IMPROVING ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN THE NIGERIAN SERVICE INDUSTRY.

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BY

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ABSTRACT

The role of management in boosting the commitment of its organizational members is a critical one (Ammari et al., 2017), and in this vein, this study takes a closer look at areas where management can play a role including: crafting an effective rewards system, career development strategies and even design of organizational structure. This study investigates organizational commitment and performance in the Nigerian service industry. This research emanated from my desire to develop an effective pay scheme for my organization and this led to me, questioning the efficacy of pay as a sole driving force for employee commitment. Hence, I shifted my quest from the development of a pay scheme to a broader investigation of what drives employees to give their best to their organization. In other words, what makes an employee committed to the organization and my intention is to apply the findings to my organization. This investigation is crucial to the survival of my company as we are small and the dwindling economic fortunes of the construction industry in Nigeria is putting a squeeze on the profitability of my organization. This is an attempt to create competitive advantages and quality output in spite of dwindling resources.

The whole argument is built, step by step, through each chapter. Specifically, the entire thesis shows how my review on literature, methods I have utilized and findings made, lead from the identification of a management issue that needs to be addressed, all the way through reading literatures and undertaking research to the design of proposed management action which was then tested by discussing that plan with relevant stakeholders in my organisation. The emerging ideas were tested for action with the relevant stakeholders, based on the relevant data from my research. Specifically, the research adopts the relativist ontological and social constructionist epistemological viewpoints, conceding the existence of multiple truths. By adopting this philosophical viewpoint, this allows me to see facts not from the observer's point of view but also from the people that are intimate and immersed in the research environment. This study embraces a mixed method approach utilizing both quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate organizational commitment and its impact on the practical world from the Nigerian perspective.

The quantitative study found that commitment (affective) was strongly influenced by both intrinsic reward factors such as role clarity, participation and feedback; as well as extrinsic rewards (pay satisfaction, working conditions and fringe benefits). The investigation also confirmed strong links between career growth factors and commitment. Furthermore, positive relationships were confirmed between commitment and performance in the form of customer service (extra-role service behaviour and service ability). The qualitative action learning research also confirmed the links between commitment and rewards/career growth and consequently, performance.

These findings informed my recommendations for the adoption of involvement structures in the participants' organizations, specifically work teams and quality circles/task forces. These allow for employee participation, rewards based on performance, constant feedback and multi-variety skill development.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my wife (my motivator-in-chief), kids and mum, for their love and support.

And to my dad, my first giant. Even though you're gone, I still feel your presence.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This chapter sets the stage for the rest of the thesis by providing the foundation or reasons that influenced the research work, whilst offering a sneak preview into what is to come in the remaining chapters. The research context is provided herein as well as the research objectives and more light is cast on the motivations behind the study and what the research aims to achieve. The anticipated contributions of the research to both academia and practice are further highlighted, signalling to the reader the need to comprehend better, the cycle of influences and consequences of organizational commitment especially in the service environment. Moving forward, I provide the structure of the thesis report, which is a summary of the succeeding chapters, informing the readers of what to expect from the report in its entirety.

1.1 Research Context and Problem Statement

The motivation for this research is driven by both academic and professional intentions. From the academic perspective, the research aims to study organizational commitment in the service environment in a circular manner, looking at both inputs and outputs of the concept (Ajayi, 2017; Olori and Dan-Jumbo, 2017). What I mean by the inputs of organizational commitment are its antecedents or correlates, while the outputs referred herein, relate to the consequences of organizational commitment (Fako et al., 2018; Ezenwakwelu, 2017; Ikon and Chukwu, 2017). Organizational commitment in this research is approached not as a monolithic concept but as a multi-dimensional concept (Jiang et al., 2018; Lapointe and Vandenberghe, 2015) by investigating it using two dimensions or components (i.e. affective and continuance commitment). The consequence of organizational commitment in this study is simply looked at from the perspective of performance (Yu et al., 2017; Lau et al., 2017; Akinyemi, 2014; Affum-Osei, Acquaah, & Acheampong, 2015). Every organization seeks to improve its performance and by improving performance, the management can meet or surpass its anticipated targets. In the service sector, performance can be viewed from the perspective of service to the customers, as this is the end-product for every service organization (Yu et al., 2017; Jena, 2015). Customer services can also be better enhanced if organizational rewards are properly crafted to motivate all employees (Chen et al., 2017; Juahari et al., 2017).

In the context of this study, organizational rewards are categorized into three forms: extrinsic, social and intrinsic rewards (Malhotra et al., 2007; Newman and Sheikh, 2012; Miao et al., 2013). Extrinsic organizational rewards refer to those forms of rewards that are external to

the individual and are usually administered by the management and these include: salary, promotion, working conditions and other fringe benefits (Kokubun, 2016; Florea and Turnea 2018; Malhotra et al., 2007; Newman. and Sheikh, 2012). Social rewards encapsulate an individual's relationship with others in the work environment including one's superiors and colleagues (Malhotra et al., 2007). Whereas, intrinsic rewards are those derived from carrying out the job itself and are self-administered, they include factors such as: autonomy, role clarity, skill variety and feedback (Steffens et al., 2018; Newman and Sheikh, 2012).

The main organisational issues in my place of work have always been the interplay between poor customer services (an offshoot of poor employee's commitment) and declining profitability. There has been consistent decline, of about 5-10%, in both profitability and staff turnover in our organisation, and other similar service-oriented organisations in the past five years. The high turnover has been attributed to low employee's commitment in the Nigerian service sector (Ajayi, 2017; Olori and Dan-Jumbo, 2017). Specifically, from my experience in running my own organization, I observe that in the event the customers are not satisfied, the business clearly loses profitability, due mainly to low retention of our major clients. In addition to the effect on customers, what I have experienced in my business is that when employees are not committed, they do not treat the organization's property as their own and do not go the extra mile to ensure that operations are carried out in cost-effective ways. This also affects not only short-term profits but also the long-term chances of the organization to stay in business. As I struggle to keep my business afloat, the study of organizational commitment becomes even more relevant from a personal perspective, especially in a small business, like mine, where resources are not much and we cannot afford to pay huge wages.

The correlates I have chosen to study are those that the management of any organization have influence over, even though not total control but enough control to positively influence or inadvertently deteriorate commitment in the organization (Otieno., Waiganjo, & Njeru, 2015; Paluku, 2016). These correlates are organizational rewards and career growth and these concepts are explained in detail in succeeding chapters. It is important to mention that both organizational rewards and career growth have contributions from the management as well as the individuals affected. Extrinsic organizational rewards such as pay and fringe benefits are those that can be influenced by the management, whereas intrinsic rewards are self-administered (Malhotra et al., 2007; Miao et al., 2013; Newman and Sheikh, 2012). For career growth, the organization's management can provide training/development plans and ensure promotion for its employees are available for those that deserve it, but the individual must take deliberate steps to enhance his or her professional ability and skills (Wang et al., 2014; Weng et al., 2010).

This research views customer service from multiple points: the role-prescribed service behaviour i.e. the level of customer service the organization expects from the individual worker; extra-role service behaviour, which refers to discretionary service behaviour that exceeds what is expected of the individual worker; and service ability, which refers to the skill of the worker to deliver quality service to the customers (Dhar, 2015; Tsaur and Lin, 2004). In addition, since the study strives to throw more light on the relationship between

career growth factors and organizational commitment, the career growth factors utilized herein include: career goal progress, professional ability development, remuneration growth and speed of promotion (Weng et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2014). Some of these career growth factors have direct contribution, if not control, from the organization's management whilst others fall under the purview of the individual worker. It would be a major contribution to both practice/ management if an attempt is made to seek out how these career growth factors that are important to improving the commitment levels of workers especially in the quest to provide premium customer service (Ajayi, 2017; Olori and Dan-Jumbo, 2017). In addition, previous studies (Jena, 2015; Garba & Jirgi, 2014; Mechanic & Irefin, 2014; Messarra, 2014; Triana., Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015) also calls for a review of how improvement in customer services is pursued by organizations, from the viewpoint of the inputs made through organizational commitment, organizational rewards and career growth. This inquiry therefore contributes to existing debates, in an attempt to understand how these concepts affect the level of customer service that an individual put into his or her job. Consequently, customer service in this research is approached from both the prescribed or expected customer service role an individual provides and the discretionary or above-and-beyond behaviour the worker applies to satisfy the organization's customers (Akinyemi, 2014).

Previous research evidence on organizational commitment has barely scratched the surface from the perspective of the Sub-Saharan African worker and there are factors that make such inquiry important (Rees, Alfes, & Gatenby, 2013; Dalgic, 2014; Kumasey., Eric-Delle, & Ofei, 2014). The African continent boasts of a large population of over a billion, while Nigeria as a country has a population of about 150 million people; making the region a potentially fertile market for international companies. In addition, due to cultural and economic factors, the perception of rewards and organizational career growth and their concomitant factors are viewed differently in sub-Saharan Africa compared to differing views in the Western economies (Clugston, et al., 2000, Fischer & Mansell, 2009).

From the professional angle, my desire to investigate organizational commitment was first kindled about five years ago and at first, it was not organizational commitment that was the subject of interest. I own and run a small company that is in the business of construction and heavy equipment leasing and I was initially interested in developing a pay-for-performance system for my company. However, after some research and consultation, I came to the realization that pay might not be the only motivation or even an effective motivation for performance in any organization (Mohamad., Cha., Ramlan, & Azmi, 2014; Agyeman & Ponniah, 2014). Thus, my curiosity was further aroused due to the declining profitability in my organisation, eventually leading to the study of organizational commitment and its links to performance in the Nigerian service Industry. Understanding the antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment is not just an academic exercise for me but carries serious practical implications. Bringing more clarity to these concepts would help my organization to improve in the areas of motivation, commitment and performance at the same time aid in creating an environment of fairness (Ezenwakwelu, 2017; Ikon and Chukwu, 2017).

Applying the lessons gleaned from this research should bring more effectiveness to my organization and this translates to cost savings and increased profitability. Unfortunately, the

prevailing economic conditions of my local environment has caused me to retrench almost all my company workers and I am in the process of re-aligning my company to new areas of business. This has hindered my ability to immediately apply my findings to my organization but rather, I have had to recommend actions to the participants of this research.

1.2 Research Objectives

The present study has foremost as its intention, to study organizational commitment by focusing on its antecedents and consequences through the lens of the Nigerian service employee. Consequently, this research aims to investigate the influence organizational rewards have on the level of organizational commitment on individual workers. Finally, from the findings of the investigations, I hope to proffer solutions or recommendations that will help Nigerian service sector executives to improve the commitment their employees possess and demonstrate to their organizations and hence, likely boost performances.

Specifically, this research seeks to study how each of the three forms of rewards (extrinsic, social and intrinsic rewards) affects both affective and continuance organizational commitment levels. Furthermore, the current research strives to throw more light on the relationship between career growth factors and organizational commitment. The research aims to seek out how these career growth factors are important to improving the commitment levels of workers especially in the quest to provide premi b b um customer service. In addition, this research seeks to review customer service from the viewpoint of the inputs made through organizational commitment, organizational rewards and career growth, and by extension, how these concepts affect the level of customer service that an individual puts into his or her job.

Lastly, this research attempts to observe (and control for) the influence of demographic factors such as gender, years of service and income level whilst investigating the roles of organizational rewards and career growth on organizational commitment and customer service. This is an attempt to investigate if these demographic factors play a role, subtle or overt, on an individual's disposition to customer service or commitment to the organization.

1.3 Research Questions

To fulfil the above stated objectives, the following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the nature of the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational rewards?
2. How do career growth factors influence organizational commitment?
3. How does organizational commitment affect performance in terms of customer service?
4. Taking into consideration, the answers to the three previous questions, what concrete steps can managers adopt to improve commitment and possibly performance?

1.4 Significance of the Study

1.4.1 Importance to Academic Theory

Although prior research work has been conducted on the links between organizational rewards and organizational commitment as well as between career growth and organizational commitment, little has been done to investigate how both these concepts combine to influence organizational commitment (Ezenwakwelu, 2017; Ikon and Chukwu, 2017; Akinyemi, 2014). The research aims to bring more knowledge on how the various forms of rewards including: extrinsic, social and intrinsic rewards influence affective and continuance commitment in the service environment (Garba & Jirgi, 2014; Mechanic & Irefin, 2014). This is especially important as the extant research appears to disagree with the influence of the various forms of rewards on the components of organizational commitment (Malhotra et al., 2007; Miao et al., 2013; Allen and Meyer, 1990).

In addition, this research work seeks to reveal the influence on performance played by organizational rewards, career growth and organizational commitment, which is an area that has hardly been extensively covered in practice and by existing research. Performance is measured through customer service in the service sector, as that is the end-result of the service organization (Messarra, 2014; Triana., Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015). Performance or customer service in this instance should be viewed in multiple ways i.e. from the role-prescribed behavior and the extra-role service behaviour. Extra-role service behaviour has been described in previous research as discretionary and is similar to how organizational citizenship behaviour has been defined by various researchers (Alkahtani, 2015; Messarra, 2014; Triana., Jayasinghe, & Pieper, 2015).

1.4.2 Significance to Practice and Management Knowledge

From the managerial or practice standpoint, this research seeks to assist the manager in deciding the best ways to design the rewards and career development systems in order to elicit the best out of the employees. Designing rewards and career development systems to elicit the best out of the employees has always been the major problem in my organisation, and many organisations in the industry (Agoi, 2015; Edwin, Micah & John, 2015; Mokaya & Kipyegon, 2014; Nwinyokpugi, 2015). Previously, I (as well as other managers) erroneously assumed that pay was the determining factor in motivating the members of staff and bringing out the best output. However, this is often far from the truth, as workers also hold as critical the quality of relationships in the workplace, the level of challenge brought about by work itself, the perception of support and value held by the management for its members and other factors (Balfour and Wechsler, 1991; Boshoff and Mels, 1995; Mahony et al., 2015). This research aims to contextualize such knowledge with the Nigerian service industry as its research environment.

In my opinion, customer service is encapsulated by quality of service expected by the customers or clients from the members of the organization as well as service behaviour that goes beyond what the customer ordinarily expects and pleasantly surprises the client. This is what leads to word of mouth recommendation, which is a powerful promotional tool. Furthermore, this research work is hoping to reveal the relationships, if any, between demographic factors such as gender, age, employment industry and employment status, and both organizational commitment and customer service.

1.5 Thesis Structure

This thesis work is organized into nine chapters not including the abstract, references section and appendices. The outline of the chapters is explained below in a chapter by chapter format. Some of the sections below are more exhaustive than others and this reflects the lengths or composition of the chapters being summarized.

1.5.1 Chapter Two: Literature Review

Chapter Two presents the critical review of the extant literature to the reader. Here, I review the various definitions of organizational commitment as well as how the subject has been categorized by different authors. The most popular conceptualization by Allen and Meyer (1990 and 1993) is provided and this is the description and categorization that my research work hinges on. Allen and Meyer's three components of organizational commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative) are summarized in this chapter. I move on to argue the importance of organizational commitment in the workplace based on the prior literature linking organizational commitment to various constructs, including financial and operational performance, absenteeism and turnover, service delivery and organizational citizenship behaviour (Angle & Perry, 1981; Balfour & Wechsler, 1991; Cohen, 1993; Culpepper, 2011; Mayer & Schoorman, 1992; Somers, 1995; Guay, et al., 2015; Thye & Yoon, 2015).

Chapter Two also provides the reader an understanding of the topic of organizational rewards. Organizational rewards is hinged on theories such as Social Exchange theory and Reciprocity and these are discussed within sections of the chapter. What is more, the forms of organizational rewards: extrinsic, social and intrinsic are summarized and I then go further to put forward the identified links between organizational commitment and rewards in the organization as provided by previous research works. The differences and disagreements between various works regarding rewards and committed are highlighted within a section of this chapter.

Furthermore, the chapter provides a discussion on career growth from the existing literature. The various works providing insights and viewpoints on the influence of career development and management on the motivation of the workers as well as their satisfaction are critically reviewed. The section on career growth also reviews the theoretical linkages between the

concepts of career growth and commitment which are underpinned by theories such as Organization-based self esteem theory and Psychological attachment theory. The section goes further to present the forms of career growth (career goal progress, rate of remuneration growth, development of professional ability/skill and promotion speed) that I base my research investigations on as seen in the works of Weng, et al. (2010) and Wang, et al. (2014).

Finally, the second chapter puts forward my review on customer service. The perspectives of customer service from the management and the customer's viewpoints are provided and the contended links between service delivery and organizational commitment are also highlighted in this section. The section on customer service goes on to compare the construct of organizational citizenship behaviour, as described in various research, and customer service and in this same vein, Chou & Lopez-Rodriguez's (2013) introduction of service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviour is also discussed to demonstrate the links between organizational commitment and customer service using organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as the point of argument.

The existing literature reviewed in this section asserts that organizational commitment is a predictor of customer service in its various forms. This second chapter also presents the various dimensions of customer service as provided by Tsaur & Lin (2004) including: role-prescribed service behaviour, extra-role service behaviour and service ability are further highlighted and this is the categorization of customer service that I utilize in the course of my investigation.

1.5.2 Chapter Three: Hypotheses Development and Conceptual Development

Chapter Three picks up from where the preceding left off by taking the reader through the research hypotheses put forward by the author but with the backing of previous research works. In this chapter, I hypothesize various relationships between organizational commitment, organizational rewards, career growth and customer service. The conceptual map is also provided in this third chapter and it demonstrates in a pictorial form, the touted relationships between the various concepts under investigation.

1.5.3 Chapter Four: Research Methodology

Chapter Four unveils the methods and techniques employed to investigate the hypotheses put forward by me. In this chapter, the reader gets to understand the research philosophy underpinning this particular research work as well as the research design, which expatiates on how data is collected and treated. The questionnaire development process is explained, letting the reader understand the thought process behind the questionnaire design in terms of layout, fonts and overall presentation as well as the design of the questions contained in the questionnaire. The contribution of the pilot test carried out is also discussed in this chapter. The sampling technique utilized is discussed and the methods utilized in disseminating the

survey questionnaires to ensure an optimum response rate are also presented. The chapter goes forward to reveal the measurement instruments adopted and adapted from existing research to collect current data from the participants of the study. The demographic characteristics of the research participants of this study are provided in this chapter as well.

1.5.4 Chapter Five: Data Analysis

Chapter Five puts forward the quantitative data analysis work carried out on the data collected. As part of the pre-analysis stage, exploratory factor analysis was carried out, which led to the dropping of some components with low loadings and the results are reported using output tables of the exploratory factor analysis and scree plots. Tests for reliability were carried out by measuring the internal consistency of the scales and these are reflected through the Cronbach's Alpha values. Normality tests were carried out and reported in tables showing the values from the skewness, kurtosis Komogorov-Smirnov tests and graphically depicted in histograms and Normal Q-Q plots.

Moving forward, the tests of the hypotheses are reported using correlation and multiple hierarchical regression analyses, which are reported in several tables in this chapter. The correlation tables show the quality of the relationships between the dependent variables and independent variables and level of significance of the correlation values are also indicated. The multiple hierarchical regression controls for demographic factors whilst attempting to reveal the ability to predict the variances of the dependent variables, organizational commitment in one instance and customer service in another instance.

Other analyses carried out to reveal the relationships between demographic factors and the concepts of organizational commitment and customer service are also reported in this chapter, which include the parametric tests - independent sample t-tests and one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) and the non-parametric tests – Mann Whitney U test and Kruskal-Wallis test.

1.5.5 Chapter Six: Action Research

In this chapter, I introduce the reader to the meaning and importance of action learning to research and management practice. The chapter begins with a broad introduction of the action research philosophy by defining the concept and identifying the key characteristics of action research as indicated in the extant research. Continuing with the theory of action research, I go further to differentiate action research from traditional positivist research but still demonstrate that action research should be rigorous basing my arguments on theoretical foundations (Coghlan, 2011; Eden and Huxham, 1996).

I move on to present the action learning set discussion that I facilitated with other practitioners including supervisors and managers from various service-oriented organizations in Nigeria. These participants were from sectors such as hospitality, training, civil

construction and information technology providers. Several themes were covered during the discussions and they bordered on the meaning and importance of commitment to one's organization, factors that influence commitment and what ways to put to practice or operationalize the ideas that sprang forward from the discussions regarding improving the commitment of members of their various organizations.

1.5.6 Chapter Seven: Conclusions and Implications

Chapter seven provides critical discussions on the findings of the research from both the quantitative analysis and the action learning discussion sessions. In this chapter, I make several inferences from the findings, which are informed mostly by the extant research on the topics of study. In addition, the various points of divergence from existing research works on the concepts under investigation are highlighted and brought to the reader's attention with the possible reasons for the differences observed. The observed relationships between organizational rewards variables and both affective and continuance commitment are discussed therein. Also, I reflect on other relationships identified from the analysis of the data including: the relationship between career growth dimensions and both affective and continuance commitment; the links between organization commitment and customer service components; and, the influence of demographic factors on organizational commitment and customer service.

In this chapter, I present the implications of the research findings for practitioners/managers. This should assist managers especially in the Nigerian service industry to boost the commitment of their organizational members and consequently, improve service to their customers. This section offers advice on the design of the working environment to cater for interaction between management and employees. What is more, managers are advised not to ignore the financial incentives whilst building on the non-financial tools, and this is because pecuniary tools take on greater significance in organizations in countries with lower macro-economic fortunes.

The implications for the scholar-practitioner is presented in the form of my reflections covering the entire process. These were notes summarized from my journals capturing my internal struggles and challenges I felt all through the thesis process.

1.5.7 Chapter Eight: Recommendations

In this chapter, I presented my recommendations for the executives that participated in this action research and these recommendations will also be useful to other service organizations in Nigeria.

I advocated for organizational structures and approaches that elicit involvement from all levels of the organization. I present two approaches: work-team structure and parallel approach (quality circles and task-forces specifically). This chapter also contains a summary of the final action learning session, in which these recommendations were discussed with the participants.

1.5.8 Chapter Nine: Limitations and Future Research

This final chapter presents the limitations encountered by the present research work. These limitations included those encountered due to constraints of time and resources, which affected the design of the research. Other limitations were due to the broad scope of the research, which was chosen in such a way to achieve some level of generalizability of the outcome. I also conceded that the number of variables utilized could have been more to probe deeper into the concepts of organizational commitment and customer service, although this would have increased the complexity and affected overall manageability of the research work.

The areas deserving of further research are also identified in this chapter. These include constructs that were hypothesized to have strong ties to each other based on extant research but were found to have weak links in the current research. Future research could focus on the actual influencers of such constructs especially in the sub-Saharan African context, which appears to deviate from the Western and developed countries in some areas. Other areas worthy of future research work are also highlighted in this chapter.

1.6 Summary of chapter

This introductory chapter has provided readers with a window into the overall research investigation and thesis report that continues after this chapter. The context of the research work is presented, demonstrating the background and motivations for the investigation of the identified concepts. In addition, the objectives of the research are discussed in this chapter and these consist of unearthing the character of the relationships between organizational rewards, career growth, organizational commitment and customer service. The research work's contributions to knowledge both from the academic and managerial perspectives are also reflected upon.

Specifically, the aim of this chapter is to tell readers about the management issue/ problem that requires inquiry and management action (Kramer, 2007; Leonard & Marquardt, 2010). The chapter also emphasised why the problem is important, and the events/situations/evidence that brought it to my attention. This chapter also gave me the opportunity to introduce myself and how am related to the identified organisational issue/ problem. Particularly important is the fact that, as the Managing Director of my organisation, I have the authority and autonomy to either take action or may use evidence from this study to persuade others to take action (Chandler & Torbert, 2003; Deshpande, 2016; Hay, 2004).

Lastly, I have been able to outline the structure of this thesis, and how I intend to build my argument in each chapter. Consequently, the chapter provides readers with the structure of the thesis work, a summary of the succeeding chapters, highlighting what readers should expect moving forward in a bid to pique the interest of the reader.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter critically reviews the extant literature on organizational commitment, its various definitions and its contemporary treatment in academic circles. In addition, the enablers and consequences of commitment are discussed in the chapter. The roles of rewards in the organization and career growth with respect to commitment are also presented; as well as the theoretical frameworks of these concepts (Malhotra et al., 2007; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Newman and Sheikh, 2012). What is more, customer service is viewed as a consequence of organizational commitment in the light of an organizational citizenship behavior (Wang et al., 2014; Weng et al., 2010).

2.1 Organizational Commitment

Organizations perform well when their individual members are committed to the values and goals of the organization in conjunction with other factors (Angle and Perry, 1981). Alternatively, performance takes a poor turn when commitment levels are low and consequently, individuals just merely put in the minimum required to maintain employment (Gould-Williams, 2007). Organizational commitment has been strongly linked in the past to performance (Balfour & Wechsler, 1991, Angle & Perry, 1981 and Somers, 1995) and this attaches high relevance to the question – what drives commitment? Existing research has pointed to the primacy of management practices over individual characteristics when considering what drives organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002; Joung et al., 2015; Thye and Yoon, 2015). Meyer & Allen, (1997) suggest that organizations can attempt to improve or manage employee commitment through several human resource practices including: recruitment, socialization/training, promotion and compensation. These HR practices are more often than not encapsulated in the rewards and career development systems of every organization. In my experience and through my interaction with other entrepreneurs and senior managers in the Nigerian service industry, there is a dearth of structured rewards, manpower development and career growth systems and this could be the cause of the poor customer service that characterizes the service sector in Nigeria.This underscores the need to study concepts such as rewards and career growth, which the management of any organization should have significant influence over and can shape these human resource practices in the best ways to manage commitment. With better understanding and proper implementations of these concepts, executives in the Nigerian service sector (including me) would be able to motivate workers and consequently, inspire higher quality service to customers.

2.1.1 Introduction to Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment remains a hot topic of discussion because of its suggested practical implications especially in the area of performance (Wright and Kehoe, 2009; Yousef, 2017; Wahyuni et al., 2014). Wright and Kehoe (2009) link commitment to performance both in terms of financial and non-financial indices. The authors argue that employee attitudes have been shown to have relationships with return-on-assets and book-to-market values at the organizational level (Wright & Kehoe, 2009) and other financial indices such as earnings-per-share (Wright & Kehoe, 2009) and sales volume (Meyer and Allen, 1997). From the operational performance point of view, commitment's links with quality of work, customer satisfaction, absenteeism and effectiveness (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Wright and Kehoe, 2009) and this continues to ensure organizational commitment remains a relevant and exciting concept in the workplace and classroom. Wright & Kehoe (2009) posit that indicators such as quality, workers' compensation and customer satisfaction have demonstrable links with commitment.

Meyer & Allen (1997) assert affective commitment shows strong negative correlation with voluntary absenteeism i.e. when workers choose not to show up at work as opposed to uncontrollable or forced absenteeism. Furthermore, Meyer & Allen (1997) put up other indicators associated with in-role performance such as adherence to organizational policy/strategy, ratings for promotion; operational effectiveness and overall job performance. However, dissenting voices are also out there as some researchers have argued that commitment and performance have no or at best partial links (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The extant research demonstrates the imperativeness of organizational commitment to the management of any organization because issues such as operational effectiveness and customer satisfaction lead to profitability or the lack of it (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Wright and Kehoe, 2009).

Organizational commitment has been established as an essential concept in organizational studies because of its perceived links to job satisfaction, employees' behaviours and attitudes (Balfour & Wechsler, 1991, Mayer & Schoorman, 1992, Somers, 1995, Peng et al., 2016, Ozturk et al., 2014, Guay, et al., 2015). Porter, as far back as 1974, identified three key components of organizational commitment including: a deeply-felt alignment with the goals of the organization, an eagerness to expend one's skills and energies for the organization's sake, and certain ambition to remain part of the organization (cited in Angle & Perry, 1981, p.2). Research suggests that employees with greater levels of commitment put in the level of work to meet up with expectations and aid in the achievement of organizational objectives (Faisal & Al-Esmael, 2014).

2.1.2 Definitions of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is defined in numerous ways by various researchers; Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p.301) define commitment as the compulsion felt by individuals to attach themselves to a goal or target and is usually associated with mental dispositions that aid in forming this behaviour. Faisal and Al-Esmael (2014, p. 25) defined organizational

commitment in terms of the individual's levels of involvement and identification with his or her firm. While, Allen and Meyer (1996) p.252) define organizational commitment as the cognitive and emotional bonds between individuals and their organizations and these links make it more difficult for the individuals to willingly leave their organizations. Organizational commitment has also been defined as individual responses instigated by personal perceptions and experiences encountered within their organizations and these are reflected in the manner these individuals associate with the visions and values of the organization and their willingness to remain members of the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Cohen, 2007, Top et al., 2013; and Mowday, 1998).

With the various definitions presented above in mind and from my practical experience, I would describe organization commitment as the sum of forces that drives an individual to remain in her organization; to expend effort in pursuit of the organization's objectives; and to align with the values and principles of the organization. In other words, organizational commitment is what makes us want to show up early to work, it is why we want to work harder on the job and remain with our organization. These forces comprise of instrumental as well as emotional motivators, and these driving forces are not necessarily mutually exclusive neither do they exist as distinct forces within an individual. This description of organizational commitment suggests implications on the performance of the organization because when its individual employees are committed to the objectives and goals, they will most likely strive to meet set targets. In addition, it is important to recognize that the definition acknowledges the role of tangible rewards like pay but it also argues that pay alone does not translate to commitment to the organization, thus hinting at different aspects or components of commitment in the organization. I must clarify that various types of commitment are prevalent in the extant literature and these should be differentiated from organizational commitment and in the next section, some of these other types of commitment are presented.

2.1.3 Other Kinds of Commitment

The existing literature identifies several kinds of commitment, which include: organizational commitment, commitment to change, job commitment, commitment to one's profession and commitment to targets or goals (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). Organizational commitment has been defined above and is the focus of this research work, however, it will enhance the reader's understanding if other kinds of commitment prevalent in the literature are presented briefly.

Occupational/career commitment has been referred to as a person's drive or attitude towards his or her chosen occupation or vocation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Job commitment refers to the probability that an employee will remain psychologically attached to his or her job, even if it does not bring satisfaction (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983 cited in Meyer & Herscovitch, p.302). Goal commitment is described as the level of persistence and determination an employee applies in achieving his or her set targets or goals (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Herscovitch (1999 cited in Meyer & Hercovitch, p.303) described

commitment to organizational change as a state of mind that inspires an employee to commit to a course of action seen as vital to the productive completion of a change process. Finally, commitment to strategy refers to the motivation of an individual to implement the organization's strategy (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

2.1.4 Attitudinal and Behavioural Approaches to Organizational Commitment

The extant literature also distinguishes between dual approaches to investigating organizational commitment, which are attitudinal and behavioural commitment approaches. Attitudinal refers to the manner, in which individuals arrive at how they conceive of the relationship between themselves and their organization, this can be viewed as the frame of mind of the individual worker on how he or she views the alignment between their values and goals and those of the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Whereas, behavioural commitment refers to the process through which individuals come to be engaged in an organization and how they tackle such issues (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Attitudinal research has focused mostly on the antecedents of organizational commitment, whereas, behavioural research has mostly focused on the consequences (Meyer and Allen, 1991). The three-component model of organizational commitment developed by Meyer and Allen and adopted by this research incorporates both the attitudinal and behavioural approaches to commitment by arguing that goal/value congruence can reflect the desire by the individual to remain a member of the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). The attitudinal and behavioural perspectives are depicted in the diagram below from Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 63), the bold arrows show the primary causal relationships while the broken arrows show the secondary relationships.

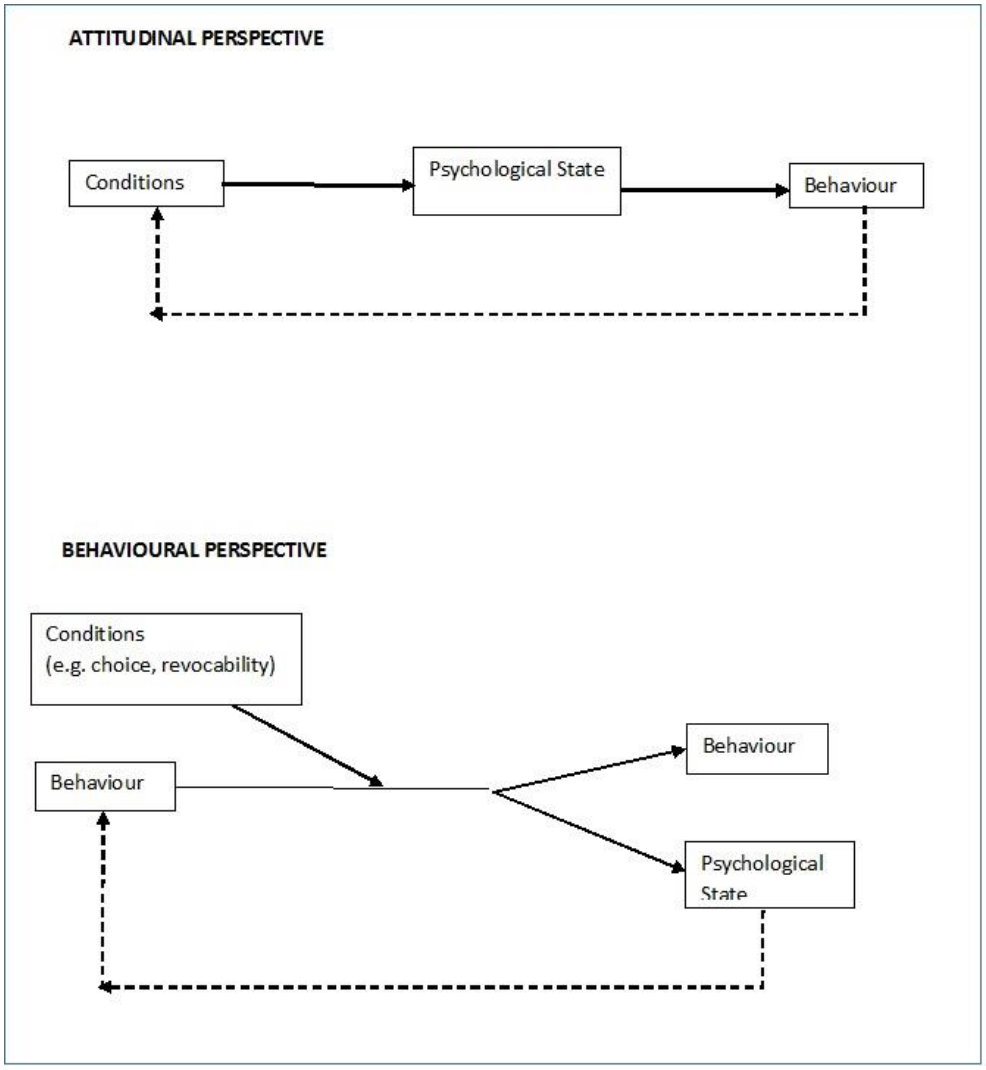

Figure 1. The Attitudinal and Behavioural Perspectives of Commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

2.1.5 Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

When discussing organizational commitment with people in practice, I observed that most times it is viewed from the affective point of view i.e. workers and executives mostly think of commitment as a sentimental attachment to the corporation but I feel it is important to provide a complete view of organizational commitment as has been identified in the literature.

Initially, organizational commitment was viewed only from the emotional aspect such as the model put forward by Porter in his OCQ measurement (Mowday, 1998), which attempted to gauge the intensity of an individual's identification and involvement with the firm. However, modern theory has moved on from this uni-dimensional understanding of commitment to a multi-dimensional view and this is the view that is now widely embraced by organizational commitment research.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986 cited in Balfour & Wechsler, 1991) suggested three bases of commitment, which are: internalization, identification and compliance. Compliance refers to involvement based on instrumental reasons with the intention of gaining material or extrinsic rewards; whereas, identification relates to attachment elicited by the need for affiliation; and internalization describes involvement derived from an alignment or agreement between personal and corporate values (Balfour and Wechsler, 1991).

Angle and Perry (1981) identified two forms of organizational commitment, namely: ***Value commitment*** and ***Commitment to stay***. The second form – commitment to stay was later termed ***continuance commitment*** by Mayer and Schoorman (1992). Value commitment according to these authors relates to how organizational goals/values are embraced by individual workers and to what extent the individuals will expend energy for the organization (Mayer & Schoorman, 1992, p.673). The authors suggest that an employee that possesses strong value commitment is driven to perform because of his or her identification with the firm's values and targets (Mayer and Schoorman, 1992; Angle and Perry, 1981). Continuance commitment is described by Angle and Perry (1981) and Mayer and Schoorman (1992) as the desire to stay in the organization; they argue that individuals with high continuance commitment are motivated to merely participate because of instrumental considerations. It appears that the modern literature on organizational commitment agrees that the concept is a multi-dimensional one, as the discussion above demonstrates. However, the three-component model of organizational commitment proposed by John Meyer and Natalie Allen (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Top et al., 2013) appears to be the most widely accepted in contemporary circles. The table below summarizes the various categorizations of organizational commitment in the existing research.

S/N	AUTHORS	NUMBER OF DIMENSIONS	CLASSIFICATIONS OF COMMITMENT
1	Mowday, Steers & Porter (1979 cited in Mowday, 1998)	1	Organizational Commitment
2	O'Reilly and Chatman (1986 cited in Balfour & Wechsler, 1993)	3	Compliance, Identification and Internalization forms of commitment
3	Angle and Perry (1981)	2	Value Commitment and Commitment to Stay
4	Mayer and Schoorman (1992)	2	Value and Continuance forms of commitment
5	Katz and Khan (1977 cited in Nayir, 2012)	2	Instrumental and Expressive Commitment
6	Allen and Meyer (1990)	3	Affective, Continuance and Normative forms of commitment

Table 2.1: Various Categorizations of Organizational Commitment.

Viewing organizational commitment as a multi-dimensional concept allows us to discuss its implications from several perspectives and it forces us to take cognizance of how one dimension could influence the other. For instance, we could expect that having affection for the job tasks, in this case providing service to customers, would result in higher individual performance but this could be tampered by dissatisfaction with the financial incentives that the job offers. Allen and Meyer (1990) classified commitment in terms of:

(a) Emotional attachment by an individual to his or her organization. This is referred to as Affective commitment by Allen and Meyer (1990).

(b) Instrumental and calculative component, also called Continuance Commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990), which considers the potential costs of leaving one's organization and the side bets made in the course of one's employment in the current firm as well as the availability of similar opportunities outside one's employment.

(c) And obligatory considerations or expectations that forces an individual to stay in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Balfour & Wechsler, 1991; Cohen, 2007; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001 and Mowday, 1998). This dimension is designated as normative commitment.

The three dimensions are further discussed in the sections below.

2.1.6 Affective Commitment

The emotional component often emanates from alignment between personal goals/values and organizational goals/corporate values. Furthermore, when an employee enjoys a cordial working bond with colleagues and supervisors, this plays a crucial part in boosting the commitment he or she has for the workplace in an emotive sense. O'Reilly III and Chapman (1986) tagged this as identification and internalization, while Allen and Meyer called this Affective commitment (1990). Penley & Gould (1988) referred to this kind of commitment as 'Moral', which they described as an acceptance and association with organizational goals (cited in Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Mayer & Schrooman (1992) extends this description by arguing that this kind of emotional commitment (value commitment) drives an individual to exert effort, implying this type of commitment results in desirable behaviour. Culpepper (2011) posits that individuals demonstrate high affective commitment when they identify and are involved in their organization and enjoy membership of the organization. Powell and Meyer (2004) reckon that affective commitment is stimulated more by work experiences and is likely to result in positive outcomes in terms of work behaviours such as attendance, task completion and positive organizational behaviours.

This emotional aspect of commitment has been the most widely relied upon, as a lot of research work has focused solely on this component of commitment. This is probably because the emotional or affective component has been linked with alignment of organization

values and the resultant willingness to exert effort (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001; Cohen, 2007). However, we must note that the will to perform is not only driven by an alignment with organization values but can also have instrumental motivation, as argued by Fischer & Mansell (2007) when they posited that expectancy and exchange principles also have roles to play in inspiring commitment. This leads us to the discussion of the instrumental component of organizational commitment referred to as continuance commitment.

2.1.7 Continuance Commitment

This component relates to the instrumental aspects of the employment, which include the side bets hedged on one's present employment i.e. including specialized skills that could be difficult to transfer to another place of work and bonds formed with one's present social environment (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Another aspect of this form of commitment deals with the accessibility of comparable opportunities and the benefits linked with the specific employment (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). O'Reilly III & Chatman (1986) tagged this as compliance; whereas Penley & Gould (1988) called it 'Calculative', and they asserted that this commitment is motivated by pecuniary rewards (Cohen, 2007; Mowday, 1998 and Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). While Allen and Meyer called this Continuance commitment and is characterized by material losses incurred from one's current employment place (Allen & Meyer, 1990 and Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Continuance commitment is composed of two factors: firstly, perceived sacrifices associated with leaving i.e. social and economic costs; and secondly, employee perception of lack of alternatives (Culpepper, 2011; Powell and Meyer, 2004).

Meyer et al, (1993) posit that the three dimensions of commitment are all likely to be positively correlated with an employee's willingness to maintain membership of the organization, however, they argue that when it comes to on-the-job behaviours such as organizational citizenship behaviour and on-the-job performance, continuance commitment is most likely to have a different relationship compared to affective and normative forms of commitment. Meyer et al, (1993) expect that affective and normative commitment will be positively related to job performance and organizational citizenship behaviour, while continuance commitment is expected to display a negative or no relationship to these on-the-job behaviours.

The side bet theory, which is one of the cornerstones of continuance commitment was first put forward by Becker in 1960 and according to this theory, side bets have the effect of increasing the cost of failing to persist in a course of action (Powell and Meyer, 2004). Side bets can be of various forms include: administrative arrangements; desires for self-presentation; satisfaction with social position; and other concerns (Powell & Meyer, 2004). We also must be aware that the macro-economic situation of the environment as a whole affects the importance individuals attach to extrinsic factors such as pay level and other fringe benefits (Fischer and Mansell, 2009). This implies a mutual relationship between affective and continuance commitment (as well as normative commitment) depending on the value

placed on extrinsic rewards in the society as a whole. These two forms of commitment seem to be the most important because the third form, which is normative commitment (discussed below) correlates strongly with affective commitment (Cohen, 2007). Whereas, affective commitment is seen as the driver to perform, continuance commitment is viewed as the driver to remain as a member of the organization. These are both important, in my view, because a high level of turnover is costly both financially and morale wise, while performance also boosts revenues and creates psychological wins for the members of the organization.

2.1.8 Normative Commitment

A third component of commitment put forward by various authors refer to commitment felt by individuals when they feel obliged to remain in their organization (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). Meyer and Allen termed this normative commitment, which they contend are inspired by family and social fostering. This component views commitment from the approach of internalized normative pressures felt by the individual to contribute to the organization's goals and needs (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This component is influenced by experiences before and after entering the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990); for example, from one's family beliefs and expectations as well as the individual's moral codes and justifications. It is expected that normative commitment will be significant in workers from humble backgrounds and collective societies due to expectations and pressures from family members and the wider society (Fischer and Mansell, 2009; Clugston et al., 2000). This is also the case in high power distance societies, where individuals are expected to accept and be loyal to authorities, and these are part of the norms in such hierarchical societies (Fischer and Mansell, 2009).

The notion of normative commitment predates the works of Allen and Meyer to the 1960s and 1970s. Kanter (1968 cited in Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.284) used the term – Evaluative-Control Commitment which was described as "commitment to norms, the values and inner convictions which morally obligate the individual". Seemingly working along the same lines, Etzioni (1975 cited in Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.284) talked about an individual's moral involvement with the organization which was described as positive alignment to a high degree with the goals and values of the organization. Furthermore, Marsh and Mannari (1977 cited in Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, p.284) proposed the term 'the norm of lifetime commitment' which they posited as a feeling of moral justification by some employees to remain in their organization notwithstanding status or comfort with the working environment. From the extant literature, it can be surmised that normative commitment takes an opposite stance from continuance commitment. Rather than remain in the organization because of instrumental or economic reasons as is the case in continuance commitment, normative commitment motivates the employee to stay in the organization because it feels like the morally right course of action (Meyer and Parfyonova, 2010).

However, several works of research have found that this form of commitment displays a strong relationship with affective commitment and is often dropped during investigation

(Cohen, 2007, Meyer & Parfyonova, 2010, and Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Due to this reason, I believe focus on both affective and normative commitment is sufficient to investigate the organizational commitment because of the strong linkages between affective and normative forms of commitment. In summary, there is the need to view commitment both from the emotional and instrumental perspectives. The employers in the Nigerian service sector, according to the existing theory, should strive to create a working environment where individuals will enjoy the work they do and the team spirit is encouraged. In addition, we cannot ignore the importance of adequate compensation and the pull of fringe benefits, which often send the signal that the employee is valued. How can service sector employers provide the right balance to stir up these multiple components of commitment? Especially when you consider that the pay in the Nigerian service sector is generally poor. I believe through tools such as rewards and career management, hence the need to research these concepts in relation to commitment.

2.1.9 Importance of Organizational Commitment

The understanding of organizational commitment is important because organizations consist of people who drive the systems and processes. The alignment of these individuals to the organizational values and their intention to remain and apply oneself on behalf of the organization goes a long way to ensuring the survival of that organization. This is even more critical in the service industry, where the employees are the face of the product that is offered to the customers. Moreover, several researchers have put forward links between organizational commitment and other important organizational attitudes and outcomes such as: absenteeism, turnover, participation, job satisfaction, performance and effectiveness (Angle & Perry, 1981; Balfour & Wechsler, 1991; Cohen, 1993; Culpepper, 2011; Mayer & Schoorman, 1992; Somers, 1995; Guay, et al., 2015; Thye & Yoon, 2015; Leite, et at., 2014). Such negative attitudes might not reflect in the final product from a manufacturing firm but even the act of one employee might make a lasting impression and create serious repercussions for a service oriented company. Especially, in the modern world of customer reviews and video posts on social media.

One of the critical aspects that should concern management with the concept of organizational commitment is its supposed relationship with negative attitudes in the workplace such as absenteeism, deviancy and intention to leave the organization (Brien et al., 2015; Somers, 1995, Guay et al., 2016). Somers' (1995) research insists that organizational commitment levels can be readily used to predict absenteeism in the workplace. Guay et al (2015) assert that a negative but significant relationship exists between organizational commitment and deviancy in the workplace, they further argue that organizational commitment mediates the relationships between conscientiousness and organizational deviancy; and agreeableness and interpersonal deviancy. These positions indicate that commited individuals will not only display positive attitudes in the work environment but that commitment plays a role in tempering or rehabilitating negative personality traits such disagreeableness. Moreover, positive relationships have been found to exist between affective

and normative commitment and an employee's intent to remain on the job (Somers, 1995; Joung et al., 2015; Jehanzeb et al., 2013). The reason why we should make a fuss about negative behaviors/attitudes such as absenteeism, tardiness and deviancy as well as employee turnover is because these represent a huge expense on any organization through loss of manhours and cost of frequent recruitment exercises. Apart from the financial costs these present to the management, such negative attitudes create a damaging working environment characterized by conflicts and discontentment from other workers. However, it must be said that the extant literature does not present a consensus view on this issue. Joung et al (2015) could only find a significant relationship between affective commitment and employee intention to leave but no significant links between continuance commitment nor normative commitment and turnover intention. In the same vein, Angle & Perry (1991) asserted that value commitment (affective commitment) has negative relationships with intent to quit, seperation rate and tardiness but no significant links were found between organizational commitment and absenteeism.

A second critical aspect that demands study in the workplace is the perceived link between organizational commitment and output in the form of performance, productivity and service delivery. This is important as the level and quality of an organization's output determines its success as a going concern. Mayer and Schoorman (1992) established linkages between commitment, performance, satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors. However, Balfour and Wechsler's (1991) work takes a contrary view by insisting that no significant links exist between commitment and performance/productivity. Guay et al. posit (2015) that an individual's customer service orientation and integrity traits are positively linked with her level of commitment to the organization. This is an important argument because it asserts that an individual would be committed to his or her organization partly because his or her personality trait predisposes him or her to pay attention to customers and to have integrity.

The extant literature provides important views that this research can hinge its main focus on, which is trying to answer the two major questions. Firstly, what role does the organization and job characteristics play on an individual's level of commitment to the organization? In the areas of organizational rewards and career growth, the organization has critical roles to perform to ensure workers' satisfaction, although, the individual also has his or her part to play in these areas by putting in required effort and displaying the right attitude in the work environment. The second question, this research work attempts to discover is in what manner is performance affected by the relationships between rewards, career growth and organizational commitment? It should be noted that performance in this instance takes the guise of service to the customers. The ultimate goal of any organization should be to please its customers, hence, I would argue that performance should be judged by customer service especially in service-oriented organizations. From the earlier discussion, it can be seen that the literature disagrees on the nature of the relationship between organizational commitment and performance (Balfour and Wechsler, 1991; Mayer and Schoorman, 1992). I believe that this research should be able to throw more light on this discussion with respect to organizational commitment and customer service.

2.2 Organizational Rewards

Organizations use rewards as tools to encourage and acknowledge efforts that are put in by employees, as well as to maintain workplace stability (Malhotra et al., 2007). It is expected that when workers are adequately rewarded both intrinsically and extrinsically, they would be more committed to their organizations. Rewards refer to all tangible and intangible benefits an employee derives by being a member of an organization (Malhotra, et al., 2007, Newman & Sheikh, 2012). Gold (cited in Miao, et al., 2013, p3263) described organizational rewards as both financial and non-financial benefits; employees obtain from their employment relationship. The provision of rewards by the organization is viewed by its employees as an intention to enter into a social exchange relationship (Newman and Sheikh, 2012), which alongside reciprocity are the major theoretical principles underpinning the concept of rewards (Malhotra et al., 2007; Gould-Williams, 2007).

2.2.1 Social Exchange Theory

Gould-Williams (2007) describe social exchanges as actions usually initiated by an organization, which are un-coerced or voluntary and normally takes the form of treatment of their employees. This is done with the intention to elicit reciprocation from these employees such as through increased commitment and higher performance (Gould-Williams, 2007, Newman & Sheikh, 2012; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Social exchange has been distinguished from economic exchange, which is most often legally binding on both parties, whereas this is not the case in social exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, Gould-Williams, 2007). Social exchange is reciprocal and implicit in nature although it can be negotiated, however, such exchanges are often not bargained (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, Dulac, et al., 2008, Gould-Williams, 2007). Social exchanges create psychological bonds between employees and the organization, which stimulates positive exchanges when expectations are met (Gould-Williams, 2007). When employees put in extra efforts above what is expected of their roles like going out of their way to resolve customer problems or when they take the time to develop skills to enhance their performance or add value to the organization, they expect the management to take notice and appreciate their efforts through acknowledgements, promotions or pay increases. Social exchange theory refers to a sequence or chain of interactions that engender feelings of indebtedness or onuses and exchanges are mutually dependent and influenced by the actions of the parties involved (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p874). The employment relationship has been categorized as a social exchange relationship because it involves the interchange of benefits in a mutual fashion (Miao et al., 2013). It is true that some individuals are possessed with the natural zeal and exuberance to work tirelessly compared to their colleagues, while others derive joy from pleasing customers or might be social and outgoing in their nature, which suits the service profession. But even such employees like to feel valued by their management and could easily be lured away by other organizations that express or demonstrate that they understand their worth and are ready to treat them accordingly. The Nigerian service sector is not known for showing appreciation to employees in general, probably due to the macho culture

prevalent in the workplace but I have often observed the power in something as simple as telling a worker "well done" when they have done a good job or publicly toasting a team that successfully completed a difficult assignment. This boosts morale and encourages the team or worker to put in similar or greater effort in succeeding assignments.

The literature agrees with this point that is high quality exchanges results in greater discretionary effort, increases positive work attitudes and lowers turn-over intention (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, Gould-Williams, 2007). Negative exchanges are also possible, in reaction to workers' perception that expectations are not being met, or as a response to adverse managerial actions and these negative exchanges are manifested without the risk of losing one's employability but are less selfless and more dysfunctional to work goals (Gould-Williams, 2007). Aryee et al. (2002) furthered this argument by insisting that trust that is sought in a social exchange relationship depends on the perceived level of trustworthiness and this is built over time through actions designed to engender such trust.

2.2.2 Reciprocity

Reciprocity is viewed as one of the rules of exchange and can be described as repayment in kind (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Reciprocity in theory assumes three basic forms (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005).

Reciprocity as an interdependent exchange – i.e. exchange that is hinged on mutual and complementary understanding. This does not necessarily require bargaining, rather one's action is consequent on the other party's action and in turn influences the response of the other party (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005).

Reciprocity as a folk belief – This has its basis in cultural beliefs that kindness or ill-treatment will be repaid in like fashion over time (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Lerner (cited in Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p877) termed this as the 'just world perception', which is the belief in universal justice and this drives exchange behavior.

Reciprocity as a norm or individual orientation – This is when reciprocity is placed as a standard of behavior. This notion argues that individuals differ in their levels of endorsement of reciprocity also called exchange orientation i.e. some individuals are high on exchange orientation whereas some are not (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005).

The theories of social exchange and reciprocity present us with a link between rewards and organizational commitment. From the description of social exchange and reciprocity, it can be argued that rewards are offered by the organization in expectation of returns from employees. These expectations should include: retaining the best employees (continuance commitment); loyalty to the organization, which is often reflected in extra role efforts (affective and normative commitment); and increase in performance of employees rewarded as well as those who seek to be rewarded. The management of organizations should also note of the reverse case, as Gould-Williams (2007) argues that when employees perceive that rewards are not commensurate to efforts expended, they are likely to react in negative ways

and this will affect their commitment levels. Hence, a lot of thought, as well as monitoring should be put into the process of designing and distributing rewards.

2.2.3 Rewards in the Organization

Several authors have argued that satisfaction with rewards influence job attitudes including organizational commitment, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors or extra-role efforts (Mottaz, 1988, Malhotra, et al., 2007). Malik et al. (2015) opine that when rewards are effective, performance is positively affected and employees feel motivated to utilize initiative and to innovate. The authors further argue that the reverse effects are also possible i.e. inhibiting performance and creativity when rewards do not meet expectations and possess low valence (Malik et al., 2015). Rewards have generally been classified into three categories: Extrinsic organizational rewards; Social rewards; and intrinsic rewards (Malhotra, et al., 2007, Miao, et al., 2013, Newman & Sheikh, 2012).

2.2.4 Extrinsic Organizational Rewards

Extrinsic organizational rewards refer to those tangible benefits provided by the employer, which have innate monetary value (Newman and Sheikh, 2012). They include: working conditions, pay satisfaction, promotional opportunities, fringe benefits etc. (Malhotra et al., 2007). Pay satisfaction refers to the comparisons individuals make using the work they carry out and the pay received in comparison with other workers doing similar work (Malhotra et al., 2007; Faisal and Al-Esmael, 2014). Satisfaction with fringe benefits is viewed in terms of what is offered and comparing with what other organizations offer their own employees (Malhotra et al., 2007). Promotional opportunities refer to the satisfaction with one's organization's promotion policy and opportunities for advancement in an individual's career (Malhotra et al., 2007).

Extrinsic rewards not only offer material benefits to the worker but also convey a sense of worth to the employee from the management. However, in a difficult economy like Nigeria, extrinsic rewards are even more valuable to the service worker because of the general scarcity of funds and availability of such pecuniary benefits in other firms.

2.2.5 Social Rewards

Social rewards emanate from one's interactions with others (colleagues and supervisors) on the job with respect to the level of friendliness, consideration, helpful nature and supportiveness that one enjoys in the work environment (Malhotra et al., 2007; Newman and Sheikh, 2012). Supervision in social rewards, according to Malhotra et al (2007), refers to the perception of one's supervisor's consideration, socio-emotional concerns and satisfaction with the supervisors. This also relates to the supervisor's leadership behavior concerning

fostering confidence and well-being of subordinates (Malhotra et al., 2007). Team support refers to the perception of helpfulness and supportive nature of colleagues in the work environment. Positive team support engenders peer-based learning and provides additional source of work-related knowledge, while negative team support could cause burn-out from difficult interaction and create a tense working environment (Malhotra et al., 2007).

The relationship employees develop at the workplace, also this is true in the Nigerian service industry, sometimes feels like a second family, at least that is how it feels to me and when that relationship is not a good one, there is likely to be dissatisfaction with the job. Therefore, I think it is very helpful when managers organize out-of-work gatherings or activities, as this builds closer relationships amongst colleagues and workers. It is an open secret that bosses can hardly promote or recommend people that they do not like and when an employee likes his or her boss, he or she is more likely to go out of their way for the job assignments given to them by that boss.

2.2.6 Intrinsic Rewards

Intrinsic rewards, according to Newman and Sheikh (2012), are derived from the content of one's job in itself and comprise of motivational characteristics such as: autonomy, role clarity, training, skill variety and feedback. Teas et al (cited in Malhotra, et al., 2007) described role clarity as the level which employees feel they receive adequate information needed to perform one's job properly. Participation in decision making relates to the degree to which one is allowed to influence decisions pertaining to the job activities (Malhotra et al., 2007). Skill or task variety refers to the number of skills required to carry out one's job; this denotes the level of monotony or challenge the job role offers (Faisal and Al-Esmael, 2014; Malhotra et al., 2007). Autonomy refers to the degree of freedom, discretion and independence that are accorded to an employee in the process of conducting the job tasks. Feedback, which normally comes from supervisors, pertains to the extent to which employees receive information with respect to their performances on the job (Faisal and Al-Esmael, 2014; Malhotra et al., 2007). Training is normally viewed as a reward by employees and an investment by employers and management; and is important because it fosters confidence of the employee by enhancing his or her knowledge of the job processes (Malhotra et al., 2007).

Extrinsic rewards play a major role in determining whether employees remain willing to stay in their jobs since it might be difficult to get comparable financial benefits, job position and other fringe benefits outside their current organizations. By comparing one's extrinsic rewards received from a current employer, an individual makes judgments on whether to leave to another organization, depending on the value of the financial compensation on the other side.

Social and intrinsic rewards also determine satisfaction with the job and intention to leave one's employment. The relationship an individual has with his or her work colleagues affect the individual's emotional attachment for the job. In addition to the work relationships, the job characteristics such as training and participation in decision-making are very valuable to

the worker. This is because employees tend to perceive the provision of training and participative decision-making as signs that their employer has concern about their personal development and value their skill and expertise. Increased participation in decision-making and autonomy has also been linked with improved motivation and job satisfaction (Ford and Fottler, 1995).

2.2.7 Detrimental Effects of Rewards

It is however important to note that several researchers have argued that rewards can also have negative effects, especially on intrinsic motivation and the perceptions of self-competence or skill (Cameron and Pierce, 1994). Schwartz (1990 cited in Cameron & Pierce, 1994, p. 364) asserted that when reinforcement is withdrawn, employees reduce their engagement in the activity that reinforcement was contingent on. Cameron and Pierce (1994) described a reinforcer as an event that increases the frequency of the behaviour it follows, hence, it controls that behaviour.

Several theories have been put forward to explain the detrimental effects of rewards and they include: overjustification hypothesis, cognitive evaluation theory and behaviour accounts (Cameron and Pierce, 1994).

2.2.8 Rewards and Organizational Commitment

Previous research has posited that extrinsic organizational rewards influence normative, affective and continuance commitment i.e. satisfaction derived from these tangible benefits offered by the organization strengthen the emotional and normative bonds between the employee and the organization, as well provide additional reasons why one should remain in one's current employment (Newman and Sheikh, 2012; Miao et al., 2013; Malhotra et al., 2007). Although, Miao et al. (2013) provide a contrary view to the popular argument that extrinsic rewards significantly influence continuance commitment i.e. their research findings argue against any tangible link between the two.

Social rewards have also been found as an influencing factor with regards to affective commitment; according to Newman and Sheikh (2012), satisfaction with supervisor positively relates to the level of affective commitment. Miao et al (2013) also asserts that social rewards (supervisor and team support) significantly influence both normative and affective commitment.

There is apparent disagreement on the role of intrinsic rewards in continuance commitment; although there seems to be a lot of agreement on its positive association with the other components of organizational commitment (Newman and Sheikh, 2012; Miao et al., 2013; Malhotra et al., 2007). Intrinsic rewards play a strong role in determining affective and normative commitment, whilst playing hardly any role in the level of continuance commitment of an employee according to Malhotra et al (2007). However, Newman &

Sheikh (2012) argued that a strong relationship exists between both autonomy and training and continuance commitment.

In summary, the discussion above demonstrates that both tangible and intangible rewards influence both continuance and affective commitment. The current research will aim to provide some clarity to the dissenting and diverse views. This research intends to investigate how rewards provide positive outcomes in the Nigerian service sector and how such a system should be organized bearing in mind the unavailability of resources and the dwindling fortunes of the Nigerian economy in general and the service industry particularly. It should also be noted as mentioned previously, the culture of the environment could determine how much influence tangible or financial rewards play on the emotional aspects of commitment. Fischer & Mansell (2007) have opined that in environments that have lower macro-economic indices, instrumental (or tangible) factors or rewards assume a larger meaning to workers. This is because there is greater interdependency amongst family and community members. It should be interesting to discover if this will be the case in the Nigerian environment, where there are several different cultures intermingling and coexisting with one another.

2.3 Career Growth

Career development is very important for employee motivation and satisfaction and researchers have argued that career development is linked to organizational commitment (Jans, 1989; Weng et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2014; Sturges et al., 2002). Weng et al. (2010), Li et al. (2017), Spagnoli and Weng (2017) assert that individuals within an organization expect their employers to provide aid in the development of their careers (in the sense of a psychological contract) and when this is fulfilled, their commitment to the organization is increased. Jans (1989) also argues that career prospects within the organization play a vital role in shaping commitment, he posits that workers are often willing to tolerate short term dissatisfaction if the longer-term prospects seem promising. Sturges, et al. (2002) posit that formal career management activities driven by the organization such as training and assessment centres, significantly influences organizational commitment in the positive direction. In addition, informal career management activities such as mentoring and career advice leads to increase in career self-management activities carried out by the concerned individuals in the form of networking, which in turns yields more formal organizational career help (Sturges et al., 2002). Hence from the position taken by Jans (1989), Sturges et al. (2002) and Weng et al. (2010), it seems that the concept of social rewards and reciprocity also play roles in how employees respond to growth or lack of growth in their careers. It is expected that employees would respond positively to the organization, by being more committed, when the organization aids in the development of their careers.

Managers must also consider the negative effects when there is lack of career growth and development incentives. The best employees are likely to seek better offers elsewhere and other service organizations are always willing to poach the best talents as this will grow their customer base and this is the case in the Nigerian service sector. Those that stay in the

organization, in my experience exhibit poor organizational citizenship behaviors like neglecting company property and treating customers badly especially when their supervisors are not watching.

2.3.1 Theoretical Foundations for Career Growth and Organizational Commitment

The relationship between career growth and organizational commitment and consequently, performance in the form of customer service can be explained using several existing theories. These include social exchange theory and reciprocity, which have been discussed earlier in the ***Rewards section*** but a word or two can be said about their impact on career growth by reviewing previous literature on the topics.

When employees perceive the presence of career assistance from their management, the employees are more likely to display desirable behaviours including improved performance (Sturges et al., 2005). This form of reciprocity can also be expected on the inverse side i.e. when there is an absence of career development help from the employer, the organizational members display more of negative behaviours such as absenteeism and voluntary turnover (Sturges et al., 2005). This can be further expatiated using the notion of psychological contract.

2.3.2 Psychological Contract

Psychological contract was defined by Sturges et al (2005) as an implied agreement perceived by an individual between him or her and the management of their organization, and this includes several expectations by the employee as due from the organization. Robinson (1996 cited in Chang, 1999, p.1258) described psychological contract as employees' beliefs about the entitlements that are due them from their employers based on unspoken or perceived agreements or mutual understanding. From these definitions, we can adduce that a form of a deal is believed to exist from the point of view of the employee, between the employee and his or her employer, although this deal or contract might not have been explicitly expressed or formally documented but it seems just as real in the mind of the employee. The tacit expectation that the organizational management or employer will provide career developmnet help is part of the psychological contract in the minds of the employees and on their part, the employees engage in activities to attract career assistance such as setting targets or striving to meet organizational targets, touting their achievements, seeking career advice and forming relationships with influential people within the organization (Sturges et al., 2005).

Psychological contract has been found to have a relationship with organizational commitment (Chang, 1999; Sturges et al., 2005). Even in today's world that is characterized by what has been termed as a 'new-career' environment, where organizations no longer guarantee 'life-time' employment and individuals are expected to manage their own careers, research has found that employees till retain a psychological contract in which career assistance is linked

with performance, commitment and work behaviors (Sturges et al., 2005). When employees perceive that the psychological contract between their employers and them has been fulfilled, they reciprocate by working harder and displaying positive organizational citizenship behaviours and when the psychological contract has been perceived to be breached by the employer, the workers tend to increase negative behaviours such as absenteeism and intention to leave the organization (Sturges et al., 2005). The extant research also indicates that organization commitment plays a mediating role between the fulfillment of psychological contract and work behaviour outcomes i.e. when organization commitment levels are high, this tones down negative work behaviours even when employees perceive that the psychological contract has been breached (Turnley and Fieldman, 2000 cited in Sturges, et al., 2005).

2.3.3 Additional Support for Career Growth and Organizational Commitment

Other theories that can be utilized to explain career growth and organizational commitment include: Organization-Based Self Esteem theory and Psychological Attachment theory. Organization-Based Self Esteem theory is described as an individual's definition of his or her organizational membership in terms of his or her capabilities and the value placed on him or her by the organization (Pierce & Gardner, 2004 cited in Wang et al., 2014). It can be argued that individuals that experience more success in terms of career growth within the organization feel more valued and hence are commited and put in greater efforts for the interest of the organization.

Psychological Attachment according to Weng et al. (2010) is greater in employees that experience higher career growth compared to their colleagues. This implies that individuals feel they are part of the organization and identify with the ethos of that organization and consequently are more committed, when the organization shows an interest in their career development and growth. Formal management support for career development will possibly have a direct influence on the affective commitment levels of the employee and this is supported by Jones' research (cited in Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 72) that found that employees feel greater self-worth when the organization intentionally provides support for new employees provided by more experienced members of staff. Paying attention to employee career development and progress by management might sound like a no-brainer but managers saddled with responsibilities and pressures to deliver high performance can easily lose sight of this. In order to satisfy workers, policies are often set up that only lip service paid, whilst focusing strictly on output. From the theories above, it can be said that career growth and development comes as a combination of both the efforts of the employee and organization. The organization has to put in place policies and systems that encourage, develop and monitor the progress of the career paths of its employees. While the employees must have the right attitude and put in effort to ensure development of their careers. We must also remember that career progress is often accompanied with increases in tangible benefits such as pay and other status symbols that are likely to influence the continuance commitment levels.

2.3.4 Career Development Activities

As stated in the earlier section, career development help can come from the organization or can be managed by the individual and these actions can either be formal or informal. These career building steps include training, on-the-job development and other types of organizational socialization activities.

Past research have argued that providing employees opportunity to learn through training has an even more significant impact on organizational commitment than job security, financial benefits and job satisfaction (McNeese-Smith, 2001 cited in Dhar, 2015, p.42). This school of thought holds the opinion that when employers provide access to training for their workers, these workers interpret this as a demonstration of concern and a willingness to invest in the development of the employees by their management (Dhar, 2015). Therefore, this could help to align employees to the values and goals of the organization as well as making employees unwilling to leave the organization because of a perception of lack of such training opportunities outside their current job.

Organizational socialization on the other hand, has been defined as the steps or sequences through which the acquisition of social tools (attitudes, behaviours, knowledge) is achieved by organizational members and these tools are necessary to bed-in to the organizational environment (VanMaanen and Schein, 1999 cited in Payne and Huffman, 2005, p.158). An important consequence of organizational socialization is that through the socialization process, individuals are able to comprehend and align with the values and goals of the organization. When individuals align with the organization's goals and values, their affective commitment levels are increased and the continuance commitment levels increased by diminishing their intention to leave (Payne and Huffman, 2005). Forms of organizational socialization include mentoring and peer relationships.

Mentorship has been described as a close and often profound relationship formed between two colleagues, one being senior and more experienced called the mentor, while the other termed the protégé or mentee is junior and less experienced in the organization and this alliance is formed with the purpose of providing guidance, protection and feedback from the mentor to the protégé concerning career and personal developmental issues (Russel and Adams, 1997 cited in Payne & Huffman, 2005, p.158). The mentoring relationship usually has a temporary duration and will likely come to an end after a few years as organizational changes occur such as promotion, transfers and personal career decisions and these changes could result in feelings of loss, anxiety or anger, thereby, yielding negative consequences (Kram and Isabella, 1985). Peer relationships could likely provide most of the benefits of the mentoring relationship and has the potential to last much longer than its mentorship alternative and individuals would normally have more peers than they would mentors. Kram and Isabella (1985) assert that the lateral nature of peer relationships has the potential to facilitate easier communication, reciprocal support and cooperation. Peer relationships can also provide both career enhancing and psycholsocial functions.

2.3.5 Career Growth Dimensions

According to Weng et al. (2010), the way employees perceive their career growth can be characterized in a multi-dimensional manner, with contributions from the employee's effort and the employer's input. The dimensions of career growth include (Zhu and Li, 2018; Weng et al 2010), Career goal progress, Promotion speed, Professional ability development and Remuneration growth.

Career goal progress and Professional ability development are generally products of the employee's perception and efforts. Career goals are usually set by the individual employee and he or she is responsible for putting in the necessary efforts to achieving set goals, although, the organization can help the employee to identify career goals when they are unclear. The same can be said about developing one's professional ability, where one's employer can aid in this regard by providing training and opportunities to develop oneself but the ultimate responsibility lies with the individual to improve his or her skills and abilities. Sturges et al. (2002) refers to this individual input as career self-management, where individual employees gather information and make plans to improve decision-making abilities and career problem-solving. Sturges et al. (2002) assert that this behavior could be carried out with two different intentions in mind: the first is to improve in the individual's current job; and the second is to prepare for job mobility.

The organization also has a crucial part to play in the employee's career growth as argued above. In addition to providing training/development opportunities and aiding employees meet set-goals, the employer can provide rewards in the form of promotions and compensation that are commensurate to the employee's efforts (Weng et al., 2010). Sturges+ et al. (2002) attempt to differentiate the role of the organization in the career growth of an individual employee by referring to the employer's role in career development as career management, as opposed to career self-management carried out by the individual. According to the authors, career management can be defined as actions taken to direct or shape the careers of one or more individuals through different developmental initiatives (Arnold cited in Sturges, et al., 2002, p.732). These attempts usually take both formal forms (training, assessment centres etc.) and informal forms (mentoring and career advice) (Sturges et al., 2002). It is important to treat career growth from the different dimensions as proferred by Weng et al. (2010), as this allows us to study the effect each area has on commitment as a whole and on the various components of commitment. This implies that areas that the management needs to improve on can be identified easily, as oppossed to when career growth is treated as a singular concept.

2.3.6 Career Growth and Organizational Commitment

Sturges et al. (2002) posit that organizational commitment is increased in the presence of formal career management help from the organization, which leads to an increase in the

employee's attempts to be more visible in the organization (2002). While, informal career management help such as mentoring and making contacts lead to increase in career self-management activities like networking and this in turn, catches the attention of the management and consequently, attracts formal career management to such individuals (Sturges et al., 2002). Weng et al.'s (2010) research found that the four dimensions of career growth all positively influence affective commitment. The authors reckon that because affective commitment relates to the perception of the value for one's work and his or her task identity, the employees see their level of pay, promotional opportunities, provision of training and development as indicators of how their employers hold them in regard (Weng et al., 2010).

Career growth dimensions significantly influence continuance and normative commitment according to Weng et al (2010), and this implies that these factors of career growth are ready tools for managers to build up side bets and norms of reciprocity. Hence, increasing the difficulty of leaving the organization, when considering the costs and perceived moral obligation (Weng et al., 2010). The position that comes with career growth attracts respect for the individuals even outside the organization and recognition is accorded by the wider society, thus this is likely to positively influence the level of normative commitment.

The relationship between career growth and commitment can also be viewed from the perspective of age or tenure in the organization. Allen and Meyer (1993) assert that one's career stage in terms of age, positional tenure and organizational tenure affects commitment to the organization; their findings imply that the age of an employee positively influences his level of affective and normative commitment; while, the organizational tenure of an employee is positively related to the employee's normative commitment level. The authors argue that this could be because older employees feel they have had more positive experiences in the organization or due to generational differences in how people/cohorts of a certain generation view commitment to the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1993). According to this school of thought, continuance commitment is partially influenced by positional and organizational tenure, probably because the leaving might be present a high cost (Allen and Meyer, 1993). Jans (1989) uses the 'golden handcuffs' reasoning to explain why employees might choose to remain in unrewarding positions; this is a situation where employees close to pensionable stages in their career, choose to remain to enjoy their terminal benefits.

What is important to consider in my opinion, when looking at the effects of career growth and development is that individuals who are satisfied with their career growth are not only motivated to remain or maintain membership of the organization (because of instrumental reasons) but are likely to buy into the organization's goals and vision. In addition, some of the existing research infers that different sets of individuals are likely motivated for different reasons and turnover is more likely at certain stages of one's career. Hence, it is vital to investigate the actual impact of career growth with respect to organizational commitment and how this relationship applies to providing service from a performance point of view.

2.4 Customer Service

Customer service can be considered from two perspectives, firstly, it refers to the intangible service provided by employees to the internal and external customers of the organization and secondly, it characterizes the expectations of the customers when entering a service encounter with the organization (Boshoff and Mels, 1995). In the case of service-oriented organizations, performance of individual employees can be measured in terms of customer service because service is the product being sold or offered to their customers rather than physical goods. Hence, all other functions of the organization exist to provide the end-product, which is service to the customers. This implies that the front-line employees play a crucial role as they become the de-facto face and attitude of the organization towards its customers. That said, it is critical to note that in a service-oriented business like the construction industry, every member of the organization should bear in mind that the goal of the organization is to please the customer and even those that do not interface every day with the customers should understand that when they do their job properly, the customer is the ultimate beneficiary. This is why it should be stated that service is not only provided to external customers but also internal customers in the form of other departments and colleagues that depend on service within the organization to carry out their job functions as well as take care of their welfare.

It is expected that committed employees will provide superior service quality because such individuals show more willingness to engage in discretionary behavior beyond the normal assigned tasks (Boshoff and Mels, 1995). Although several researchers have disputed any purported links between commitment and performance, arguing that at best only a poor relationship exists between the two concepts (Steers, 1977, DeCotiis & Summers, 1977, Wiener & Vardi, 1980 cited in Boshoff & Mels, 1995 p. 25). However, it can be argued that committed individuals are always likely to be willing to continuously improve themselves on the job and are willing to exert efforts for the benefit of the customers, to attain organizational goals and targets. This is because committed individuals believe in the organizational values and goals and seek to retain membership of the organization. It cannot be trite to mention that customer service is low in the Nigerian service sector not excluding the construction industry and this affects the bottom-line of a business, like mine because happy customers mean more business and growth.

2.4.1 Customer Service as Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The ability to provide high quality service ensures that customers are satisfied and the organization can retain its customers and potentially increase its customer base (Omotayo and Joachim, 2008). Customer service has been viewed as a form of organizational citizenship behavior (Chou and Lopez-Rodriguez, 2013). Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) relates to voluntary behavior that promotes efficiency and effectiveness in the organization (Chou & Lopez-Rodriguez, 2013; Raub & Robert, 2012). OCB is not explicit by nature and not directly acknowledged by the formal reward system (Alkahtani, 2015). OCB has been suggested to be a consequence of organizational commitment because motivated and

committed individuals are more likely to put in extra performance in their job roles (Malhotra et al., 2007; Dhar, 2015; Tsaur and Lin, 2004).

Chou & Lopez-Rodriguez (2013) present a form of OCB that is more relevant to customer service, which they term: Service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior (SOCB). Service-oriented organizational citizenship behavior comprises of extra-role and discretionary behaviors that are above and beyond what is formally required by employees when dealing with customers (Chou and Lopez-Rodriguez, 2013). This is an important concept because carrying out one's duties is easier to do when things are going on normally but in times of serious issues such as defective products and unexpected events, customers expect the employees to go out of their way to assist in resolving their problems and these efforts are often outside the prescribed job roles i.e. the employee should put in extra time and effort without expecting additional compensation from the employer.

Furthermore, service-oriented employees have face-to-face or direct interaction with the clients and their behaviours can to no small extent improve or damage the image of the organization to the outside world (Daskin et al., 2013). Service oriented organizational citizenship behavior is comprised of three components or categories: loyalty, which refers to how employees promote the organization to outsiders by acting as positive advocates or spokespersons; service delivery, which suggests that employees deliver responsible and consistent service to customers; and participation, which indicates implies that employees take initiative and display innovation in order to meet with the ever changing customer expectations and needs (Daskin et al., 2013).

It is noteworthy that Paulin et al. (2006) differentiated the discretionary aspect of customer service from the in-role expectations. According to the authors, customer-linkage behaviors, which can be viewed as expressions of task performance, consist of actions directed towards serving customers and are primarily role-prescribed (Paulin et al, 2006). Whereas, OCB is discretionary and not usually acknowledged by the formal rewards system and this implies we can separate customer service behavior into two categories: role-prescribed or in-role behaviors and extra-role or discretionary behavior (Tsaur and Lin, 2004; Paulin et al., 2006). The consequence of the understanding of these constructs is that organizations must strive to motivate their employees to put in the expected performance as well as extra-role efforts in the service of their customers.

2.4.2 Predictors of Customer Service

Several factors have been identified in the existing research to be predictors of customer service and these include: organizational commitment; perceptions of equity and support from management, superiors and colleagues; and individual characteristics. These factors are extensively discussed below.

2.4.2.1 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been proffered as an important antecedent to customer service quality from individual employees (Boshoff and Mels, 1995; Paulin et al., 2006; Peccei and Rosenthal, 1997). Paulin et al. (2006) found affective commitment to be an important antecedent to both in-role and extra-role efforts aimed at serving customers. This is similar to findings from the research work carried out by Peccei & Rosenthal (1997), who reported significant links between customer service and individual affective, normative and altruistic orientations. Interestingly, Peccei and Rosenthal's (1997) research found no significant role played by instrumental or calculative orientation with regards to customer service. Boshoff & Mels (1995) also found that affective commitment exerted a strong positive influence on internal service quality i.e. customer service within the organization. We should expect from previous research on perception of organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior (Wu and Liu., 2014; Chou and Lopez-Rodriguez, 2013) that when individuals align with the goals and values of the organization (affective commitment), they are more likely to put in effort to satisfy the organization's customers, to attain the goals of the organization. On the other hand, individuals who merely stay in the organization for instrumental reasons are likely to perform in a manner that is satisficing i.e. meeting the minimum requirements or perform poorly as argued by Malhotra et al. (2012).

2.4.2.2 Perceptions of Fairness or Equity and Reciprocity

In addition to organizational commitment, other important factors that are likely predictors of customer service can be found in the work environment. The perceptions of fairness and supervisory support or consideration were found to have huge impact on employees' customer service quality and behaviors (Paulin et al., 2006; Boshoff and Mels, 1995).

These can be linked to the theories of equity and reciprocation earlier discussed in this chapter. Grönroos (1988, cited in Daskin, et al., 2013, p.211) contends that when employers treat their workers well, the workers reciprocate by treating customers well. Ellinger et al. (2013) support this argument by positing that when organizations put in effort and resources to address the needs of their service personnel, the service workers in turn, strive to deliver above average quality of service to both the customers and fellow colleagues or workers. Considering the notion of equity, Faisal & Al-Esmael (2014) hinging on Adam's equity theory insists that individuals constantly carry out comparisons with their peers within and outside their organization in terms of tangible and intangible benefits that the organization provides and this is often a basis to gauge how much value their organization places on them.

2.4.2.3 Perceived Support from Management and Colleagues

Another important antecedent to customer service that has been identified in the extant research works is the support from the management, which can be considered from different perspectives including: managerial commitment to service quality (Daskin et al., 2013), perceived organizational support (Wu and Liu., 2014), and empowerment (Raub and Robert,

2012). Management Commitment to Service Quality (MCSQ) according to Babakus et al. (2003 cited in Daskin et al., p.211) refers to the assessment carried out by employees with respect to the commitment from management to encourage, develop and recognize its members with the intention of achieving distinction in quality of service. Management commitment to service quality comprises of management empowerment and rewards (Daskin et al., 2013). Empowerment includes practices such as delegating authority, sharing of information and increasing employee autonomy (Raub and Robert, 2012). Psychological empowerment according to Raub & Robert (2012, p. 137) refers to an individual's "active orientation to his or her work role" and this reflects in several personal/job attributes including: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. Prior research has pointed to the existence of positive relationships between rewards and empowerment on one side and job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviours (Daskin et al., 2013).

Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to the employees' perception of their organization's willingness to provide both job-related and socio-emotional support and aid to their employees and POS is used by the employees as a measure of the level of concern and value for their contribution by their organization (Wu and Liu., 2014). Previous research argues that POS is positively linked with job performance, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and OCB, whilst negatively related with withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism, lateness and intention to leave (Wu and Liu., 2014).

Also, the support, consideration and relationship between supervisor and subordinate plays a huge role in motivating the subordinate and consequently, performance in the form of service to customers (Daskin et al., 2013). Although, I have earlier discussed this in earlier sections, it should be reiterated that the work environment is capable of providing a second family and Nigerians have a social culture, which is also true in the workplace from my experience.

Furthermore, to support my position the literature argues that co-worker support has a significant impact on customer service (Paulin et al, 2006). This indicates that an individual's relationship and rapport with his or her team members translates to willingness to improve customer service quality, this is understandable because organizations are hardly places where people work in isolation. Cooperation from colleagues and supervisors is important in terms of ensuring work tasks that affect service performance are carried out timely but also providing emotional support and friendship builds strong bonds that improves motivation to perform to high standards. Other job characteristics such as job routinization, autonomy, job pressures, role conflict, role ambiguity and resource availability have been touted to play critical roles in customer service prediction (Paulin et al, 2006; Peccei & Rosenthal, 1997; Boshoff & Mels, 1995).

2.4.2.4 Individual Characteristics

Individual characteristics also potentially influence customer service in terms of having the requisite knowledge or understanding of what is needed to satisfy customers and competence on the job (Tsaur & Lin, 2004, Peccei & Rosenthal, 1997). The role of keeping customers of

the firm satisfied and happy should fall on the right or suitable employees and this has to be ensured by management's policies on recruitment and on the job training/development. Individuals should possess the capacity to perform and this does not only depend on management providing the right atmosphere but the individuals abilities with respect to the employee being qualified and proficient in performing customer service tasks. In the service industry from my Nigerian experience, it is easy to identify individuals with the talent for dealing with customers but such individuals and others should be trained and properly developed to be more effective and to know their boundaries.

Intrinsic motivation is another individual factor that can influence significantly customer service according to Daskin et al. (2013). Intrinsic motivation has been described as the inherent satisfaction that is derived from achieving a task or overcoming a challenge relating to one's job (Keaveney 1992, cited in Daskin et al., 2013, p.212). Intrinsically motivated behaviour is initiated by the individual and provides self-gratification and feelings of achievement and in addition, intrinsically motivated employees are willing to spend more time on a specific task outside the stipulated work period and willing to volunteer for extra-role tasks (Daskin et al., 2013). Empirical evidence seems to indicate that intrinsic motivation influences job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviour and service performance (Daskin et al., 2013).

2.4.3 Dimensions of Customer Service

Tsaur & Lin (2004) posit that customer service can be viewed through the lens of two dimensions or categories: service quality and service behavior. Service behaviour is defined as the employee's behaviour to the organization's customers and can be categorized into "*role-prescribed*" and "*extra-role*" service behaviours (Tsaur and Lin, 2004). Role-prescribed behaviour can be described as behaviour towards the customer, associated with assigned role and is expected as part of the job, while the extra-role service behaviour refers to those behaviours that are discretionary and surpass the expected employee behaviour (Tsaur and Lin, 2004). Service quality on the other hand has been described as customer expectations with respect to the level of service offered to the customer (Dhar, 2015). Service quality can be measured using multiple variables including: *reliability, responsiveness, empathy, assurance and tangibility* (Tsaur and Lin, 2004).

In this research case, customer service is viewed as the product or output of the organization's efforts and it is expected that the level of an individual's organizational commitment will have a direct and positive relationship with his or her prescribed and extra-role service behaviour which should translate to higher or lower service quality. This is relying on existing research that links organizational commitment to service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviour (Chou and Lopez-Rodriguez, 2013). From the corporate point of view, customer service is not only important from a performance sense but also a crucial ingredient in attaining competitive advantage, as an organization's ability to respond quicker to customer needs puts the firm ahead of its rivals (Omotayo and Joachim, 2008).

2.5 Summary of Chapter

The perceptions employees have about their organizations affect their level of commitment and the resultant influence can be positive or negative. Thus, responsibility lies on the management to stir commitment within their employees in ways that will benefit the organization. Meyer & Allen (1997) posit that commitment can be 'managed' through the design or redesign of human resource practices and the management of change. This research investigates the management of commitment using the former approach, specifically, the influence of rewards and career growth on organizational commitment, which is expected to result in better customer service behaviours.

This chapter attempted to discuss the concept of organizational commitment by presenting the various definitions and analysing the contemporary approach of a multi-component version of commitment (Faisal, M. N. and Al-Esmael, B. A., 2014; Meyer and Herscovitch, L., 2001; Allen and Meyer, 1990). The review of existing literature provides suggested outcomes of organizational commitment such as organizational citizenship behaviour, performance and effectiveness. However, it should be mentioned that a lot of disagreements abound regarding the consequences of organizational commitment, especially in the areas of deviancy or negative behaviours and performance (JOUNG, H. et al., 2015).

The idea that commitment can be managed is informed by the argument that several forces or actions act as antecedents to commitment, and these antecedents have been presented in this chapter. These antecedents include; psychological support and empowerment from the organization; and fairness in the distribution of organizational resources (Faisal, M. N. and Al-Esmael, B. A., 2014; Mahony, D. et al., 2015; Raub and Robert, 2012). These antecedents are heavily reflected in the reward system and career growth of individuals in the organization. Therefore, the main argument of this research work is that by designing and implementing a proper reward system and career management system, organizations should be able to manage commitment levels in their favour. The theories of equity, social exchange and reciprocity underlie the constructs of rewards and career growth. These theories essentially argue that individuals respond to their perceptions of how they are treated by their organizations and they have preconceived expectations about what the organization should provide (Cropanzanon and Mitchell, 2005; Gould-Williams, J., 2007; Malhotra et al., 2007; Newman and Sheikh, 2012). When these expectations are met, employees respond positively and vice versa when expectations are not met. Within this chapter, the forms of rewards including: intrinsic, extrinsic and social rewards have also been discussed.

In the Nigerian service sector, and by extension, construction companies, it can hardly be argued that without customers, a business organization has any reason to exist. How customers/ clients are treated often determines the satisfaction with the product itself and customer service is the product in service-oriented companies. The target of managing commitment is the enhancement of performance and organizational citizenship behaviour, which in the case of this research is reflected by customer service. This chapter has reviewed

the concept of customer service, which comprises of role-prescribed behaviour and extra-role efforts (Tsaur and Lin, 2004). It is expected that positive perceptions on rewards and career growth should influence commitment, which in turn will improve customer service quality provided by employees.

Finally, this chapter (literature review) explains why reviewed literatures are relevant to my thesis. The chapter also explains why the reviewed literatures are relevant to the identified management issue/ problem (low workers' commitment and profitability). The identified management issue also assisted in narrowing down my arguments. Above all, I specifically designed this chapter, to introduce the ideas that I think might help manage the declining low workers' commitment and profitability in my organization, and other service organisation in the Nigerian context. The chapter also assisted in setting-up the various questions (also developed into hypotheses in chapter three) that I need answering in the process of designing, implementing or evaluating a particular course of management action (Chandler & Torbert, 2003; Deshpande, 2016; Hay, 2004; Kramer, 2007).

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL MAP AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

3.0 Introduction

Understanding of the relationship between HR practices and commitment is essential as it allows researchers and practitioners to identify circumstances or conditions under which specific practices are most valued by employees (Wright and Kehoe, 2009). The management actions that are under scrutiny here are in the areas of organizational rewards and career growth. However, the perceptions surrounding these two constructs do not solely depend on management actions but individual employees also have roles to play in determining the outcomes of the rewards systems and how their careers are advanced. By understanding the manner of influence these two constructs have on commitment and performance, managers would be able to shape policies surrounding these systems to benefit the organizational goals and the members as well.

The conceptual map below depicts the hypothesized relationships between organizational rewards and career growth and organizational commitment as well as the consequent relationship with customer service. The next section discusses the various hypotheses that are to be investigated as part of this research.

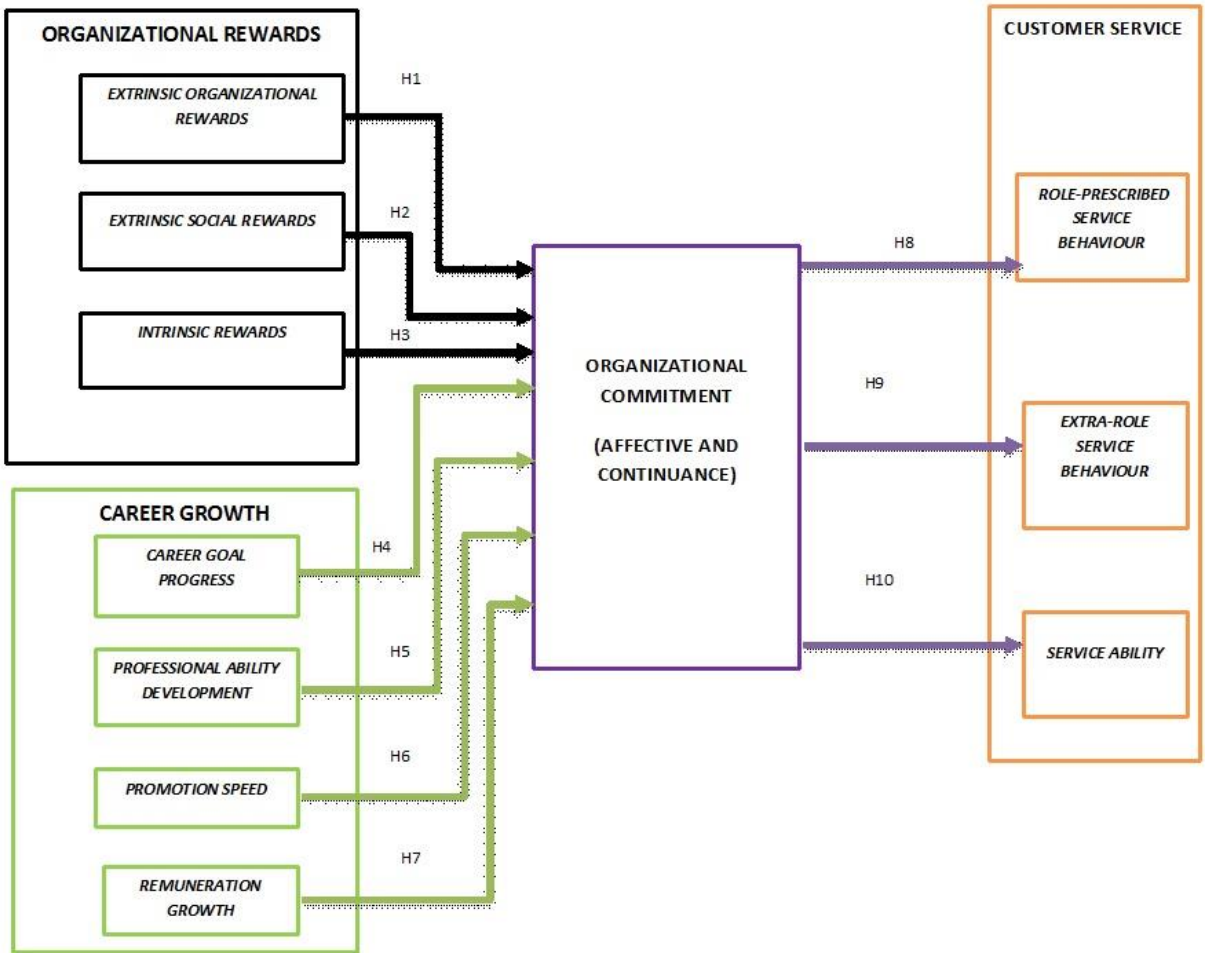

Figure 3a: Conceptual map showing research hypotheses.

3.1 Organizational Rewards and Organizational Commitment

It is expected that when organizational members receive valued benefits and support from their organizations, they would in turn reciprocate in the form of exerting skill and effort on the job according to the theories of social exchange and reciprocity (Newman and Sheikh, 2012; Cropanzanon and Mitchell, 2005). This forms the basis of my first three hypotheses because I expect commitment to be motivated by the various forms of rewards. Organizational rewards are usually characterized in three forms: Extrinsic, social and intrinsic rewards (Malhotra et al., 2007). Extrinsic rewards are tangible in nature and possess underlying monetary value. It is expected that extrinsic rewards will have positive effects on both affective and continuance forms of commitment. This is because when employees are satisfied with extrinsic rewards such as promotions, remuneration and fringe benefits, they tend to interpret this as genuine concern and proper valuation of their contributions by the management and are more likely to form bonds with the organization and align with corporate vision. Conversely, when employees feel there is a lack of promotional opportunities and adequate compensation, they are likely to interpret this situation as a lack

of appreciation of their efforts and this will likely lead to disenchantment and low affective commitment. Several existing research seem to support this position (Malhotra et al., 2007; Miao et al., 2013; Newman and Sheikh, 2012). The perception of available promotional opportunities has been found to stimulate affective commitment because employees interpret this as concern for their well-being (Malhotra et al., 2007).

Continuance commitment is also likely to be influenced by extrinsic rewards due to the unavailability of alternative opportunities offering similar benefits, especially when the job level and years of experience are tied to such extrinsic rewards. Satisfaction with pay and other benefits have also been found to have positive links with both affective and continuance commitment with Chinese workers (Newman and Sheikh, 2012). Newman and Sheikh (2012) argued that since China is an emerging economy, extrinsic benefits such as salary and fringe benefits are expected to carry greater importance because of the lower standards of living and this is expected to also be indicative of the Nigerian working environment. Therefore,

H1: Extrinsic organizational rewards have a strong positive relationship with continuance and affective commitment.

Intrinsic rewards, on the other hand, have no inherent monetary value but are rather self-rewarding and they include work characteristics such as: autonomy; role clarity; training; skill variety; and feedback (Malhotra et al., 2007). Training has been found to be very important to employees because it is viewed as management commitment to development of individual workers (Newman et al., 2011). Training is an investment in human resources that improves the satisfaction level as well as competence levels (Dhar, 2015) and some researchers have argued that employees expect organized training and development actions as part of the unwritten psychological contract with management in exchange for their efforts and commitment (Bartlett, 2001 cited in Newman, et al., 2011).

Previous research found positive links between the perception of training availability and both affective and continuance commitment (Newman et al., 2011; Dhar, 2015). This could imply that employees view provision of training as management's desire to invest in its workers and this elicits loyalty and stronger bonds on the part of the employees (DHAR, 2015). Also, the lack of similar training and development opportunities are likely to discourage workers from leaving their current places of employment, thus increasing the continuance commitment levels (Newman et al., 2011). Faisal & Al-Esmael (2014) assert that other forms of intrinsic rewards such as task variety, autonomy and feedback are positively linked with organizational commitment. Malhotra et al (2012) also found strong positive links between role clarity, autonomy and participation in decision making with organizational commitment. By trusting employees with varied responsibilities in terms of task variety and autonomy, and communicating with employees by way of feedback, employees feel valued and more emotionally attached to the organization. Furthermore, involving workers in decision-making processes causes a sense of appreciation from the workers as this creates a

sense of 'stakeholdership' within the workers, which comes accompanying increased emotional attachment. Therefore,

H2: Intrinsic rewards have a significant positive relationship with affective commitment.

Social rewards are derived from one's interactions with others at work including colleagues and supervisors. It is difficult to expect an individual to enjoy his or her job, if the relationship with co-workers and immediate boss is frosty and this is likely to affect the passion for the job or alignment with company goals. Newman & Sheikh (2012) reckon that one's satisfaction with his or her supervisor has a positive influence on the organizational commitment level. However, their research findings suggest that co-worker support has no significant influence on organizational commitment.

Other research works have tended to differ from Newman and Sheik's view, for instance, Miao, et al (2013) Self et al. (2005) Chiaburu & Harrison (2008) (cited in Newman & Sheik, 2012) all assert that satisfaction with co-workers positively influence organizational commitment. This can be explained using Gould-Williams (2007) assertion that positive exchange relationships in the workplace, i.e. exchanges between individual workers and their co-workers and supervisors, result in increased extra-role efforts and motivation. This leads to the rationale that social rewards stimulate affective commitment as implied in the third hypothesis. Therefore,

H3: Social rewards have a significant positive with affective commitment.

3.2 Career Growth and Organizational Commitment

Weng et al. (2010) attempted to delineate career growth into four categories: remuneration growth, professional ability development, career goal progress, and promotional speed. It is expected that all four categories of career growth will be associated with organizational commitment either through increased attachment or for cost-based reasons (Allen and Meyer, 1993; Weng et al., 2010). Individuals within organizations, who are given roles that aid them in meeting their career set goals and are consequently rewarded for achieving these goals, are likely to get more attached to their organizations. In addition, achievement of career goals or the prospects of doing so, increases the cost of leaving the organization. Wang et al. (2014) contend that employees who perceive greater concern from the management towards their career growth, respond positively by demonstrating greater commitment and less intention to leave their organizations. Another point worth considering is raised by Allen and Meyer (1993) and Jans (1989), according to these authors, organizational and positional tenure seem to increase both affective and continuance commitment levels. This could imply that such

employees have over the years imbibed the organizational values and feel more bonded with these values and goals. Secondly, such workers might see their positions as valuable from an instrumental perspective and be unwilling to lose their positions or forfeit benefits that come with the length of service in their organizations, thus, acquiring what can be described as a cost-based (or continuance) commitment. Therefore,

H4: Career goal progress has strong positive relationships with both affective and continuance forms of commitment.

In work environments that allow employees to develop the skills and abilities that enhance their capabilities on the job; either by providing training or deliberate on-the-job development or allowing an employee time to personally develop their professional skills, the employees will likely build up higher affective commitment. Sturges et al. (2002) reported that when organizations provide career management programmes like training and on-the-job development, there were significant positive effects on organizational commitment. This is because the employees likely perceived that their goals are aligned with those of the organization.

Furthermore, we would expect these types of environments to positively build up the continuance commitment levels because of the availability of few options in terms of comparable work environments that will offer similar professional development opportunities. However, Weng et al. (2010) disagree as their findings suggest that employees view their skills developed as transferrable and see the willingness of the organization to contribute to their development as routine operations and hence, this does not increase the continuance commitment level. In the Nigerian environment with high unemployment rates, I believe that the presence of development opportunities should increase continuance commitment, contrary to Weng et al.'s (2010) findings because most organizations see training as an unaffordable expense due to the harsh economic climate. On the other hand, in work environments where there is a perception of little opportunity for professional development, there is likely to be lower affective and continuance commitment levels. Therefore,

H5: Professional ability development has strong positive relationships with both affective and continuance forms of commitment.

Promotional speed and remuneration growth also fall under the purview of management of any organization. These are tools that can be used to build motivation and commitment, when distributed fairly. When employees feel they are being rewarded fairly, with regards to promotion and remuneration, it is expected that they will develop more interest and feel more

emotionally bonded to the organization. Malhotra et al. (2012) assert that the perception of availability of promotional opportunities is seen by employees as evidence of management's interest in the employees' prospects and advancement in the organization and this causes greater attachment within the employees.

Continuance commitment is expected to increase as well as affective commitment when employees perceive a higher growth rate in terms of promotion and salary. Kehoe & Wright (2013) assert that employees' perception of high performance HR practices such as promoting ability and providing opportunities for advancement in the organization have positive effects on affective commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour and continuance commitment from the perspective of the employee's intention to remain part of the organization. The presence of promotion paths/opportunities and chances of pay rise in the organization makes it harder for an employee to want to leave that organization, according to Weng et al (2010) this would make it costly for that employee to exit that organization. This leads to my next proposal:

H6: Promotional speed has strong positive relationships with both affective and continuance forms of commitment.

The organizational justice literature can be deployed to explain a proposed relationship between remuneration and commitment to the organization. Adams' equity theory asserts that individuals have the tendency to compare the ratio of their input and the resulting outcomes with the ratio of their peers' input and subsequent outcomes and from such comparisons form opinions on how fair they are being treated by their organization (Mahony, D. et al., 2015). The perceptions formed on how fair or unfair, employees feel they are being treated could affect how they behave in future (Mahony, D. et al., 2015). This argument could justify Cohen & Gattiker's (1994) findings that pay satisfaction is a more accurate predictor than actual income with respect to the influence on organizational commitment.

This should even be more pronounced in countries with weaker economic indices because pay and benefits that usually come with promotion, often carry greater value due to greater dependencies and expectations from relatives. Fischer & Mansell (2007) found that in less privileged economies, individuals ascribe affective meaning to factors such as pay and extrinsic benefits; hence, there is less distinction between affective and continuance forms of commitment. In a study of Chinese workers, Newman & Sheikh (2012) also found that satisfaction with salary and fringe benefits was strongly related to both affective and continuance commitment and I feel this should be the case for workers in a developing economy such as Nigeria, where the paucity of organizations offering huge pay is prevalent. Therefore, this argument informs my next hypothesis:

H7: Remuneration growth has strong positive relationships with both affective and continuance forms of commitment

3.3 Customer Service and Organizational Commitment

Commitment has been associated with performance and organizational citizenship behaviour (Mayer, R. C. and Schoorman, F. D., 1992) and these combine to make up customer service in service environments because customer service comprises of role-prescribed and extra-role behaviours (Chou and Lopez-Rodriguez, 2013; Raub and Robert, 2012). Meyer & Allen (2009) have also asserted that relationships between commitment and customer satisfaction have been observed both at the unit and organizational levels (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Some extant research argues that when employees are highly committed to the organization, their customer service levels will also increase because their efforts will go above and beyond what is expected of them (Dhar, 2015). My argument on the links between commitment and the various spheres of customer service stems from Malhotra et al.'s (2012) findings that high performers exhibit high levels of commitment on all forms. The authors argue that employees who align with the values and goals of the organization usually perform better than their counterparts who are less aligned i.e. according to this line of reasoning, affective commitment is more important in improving customer behaviour then continuance commitment then follows (Malhotra et al., 2007). This leads us to my next three hypotheses.

The extant literature on customer service distinguishes employee customer service performance between the normal or routine tasks that are expected to be carried out by the employee and extra-role behaviour from employees. The routine or expected behaviour from employees is often referred to as in-role or role-prescribed behaviour and it has been argued to have a positive relationship with organizational commitment. Wright and Kehoe (2013) posited that organizational commitment has direct links with operational performance in terms quality of work quality and operational expenses. Allen & Mayer (1990) extend the argument when they assert that affective commitment demonstrates substantial links with several measures of in-role performance including: adherence to organization policy/strategy, sales performance, and operational effectiveness. Discussing specifically about customer service, Paulin et al (2006) assert that organizational commitment has strong influence on the employee task performance directed towards customer service.

Thus,

H8: Organizational commitment has a strong positive relationship with role-prescribed service behaviour.

Extra-role behaviour refers to employee actions that go beyond the normal or expected task behaviour. This is often described as discretionary behaviour and has been used to characterize organizational citizenship behaviour and it goes beyond the required behaviour of the formal management or HR system (Chou and Lopez-Rodriguez, 2013). Raub & Robert (2012) pointed out that committed individuals are more likely to display OCB in the form of voice behaviour i.e. when individuals are motivated to speak out about observed problems in

the work place especially in the face of personal risk and when speaking out is not strictly part of their job responsibilities. Paulin et al (2006) on the other hand, point out that committed individuals demonstrate OCB in the form of their willingness to carry out word of mouth marketing to potential clients and recruits. This willingness to tout the merits of the organization is almost always outside their job roles and Paulin et al. (2006) found out that commitment is a significant predictor of such behaviours.

Moreover, using the theories of perceived organizational support, social exchange and reciprocity, we can argue that individuals who perceive their organizations have their best interests at heart are likely to align with the values and goals of the organization thus being more committed and in return put in efforts that are above and beyond what is expected of them (Daskin et al., 2013; Wu and Liu., 2014; Ellinger, A. E. et al., 2013). Wu and Liu (2014) contend that when employees feel support from their organizations in the forms of job-related support and socio-emotional backing, they in turn demonstrate service-oriented OCB. This service-oriented OCB drives employees to promote their organizations, provide consistent service and importantly, take the initiative and strive to innovate to meet shifting customer needs (Wu and Liu, 2014)

This leads us to my ninth hypothesis,

H9: Organizational; commitment has a significant positive relationship with extra-role service behaviour.

Service ability or capability, according to Tsaur & Lin (2004), refers to the scope of requisite knowledge, skills and ideas needed for front-line employees to provide superior customer service and the perception individuals hold of themselves in terms of their competence and knowledge to provide service to customers. Hallowell et al. (1996, cited in Tsaur & Lin, 2004, p. 473) assert that the perception of service ability is a direct predictor of customer satisfaction. Peccei & Rosenthal (1997) also characterize service capacity using the two variables: knowledge and competence. Knowledge refers to the degree to which employees sense they have lucid knowledge and comprehension of the requirements of excellent customer service and how best this can be delivered to customers (Peccei and Rosenthal, 1997). Whereas, competence describes the perception of employees with respect to the degree to which they possess the requisite training, skills and proficiency to perform their jobs adequately and handle unforeseen challenges (Peccei and Rosenthal, 1997).

Committed individuals are likely willing to seek continuous improvement on the job requirements and knowledge, as well as exert effort to satisfy the customers of the organization (Peccei and Rosenthal, 1997). Hence, it is expected that such individuals will possess high level of service ability in the forms of both superior knowledge and competence. Furthermore, Wu and Liu (2014) assert that committed individuals are more likely to display

service-oriented organizational citizenship behaviour and this is reflected in the ability to consistently provide responsible and high-quality service to the organization's customers.

This indicates that commitment is linked with the ability to provide quality service to customer, which informs the next proposed hypothesis,

H10: Organizational commitment has a significant positive relationship with the service ability of the employee.

3.4 Summary of Chapter

This chapter presented the conceptual map and hypothesized relationships covered by this research. I have suggested that significant relationships exist between organizational rewards, career growth and organizational commitment. Moreover, I have argued that as a consequence of organizational commitment, customer service is impacted in substantial ways. These propositions have been supported by extant research works and the divergent opinions within the existing body of literature have also been highlighted in the chapter. Rewards and career growth are two areas that the management of any organization can utilize to motivate its workforce and by understanding their influence on commitment, practitioners can gain greater insights and interpretations of certain situational problems and circumstances that likely affect the work environment in terms of morale and consequently, performance.

Furthermore, the presence of career growth programmes and policies within the organization that enhance the career goals and allow professional development of the employees will cause the workers to be enamoured to the organization and make it costly to leave such organizations (Weng et al., 2010; Newman and Sheikh, 2012). In addition, I proposed in this chapter that organizational commitment has a positive relationship with the customer service levels of employees. The commitment level of an employee should also have strong links with how the employee carries out his or her stipulated job functions as well as extra-role or discretionary efforts put in my that employee (Kehoe and Wright, 2013; Raub and Robert, 2012). Moreover, I propose that committed individuals are more likely to strive to improve their service skills and abilities (Tsaur and Lin, 2004).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology including techniques utilized and the underlying philosophy that informed the choices made by the researchers with respect to the methods adopted in the research. The investigation is approached from the relativist ontological and social constructionist epistemological standpoints. This philosophical view assumes that multiple truths exist and facts are dependent on the observer's perspective. The survey design and administration techniques are explained in this chapter as well as the sampling and pre-testing processes. The reader will also be acquainted with the measures utilized to collect information with respect to the concepts under investigation.

4.1 Research Design

The present research is action-oriented and employs a mixed method approach, utilizing both quantitative and qualitative techniques. The constructionist/interpretive philosophy concedes the possibility of several realities in co-existence, thus, the use of a mixed method approach (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012; Saunders et al., 2009). The use of a mixed method approach allows one to gather multiple perspectives and experiences, as well as narrowing the investigation to emerging patterns and findings.

I have chosen a partnership design approach to the research investigation because this type of research design accords both quantitative and qualitative methods comparable importance (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). Primary data was collected through survey questionnaires and learning set discussions. The Survey was carried out online using a survey website, SurveyMonkey (www.surveymonkey.com). The learning set discussion comprised of individuals at different management levels from different companies but all carrying out service functions. This chapter provides the report of the quantitative techniques used, while the account of the qualitative techniques can be found in a subsequent chapter.

For the quantitative inquiry, an inferential survey design was utilized as this approach attempts to establish or confirm relationships between selected research variables or concepts (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). In this case the variables include: Organizational commitment, Organizational rewards, Career growth and Customer service. The data collection process was carried out with the intention of investigating relationships between the various variables and primarily organizational commitment, based assumptions made using previous research arguments.

4.2 Questionnaire Development

This involved the design of the questionnaire layout, colour schemes, font, layout, length and the actual content. This aspect is critical because of its relationship with the response rate of the survey. According to Hoonakker & Carayon (2009), the appearance and content of internet surveys contribute in capturing the attention of the participants because participants are often disposed to ignoring surveys they find uninteresting. Furthermore, it is important to keep the wording of the questions understandable i.e. limiting the use of overly technical or esoteric terms. Another key aspect is the pre-testing of questionnaires, which at least aids in the improvement of face validity, which is the extent the questions appear comprehensible (Saunders et al., 2009). These issues and steps are further discussed in the next few sections.

4.2.1 Questionnaire Design

Questionnaires are described as data collection techniques, where multiple respondents are required to respond to identical questions in a pre-determined order (Saunders et al, 2009). As mentioned above, information was sought on the individual respondent's perception of levels of organizational commitment (affective and continuance), customer service and their satisfaction with organizational rewards and career growth. The questionnaire was of the self-administered type, which allowed respondents to answer the questions themselves and were administered electronically i.e. respondents were directed to the web survey website (www.surveymonkey.com) to complete the questionnaire. Invitations were sent through email to participants explaining the purpose of the survey and inviting them to participate. In addition, the conditions of anonymity and confidentiality were clearly stated in the invitation letter as well as the option of receiving the outcome of the research, if the participants were interested in the results of the investigation.

Saunders et al. (2009) contended that the design of the questionnaire has serious impact on the rate of response, reliability and validity, hence, earnest attention was paid to the design, wording and layout of the questionnaire and the administration of the questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of eighty-one (81) questions, which were presented in five sections: Organizational rewards; Career growth; Organizational Commitment; Customer Service; and General Information/Demographics.

4.2.2 Questions/Answers Design

The questions were closed or forced-choice questions with mutually exclusive answer options rather than open-ended, which meant respondents had to pick from the options provided and only one answer could be selected. This was because of the nature of data being collected, which disallowed ambiguity to allow for proper comparisons and interpretation of data. However, a wide range of options were provided in a seven-point Likert style scale ranging

from: Strongly disagree to Strongly agree, which meant respondents could still provide neutral answers by choosing a response of 'Neither agree nor disagree'.

The questions were arranged in a matrix pattern, with sets of questions put on a grid because most of the questions had the same range of answers. This helped to save space and created a well-organized layout of the questionnaire. However, the section for General information/Demographics was arranged in a list, with the options clearly defined to avoid misunderstanding. List questions were most appropriate for this section because the response set for the different questions were very dissimilar compared to the other sections. For example, the possible responses relating to enquiries about one's age bracket are quite different from that of the same person's monthly salary range. The five principles of good survey questions design according to Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) were used as a guide in the design of the questions and they included:

- Each question should convey a single idea.
- Jargon and colloquialisms should be avoided.
- The language should be simple.
- The use of negatives should be avoided.
- Leading questions should not be used.

The wording of each question was carefully reviewed to ensure they applied to the context of the research and allowed for easy understanding and the questions were kept to reasonable lengths. I attempted to present the questionnaire in a layout that was logical in its order and flow by arranging the questions in different sections depending on the various concepts under investigation. I believe this aided the respondents in thinking about the answers and preventing unnecessary confusion.

4.2.3 Pilot Testing

As part of the efforts to ensure validity and reliability of the questionnaire, a pilot test was carried out. This testing aided the refinement of the questionnaire. The questionnaires were sent to ten (10) people, who subsequently answered feedback questions on their experiences completing the questionnaire. The feedback questions sought for information such as:

- How long the respondent took to complete the questionnaire.
- Whether the instructions were clear enough.
- Which, if any, questions were unclear or ambiguous.
- Which, if any, questions did the respondent feel uneasy about answering.
- Whether the respondent found the layout of the questionnaire clear and attractive.
- If the respondent had additional comments about the experience of completing the questionnaire.

The questions were found to be lucid and understandable and the layout was also found to be clear and presentable, however, some of the pre-test participants complained about the length of the questionnaire, which initially had over a hundred questions, prompting me to reduce

the number of questions to eighty-one questions. This new number of questions (81) still allowed all the concepts under investigation to be properly measured, whilst presenting a questionnaire of reasonable length to potential participants. The pre-test exercise also helped to establish the time duration to complete the questionnaire, which was about twenty minutes.

4.3 Sampling

4.3.1 Sampling Techniques

A combination of purposive sampling and self-selection sampling techniques were utilized. Purposive technique allowed me to set criteria for required sample units since I had a clear idea of the type of participants needed for the research. The participants had to be working in Nigeria and should be performing service-based duties in their organization. Self-selection sampling occurs when the researcher allows each sampling case to elect if they want to take part in the research or not (Saunders et al., 2009). In this case, invitations were sent through electronic mail and those that agreed to participate, were directed to the survey website that housed the questionnaires.

The use of internet recruitment enabled the sampled units to be spread throughout Nigeria and various types of service organizations (hotels, banks, educational institutions, accounting firms etc.) and employees from different levels. This helped to enhance the generalizability of the sampling technique, however, since this is a non-probabilistic sampling technique, we must be cautious in generalizing the result. A probability (random) sampling technique would eliminate bias and ensure generalizability of result, it takes a toll on the resources and is known to have lower response rate compared to online purposive sampling (Barratt et al., 2015; Etikan et al., 2015)

4.3.2 Response Issues

A sample size of 700 people was chosen and invitations sent to them. In a bid to achieve an acceptable response rate, follow-up emails were sent in addition to the initial invitation/covering letters. Hoonakker & Carayon (2009) posited that problems with non-response of internet surveys can be attributed to mostly: the design of the survey, concerns over confidentiality and anonymity, the ease at which emails can be discarded, and other technical issues such as non-deliverable emails. The authors suggest several steps that can be taken to improve responses, which I tried to adopt in designing and conducting my survey and these included: sending pre-notification and reminder emails, assuring participants of confidentiality and anonymity including taking steps to ensure the protection of respondents' identities such as stripping of personal data before analysis, and paying attention to other design matters such as ensuring the email header does not appear to be spam and making the survey more interesting (Hoonakker and Carayon, 2009). Out of the 700 people invited to participate, 183 recipients took the survey but only 156 respondents completed all the

questions. Hence, this resulted in an effective response rate of 22.2 percent, which can be considered as appreciable for a web-based survey. This is because the response rate for web-based surveys are usually expected to be lower, compared to other traditional techniques like telephone and paper-based/physically administered questionnaires (Grandcolas et al., 2003 and Greene et al., 2008). Despite the lower response rate, internet-based surveys provide some important benefits. Lewis et al. (2009) found that data collected through internet surveys are equivalent or consistent with data from paper-based survey and yet internet surveys can capture data from a wider demographical sample than paper-based surveys.

4.4 Administering the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered electronically through the online survey website, SurveyMonkey, as mentioned previously. However, before sending out the invitations to participants, I used different computer interfaces to make sure that the questionnaire layout was clear and properly laid-out, irrespective of the interface the potential respondent might use to complete the questionnaire. These included laptops, desktop computers and smart phones. I also tested the display of the questionnaire using different browsers including: Microsoft Windows Explorer, Google Chrome and Mozilla Firefox and I confirmed the questionnaire could be read and understood easily on all these interfaces.

A covering letter was sent in the form of the email invitation letter, introducing the purpose of the research and clearly informed participants that the research was being supervised by an academic institution and the research outcome would solely be utilized for academic purposes. The letter also informed participants about the anticipated time duration required to complete the questionnaire. Moreover, the letter stated that the survey was voluntary as well as assured participants that identities of respondents would remain anonymous and data collected would be treated confidentially.

The letter also informed the participants of their right to withdraw from the research at any point in time. In addition, the letter provided correspondence address of the researcher, in case participants were interested in the findings of the research. It should be noted that the financial incentive was not offered or given to participants to take part in this research. In addition to the covering letter, the questionnaire consisted of an introductory section, which also clearly explained the purpose of the research; the assurance of confidentiality and anonymity; and the expected time duration required to complete the questionnaire.

4.5 Measures

The measurement instruments used were adapted from previous research works on the various concepts under investigation and were intended to capture the four constructs under investigation: Organizational Commitment; Rewards; Career growth; and Customer Service. Respondents were asked to select the option that most closely captured their perceptions

using a seven-point Likert-type scale (1. = Strongly disagree, 7. = Strongly agree). To prevent response bias, some items were intentionally negatively worded in the questionnaire and later reversed during the pre-analysis stage. An example of a negatively worded item can be seen in one of the questions in the Extrinsic social rewards scale - "There is more competition than cooperation between my co-workers and me".

The pre-analysis stage included: creating a codebook in Microsoft Excel, inputting the data into IBM SPSS, defining the variables and other parameters in SPSS, reversing the negative worded items, and computing the Cronbach alpha values to check for internal consistency of the scale items. As part of the pre-analysis stage, the IBM SPSS software was used to compute the Cronbach's alpha values for the different scales of measurement. The reliability of a measurement scale is reflected in its internal consistency amongst other indicators and this (internal consistency) is described as the degree to which the items on a scale are measuring the same underlying construct (Pallant, 2013).

4.5.1 Organizational Commitment

The scales for investigating Organizational commitment were taken from the work of Allen & Meyer (1990, p.6-7). Two components of organizational commitment were measured: Affective commitment was measured with a scale of 8 items and Continuance commitment having 8 items on its scale also. Sample items included *"I really feel this organization's problems are my own"* and *"Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I want to leave my organization right now"* (Allen and Meyer, 1990, p.6-7).

4.5.2 Organizational Rewards

The measures for organizational rewards were adapted from Malhotra et al (2007). A seven-item scale was used to measure Extrinsic organizational rewards (Working conditions, Pay satisfaction and Satisfaction with benefits) using sample items such as *"I am satisfied with the working conditions in my work place"* and "*I feel I am paid fairly considering the work I do" (*Malhotra et al., 2007, p.2108-2109). For Extrinsic social rewards (Supervision and Team support), a scale of 10 items was used consisting of sample items such as *"My supervisor is not approachable"* and *"I am satisfied with the supportive attitude of my co-workers at work" (*Malhotra et al., 2007, p.2108-2109). A scale of 19 items was used to capture intrinsic rewards, which measured sub-constructs including: Role clarity, Skill variety, Autonomy, Feedback, Training and Participation. Sample items included: *"The job requires me to use a number of complex skills"* and *"I receive continued training to provide good service" (*Malhotra et al., 2007, p.2108-2109).

4.5.3 Career Growth

The instrument utilized for the measurement of career growth was designed by Weng et al. (2010) and measured various four dimensions of career growth: Career goal progress (4 items), Professional ability development (4 items), Promotion speed (4 items) and remuneration growth (3 items). Sample items included: *"My present job is relevant to my career goals and vocational growth"* and *"Compared with my colleagues, I am being promoted faster"* (Weng et al., 2010, p.394).

4.5.4 Customer Service

The measurement scales for customer service were adopted from the research work carried out by Tsaur and Lin (2004). This consisted of measures for service behaviour and service ability. Service behaviour is broken down into role-prescribed service behaviour with 3 items and extra-role service behaviour with 3 items also. Service ability also has 3 items in its scale. Sample items included: *"I fulfil responsibilities to customers as specified in my job description"*, *"I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers"* and *"I have enough abilities and skills to supply excellent service"* (Tsaur & Lin, 2004, p.479-480).

4.5.5 Control/Demographic Variables

The control variables measured included demographic data: Gender, Age, Industry of Employment, Income and Employment status. Gender was categorized under Male and Female groupings. Age was delineated under six categories: less than 20 years; 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59 and 60 years and above. Industry of Employment was grouped into 7 categories: Government/Civil Service, Banking/Finance, Energy/Oil and Gas, Hospitality, Manufacturing, Academics/Education and Others. Income was differentiated into 7 brackets in Nigerian currency (Naira) ranging from 150,000 to 1 million. While Employment status was grouped into Permanent and Contract staff categories.

The summary of the demographic data collected can be seen in Table 4.1

Classification	Variable	N	%
Gender	Female	59	37.6
	Male	98	62.4
Industry of Employment	Government/Civil Service	19	12.1
	Banking/Finance	32	20.4
	Energy/Oil and Gas	49	31.2
	Hospitality	2	1.3
	Manufacturing	4	2.5
	Academics/Education	5	3.2
	Others	46	29.3
Income (Nigerian Naira)	0 - 150,000	17	10.8
	151,000 - 300,000	27	17.2
	301,000 - 450,000	25	15.9
	451,000 - 600,000	20	12.7
	601,000 - 750,000	11	7
	751,000 - 1,000,000	20	12.7
	Above 1,000,000	37	23.6
Age (years)	Less than 20	1	0.6
	20 - 29	10	6.4
	30 - 39	76	48.4
	40 - 49	57	36.3
	50 - 59	13	8.3
Employment Status	Permanent	132	84.1
	Contract	25	15.9

Table 4.1: Demographic Characteristics of Research Respondents.

4.6 Summary of Chapter

This chapter provided a report of the methods and techniques employed in capturing primary information for the research investigation. The key steps taken to ensure the data collected was valid have been presented in this chapter and these included: proper survey design especially in the areas of questionnaire development, sampling, pre-testing of questionnaires and administration of the questionnaires. Furthermore, the chapter presented the scales of measures employed in this research, which were adapted from previous research on the various constructs under investigation. The internal consistency values were also computed to ensure the scales were reliable and useful in the investigation of the hypothesized relationships.

Leading to this inquiry and critically reviewing the literature, I have discovered some facts about levels and implications of declining employees' commitment and profitability in my

organisation, and by extension, similar organisation (Chandler & Torbert, 2003; Deshpande, 2016). The key question then becomes what action should be taken (Deshpande, 2016; Hay, 2004). Therefore, the methodological issues addressed in this chapter is that given the data that I have gathered, how will I assess whether the action proposed will be acceptable in my organisation (Hay, 2004; Kramer, 2007). The chapter also tries to provide explanation as to how the proposed course of action fits with the data that I gathered (Deshpande, 2016; Leonard & Marquardt, 2010). The chapter also explained and justified why I have chosen the adopted methods.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS

5.0 Introduction

Quantitative analysis was carried out to achieve several purposes but most importantly to investigate the hypotheses statements presented in Chapter Three. Other reasons for conducting the various analyses were to summarize the data into fewer sets of components, checking for assumptions made about normality to decide the appropriate techniques best suited to investigate the various relationships and ensuring the reliability of the measurement scales employed for the data analysis.

This chapter present the results of the quantitative analysis carried out on the data collected from survey questionnaires. The data was screened employing various processes including exploratory factor analysis, reliability tests (Cronbach's alpha test of internal consistency) and normality tests. In addition, multicollinearity tests were carried out to ensure the interrelationships do not obfuscate the contribution of the individual variables. The hypothesized relationships were tested using correlation and hierarchical multiple regression analyses. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis controlled for the influence of demographic factors: gender, industry of employment, income, age, and employment status, while investigating the influence of rewards and career growth on commitment.

Furthermore, the influence of commitment, rewards and career growth on customer service components were also independently investigated using the regression analysis. What is more, the differences in the levels of commitment and customer service among the various demographic groups were investigated using T-tests and One-way analysis of variance and their non-parametric counterparts.

In the end, the various hypotheses earlier presented were either upheld or rejected based on the output of the various analytical techniques employed.

5.1 Screening of Data

5.1.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis using Principal Component Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis, according to Pallant (2013, p.188), is used to scrutinize the interrelationships among selected variables, it searches for clusters in the intercorrelations of the selected variables with the intention of summarizing or reducing to a smaller number of factors or components.

Exploratory Factor Analysis was carried out on the various constructs (rewards, career growth, organizational commitment and customer service) using the principal component analysis (PCA) as the extraction method. Principal component analysis is a technique that tries to reduce the number of linear combinations of the original variables whilst still using all

the variances in the variables (Pallant, 2013). The optimum solutions were decided after looking at the eigenvalues, screeplots, conducting parallel analyses and comparing the rotated loadings (pattern coefficients) of the different solutions to obtain the best fit with strong loadings in the best arranged structure. The eigenvalue of a factor signifies the proportion of the total variance that describes that factor (Pallant, 2013). I utilized the eigenvalue rule or Kaiser's criterion, which stipulates that only factors with an eigenvalue of 1 or more should be retained for more investigation (Pallant, 2013). In carrying out the scree test, the analysis software used, IBM SPSS, helped in plotting the eigenvalues of the factors and the scree test involved inspection of the plot to identify the point where shape of the curve flattens out. Catell (1996 cited in Pallant, 2013) recommends that factors below the elbow of the plot should be discarded as they contribute least to explaining the variance in the data set. Parallel analysis was then carried out, which is a technique that compares the size of the eigenvalues with another set generated by a random data set and then retaining the eigenvalues that are greater in value than the correspondent randomly generated values (Pallant, 2013).

The analysis on both organizational rewards and career growth suggested that the number of components be reduced to two components in both cases. The scales of measurement for organizational rewards adapted from Malhotra et al. (2007) consisted of three variables: Extrinsic organizational rewards, Extrinsic Social rewards, and Intrinsic rewards. After the factor analysis carried out using the SPSS software, the scree plot was scrutinized and further parallel analysis was carried out and this led to the components being reduced to two components (Extrinsic and Intrinsic rewards) from the initial four components, with the items for social rewards put under intrinsic rewards. Also, three items measuring training that were initially under intrinsic rewards were transferred to extrinsic rewards based on the results from the factor analysis. The two-component solution explained a total of 44. 89% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 37.28% and Component 2 contributing 7.62% and their eigenvalues exceeded 1. In addition, four items (three from intrinsic and one from extrinsic rewards) with low communalities and factor loadings were dropped to increase the total variance explained by the measurement model.

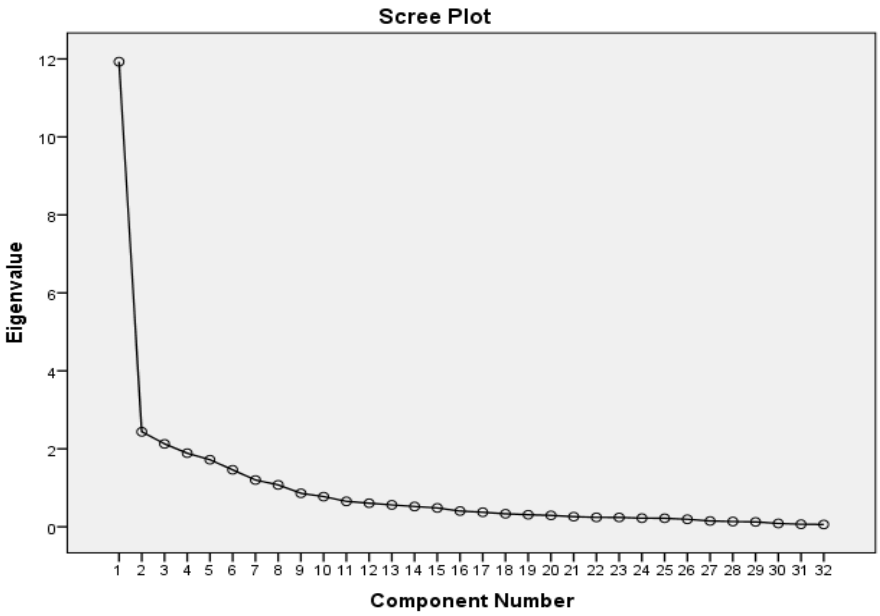

Figure 5.1: Scree plot from PCA on Reward Variables.

The initial 4 component model for Career growth was reduced to a two-component solution after the Principal Component Analysis was carried out. The analysis suggested the fusion of the variables, career goal progress and professional ability development as well as merging the other two variables, promotion speed and remuneration growth. This reduction was carried out after scrutinizing the scree plot (Figure 5.2), parallel analysis and conducting further analysis using three components and later two components. The two-component solution explained a total of 61. 86% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 46.95% and Component 2 contributing 14.91%, both having eigenvalues over 1. The output of the rotated solution (oblimin rotation) showed stronger loadings and better structure with two components (see Table 5.1).

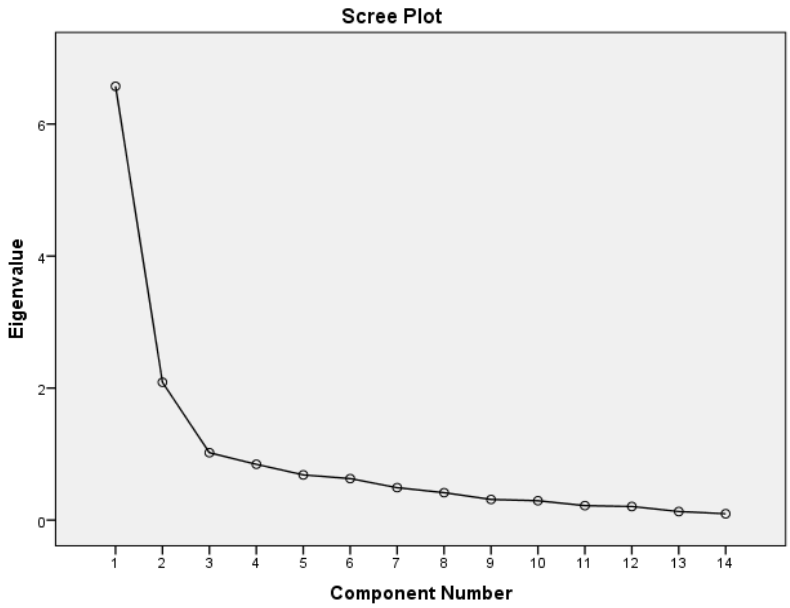

Figure 5.2: Scree plot for PCA on Career Growth Variables.

The factor analyses for both commitment and customer service upheld the two-component and three-component solutions respectively. The total variance explained by the two-component solution for organizational commitment was 55.6%, while the three-component solution for customer service explained 87.16% of the total variance. Furthermore, two items from the commitment measure were dropped because of their low loadings and communalities. The table below summarizes the output from the exploratory factor analysis. The table provides the pattern and structure coefficients obtained after performing oblimin rotation and the communalities scores are also presented for the final solutions.

Construct Items Construct Measured	Pattern Coefficient	Structure Coefficient	Communalities
Organizational Rewards			
Extrinsic Rewards			
The working conditions in my organization are adequate to perform a good job.	-0.658	-0.738	0.57
I am satisfied with the working conditions at my work place.	-0.611	-0.689	0.499
I am not happy with the pay I receive for the job I do (R).	-0.444	-0.464	0.217
I am satisfied with my pay considering other organizations I know of.	-0.701	-0.701	0.492
I feel I am paid fairly considering the work I do.	-0.761	-0.762	0.581
I am satisfied with the fringe benefits package.	-0.819	-0.752	0.583
I receive induction training before coming in contact with customers.	-0.603	-0.599	0.359
I receive continued training to provide a good service.	-0.738	-0.737	0.544
I receive regular training to keep me updated for good service.	-0.704	-0.729	0.534

My supervisor is not approachable (R).	0.539	0.477	0.243
My supervisor helps make my job more pleasant.	0.57	0.698	0.55
My supervisor treats all the workers as his/her equal.	0.48	0.608	0.432
I am satisfied with the technical competence of my supervisor.	0.496	0.607	0.416
I am satisfied with my supervisor's ability to lead me.	0.576	0.715	0.586
I satisfied am with the way my supervisor helps me achieve my goals.	0.575	0.732	0.63
My co-workers are helpful to me in getting my job done.	0.77	0.694	0.504
I am satisfied with the supportive attitude of my co-workers at work.	0.73	0.651	0.447
Everyone contributes to a team effort in serving customers.	0.777	0.751	0.566
There is more of competition than cooperation between my co-workers and me (R).	0.6	0.504	0.289
Clear planned goals/objectives exist for my job.	0.516	0.627	0.44
I know exactly what is expected of me in my job.	0.577	0.599	0.36
I know how my performance is going to be evaluated.	0.449	0.556	0.353
I feel certain about the level of authority I have.	0.588	0.676	0.487
I do not know what my responsibilities are (R).	0.332	0.357	0.13
The job does not allow me to use personal initiative in carrying out the work (R).	0.502	0.481	0.233
The job gives me opportunity for freedom in how I do the work.	0.579	0.616	0.384
I have freedom to do what I want on my job to satisfy customers.	0.416	0.514	0.301
Superior gives me feedback on how well I am performing on my job.	0.464	0.623	0.486
I am praised by my superior for providing good service to customers.	0.593	0.713	0.563
I receive recognition by superior for providing good service.	0.465	0.655	0.569
My superior asks my opinion when problem comes up.	0.428	0.602	0.48
I feel it is easy to get job improvement ideas across to my superior.	0.548	0.684	0.539
Career Growth			
Career/Professional Goals Progress			
My present job moves me farther away from my goals (R).	0.704	0.711	0.506
My present job is relevant to my career goals and vocational growth.	0.831	0.845	0.715
My present job sets the foundation for the realization of my career goals.	0.859	0.833	0.695
My present job provides me with good opportunities to realize my career goals.	0.896	0.886	0.786
My present job encourages me to continuously gain new and job-related skills.	0.836	0.858	0.739
My present job encourages me to continuously gain new job-related knowledge.	0.845	0.855	0.731
My present job encourages me to accumulate richer work experiences.	0.859	0.886	0.75
Promotion and Remuneration			
My promotion speed in the present organization is fast.	0.809	0.823	0.678

The probability of being promoted in my present organization is low (R).	0.525	0.54	0.292
Compared with previous organizations, my position in my present one is ideal.	0.724	0.786	0.631
Compared with my colleagues, I am being promoted faster.	0.838	0.767	0.605
My salary is growing quickly in my present organization.	0.849	0.823	0.68
In this organization, the possibility of my current salary being increased is very large.	0.736	0.779	0.612
Compared with my colleagues, my salary has not grown more quickly (R).	0.724	0.49	0.241
Organizational Commitment			
Affective Commitment			
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	0.664	0.666	0.485
I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	0.66	0.661	0.437
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	0.731	0.73	0.544
I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R).	0.822	0.821	0.68
I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R).	0.84	0.839	0.706
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	0.741	0.742	0.558
I do not feel a *strong* sense of belonging to *my* organization (R).	-0.833	-0.832	0.697
Continuance Commitment			
It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	0.674	0.677	0.544
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	0.726	0.727	0.54
Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	0.605	0.603	0.428
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	0.732	0.732	0.538
One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	0.668	0.665	0.522
One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice — another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	0.717	0.719	0.553
Customer Service			
Role-prescribed service behaviour			
I perform all those tasks for customers that are required of him/ her.	-0.938	-0.966	0.831
I help customers with those things which are required of him/ her.	-0.913	-0.91	0.939
I fulfil responsibilities to customers as specified in the teller job description.	-0.75	-0.897	0.841
Extra-role service behaviour			
I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.	0.934	0.941	0.791
I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.	0.926	0.933	0.872

I willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied.	0.888	0.889	0.887
Service ability			
I have enough professional knowledge to accommodate customer's demand momentarily.	-0.98	-0.959	0.848
I have enough abilities and skills to supply excellent service.	-0.956	-0.956	0.922
I have enough concepts to supply excellent service, like importance of service quality and teamwork.	-0.903	-0.92	0.914

Note: R = Reverse worded items.

Table 5.1: Exploratory Factor Analysis Output.

5.1.2 Reliability of Scales of Measurement

The reliability of a scale is an indication of the level of random error in that scale, a reliable scale is one that is as much as possible free from errors (Pallant, 2013). One measure of a scale's reliability is its internal consistency, which measures the extent to which the scale items are evaluating the same fundamental construct (Pallant, 2013). Cronbach's alpha values represent reliability coefficients that measure the consistency of entire scales by measuring the average correlation among the items that constitute the particular scale (Hair, Jr., et al., 2010, Pallant, 2013). From the results in the table below, it can be seen that all the measurement scales possess good internal consistency with the Cronbach's Alpha values all above 0.7, which normally would indicate acceptable levels (Pallant, 2013).

S/N	Measurement Scales	No. of Items on the Scale	Cronbach's Alpha Values
1	Affective Commitment	7	0.875
2	Continuance Commitment	7	0.754
3	Extrinsic Rewards	9	0.875
4	Intrinsic Rewards	23	0.929
5	Career/Professional Goal Progress	7	0.926
6	Promotion and Remuneration	7	0.844
7	Role-prescribed Service Behaviour	3	0.911
8	Extra-role Service Behaviour	3	0.912
9	Service Ability	3	0.935

Table 5.2: Results of the Cronbach's Alpha tests.

5.1.3 Tests for Normality

A normal distribution is one that is represented by a bell-shaped curve with the highest scores in the middle of the graph and the lower frequencies of scores at the extremes (Pallant, 2013). Many statistical analysis techniques assume normality of the distribution and hence, it is important to assess for normality to decide what technique to employ in exploring the relationships amongst variables. Normality of the dependent variables was ascertained by investigating the skewness, kurtosis and Komogorov-Smirnov test values, as well as the histograms and Normal Q-Q plots. The skewness of the data gives an indication of the symmetry of the distribution; positive skewness implies that the scores are clumped towards the left side, whereas, negative skewness implies a clustering of the scores on the right side of the graph (Pallant, 2013).

Kurtosis gauges the "peakedness" of the scores' distribution; positive kurtosis values indicates the scores are clumped to the centre i.e. they are 'peaked', whereas negative kurtosis values implies a flatness, which means there are multiple extremities or outliers in the distribution (Pallant, 2013). A Sig. value from the Komogorov-Smirnov test that is greater than 0.05 means we can assume normality, however, a value less than 0.05 informs of a violation of the assumption of normality. The test values for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Skewness and Kurtosis tests carried out are displayed on Table 5.3 and results from the tests demonstrated that the distributions for affective and continuance commitment upheld the assumptions of normality. However, this was not the case for role-prescribed and extra-role service behaviour variables as well as service ability.

S/N	VARIABLE	Sig. Value from Kolmogorov-Smirnov test	Skewness	Kurtosis
1	Affective commitment	0.083	-0.488	0.048
2	Continuance commitment	0.200	0.015	-0.304
3	Role-prescribed Service Behaviour	0.000	-1.299	1.634
4	Extra-role Service Behaviour	0.000	-1.065	0.469
5	Service Ability	0.000	-1.917	6.892

Table 5.3: Tests for Normality Results.

Comparing the two sets of histograms and Normal Q-Q plots provided below (figures 5.3 and 5.4) we can see the difference in the normal distribution and the non-normal distribution. The histogram of the affective commitment scores displays a shape that indicates a fairly normal distribution with the points more or less clustered at the centre of the plot (Figure 5.3). The Normal Q-Q plot of the affective commitment scores displays the points aligned along the straight line. Whereas, the plots for role-prescribed service behaviour shows a digression from normality in both the histogram and Normal Q-Q plot (Figure 5.4).

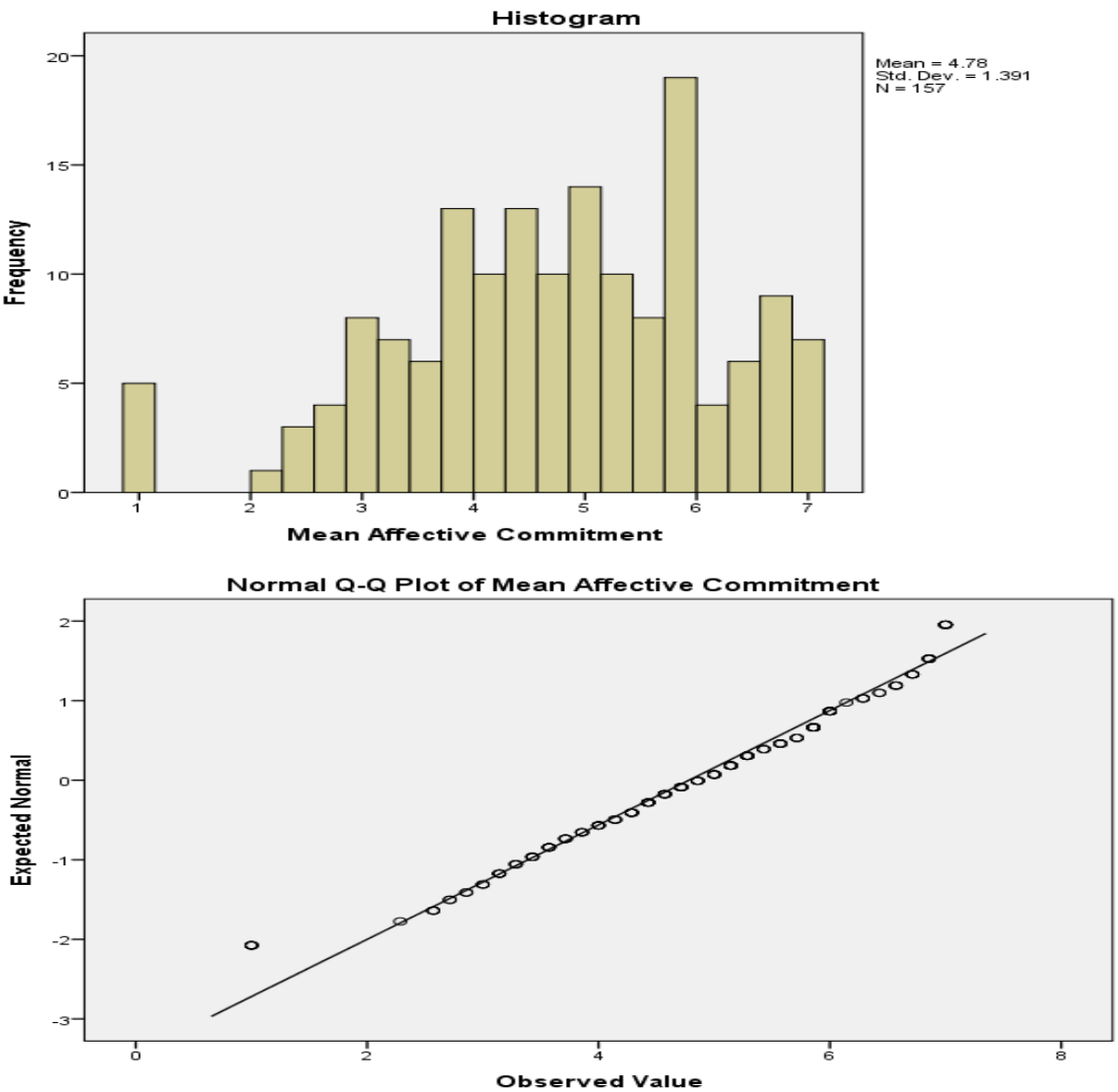

Figure 5.3: Histogram and Normal Q-Q Plot of Affective Commitment Data

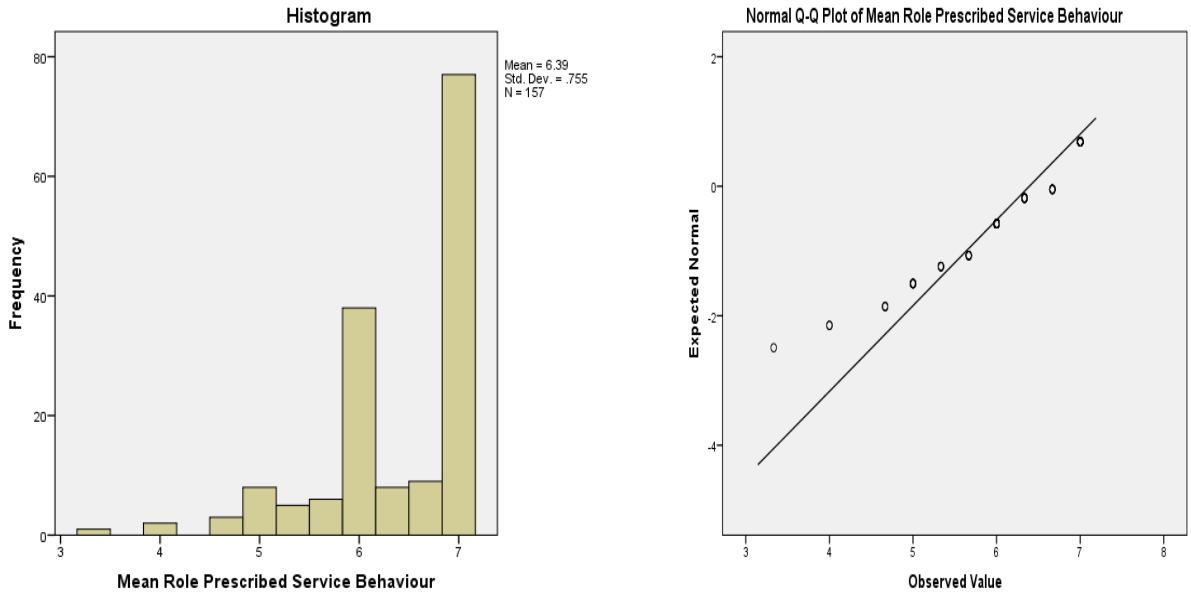

Figure 5.4: Histogram and Normal Q-Q Plot of Role Prescribed Service Behaviour.

To cater for this situation, where some of the dependent variables did not meet the assumption of normality, non-parametric tests were employed and the results displayed for the customer service variables are those obtained from the non-parametric tests. In the correlation matrix (Table 5.5), the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients are reported for the variables that show normality. While the Spearman ranked order coefficients are reported for the variables that do not meet the assumption of normality. To investigate the differences between groups (demographic groups), t-tests and One-way ANOVA tests are employed as parametric tests, while the non-parametric tests utilized were Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests.

5.1.4 Multicollinearity Issues

Multicollinearity occurs when the independent variables being studied are highly correlated i.e. with a bivariate or multivariate correlation of about 0.7 (Pallant, 2013). Hair, Jr. et al (2010, p.93) define multicollinearity as how much a variable can be explained by other variables being analysed and they further assert that as multicollinearity is increased, it becomes more difficult to identify the contribution of any single variable due to the increased interrelationship amongst the variables. Other tools of checking the collinearity levels of the independent variables are the Tolerance and VIF values obtained from the regression analysis. The correlation matrix in Table 5.5 demonstrates that the independent variables do not possess very high multivariate correlations as to violate the assumption that multicollinearity is not present between independent variables. The results of the regression analyses carried out also showed there were no issues of multicollinearity amongst the variables being compared as the Tolerance values were all above 0.10 and the VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) were all below 10, as values outside these brackets (Tolerance < 0.10 and

VIF > 10) would indicate multicollinearity (Pallant, 2013). The Tolerance and VIF values for all the independent variables used in the hierarchical multiple regression analyses are presented in the table below.

	Tolerance	VIF
Gender	0.833	1.201
Industry of Employment	0.97	1.031
Income	0.811	1.233
Age	0.826	1.21
Employment Status	0.962	1.039
Extrinsic Rewards	0.515	1.941
Intrinsic Rewards	0.594	1.683
Career/Professional Goal Progress	0.738	1.356
Promotion and Remuneration	0.68	1.47
Affective Commitment	0.834	1.199
Continuance Commitment	0.984	1.016

Table 5.4: Tolerance and VIF values for independent variables.

5.2 Hypotheses Testing

5.2.1 Rewards and Commitment

Correlation analysis is used to investigate the intensity and direction (positive or negative) of the relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2013). A negative sign in front of the correlation value indicates an inverse relationship, while a positive sign indicates a direct and positive relationship between the two variables being measured. Correlation values range from -1 (perfect negative relationship) to 1 (perfect positive relationship), while a value of 0 indicates the absence of any relationship (Pallant, 2013). According to Cohen (1988 cited in Pallant, 2013, p. 139), correlation (r) values (either positive or negative) ranging from 0.10 to 0.29 indicate small relationships; while r values ranging from 0.30 to 0.49 indicate medium relationships; and lastly, r values ranging from 0.50 to 1.0 indicate large or strong relationships between the variables.

From the correlation table below (Table 5.5), the findings showed that Affective commitment demonstrated a strong positive relationship with both forms of rewards, with extrinsic rewards displaying a strong significant relationship ($r=0.60$, $p<0.01$) as well as with intrinsic rewards ($r=0.60$, $p<0.05$). Whereas, continuance commitment had little or no significant relationship with organizational rewards. Extrinsic organizational rewards had the stronger relationship, albeit small, with continuance commitment ($r=0.15$), compared to intrinsic rewards ($r=-0.06$).

S/N	VARIABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	GENDER													
2	INDUSTRY OF EMPLOYMENT[b]	-0.10												
3	INCOME[c]	-0.33**	-0.06											
4	AGE[d]	-0.31**	0.05	0.35**										
5	EMPLOYMENT STATUS[e]	0.13	0.07	-0.12	-0.14									
6	EXTRINSIC REWARDS	-0.17*	-0.07	0.42**	0.22**	-0.11								
7	INTRINSIC REWARDS	-0.06	0.03	0.22**	0.16**	-0.07	0.63**							
8	CAREER/PROFESSIONAL GOAL PROGRESS	-0.08	0.10	0.19*	0.12	-0.08	0.34**	0.42**						
9	PROMOTION AND REMUNERATION	-0.17*	0.15	0.30**	0.13	-0.11	0.42**	0.46**	0.51**					
10	AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT	-0.16*	0.07	0.37**	0.27**	-0.14	0.60**	0.60**	0.64*	0.61**				
11	CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT	-0.02	-0.04	0.08	0.03	0.08	0.14	-0.06	-0.04	-0.02	0.03			
12	ROLE PRESCRIBED SERVICE BEHAVIOUR	0.14	0.02	-0.02	0.04	0.06	-0.10	0.08	0.06	0.01	0.17*	0.04		
13	EXTRA ROLE SERVICE BEHAVIOUR	0.17*	0.10	0.09	0.07	0.01	0.00	0.06	0.13	0.18*	0.31**	0.05	0.617**	
14	SERVICE ABILITY	0.08	0.03	0.06	0.19*	-0.10	0.02	0.21*	0.22**	0.05	0.21**	-0.01	0.642**	0.576**

* p < 0.05.

** p < 0.01.

[a] 1 - Male, 2 - Female.

[b] 1 - Government/Civil Service, 2 - Banking/Finance, 3 - Energy/Oil and Gas, 4 - Hospitality, 5 - Manufacturing, 6 - Academics/Education, 7 - Others.

[c] 1 - 0 to 150,000; 2 - 151,000 to 300,000; 3 - 301,000 to 450,000; 4 - 451,000 to 600,000; 5 - 601,000 to 750,000; 6 - 751,000 to 1,000,000; 7 - Above 1,000,000. (All in Nigerian Naira).

[d] 1 - Less than 20 years old, 2 - 21 -29 years old, 3 - 30 - 39 years old, 4 - 40 - 49 years old, 5 - 50 - 59 years old, 6 - 60 years and above.

[e] 1 - Permanent staff, 2 - Contract staff.

Table 5.5: Correlation Analysis Results.

Multiple regression is a technique used to investigate the association between a dependent variable and multiple independent variables (Pallant, 2013). Multiple regression can assist in answering several questions including: to what extent a set of variables can determine a specific outcome; which variable amongst a group of variables, best predicts an outcome; and what happens to a certain variable's ability to predict an outcome, when we control the effect of another variable (Pallant, 2013). The last function mentioned above is the purpose of the hierarchical regression technique, it allows us to depict what takes place in real life by accounting for the effect of multiple factors outside the key variables identified.

Hierarchical regression analysis (see Table 5.6) was carried out to evaluate the ability of the rewards variables to predict the both affective and continuance commitment in separate analyses, after controlling for the influence of the demographic variables: gender, industry of employment, income, age and employment status. The first step controlled for demographic variables (Models 1-1 and 2-1) and in the second step the reward variables were introduced (Models 1-2 and 2-2) to discover their contribution to the variance in commitment figures.

For affective commitment, the control variables could explain about 17% of the variance in affective commitment (Model 1-1, R^2 = 0.166) and the reward variables when introduced explained 48% (Model 1-2, R^2 = 0.475) of the total variance, F (7, 149) = 19.292, p<0.001.

From the output in Table 5.6, we can see that the reward variables explained an additional 31% of the variance in affective commitment after controlling for the demographic variables (Model 1-2, R^2 change = 0.31, F change (2, 149) = 43.956, $p<0.001$). In the Model 1-2, it was found that two of the reward variables were statistically significant with regards to explaining the dependent variable, with intrinsic rewards recording a higher beta value (beta = 0.370, $p<0.001$) than Extrinsic rewards (beta = 0.288, $p<0.01$). The table 5.6 contains standardized beta scores and these scores allow for comparisons to be made, regarding the contributions each independent variable makes (Pallant, 2013).

For continuance commitment, Model 2-1 in the Table 5.6 tells us that the demographic variables explained only 1.6% of the variance in continuance commitment (R^2 = 0.016), while in Model 2-2 we see that when the reward variables are included, only about 6% of the total variance is explained (R^2 = 0.063). In addition, the Model 2-2 informs us that after controlling for demographic variables, an additional 4.7% of the variance in continuance commitment can be explained by the reward variables (R^2 change = 0.047). From the beta values, we can see that both extrinsic (beta = 0.287, $p<0.05$) and intrinsic rewards (beta = -0.234, $p<0.05$) make statistical significant contributions to explaining continuance commitment but with extrinsic rewards providing a stronger contribution.

From the correlation and regression analyses, there is partial support for hypothesis H1 because extrinsic rewards were found to be significantly positively linked with affective commitment but not with continuance commitment. The correlation test provided significant support for the relationship between extrinsic rewards and affective commitment but the correlation value for extrinsic rewards and continuance commitment was not statistically significant. The multiple regression analysis also presented significant contribution to the variance in affective commitment by extrinsic rewards. The hypotheses, H2 and H3 (intrinsic and social rewards are positively linked with affective commitment) were supported by both the correlation and multiple regression analyses as we may recall that due to the exploratory factor analysis results, the intrinsic and social reward variables were merged together. The analyses revealed that 31% of the variance in affective commitment could be explained by the reward variables after controlling for demographic variables and correlation coefficients were at strong levels between affective commitment and both extrinsic ($r = 0.60$, $p<0.01$) and intrinsic rewards ($r = 0.60$, $p<0.01$).

Predictor Variables	Affective Commitment			Continuance Commitment		
	Model 1-1	*Model 1-2*	*Model 1-3*	*Model 2-1*	*Model 2-2*	*Model 2-3*
Control Variables						
Gender	-0.034	-0.045	-0.022	-0.008	0.008	-0.008
Industry of Employment	0.073	0.07	-0.033	-0.042	-0.015	-0.034
Income	0.310***	0.13	0.137*	0.078	0.017	0.089
Age	0.122	0.065	0.104	0.013	0.012	0.015
Employment Status	-0.076	-0.045	-0.023	0.097	0.101	0.093
Organizational Rewards						
Extrinsic Rewards		0.288**			0.287*	
Intrinsic Rewards		0.370***			-0.234*	
Career Growth						
Career/Professional Goal Progress			0.435**			-0.043
Promotion and Remuneration			0.337**			-0.014
R^2	0.166	0.475	0.568	0.016	0.063	0.018
Adjusted R^2	0.138	0.451	0.548	-0.017	0.019	-0.028
F	6.008***	19.292***	28.008***	0.492	1.439	0.401
ΔF		43.956***	69.402***		3.762*	0.185
ΔR^2		0.31	0.402		0.047	0.002
* p < 0.05.						
** p < 0.01.						
*** p < 0.001.						

Table 5.6: Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Commitment.

5.2.2 Career Growth and Commitment

The correlation matrix in Table 5.5 informs us that both forms of career growth have strong positive relationships with affective commitment: Career/Professional goals progress ($r = 0.64$, $p<0.05$), and Promotion and Remuneration ($r = 0.61$, $p<0.01$). However, none of the forms of career growth showed any significant relationship with continuance commitment as can be seen from the Table 5.5. Looking at the output of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis in Model 1-3 (Table 5.6), we can observe that after controlling for the demographic variables, the independent variables (career/professional goal progress, and promotion and remuneration) explained an additional 40% of the variance in affective commitment (R^2 change = 0.402, F change =69.402, $p<0.001$). In addition, from the beta values we can ascertain that Career/Professional goals progress made the highest significant contribution in predicting the dependent variable, affective commitment (beta = 0.435, $p<0.01$) compared to the other independent variable, Promotion and Remuneration (beta = 0.337, $p<0.01$).

However, career growth variables did not make any statistically significant contribution in explaining the variance in continuance commitment according to the hierarchical multiple regression analysis as can be seen in Table 5.6, Model 2-3. The hypothesis H4 and H5 were

partially upheld looking at the analyses results of the correlation and regression. The correlation analysis tells us that significant positive relationships exist between career goal progress, professional ability development and affective commitment. However, the relationship between career goal/professional ability development and continuance commitment did not pass the correlation test. The regression analysis demonstrated that 40% of the variance in affective commitment can be explained by the career growth variables after controlling for demographic variables and correlation coefficients were also at strong levels between affective commitment and both career/professional goals progress ($r = 0.64$, $p<0.01$) and promotion and remuneration ($r = 0.61$, $p<0.01$). The hypotheses, H6 and H7 were also partially supported as positive significant relationships were found between promotion/remuneration growth and affective commitment but no statistically significant links were found between promotion/remuneration growth and continuance commitment.

5.2.3 Customer Service and Commitment

Spearman rank order correlation tests were carried out due to the non-parametric nature of the data on customer service. From the results of the correlation analysis (Table 5.5), it was observed that affective commitment has mild relationships with role-prescribed service behaviour ($r = 0.17$, $p<0.05$) and service ability ($r = 0.21$, $p<0.01$) but a moderate relationship with extra-role service behaviour ($r = 0.31$, $p<0.01$). While continuance commitment showed little or no statistical significant relationship with all three forms of customer service. The Models 3-2, 4-2 and 5-2 in Table 5.7 show the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses carried out with the customer service variables as the dependent variables and the commitment variables as independent variables, when controlling for demographic variables. We can see that the independent variables (affective and continuance commitment) did not provide any statistical significant contributions in explaining the variance in service ability. However, the contributions to role-prescribed and extra-role service behaviours were statistically significant as can be seen by the ΔF significance levels. After controlling for the demographics, the commitment variables explained an additional 4% of the role-prescribed service behaviour variance and about 9% of the variance of extra-role service behaviour. Furthermore, it was noted that affective commitment played a stronger role in predicting all the forms of customer service variables as can be seen from the beta values compared to continuance commitment. From the results, we can only assert that organizational commitment has a weak relationship with role-prescribed behaviour but not enough to support the hypothesis H8. In the case of extra-role behaviour, it was observed that affective commitment has a moderate correlation with and significantly contributes in predicting extra-role behaviour. However, continuance commitment did not demonstrate any statistically significant relationship neither did it contribute in explaining extra-role service behaviour, hence, providing partial support for the hypothesis, H9. The analysis also provided little relationship between affective commitment and service ability, while there was negligible relationship between continuance commitment and service ability. Therefore, the H10 hypothesis can be rejected without statistically significant support for it.

Predictor Variables	Role-Prescribed Service Behaviour				Extra-Role Service Behaviour				Service Ability			
	Model 3-1	*Model 3-2*	*Model 3-3*	*Model 3-4*	*Model 4-1*	*Model 4-2*	*Model 4-3*	*Model 4-4*	*Model 5-1*	*Model 5-2*	*Model 5-3*	*Model 5-4*
Control Variables												
Gender	0.104	0.111	0.090	0.102	0.230**	0.241**	0.224*	0.237**	0.170*	0.177*	0.153	0.160
Industry of Employment	0.003	-0.012	-0.020	-0.004	0.143	0.121	0.133	0.115	0.114	0.099	0.088	0.106
Income	-0.001	-0.073	0.044	-0.011	0.181*	0.078	0.203*	0.136	0.069	0.010	0.093	0.056
Age	0.043	0.015	0.041	0.039	0.044	0.004	0.044	0.043	0.207*	0.184*	0.198*	0.194*
Employment Status	0.043	0.056	0.041	0.047	-0.022	-0.002	-0.023	-0.009	-0.075	-0.059	-0.073	-0.069
Organizational Commitment												
Affective Commitment		0.223*				0.321***				0.195*		
Continuance Commitment		0.037				0.040				-0.011		
Organizational Rewards												
Extrinsic Rewards			-0.235*				-0.107				-0.220*	
Intrinsic Rewards			0.216				0.087				0.292**	
Career Growth												
Career/Professional Goal Progress				0.080				0.043				0.240**
Promotion and Remuneration				-0.013				0.132				-0.106
R^2	0.012	0.055	0.047	0.018	0.071	0.158	0.077	0.092	0.075	0.106	0.126	0.117
Adjusted R^2	-0.020	0.011	0.003	-0.029	0.040	0.119	0.034	0.050	0.044	0.064	0.085	0.076
F	0.377	1.246	1.056	0.382	2.292*	4.006***	1.779	2.166*	2.439*	2.535*	3.072**	2.828**
ΔF		3.391*	2.733	0.404		7.775**	0.532	1.791		2.642	4.382*	3.590*
ΔR^2		0.043	0.035	0.005		0.088	0.007	0.022		0.032	0.051	0.043
* p < 0.05.												
** p < 0.01.												
*** p < 0.001.												

Table 5.7: Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Customer Service.

5.2.4 Customer Service and Rewards

From Table 5.7 (Models 3-3, 4-3 and 5-3), we can observe that only in the case of service ability that rewards variables provided any statistical significant contribution in explaining the variances, as can be seen from the ΔF values. The reward variables provided an additional 5% contribution in explaining for the variance in service ability. Extrinsic rewards played a stronger role in predicting role-prescribed service behaviour (beta = -0.235, $p<0.05$), whereas, intrinsic rewards demonstrated a stronger ability in predicting service ability (beta = 0.292, $p<0.05$). However, both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards did not show any statistical significance when it came to explaining extra-role service behaviour.

5.2.5 Customer Service and Career Growth

From Table 5.7 (Models 3-4, 4-4 and 5-4), we can observe that also only in the case of service ability that career growth variables provided statistical significant contribution in

explaining the variance of the dependent variable, as can be seen from the ΔF significance value. The career growth variables provided an additional 4% contribution in explaining for the variance in service ability. Moreover, it can be observed that career/professional goal progress provided a stronger statistically significant contribution in explaining the dependent variable, service ability (beta = 0.240, $p<0.01$).

5.2.6 Demographic Variables and Commitment

Looking at the correlation matrix (Table 5.5), one can observe that affective commitment had some significant relationships with the variables gender ($r = -0.16$, $p<0.05$), income ($r = 0.37$, $p<0.01$) and age ($r = 0.27$, $p<0.01$). This prompted further investigation into the manner of differences between these various groups as relates to affective commitment. An independent samples t-test is utilized to carry out comparisons on the mean scores of two separate groups of people or conditions (Pallant, 2013), and in this case, we compared the size of the difference for the variable, affective commitment for the two groups, males and females using this as a tool.

The independent samples t-test carried out showed that there were significant differences in the affective commitment scores between males ($M = 34.91$, $SD = 8.72$) and females ($M = 31.08$, $SD = 10.08$; $t(102.39) = 2.291$, $p = 0.02$). However, the magnitude of the differences in the means was very small with an effect size (eta squared value) of 0.033. According to Cohen (cited in Pallant, 2013), the eta squared value gives us information on the how much of the variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent (group) variable. The eta squared value can range from 0 to 1 and eta squared values of 0.01 can be classified as a small effect, 0.06 can be viewed as moderate, while, 0.14 can be seen as large (Pallant, 2013).

The effect size was calculated using the formula provided by Pallant (2013) and is as follows:

Eta squared = $t^2/t^2 + (N1 + N2 – 2)$.

Where, t = t-value, and N1 and N2 are the number of cases in the groups. These values were obtained in the output of the SPSS analysis.

To investigate the impact of income and age on the levels of affective commitment, one-way between-groups analyses of variance were carried out with income and age as independent variables in separate analyses. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique is used to measure the differences in mean scores in more than two groups and the one-way analysis of variance compares the mean scores of different levels of an independent variable (Pallant, 2013). I used the one-way ANOVA to compare the variances in the different age and income categories with respect to their affective commitment, which is the independent variable. From the table below, we can see that income has been separated into seven categories, while age was put into five categories.

Income (Nigerian Naira)	0 - 150,000
	151,000 - 300,000
	301,000 - 450,000
	451,000 - 600,000
	601,000 - 750,000
	751,000 - 1,000,000
	Above 1,000,000
Age (years)	Less than 20
	20 - 29
	30 - 39
	40 - 49
	50 - 59

Table 5.8: Income and Age categories.

In the case of age, there were no statistically significant differences detected between the various age categories measured. However, the one-way ANOVA showed that there was statistically significant difference at the $p<0.05$ level in affective commitment scores for four out of the seven categories of income earners ($F = 6, 150$). The post-hoc tests tells up which particular groups have significant differences in their mean scores (Pallant, 2013). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD test indicated that the affective commitment scores for income earners above 1 million naira ($M =39.19$, $SD = 7.70$) were significantly different from the income earners below 150,000 naira ($M = 28.00$, $SD = 8.55$); 151,000 to 300,000 naira ($M = 30.81$, $SD = 10.36$); and 301,000 to 450,000 naira ($M = 29.60$, $SD = 10.38$). Computing the effect size indicated a large difference in the mean scores between the various groups (eta squared = 0.16). The formula for effect size is as below:

Eta squared = Sum of squares between groups/Total sum of squares.

The values for the sum of squares between groups and total sum of squares were obtained from the output of the SPSS computation.

The means plot in Figure 5.5 below shows us the differences in the means for the various income categories. We can see from the plot that the differences in the means were quite significant, with the highest group with a mean of about 5.8 and the lowest group with mean of 4.0.

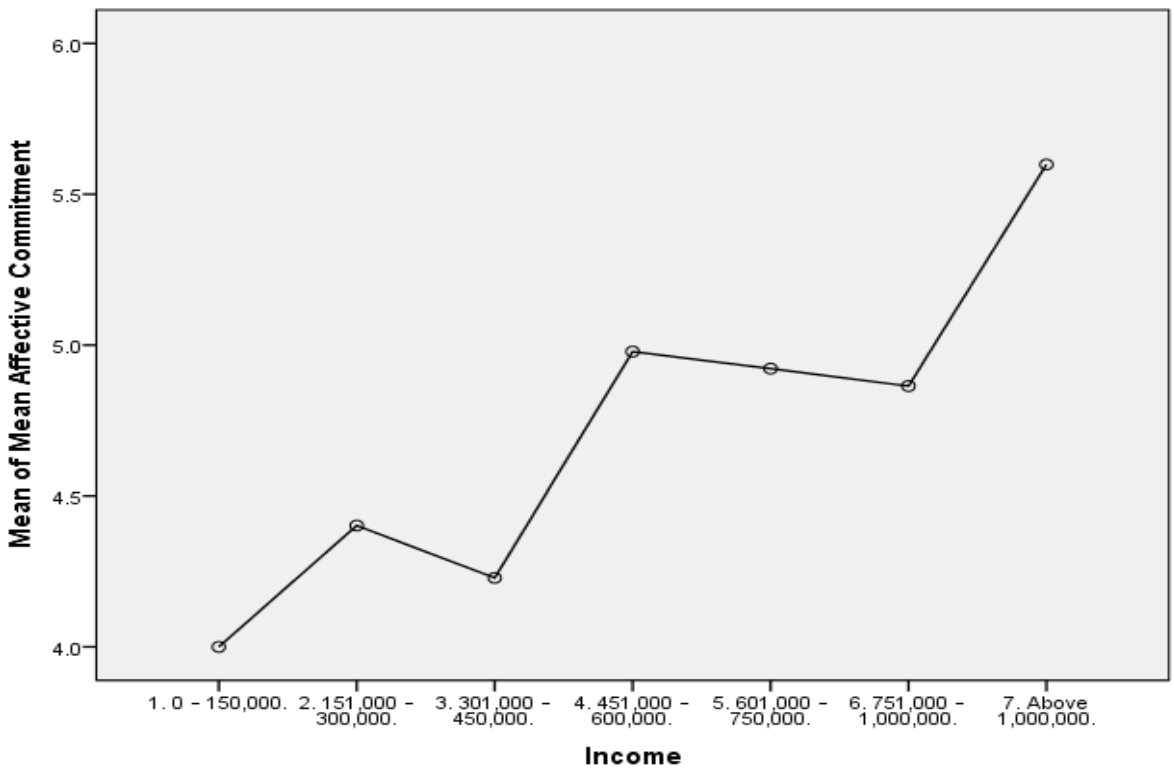

Figure 5.5: Means plot between Affective Commitment and Income.

5.2.7 Demographic Variables and Customer Service

The correlation matrix (Table 5.5) told us that some mild relationship exists between extra role service behaviour and gender ($r = 0.17$, $p<0.05$) as well as between service ability and age ($r = 0.19$, $p<0.05$) and this also prompted further investigation to explore the differences between the various groups and the service variables. Non-parametric tests were employed to compare the differences between the groups including Mann-Whitney U test (for independent variable with two groups) and Kruskal-Wallis test (for independent variable consisting of more than two groups). These tests, Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests are the non-parametric counterparts of the t-test and ANOVA test and are used when the assumption of normality is not met (Pallant, 2013), as were the cases of the customer service variables in this study.

A Mann-Whitney U test revealed statistically significant differences in the Extra-role service behaviour scores between males (Md = 6, n =98) and females (Md = 7, n = 59); U = 2331.5, z = -2.121, p = 0.03. However, the effect size, r, which can be calculated using the formula below, was found to be small (0.2).

Effect size, r = z/square root of N. Where N = total number of cases.

The z value is obtained from the output of the SPSS analysis.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was carried out to compare the differences in the service ability scores between people in different age categories. This showed no statistically significant differences in the service ability scores and age, with a Chi-square value (4, 157) of 3.20 and significance level, $p = 0.53$, which is greater than the $p<0.05$ significance requirement.

5.2.8 Common Method Variance

Common method variance according to Craighead et al (2011, p.578) is the amount of false correlation found between variables due to the repeated use of the same method in a survey to measure each variable. This is a problem identified with the use of self-reporting in gathering data (Craighead et al., 2011, Chang et al., 2010); and Podsakoff and Organ (1986) insists that the confirmation of validity does not remove the issue of common method variance bias from a research investigation.

One of the methods for checking for the presence of common method variance bias in the research is the Harman one-factor analysis, which checks if the variance in the data is mostly due to a single factor (Chang et al., 2010). This test was carried out using SPSS by checking for the percentage of variance explained by one single factor through the exploratory factor analysis method. *The percentage of variance explained by a single factor from our analysis was **26.89%** and this shows that one factor is not responsible for majority of the variance.*

5.3 Summary of Chapter

The quantitative data analysis techniques were utilized to ascertain the reliability of the scales, check for the assumption of normality and primarily to validate or empirically reject the research hypotheses.

The data analysis was carried out utilizing various techniques including:

- Exploratory factor analysis.
- Cronbach's alpha test of internal consistency.
- Correlation.
- Hierarchical multiple regression.
- T-test and One-way ANOVA.
- Mann-Whitney U test and Kruskal-Wallis test.

Some of the constructs were merged and a few items were dropped completely because of the exploratory factor analysis, and this had the effect of increasing the percentage of the variance explained the components/variables being employed. The results of the correlation and hierarchical multiple regression revealed several relationships amongst the variables being studied. The hypotheses statements, H2 and H3 were upheld indicating positive relationships between affective commitment and both intrinsic and social rewards. While, H1 was partially supported as positive links were found between extrinsic rewards and affective

commitment but not with continuance commitment. This seems to indicate that the emotional bonds grow stronger when the task environment is perceived to be favourable and when pecuniary benefits are provided. However, both the presence of favourable working environment and pecuniary benefits seem not to play any role in the desire to remain or leave the organization.

Also, hypotheses H4, H5, H6 and H7 were partially upheld as all career growth variables were found to have significant positive relationships with affective commitment but not with continuance commitment. Furthermore, partial support was found for the hypothesis, H9 as positive links were found between extra-role service behaviour and affective commitment but not with continuance commitment. However, the hypotheses H8 and H10 were rejected as no statistically significant relationships were found between affective and continuance commitment and both role-prescribed service behaviour and service ability. In addition, the analyses revealed the presence of differences between various groups of income earners in their levels of affective commitment, with higher income earners displaying more affective commitment.

Consequently, in the context of a DBA thesis, the crucial thing about this chapter is that it explained what is important about all my research findings (Deshpande, 2016; Leonard & Marquardt, 2010). The chapter also highlighted the various data found to be significant to the management of the organizational issue identified in my chapter one (introduction). This chapter is designed to influence the proposed course of action, based on the results. This is on the basis that an action-oriented research is designed not to look for a generalised truth statements but evidence-based indications of particular areas where managerial action should be taken (Chandler & Torbert, 2003). The chapter is therefore designed to show the evidence in a way that I can later use that evidence to develop a plan of action for testing (Hay, 2004; Kramer, 2007).

CHAPTER SIX

ACTION RESEARCH

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the action research component of the research investigation. This is on the premise that without action, there can be no action research (Greenwood & Levin, 2007). Action research is beneficial to this investigation as it draws out practical knowledge from practitioners whilst aiming to bring about change within the organization. Consequently, I have provided the output from the action learning set discussions I organized with manager practitioners. The aim was to urge them to champion change within their organization to improve commitment by modifying their reward/career growth systems. However, I took the route of guiding them to produce solutions through the discussions rather than imposing my own solutions. Coincidentally, the outcomes of the action learning set discussions and the quantitative research I had earlier carried out seemed to align. I have also presented some of my reflections on my experiences and feelings encountered throughout the dissertation process for the reader's enlightenment.

6.1 The Theory of Action Research

6.1.1 Definition and Background of Action Research

Action research is an approach to research that seeks to generate scientific actionable knowledge through collaboration with the stakeholders and being open to emergent and evolving issues throughout the process. Coghlan (2011, p. 54) describes the inquiry process as emergent i.e. knowledge is being unearthed as the inquiry process develops and AR integrates scientific knowledge with organizational or practical knowledge to solve real problems. Therefore, the adoption of action research in my research was to seek multiple outcomes including: helping our managers (participants) to develop competencies to resolve their problems themselves; bringing organizational change; developing scientific and actionable knowledge (Coghlan, 2011).

This chapter is therefore premised on the assumption that action research is carried out with people rather than on or for them (Coghlan, 2011). This implies that action research does not adopt a detached observer approach but rather the action researcher immerses himself or herself into the research environment or subject. Importantly, I do not necessarily ascribe to myself the position of an expert studying ordinary people but rather those involved in the research environment are seen as experts and that is why their views are critical to uncovering knowledge about the topic of inquiry, hence, they are held as 'co-researchers' (Coghlan, 2011).

However, I ensured my immersion in the research environment does not taint the research by continuously conducting reflection on my biases, assumptions, words and actions, during the

course of this research. This was done in the context of Coghlan's opinion that action research should involve looping cycles of identifying a problem, planning, acting and evaluating (2011). Consequently, at every stage, I carried out reflection of what has transpired and my role and what affects perceptions. This is just my way of providing transparency to the research and that adds to the validity of this research.

6.2 Action Modalities

There are several approaches to action research and these are also referred to as action modalities. These modalities include: action science, clinical inquiry, appreciative inquiry, action learning, cooperative inquiry and reflective practice (Marshall, 1999, Coghlan & Brannick, 2010, Greenwood & Levin, 2007). They often differ in their specific approaches to conducting research but still have several important traits or objectives in common. The various action modalities comprise of various techniques and methodologies distinguished mostly by their originating disciplines.

6.3 Action Learning Set Discussions

6.3.1 Context

6.3.1.1 Venue

The learning sessions took place in the conference room of a company owned by an acquaintance who graciously loaned me the space to use for free for the duration of the action learning sessions. Three action learning sessions were held in the same venue and each having duration of about three hours each. The conference room was free of interruptions and seemed quite conducive as the participants reported they felt comfortable in this venue.

6.3.1.2 Participants

There were a total of seven participants that started the action learning session, however, one person did not attend the last two sessions, after participating in the first session. The participants were from different sectors but all providing service to their clients and they were either business owners or managers in their respective organizations. Below is description of each participant and each has been given fictitious names to protect their identity.

Participant A: Tonye is a managing partner in a law firm that has two other senior partners, one of them is his father, who started the firm and previously ran the firm as a sole proprietorship. Tonye, who previously worked in another law firm, was brought in to modernize the firm and make it more effective in a financial sense.

Participant B: Victor owns and manages a laundry and dry-cleaning outfit. He previously managed another laundry before starting his own company in a different part of town. Unfortunately, Victor only attended the first action learning session.

Participant C: Felix is also an entrepreneur. He owns and manages a company that does purification of water supply systems in residential homes and companies. He recently completed a course in marketing/sales and is trying to position himself as a sales consultant to other businesses.

Participant D: Obinna co-owns a barbing salon. He and his partner had initially intended to open a chain of barbing salons but decided to start with one salon as a learning ground before investing in other outlets.

Participant E: Noah owns a mid-sized hotel and a construction company. He also manages a second hotel on behalf of his family.

Participant F: Chima is an accounts manager in a government agency. His organization has the responsibility of developing a new city that is adjacent to the existing city.

Participant G: Nkeoma is a manager of a plastic (pre-forms) manufacturing plant. She was the only participant not currently in the service sector and brought a fresh perspective to issues from her previous working experience as a consultant and business management trainer.

The participants were chosen for this action research for the following reasons:

- They all worked or operated in the service sector apart from Nkeoma, whose present job was managing a manufacturing outfit but had previously run a management training company.
- They all held senior positions in their organizations and hence, had the capacity or mandate to take action that could bring about change in their organizations.
- The all worked with other people either as subordinates, partners or bosses and could provide first-hand experience on how commitment affects work in the organization.

6.3.2 Data Collection

The action learning discussions were held in three sessions with participants taking time to discuss real problems they were facing in their organizations and responding to questions or listening to suggestions from other participants. At the start of the programme, we agreed that for the first session, participants would present their problems and respond to questions from other participants regarding their problems and the context of these issues. For the first session, solutions would not be proffered in order to understand the depth and intricacies surrounding the issue being presented. This rule was generally adhered to and participants

deviating from this agreement were reminded by other participants and the facilitator (me). At the end of the first session, assignments were given to the participants and these included: asking subordinates what they disliked about their leadership styles, reflecting on their individual contributions to their problems and writing down plans/steps for action to resolve the problems at hand.

During the second session, the feedback from the assignments were received and presented by the participants and questions, criticisms as well as proposed solutions were given by other participants or 'comrades in adversity'. At the end of the session, each participant committed to taking a specified course of action towards solving their peculiar problems.

At the third session, each participant reported back on the steps taken to resolve their organizational issues and the responses from their organizational members. Each participant also reflected on the personal feelings and what they learned by taking the actions. During the session, the other participants critiqued the actions taken and also shared words of encouragement, praise or proposed further solutions to their colleagues in the learning set.

6.3.3 Analysis of Data

The three recorded sessions had duration of over nine hours and were transcribed into text. After which, with the aid of the analysis software NVivo, the data was categorized into themes and analysed.

Some of the themes (or nodes in NVivo) were pre-set based on the research area such as: Commitment, Career growth and Rewards. However, some themes emerged as I analysed the data from the action learning sessions and these included: Bringing Change, Discipline and Communication. These themes are discussed in the next sections.

6.3.3.1 Organizational Commitment

The participants viewed commitment as the desire of employees to put in effort with respect to their assigned duties. Various terms were used to describe commitment during the discussions and these include: "sense of ownership", "sense of belonging" and "motivation".

Below is the description one of the participants, Tonye, a managing partner in a law firm provided as his understanding of commitment:

"My understanding of the subject is that organizational commitment means commitment or sense of belonging an employee has towards the organization they work for and depending on the sector you are, different people have different feelings about commitment."

This definition from a practitioner is not too far from some of those found in the extant theory such the definition provided by Faisal and Al-Esmael that described commitment as how strong individuals identify and are involved with their organizations (2014). Although the

" But in Nigeria, as soon as you finish law school, you're just seen as a lawyer and you have to start bringing in money. Most of them become half-baked as they are focused on surviving and becomes difficult to get them focused on one firm, to make them stay in the firm".

definitions from the action learning member seems to cater mostly for the emotional or affectional component of commitment ignoring other instrumental aspects, however, the importance of the instrumental or continuance factors are not completely discountenanced. According to Tonye, the legal profession in Nigeria leaves little ample time for tutelage and from early on in their careers, young lawyers in Nigeria are expected fend for themselves by bringing in clients and this affects their commitment to their firms.

This implies that when provision is made for the material benefits, employees will take their time to learn the rudiments and form stronger bonds to the organization.

Another participant, Chima, who is an accountant, identified the lack of a well communicated vision as a primary factor in the negative turn with regards to commitment in his organization.

"But presently, we are in a system where there's no vision and if the goals of an organization are not clearly defined from top to bottom, that organization can never function well".

The impact of communication is discussed in subsequent sections as a theme that emerged during the process of analysing the data.

6.3.3.1.1 Consequences of Low Commitment Levels

Most participants cited a lack or low level of commitment from their employees as a cause of negligence and high employee turnover in their organizations as well as other negative organizational citizenship behaviours. It is important to note that links have previously been proposed between organization commitment on one hand and on the other hand, turnover and organizational citizenship behaviours (Chang, 1999; Guay et al., 2015). The views from the practitioners put real world meanings to these connections in terms of what the practical costs are and frustrations felt.

6.3.3.1.2 Employee Turnover

Several participants presented high employee turnover as a real problem in their organization and this was one of the issues discussed and actions taken to resolve the problem. High turnover impacts on the organization in different ways including: time spent in training new employees, time spent for new employees to understand the culture of the organization. Below we can see what the participants who are all practitioners had to say about this.

> ***TONYE:*** *"It affects for instance, if there is high turnover, you find that when someone comes in, you have to teach the person especially if they are new members of the bar, you have to teach afresh. Even if they are old members, you know every organization has its particular culture and you have to teach how to interact with the client and what to do at a particular point in time".*
>
> ***VINCENT:*** *"Yes. Like the earlier person said, every six months you are training staff or every six months somebody is understudying another, at every point in time".*
>
> ***NOAH:*** *"This January I'm discussing with a team, by March twenty percent of the team is gone and by July the same thing re-occurs".*

In addition to the time spent on blending new employees frequently, the issue of finance was also highlighted by participants and these included monies expended in correcting mistakes made by rookies and funds spent on training new employees. The financial impact felt by practitioners can be gleaned from the exchanges with Tonye, the managing partner in a law firm.

TONYE: *"Within the partners, if it's having a financial implication then it's definitely a problem to all of us. We have to dedicate one way or the other, time. We have to cope with their mistakes. It's definitely going to be an issue".*

Moreover, high turnover leaves a shortage of people that use their initiative because new employees are either not knowledgeable or confident enough to tackle problems on their own. Furthermore, high turnover has an impact on the client as clients feel uncomfortable when they have to deal with different sets of people every other time.

TONYE: *"The other partner is someone that grew in the business and is senior to me but it's also a problem to him because in our profession, we prefer people to be more independent, to use their initiatives to tackle issues. Only when they become too complicated we need to come together and resolve the problem but simple problems, you should know what to do."*

FELIX: *"It's a problem because there are people used to this set of people coming to their house and later you're not seeing them, privacy and all that. So it's a problem."*

6.3.3.1.3 Negligence and Negative Organizational Citizenship Behaviours

The participants also identified negative behaviours in the workplace because of low organization commitment and these behaviours include: neglect of company property, low levels of extra-role work behaviours, absenteeism, truancy and other negative citizenship behaviours. Noah, a hotel owner-manager decried the lack of sense of ownership by his employees and the impact of this behaviour reflects not only financially but even in the wellbeing of the hotel itself.

NOAH: *"Two, the second issue is sense of ownership after employment. You have a team, you motivate as much as possible, you lead as much as possible, of course with your own flaws but staff tend not to have that sense of ownership where people don't see company property as their property. A typical example is the high electricity bills in our hotel. Because of that I gave a directive that when guests are not around in the rooms and public areas, AC's (Air conditioners) should be switched off, if there are 2 (ACs) in the reception, one can be switched off. Besides that, there is a safety aspect or concern in it. Last year, one of our rooms got burnt, in fact the fire service had to be called to put off the fire. Why, because the AC had been on for a very long time and nobody put it off".*

Vincent, a laundry shop owner, also described the impact of such negligence on the clients and the service that is meant to be provided to the customers:

"The second problem is people don't take things seriously. Someone brings his clothes, you just drop it carelessly. You see someone stains someone's clothes and hides it and nobody admits."

The group discussed several options in solving the problems of low commitment levels including: creating career paths for employees and improving communication between management and employees. These are discussed in the succeeding sections.

6.3.3.2 Career Growth

The participants in the action learning group all agreed that creating a sense of prospects in the organization is a likely solution to improving commitment. Some participants went ahead to articulate a career growth plan for their employees, spurred by the interactions in the action learning group. It is interesting that a group of executives proffer the opinion that career growth would improve commitment, when theorists have argued that employees expect their management to provide career development assistance and this should boost the employees' commitment levels (Jans, 1989; Weng et al., 2010). It becomes a puzzle to understand why more entrepreneurs and organizations do not pay close attention to career development if both executives and employees agree that this inspires motivation and commitment. Probably this could boil down to failure in communication especially in a bi-directional sense.

There were two ways participants put forward in which organizations can create a sense of prospects for its employees. The first was by creating a path to participate in the ownership of the organization. Tonye, the managing partner in his family-owned law firm, talked about this as a solution to inspire commitment in young lawyers as well as to attract certain types of clientele.

"Legal firms now are evolving, it's no longer a one-man business. Even there are certain clients that will not brief you, if you don't have a partnership structure. The new crop of lawyers are looking to form partnerships and hence encouraging young lawyers to grow and see a future for themselves and be committed".

However, the other group members, who were mostly entrepreneurs, approached career growth differently i.e. in the form of creating a growth path for promotion and increase in salaries. Because of the action learning discussion, some members resolved to articulate a career progression document for their organizations, while others who already had committed to fine-tuning and implementing the process.

NOAH: *"if we can create some kind of a... a career path, where you can come in as a house-keeper; you came come in as a cleaner; you can come in as a waiter but there's some kind of promotion, you have a future here...if you can create those kind of a... career path, I think people will stay longer"*.

NKEOMA: *...yes! We somehow have the same problem, so when you talked about – I said well, this career path will eventually work... yeah! Because it creates a sense of purpose – you know where you're going...within and you know that sense of security. So to... the career path thing, I think it will work very well here. It's easy to create that... it's step-step that this is where you're going to...*

so for the career path, I don't want to do something different from what we have, I want it to blend to with what we have and what we have is, we already have a pay scheme".

6.3.3.3 Rewards

Closely linked with the issue of career growth is the concept of Rewards. The action learning participants acknowledged the role of rewards in boosting the commitment of employees and rewards were seen to be both financial and non-financial in nature.

TONYE: *"For you to be committed there needs to be some sort of rewards, which doesn't necessarily have to be financial. It could be the presence of opportunities that the employee could be exposed to."*

OBINNA: *"We were thinking of the relationship between rewards and recognition and how it ties into achieving our goals. Okay rewards, we don't have a lot of money and we don't want people to start thinking about money because that really fades quickly, I mean the effect of giving people money."*

The theory on organization rewards also attempts to explain the possibility of negative response to financial rewards just as Obinna highlighted in the quote above. The overjustification effect argues that when extrinsic rewards are introduced for behaviours that were previously performed due to intrinsic motivation, the individuals involved tend to ascribe the behaviour to the extrinsic rewards and if that is withdrawn, motivation also dwindles (Cameron and Pierce, 1994).

It was interesting to observe that these managers were willing to introduce financial rewards even though they realized that this will increase their operational costs but most were convinced that it would improve profitability in the long run.

CHIMA: *"You see that small addition you give to your staff, it means so much to the staff because they look forward to that thing from like October. Like you said it's going to alter the payroll a bit but I don't think, what you get from that is a lot more than the alteration of the payroll in terms of financial figures, talking about say two hundred thousand naira tops for a number of staffs. But the benefits are immense, you cannot quantify it because at the end of the day, you ask yourself this question, if I and this person working in this place, why would I want to be committed to here? What is this organization doing for me?"*

6.3.3.4 Emergent Themes

In addition to the themes I set about exploring while analyzing the sessions, other themes sprung out from the action learning discussions and these were instructive and offered a lot to learn from coming from managers in practice. I have tried to tag these themes with labels that came to mind as they were emerging from the transcribed text. The emergent themes/nodes include: Bringing Change/Resistance to Change, Discipline and Communication.

6.3.3.4.1 Bringing Change/Resistance to Change

A common challenge that almost all the participants in the action learning group was the difficulty in dealing with change both internally from a personal point of view and externally in the sense of implementing and bringing others on board to accept changes. All organizations must go through changes one time or the other and these could be forced or planned changes. Often times the environment forces the organization to alter the way they operate in order for them to survive. Tonye, the managing partner, felt this was the case for his law firm. In the past his father, the founding partner of the firm had run the firm like a sole-proprietorship until he decided to bring in partners into the firm and these included Tonye and another senior partner, who had worked in the firm for a long time. Tonye was of the opinion that if the firm was to move forward it should have a true partnership structure rather than just seem like one because of its name.

TONYE: *"Depending on the structure of the firm, some firms you have the avenue to grow to become a partner, while some there is no structure like that. It used to be like that before in my firm but I'm trying to change this. Whereby, if you've worked for the firm for a period of time and you're bringing in clients and funds for the firm, you should have a stake in the future of how the firm grows. Legal firms now are evolving, it's no longer a one-man business. Even there are certain clients that will not brief you, if you don't have a partnership structure".*

The environment in which modern law firms find themselves demand the partnership structure according to Tonye, firstly, to attract and retain talent, firms have to create a pathway from being an associate to being a partner. Secondly, the bigger and attractive clients are demanding firms have partnership structures to ensure stability. However, Tonye faces resistance to his proposed change and in his case, this doesn't come from disagreement but from difficulty to change old ways. In his case, the founding partner who happens to be his father is very used to running a law firm in his own way.

TONYE: *"Yeah! You see why my own kind of situation is different is that I might have lots of ideas but if I cannot find a way of convincing the chairman to go along that path, no matter how lofty my ideas are, it will just remain there, till the guy who is fully in charge or find a way of doing it, you know these old men are set in their ways, so it might take a while for you to be able to convince them, sometime they say you are too fast meanwhile they don't realize this is the trend this is probably how to go".*

Apart from resistance from the top, Tonye also faces resistance from below in his bid to

modernise the firm. The associates and non-legal staff members also find themselves confronted with a new system and put up resistances in the face of change.

TONYE: *"The resistance could also come from the staff themselves. For instance, I was working somewhere else before I joined the firm and he had people working with him before I joined and they were more comfortable with the way he was running the firm because probably he was more liberal, he gave them more latitude. He wasn't there a lot, so he never knew the day to day issues arising. So they had more liberties to do what they wanted. So when a person comes and sees the problems in the office on a day to day basis, they're not use to much supervision. Everybody likes that liberty, when they can come in ten o'clock, twelve o'clock probably because my dad has traveled and they're not in court, why do they have to report to anybody. They're used to that unstructured regime. So when you come and start trying to put things back to perspective, you hear "this guy is too strict". You now find resistance from them and even other ad-hoc staff, even down to the receptionist".*

The action learning group advised Tonye to look for small wins that are demonstrable rather than try to push for wholesale changes, especially when trying to convince his father, the law firm's founding partner.

6.3.3.4.2 Communication

Another major issue that was observed during the action learning sessions was the failure in communication as a cause of most of the problems the managers were having in their organizations. After the first session, I gave an assignment to all the participants asking them to get feedback from their employees or subordinates about what they felt about their management style. Those who carried out the assignment had a common response from their subordinates, which was their inability to communicate properly with their staff members.

OBINNA: *"Well to break it down – you see, emm... that, the guy I'm interviewing; he said, "no"; he doesn't have any problem with me; no problem. I said ok, if you don't have any problem with me, snitch on the other guy, what problem does the guy have and he says emm... that the guy just... Alex will be complaining that emm... When they bring emm.... Ideas, I don't listen to them".*

The conversation above was described by Obinna as occurring between him and one of his

barbers. This barber was afraid to speak his mind, so Obinna asked his what his fellow barber says of his, Obinna's, style of management.

The feedback from Nkeoma, Tonye and Felix was similar to Obinna in terms of communication.

NKEOMA: *"So it's just the same thing I'm seeing here because the three complains: the first one is that I'm too soft; the second one is I'm focused on methods and the third one is I'm not open to suggestions".*

FELIX: *"ok, my-my people said I don't take people opinion; I don't take their opinion".*

TONYE: *"Well, the summary of what we are saying is there was lack of tem spirit, they felt probably I wasn't carry them along and they don't understand what is happening in the business".*

This was an eye-opener for most of the participants and they resolved to be more inclusive and communicate better with their subordinates. The act of seeking feedback from subordinates was quite difficult for the action learning members and it was clear that this is something most managers are not used but this itself was an action taken in the context of action learning, as this revealed other problems in their organization they previously were not aware of.

6.3.3.4.3 Discipline

Another problem that was revealed during the sessions and a few of the participants admitted there was a lack of discipline as managers of businesses. This lack of discipline could be in the form of not putting in the required amount of time and effort the business needs or poor financial discipline. Obinna admitted to the failure of his partner and he to put in enough time to oversee their budding barbing salon business and this neglect resulted in a myriad of other problems.

OBINNA: *"I think there was dishonesty but let me start from us the managers, we didn't give it enough, the kind of time we wanted... No, we were lazy. That's the reason, it's true".*

Whereas Felix admitted to his inability to restrain himself from dipping his hands into the company's accounts to solve personal problem and he was confronted with this when he

asked his subordinates for feedback on his management style.

FELIX: *"One other one said I have poor finance management; once there's money, I want to take the money and chew it".*

6.3.4 Outcomes from the Action Learning Sessions – "Fresh Fire"

The action learning session yielded some practical outcomes for the managers/entrepreneurs involved as well as profound learning not only for the practitioners but also for me, as the facilitator and researcher. Some new insights were revealed and bold decisions taken spurred by the encouragement, prodding and observations from the action learning group members. Chima the accountant, who was unhappy in his current work place during the course of the sessions, decided to pursue his own practice alongside some partners and the excitement coming from Chima was quite palpable.

CHIMA: *"like I said to you now ehn! I'm just ehmm... ehmm... me and my partner had a long discussion, and then we decided to take our small firm more seriously now...*

So much! Let me say the major one. I'm a much happier person now, I was, let me say wallowing in self-pity and not ready to take this step but now I'm very excited about a whole lot of things."

From the quotes above, we can have a sense of the relief and joy coming from Chima because of being pushed to action. His mood was infectious and this led to a round of congratulations coming from his other learning set members, who still warned him of the pitfalls of venturing into entrepreneurship.

NKEOMA*: "this whole process we've done for this past two weeks I feel that you're the biggest beneficiary because we've shared our problems, you've heard the solutions to the problem. When you come in here you were saying management is this, management is that but now you are management and you'll face management problems".*

Felix also shared his shift in mood as a consequence of his participation in the learning sets. He had wanted to abandon how he was operating his business but the interactions within the

learning set literally gave him a kick and new ideas about his business.

***FELIX**: "I feel really good about it. It has given me hmmm before this meeting started, I was supposed to move to Abuja to set up. I had a discussion with Noah then I went back home to rearrange myself and I postponed the Abuja thing and now started thinking maybe I actually wanted to run from Port Harcourt".*

***FELIX**: "Yes! That is the interesting part. The fresh fire. That I'm now willing to even delve into a lot bigger things".*

The feelings expressed by the participants, Felix and Chima, to me represent and fulfill the emancipatory potential of action learning. Action learning and action research according to Zuber-Skerritt (2001) aims to understand, improve or change a specific situation whereby the participants of the research are the beneficiaries and are affected by the results and solutions developed from the inquiry. It was also interesting to note that both Chima and Felix decided on a course of action and implemented some of the steps during the action learning process and they felt very inspired by this.

I organized a final action learning session after reviewing the initial sessions and the existing literature, to provide some recommendations that would assist the participants in resolving the problems they presented. The summary of this session is provided in Chapter Eight (Recommendations).

6.4 Summary of Chapter

In this chapter, I have focused on action research as a family of modalities sharing similar research goals and characteristics with the final intention to generate actionable knowledge. Action research generates emergent theory and insists on reflection throughout the process of research to understand not only what is going on around the research environment but also to probe the researcher's own biases that affect his or her interpretation of what is being observed (Kramer, 2007; Leonard & Marquardt, 2010). Furthermore, action research is rigorous in the scientific sense, although assumes a different approach to traditional positivist philosophy by embracing participants as co-generators of knowledge and collaborators in research. Action research as mentioned previously serves as a general term for a family of modalities or approaches including: action science, cooperative inquiry, reflective practice and action learning amongst others.

The chapter also provides the action learning steps I carried out, most importantly the outcomes from the action learning discussion sets. These sessions yielded very rich knowledge coming from first hand experiences from managers in the field, who shared their

real problems, received criticisms, suggestions and encouragement from one another and inspired new learning.

This chapter therefore supports and compliments the link between my proposed course of action and the data gathered in this research. It simply justified and explained why the "actions" are based on the research and reading that I have done. The chapter is a further research to "test" my action ideas (Kramer, 2007; Leonard & Marquardt, 2010). It is also an attempt to use data from my research to influence important gatekeepers (Kramer, 2007). According to Deshpande (2016), it is important to take my ideas to senior or lower level managers to test if they will initiate my proposed course of action, based on the level of persuasion by my data. The output of the sessions is evidence, attesting to the validity of my critical review of the literature and research-based plans in my organisation, and by extension, other similar organisations in the Nigerian context (Leonard & Marquardt, 2010).

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

7.0 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the results of the research vis-à-vis the findings of previous research works on the various aspects of the subjects of organizational commitment, organizational rewards, career growth and customer service. The relationships between organizational commitment and organizational rewards, career growth and customer service are extensively discussed within the chapter. The influence of demographic factors, such as gender and income levels, in determining both organizational commitment and customer service are also presented. Furthermore, the implications of the research findings are presented herein. The need to provide both tangible and intangible tools and rewards for the employee to inspire commitment is highlighted considering the impact of commitment on performance in terms of customer service provision to the customer.

7.1 Organizational Commitment and Rewards

7.1.1 Affective Commitment

This research found that affective commitment levels were strongly influenced by intrinsic rewards, which is in line with extant research carried out on the topics of commitment and rewards (Malhotra, Budhwar and Prowse, 2007; Allen and Meyer, 1990; Newman and Sheikh, 2012; Tang et al., 2014, Nazir et al, 2016, Ajmal et al., 2015). Among the intrinsic commitment variables, Role clarity was found to have the strongest influence on commitment followed by Feedback and then Participation, this shows that employees appreciate unambiguous information and constant communication from their superiors and management regarding their job functions. Other intrinsic reward variables such as: Supervision, Team Support and Autonomy were also found to play significant roles determining Affective commitment. This aligns with previous research by Allen and Meyer (1990) that found strong relationships between affective commitment and intrinsic reward factors such as participation, feedback, role clarity and job challenge. Newman & Sheikh (2012) also found similar relationships between affective commitment and rewards but they asserted that significant links were absent between support from colleagues, autonomy and affective commitment. However, in the case of this research, strong links were found between support from colleagues, autonomy and affective commitment.

This was further supported in the action learning set discussions, were one of the points repeated was the influence of support and behaviour of colleagues on an individual's level of commitment to his or her organization.

It appears that this finding is in tandem with the theories of empowerment, perceived organizational support and intrinsic motivation. According to Raub & Robert (2012), empowerment involves delegating authority and increasing autonomy, whereas perceived organizational support is characterized by perception of provision of job related and socio-emotional support from management to employees (Daskin et al., 2013). These can be likened to provision of intrinsic rewards such as autonomy, role clarity, supervisory and team support and prior research has also argued that when employees feel empowered and perceive organizational support they are more likely to identify with the organization and embrace the goals and values of the organization (He et al., 2011, Nayir, 2012, Raub & Robert, 2012).

Another important factor that was constantly mentioned during the learning set sessions was that of supervisor/managerial support (He, et al., 2011; Kang et al., 2015). Participants insisted that the support from management in the form of providing the tools to carry out tasks and creating a conducive environment for work greatly affects commitment levels. Furthermore, management response to issues such as misbehaving colleagues was seen as an important influencer for commitment. This was consistent with the findings of He, et al (2011), which posited that both managerial and co-worker support as well as role clarity have positive effects on affective commitment. It can be inferred from this investigation that Nigerian workers in the service sectors value interpersonal relationships from both their superiors and colleagues, and these relationships should demonstrate fairness, appreciation, concern and understanding for individuals in the workplace just as He, et al. (2011) found with Chinese workers.

Extrinsic rewards were also found to provide significant contributions in predicting affective commitment with 'Pay satisfaction' showing the strongest influence over other factors, which included: Working conditions, Fringe benefits and Training. This contradicted some of the earlier research that argued against extrinsic rewards significantly influencing affective commitment (Malhotra et al., 2007). However, there is still support from existing academic research which has found strong relationships between extrinsic rewards and affective commitment (Miao et al., 2013; Mottaz, 1988). This is not surprising, considering this research was carried out in an environment of difficult economic conditions. Hence, extrinsic benefits take on added significance and are likely to take on affective meanings for the worker. An additional explanation can be borrowed from Faisal et al (2014), who assert that individuals pay attention to the distribution of organizational resources as an indication of how fairly they are being treated and how valuable they are to the organization. If individuals are not satisfied with the level of extrinsic rewards they get from their organizations, they are likely to consequently perceive they are not valued by their management and hence, no longer embrace the goals and vision of that organization, thereby, resulting in diminished affective commitment levels.

These findings were similar to the learning outcomes from the action learning sessions I organized. The executives that participated argued that extrinsic rewards inspired greater commitment from employees even though it may increase operational cost but in the long run, according to the participants, profitability alongside morale is boosted significantly.

7.1.2 Continuance Commitment

Statistical significant relationships were not found between Continuance commitment and both Intrinsic and Extrinsic rewards except for a moderate link with 'Fringe benefits', which aligned with the findings from Miao et al (2013) with Chinese workers. Research carried out by Allen & Meyer (1990) also did not find significant relationships between continuance commitment and reward factors. However, these findings contradicted the work of Newman & Sheikh (2012) which found strong links between continuance commitment and extrinsic rewards with Chinese workers. The findings of my research imply that workers seriously consider the availability of fringe benefits when deciding to remain or leave their organizations, as they would not want to lose such benefits like housing and health insurance. Although, pay in the Nigerian service sector is not generally high, hence, when an employer provides additional fringe benefits alongside, this offers more attractive reasons to maintain membership of that organization.

The absence of significant links between continuance commitment and rewards might not be all that surprising considering the poor levels of compensation to service employees. Daskin et al. (2013) argued that front-line employees are poorly paid, receive little training and are overworked especially in developing countries. Hence, pay and other extrinsic rewards might not be considering factors in deciding to leave or remain in their organizations.

Although, the action learning participants, who were all senior executives in their organization, admitted that extrinsic rewards influence commitment especially through turnover, they however, insist that pay and other extrinsic rewards have their limits and that up to a point, pay no longer is a motivating factor. Rather, the term mostly used by these managers and entrepreneurs was "sense of belonging". According to the participants, it is more effective to engender a sense of belonging amongst one's employees when it comes to ensuring that your best workers remain in the organization.

7.2 Organizational Commitment and Career Growth

Affective commitment displayed strong relationships with all forms of Career growth, which was consistent with the works of Weng, et al (2010) and Wang, et al (2014). This implies that employees adopt the goals and values of the organization when their individuals career/professional goals and expectations are being met by the management. These sets of findings can be justified with existing theories such as social exchange and psychological contract. It can be argued that when individuals perceive their management are making input to enhance their careers in the forms of professional ability development, promotion, growth in remuneration, career tracking and placements, the employees or individuals are likely to embrace and adopt the organizational goals and identify with the vision of the organization, hence increasing affective commitment (Sturges, et al., 2005; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gould-Williams, 2007). Wang et al. (2014) further argued, using the organization self-esteem

and psychological attachment theories, that when employee enjoy success in an organization in terms of their career growth, they obtain a greater sense of value to the organization and become more psychologically attached and are therefore more committed to that organization.

However, no significant links were observed between continuance commitment and any of the career growth variables. This finding contradicted with the existing research that contend that workers will be willing to remain in their organizations as long as they feel their long-term career prospects will be favorable even if they feel short-term dissaffection (Jans, 1989, Weng, et al., 2010). This disconnect between career growth and continuance commitment could be as a result of similar career growth opportunities across the various independent service industries. This implies that leaving one organization does not mean similar benefits cannot be obtained in other organizations. Furthermore, we can consider the arguments of Weng et al (2010) that contend that individuals might see their professional skills as transferrable to other organizations and the presence of development opportunities within the organization might only be viewed as normal business or their due rights as workers, hence, the workers would not feel the compulsion to remain with their current organizations, thus, nullifying the influence of continuance commitment.

The presence of career paths was the most important factor for inspiring commitment to the organization, according to the executives that participated in the action learning sessions I carried out. By creating a career path in the organization, the participants insisted that their workers would be able to clearly have a sense of future and belonging within the organization. Even though, one of the participants felt the best way career growth can influence commitment is by creating a path to co-ownership, others proposed creating a path for promotion and salary increase based on performance.

7.3 Customer Service and Organizational Commitment

Three customer service variables were investigated: Role-prescribed Service behavior, Extra-role service behavior and Service ability and out of three only extra-role service ability demonstrated moderate relationship with affective commitment. None of the customer service variables showed any links with continuance commitment. This is an important finding because it shows that although moderate, organizational commitment, albeit from the affective angle, does have an impact on performance, which in this case is measured by service to the customer. However, the impact is not as pronounced as reported in other research works (Balfour and Wechsler, 1991; Angle and Perry, 1981), especially in service-provision. The findings of the current research also contradict the work of Balfour & Wechsler (1991) that found little evidence to support the relationship between affective organizational commitment and both in-role and extra-role performance behaviour. Although, these researchers found negative relationships between continuance (compliance) commitment and in-role and extra-role performance behaviours whereas my investigations

found somewhat of the converse relationship i.e. ties were found between extra-role behaviour and affective commitment and not continuance commitment.

However, my research finding does find support from previous works (Malhotra et al., 2012; Raub and Robert, 2012; Wu and Liu., 2014) which assert that organizational commitment encourages discretionary behavior on the part of workers once we consider the observed links between commitment and extra-role service behavior. Wang et al's (2014) research also supports the present findings by suggesting an emotional link between organizational commitment and discretionary efforts, which in their study was represented by voice behaviour. Wu and Liu (2014) contend organizational commitment influences discretionary behaviour and that even in the event of lower perceived support from the management, organizational commitment acts as a mediator for organizational citizenship behaviour.

The action learning participants also linked customer service to organizational commitment. According to the participants, commitment is often reflected in a 'sense of ownership' displayed by individual employees and this affects how they take care of company property and how they treat the costumers of the organization. According to the participants, the management should be able to apply the right balance of rewards and punishment, create a path for growth within the organization and successfully articulate a vision for the organization to inspire positive organizational citizenship behaviours, which translate to greater customer service.

7.4 Customer Service and Organizational Rewards

The research found that organizational rewards had statistical significant influence over only one of the customer service variables, which was service ability. The research found that intrinsic rewards played a stronger role in determining the service ability levels of individual workers compared to extrinsic rewards. This contradicted previous research that posited that because of the laws of reciprocity, individuals are expected to act in more discretionary ways when they are satisfied with the rewards from their organizations (Wang et al., 2014; Tsaur and Lin, 2004; Wu and Liu., 2014). Hence, it was expected that a stronger relationship would be found between rewards and extra-role service behaviour. This could be that the service organizations in Nigeria provide rewards for more adept or skilful individuals and those workers perceive they are receiving their just dues for their level of ability and do not necessarily have to go above and beyond their prescribed roles. Gould-Williams (2007) asserted that workers reciprocate based on their assessment of the value of the exchange, hence, the amount of discretionary effort put in by employees depends on whether they view rewards from the organization as high or low in value. We can also utilize Cropanzano & Mitchell's explanation of reciprocity based on interdependence to buttress this point (2005). According to these authors, reciprocity should be mutual and complementary and is not dependent on explicit bargaining but rather tacit and contingent on behaviours of both parties (Cropanzanon and Mitchell, 2005). This indicates that majority of workers in the Nigerian service sector view exchanges between themselves and their management as low in value.

Another reason could be that the influence of rewards is just not as pronounced because of their ties to the prevailing macro-economic conditions, which translate to the economic conditions of the organizations (Wang et al., 2014). What this implies is that the general fortunes of the Nigerian service companies are not too bright especially as the country finds itself in a recession (http://www.vanguardngr.com/2016/07/nigeria-in-recession-presently-in-tough-place-adeosun/) with its main source of revenue, crude oil, taking a tumble in its prices as an international commodity. This has led to cut backs in both government and private spending, which has affected the service sector. The effect of these cutbacks on customer service and rewards can be viewed from the perspective of the over justification hypothesis (Cameron & Pierce, 1994). This theory posits that when external rewards are administered for behaviours that were previously driven intrinsically, the performance based on such behaviours tend to diminish when the external rewards are withdrawn (Cameron & Pierce, 1994). This is because the concerned individuals ascribe their previously intrinsically motivated behaviour to the introduction of the external rewards i.e. because of the presence of multiple potential factors with regards to their performance, they tend to over justify their behaviour (Cameron & Pierce, 1994).

7.5 Customer Service and Career Growth

The research found that career growth factors influenced the service ability of employees but had no effect on role-prescribed or extra-role service behaviours. This tells us that employees, who feel that their career prospects are moving in the right trajectory, also acquire the right skills for serving the organization's customers or they feel they are properly skilled for this. These requisite skills are either acquired through the aid of the organization or self-acquired by the workers, but it is important that individuals to identify a relationship between having the right skills and improvements in career prospects.

It was expected that career growth would have strong influence over extra-role service behavior to support the argument of Wang et al (2014), who asserted that individuals are expected to be more proactive in the workplace when they are satisfied with their career prospects, but this link was not found in my research. Gould-Williams (2007) using the social exchange theory, posited that negative exchanges lead to reduction in discretionary effort, but it should be expected that career growth factors such as promotion and professional ability development should be seen as positive developments. However, if the promotions from the management are not accompanied with expected incentives in terms of pay and other benefits, these promotions will not be viewed as positive or high-level exchanges by the employees. Furthermore, when employees perceive growth in their abilities in their respective disciplines and these enhancements of skills do not attract the expected improvement in their salaries and benefits, the employees will most likely view this in a negative light and reduce their extra-role behaviours.

7.6 Demographic Variables

Some interesting patterns were observed between gender, income levels and commitment. Significant differences were found between the affective commitment levels for males and females with the female participants exhibiting higher levels of affective commitment. In addition, small but significant differences were found between extra-role service behaviours for males and females with the female participants projecting higher levels of discretionary or extra-role behaviours beyond what is expected of their job roles. This aligns with the earlier reported finding that affective commitment is associated with extra-role service behaviour, hence, we can understand why higher levels observed in female respondents will also correspond with observed higher tendency to put in extra or discretionary efforts by female respondents.

Another interesting finding was the relationship between income levels and affective commitment with higher income earners expressing higher levels of affective commitment to their organizations. This tallies with the social exchange theory postulations that assert that when employees feel valued by their organization, they reciprocate by showing more commitment and aligning with organizational goals and vision (Cropanzanon and Mitchell, 2005). Moreover, increasing levels of income is perceived as an indication of career success in an organization and according to the theory of organization self-esteem, when employees become more successful in their organizational career, they increasingly see themselves as valid and valuable members of the organization, hence, improving their affective commitment levels (Wang et al., 2014). This research, however, did not support previous works that found that age tempered affective commitment levels (Cohen, 1993)

7.7 Implications of Research Findings

7.7.1 Contribution to Academic Theory

A noteworthy finding is the absence of significant links between continuance commitment and both rewards and career development variables. This is a divergence from some of the existing research (Jans, 1989, Weng et al., 2010, Malhotra et al., 2007) and this implies that workers do not view rewards and career growth opportunities as ‘bribes’ or primary reasons to remain in the organizations but rather as evidence that their skills and input are valued by the management. The leadership of service organizations should create work environments that are interactive in design, where feedback is provided to the employees and their input are sought and taken on board whenever possible. The use of feedback, participation, role clarity and autonomy have been identified in this research, agreeing with findings from previous research (Malhotra, Budhwar and Prowse, 2007; Ozturk et al., 2014), as playing distinguishing roles in boosting commitment and these are tools that management can readily deploy to their advantage. Furthermore, the expectations or roles required of employees should be clearly articulated and employees in the service sector should be given adequate discretion to do their jobs rather than micro-managed. This research reaffirms the crucial role

of non-financial rewards such as recognition, appreciation and employee participation in boosting motivation and commitment as has been argued in the extant literature (Yousef, 2017; Chang et al, 2015).

The interaction between the management and the employees cannot be over-emphasized especially in terms of career path and professional ability development. Deliberate career development actions by the organizational hierarchy boosts the self-worth of the employees. Moreover, this research asserts that the performance appraisal system should not only ensure that rewards are commensurate with efforts expended but also employees should be given the opportunities to express their opinions and preferences in terms of their career development. Weng, et al. (2010) and Jans (1989) support the argument that management's role in career development boosts the levels of commitment of the members of the organization. Weng, et al (2010) assert that employees assume that as part of their implicit psychological contract with their management, their career development should be supported by management. Career development strategies from management could come in the forms of training, mentoring, provision of assessment centres and job placements/rotations (Sturges et al., 2002).

However, this research does not suggest that we should ignore the strong influence of pecuniary and other material benefits especially in a country with difficult economic conditions. To explain the strong links found in this inquiry between affective commitment and both rewards and career growth, we may turn to Fischer and Mansell (2009), who opine that macro-economic conditions contribute strongly in explaining affective ties to an organization than several other factors such as cultural peculiarities. Hence, it is critical that service organizations in Nigeria design their rewards systems to ensure pay and benefits are appreciated by the recipients. The present research seems to indicate that employees in the Nigerian service sector do not perceive their current rewards system as adequately stimulating to inspire more than what their job roles specify. However, we must appreciate the difficulty in this situation from the perspective of employers as they are not exempt from the harsh and dwindling economic conditions in the country at large. Consequently, this affects the ability of the employer to increase the wage bills of the workers but that said, the executive must find a balance to ensure improvement in the service delivery to the customers and exceptional service delivery is given its due priority. This is buttressed in the findings of this research as clear relationships were observed between an employee's level of organizational commitment and extra-role service behavior. In turn, exceptional customer service should translate into increase in revenue and fortunes of the organization. Tsaur and Lin (2004) support this line of reasoning, as they argue that an organization's employees' perception of development and compensation affects their service behaviours as directed towards the customers of the firm.

Another important finding this research presents is the relationship observed between organizational (affective) commitment and extra-role service behavior. This aligns with some of the existing theory, which argues that organizational commitment influences performance (Wright and Kehoe, 2009). It also explains the apprehension other authors have had in concluding that links exists between the two concepts (Meyer and Allen, 1997) because no

significant links were found between commitment and other components of customer service attributes such as role-prescribed service behaviour and service ability. This implies that academic research can narrow than the investigation to extra-role behaviour and affective commitment in future inquiries into the topics.

7.7.2 Implications for Practice

Although, I have made recommendations for practitioners in the next chapter, this research reveals several implication for managers in Nigerian service organizations that are worthy of discussion. This research implies that a failure in communication leads to negative impact on commitment. Extant research asserts that a large number of managers fail to effectively communicate, and a large proportion of organizations fail to provide training on communication (Raina and Roebuck, 2016).

Managers that participated in this action research admitted to their failings in communicating the travails of the organization due to multiple pressures they face daily. In addition to sharing the situation at a macro-level, employees also expect concern on a personal level from their bosses. Both the quantitative study and action learning sessions clearly identified the effects of communication in inspiring commitment in the workplace. This finding is supported by existing academic research that insists that employees' satisfaction with communication in the organization has a direct and positive influence with the levels of organizational commitment (Ammari et al., 2017; Ozturk et al., 2014; Mustamil et al., 2014; Naz & Gul, 2014; Brien et al., 2015). Communication should go beyond letting the workers know what is expected of them in terms of deliverables on a day-to-day basis but should also include sharing the vision, plans and challenges of the organization with its members in an interactive manner. This is beneficial also for the manager, in the sense that by sharing the challenges and plans of the management with the members of the organization, the manager relieves him or herself of some burden that has likely being weighing them down psychologically. Also, the employees are able to visualize and understand the direction that the management wants to take them and possibly contribute to the crafting of such a strategy or at least its implementation. This was apparent in the frustrations voiced out by several managers that took part in this research, as they complained of not being able to successfully transmit their vision to the rest of their organization. However, being subjected to questioning from their peers, most admitted their shortcomings in communicating adequately with subordinates.

It is advisable that rewards should be attached to performance and these rewards should be valued by the recipients and this is integral in the involvement approaches, I recommend in the next chapter. However, management must be careful not to promise what they cannot sustain, hence, the need to utilize both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards in innovative ways.

Creating a career path for employees allows for a sense of future prospects and engenders a sense of membership, according to the executives that were participants in the action learning research component of this inquiry. By ensuring performing employees can grow within the

organization, the management provides motivation to perform beyond what is expected and this translates not only to how the customers are treated but even to ensuring operational costs are reduced because operational efficiency is on everyone's mind i.e. both management and other workers.

Lastly, leadership should be by example. If a manager desires commitment from his or her employees, then that manager must first demonstrate commitment. The manager that wants to ensure punctuality, should not be tardy every now and then, and not come to work on the days they plan to make someone a scapegoat. One manager that participated in the action learning group honestly assessed his problems of reduced profits and poor commitment in his establishment. He admitted that his partner and he had been lazy when it came to overseeing the business. They thought the business could run solely on their well-thought out strategies but failed to spend the necessary time growing not only profits but also the culture which they desired in the organization. In conclusion, this research agrees with previous suggestions made by Ramdhani et al. (2017) that organizational commitment is at an optimum when the organization has a culture characterized by effective communication, team-spirit, manpower development and a reward system that recognize performance.

I argue in the next chapter (Recommendations) that the failure in communication seen in many organizations can often be attributed to the presence of traditional hierarchical organizational structures. This stifles involvement of workers from all levels with regards to flow of information, two-way communication and work-level decisions. Flatter structures like work-team approach also advocate for rewards to be directly linked with performance.

7.7.3 Implications for the Scholar-Practitioner

An important part of action research is reflection. Reflection in action learning takes place all throughout the process and it allows the researcher deal with his or her biases, assumptions, and uncertainties and helps to bring clarity and confidence to the researcher. Throughout this dissertation process, I took notes on what I was going through internally and this was separate from the technical notes and I have summarized some of my reflections in this section.

7.7.3.1 Initial Stages

At the onset of the process, I felt a bit uncertain about my ability to conduct this type of research because I was slightly intimidated by the task ahead. I felt daunted because I had never undertaken a research project that was expected to be of doctoral level standard, neither had I written a paper of up to 50,000 words. Thinking of the possibility of failure after spending a couple of years completing eight challenging taught modules was scary. However, I got encouragement from discussing with my supervisor, other classmates doing this for the first time too and some of my close family members. I realized that I knew the general direction I wanted to go with the research, having carried out investigations on the topic of

organizational commitment for the earlier submitted conference paper. The broad topic and some of the techniques I had to employ were not actually new to me but it was just the scale of the project that was much larger. This spurred me into planning the process by writing down a broad course of action on paper and this was helpful in breaking the process down into parts that seemed achievable.

7.7.3.2 Reviewing the Literature

I put up a proposal for my research but my supervisor suggested the topic should be expanded and the entire process more rounded in the sense that the not only causes should be investigated but also consequences, as this was doctoral level work. This caused me to branch out into territories that were new to me and this presented its own challenges as I felt like I was groping in the dark. This started the long and continuous journey into the review of the existing literature, at this point I was searching for gaps in the literature on the chosen topics of organizational commitment and rewards. This was tiring, tasking and sometimes annoying, especially when you had to read through voluminous articles and end up getting little information from the arduous job. Also, the need to focus on only recent articles from top journals added extra difficulty on the process at the beginning stages.

However, with time the process got more manageable, probably due to practice and I was able to get a lot of information and even had to narrow down the research scope as it had gotten too broad. Throughout the research process, I had to continuously go back to the academic literature on various topics and I feel I have gotten more competent as a researcher as time spent working on this thesis has gone by.

After several modifications and reviews with my primary supervisor, I felt I had a decent enough literature review chapter and proceeded to submit this to the second supervisor but the feedback I got was discouraging and demoralizing. I had to abandon work on the thesis for some weeks to gather myself again. In the end, I realized I had to learn to take negative feedback in my stride and began to see some genuine points in the criticisms, however how harshly they were delivered.

7.7.3.3 Collecting and Analysing the Data

The processes of gathering and analysing the data were very hectic but these were the most fulfilling times throughout the research process. I guess this was because it felt like I was discovering new realties and knowledge by myself. It was revealing that the participants, contrary to my expectations, were open and honest about how they felt about their organizations, work tasks and abilities. I expected that most respondents would either praise their organizations or express high opinions regarding their capabilities and job performance levels but this was not the case and the data seemed more genuine to me because of this.

Conducting action learning sessions was a very insightful and engaging experience. I realized that a lot of discipline is required when playing the role of the facilitator because one has to apply the right amount of probing without being judgmental. Wade and Hammick (1999) remark that the role of the facilitator could be a powerful position, hence, care has to be taken not to be too influential or direct the outcomes of the process. In addition, the facilitator cannot see him or herself as an expert but rather must most of the time let the ideas, solutions and encouragement flow from the action learning set members. According to Pedler (2008), the facilitator's role is to make the learning process explicit to the set members. I learned during the sessions that I was comfortable listening and empathizing with the speakers and this threw a lot of light on some of my own shortcomings as an entrepreneur, like my failure to gather customer feedback in an organized fashion and the need to improve my discipline financially and professionally.

At the initial stages of the action learning process, I had to do most of the probing or questioning when participants presented their problematic situations, while other participants were seemingly quiet. However, Wade and Hammick (1999) argue that this is natural, as the action learning participants take some time to build confidence and grow as a group. Later on in the process, my role changed to that of a moderator as the members did most of the questioning and talking and I had to withdraw to innocous roles such as keeping track of time or confirming questions asked. Zubber-Skerritt (2001) differentiates between practical and emancipatory roles of the facilitator in an action learning process, whereby the former assumes the stance of the socratic questioner, trying to encourage participation and self-reflection, while the latter role is akin to a process moderator and is shared by participants as the process goes along. I believe my role evolved from that of a practical one to an emancipatory role as the process went along.

Making inferences about the information collected and results from the analysis was another disconcerting process for me. I found myself questioning my right to make conclusions or draw inferences. Was I calling myself an expert all of a sudden? However, relying on the existing literature to support my arguments made me feel more comfortable and I believe that my conclusions are my opinions, even though I believe these are informed opinions. Reading through the transcribed action learning sessions in a bid to code the data brought about many benefits to me also, it revealed a lot of information I missed during the sessions themselves and I was able to identify new themes and common threads in the challenges of the managers participating. One common thread was the lack of proper communication between the managers and their organizational members and this could be seen to affect motivation and ability to share the vision of the leaders with the rest of the organization.

7.8 Summary of Chapter

This chapter has provided an in-depth discussion of the research findings emanating from both the quantitative investigation and action learning sessions. Important areas discussed include the impact of both extrinsic and intrinsic organizational rewards on affective

commitment indicating that need to balance both types of rewards to bring out the best in organizational members. In addition, the reader is presented with the relationship between career growth factors and affective commitment and in this aspect, management also contributes to developing and managing careers of its individual employees.

In all, the whole argument was built, step by step, through each chapter. Specifically, the whole thesis shows how my arguments on literature, methods and findings lead from the identification of a management issue that needs to be addressed, all the way through reading literatures and undertaking research to the design of proposed management action which was then tested by discussing that plan with relevant stakeholders in my organisation. The emerging ideas were tested for action with the relevant stakeholders, based on the relevant data from my research and well explained plans (Deshpande, 2016; Leonard & Marquardt, 2010).

CHAPTER EIGHT

RECOMMENDATIONS

8.0 Introduction

The chapter provides the recommendations I believe will assist practitioners to enhance the levels of organizational commitment from their members. These recommendations were informed by the findings of this research work and from the existing literature. These recommendations were presented to the action learning set and the report on the discussions from this session is provided in this chapter.

This chapter first presents the support for my recommendations for involvement strategies from the extant literature. In order to adopt these new structures in their organizations, managers must deal with the difficulties in bringing change to the workplace and I also recommend suggestion to ensure change is successful in the organizations of the participants involved.

This chapter goes further to provide the report of the interactions with the action learning set members, where I pointedly make these recommendations and the discussions that arise from my presentation to them.

8.1 Summary of Key Issues to be addressed

This research has brought to light several key issues that need to be considered and addressed, in order to improve commitment in the organization and consequently, optimize performance, especially in the Nigerian service environment.

An area of great importance regarding the findings of this particular research is the link between commitment and performance. My investigation showed that affective commitment influences performance in terms of extra-role service behaviour and service ability (section 7.3, pp 104-105). This makes it imperative for managers to strive to enhance commitment of the members to the organization. Fortunately, the research also attempts to discover the areas that can potentially improve commitment to the organization.

As mentioned in chapter seven (section 7.1.1, pp 101-102), organizational commitment is strongly influenced by intrinsic rewards, including: role clarity, feedback, participation, autonomy and supervision/team support. The areas of role clarity and feedback translate to issues in communication as identified in action learning sessions with executives (section 6.3.3.4.2, pp 96). These managers complained about the difficulties in passing across both the everyday tactical expectations, as well the long-term strategies and goals they hope their

organizations can achieve. These are some of the key issues, I have attempted to address in this chapter with my recommendations.

This research also observed positive relationships between commitment and extrinsic rewards in the areas of pay satisfaction, fringe benefits, working conditions and training (section 7.1.2, pp 102). The executives that participated in action learning sessions, as presented in chapter six, pointed out that providing incentives in terms of bonuses and pay increases based on performance would provide some stimulus for higher performances from workers, but they also noted that pay on its own is not the golden bullet for all commitment/performance issues. So, it is imperative to fashion out a system that rewards and encourages commitment and performance, which in this chapter I explore some systems that I argue will ensure these occur.

Another set of factors that were found to positively influence commitment, were in the areas of career growth. The career growth factors – career goals/professional ability development and promotion/remuneration growth, had significant positive relationships with commitment (section 7.2, pp 103-104). This investigation found that both individual workers and management executives were of the opinion that when the organization provides a clear career growth path, the worker's commitment to the organization is boosted and this subsequently, provides a tonic for improved performances.

In the succeeding sections of this chapter, I propose that Involvement Strategies will address these issues (communication, participation, autonomy, career development, training, pay satisfaction) simultaneously, with the ultimate goal of improving performance. However, before I make the case for Involvement strategies and how they will address the issues highlighted above, I think it is appropriate to first provide a brief explanation of what involvement strategies are all about.

8.2 Involvement Strategies

Involving employees in organizational decisions has been viewed as empowerment (Raub & Robert, 2012) and this leads to improvement in commitment and OCB. Raub and Robert (2012) assert that empowerment practices allow for information sharing, delegation of authority and increased employee autonomy, and these are key intentions of involvement approaches that I proffer for participants of this action research and for Nigerian service organizations. Besides my suggestions, existing research has found that involvement is significantly related to commitment (Knoop, 1995). The involvement approach I argue in favour is the work-team structure, but I also recommended parallel structures (quality circles and task forces), due to difficulties organizations are likely to face in adopting a work-team structure.

Involvement approaches especially work-team structures tie into the practical implications identified by this research in the previous chapter in the areas of communication, participation, autonomy, rewards and career/professional development. Empowering workers

this way would build their commitment towards the organization, as this and extant research has shown (Raub & Robert, 2012; He et al., 2011).

Lawler III (1988) identifies several areas of influence that determine the level of involvement or participation in any organizational structure: **Power**, which refers to the decision-making process in the organization, Lawler III (1988) argues that any form of decision-making carried outside the top management sphere could be seen as a form of participative decision-making.

Information, in this sense refers to the types of shared communication, which ranges from business performance to employee output. **Knowledge**, which Lawler III (1988) refers to as the skills, abilities and knowledge of the workers and he argues that when management train or develop employee knowledge it should be seen as a form of empowerment because a critical part of involving employees in decision-making is their level of expertise and knowledge which allows them to make such informed decision.

Lastly, Lawler III (1988) identified **Rewards** as another area of influence; he argues that as employees obtain more power, information and knowledge, they expect more in terms of rewards, when they perceive their participation has increased the organization's effectiveness.

The level of involvement of any structure depends on how much top management shares the decisions regarding these areas of influence with the workforce and this is different for work teams compared to parallel structures.

8.2.1 Work Teams

Work teams (also called self-managing groups, autonomous work groups, semi-autonomous work groups), comprise of groups of employees responsible for delivering a product or service (Zarraga and Bonache 2005; Lawler III, and Mohrman, 1987; Lawler III, 1988; Nicholls et al., 1999). Work teams are allowed to make operational or tactical decisions such as work scheduling, work methods or procedures and are often allowed to decide on selecting team members and leaders. This approach ensures teams acquire a variety of skills and new knowledge, new feedback systems are provided, and the teams may be rewarded differently based on team performance (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987; Lawler III, 1988). The use of work teams increases the influence of organizational members on work methods and how they are rewarded.

Adopting a work team structure usually entails re-training of personnel, physical re-configuration of workspace might also be necessary, as well as deployment of new technology and all these could imply significant costs (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987; Lawler III, 1988). In addition, team-members could feel reluctant to share information or knowledge (Zarraga and Bonache, 2005), while senior management could resist sharing power (Nicholls et al., 1999). However, work teams have been reported in resulting in significant improvements in various organizational indices such as performance, job satisfaction and turnover (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987; Lawler III, 1988). One of the key

reasons why work-teams succeed, and I believe it is a good idea for service organizations, is its ability to utilize peer pressure to gain productivity. The pressure from peers is often more influential than from bosses and one's peers know all the tricks when it comes to under-performing on the job and the boss be fooled more easily.

8.2.2 Quality Circles/Task Forces

It must be noted that some organizations might find it difficult to alter their organizational structures due to the inherent costs financially and operationally. Such organizations can still adopt parallel involvement strategies to encourage participation and boost job satisfaction and consequently, commitment. Quality circles and task forces are examples of parallel structures i.e. they operate alongside the traditional organizational structure (Lawler III, 1988).

Quality circles usually comprise of a group of individuals from different departments of an organization that volunteer to meet once a week, for some months, to proffer solutions to problems facing the organization (Abo-alhol et al., 2005; Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987). These are problems that usually lack sufficient time or resources, or nobody has responsibility to solve such a problem (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987). Quality circles can be rewarded based on the effectiveness of their suggestion and the rewards can be financial or non-financial. Quality circles can come up with suggestions but do not have the power to implement their suggestions that responsibility still lies with the top management. The difference between quality circles and task forces is that a task force has management personnel as part of the group, while quality circles comprise of individuals outside the top management cadre (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987).

Existing research provides evidence of high-quality suggestions resulting from quality circles and task forces, also improvements in job satisfaction, productivity and turnover have been observed after the introduction of quality circles and task forces (Lawler III, 1988; Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987). However, the limitations include: resistance from non-members and middle-management and limited number of people that can serve in such groups at a particular time (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987). Also barriers could arise from lack of specific performance indices and individualism (Abo-Alhol et al., 2005).

8.3 How Involvement Strategies Address the Identified Issues

The present research found significant relationships between customer service (performance) and organizational commitment and identified several factors that influence commitment, these included: autonomy, feedback, participation, supervisor and team support, pay satisfaction, and training (as highlighted in section 8.1). The research also identified other outcomes of commitment including: job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviours and turnover. This implies that low sense of commitment will take a toll on the performance

of the company, operationally and financially, which likely result in serious implications for the survival of the organization.

Hence, from my interpretation of this action research and by critically carrying out literature research, I advocate for flatter structures that encourage more involvement from members at all levels of the organization. I am convinced that the adoption of involvement strategies, work teams in particular and parallel structures where work teams cannot be implemented, can address these areas identified. The next few subsections present my arguments for these strategies and these arguments are backed up by my research findings and the extant literature on the topics.

8.3.1 Communication

This research identified poor communication in terms of role clarity, feedback, goal expectations and vision transmission as factors that negatively affect organizational commitment and performance. My interaction with the action learning participants revealed that there is a strong adherence to the traditional hierarchical organization structure, where the chief executive sits on top of the structure and several managers below and this goes down till the 'shop-floor' workers (see Figure 8.1). The executives also reported difficulties in communicating with staff members and transmitting their visions and expectations of the management to all levels of their organization and this translates to low sense of participation on the part of the workers and this reflects in low citizenship behaviour and high turnover.

By the time plans, strategies and visions are transmitted down in a traditional hierarchical structure; the message would either be corrupted, diluted, partially or completed lost. Also, most times the communication is unidirectional, from top to bottom, with no feedback moving in the reverse direction.

Figure 8.1: Traditional Hierarchical Organizational Structure.

Involvement strategies, especially work teams provide organizations with flatter structures, essentially reducing the distance between the top and bottom of the organization (see Figure 8.2). Team-based structures not only ensure shorter travel time for messages from the top but also provide easier access to the central authority figure. Involvement strategies require top management to provide information to the team or parallel structure (quality circle or task-force) in order for them to carry out their assignments. Management must also provide performance information and feedback, setting clear goals and targets that are expected of the work team or parallel structure (Abo-alhol et al., 2005; Lawler III, 1988; Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987). By introducing involvement approaches such as work teams or quality circles, senior management not only has to communicate with members across levels but more importantly, they have to share information that would normally be privy to only management (Lawler III, 1988). This allows members across the organization to empathize with the challenges the organization faces and members also gain a sense of inclusion in the direction of the organization.

The provision of such clear and constant communication ensures adequate role clarity, feedback, goal expectation and often information on the larger strategy, which might not be ordinarily transmitted in the traditional structure.

Figure 8.2: Team-based Organizational Structure.

8.3.2 Participation

The main objective of involvement strategies is to increase participation from those at the lower levels of the organization, those that ordinarily would not have a say in issues ranging from strategy formulation down to design of work procedures. Work teams are allowed to decide on work procedures and usually have input in setting performance targets (Lawler III). While, quality circles and task-forces are tasked to proffer solutions on issues ranging from

organizational strategy, operational design to work procedures. This allows workers to have a stake in the future of the firm and engenders a sense of belonging and the perception of being valued by the organization. Bowen and Lawler (1992) further contend that apart improving job satisfaction within the organizational members, empowering employees provides a source of great ideas that executives can tap from and the organization can ultimately benefit from.

One of the hallmarks of employee involvement strategies i.e. parallel structures (quality circles and task-forces) and job involvement structures (work-teams), is that employees are allowed to participate in decision-making, compared to hierarchical organizational structures, where almost all decision-making is the responsibility of top management (Lawler III, 1988; Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987). This gives employee a stake in determining the prospects of the organization and thus builds commitment.

8.3.3 Autonomy

Work teams are granted some degree of autonomy to make tactical/operational calls in the areas of work scheduling, work procedures and often team selection (Lawler III, 1998). Quality circles and task-forces can decide on the group procedures but do not have decision-making authority but still are granted some level of autonomy to carry out their assigned tasks. This level of autonomy implies that the management has confidence on the workers to perform tasks without constant scrutiny and boosts the perceived worth/value the workers feel the organization sees in them.

In traditional (hierarchical) structures all decisions concerning long-term strategy, performance units and work procedures usually reside with management and little autonomy or decision-making authority is accorded to the organizational members (Pfeffer, 1998; Lawler III, 1988; Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987). According to this research findings, this is one of the factors that negatively influence commitment and consequently, performance in terms of customer service. Extant research has also argued that the increased autonomy in work-teams translate to improved perception of intrinsic rewards and job satisfaction, which results in higher performance compared to traditional structures (Pfeffer, 1998).

8.3.4 Supervisor/Team Support

One of the vital weapons that work teams have in their possession is the impact of peer pressure. Team members strive not to let down their mates in the group and members can tell when their peers are slacking off or putting in minimum effort. Pfeffer (1998) asserts that peer pressure is much more effective in checking negative behaviours compared to traditional supervision. Moreover, erstwhile research has found that cooperation amongst team members leads to greater team performance, as well as job satisfaction (Erez et al., 2002) and enriched job designs have been linked with improved employee well-being (Wood & de Menezes, 2011).

Furthermore, the process of setting up work teams entails training supervisors in leading teams and other soft skills (communication, team/group dynamics etc) relating to team functioning. In addition, previous research on work team have suggested that for teams to perform, supervisors must learn to delegate (Nicholls et al., 1998), which further builds confidence in the minds of individual workers and boosts motivation. In some situations, work-teams have the authority to select their team leaders and rotate these team leaders (Erez et al., 2002; Lawler III, 1988). All of these steps, ensure that team leaders corporate, empathize and support team members, rather dictate or victimize team members.

8.3.5 Pay Satisfaction

Involvement strategies insist that pay should be based on performance. Hence, workers understand that their efforts are justly compensated for. This is true in work teams, where skill-based pay is mostly employed but team performance bonuses can be applied. Even in parallel structures, members are rewarded when their suggestions prove effective or some form of gainsharing could be implemented (Abo-alhol et al., 2005; Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987; Lawler III, 1988). Moreover, involvement strategies encourage other extrinsic incentives such as profit-sharing, employee ownership and internal promotion (Lawler III, 1988; Wood & de Menezes, 2011).

The use of involvement strategies does not eliminate the need for a proper appraisal system but rather provides clearer evidence of performance to enhance the ability of the appraisal system to assess performance at both the individual and team levels.

8.3.6 Professional/Career Development

Work-teams and participating in parallel structures allow for professional development and training of workers across the organization, which is critical for career growth. In addition, the exposure to problem-solving methods and multiple skill-building that involvement approaches recommend, provide a ready-set of individuals for higher responsibility or leadership.

For work teams to be effective, training is carried out on both technical and soft skills. Members have to possess a wide array of skills in different areas that the team is responsible for and training is provided to achieve this (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987; Lawler III, 1988). In addition, work teams also provide on-the-job training in these diverse areas.

Another important avenue for development that work teams provide is that the administrative layers are removed and absorbed the work-teams, thus putting such tasks in the hands of team members, who are forced to become competent administrators as well as specialized professionals in their particular fields (Pfeffer, 1998).

The table below provides a summary of the key issues identified in this research and how involvement strategies address these issues.

Issues	Work Teams	Quality Circles/Task Forces
Communication (Role clarity, Feedback, Goal expectation)	Flatter structure meaning less travel time for information, clear set targets, and constant feedback.	More information sharing from management, clear objectives and feedback on efficacy of solutions.
Participation	Allowed to design work procedures and make input on performance targets.	Proffer solutions on wide range of issues from strategy to work procedures.
Autonomy	Teams are allowed to make tactical/operational decisions.	Task forces often have decision-making powers.
Team/supervisory support	Peer support integral to workings of team.	Training on team dynamics usually organized by management. Supervisors are encouraged to support QC/Taskforce members.
Pay satisfaction	Pay based on performance targets.	Gain-sharing or bonuses usually applied based on effectiveness of solutions.
Professional/Career development.	Members are exposed to wide range of skills.	Members are exposed to wide range of skills.

Table 8.1: Issues identified from this Research and How Involvement Strategies Resolve them.

8.4 Managing Change

This research advocates that managers in the Nigerian service sector implements new ideas to involve and empower workers to improve their commitment to the organizations. Implementation these ideas must be managed properly if the efforts are to succeed. Also, some participants in the action learning set that was part of this research were in the process of implementing changes in their organizations and were confronting some challenges and these were consequently, affecting commitment. Hence, I presented some important considerations from existing literature on change management, which are summarised below.

8.4.1 Short-Term Wins

When implementing change strategies, it is important to break the long-term goal into smaller components or targets that can be achieved incrementally. Kotter and Cohen (2002) refer to these as short-term wins. According to Kotter and Cohen (2002), these are visible and unambiguous targets that members will readily perceive as genuine and are impactful, when successful. These short-term wins should be undoubtedly related to the overall change effort and achievable in six to eighteen months.

Short-term wins provide a feedback mechanism to those involved in driving the change and they encourage and compliment the people working hard to implement the changes.

Achieving these targets serves as a tool in convincing those not yet on-board with the change efforts and removes power from the cynics and detractors of the change strategy (Kotter & Cohen, 2002).

8.4.2 Communicating Effectively About Change

This research and others have identified the negative effects in poor communication with respect to commitment and this also can derail change efforts. Saunders (2005) provides some suggestions in carrying successful communications about change.

Managers must be specific on the impact the change is targeting i.e. to what percentage factors like customer satisfaction, product quality, market share etc. will be affected (Saunders, 2005). In addition to this, change managers should be clear on how the change impacts the members, if jobs will be lost, managers should be upfront about this, rather than allowing rumours to create uncertainty and fear around the organization (Saunders, 2005).

Managers should take members through the process leading to the decision on the change initiative, including the purpose or reason for change, and the options considered and rejected, and this should be done repeatedly in several forums (Saunders, 2005). This should allow for two-way communication through dialogue, feedback and questions, to aid in eliminating uncertainty.

Importantly, change managers should be models for change (Saunders, 2005). An executive that wants to cut costs should not continue in extravagant ways on the organization's expense, this sends out an impression of hypocrisy.

8.4.3 Creating a Sense of Urgency

Creating a sense of urgency ensures that people see the need for change and are motivated to contribute to the change efforts. This involves using compelling methods to communicate the need for change that people can see feel or touch. Managers can provide dramatic evidence that demonstrates that change is required, Kotter and Cohen (2002) talked about a manager that produced videos of customers airing their frustration and I have seen companies interested in improving their safety culture produce videos re-enacting the accidents that happened in real-life, to visually convey the need for change.

8.5 Presentation and Discussion with Action Learning Set

I organized a final meeting with the action learning set members, where I presented my suggestions for flatter organizational structures or at least the use of parallel structures like quality circles and task forces, as well as strategies to effect change successfully.

I provided these recommendations to this particular set of executives because I was convinced that the adoption of involvement strategies, i.e. work teams and quality circles/task forces, could resolve several issues they had presented in our previous action learning sessions (see Chapter 6) and from my further review of the extant literature. Almost all of the executives had bemoaned their inability to communicate effectively their vision and the urgency of their organizational problems across their organizations. In addition, all the participants complained about the lack of commitment and sense of ownership amongst their workers. As I have put forward in the previous sections of this chapter, I believe adopting flatter structures and strategies that involve/empower workers would yield solutions to the issues raised.

The arguments I made to them were the same as in the above sections, but I used power-point slides to make my case and I further had discussions with them on the possibility of implementing such approaches. Some of the participants were willing to give it a try, some of them had had previous experiences with some of the suggestions, while some where more apprehensive about the ideas. The session is summarized below.

8.5.1 Work-Team Structure

I made the case for the adoption of work team structures to the action learning set members in their various organizations, explaining the benefits but also mentioning the limitations. This resulted in very interesting discussions and critical points were raised during these discussions. I thought some of the participants' organizations were ripe for the adoption of work teams, such as Nkeoma's, while some participants, who were making fresh starts could start to plan towards the work team approach like Chima.

Some of the participants had previous experience on the use of work teams in either their present or former organizations. Obinna, Nkeoma and Chima mentioned they had previously experienced working in such teams and they remarked that it had the potential to be effective under certain conditions.

Team work in progress

Obinna in his barbing salon had formed a work team that comprised of the barbers. They were empowered to act as receptionists, marketers, barbers, cleaners and also cashiers. But according to Obinna, this arrangement failed because of dishonesty on the part of some of the barbers, who received money and failed to remit it to the organization.

Obinna: "After a while you discover that the book is not balancing, and it is not because they are incompetent."

Obinna was advised by the action learning set members to remove the function of collecting cash payments from the barbers either by bringing in a cashier or using Point-of-Sale (POS) machines. Obinna told the group that he later brought in a cashier but that experience discouraged him from continuing with the work team structure, however, after listening to the presentation and the ensuing discussion, he was willing to give team-based structure another try.

I think it is important to realize that the adoption of work-teams should not be carried in a one-size-fits-all manner. The management of the organization involved should analyse the peculiarities of their system and approach forming teams in the way that best suits them. Also, adopting work-team structures can be carried out in incremental steps, by gradually providing responsibilities to the teams, after they have been trained in these areas and have shown they can handle such tasks. It is true that by handing over such administrative tasks like collection of payment, Obinna would likely reduce costs of hiring a cashier but in this case, it became clear that the team members were not ready for such tasks and this likely increased cost in the long run.

Team in Work teams

I especially recommended work teams to Nkeoma, who was running a manufacturing plant because her structure already utilized teams on the factory floor, even though each member was designated to be from different departments. As mentioned, Nkeoma was using teams in her manufacturing plant, but she had had problems with a particular staff-member that wasn't a team player.

"You know this person, he comes to work early, if you want him to work late, he's willing to work late. He's willing to work the extra mile but he's not a team player."

The group recommended that Nkeoma should attempt to train her workers on team-work and the difficult staff could be given leadership responsibility, as this might force him to find

ways to amicably work with others. However, one participant, Noah, recommended finding a way to let the difficult worker go because of the corrosive effect of having a difficult team member.

I found myself agreeing with both arguments; I felt that Nkeoma should make every effort in correcting the negative behaviour of this particular staff member, since he had proven that he was a hard-working and often reliable member of her team. She should provide training and attempt putting some responsibility on his shoulders, to prod him into collaborating with others to enable him succeed. In the event these efforts fail, then she should not hesitate in letting him go. According to Freed (2000), individuals who exhibit sustained negative behaviour can drain an otherwise successful team and letting them go has the ability to rejuvenate and re-energise the team.

However, both Nkeoma and Obinna were willing to continue using work-team structure as they felt it had benefits of being cost-effective and increased operational efficiency. Two participants, Nkeoma and Tonye, asked me to organize training for their staff members on working in teams effectively and I accepted to do this for free, as an academic exercise/curiosity. Others also saw benefits in this approach but mentioned their current set-up could make it difficult to switch to work teams. Tonye said he hoped it was something he could consider using in the future.

8.5.2 Quality Circles and Task Forces

It is understandable that some organizations would find it hard to switch to work team structures because it could involve reconfiguring the physical workspace, bringing in new technology, changing systems such as rewards and changing mindsets of the organizational members (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987). Quality circles and taskforces in addition to providing a different approach to involving workers in the decision-making process, could also provide a tool for transition to a work-team structure (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987). There were some members of the action learning set that I felt could immediately benefit from adopting quality circles or task forces, such as Noah and Tonye, because changing the existing structure in a hotel or law firm to a team structure might be immediately difficult and these two were facing urgent issues of high costs from electricity and stationery usage.

Quality Circles go round and round

The set members expressed willingness to use quality circles or task forces. Noah made pertinent points on the need to involve, widely the members of the organization, so people do not feel left out.

Noah: "If a department has five members of staff or even if they are a hundred staff, if they are all involved, wouldn't it be better?"

I explained to him that several quality circles could be formed at various times and the members could be different at these various times, this would ensure a wider array of workers are involved in the processes and thus create a sense of empowerment. However, it has been advised that the use of quality circles or task-forces should be limited to a period of two years, as most of the suitable problems would have been tackled and there could be a lack of expertise to resolve remaining issues (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987 and Lawler III, 1988). Considering this counsel, quality circles can be used as preparation for work-teams, if the situation permits this.

Making Specialists Within

Tonye, however, explained that his issues with high office-running costs had been resolved so far, by hiring an office manager tasked with handling this problem as well as smoothly running the administrative side of the law firm.

In my opinion, by hiring an additional administrative staff, Tonye did what involvement strategies hope to prevent i.e. spending additional cost. Whereas, if existing organizational members are empowered to handle some administrative tasks, the resources expended in hiring and retaining such specialist could be put to even better use, as argued by Pfeffer, J. (1998). Such funds could go to training members to carry out administrative tasks as well or re-investing in other areas.

Listening to your people

Obinna had also used quality circles in his barbing salon and he explains what they did:

"So, we've employed this quality circle, where you sit back and tell one or two barbers to have weekly or once in two weeks meeting to come up with ideas on how to improve. To look at the past and figure out what is going wrong, we tried to engage with them."

According to Obinna, this was not effective for two reasons. Firstly, the suggestions the barbers came up with were mostly not being implemented and this led to resentment and the owners felt that the barbers were sabotaging other efforts because of this.

Obinna: "Eventually when you come down to making the decision to say this is what and what we are going to try and you don't try some of their own ideas, they now become the bottleneck and try to sabotage some of these efforts and how do you deal with that beyond replacements or punitive measures."

Secondly, Obinna admitted that the barbers were not being rewarded for the time they put into the quality circle process and the suggestions they came up with. The issue of inadequate rewards has been identified as one of reasons why quality circles fail (Lawler III, 1988) and I pointed this out to him and suggested he look into rewarding his members, when their suggestions yield positive results.

It can be discerned that Obinna's problem was two-fold. Firstly, he had no faith in the ability of his members to come up with valuable ideas but was just going through the motions by creating quality circles and hoping it will make his workers feel valued by management. Secondly, because he never had any faith that good ideas could come from the workers, there was no reward plan in place and he didn't see the need to rewards suggestions he was never planning to use.

One of the crucial factors for involvement strategies to succeed is the belief in these strategies at the management level or the philosophy of the managers. (Bowen, D. E. and Lawler III, E. E., 1992) assert that when you have 'Theory X' managers in your organization, who believe in micro-managing employees, then empowerment strategies might not be best in such a situation, but when there are 'Theory Y' managers, who believe in delegating and according members some level of independence, then involvement strategies are more likely to thrive.

8.5.3 Effectively Managing Change

Since I was suggesting considerable changes to the executives in the action learning group, I believed it was necessary to provide some guidance in preparing and dealing with changes without being discouraged or derailed by unexpected reactions from their organizations. I presented some tips from the existing research (Kotter, 2002) on carrying out successful change campaigns in their organizations, which was designed to encourage the adoption of flatter structures and to aid the action set members currently carrying out changes in their organizations. These included tips such as communicating effectively about change, transmitting a sense of urgency, dealing with change barriers and creating short-term wins.

I especially felt Tonye could benefit from my presentation on managing change, since he was trying to bring changes to the family law firm, he had recently been put in charge of and I mentioned this to him and the other participants.

The discussion that followed from this presentation brought out some interesting themes and experiences were shared amongst the learning set members.

8.5.3.1 Being Open with Information

Several participants talked about the benefits of being more open with information when trying to bring about change. Releasing information according to several participants helps to create a sense of urgency.

Tonye: "information has to be given to them for them to see the reason why they'll have to change."

Noah: "when they bring the NEPA (electricity) bill, I tell them how much the bill is – some are shocked! So, they now begin to understand why."

Nnoma: "If I say it in the morning meeting, they might feel that 'what else will the manager say?' but when you show them on the board, say 'see this is how much we make when we break even, so as we are now, we are not breaking even.' You will see a change."

Nkeoma further argued that sharing information with your members of staff draws out empathy and motivates them to work for the desired change. This reasoning aligns with arguments made by supporters of involvement strategies, as these strategies promotes being more open to workers at all levels and sharing more information (Bowen, D. E. and Lawler III, E. E., 1992; Pfeffer, J., 1998). These managers realize that sharing information not only motivates but brings in more allies for the struggles ahead, Tonye echoed the feeling of urgency, sharing information often generates:

"sometimes too as a manager you don't tell them a lot of things, you don't tell them your income strength, you don't tell them why you are agitated. They don't care sometimes when they don't know."

Tonye, however, argues that being open often brings about a heightened sense of expectation from the workers and this could be stressful also for managers.

"for example, I run an open accounting process, whereby they see the invoices that are being submitted and all that so, an employee comes and thinks 'this company is earning so much".

Although, he admitted that he has not been sharing the long-term plans with his members and they are only privy to short-term activities and this could be the reason for such heightened expectations. I believe, it is good practice to communicate long-term vision to all the members of the organization but involvement strategies goes even a step further, often recruiting non-management members to take part in the crafting of strategic direction for the company (Lawler III and Mohrman, 1987), which means they become privy to information they ordinarily would not see and this elicits deeper appreciation of the position of their organization.

8.5.3.2 Targets and Consequences

Nkeoma insisted that setting targets and ensuring consequences ensue from the outcomes of such targets are clear ways to transmit the sense of urgency.

"So you just see people trying to make up; maybe they come to work early, they go out of their way to do something. So they know that when that interview comes, they have something to use and say see".

According to her, when workers are given performance targets based on the change initiative and they know that at the end of the appraisal period, serious consequences will follow, they become even more motivated to work towards the changes.

Tonye also mentioned the need for consequences to follow when implementing changes. He talked about the changes he was trying to bring to his family law firm and how he had to let go of some staff members that were unwilling to get on-board the initiatives. According to him, this sent a strong message to the rest of the members that the management was serious about the changes.

Nkeoma highlighted an important requirement for successful change and that is giving adequate backing for those responsible in implementing change efforts. She talked about how she had to give up her wifi access on her phone in the office because her admin manager was trying to cut down indiscriminate use of the company's internet facility. When she allowed access to be restricted to just her work computer, she gave out a strong signal that the change effort had her support and she put herself out as a model for change.

"C has a task that's the appraisal to reduce the cost. She has spoken during the morning meetings; she has said ok don't bring your laptops to work. When work closes, there is no body to monitor them – you know. So she took a drastic step and it affected me but I supported her and with that we actually saw bill change."

8.6 Challenges that might hinder Recommendations

From the discussions with the action learning set members on the implementation of involvement strategies, I perceived some challenges that certain members might encounter. In order to successfully adapt these strategies, these hurdles have to be appreciated and dealt with to possibly reap the fruits of involving employees, which is ultimately greater performance.

8.6.1 Adherence to Hierarchy

I observed from my interactions with the executives, that there is an ingrained notion that organizations should be structured in a hierarchical manner; this is almost automatic in the reasoning of executives and entrepreneurs. After all, that is what most managers and employees were taught in schools and that constitutes most of their previous working experiences. This kind of structure ensures division of labour and presents a neat and simple approach to managing people, which is the prevailing perception. But as mentioned earlier, to speed up communication in a bi-directional way, a flatter structure might be better and to derive the benefits of collaboration, involvement strategies are beneficial.

Training and re-training, unlearning and re-learning are necessary to change the ways of thinking about management, motivating and eliciting higher performance and this was accepted by most of the executives in the learning set.

8.6.2 Over-reliance on Specialists

Most managers rely too often on specialists to undertake various functions or resolve issues in their organization. This was the case for the learning set member, Tonye, who had some administrative issues concerning high costs expended on stationeries and other office supplies. By deploying an involvement strategy, such as a task-force or quality circles, the core issues would probably have been unearthed and good suggestions proffered by the parallel structure. This would have been a cheaper solution, compared to what Tonye did i.e. hiring an administrator to oversee areas of office supplies, who he has to pay salaries and other benefits, month in – month out.

8.6.3 Management Philosophy

The top management has to believe in the efficacy of involving employees in areas traditionally assigned to management, such as crafting strategy and designing work procedures. As mentioned, if there is a prevalence of Theory-X managers in the organization's top hierarchy as opposed the Theory-Y managers, such attempts will likely fail. In this case, the executive has to be convinced that employees down the chart also have great ideas about the future of the firm and also on how to improve everyday work activities.

I believe some of the executives in my action learning set were convinced of this but others such as Tonye, not yet fully. This was understandable, Tonye is a relatively young person brought in to run his family law firm, so he has to overcome the perception that he got the position because of nepotism. This I think makes it harder to relinquish some control, which empowerment strategies feel like. However, at the end of the day, Tonye seemed willing to think about it, as he asked me if I could help train his staff members in working in teams effectively.

8.6.4 Inability to Lead from Within

As an entrepreneur, these sessions have also affected me profoundly as some of the blinders revealed during the sessions also affect me, such as the automatic affiliation to hierarchy and reliance on specialists. Fortunately, I am in the process of starting a new venture and as I approach tasks such as recruitment and setting up rewards systems and work processes, I am doing these with the work-team approach in mind. The biggest lesson for me is realising that I am also part of the work-team and the other members look towards me to carry my share of work-load and be a team member.

8.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided the practical recommendations that I believe will improve organizational commitment. The research has highlighted the importance of communication and empowerment in boosting commitment and I believe that implementing the involvement strategies discussed herein will achieve this. The chapter also presents several tips to aid the successful implementation of change. Although, this research does not deal with change management in the strict sense, the research shows that when change is not handled properly, commitment is likely to be adversely affected.

The discussions that took place during the final action learning session are summarized within the chapter. The experiences and opinions on the recommendations concerning adopting team-work structure, parallel involvement approaches and managing change effectively are recapped herein. It is also apparent that several impediments exist that could affect the implementation of these suggestions, which include: hierarchical mind-set, over-reliance on specialists and management philosophy.

CHAPTER NINE

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

9.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the reader with the limitations I faced whilst conducting this research. These might include lack of resources and probably skill but not of effort. Furthermore, this chapters provides my opinions for further research relating to organizational commitment in the service industries in Nigeria in specific and developing countries in general.

9.1 Limitations

While evaluating the outcomes and conclusions of this research, readers should be guided by several limitations that affected this study. Firstly, due to time limitations, this research could only take a cross-sectional approach and this limited my ability to make causal inferences. Perhaps, a longitudinal research with observations taken across several periods in time would expand the findings from the research enabling the researcher to make richer inferences based on causality (Theodosiou and Katsikea, 2013). Bronner (2002) argues that cross-sectional research often produces findings that might be transitory and only represent a slice of time. Longitudinal research attempts to alleviate such issues because the passage of time provides a wider frame from which more accurate inferences can be made and existing situations could be seen to evolve (Bronner, 2002).

The use of non-probability sampling techniques posed another limitation to the research. Probability (random) sampling reduces bias and allows for generalization of the results across the population (Etikan et al, 2015 and Tongco, 2007). Hence, caution has to be applied when generalizing the results. However, non-probability sampling techniques like purposive sampling do provide certain benefits for action research works like this. The intentional bias inherent with purposive sampling is its strength because it ensures that the population that can provide the necessary information is not eliminated, which is a possibility in random sampling (Tongco, 2007). The response rate is increased when using purposive sampling compared to random sampling (Etikan et al, 2015 and Tongco, 2007) and the use of online recruitment ensure a wide spectrum of participants, spread across the geographically across Nigeria, in different sectors of the service industry and levels of their organizations, this increases the generalizability and thus, the external validity. Purposive sampling is also more efficient in terms of limited nature of resources, finances and manpower, for an individual research (Barratt et al, 2015; Etikan et al, 2015; Tongco, 2007). Extant research has also

found that purposive sampling has proved to be robust and reliable when compared with random sampling (Tongco, 2007).

Amongst the three components of Organizational commitment put forward by Allen & Meyer, (1990), the research was conducted utilizing only two of the organizational commitment components: affective and continuance, whilst choosing to ignore a third component normative commitment. This was because several research had found strong correlation between affective and normative components of commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p.305; Cohen, 2007), hence, normative commitment was dropped to prevent any overlap and the attendant lack of discriminant validity. However, the argument can still be made for the use of normative commitment in such a study due to strong normative pressures felt by workers in poorer economies from family members and other dependants. In such societies because individuals are expected to provide for a larger number of people outside the nuclear family, the feeling of obligation to remain within one's organization is stronger (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Fischer & Mansell, 2009).

Furthermore, the Nigerian Service sector might be too broad in its scope because the different service sectors might possess their own peculiar characteristics and idiosyncrasies. Further research should focus specifically on a subsector for instance the hotel sub-sector, banking or business/professional training organizations. This could better serve managers in these sectors, also considering there are rules guiding most professions set up by several professional bodies or regulatory agencies.

9.2 Future Research

An important finding of the present research is the relationship or lack of it between continuance commitment and both organizational rewards and career growth. Whereas previous research carried out in developed economies found stronger ties between continuance commitment and both organizational rewards and career growth compared to the findings of the present research (Jans, 1989; Weng et al., 2010; Newman and Sheikh, 2012). Although the findings here, have some support from previous research carried out by Miao, et al. (2013) who found ties only between 'fringe benefits' and continuance commitment, whilst observing no significant links between other extrinsic rewards factors and continuance commitment. Hence, it is important that future research investigates what drives continuance commitment in specifically the service industries in Nigeria and in general, developing economies. Ordinarily, one would expect that the perception of adequate extrinsic rewards would restrain employees from having intentions to leave their organization but this does not seem the case according to this research and that from Miao and colleagues.

Secondly, worthy of further research is the relationship between organizational commitment and individual values. A large portion of the existing research on the relationship between values and commitment has concentrated on the national level rather than at the individual level. However, it is important to point out that personal values play a critical role in influencing individual behaviours in the work place. Values have the potential to influence

individual perceptions on certain situations and the attendant reactions to those situations. Moreover, values play an important part in determining fit between individuals and organizations based on the assumption that people are happier and more motivated when their values align with that of the organization (Liu and Cohen, 2010; Cohen, 2009).

Schwartz et al. (2012) posits that values represent three general requirements for human continuation: biological needs; needs of social interaction; and demands of group workings (Schwartz et al., 2012; Liu and Cohen, 2010). Schwartz asserts that values occupy an integral place within an individual's cognitive system thus influencing attitudes, decision-making and general human behaviours (cited in Liu & Cohen, 2010). Schwartz et al. (2012) put forward the popular categorization of individual values into ten categories: "Power, Achievement, Hedonism, Stimulation, Self-direction, Universalism, Benevolence, Tradition, Conformity and Security" (Schwartz et al., p. 664) and this provides a veritable tool to investigate the relationship between values and commitment. Schwartz et al contend that the basic individual values as proposed are organized in a clear and logical manner and should rather be viewed as a continuum of motivational goals instead of as discrete entities (Schwartz et al., 2012). It will be important to understand the dynamics in play when these identified individual values meet with the norms and expectations of the service industry in the Nigerian environment and the resultant effect on organizational commitment and consequently, customer service.

Another area deserving further research is the role of gender in organizational commitment and customer service behaviours. This research has revealed that significant links exist between gender and both affective commitment and extra-role service behaviour, with women exhibiting more compared to their male counterparts.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A1 - ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER

Inbox - dykos4@gmail.c | Fwd: Urgently looking fo | Laureate Lens | Thread: Ethics Applicatio

Secure | https://elearning.uol.ohecampus.com/webapps/discussionboard/do/message?action=list_messages&forum_id=_980816_1&group_id=_375238_1&nav=group_forum&conf_id=_

Class Materials
Discussion Board
Submissions
Tools

My Groups
Ukadike Ake
File Exchange
Group Blog
Group Discussion Board
Group Journal
Group Tasks
Send Email
Group Homepage
Customize Group Banner
Customize Group Color

Lucia Morales 2 years ago

Ethics Application Outcome

Dear Ukadike,

I am writing to you on behalf of the DBA Research Ethics Committee. Following the review of your ethics application, I am pleased to confirm that you have obtained research ethics approval for you work. By copy of this email I invite your Doctoral Thesis Supervisor - Dr. Katsikea to complete the associated section in the grade center of your Thesis BB class (please, see attached file with guidelines to complete the process, and if you have any questions do let me know).

My best wishes for an interesting and successful DBA research project.

Kind Regards,

Lucia

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Reply Quote

Select: All None

Message Actions Expand All Collapse All

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APPENDIX A2 –PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL

Committee on Research Ethics

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project: ***Correlates and Implications of Organizational Commitment: An Investigation into the Nigerian Service Industry.***

Researcher(s): Ukadike Ake

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read and have understood the information sheet dated [3rd March 2017] for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. ☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason, without my rights being affected. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline. ☐

3. I understand that, under the Data Protection Act, I can at any time ask for access to the information I provide and I can also request the destruction of that information if I wish. ☐

4. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

5. The information you have submitted will be published as a report; please indicate whether you would like to receive a copy. ☐

6. I understand that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained and it will not be possible to identify me in any publications. ☐

7. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in future research and understand that any such use of identifiable data would be reviewed and approved by a research ethics committee. ☐

8. I understand and agree that my participation will be audio recorded and I am aware of and consent to your use of these recordings for the following purposes **of identifying and analysing themes in relation with the correlates and anticipation of organizational commitment.** ☐

1

Version 2.1

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL

9. I agree for the data collected from me to be used in relevant future research. ☐

10. I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research. ☐

11. I understand and agree that once I submit my data it will become anonymised and I will therefore no longer be able to withdraw my data. ☐

Participant Name	Date	Signature
Name of Person taking consent	Date	Signature
Researcher	Date	Signature

[UAke_DBA_Version02]

Student Researcher:
Name: Ukadike Ake
Work Address: Light Waves Limited, Plot 106B, Trans-Amadi, Port Harcourt, Nigeria.
Work Telephone: +2348032058814.
Work Email: ukadike@lightwavesng.com; dykos4@gmail.com.

APPENDIX A3 – PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

UNIVERSITY OF LIVERPOOL

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Title of Study: ***CORRELATES AND IMPLICATIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: AN INVESTIGATION INTO NIGERIAN SERVICE INDUSTRY.***

Version Number and Date: UAke_DBA_Version02 (3rd March 2017)

Good Day,

You are being invited to participate in a research study on the influence of rewards on Correlates and Implications of Organization Commitment: An Investigation into the Nigerian Service Industry. This researcher intends to interview you as part of a group of seven people for a short period of time (about one hour and thirty minutes). Before you decide whether to participate, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and feel free to ask us if you would like more information or if there is anything that you do not understand. Please also feel free to discuss this with your friends, relatives and other professionals if you wish. I would like to stress that you do not have to accept this invitation and should only agree to take part if you want to.

Thank you for reading this.

Ukadike Ake.

Purpose of Study

The study aims to investigate the relationship between employee commitment to the organization and the level/quality of service to customer rendered by employees. Organizational Commitment can be defined as a force that binds an individual to a course of

action of relevance to a target and can be accompanied by different mind-sets that play a role in shaping behaviour. It can also be described as the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. In addition, the research attempts to discover the roles of rewards and career growth in influencing organizational commitment.

This research is designed to reveal ways or suggestions that can help such organizations improve their working environment and hopefully, yield better productivity. The study seeks also extend knowledge on the subject by gathering rich information from people working in various sectors in Nigeria; rather than relying solely on data collected from broad surveys. The experiences and individual perceptions on the topics will provide greater insight into the relationships between commitment and customer service quality in the Nigerian working environment.

Data collection for this research is being carried out through questionnaires and action learning set discussions. The learning set session will last for a duration of about one hour and thirty minutes. It is important to mention that no sensitive, medical or corporate financial information is being sought in this process.

Your Participation

You, along with six other participants, have been chosen to partake in this process because of your professional experience in the Nigerian service sector.

Your participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any point in the process without giving any explanation and without fear of any repercussion. Results up to the period of withdrawal may be used, if you are happy for this to be done. Otherwise you may request that they are destroyed and no further use is made of them.

Details, Requirements and Implications of Participation

Your participation will involve taking part in an action learning set discussion. During the session your experiences and opinions will be asked regarding the topics of organizational commitment, rewards, career growth and customer service in the work place.

The interview session will be recorded using a voice recorder and transcribed later. This is to enable analysis of the data collected by going through the transcripts in search of emerging themes. All information gathered will be treated confidentially and full anonymity will be applied to you and other participants. The data collected will be stored securely and password protected with access restricted to this researcher and the University of Liverpool.

The research findings will be submitted to the University of Liverpool and possibly published. However, you and other participants will not be identifiable (unless you wish to be identified), as aliases will be used for individuals and organizations.

Expenses and / or payments

Participation in this research attracts no compensation or reimbursement as this is the policy of the University of Liverpool.

Potential Risks involved in this research

There are very minimal risks taking part in this research. The probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated is not greater in and of themselves than that likely encountered in everyday life.

Benefits Arising from Participation

There are no material benefits from your participation from this research. However, the knowledge generated will contribute to the general body of academic and practical knowledge. In addition, if you desire the findings and report of the research will be shared with you.

Complaints and Grievances

If you are unhappy, or if there is a problem, please feel free to let me know by contacting [Ukadike Ake on +2348032058814] and I will try to help. If you remain unhappy or have a complaint which you feel you cannot come to me with then you should contact the Research Governance Officer at ethics@liv.ac.uk. When contacting the Research Governance Officer, please provide details of the name or description of the study (so that it can be identified), the researcher(s) involved, and the details of the complaint you wish to make.

Additional Information

For further information or if you have any questions, please contact me, Ukadike Ake, through:

Phone: +2348032058814.

Email: ukadike.ake@online.liverpool.ac.uk

APPENDIX A4 -ACCESS APPROVAL LETTERS

PARK HOTELS LTD

Wugo Dandy
General Manager

No 1, Water Works Road,
Rumuola, Port Harcourt,
Rivers State, Nigeria.
08033389377

Mr. Ukadike Ake
16 Bank Anthony Ave,
Trans Amadi, Port Harcourt,
Rivers State, Nigeria
08032058814
dykos4@gmail.com

10/11/2014

Dear Mr. Ukadike Ake,

We are pleased to authorize your request to conduct your doctorate research project titled "Correlates and Implications of Organizational Commitment: An Investigation into the Nigerian Service Industry" at our Organization.

Interviews and distribution of questionnaires are authorized and will be supervised by human resource unit. All concerns will be handled by the unit as well.

Sincerely,

Wugo Dandy

ILINCLTD™
EQUIPMENT HIRING/GENERAL ENGINEERING

Equipment Hiring and General Engineering
Flat 3, Block 9, 4th Street, Elekahia Estate, Elekehia
Port Harcourt, Rivers State.
08068738957, 08064018191, 08032058814

12th December 2014.

Dear Ukadike Ake,

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN YOUR ORGANIZATION

I am pleased to inform you that your application to conduct your doctorate research in our organization has been approved.

Access to our staff can be arranged through the Admin. Office by presenting this letter. Any additional information that you require, please do not hesitate to contact me or the head of administration.

I wish you all the best in your academic endeavours.

Yours Sincerely,

Nelson Ikan

GENERAL MANAGER.

Equipment Hiring and General Engineering - Flat 3, Block 9, 4th Street, Elekahia Estate, Elekahia
Port Harcourt, Rivers State. - 08068738957, 08064018191, 08032058814

KXW

...passion and innovation in corporate training

8th August 2014

Mr Ukadike Ake,

106B Rotary Club Road,
Trans Amadi, Port Harcourt
Rivers State, Nigeria

LETTER OF AUTHORIZATION TO CONDUCT PROJECT RESEARCH IN OUR ORGANISATION

This letter will serve as authorization for you [Mr Ukadike Ake] to conduct your research project entitled "Correlates and Implications of Organizational Commitment: An Investigation into the Nigerian Service Industry" at our Organisation.

We are glad to offer you an opportunity to conduct the same study in our organization having reviewed your letter. All interviews, filed surveys, observations within the organisation and the distribution of questionnaires are approved and will be duly supervised by the Admin unit. Should you have any concerns or require additional information, feel free to contact the unit.

Thank you

For: KXW Management Consultancy Limited

Uloma Diriyai

General Manager

APPENDIX B - MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS/QUESTIONNAIRE

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Correlates and Outcomes of Organizational Commitment

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this survey is to understand the antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment as relates to the service sector in Nigeria. This is part of the requirement for the award of a Doctor in Business Administration degree from the University of Liverpool.

The survey is voluntary and the information will be treated as strictly confidential and you are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason. The outcome of this survey will be used only for academic purposes.

In addition, anonymity will be accorded to all respondents and you have the right to request for access to the information gathered.

The questionnaire will take about 20 minutes to complete.

Thank you for taking time to participate in this survey.

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REWARDS IN THE ORGANIZATION

This section inquires on your perception of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered/enjoyed in your organization. Please pick the option that most suits your perception of these rewards.

* 1. Please select the option that best suits your perception of the extrinsic rewards available in your organization.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. The working conditions in my organization are adequate to perform a good job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. I am satisfied with the working conditions at my work place.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. I am not happy with the pay I receive for the job I do.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. I am satisfied with my pay considering other organizations I know of.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
5. I feel I am paid fairly considering the work I do.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
6. I am satisfied with the fringe benefits package.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
7. I can get better fringe benefits in other organizations.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

* 2. Please select the options that best describes the attitudes and characteristics of your supervisor and team members.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. My supervisor is not approachable.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. My supervisor helps make my job more pleasant.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. My supervisor treats all the workers as his/her equal.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. I am satisfied with the technical competence of my supervisor.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
5. I am satisfied with my supervisor's ability to lead me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
6. I satisfied am with the way my supervisor helps me achieve my goals.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
7. My co-workers are helpful to me in getting my job done.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
8. I am satisfied with the supportive attitude of my co-workers at work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
9. Everyone contributes to a team effort in serving customers.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
10. There is more of competition than cooperation between my co-workers and me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

* 3. Please select the options that best describe your perception about your job characteristics and attributes.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. Clear planned goals/objectives exist for my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. I know exactly what is expected of me in my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. I know how my performance is going to be evaluated.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
4. I feel certain about the level of authority I have.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
5. I do not know what my responsibilities are.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
6. The job requires me to use a number of complex skills.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
7. The job is not simple.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
8. The job does not allow me to use personal initiative in carrying out the work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
9. The job gives me opportunity for freedom in how I do the work.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
10. I have freedom to do what I want on my job to satisfy customers.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
11. Superior gives me feedback on how well I am performing on my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
12. I am praised by my superior for providing good service to customers.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
13. I receive recognition by superior for providing good service.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
14. I receive induction training before coming in contact with customers.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
15. I receive continued training to provide a good service.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
16. I receive regular training to keep me updated for good service.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
17. I have no influence in the decisions of my superior regarding things in my job.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
18. My superior asks my opinion when problem comes up.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
19. I feel it is easy to get job improvement ideas across to my superior.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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CAREER GROWTH

This section inquires into your perception of your career growth and prospects in your current organization.

* 4. Please select the option that best suits your perception of your career goal progress in your current job.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. My present job moves me farther away from my goals.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. My present job is relevant to my career goals and vocational growth.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. My present job sets the foundation for the realization of my career goals.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. My present job provides me with good opportunities to realize my career goals	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

* 5. Please select the option that matches the relationship between your current job and the development of your professional ability.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. My present job encourages me to continuously gain new and job-related skills.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. My present job encourages me to continuously gain new job-related knowledge.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. My present job encourages me to accumulate richer work experiences.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. My present job stifles my quest to continuously improve my professional capabilities.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

* 6. Please select the options that match your perceptions of your promotion prospects and speed in your organization.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. My promotion speed in the present organization is fast.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. The probability of being promoted in my present organization is low.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. Compared with previous organizations, my position in my present one is ideal.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. Compared with my colleagues, I am being promoted faster.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

* 7. Please select the options that matches your remuneration growth in your organization.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. My salary is growing quickly in my present organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. In this organization, the possibility of my current salary being increased is very large.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. Compared with my colleagues, my salary has not grown more quickly.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

This section inquires about your perceptions of how committed you are to your organizational from the affective, continuance and normative perspectives.

* 8. Please select the options that best match your feelings towards your organization.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
8. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

* 9. Please select the options that best match your perceptions about staying with your organization.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice — another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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CUSTOMER SERVICE

This section inquires into your perception of your abilities and behaviours towards customers.

* 10. Please select the options that best describe how you carry out your job requirements.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. I perform all those tasks for customers that are required of me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. I help customers with those things which are required of me.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. I fulfill responsibilities to customers as specified in my job description.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

* 11. Please select the options that best describe your behaviours towards your service role.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. I willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

* 12. Please select the options that best describe your abilities with regards to fulfilling your service duties.

	Strongly disagree.	Moderately disagree.	Slightly disagree.	Neither agree nor disagree.	Slightly agree.	Moderately agree.	Strongly agree.
1. I have enough professional knowledge to accommodate customer's demand momentarily.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. I have enough abilities and skills to supply excellent service.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. I have enough concepts to supply excellent service, like importance of service quality and teamwork.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

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GENERAL INFORMATION/DEMOGRAPHICS

In answering the following questions, kindly select the answer that describes your status.

* 13. What is your gender?

- ◯ 1. Male.
- ◯ 2. Female.

* 14. What is your industry of employment?

- ◯ 1. Government/Civil Service.
- ◯ 2. Banking/Finance.
- ◯ 3. Energy/Oil and Gas.
- ◯ 4. Hospitality.
- ◯ 5. Manufacturing.
- ◯ 6. Academics/Education.
- ◯ 7. Others.

* 15. Which of the ranges below does your monthly income fit into (in Nigerian Naira)?

- ◯ 1. 0 – 150,000.
- ◯ 2. 151,000 – 300,000.
- ◯ 3. 301,000 – 450,000.
- ◯ 4. 451,000 – 600,000.
- ◯ 5. 601,000 – 750,000.
- ◯ 6. 751,000 – 1,000,000.
- ◯ 7. Above 1,000,000.

* 16. What age bracket do you fit in?

- ◯ 1. Less than 20 years old.
- ◯ 2. 20 – 29 years old.
- ◯ 3. 30 – 39 years old.
- ◯ 4. 40 – 49 years old.
- ◯ 5. 50-59 years old.
- ◯ 6. 60 years and above.

* 17. What is your employment status?

- ◯ 1. Permanent staff.
- ◯ 2. Contract staff.