# INFLUENCE OF LEADER RAPPORT MANAGEMENT AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP AT WORKPLACE ON ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

BY

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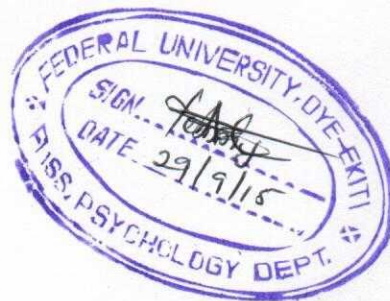
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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this research was carried out by **AUDU TEMITOPE SHERIFAT** with Matriculation Number PSY/11/0203 and the study was carried out under strict supervisions and has been approved for submission into the department of psychology, faculty of the social sciences and humanities, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Bachelor of Science of Science in Psychology from the Federal University Oye-Ekiti.

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DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to Almighty God, for his unconditional love and guidance towards me and my studies, from the beginning to the very end, especially as regards this project work, which looked impossible at first, but God proved His creation.

Also to my Parents, Fiance, Siblings, Relations and Friends, you all were my vessels of inspiration and help.

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ABSTRACT

Research has shown that Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is an important variable that drives an organisation to success. As a result, it is important to investigate factors that determine exhibition of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in organisation. This study examined the influence of leader rapport and interpersonal relationship on organisational citizenship behaviour of Ado local government workers in Ado Ekiti using the ex-post facto research design. One seventy (170) Ado workers were sampled using purposive sampling technique. Self report instruments were used for data collection which comprise of the demographic data, leader rapport scale, interpersonal closeness scale, and organisational citizenship behaviour scale. Three hypotheses were tested using t-test for independent samples and multiple regression. Results showed that high interpersonal relationship was a determinant of organisational citizenship behaviour. Age and Marital status independently and jointly influence Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. In contrast, Leader Rapport has no significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Findings were discussed in line with previous literature. It was recommended that relationship between supervisors and subordinates could be strengthened through seminars and motivational lectures. Also older applicants should be considered during recruitment process.

Key words: *Leader Rapport, Interpersonal Relationship, Gender, Marital Status, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.*

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The concept of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour has attracted the attention of the researchers, especially from the field of Organisational Psychology. The role of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in ensuring smooth running of firms cannot be over-emphasised. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) is accepted as vital subject to survival of an organisation and meets personal goals and needs (Daffy, 2013; Unal, 2013). Although the term Organisational Citizenship Behaviour was used firstly by Organ (1983) and his colleagues, but its meaning could be found in Bernard's (1938) concept of willingness to corporate (Mehboob & Bhutto, 2012). So far, numerous definitions of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour have been presented.

According to Organ (1988), OCB is the" Behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation" (Khaola, 2008). Helping others, loyalty, and organisational compliance are forms of OCBs (Lee, Kim, (2013). The term Organisational Citizenship Behaviour as stipulated earlier has been widely researched in psychological literature, various definitions have been propounded to explain the concept. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is a behaviour usually executed by an employee which is outside their duties, but promote organisational effectiveness and competitive power. In literature, there are two major dimensions of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour; Altruism and general compliance. The altruism behaviour involves all forms of helping behaviour that employee exhibited in the organisation, such behaviour has been reported to improve organisational efficiency (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Compliance behaviour among employee in the organisation involve all forms of behaviour which include less absenteeism,

punctuality at work and avoidance of excessive break in working hours. OCB is not a job requirement and is not part of a formal contract, but it's a personnel choice (Mehboob & Bhutto, 2012). Also, many constructs have been developed to conceptualize the term OCB since Organs' (1988) Construct such as prosocial behaviour, extra role behaviour, civic organisational behaviour and contextual performance behaviour.

Although there are some differences among these constructs, but the logic behind these constructs are same which have been investigated and put forward in different connotations and labels (Mehboob & Bhutto, 2012). Indeed, different authors have been suggested that Organisational Citizenship Behaviour has different dimensions from which Organ's (1983) five dimension taxonomy of OCB construct have been used by many researchers across the world in different contexts. In his viewpoint, dimensions of OCB include Altruism, Courtesy, Sportsmanship, Civic-virtue and Conscientiousness (Philip et al, 2012). Beyond the different definitions and constructions, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is an important issue in the field of management and organisational behaviour sciences. It is fulfilling the belief that OCB is an important component of organisational effectiveness (Philip, Kumar, Choudhary, 2012). Therefore, it seems that the research on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour could be useful and important.

In general, studies on OCB have focused on two issues. These issues include the consequences of OCB on the one hand and it's determinants on the other hand. In terms of outcomes, many studies in various contexts have indicated that OCB can affect different individual and organisational outcomes and performance. Also, in terms of determinants different researchers have examined various determinants of the human behaviour in the work environment. Chowdhury identified key determinants of OCBs, including sustainability culture, leadership support, and organisational commitment (Khaola, 2008). Higher level of OCB results in more productivity and profitability (Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). And researchers

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are proposing that OCB be used as a broader and truer measure of performance (Farahbod et al, 2012).

Decades ago Researches show that self-esteem and commitment were positively and significantly related to OCB (Khaola, 2008) and there is a relationship between individual characteristics and OCB (Dolan et al, 2013; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010; Yaghoubi et al, 2010; Iranzadeh & Asadi, 2009; Fang & Lim, 2002) but less have been done on the influence of Leader Rapport and Interpersonal Relationship on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. OCB has an effective role in the organisational operations, and have been widely addressed in many researches during the last decade (Philip et al, 2012). The level at which individual employee in the organisation engages in altruism and general compliance related behaviour goes a long way in predicting the level of organisational growth and development. Various factors have been associated with Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. Less attention is however given to the relationship between Leadership rapport and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, especially among Local Government Workers. The level of Leader Rapport and Organisational Citizenship related behaviour has a significant impact not only on the competitive advantage of the organisation, but also on overall growth and development of the firm.

The attitude that workers hold towards various aspect of their job and the work environment is the degree of OCB they experience. Therefore the willingness of workers to work meaningfully and contribute towards the attainment of organisational goal is the function of their Citizenship Behaviour. Also the relationship between Interpersonal Relationship of workers and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. Relationships are the essence of the organisation as organisations functioning is based on human cooperation (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Dutton and Heaphy, 2003). Organisations are formed by individuals who must interact in

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the purpose of getting the job done. On the other hand, Interpersonal Relationships inside and outside an organisation make the human activity meaningful. They serve as a prism through which employees perceive, judge and experience their work (Blustein, 2011). Thus, the work experience is strongly shaped by relationships with others and co-workers affect what one thinks, feels and does (Kahn, 2007). In their relationships people try to understand and give meaning to each other. They need this to steer their activities aimed at task accomplishment (Makin et al, 2000). As a result many organisational facets are influenced by employee relationships, such as decision making, communication and the information flow or HR practices (Kram and Isabella, 1985; Rawlins, 1992).

For the current study, rapport is defined as the level of relatedness felt between participants in an interaction (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000). It is important to note that, based on this definition, rapport cannot exist between two individuals who have not interacted. This differentiates the notion of rapport from feelings of connectedness or distance resulting from the roles or reputations of participants or various personal prejudices which influence the relationship. These factors may influence the development of rapport in a relationship; however, the focus of the current study is on elements of rapport that can be directly influenced by participant behaviour, especially leader behaviour, in a leader-subordinate relationship.

Drawing on Erving Goffman's concept of public self-image or "face" (1959, 1967), contemporary sociolinguistic research posits that the level of personal connection in an interaction is related to the interactants' fundamental and universal desires and rights related to their public self-image. More specifically, Brown and Levinson (1987) establish a theory of politeness with two aspects: autonomy (which they call negative face) is "the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others," while ego (which they call positive face) is "the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least

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some others". When a leader interacts with a subordinate, saying *Get that report to me by Friday*, the subordinate's desire for autonomy is threatened, leading to a perception of the leader's behaviour as impolite and lowering the level of rapport between the two individuals. Similarly, when a leader interacts with a subordinate, saying *Your production is down this quarter*, the subordinate's ego wants are threatened. The ability to "manage" others' wants/rights during interaction is a critical social skill because of its impact on rapport (Campbell, White, & Johnson, 2003).

Spencer-Oatey (2000, 2002) extended this line of sociolinguistic research and coined the term, "rapport management," which refers to the use of language to manage social relations by attending to interactants' desires and rights. In this context, rapport management refers to whether or not interpersonal communication behaviour works to increase/decrease rapport, regardless of a goal-oriented desire to do so. Spencer-Oatey (2000, 2002) expanded prior theory by postulating that these wants/rights apply at both the individual and group levels, thus producing four categories of public self-image involved in rapport management: ego wants (individual), ego wants (group), autonomy rights (individual), and association rights (group).

According to Berscheid and Ammazzalorso (2004), the concept of a relationship refers to two people whose behaviour is interdependent in that a change in behaviour in one is likely to produce a change in behaviour of the other. A 'close' relationship denotes an interaction pattern that takes place over a long period of time; the partners' influence on each other is strong and frequent, and many different types of behaviour are affected (Kelley *et al.*, 1983).

Close relationships are sometimes called "Interpersonal Relationships". The closest relationships are most often found with family and a small circle of best friends. Interpersonal relationships require the most effort to nurture and maintain. These are also the relationships

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that give you the most joy and satisfaction. Interpersonal relationship is an association between two or more people that may range from fleeting to enduring. This association may be based on inference, love, solidarity, regular business interactions, or some other type of social commitment. Interpersonal relationships are formed in the context of social, cultural and other influences. The context can vary from family or kinship relations, friendship, marriage, relations with associates, work, clubs, neighborhoods, and places of worship. They may be regulated by law, custom, or mutual agreement, and are the basis of social groups and society as a whole.

Interpersonal relationships are dynamic systems that change continuously during their existence. Like living organisms, relationships have a beginning, a lifespan, and an end. They grow and improve gradually, as people get to know each other and become closer emotionally, or they gradually deteriorate as people drift apart, move on with their lives, and form new relationships with others.
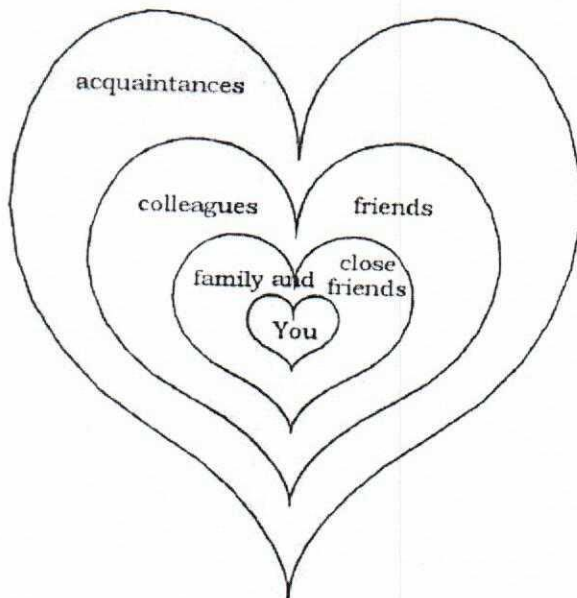
A number of theories have been formed to understand interpersonal relationships.

There is merit to looking at relationships from the perspective of each of these theories. To believe exclusively in one theory and disregard the other theories would limit our understanding of social relationships.

Interpersonal relationship is the nature of interaction that occurs between two or more people. People in an interpersonal relationship may interact overtly, covertly, face-to-face or even anonymously. Interpersonal relationships occur between people who fill each other's explicit or implicit physical or emotional needs in some way. Your interpersonal relationships may occur with friends, family, co-workers, strangers, chat room participants, doctors or clients. Strong interpersonal relationships exist between people who fill many of each other's emotional and physical needs. For example, a mother may have strong interpersonal relationships with her children, because she provides her child's shelter, food, love and acceptance. The extent of needs that a mother fills is greater than the extent of needs that are filled between, for example, you and the cashier at the grocery store. Mild interpersonal relationships exist when people fill modest needs. For example, if the extent of your relationship with the clerk at the grocery store is that he scans your items and you give him money, that is a weak interpersonal relationship.

From the moment of birth, human beings depend on others to satisfy their basic needs. Through this, children come to associate close personal contact with the satisfaction of basic needs. Later in life, we continue to seek personal contact for the same reason, even though we know we are capable of fulfilling our own needs without relying on others for survival. Also, being around others becomes a habit and the basic physical needs of infancy expand to include emotional and social needs as well. These can include the needs for praise, respect, affection, love, achievement, and so on. It is these needs which are acquired through social learning that motivate us as humans to seek relationships with people who can satisfy our

needs throughout our lives.

Good relationships require management, effort, and attention, but the investment pays off in many ways. Special bonds with other people are important for both mental and physical health. Research supports the idea that if we have strong, caring relationships with others, we are more likely to be healthy and live longer. Satisfying relationships with family and friends promote career success and we feel more protected as well as happy. Poor relations, on the other hand, may promote depression, drug abuse, weight problems, and other mental health problems.

1.2 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is the backbone of any organisation which influences workers performance and productivity at work influencing the speedy economic growth and development. It appears that attitude of workers towards work is declining everyday which may result in a state of confusion. It was reported that Local government workers engage in high level of counterproductive behaviour such as absenteeism, reporting late to work and all sorts of high voluntary turnover which is affecting the growth of the organisation at large. Most local government show low commitment and satisfaction to their work, they only report to work for the purpose of the benefits attached to the work in which this has been observed. It is therefore necessary to find a measure to tackle this problem. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is an important psychological concept that plays important role in the level of organisational growth and development. Low level of Leader Rapport and Organisational Citizenship related behaviour may have a detrimental effect on organisational growth and development.

Positive Interpersonal Relationships at work foster a variety of beneficial outcomes for individuals and organisations. When this relationship is weak it may have a negative effect on employees attitude towards work affecting organisational input and productivity. There is high incidence of voluntary turnover among local government workers in Nigeria. Although, voluntary turnover of poor performing employees is beneficial, loss of talented and skilled employees may have deterious effects on the local government sector. Further, turnover of employees disrupts teams and smooth workflow, reduces promotion and quality of service, and results in loss of knowledge, innovative ideas, and new approaches (Mustapha & Mourad, 2007; Wagner, 2010).

Today's world of competitive business market only allows the surviving firms that can compete favourably with rival firms. High-level of Counterproductive Behaviour such as absenteeism, turnover and other forms of the Counterproductive Work Behaviour all have negative implication on organisational effectiveness. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour can assist the Nigeria local government workers to be successful in current economic environment and accelerate novelty and creative approaches in meeting their targets. Most of the organisations are requiring from their employees to work for longer periods. The Local Government sectors are an important area of the economy that play important role in carrying out research work to suggest possible ways in which people improve on their work. High level of Leader Rapport, Interpersonal Relationship and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is very crucial to the delivery of quality services to the general populace. The following research questions will be asked in the study:

1. Does Leader Rapport predicts Organisational Citizenship Behaviour?

2. Can Interpersonal Relationship have an influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour?

3. Do Age and Marital Status have an influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour?

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

The main objective of this study is to examine the influence of Leader Rapport and Interpersonal Relationship on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour among local government workers in Ekiti-state, Ado-Ekiti; The specific objectives are;

- To examine the influence of Leader Rapport on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
- To investigate the influence of Interpersonal Relationship at workplace on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
- To assess the influence of Age and Marital status on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is a behaviour common among workers influencing their delivery of quality service to the organisation. Theoretically this study will add to body of existing knowledge by making us understand the contributing factors to Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. The significance of this study is to provide useful information towards the better understanding of Leader rapport, Interpersonal Relationship and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and on how to make an organisation a better and satisfactory place for an employee to stay in order to improve productivity and profit making. This study will help to orientate local government workers on how to better improve their Interpersonal Relationship with their leaders at work for the smooth running of the organisation, which will have a positive impact on the services they deliver to the people. Also this study will provide adequate information about the prevalence of Organisational

Citizenship Behaviour among local government workers. This study will provide far reaching implications in the field of government works and provide the appropriate recommendations to help improve workers attitude towards their work. The study is expected to improve past studies on the concept of Leader Rapport, Interpersonal Relationship and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 LEADER RAPPORT THEORIES

2.11 PATHGOAL THEORY OF LEADERSHIP

Pathgoal theory was initially developed by Robert House to explain workplace leadership. The theory builds heavily on two theories of work motivation: goal setting and expectancy theory. Goal-setting theory suggests that an effective way to motivate people is to set challenging but realistic goals and to offer rewards for goal accomplishment. Pathgoal theory builds on these propositions by arguing that effective leaders are those who help their subordinates achieve their goals. According to pathgoal theory, leaders have a responsibility to provide their subordinates with the information and support necessary to achieve the work goals. One way to do this is to make salient the effort reward relationship by linking desirable outcomes to goal attainment (e.g., emphasizing the positive outcomes to the subordinates if they achieve their goals) and/or increasing the belief (expectancy) that their work behaviours can lead to goal attainment (e.g., by emphasizing that certain behaviours are likely to lead to goal attainment).

The term pathgoal reflects the belief that effective leaders clarify the paths necessary for their subordinates to achieve the subordinates' goals. Leaders can do this in two main ways. First, leaders can engage in behaviours that help subordinates facilitate goal attainment (e.g., by providing information and other resources necessary to obtain goals). Second, leaders can engage in behaviours that remove obstacles that might hinder subordinates' pursuit of their goals (e.g., by removing workplace factors that reduce the chances of goalattainment).

Pathgoal theory is a *contingency theory*, proposing that effective leadership is contingent on the leader's adopting a particular style of behaviour to match the needs to the subordinate and the situation in which the subordinate is working. The theory identifies four main types of leadership behaviours, each of which can help subordinates attain their goals. *Supportive* leadership involves being considerate of the needs of subordinates and creating a friendly atmosphere to work in. *Directive* leadership involves letting subordinates know what is expected of them, giving clear guidelines, and making sure they know the rules and procedures to get the work done. *Participative* leadership involves consulting with subordinates and taking account of their opinions and suggestions when making decisions. *Achievementoriented* leadership involves setting challenging work goals, emphasizing the need for excellence in performance, and showing confidence that the subordinates will attain high work standards. The choice of which style of leadership to use depends on two groups of contingency variables. One group concerns environmental factors that are outside the control of the subordinate (e.g., task structure, authority system, work group), and the other group concerns individual factors that are inherently part of the subordinate (e.g., personality, experience, and abilities).

The theory makes a number of predictions concerning which style of leadership will be most effective in particular situations and with types of subordinates. Because of the large number of contingency factors, there are many potential predictions; some of the main ones are described below. Supportive leadership should be most effective when the nature of the work is stressful, boring, or dangerous. This is because a supportive style by the leader will increase subordinates' satisfaction and self confidence and reduce the negative aspects of the situation. This should lead to an increase in the intrinsic valance of the job and the expectation that it will be performed well and lead to the attainment of goals.

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However, supportive leadership would have little benefit for those subordinates who are satisfied in their work and find it enjoyable (because they already find the work intrinsically motivating).

Directive leadership is most effective when people are unsure what tasks they have to do or when there is a lot of uncertainty within their working environment. This occurs primarily because a directive style clarifies what the subordinates need to do and therefore reduces task ambiguity. In addition, the directive style will make clear the relationship between effort and reward and therefore the expectancy that effort will lead to a valued outcome.

Participative leadership can be effective in unstructured situations because it can increase role clarity, and it can also be effective for people who have a high need to control their environment. Conversely, this style will be less effective for those people who like to be directed at the workplace and do not take on too much responsibility for their outcomes.

Finally, an achievement oriented style is effective when the work is complex and the environment is uncertain. This is because it can increase subordinates' self confidence that they are able to attain the goals.

According to pathgoal theory, for leaders to be effective, he/she needs to do the following: recognize the needs of those they manage and try to satisfy these needs through the workplace, reward people for achieving their goals, help subordinates identify the most effective paths they need to take to reach their goals, and clear those paths so that subordinates can reach their goals. The particular style of leadership that is effective in achieving these outcomes will depend on the contingency factors described above.

The theory has a great deal of intuitive appeal because it can be applied easily to the workplace. It emphasizes understanding the needs of subordinates within the context of their working situation and using the appropriate style of leadership to help subordinates achieve

their work goals. One implication of this approach is that leaders need to adopt multiple leadership styles and be able to tailor these styles to the characteristics of the subordinate and the situation. Because of the emphasis on the role of leaders' behaviours rather than their traits, the theory has many applications for leadership training programs.

2.12 TRANSFORMATIONAL-TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

Transformational-transactional leadership theory is one way in which the behaviours of leaders can be described and evaluated. Transformational leaders exhibit charisma and shared vision with their followers, stimulating others to produce exceptional work. Transactional leadership describes more of a "give and take" working relationship – rapport between leader and follower is established through exchange, such as a rewards system for meeting particular objectives. Meta-analyses reveal that transformational leadership is correlated to more positive outcomes than any other leadership style, and it also predicts better contextual performance, describing follower performance above and beyond what is delineated by job requirements alone.

Finally, research has also shown that female managers typically outscore male managers on measures of transformational leadership, leading some to suggest the existence of a "female leadership advantage." However, stereotypes remain salient (since leadership is stereotypically a male domain) and give rise to pressures such as role incongruity and a double-bind effect that remain a challenge today.

Leadership matters – while some believe that business outcomes are more governed by historical, structural, or environmental factors, research has demonstrated a relationship between managerial effectiveness and positive organisational performances (Kaiser, 2008). Successful organisational outcomes have been linked to the quality of management, both through metaanalytic studies and anecdotally. In Good to Great (Collins, 2001), a

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management book on common characteristics among above-average companies, Jim Collins tells the story of Darwin Smith and his subsequent transformation of Kimberly-Clark. Under his twenty-year leadership as CEO, the company went from being a straggler in its field, lagging 36% in market share behind its competitors, to becoming the leading paper-products brand in the world. Given that good leaders do have an impact on their followers and organisations, much research has gone into the field of leadership theory to better understand the characteristic behaviours of people who demonstrate success. Over the past twenty-five years, a large body of research has emerged around transformational-transactional leadership theory. First described by James Burns in 1978, transformational leadership represents a leadership style that is exemplified by charisma and shared vision between leaders and followers (Burns, 2010). The power of transformational leaders comes from their ability to stimulate and inspire others to produce exceptional work. In contrast, transactional leadership describes more of a "give and take" working relationship – rapport between leader and follower is established through exchange, such as a rewards system for meeting particular objectives.

Bernard Bass further expanded on Burn's theory in 1985 to describe specific behaviors that comprise each leadership style. Transformational leadership can be examined along the following five dimensions: two types of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass, 1985). Each item is described in more detail below.

Idealized influence. Also known as charismatic leadership, this characteristic describes the extent to which leaders are capable of being role models to their followers and display solid moral and ethical principles. Idealized influence is described in two types: attributed (what traits are assigned to a leader) and behavioural (what one does). Those measuring high in idealized influence would respond positively to statements such as "I

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instill pride in others for being associated with me" and "I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission" (Alvolio and Bass, 1995).

Inspirational motivation. This characteristic reflects the extent to which a leader is also capable of being a cheer leader, so to speak, on behalf of his or her followers. These leaders demonstrate enthusiasm and optimism, and emphasize commitment to a shared goal.

Intellectual stimulation. Transformational leadership instills creativity, as well followers are encouraged to approach problems in new ways. Intellectually stimulating leaders relate to statements such as "I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate" and "I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments" (Alvolio and Bass, 1995).

Individual consideration. Transformational leaders are invested in the development of their followers – they serve also as mentors and coaches, and take into account individual needs and desires within a group. Two-way communication is particularly recognized under this dimension.

Transactional leadership is defined by different elements;

The first, *contingent reward*, describes the extent to which effective transaction and exchange is set-up between leader and followers. Leaders practicing contingent reward relate to statements such as "I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts" and "I express satisfaction when others meet expectations."

The second dimension, *management-by-exception*, describes whether leaders act to either prevent (active management) or resolve (passive management) problems as they arise. Someone who practices passive management-by-exception would respond to statements such as "I fail to interfere until problems become serious," while those adhering to active management-by-exception might instead relate to "I concentration my full attention on

dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures." Finally, the absence or avoidance of any leadership behaviours is termed "laissez-faire leadership.

2.13 INTEPRRSONAL RELATIONSHIP THEORY
2.14 EQUITY THEORY

Equity theory is a theory that attempts to explain relational satisfaction in terms of perceptions of fair/unfair distributions of resources within interpersonal relationships. Considered one of the justice theories, equity theory was first developed in 1963 by J. Stacy Adams, a workplace and behavioural psychologist, who asserted that employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs that they bring to a job and the outcomes that they receive from it against the perceived inputs and outcomes of others (Adams, 1965). The belief is that people value fair treatment which causes them to be motivated to keep the fairness maintained within the relationships of their co-workers and the organisation. The structure of equity in the workplace is based on the ratio of inputs to outcomes. Inputs are the contributions made by the employee for the organisation.

Equity theory proposes that individuals who perceive themselves as either under-rewarded or over-rewarded will experience distress, and that this distress leads to efforts to restore equity within the relationship. It focuses on determining whether the distribution of resources is fair to both relational partners. Equity is measured by comparing the ratios of contributions and benefits of each person within the relationship. Partners do not have to receive equal benefits (such as receiving the same amount of love, care, and financial security) or make equal contributions (such as investing the same amount of effort, time, and financial resources), as long as the ratio between these benefits and contributions is similar. Much like other prevalent theories of motivation, such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, equity theory acknowledges that subtle and variable individual factors affect each person's

assessment and perception of their relationship with their relational partners (Guerrero et al., 2005). According to Adams (1965), anger is induced by underpayment inequity and guilt is induced with overpayment equity (Spector 2008). Payment whether hourly wage or salary, is the main concern and therefore the cause of equity or inequity in most cases.

In any position, an employee wants to feel that their contributions and work performance are being rewarded with their pay. If an employee feels underpaid then it will result in the employee feeling hostile towards the organisation and perhaps their co-workers, which may result in the employee not performing well at work anymore. It is the subtle variables that also play an important role in the feeling of equity. Just the idea of recognition for the job performance and the mere act of thanking the employee will cause a feeling of satisfaction and therefore help the employee feel worthwhile and have better outcomes.

An individual will consider that he is treated fairly if he perceives the ratio of his inputs to his outcomes to be equivalent to those around him. Thus, all else being equal, it would be acceptable for a more senior colleague to receive higher compensation, since the value of his experience (and input) is higher. The way people base their experience with satisfaction for their job is to make comparisons with themselves to people they work with. If an employee notices that another person is getting more recognition and rewards for their contributions, even when both have done the same amount and quality of work, it would persuade the employee to be dissatisfied. This dissatisfaction would result in the employee feeling under-appreciated and perhaps worthless. This is in direct contrast with the idea of equity theory, the idea is to have the rewards (outcomes) be directly related with the quality and quantity of the employees contributions (inputs). If both employees were perhaps rewarded the same, it would help the workforce realize that the organisation is fair, observant, and appreciative.

This can be illustrated by the following equation:

$$\frac{\text{Individual's outcomes}}{\text{Individual's input}} = \frac{\text{relational partner's outcomes}}{\text{relational partner's inputs}}$$

The equity theory is basically a more complex version of the social exchange theory. Some social science researchers believe that people are not solely motivated by the need to achieve a positive balance sheet in their relationships. Equity theory explains that people are also concerned about equity in their relationships. In other words, they believe that the rewards and costs they experience in a relationship should be roughly equal to the rewards and costs experienced by their relationship partner. two are not equal because on one side you add so much cost and get very little rewards and your partner gets lots of rewards and submits no cost.

2.15 FIRO THEORY

In 1958 Schutz formally introduced a theory of interpersonal relations called FIRO (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation). The theory presented three dimensions of interpersonal relations posited to be necessary and sufficient to explain most human interaction. On the behavioural level, these dimensions were called *Inclusion, Control* and *Affection*. Schutz also created a measurement instrument, FIRO-B, consisting of scales that measure the behavioural aspects of these three dimensions. Over the past 45 years, Schutz has revised and expanded FIRO theory and developed additional instruments (Schutz 1994, 1992) for measuring the new aspects of the theory, including Element B: Behaviour (an improved version of FIRO-B); Element F: Feelings; Element S: Self; Element W: Work Relations; Element C: Close Relations; Element P: Parental Relationships; and Element O: Organisational Climate .

The theory was been so extensively revised and strengthened and has generated so many new instruments and important improvements that at the suggestion of Jack Black (founder of CPP and publisher of FIRO-B), the new set of measures was renamed. Since 1984, these instruments have been known collectively as ELEMENTS of AWARENESS and are being used by Schutz, his associates and others in the US and in over a dozen foreign countries (Schutz, 1994).

Schutz created the FIRO-B in 1958 specifically to measure the interaction between two people for research purposes. When he realized the many ways it was being used after it was made available to the public, he created a new generation of the instruments which were more suitable for general usage. FIRO-B provides feedback on six aspects of interpersonal behaviour while Element B provides the same information plus twelve additional measures. Element B "fills in" the gaps left by the original instrument, provides a single response scale rather than switching back and forth between two, has simplified wording and greater scale integrity, and identifies not just what a person does or gets, but what they want in each of these areas. It also measures their satisfaction with their behaviours.

FIRO theory focuses on three major levels: *behaviour, feelings* and *self-concept*. FIRO Element B focuses on behaviour (hence the B in the name) in three interpersonal content areas: inclusion, control and openness. Openness was changed from the original Affection which is more appropriate at the feeling level (Schutz, 1992). Inclusion is concerned with achieving the desired amount of contact with people. Sometimes people like a great deal of inclusion; they are outgoing, enjoy doing things with a group, and tend to start conversation with strangers. At other times, people prefer to spend time alone. People differ as to how much they want to be with others and how much they prefer to be alone.

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Control is concerned with achieving the desired amount of control over people. Some people are more comfortable when they are in charge of people. They like to be in charge, to give orders and to make decisions for both themselves and others. At other times, they prefer to have no control over people and may in fact prefer to be controlled by others. They may even seek out situations in which others will clearly define their responsibilities for them. Everyone has some desire to control other people and some desire to be controlled.

The third area is concerned with achieving just the desired amount of openness. Some people enjoy relationships in which they talk about their feelings and inner-most thoughts. They have one or more people in whom they confide. At other times, they prefer not to share their personal feelings with other people. They like to keep things impersonal and business-like, and they prefer to have acquaintances rather than close friends. Everyone has some desire for open relationships and some desire to keep their relationships more private.

2.16 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR THEORY

2.17 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

Social Exchange has been widely cited as an explanation for why employees might act as good organisational citizens, proposing that individuals perform Organisational Citizenship Behaviour as part of a desire to maintain equitable and favorable workplace relationships that extend beyond the benefits of the more impersonal contractual agreements. The concept of OCB originally grew out of Dennis Organ's musings into explanations for the apparent non-relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Organ, 1988).

According to Wat and Shaffer (2005), social exchange theory is originally an economic model of human behaviour, in which all interactions among organisational members or between individuals and the organisation are depicted as exchanges, and individuals seek to maximize benefits and minimize losses through exchanges. The theory

suggest that the relationship of the staff and their managers in an organisation is like an informal exchange based on a mental contract. When the organisations meet the expectations of their staff, the employees try to fulfil organisational goals in return. Every employee expects to be treated fairly by the employer. In that case, he/she tries to compensate by more job involvement and higher performance as a return (Saks, 2006).

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour was eventually proposed as an alternative form of performance, differentiated from traditional performance on the basis of its relative freedom from situational and ability constraints . Essentially, the upper boundary of task performance is largely limited by a person's knowledge, skills, and ability, and the lower boundary is limited by the fear of losing one's job. This means the individual performing the job does not have a great deal of room to vary in performance based on their satisfaction with the context. In contrast, helping a co-worker does not necessarily depend on expertise in helping, and because doing so is not typically tied to a person's job description that person may decide not to perform the behaviour at all. In this sense, citizenship has more freedom to vary than task performance, and should be comparatively more likely to vary with a person's cognitive or affective appraisal (i.e., job satisfaction) of the workplace (Organ, 1988).

Researchers started out exploring the role between job satisfaction and OCB, but the focus soon shifted to fairness. The reasoning here was that satisfaction and its close relative, commitment, were reflections of the employees' attitudes *toward* the organisation, rather than direct insights on how they perceive the organisation to be acting toward *them* (Moorman, Niehoff, & Organ, 1993). While satisfaction and commitment might be influenced by both cognitions and mood, fairness- thought to be a component of satisfaction- represented a conscious calculation of the environment. Social exchange provided a mechanism for the intuitive link between attitudes and performance. The idea was that many acts in the workplace are not strictly regulated by contractual obligations, but through a more implicit

and discretionary exchange of resources, including those more social in nature (Blau, 1964). According to this perspective employees might perform Organisational Citizenship Behaviours' out of a sense of obligation to return any number of perceived material or social benefits they have gained from the organisation (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006)

As Cropanzano & Michell (2005) pointed out, social exchange can refer to a type of transaction, but has typically been conceptualized as a type of relationship by Organisational Citizenship Behaviour theorists (e.g., Organ, 1988). In this view, organisations function partially through mutually desirable relationships in which parties give and receive a variety of benefits- including socio emotional benefits. When trust has been developed to a critical level, employees can engage in behaviours beyond the minimum requirement, trusting that they will not be taken advantage of, but rather their needs will be met through this ongoing relationship. In this light, social exchange does not explicitly specify motives beyond the desire to maintain the exchange relationship. But researchers have given a few possible motives for engaging in Organisational Citizenship Behaviour from this perspective, or for sustaining the relationship. Concerning motives on the employees' parts, there have generally been two similar, yet distinct, lines of reasoning within the social exchange perspective for why people might perform Organisational Citizenship Behaviours'.

First, when people perceive that they are treated fairly, the norm of reciprocity says that they should reciprocate (Blau, 1964). So people perform Organisational Citizenship Behaviour's in order to "give back" to the organisation, or organisational leader. This explanation is typically linked to group-value literature, placing heavy emphasis on the quality of the relationship, such that employees are guided to return benefits in order to maintain the social exchange relationship (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2001).

The notion of reciprocity according to Gouldner, (1960) implies that employees and their organisation are independent. Their combined efforts lead to ultimate outcomes. Gergen (1969) pointed out if one party supplies a benefit, the other receiving party should respond in kind. Therefore, if an organisation wishes to have committed employees, the organisation itself should make the commitment to its employees as well.

The second line of reasoning is similar but slightly more proactive: Employees demonstrate civic behaviour when they think they are suported and treated fairly by their employer. Though agreeing with the conceptual framework of social exchange theory, Lavelle (2010) argued that demonstrating OCB entails personal motivations that go beyond the need to offer something in return for being treated fairly. Whatever underlying reason or motivation, voluntary cooperation through OCB reflects a propensity to go beyond the expectations of the employer and the employee's colleagues. Voluntary efforts, particularly those made freely and that involve going beyond the tasks explicitly required as part of the job description, appear to be incompatible with the intention to leave. Furthermore, the literature on social exchange theory provides findings, which indicate that employees exchange desirable outcomes return for fair treatment, support or care.

Since OCB enhances organisational effectiveness, top management values OCBs as desirable outcomes. Morrison (1994) theorized the link between OCB and employees retention. Arguing that 'an organisation's human resource philosophy is one that places high value on retaining employees in a long-term relationship, employees will exchange in more organisational citizenship behaviour'. The norm of reciprocity is the underlying process providing a better account of the kind of exchange described by Morrison. Reciprocity between two entities (e.g. an employee and an employer) requires two basic premises:

1. People should help those who have helped them, and
2. People should not injure those who have helped them (Gouldner 1960).

On the basis of the norm of reciprocity, Schaninger & Turnipssed (2005) argued that an employee gives something to the donor (employee, supervisor or colleague) who provides something that the employee finds valuable. Employees value supportive decision-making and fair treatment, where as employers value loyalty, in-role performance and OCB.

According to this theory, a local government enters a contract immediately he/she is given his/her appointment letter. The psychological contract is the unwritten aspect of the job that bothers on the expectations of both the worker and the organisation. It is to be noted that the economic exchanges in form of salaries and other severance packages are short time in nature. The social exchange relationships which are mostly behavioural in nature and cover the unwritten aspect of the job are long term in nature.

Since exchanges are on a continuum from economic to social, organisations would do well to look beyond the economic exchanges and concentrate on social exchanges. The quality and the maintenance of the exchange relationships depend on fair treatment for each of the entities involved. It is proposed that an individual's relationship with the organisation is based on the social exchange framework, which will continue until fairness is evidenced, at which point the individual will re-interprete the relationship as fundamentally economic rather than social (Organ, 1990).

2.18 HERZBERG MOTIVATOR-HYGIENE THEORY

Herzberg, (1996) developed Motivator-Hygiene theory. The theory was concerned about the conditions in the work situation that can satisfy or dissatisfy individuals. In other words, his theory found job dissatisfaction to be associated primarily with factors in the work context or environment. Specifically, organisational policy and administration, technical

supervision, salary, interpersonal relations with one's supervision, and working conditions were mostly frequently mentioned by employees expressing job dissatisfaction.

The results from this theory of motivation seem to point to two sets of factors: that is, one set relating to job satisfaction and other relating to job dissatisfaction. Herzberg observes that satisfiers are related to job context. The satisfiers were seen as capable of evoking individual behaviour toward effort, performance and satisfaction and currently OCB. The dissatisfiers were seen as capable of influencing emotional adjustment job turnover, quality of life, and absenteeism, but cannot motivate people. The factor relating to job satisfaction he called *motivators*, those relating to job dissatisfaction he reffered to *hygiene* factors. Thus, the hygiene factors serve as baseline; they are necessary to maintain the human resources of an organisation.

In this context, factors (motivators) relating to OCB among local government workers could be achievement, recognition characteristics of the work, responsibility and advancement. These factors were all related to outcomes associated with the content of the task being performed by Nigeria local government workers. Hence, it is hypothesized those motivators cause worker to move from a state of no satisfaction with feelings of psychological empowerment, fairness in downsizing procedures and affective commitment.

Herzberg theory further assumes that with reasonably good environment conditions (i.e. hygiene factors) motivation will take place among local government workers by concentrating on higher-order needs in Maslow theory, such as esteem self-centralization.

In other words, only a challenging job like government job, which has the opportunities for achievement, recognition, advancement and growth will motivate employees. To achieve this, Herzberg suggested that work should be made more interesting or less routine role clarification should be made; recognition for a job well done and promotion among workers dependent on good performance.

The implication for managers of the motivator-hygiene theory is that meeting employees lower-level needs by improving pay, benefits, psychological empowerment, affective commitment, safety and other job contextual fctors will prevent employee actively dissatisfied (thereby wanting to leave the organisation) but will not motivate them to exert additional effort (such as OCB) toward better performance. To motivate workers, according to the theory, managers must focus on changing the intrinsic nature and careers content of jobs themselves by "enriching" them to increase employees' autonomy and their opportunities to take on additional responsibility, gain recognition, and develop their skills.

2.19 DISCREPANCY THEORY

Another relevant social cognitions theory that is important in the development of OCB research is discrepancy theory (Lawler, 1971). The discrepancy theory builds on equity theory by incoporating inputs and outputs to form a perception of fairness and uses a referent other in this assessment. However, discrepancy theory adds important variables, revises the mechanism by which individuals determine their level of satisfaction, and incorporates expectancy theory (Vroom 1964). The focal individual assesses his or her level of inputs and uses a referent other's inputs and outcomes to partially determine the amount of pay/reward that should be received. A difference between this model and equity theory is that the individual also takes into account perceived job characteristics including job level, perceived difficulty of the task, and perceived responsibility when determining the perceived amount of pay/reward that should be received. This set of perceptions forms one half of the key comparison in the discrepancy model thaty determines one's level of OCB. The other half of the comparison is the perceived amount of pay received that is determined by actual pay received as compared to the perceived pay of a refrent other. If there is a discrepancy between an individual's perception of how much he/she receives and how he or she feels

should be received, the individual will be motivated to reduce the dissonance in much the same way explained by equity theory.

According to discrepancy theory, unlike equity theory, motivation to engage in behaviours to reduce tension is not solely determined by a difference between what is expected and what is actually received. Lawler's discrepancy theory further enhances equity's explanation of reward satisfaction's relationship with behaviour by incorporating a component expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), valence to determine whether a person will react strongly to the discrepancy. For example, if psychological empowerment is important, a discrepancy will have an impact on the individual's behaviour such as intention to quit the job or not. The incorporation of valence is important because it explains why two individuals in the same inequitable or discrepant situations react differently.

2.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Researchers have sought to identify which leadership style or which elements of particular leadership styles can be linked to positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, follower motivation, and organisational performance. Judge and Piccolo performed a meta-analysis of 626 correlations from 87 sources to relate transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership characteristics to the aforementioned outcomes (Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Their findings support a link between effective leadership and all dimensions of transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), as well as a single dimension of transactional leadership, contingent reward. Though transformational and transactional leadership are often presented as being at opposing ends of a spectrum, a combination of select elements from both leadership styles may yield the best results.

These meta-analytic findings are consistent with a more recently published study – Wang et al. showed that transformational leadership had a positive impact at personal, team, and organisational levels, with the strongest boost to performance occurring at the team level (Wang, 2011). They also further elucidated the impact of contingent reward (a dimension of transactional leadership linked to positive outcomes) as compared to that of transformational leadership. They noted that contingent reward better predicted individual task performance (behaviour prescribed by the job role), while transformational leadership predicted better contextual performance (organisational citizenship behaviour, which describes performance above and beyond what is delineated by job requirements alone).

Past research has focused on the formation of interpersonal relationships at work as a function of employee demographics and the work environment. Song and Olshfski (2008) proposed that who we claim as our friends is influenced by our family ties, class, ethnic background, race, gender, age, experience, interests, and geography. Many theories support the proposition that demographic characteristics impact social relationships between individuals (Sacco & Schmitt, 2005). Social categorization (Tajfel, 1981; Turner, 1987) and social identity theories (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1982) put forth that people categorize themselves and others into in-groups and out-groups according to salient characteristics, including race and sex. Individuals tend to minimize differences among in-group members and maximize perceived differences between groups. Individuals react more positively to interactions with people in the same group, even when group distinctions are arbitrary (Sacco & Schmitt, 2005; Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sherif, 1961). Similarly, the similarity-attraction paradigm (Berscheid & Walster, 1978; Byrne, 1971) and relational demography theory (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989) suggest that demographic similarity leads to attraction and liking and positively impacts the social relationships between employees. Interestingly, these theories suggest that demographic effects on

workplace relationships and the consequences of such relationships may occur even without extensive employee interaction. Valued interpersonal relationships positively impact individual attitudes, opinions and organisational outcomes (Becker, 1992; Dotan, 2009; Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007; Morrison, 2004; Mossholder, Settoon, & Henagan, 2005; Rioran & Griffeth, 1995). This is true for both relationships between co-workers and relationships between supervisors and subordinates. In a study of government workers in South Korea and the United States, Song and Olfshki (2008) found that in both countries friendships between superiors and subordinates positively affect work attitudes.

Robinson et al. (1993) found similar results when examining work units of nurses. Unit morale was directly related to supervisor support and co-worker relationships. Results from a Gallup study suggest that friendships and socially supportive environments at work are related to employee engagement and commitment (Ellingwood, 2001). Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) found that coworker support, including coworker mentoring, friendliness and positive affect, was associated with increased levels of job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment. In the same study, co-worker support was negatively associated with detrimental aspects of role perceptions (e.g., role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload). Positive work relationships help to reduce turnover and improve performance by providing functional-, task- or career-related benefits.

2.2.1. LEADER RAPPORT AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

The influence of leadership is important in the military, politics, government, academia, and, indeed, in every profit or non profit organisation. The research detailed here investigates the quality of the relationship between LMX on subordinate's commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The conclusions might help policy-making management executives and human resource specialists to support initiatives such as

employee training and leadership career development, and help positively shape the organisation's future.

Previous studies examine the construct of citizenship behaviour based on leaders' reports. Wayne and Green (1993) investigate the effects of LMX on employee citizenship behaviour from the standpoint of the member rather than the leader. The research extends and builds on Wayne and Green's study by examining the relationship between LMX and the consequences of OCB, with the member as the source. Ingroup (high-quality relationship) or outgroup (low-quality relationship) (Graen and Scandura, 1987). The theory asserts that leaders do not interact with subordinates uniformly (Graen and Cashman, 1975) because supervisors have limited time and resources. "In-group" subordinates perform their jobs in accordance with the employment contracts and can be counted on by the supervisor to perform unstructured tasks, to volunteer for extra work, and to take on additional responsibilities. Supervisors exchange personal and positional resources (inside information, influence in decision making, task assignment, job latitude, support, and attention) in return for subordinates' performance on unstructured tasks (Graen and Cashman, 1975).

As a result, research shows mutual trust, positive support, informal inter-dependencies, greater job latitude, common bonds, open communication, high degree of autonomy, satisfaction, and shared loyalty exist (Dansereau, Graen, and Haga, 1975; Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). In contrast, subordinates who perform only in accordance with the prescribed employment contract are characterized as "out-group" with limited reciprocal trust and support, and few rewards from their supervisors (Deluga, 1998). The exchange between the superior-subordinate (dyad), a two-way relationship, is the unique basic premise and the unit of analysis of LMX.

As noted by Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982), commitment is the "relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in the organisation" in terms of values

and goals. Ostroff (1992) reports that committed employees are associated with better organisational performance, have a low turnover rate, and have low absenteeism. It is essential, therefore, that supervisors understand the significance of building a positive relationship with their respective subordinates. The supervisor should clearly state the goals, mission, and vision of the organisation and, most important, the role each of the subordinates instills a sense of belonging and a positive feeling of identification with the organisation, thus enhancing the subordinate's commitment to the organisation.

2.2.2 INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Positive interpersonal relationships at work have an advantageous impact on both organisational and individual variables. Research has demonstrated that friendships at work can improve individual employee attitudes such as job satisfaction, job commitment, engagement and perceived organisational support (Cherniss, 1991; Ellingwood, 2001; Jehn & Shah, 1997; Morrison, 2009; Riordan & Griffeth, 1995; Robinson, Roth, & Brown, 1993; Song & Olshfski, 2008; Zagenczyk, Scott, Gibney, Murrell, & Thatcher, 2010).

In addition, employee's negative work attitudes can be mitigated when peers act as confidantes to discuss bad and unpleasant work experiences (Anderson & Martin, 1995; Fine, 1986; Morrison, 2009; Odden & Sias, 1997; Sias & Jablin, 1995; Song & Olshfski, 2008).

Finally, valued work relationships can influence organisational outcomes by increasing institutional participation, establishing supportive and innovative climates, increasing organisational productivity and indirectly reducing the intent to turnover (Berman, West, Richter, & Maurice, 2002; Crabtree, 2004; Ellingwood, 2004; Riordan & Griffeth, 1995; Song & Olshfski, 2008). Given that friendships at work provide valuable individual

and organisational outcomes, one might ask, how can organisations generate positive interpersonal relationships.

Previous research has examined contextual and demographic antecedents to workplace relationships to better understand what influences the likelihood that employees develop positive relationships at work. Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is defined as helping behaviour that is not formally rewarded by the organisation, but which aids in the functioning of the organisation (Organ, 1997). OCB is distinguishable from task performance, which refers to activities that appear in a formal job description like transforming raw materials into goods and services or maintaining the technical core, and enables the organisation to function more effectively and efficiently. Researchers have distinguished between two distinct components of OCB as determined by the target of the helping behaviour: The organisation as a whole (OCBO) or the individual worker or supervisor (OCBI) (Ilies et al., 2009; Williams & Anderson, 1991). OCBI, is also referred to as interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996), refers to citizenship behaviour which directly helps coworkers or assists supervisors and indirectly contributes to the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991) by enhancing productivity, increasing coordination and developing and maintaining a positive work climate (Podsakoff et al., 2000). OCBI requires that a specific person benefits from the helping behaviour. Helping a co-worker to complete a project, perform a task or solve a problem (Organ, 1988) or sharing work related information are all examples of OCBI.

Ilies et al. (2007, 2009) provided evidence that OCBI is distinct from OCBO and that there is value in examining them separately. Specifically, the two different types are likely to have different antecedents. Employees are likely to be more inclined to help co-workers and supervisors who are friends (Bowler & Brass, 2006), suggesting that the formation of valued interpersonal relationships should support OCBI. Close social ties should enhance OCBI

because individuals more readily engage in prosocial behaviour directed at in-group members than out-group members (Piliavin, Dovidio, Gaertner & Clark, 1982). Employees engage in altruistic, helping and cooperative behaviours to benefit their friends at work (Ilies et al., 2009). In doing so, they are more likely to share knowledge and assist their friends compared to other employees with whom they lack a positive interpersonal relationship. Additionally, individuals working with friends are more likely to experience positive moods at work. Positive moods foster helping and prosocial behaviour (George, 1990, 1991; Isen & Levin, 1972).

The association between relationships at work and OCB has typically been examined using social exchange theory (Blau, 1964, 1986). A social exchange perspective suggests that strong friendship ties lead to reciprocity of behaviour (Bowler & Brass, 2006). After an initial act of OCBI, friends will reciprocate such behaviour by continuously performing OCBI directed at one another. Drawing on social exchange theory and using a social network perspective, Bowler and Brass (2006) found that the strength of friendship between two people is positively associated with the performance and receipt of OCBI. Based on similar exchange principles, Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) found that employees will respond to co-worker support and helping behaviour by reciprocating such actions and engaging in more OCBI.

2.3 STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESIS

1. High leader rapport will significantly enhance organisational citizenship behaviour while low leader rapport will not significantly influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

2. There will be a significant difference in the citizenship behaviour of workers who are high and low on interpersonal relationship.

3. Age and marital status will jointly have an influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.

2.4 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Leader Rapport: Rapport is defined as the level of relatedness felt between participants in an interaction. Rapport management on the other hand refers to the use of language to manage social relations by attending to interactants' desires and rights' (Gremler & Grimmer, 2000). Leader rapport was measured with Leader Rappport Scale.

Interpersonal Relationship: Interpersonal Relationship is an association between two or more people that may range from fleeting to enduring. This association may be based on inference, love, solidarity, regular business interactions, or some other type of social commitment (Berscheid & Ammazzalorso, 2004). Interpersonal relationship was measured with disclosure and interpersonal closeness scale

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour is a behaviour usually executed by an employee which is outside their duties, but promote organisational effectiveness and competitive power (Organ, 1988). Organisational Citizenship Behaviour was measured with OCB Scale.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 METHOD

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study adopted an expo-facto research design. This study investigated Leader Rapport and Interpersonal Relationship as determinants of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour among Local Government Workers in Ado Local Government. This study shows a relationship between variables and is not subjected to experimental manipulation.

The independent variable of interest are Leader Rapport and Interpersonal Relationship, while the dependent variable is Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. Since the participants employed in this research are both males and females, the research made use of Between Subject Design (parametric).

3.2 STUDY SETTINGS

A Western state capital in Nigeria, namely Ado Ekiti was used for this study. Hence the study was carried out in Ado local government area of Ekiti State. There are different departments and units in the organisation, which consisted of young and old experienced workers varied with different posts depending on their qualification. The work environment of this organisation is condusive enough for research to take place.

3.3 POPULATION OF STUDY.

The population of interest employed in this study are local government workers in Ado Ekiti which consisted of middle, low and high income earners.

3.4 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

Purposive sampling technique was employed in the study. Data was collected based on the use of self report instruments. This sampling technique was used because participants were use on purpose. Local government workers were directly sought at their various department to participate in this research.

3.5 STUDY PARTICIPANTS

A total number of one seventy local government workers were approached to participate in this study with a mean age 36.07 years. Only one fifty of them filled the questionnaire correctly and thus were analysed, 73 (48.7) were males and 77 (51.3) were females. Based on Marital Status, 107(73.3) were married and 42 (28.0) were single while 1(7) didn't indicate marital status. Educational Qualification of participants showed that, 22 (14.7) were OND/NCE holders, 94 (62.7) were HND/BSC holders, 6 (4.0) didn't indicate educational qualification. For Religion, Muslims were 8 (5.3) Christians 138 (92.0), and 4 (2.7) did not indicate religion. And lastly for Ethnicity, Igbo were 11 (7.3), Yoruba 109 (72.7), Hausa 14 (9.3) and 16 (10.7) show no indication for ethnicity.

3.6 INSTRUMENT

The instrument used for this study was a standardized self report instruments comprising of four sections A-D administered to Ado local government workers of Ekiti State.

Section A consisted of items measuring socio- demographic information of the participants such as; age, gender, ethnic identity, marital status, religion, highest educational, year(s) of experience on job etc.

Section B Measured Leader Rapport Scale , 8- item questionnaire measuring Leader rapport in Organisations developed by (Spencey Oatey, 2001). Eight items from Oldham and Cummings (1996) were used to measure supportive supervision (α=.86). The Interrater reliability was calculated using Cohen's kappa (Cohen, 1960) which was high (.774) for individual ego wants, moderate (.514) for group ego wants and (.548) for autonomy rights, and low (.274) for association rights. The criterion validity of the LRM Scale was assessed using the dimensions of the rapport management with other constructs. From the correlation of the LMX hypothesis, LRM was positively and significantly related to LMX (H1), Support (H2), Trust (H3), and Justice (H4). Past studies have demonstrated criterion validity for the LRM. LRM result shows to have a criterion related validity of .68 when it was correlated with LMX. Similarly, criterion related validity of (.78) was high for perceived support, (.79), for interactional justice and (.76) for trust.

A 5-point Likert scale (anchors: strongly disagree [1] to strongly agree [5]) was used for responses to all survey items unless otherwise noted. Scale items were summed and then averaged to create an overall number for each construct. Scales were coded such that high levels of the constructs are represented by high values.

Section C measured the Self Disclosure and Interpersonal Closeness Scale, developed by Joanne Steinwash (n.d) is a 24- item Questionnaire designed to measure the level at which people disclose, or share experiences with other people. The psychometric properties of Interpersonal Relationship shows a coefficient alpha of .52 which was moderate. A 6- point likert scale was used to gather responses. The item has a score between 1-6. 1- dissgree strongly, 2-disagree moderately, 3-disagree mildly, 4-agree mildly, 5-agree moderately, 6- agree strongly. The criterion related validity was reported at .22. the result shows that the higher the interpersonal relationship of workers, the higher the OCB they experience.

Section D measured the dependent variable of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. designed by Organ (1990). It is a 21-item scale designed to assess behaviour that can be regarded as Citizenship Behaviour within the Organisation. The scale assesses five(5) components of OCB, which are: conscientiousness, altruism, sportsmanship. Courtesy, and civic orientation. Organ (1990) provided the psychometric properties for the scale with a coefficient alpha of .77. Each item has a score between 1 and 5 with 1 standing for strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-neutral, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree.. in this research, reliability coefficient alpha of 0.57 was reported.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The study is based on analyses of secondary data from Ekiti-State local government workers. Verbal informed consent was duly sought and obtained from research participant who took part in the study. The research participants were assured of utmost confidentiality of information elicited.

3.8 PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION

Recruitment for the study participants took place by approaching the management of the local government after the required permission was obtained from the local government authorities, the purpose of the study was explained to the workers in their various offices. 150 Questionnaire was distributed to most of the local government workers in which at first, were reluctant to fill the questionnaire with their facial expression, they felt it will take much of their time, but tried to persuade them by explaining to them the purpose of the research. Ethical issues of assurances on the bases of confidentiality and discretion of the study was given. Participants were made to understand that participation in the study would help them address a very important issue. Direction on how to complete the questionnaire was given

and participants were guided in proper completion of the questionnaire. Honesty in the completion was highly and continuously addressed during the course of administration. Finally, those participants who are willing to participate in the study were encouraged to fill the questionnaire. Respondents were given enough time to fill the questionnaire. The total number of questionnaire distributed was one hundred and fifty, then made an extra twenty in order to get the exact number of participants needed, in which one hundred and fifty was filled correctly. The questionnaire was administered on two different occasions, in which two days was used for data collection. Purposive sampling technique was employed in this research and participants was given enough time to fill the questionnaire.

3.9 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data was analysed using the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS). Descriptive Statistics and Independent t-test were used in analysis of data for the first and second hypothesis while for the third hypothesis Multiple Regression was used. T-test for independent sample and multiple regression was employed in this study to compare the mean scores between two groups and to what extent the difference occurs between the two groups.

RESULTS

The data collected were scored and analysed. The following are the results:

Table 1: Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD) and Correlations among the Study Variables

Variable N=150	M (SD)	α	1	2	3	4	5
1. Age	36.07(8.97)	-	-				
2. Job Tenure	9.10(6.04)	-	0.75**	-			
3. Leader Rapport	28.05(6.17)	0.75	0.11	-0.08	-		
4. Interpersonal Relationship	94.11(12.04)	0.52	0.11	0.03	-0.03	-	
5. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)	77.20(13.11)	0.84	0.28**	0.20*	0.04	0.22**	-

**Correlation significant at $P < 0.01$ (1-tailed)*

Hypothesis One

High leader rapport will significantly enhance organisational citizenship behaviour than low leader rapport.

Table 2: Independent t-test analysis comparing mean scores of participants with high and low perception of leader rapport on OCB

Variables	Leader Rapport	N	X	S.D	df	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
OCB	Low Leader Rapport	72	76.51	13.31	148	0.54	$P > 0.05$
	High Leader Rapport	78	77.83	12.98			

t (148) = 0.54, P > 0.05

Table 2 shows that there is no significant difference in the mean scores of participants with low (76.51) and high perception of leader rapport (77.83) on organisational citizenship Behaviour[t_{148}= 0.54, P > 0.05]. This shows that those with low and high perception of leader rapport are not different on levels of OCB. Therefore, hypothesis one is not supported.

Hypothesis Two

There will be a significant difference in the citizenship behaviour of workers who are high and low on interpersonal relationship.

Table 3:Independent t-test analysis comparing mean scores of participants with low and high interpersonal relationship on OCB

Variables	Interpersonal Relationship (IR)	N	X	S.D	df	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
OCB	Low IR	82	75.10	12.70			
	High IR	68	79.74	13.25	148	-2.18	P < 0.05

t (148) = -2.18, P < 0.05

Table 3 shows that there is a significant difference in the mean scores of participants with low (75.10) and high interpersonal relationship (79.74) on OCB [t_{148}= -2.18, P < 0.05]. This shows that participants who have higher levels of interpersonal relationship exhibit greater OCB than those with low interpersonal relationship. Therefore, hypothesis two is supported.

Hypothesis Three

Age and marital status will independently and jointly influence organisational citizenship behaviour.

Table 2: Regression analysis showing the influence of age and marital status on OCB

Variable	B	t	Sig.	R	R Square	F	Sig.
Age	0.45	2.95	$P < 0.05$	0.25	0.07	5.62	$P < 0.05$
Marital Status	2.32	0.76	$P > 0.05$				
Dependent Variable:OCB							

$[F (2) 147 = 5.54, P < 0.05, R^2 = 0.07]$

Table 2 shows that there is a significant joint influence of age and marital status on OCB [F (2) 147 = 5.54, $P < 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.07$]. However, only age has an independent influence on OCB [$\beta=0.13$, t = 2.95, $P < 0.05$] whereas marital status does not [$\beta=0.13$, $t_{186} = 1.6$, $P > 0.05$]. Since table 1 shows that age has a positive relationship with OCB (r=0.28, p<0.05), it can concluded that older participants shows higher OCB than younger participants. Therefore, hypothesis three is supported.

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CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 DISCUSSION

The main objective of this study was to investigate the influence of leader rapport management and interpersonal relationship on organisational citizenship behaviour. Findings from this study shows that:

Hypothesis one stated that Leader Rapport has no significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

Similarly, the result is in line with that of Wayne and Green (1993) study who investigated the effects of LMX on employee citizenship behaviour from the standpoint of the member rather than the leader. The research extends and builds on Wayne and Green's study by examining the relationship between LMX and the consequences of OCB, with the member as the source. Ingroup with (high-quality relationship) and outgroup with (low-quality relationship). Their theory asserts that leaders do not interact with subordinates uniform because supervisors have limited time and resources. Therefore the theory is in support of hypothesis one.

In contrast to studies mentioned above, Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982) posited that commitment is the "relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in the organisation" in terms of values and goals.

Ostroff (1992) reports that commited employees are associated with better organisational performance, have a low turnover rate, and have low absenteeism. It is essential therefore that superiors understand the significance of building a positive relationship with their respective subordinates. Thus, Ostroff study indicates that high leader rapport will significantly enhance OCB. However high leader rapport does not necessary influence OCB. An explanation for this may be that, participants have an equal perception of

their leaders, and have come to relate with the organisation in relation to their goals and objectives.

Hypothesis two stated that there was a significant difference in the Citizenship Behaviour of Workers who are high and low on Interpersonal Relationship. It can be concluded that individuals relate with people who they can disclose their feelings or experiences with and who treats them fairly. Previous research indicates that there will be a significant difference in the citizenship behaviour of workers who are high and low on interpersonal relationship. (Bowler & Brass, 2006) found that employees are more inclined to help wokers and supervisors who are friends suggesting that the formation of valued interpersonal relationship should support OCB. Employees engage in altruistic, helping and cooperative behaviours to benefit their friends at work (Illies et al., 2009). In doing so, they are more likely to share knowledge and assist their friends compared to other employees with whom they lack a positive interpersonal relationship.

Bowler & Brass (2006) found that the strength of friendship between two people is positively associated with the performance and receipt of OCB. Based on similar exchange principles, Chiaburu & Harrison (2008) found that employees will respond to co-workers support and helping behaviour by reciprocating such actions and engaging in more OCB.

Hypothesis two is in relation with what the literature discussed above, therefore the hypothesis is accepted. It can also be concluded that individuals relate with people who they can disclose their feelings or experiences with and who treats them fairly.

Hypothesis three stated that Age and Marital status independently and jointly influence Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. However, only Age has an independent influence on OCB whereas Marital Status does not have a relationship with OCB. It can also be concluded that older participants shows higher OCB than younger participants. A plausible reason for this may be their years of experience on the job.

5.2 CONCLUSION

The study investigated Leader Rapport and Interpersonal relationship as determinants of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour among Local Government Workers in Ado-Ekiti. Hence, this study concluded that Leader Rapport has no significant influence on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour of workers while there exists a significant difference in the Citizenship Behaviour of Workers high and low on interpersonal relationship.

5.3 IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

The implication of findings is creating a new measure to help improve workers Leader Rapport and Interpersonal Relationship because individuals are the unit of any Organisation. Therefore, the level of interpersonal relatedness and communication with leaders fosters decision making process and promotes smooth and effective running of the Organization.

Today's organisation should also be mindful of age restriction in recruitment process because most HR policies favour younger job seekers than older ones. From the finding of this study, older individuals are as capable of performing well on the job like younger individuals if not even better. This work has been able to demonstrate that leader rapport does not determine the citizenship behaviour of workers. More focus should be on recognising and making the worker feel important in doing the job.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study contributes to existing knowledge and expands the understanding of effect of Leader Rapport and Interpersonal Relationship of Workers on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. Considering the outcome of this research, it is recommended that

Organisations should adopt different motivational strategies in enhancing job performance among their employees.

Future researchers could also focus on different areas such as organisational structure and climate, leadership style with respect to their Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

Also on how to improve relationship between supervisors and subordinates through seminars, symposiums, and motivational lectures.

5.5 LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

As with most study researchers, this study is subjected to several limitations. Firstly this study is interested only in Local Government Workers as subjects, therefore may not be generalizable to other workers of the larger society. The study is conducted in the context of the Local Government of Ado Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria, hence, it may not be generalizable to the white population.

Secondly, relatively few of one hundred and fifty (150) potential local government workers were available for the current analysis. Thus, the sample of this study was relatively small considering the population of local government workers available in the study area, the results, therefore be considered as preliminary.

Thirdly, data were collected using self-report instruments, responses to questions may be biased by individuals' willingness to self-disclose their feelings, selective recall and their desire to present themselves in a socially desirable way.

Lastly, the extent to which the findings can be generalized beyond the scope of our sample remains unclear.

Despite the above limitations, this study has contributed to understanding how Leader Rapport and Interpersonal Relationship can be improved in organisations through the use of motivational strategies. It has also shed more light on how demographic factors can foster

performance at work. Future studies are encouraged to investigate the impact of other factors such as length of service, organisational climate and structure and personality on organisational citizenship behaviour.

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