
5. Further limitations can also be argued to exist as a result of the process involved in the administration of the research scale as discussed in chapter five on research methodology

and methods. In that whereas effort was made in creating lasting contact with participating organisations at least 2 years before the commencement of the research questionnaires administration, there are possibilities that management influence and researchers personality may have partially influenced response. This view could be argued to have some degree of substance as Branch Managers of each participating bank has considerable influence over employees as their boss, Ogbor and Williams (2001).

6. Finally, there are also possibilities that the scale used in this study was greatly influenced by cultural theories propounded by Hofstede and other cultural studies in Nigeria. This view seems probable as the researchers approach to the study was greatly influenced by Lee et al (2001), Wasti 2001 and Gautam et al (2001) views that to effectively study and measure commitment in non-Western culture requires the study and adoption of the culture obtainable within the country in study. Nevertheless, the findings do indicate that the instrument is empirically genuine, suitable and impeccable for such research, which is indeed what the study aimed to establish.

9.7 Towards Future Research

“Perhaps the biggest challenge for commitment researchers will be to determine how commitment is affected by the many changes” (Meyer and Allen 1997, p. 114), not only in the workplace, such as people’s culture, but also in every day organisational practices. This is because as Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 114) noted “We believe commitment will be as important as or even more important in the future than it was in the past.” This statement is fact because of the ever-growing organisations dependent on technology for production, marketing, financing, management and even recruitment of personnel. Therefore as fewer workers will be required in the near future to do the work of many, it necessitates that the right people, in other words the most committed employees and prospective workers, be employed and entrusted with an organisation’s activities.

Secondly, other challenges include the possible development across cultures and organisations, an applicable meaning and measurement (scales) of commitment that are culturally motivated and a possible subjection of such meanings and scales to empirical tests in order to help develop possible universally accepted definitions and scales which in the near future could be integrated into one or very few generically acceptable universal meanings and scales of commitment. In view of the above therefore this study identified the following as areas of need for possible further research studies:

1. In exploring the theory of commitment, this research identified the relevance of culture in conceptualising and measuring organisational commitment in developing countries, hence

the in-depth study of the theory of culture and its theoretical connection with commitment in chapter three of this research. While this approach was useful in comprehending commitment from a Nigerian cultural perspective, this study failed to measure culture and its relationship and or impact on commitment. To empirically understand the impact of culture on commitment, it will therefore be useful if further research can be conducted aimed at assessing possible relationship(s) and impact of culture on employee expression of commitment to their organisation in non-western culture.

2. Secondly, the outcomes from this research scale study however accurate, was identified as non-generalisable on the grounds that the sample was indeed small. In order to establish the degree to which this research scale item is valid a further study is required using:
 - a. larger sample to test for the scale validity and reliability and for generalisation
 - b. The scale validity and reliability can also be tested, by using the scale in collecting data across different countries for cross cultural study.
 - c. A test for validity on the scale could focus on:
 - i. Measurement validity otherwise known as construct validity so as to help ascertain “whether or not the measure (this research 18 item scale instrument) really does reflect the concept (organisational commitment) that it is supposed to be denoting” (Bryman and Bell 2007, p.41) and or
 - ii. External validity aimed at ascertaining “whether the results of a study (this study) can be generalised beyond the specific research context”

The benefit of such study cannot be over emphasised as it will not only aid the possible establishment of the scale as valid and reliable, it may also be a solution to the growing quest for the development of a universal scale for effective measurement of employee commitment to their organisation in non-Western culture.

3. One of the key issues identified in the study of culture and commitment in Nigeria, was the degree to which gender among other issues like income and age determines one's social status. Whereas gender was not part of the variables employed in measuring commitment in Nigeria, it was however identified as having significant influence on how people in the workplace may behave. This study will therefore recommend further studies, aimed at assessing:
 - a. The relationship between commitment and gender

- b. The impact of gender on employee commitment to their organisation
- c. Whether Female employees are more likely to express commitment to their organisations than their male counterparts.

The urgency and usefulness of such research is overwhelming as it will provide managers in organisations within developing countries with real time empirical information that will support decision on work-based women empowerment and also support training for gender tolerance in a highly male dominated (masculinity) society like Nigeria.

4. Whereas the above represents areas of generic need for further research identified as a result of this study, there are also other specific areas requiring further enquiry. For example, the surprising patterns observed in the analysis of data, in which the higher income earning employees and employees within the age group 31 to 35 expressed low commitment to their organisations, call for further enquiries. Such studies would seek to further understand factors driving such behaviour. In other words, investigation would provide avenues to question and understand circumstances leading to such behaviour and further extend the available knowledge on employee commitment. It is also necessary in order for organisations and their leadership to make workable and reliable decisions.
5. The study of commitment and its components in Nigeria as shown in chapter 4 of this research tends to suggest that in some ways, normative commitment (moral obligation) seen as a component that taps into the concept of employee expression of moral commitment to their organisation as a distinctive component, may not necessarily be an independent component of commitment on the bases that there are possibilities that employee response to or commitment to organisations may not necessarily be due to moral obligation without further attachment, but may be commitment due to continuance benefits employees have or will enjoy in the organisation or the emotional feelings (attitudinal) they have developed over the years for the organisation. This argument also points to the possible fact that implies that an attempt to classify commitment into components may sometimes be misinforming because what may be classified, defined and measured as normative commitment may well indeed be different from what should be defined and measured as such across diverse cultures. On the other hand, it may well be that such assumed normative components, being defined and measured, may be the definition and measurement of an aspect of attitudinal and or continuance commitment. This argument therefore reflects the degree of dichotomy still apparent in the conceptualisation of commitment in non-Western cultures, in that "...after more than 40

years, questions about the classification, meaning and measurement of commitment remains unsolved” (Powell and Meyer 2004, p. 158). With no best approach available, the culminating question therefore is, should employee commitment be conceptualised and measured as a single (generic) concept, or as involving only two components: Affective and continuance or as Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed: A three component conceptualisation? This being a significant issue identified within the literature, is an area that requires further research to help identify whether the classification of commitment into three components (especially the place of normative commitment within the components of organisational commitment) is workable or suitable for Nigeria and other non-Western cultures.

Generally, outcomes from studies on the above further research recommendations could help improve the quality of available literatures and knowledge on employee commitment to their organisation. It could also help establish the relevance of culture not only in the study of organisational commitment but also attempt to answer the question: Is culture an antecedent of organisational commitment or is commitment indeed an antecedent of culture? The relevance of such knowledge cannot be over-emphasised, as such information in time will aid organisations, practitioners and top management to understand and appreciate the relevance of culture and its impact on committed employees in the 21st century competitive business environment.

Therefore on a generic note, there are problems unsolved and questions unanswered which are essentially questions for further research. Such issues requiring further research are those centred on investigating further into the role and impact of culture on employee commitment. Such studies could seek to understand or explore the possible relationship between culture and commitment; to understand for example if commitment is an antecedent of culture or if culture is an antecedent of commitment. Secondly, whereas it was proven through this research study that culture is relevant to the conceptualisation and measurement of commitment in non-Western organisations, there is also the need to explore and establish the relevance of culture in the study of commitment within Western organisations

A search for empirical answers to the above questions may open up doors of knowledge to the untapped and unseen areas of employee commitment research across various cultures.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1



QUESTIONNAIRE OF YOUR ORGANISATION AND COMMITMENT

Dear Participant (Sir/Madam),

I am a postgraduate Doctorial Research Student here at Newcastle Business School, Northumbria University. Currently, I am undertaking a research study on: developing culture specific Employee Commitment measurement in Nigerian.

The aim of this study is to help establish valid and reliable assessment of organisational (Employee) commitment (Loyalty) across business establishments as essential tool for organisational success. This research is therefore timely and necessary as it will help participating organisations appreciate employee contributions to work. It will also help organisations (management) have better understanding of the benefits of having committed workforce.

I will therefore be pleased to have you assist in responding to this attached questionnaire, which will aid the successful and timely completion of this research study.

You are assured that this research is purely an academic exercise, and will in accordance with the Northumbria University ethical principles; maintain (1) participants (your) anonymity, and (2) participants (your) confidentiality. In view of this, your participation in this study is completely voluntary and the information provided will exclusively be for academic purpose.

Thank you in anticipation of your timely response towards the successful completion of this questionnaire.

Yours faithfully

Ogba Ike-Elechi, AMNIM, ACIA, MBA (Northumbria)

Northumbria University
Newcastle-upon-Type England.

Newcastle Business School
Northumbria University at Newcastle-upon-Tyne
The Nigerian organisational commitment Scale (Questionnaire)

Section One: Respondent's Background information

Instruction:

Please, carefully read the question below and supply the appropriate answer by choice.

Gender	Male or Female	
What is your age in years?	20-25, 26-30, 31-35, 36 and above	
Marital status	Married, Single, widowed, or divorced	
Years employed in organisation	1-3, 4-6, 7-9, 10 and above	
Income Band	(=N= or £) 200k-500k, 501k-800k, 801k-1million, 1.1m and above	
Occupation (please state)		

Section Two: the following questions set to help determine the degree of employee affective and continuance commitment to their organisation. Where:

- Attitudinal (affective) employee commitment is: employee expression of emotional feelings, attachment and or involvement in their organisation, organisational goals, groups and or peoples, (individuals)
- Continuance commitment is: employee intension to remain employed in the organisation because of limited or low job alternatives, the cost or consequences of employee leaving his/her job/organisation and the consideration of previous sacrifices employee has given towards their organisation.

Instruction:

Please, carefully read and mark with a cross (X), your answer choice to the questions below, using the criteria provided.

Very strongly agreed	Strongly agreed	Agreed	Neither agreed or Disagreed	Disagreed	Strongly disagreed	Very strongly disagreed
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Section A: Commitment due to bonding, involvement and emotional feelings

Statements	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
1. I feel a strong sense of belonging (fit in) to this organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. this organisation means so much to me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I consider myself an integral (important) part of this organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I believe this organisation deserves my loyalty	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. what occurs in this organisation emotionally effects me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. My life would be very much disrupted if I decide to leave my organisation now.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section two B: Cost of leaving

Statements	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8. Staying with this organisation now, is a matter of necessity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I would feel guilty if I leave this organisation now.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. it is difficult to leave as I don't want to start from scratch at another organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Given the chance, I would like to leave this organisation now, but I am obliged to stay on.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section C: Sacrifices and alternatives workplace

Statements	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. There is nothing wrong moving from one organisation to the other.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. leaving this organisation now is difficult for me as there are limited available alternatives	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Moving from one organisation to another does not seem appropriate to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. I will leave this organisation if there is guarantee that other places will be better than	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

this organisation.							
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Section D: Commitment due to personal desires and aspirations

Statements	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17. I desire to achieve my aspiration in this organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. I cannot leave this organisation now because I have great prospect here	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. I feel more involved in the pursuit of this organisations goal as my personal goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section E: Commitment to organisation due to external work influence (Family)

Statements	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20. I will always remain in this organisation as long as my family life is not disrupted	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. I am loyal to this organisation because it cares for my family wellbeing.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. loyalty to my family is more important to me than loyalty to organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section F: Commitment to organisation due to internal work influence (colleagues and Superiors)

Statements	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
23. I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. I feel devoted to my colleagues in this organisation more than the organisation itself	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. I will not leave this organisation now because it will make me loose my friends	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. my feeling towards this organisation is because of the personal relationship I have with my boss	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. I give my loyalty to this organisation when it is demanded by my superiors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. I cannot leave this organisation now because someone here has considerable influence over my decision to leave.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Thank you for the time and knowledge invested towards the successful completion of this questionnaire. Please feel free to use the space below in providing any additional information or comment you think will assist this questionnaire.

Appendix 2

Sept-by-step account of scale item development

A letter of introduction and request for research permission was send on Wednesday, August 04, 2004 by 4:34 PM to Guarantee Trust Bank Nig. Plc.

I received letter of acceptance/permission to conduct my research with the organisation under mutual agreement. The letter also includes a request for detailed information on the research on the 5th of August 2004 by 08:31am

My letter of appreciation and reply to first e-mail from the organisation giving clear information on the research title, research aims and object and other information, sent on Wednesday, August 11, 2004 2:05 PM

I received the organisations reply to my e-mail on research details accepting the documents and confirming the organisations interest to continues with the research on 11 August 2004 by 17:21pm

A letter was sent to the organisation on Thursday, August 19, 2004 12:17 PM, requesting for information on issues pertaining to the organisations HR and employee relations. I also requested for publications on the organisation, its history, annual report etc. activities send

I received a positive response from the organisation with a promise to mail the documents to me when ready on 23 August 2004 by 16:54pm

I posted the interview questions to the organisation on Thursday, September 09, 2004 by 11:51 AM

The organisation replied seeking clarifications on the interview question on 10 September 2004 by 15:40pm

I posted the clarification to the organisation on Friday, September 10, 2004 by 4:25 PM

I received the confirmation of clarification with a positive response on 10 September 2004 by 16:54.

On 08/09/2004 17:09 I distributed the first draft of the scale (questionnaire) to six PhD students from North African country of Libya, two from the Kingdom of Jordan and four to students and non-students from Nigeria. The criteria was that participants most have worked in their home country for not more than two years and may not have stayed in the UK for not more than two years. Their duty was to critically comment on the content of the scale.

With feedback received within two to three days of distribution and positive and negative comments noted and amended, on 23 September 2004 by 10:46am the final draft was send to same people for further comment and was received with total agreement.

On 27 September 2004 by 17:45 the final draft was send to two academics for their professional advice. Awaiting response.

Appendix 3

A Philosophical and Academic Justification for Integrated Research Methods

Although the review of literature, suggests that the common philosophical stance used in the measure of organisational commitment tends to be more of the positivist views. Some researchers argue for a possible adoption of balanced philosophical approaches aimed at providing sustainable and successful measurement of employee commitment to their organisations. How realistic this view is, is still subject to validation and this research is not aimed at investigating such propositions, but to theoretically discuss the possibilities of integrating qualitative and quantitative research methods.

The growing calls for researchers to attempt integrating both qualitative and quantitative research methods have recently increased. Such advocates like (Van Maanen 1979, Yip 1994, Denzin and Lincoln 1998 and Lee et al, 1999) argued on the benefits accruing from such combined efforts. Some of the principal reasons for their argument is summarised in (Cassell and Symon, 1999 and Symon and Cassell 2004) argument that the dichotomy between the two methods is almost invisible and therefore in practical terms, there seems to be few boundaries between what a researcher conducting both quantitative and qualitative research can do and use as most quantitative methods use qualitative and qualitative use quantitative, (Lee et al (1999), Larsson and Lowendahl 1996). Hence, “some researchers claiming to be engaged in qualitative research may go on to quantify their data.

For example, counting frequencies of interviews responses and using statistical techniques to compare groups are all quantification in qualitative method. In another dimension, (Lee et al 1999, and Lansisalmi et al 2004) respectively, acknowledged the arguments of those against the possible integration of qualitative and quantitative methods in research. In their view, such integration tends to destroy the fundamental principles behind the various research perspectives and in practice; one method cannot supplement the other.

While these divisions’ shows the degree of dichotomy existing between the logical and the more moderate views on research methods. It thus however, creates strong barriers that hinder the effective use and appreciation of the benefits of both methods in research. It also suggests, “We may be creating a false dichotomy or simply not recognising the underlying value judgments” in the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods in research, (Cassell and Symon, 2004, p. 2). “Even when in practice, some researchers claiming to be engaged in qualitative research may go on to quantify their data”, (Cassell and Symon, 2004, p. 2). On the other hand, the use of qualitative

research methods in some research may actually offer more causal information than using quantitative. For example, the use of Ethnography and/or case study research method.

Ethnography

Ethnography, as a qualitative method, concerns with “the study of people in naturally occurring settings or fields by means of methods which capture their social meaning and ordinary activities, involving the researcher participating directly in the setting, if not also the activities, in order to collect data in a systematic manner but without meaning being imposed on them externally, (Atkinson et al 2001, Brewer 2000, p.10). This sort of research method based on deductive approach maybe suitable for a study aimed at understanding people’s behaviour. Although it is criticised for its “problematic” nature, which “have to do with the role of the researcher...it does not permit the researcher to become a variable in the experiment yet ethnographers are not detached from the research, but are themselves part of the study or by their obstructive presence come to influence the field”, (Brewer, 2004, p. 318). Other criticism hold against ethnography as a qualitative research method is on its “unstructured, too flexible, and open-ended” method of data collection. A method that in practical terms, “appear to involve unsystematic data collection, in which the absence of structure prevents an assessment of the data because differences that emerge can be attributed to variations in the way they were collected”. These also on the other hand, “breaches dearly held principles about the nature of data collection, analysis and the making of sense with it, (Brewer 2004, p. 318).

The Case Study

Case study qualitative research on its part is one method of qualitative research that is universally accepted and increasingly used both in organisational, social, and psychological research, (Yin 1994). It is a method that is “theoretically exciting, and data rich...consisting of a detailed investigation, often with data collected over a period of time, of phenomena, within their context. Aimed at providing the analysis of the context and processes which illustrate the theoretical issues being studied. Creating understanding of how behaviours and/or processes are influenced by, and influences context”, (Hartley 2004, p. 323).

Case study research offers the user so many benefits and opportunities among which is the availability of more detailed active research that is more holistic in nature. Yin (1994) argued that case study has the capability of drawing from other means and methods of research data collections mostly in organisation. Qualitative case study research tends to be more of a strategy that combines or adopts other methods as tools and resources, (Hartley, 2004). For instance, a case study can use grounded theory, Interview method, questionnaire, etc, to collect and arrive at its aims. “A case

study therefore, cannot be defined through its research methods, but in terms of its theoretical orientation, (Hartley 2004, p. 324).

A case study could be developed most times from inductive perspective and also can have a deductive approach, but is generally flexible yet with rigorous approaches through the development of theories, research design, development of research questions, data collection and even selection and analysis of such data, (Yin 1994, Robson 2002, and Hartley 2004).

The above qualities certainly makes the use of case studies more acceptable among researchers. Furthermore, case study researches as (Yin 1994, p.55) argued, are vital research activity and a strategy in which “the demands on a person’s intellect, ego and emotions are far greater than those of any other research strategy”. “The key feature of the case study approach is not method or data but the emphasis on understanding processes as they occur in their context. The research questions about “how” and “why” rather than “what” or “how much” are best suited to the case study strategy”, (Hartley 2004, p. 332).

The above benefits and minimal limitations associated with the use of research case study, plus its focus on providing answers to research questions of “how” rather than “what” both in social and organisational context, therefore makes the use of case study approach, most appropriate in such a research, aimed at answering questions like:

- How can employee commitment be effectively measured in Nigerian organisations?

Also significant to the use and choice of case study may be found in Voss et al’s (2002) argument, that case study is suitable for researches that aim at exploring and developing; assessing and modifying theories for practically focused solutions that will offer the researcher an in-depth knowledge of the research area for a comparison, between outcomes.

Nevertheless, one of its criticisms is on its non-generalisability across a larger community as it is in quantitative research. This criticism arose from the quantitative researchers and is in actual sense, argued to be unfounded as case study research can and do generalise, (analytical generalisation), Hartley (2004), especially in a research that concerns the behaviour of human, (employees), (Yin 1994 and Gomm et al 2000).

The above limitations of case study, can also be controlled by combining case study approach with quantitative methods; bearing in mind that case study as earlier noted is a flexible processes and/or strategy that can use both quantification and qualitative. Other criticism against case study is that case study research, involves some ethical issues as “one may gain information about activities which are illicit, illegal, and or out of line with ones own values, Sake (1995). This can also be

carefully managed in line with research ethical standard and such information that are not necessary or within the research context, handled with utmost discretion. After all, all researches involving human elements must consider ethical issues.

Based on the above examples, one could argue that the division and claim for superiority among schools of thoughts over what method is better than the other, creates strong barriers that hinder the use, appreciation and benefits of both qualitative and quantitative research methods, (Cassell and Symon, 2004, Lee et al 1999). (Cassell and Symon, 2004) further argued, “the use of such a broad label of differences masks a very great variety of approaches, which perhaps should not be taken together as one sort of coherent whole...even when some researchers claiming to be engaged in qualitative research may go on to quantify their data”, Casselle and Symon 1998, Cassell and Symon, 2004, p. 2).

In addition, in practice however, there tends to be no boundaries between what a researcher conducting qualitative research can do and use so as the one conducting quantitative research. For instance, Lee et al (1999) examining the conducted qualitative research across organisations in (Lee et al 1996, Larsson and Lowendahl 1996, Eisenhardt 1989) discovered the use of quantitative methods (questionnaire) in qualitative research. (Cassell and Symon, 2004, p. 2) also offered a critical argument that in most cases, “some researchers claiming to be engaged in qualitative research may go on to quantify their data (for example, counting frequencies of interviews responses, and using statistical techniques to compare groups. Can this researchers then said to be engaged in real qualitative or quantitative research”? In other words, some researchers who claim to be conducting quantitative research may well be conducting both qualitative and quantitative, by drawing on the strength of both methods to achieve a conclusion.

Therefore, “what is of importance in understanding particular research practices, however, was to appreciate a variety of ontological and epistemological stances”, (Cassell and Symon, 2004, p. 2, Gephart 1999). By ontology, we mean, “an explicit formal specification of how to represent objects, concepts and other entities that are assumed to exist in some area of interest and the relationships that hold among them”, (Gruber 1993, DOI, 2004), in other words, an arrangement or measurement of theories and its existing relationships. And epistemology on its part though sometimes used in place of ontology, is defined by (Guber 1993) as concerned with “knowledge and knowing”. Whereas “much quantitative methods might be underpinned by a positivist, normative or functionalist paradigm, qualitative methods, might be informed by all possible epistemological positions, including those traditionally associated with quantitative methods”, Cassell and Symon, 2004, p. 2, Burrell and Morgan 1979, and Alvesson and Deetz, 2000).

The conclusion from the growing call for a perception in the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches therefore suggests that it offers the research the benefit of enjoying the advantages of both methods in offering a more valid, reliable, balanced, and generalisable research findings and usable research recommendations.

What are the Differences between Quantitative and Qualitative Methods?

While some academics attempts to draw up differences between both methods. It is commonly argued that the differences between qualitative quantitative researches are on their approaches to research methods and process of data collections. Whereas in practice, some of the claimed differences are almost unclear, and invisible with some intangible dissimilarities as already discussed.

Nevertheless, according to Bryman (1988, and 1994), there are eight distinctive areas of differences between qualitative and quantitative research. These include:

1. the role played by both methodologies,
2. the relationship of the approaches to the research subject with the researchers,
3. the degree of researchers' involvement, and stance with the research subject area,
4. the research strategy used in both data collection and analysis,
5. the relationship with theories and research concepts,
6. the deepness, and scope of the research findings,
7. researcher's social perceptions (views on the larger society) and conclusions,
8. and finally the nature and type of data used within the research.

While these differences are clearly noticeable in every research practice, the aim of every research and researcher should be to identify possible means of integrating the methods for possible benefits associated with their combined use to be made present in their research.

Appendix 4

28 ITEM STATEMENT QUESTIONNAIRES (SCALE)

1. Employee emotional feeling of belonging to organisation
2. Employee emotional feeling of attachment to organisation
3. Employee emotional feeling of importance to organisation
4. Employee emotional feeling of loyalty to organisation
5. Employee emotional feeling of affectivity to organisation
6. Employee fear of disruption to life
7. Employee lack of emotional feelings
8. Employee commitment due to costs and needs
9. Employee feeling of guilt to leave
10. Employee consideration of cost associated with starting afresh elsewhere
11. Employee feeling of obligation to remain in organisation
12. Employee consideration of sacrifices to organisation
13. Employee commitment is attached to search for opportunities
14. Employee leaving is limited due to lack of job alternatives
15. Employee intension to remain due to moral belief in remaining in organisation
16. Consideration of high costs associated with leaving due to limited opportunities and insecurities
17. Availability of high opportunities for employee growth
18. Employee feeling of availability of hope (career opportunities)
19. Employee feeling of involvement in organisational goal actualisation
20. Employee willingness to remain in organisation due to non-disruption to family
21. Employee consideration of organisation care to family welfare
22. Employee expression of high loyalty to family
23. Employee expression of loyalty to colleagues
24. Employee affection to colleagues and superior (in-groups)
25. Employee continuance with org due to fear of loosing friends
26. Employee feeling of commitment due to relationship with superior
27. Employee expression of loyalty to organisation due to influence from boss
- 28. Employee intension to stay due to in-group members' influence**

Appendix 5

18 items research scale components Communalities

Factors/components	Initial	Extraction
1. Emotional feeling of belonging	1.000	.705
2. Emotional feeling of attachment	1.000	.867
3. Emotional feeling of importance	1.000	.764
4. Fear of disruption to life	1.000	.785
5. Feeling of guilt to leave	1.000	.724
6. Cost of starting afresh elsewhere	1.000	.804
7. Lack of job alternatives	1.000	.687
8. Moral belief in remaining in organisation	1.000	.656
9. High opportunities for employee growth	1.000	.728
10. Availability of career opportunities	1.000	.639
11. Involvement in organisation goal	1.000	.691
12. Non-disruption to family	1.000	.701
13. Organisation care for family welfare	1.000	.780
14. Attachment to in-groups members	1.000	.684
15. Fear of loosing friends	1.000	.779
16. Loyalty due to influence from boss	1.000	.690
17. In-group members influence	1.000	.721
18. Emotional feeling of affectivity to org	1.000	.756

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 6

Pilot study exploratory factor statistical outcomes

Table 7.6d: Total Commitment Component Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.374	40.968	40.968	7.374	40.968	40.968	5.152	28.620	28.620
2	3.290	18.277	59.245	3.290	18.277	59.245	4.176	23.198	51.819
3	2.115	11.752	70.997	2.115	11.752	70.997	3.452	19.178	70.997
4	1.544	8.576	79.573						
5	1.268	7.047	86.620						
6	.802	4.455	91.075						
7	.461	2.562	93.637						
8	.308	1.711	95.349						
9	.269	1.494	96.843						
10	.216	1.202	98.045						
11	.122	.675	98.720						
12	.098	.546	99.266						
13	.064	.357	99.623						
14	.047	.262	99.886						
15	.018	.102	99.988						
16	.002	.012	100.000						
17	.000	.000	100.000						
18	.000	.000	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

**Table 7.6e: Pattern/Structure for Coefficient After Rotation:
Rotated Component Matrix (a)**

	Component		
	1	2	3
belonging1	.885	-.237	.322
desire	.883	.108	-.080
lack of belonging	.852	-.039	-.283
connectedness1	.796	.031	.336
loyalty to organisation	.785	.335	.311
disruption to life/family (cost)	.615	.252	.443
connectedness2	.567	.388	.076
need to stay (cost)	.264	.868	-.028
moral feeling1	.161	.845	.204
obligation	-.282	.836	-.209
limited alternative1	.077	.728	.588
cost of leaving(from scratch)	.080	.719	.573
loyalty to people	.570	.623	.319
moral 2	.102	.216	.909
sacrifices	.101	.038	.770
lack of moral feelings	.544	.297	.629
limited alternative 2	.228	.206	-.340
lack of connectedness	.174	.034	.240

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 7.6f: Total Attitudinal Commitment Component Variance Explained

attitudinal commitment Component Items	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
	1	3.452	57.526	57.526	3.452	57.526
2	1.170	19.494	77.021			
3	.647	10.776	87.796			
4	.480	7.999	95.795			
5	.137	2.282	98.077			
6	.115	1.923	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.6g: Attitudinal Commitment Component Matrix (a)

Attitudinal commitment items	Component
	1
belonging1	.879
desire	.865
lack of belonging	.827
connectedness1	.814
connectedness2	.708
lack of connectedness	.286

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a 1 components extracted.

Table 7.6h: Total Continuance Commitment Component Variance Explained

Continuance Component items	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.048	50.797	50.797	3.048	50.797	50.797
2	1.309	21.822	72.619			
3	.817	13.616	86.235			
4	.480	7.996	94.231			
5	.221	3.684	97.915			
6	.125	2.085	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.6i: continuance commitment component Matrix (a)

Continuance component items	Component
	1
limited alternative1	.905
cost of leaving(from scratch)	.870
need to stay (cost)	.764
disruption to life/family (cost)	.738
sacrifices	.570
limited alternative 2	.130

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a 1 components extracted.

Table 7.6j: Total Normative Commitment Component Variance Explained

Normative Component items	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.301	55.021	55.021	3.301	55.021	55.021
2	1.316	21.932	76.953			
3	.584	9.741	86.693			
4	.438	7.295	93.989			
5	.285	4.747	98.735			
6	.076	1.265	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.6k: normative commitment component Matrix (a)

Normative component items	Component
	1
loyalty to people	.895
lack of moral feelings	.847
moral feeling1	.782
loyalty to organisation	.774
moral 2	.709
obligation	.265

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a 1 components extracted.

Table 7.6l: Total Variance of Randomly Selected Scale Items from AC+CC Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.037	50.614	50.614	3.037	50.614	50.614	2.262	37.704	37.704
2	1.190	19.830	70.445	1.190	19.830	70.445	1.682	28.033	65.737
3	.908	15.129	85.574	.908	15.129	85.574	1.190	19.837	85.574
4	.564	9.408	94.982						
5	.196	3.263	98.246						
6	.105	1.754	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.6m: Component Matrix (a) of AC+CC

	Component		
	1	2	3
belonging1	.940	.082	.148
connectedness1	.885	.089	.313
disruption to life/family (cost)	.709	.598	-.045
sacrifices	.155	.857	-.083
limited alternative1	.024	.758	.488
connectedness2	.259	.035	.907

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 7.6n: Total Variance of Randomly Selected Scale Items from AC+NC Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.196	53.262	53.262	3.196	53.262	53.262	2.049	34.155	34.155
2	1.398	23.295	76.557	1.398	23.295	76.557	2.047	34.115	68.271
3	.734	12.236	88.793	.734	12.236	88.793	1.231	20.523	88.793
4	.491	8.177	96.970						
5	.156	2.602	99.572						
6	.026	.428	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.6o: Rotated Component Matrix (a) of AC+NC

	Component		
	1	2	3
belonging1	.953	.091	.101
connectedness1	.896	.174	.276
moral feeling1	-.172	.908	.357
connectedness2	.391	.812	-.103
loyalty to people	.321	.701	.449
moral 2	.229	.182	.898

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 7.6p: Total Variance of Randomly Selected Scale Items from NC+CC Six Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.614	60.227	60.227	3.614	60.227	60.227	2.040	34.007	34.007
2	.960	16.002	76.229	.960	16.002	76.229	1.761	29.345	63.352
3	.802	13.361	89.590	.802	13.361	89.590	1.574	26.238	89.590
4	.367	6.117	95.707						
5	.234	3.892	99.600						
6	.024	.400	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7.6q: Rotated Component Matrix(a) of NC+CC

	Component		
	1	2	3
moral feeling1	.920	.089	.207
limited alternative1	.742	.505	.163
sacrifices	-.002	.846	.370
moral 2	.423	.831	.058
disruption to life/family (cost)	.169	.278	.924
loyalty to people	.660	.119	.715

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.