

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

The positive contributions of the private sector to Nigerian economy cannot be neglected. This is based on the premise that the private sectors, in its entrepreneurial capacity, create employment for the unemployed and bring innovation and inventions that are geared towards the nation's development. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2006) sees the private sector as a major contributor to economic growth and employment creation, which will enhance renewed efforts to reduce poverty, and this, facilitates achievement of sustainable development. When government enact policies to stabilize macroeconomic environments, facilitate economic diversification, improve educational facilities, infrastructure and other public goods, the private sector becomes very important in its implementation and realization. Thus private sector's involvement in the economy can drive development of technology, provide capital, build skills and capacities of employees and suppliers, and engender dialogue around policy and institutional constraints (United Nations, 2011); hence the rationale for choosing private sector employees as the focus for this study.

In spite of these identified roles of the private sector in nation building, some private organizations are yet to key into some organizational factors that are likely to hinder employees' commitment in the course of service delivery in work places. Employees are the human resource of every organization, who when committed help the organization achieve its set goals and objectives, increase productivity, profitability and organizational efficiency (Nasab, Bagheri, Lavasani & Bahiraei, 2014). For instance, if an organization is laden with less committed employees, such organization is likely to become ineffective and as such may

close down. In Nigeria today, some private organizations are now less productive because the employees are not committed to achieving the organizational goals. Many of such organizations have closed down due to high financial losses and staff turnover. Given the problems associated with poor organizational commitment (financial loss, liquidation, loss of manpower), it becomes alluring not only to study factors that affect it directly, but possible intervening variables associated with it. Obviously many factors must be involved; hence no single research can effectively cover them all. Hence the present research will only consider the mediating effect of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment.

Specifically, organizational commitment has to do with the positive attitude that results from employees' involvement and trusts towards the organization and are manifested through employees' participation in the organization's decisions and welfare (Nasab, Bagheri, Lavasani & Bahiraei, 2014). It refers to the extent to which an employee develops an attachment and feels a sense of allegiance to his or her employer (Redmond, 2010). Buchanan (1974); Kantor (1968); Rashid, Sambasivian and Johani (2003), viewed organizational commitment as the willingness of social beings to give energy and loyalty to an organization. Their view agrees with Allen and Meyer (2000) and Porter and Lawler (1968) that: organizational commitment is the willingness of employees to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization, a strong desire to stay with the organization and the acceptance of the organization's goals, mission and values/objectives. Recent research has shown that organizational commitment has become one of the most popular work attitudes studied by practitioners and researchers in industrial/organizational psychology (Allen & Meyer, 2000; Ambar, Saba, Asma, Yasir & Ayesha, 2015; Keskes, 2014; Redmond, 2010). This may be based on the premise that commitment is a central concept in industrial/organizational

psychology (Cooper & Viswesvaron, 2005) and its popularity arose from the fact that organizations have continued to reach and sustain competitive advantage through teams of committed employees. The most important and essential part of an organization is its' human resource (employees), a major determinant of organizations' success or failure hence managements always pay attention to ways of improving commitment among its employees (Bergmann, Lester, De Meuse & Grahn, 2000; Nasab et al, 2014).

Further research into this variable has concluded that commitment is a diverse construct. For instance, Meyer and Allen (1991) outlined three components of organizational commitment known as the three "mind-sets" which characterize an employee's commitment to the organization namely: affective, continuance, and normative commitment, each with its' own underlying 'psychological states'. Affective Commitment (AC) refers to an employee's emotional attachment, identification and involvement with the organization. Continuance Commitment (CC) refers to an employee's perception of the cost of leaving the organization to another place while Normative Commitment (NC) is the employees' feelings/perception of their normal obligation to remain with the organization. Thus commitment is a psychological state characterizing the employee's relation with organization, and it also looks at decision to continue or discontinue membership in organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Cheng & Stockdale, 2003). This decision to continue or discontinue because of the level of commitment may co-exist with other factors either to increase or decrease commitment. One of such factors may be the level of relationship with the supervisors of the organization. This is because supervisor relationship has been shown to affect workers (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Thus it is important to understand if leader member exchange is truly related to organizational commitment.

Leader-member exchange is described as the quality of the exchange between a leader and his subordinates which means that supervisors and subordinates establish mutual relationship and develop the level of mutual respect and trust required (Hsiung & Tsai, 2009, Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The quality of leader-member exchange also shapes employees perception of their exchange relationship with the organization which in turn initiates their reciprocations towards the organization. These exchanges result in many important outcomes such as job satisfaction (Schyns & Croon, 2006), organizational commitment (Nystrom, 1990; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994), and increased team effectiveness (Boies & Howell, 2006). Thus the exchanges between leader and subordinates are extremely important.

Researchers provided evidence to show that leader-member exchange is composed of four dimensions namely; affect, contribution, loyalty and professional respect (Bergmann, Lester, De Meuse & Grahn, 2000). Affect means the mutual affection members of the dyad have for each other based primarily on interpersonal attraction rather than work or professional values. Contribution dimension is the perception of amount and quality of work-oriented activity each member contributes toward the goals of the dyad that is relationship. Loyalty dimension refers to the extent to which both leader and members support one another while the fourth dimension professional respect refers to the perception of the degree to which each member of the dyad has built a reputation, within and outside the organization, of his or her work life. All these dimensions tend to show that exchange between leader and subordinate and interpersonal attraction of an individual all lead to positive work outcomes such as commitment, job satisfaction among others (Nystrom, 1990; Schyns & Croon, 2006). It also reinforces positive change and strengthens the relationship bond. Graen and Scandura, (1987) also posited that a leader's effectiveness is determined by the relationship that the leader has with each of his or her subordinates. This relationship if positive (high leader-member

exchange) also tends to link to outcomes such as decreased proportion to quit, increased commitment, increased job retention, decreased turnover and absenteeism. Thus subordinates under high quality leader-member exchange are seen to be more committed to the organization, exhibit better performance, engage in helpful behaviours and show feelings of growth and competence (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schyns & Wolfson, 2008; Wayne & Green, 1993). This tends to show that leader-member exchange (LMX) is likely to be seen as a co-existing factor of organizational commitment. Therefore, this study tries to explore the mediating effect of factors such as interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment among organized private sector workers.

Interpersonal facilitation is the extent to which a worker helps others, contribute to their effective task performance, or helps maintain a social and psychological climate that facilitates accomplishment of the organization's goals (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Every individual has certain positive qualities called strengths. This involves knowing how and when to combine strengths in order to change the organizational atmosphere in which the employee works. Thus, interpersonal facilitation encompasses a range of interpersonal acts that help to maintain the social context needed to support effective task performance in an organizational setting. It consists of several types of inter-related behaviours including cooperation, helping, consideration, altruism and attempts to influence the work related behaviour of others. George and Brief (1992) observed that these types of behaviours contribute to the social atmosphere at work by putting coworkers in a positive mood. They further emphasized that workers low on interpersonal facilitation display negative behaviours such as speaking loudly at inappropriate times, frequent complaints about coworkers, supervisors or subordinates publicly, refusing to cooperate, disagreeing vocally, acting

aggressively and selfishly, avoid association with coworkers, complain about working conditions and negatively manipulate others. These behaviours detract from the interpersonal climate at work and distract coworkers from their organizational responsibilities. Whereas positive interpersonal relationships at work e.g. helping others, offering friendly advice, displaying warm, cheerful or positive attitude, complementing coworkers, supervisors or subordinates, encouraging others to work, expressing loyalty, trust and concern for coworkers; have an advantageous impact on both organizational variables e.g. increased organizational productivity and establish innovative and supportive climates; and individual variables e.g. job commitment, job satisfaction and perceived organizational support. Thus interpersonal facilitation consists of relational oriented behaviours that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment (Zagenczyk, Scott, Gibney, Murrell & Thatcher, 2010; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Apart from interpersonal facilitation, intrinsic motivation is another variable of interest explored in this research to determine its mediating effect on the relationship between organizational commitment and leader-member exchange.

The term motivation could be described as the process that initiates, guides and maintains goal-oriented behaviours (Khan, Razi, Ali & Asghar, 2011). Motivation is what causes us to act, whether it is getting food to quench hunger or going to school to gain knowledge and certification. It is a psychological process resulting from the arousal, direction and persistency of voluntary action to attain organizational and personal goals (Pool & Pool, 2007). Pinder (1998) states that; work motivation is a set of energetic forces that originates both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity and duration. The job motivating factors were examined by some researchers (Akambi, 2002; Bakay & Huang, 2010; Zaman, Nas, Ahmed, Raja & Manri, 2003) in two variables respectively intrinsic and extrinsic variables. Intrinsic

motivation is the degree to which a person wants to work in order to gain satisfaction without any external reward. That is, it is an inbuilt desire to work (Altindis, 2011). Ryan and Deci (2000) also referred to it as a behaviour that originates inside of the individual, a behaviour driven by interest or enjoyment in the task itself and a behaviour an individual engages in to feel competent and self-determining. Its dimensions include, feeling of involvement, acceptance, and desire to feel important, need for achievement, power, training and development. While extrinsic motivation is a behaviour that is driven by external rewards. It is seen to arise from outside the individual (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Its dimensions include, pay, fringe benefits, job security, promotions, tactful discipline, good working conditions, different forms of reward and compensation. However, the main focus of this study is intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation is a concept that has been studied since the early 80s. It is the self-desire to seek out new things and new challenges, to analyse one's capacity, to observe and to gain knowledge. It is driven by an interest or enjoyment in the task itself and exists within the individual rather than relying on external pressures or a desire for rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Brown (2007) refers to it as the reason why we perform certain activities for inherent satisfaction or pleasure. Thus it is seen to occur when one acts without any obvious external rewards, one simply enjoys an activity or sees it as an opportunity to explore, learn and actualize his potentials (Coon & Mitterer, 2010). Individuals are more creative when they are intrinsically motivated. In work settings for instance, productivity can be increased by using extrinsic rewards such as bonuses, but the actual quality of work performed is influenced by intrinsic factors. This is because if an individual is doing something that he/she finds interesting, rewarding and challenging, he/she is likely to come up with novel ideas and creative solutions. Therefore, factors such as challenge (pursuing goals that have personal

meaning), curiosity (individual attention is increased and stimulates learning), control (control of oneself and environment thereby determining what to pursue) cooperation and competition (satisfaction gained from helping others and performance comparison) and recognition (enjoy recognition by others), all help to increase motivation in individuals (Griggs, 2010). Thus, employees who are intrinsically motivated will be more self-driven, work consistently, and show good performance and creativity at the workplace (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey & Tighe, 1994). They will also be ready to take more responsibilities from superiors while performing a particular task and this is likely to lead to more commitment among employees. Based on these assumptions and facts, the present study is aimed at determining the mediating effect of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment among organised private sector workers. The study will also draw strength from existing theories and models namely; leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, self-determination theory, Meyer and Allen's model of commitment and Attribution theory. Other relevant empirical studies to test the hypotheses that will be formed about the mediating effect of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment were examined.

Statement of the Problem

In the field of Industrial/Organizational Psychology, organizational commitment is one of the most frequently studied variables that affect performance in organizations. Diverse studies have explored leader-member exchange, interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation respectively, but to the best of the researchers' knowledge, no research has investigated the three variables simultaneously to reflect the dynamics in private organizations in Anambra State, Southeast region of Nigeria. In particular, no research has identified the mediating

effect of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment among private sector workers in Anambra State, Southeast region of Nigeria. Thus the researcher found it to be a serious gap. This is because in Nigeria today, the positive contributions of the private sector to the economy cannot be neglected. This is on the basis that private sectors create employment for the unemployed, bring innovation and invention that are geared towards the nation's development, enhance productive capacities and entrepreneurship, increase government earning through their tax and community development (United Nations, 2011). Therefore, the welfare and psychological wellbeing of private sector workers/employees are of high essence as they are the workforce that drive and sustain these organizations and as such cannot be ignored.

Generally, lack of organizational commitment is linked to low productivity, failure of organization, financial loss, and liquidation and above all employee low productivity. This may be the case of some manufacturing, production and financial organizations that are now liquidated in the Nigeria Private sector. Despite the fact that some organizations have keyed into factors believed to affect commitment, yet the problem of commitment still persists because productivity and performance are still issues in organizations. Hence, the study tried to solve this problem for private organizations (manufacturing) in Anambra State by exploring factors that can increase or decrease or mediate the increase or decrease of organizational commitment. One of such factors examined in this study is leader member exchange. When supervisors are unaware of the dynamics in the relationship between themselves and their subordinates, it can impact on general attitudes of individual members towards the organization. If they do not take into consideration subordinates feelings and perceptions, it eventually affects organizational general performance. As a result,

organizational initiatives that are meant for success may be unsuccessful because subordinates do not feel empowered and their motivation to work becomes questioned as such pursuing the laid down mission and objectives becomes an issue. If this is true, there is further need to understand the mechanism through which leader member exchange and organizational commitment could work better. Following the trend in leader-member exchange (LMX) theory by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) whereby follower characteristics, interpersonal relationship and leader characteristics were assumed to be antecedents which results through leader-member exchange to bring about a consequence (organizational commitment). The researcher thus decided to empirically explore interpersonal relationships (interpersonal facilitation among workers) and an aspect of the follower/individual characteristics (intrinsic motivation) to see if they could be considered as a potent mechanism through which leader-member exchange and organizational commitment can be enriched for desirable work outcomes. If this is achieved, more insight would be gained in how to organise leader-member exchange for better organizational commitment.

Therefore, this research explored the relationship between organizational commitment and leader-member exchange and the mediating effect of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on their relationship. On this premise, the present study will answer the following questions

1. What is the extent of correlation between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment among organised private sector workers?
2. Will the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment be mediated by interpersonal facilitation?
3. Will the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment be mediated by intrinsic motivation?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to establish the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational commitment and the mediating effect of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation among organised private sector workers. Specifically, this study will achieve the following objectives;

1. To determine the extent of correlation between leader-member exchange and organisational commitment among organised private sector workers.
2. To determine if the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational commitment will be mediated by interpersonal facilitation.
3. To determine if the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational commitment will be mediated by intrinsic motivation.

Relevance of the Study

The study is theoretically and practically relevant. Theoretically, the study will help to bridge the gap in knowledge as regards the mediating roles of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on organizational commitment and leader-member exchange. That is to say that it will help to widen the horizon of our understanding as regards the determinants of organizational commitment and leader-member exchange. The study will also help to add to the current body of knowledge that exists on leader-member exchange, organizational commitment, interpersonal facilitation, intrinsic motivation and its impact on individual attitudes and behaviour and how they improve commitment/performance. It will also provide empirical findings regarding the relationship between these variables.

Practically, the research will help the organizational managers to understand and recognize the relevance of the application of psychological research in organizational setting. It will

help them to understand the efficacy of good interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation in boosting leader-member exchange among employees and in getting employees committed in an organization. Finally, the study will serve as a guide in policy making among organizational managers. For instance, it will help the organizational managers to make policies that will not hinder employees' interpersonal facilitation, intrinsic motivation and good leader-member relationship so that high commitment will be achieved from the employees for maximum organizational effectiveness.

Operational Definition of Key Variables

Organizational commitment

It is the extent to which an employee develops an attachment, commitment and loyalty towards his organization. That is the psychological state that characterises the employees' relationship with the organization as measured by organisational commitment questionnaire developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993).

Leader-member exchange

It is described as the quality of the exchange or relationship between leaders or supervisors and their subordinates, that is the kind of mutual relationship that exists between a leader and subordinate as measured by leader member exchange scale by Liden and Maslyn (1998).

Interpersonal facilitation

Interpersonal facilitation is the extent to which a worker helps others, contributes to their effective task performance, or helps maintain a social and psychological climate that facilitates accomplishment of the organizations' goals as measured by interpersonal facilitation scale (Van Scotter, & Motowidlo, 1996).

Intrinsic motivation

It is the degree to which a person wants to work in order to gain satisfaction without any external reward. That is, it is an inbuilt desire to work or a behavior driven by interest or enjoyment in the task itself as measured by Altindis (2011).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviewed the relevant literature on the studied variables; organizational commitment, interpersonal facilitation, intrinsic motivation and leader-member exchange. The review was done in line with the following subheadings conceptual, theoretical and empirical reviews.

Organizational Commitment (OC)

Conceptualisation

Newstrom and Davis (2002) defined organizational commitment as the degree to which an employee identifies with the organization and wants to continue actively participating in it. Like a strong magnetic force attracting one metallic object to another, it is a measure of the employees' willingness to remain with a firm in the future. It often reflects the employees' belief in the mission and goals of the firm, willingness to expend effort in their accomplishment and intentions to continue working there. In the same vein, Meyer et al (1993) referred to it as a psychological state that characterises employees' relationship with the organization and impacts the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization.

Nowadays it is widely accepted in the literature that commitment is a force that binds an individual to an entity or course of action (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). In the case of organizational commitment, the course of action is staying in the organization, thus being the focal behaviour. Several multidimensional models of organizational commitment have been recognized in the literature (e.g. Allen & Meyer, 1990; Jaros, Jermier, Koehler, & Sincich, 1993; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Penley & Gould, 1988). However, the three-component

model (Allen & Meyer, 1990) can be regarded as the dominant model in organizational commitment research (Bentein, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, & Stinglhamber, 2005; Bergman, 2006; Cohen, 2003; Greenberg & Baron, 2003). This model is rooted in the consideration that commitment comes in three distinct forms: affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs of leaving it, and a felt obligation to stay. These three forms labeled affective, continuance, and normative commitment, respectively, are referred to as components of organizational commitment. Affective commitment was defined as employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Continuance commitment was conceptualized as the perception of cost associated with leaving the organization; and normative commitment refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organization. Researchers have explored the possibility that continuance commitment actually consists of two sub-dimensions: commitment reflecting high (personal) sacrifices and low (perceived) alternatives respectively (Powell & Meyer, 2004). High sacrifice relates to those factors that would be given up or disrupted by leaving the organization, while low alternatives refer to lack of perceived opportunities outside of the firm. With respect to behavioural outcomes, affective commitment has been found to be positively related to a variety of work outcomes (e.g., job performance, organizational citizenship behaviour, attendance, well-being), whereas the same relations with continuance commitment have been found to be negligible or even negative (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Nevertheless, as high levels of affective and continuance commitment have been both associated with decisions to stay in the organization, it has been argued that the association between organizational commitment and work outcomes clearly depends on the form of commitment being assessed (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006; Luchak & Gellatly, 2007).

Meyer et al. (2004) suggested that affective and continuance commitments are associated with different motivational mindsets that potentially shape how individuals express their commitment. Drawing upon this framework, Luchak and Gellatly (2007), proposed to analyze that “these different motivational states result in fundamentally different kinds of relations, and that an assumption of the linearity in the case of continuance commitment underestimates its true relations with behavioural criteria” (Luchak & Gellatly, 2007: 786). Luchak also proposed and empirically tested linear and non-linear relations between affective and continuance commitment and three commonly studied work outcomes. Their research results replicated linear models of organizational commitment and their results were consistent with previous research findings, indicating that affective commitment is more strongly related to work outcomes than is continuance commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). However, when introducing a quadratic continuance commitment term in the equation, they obtained different results, supporting the hypothesis that the form of the relationship between continuance commitment and different work outcomes is nonlinear, rather than linear. In particular, they observed that the intensity of the relationship grew slower for high levels of continuance commitment than for lower ones. In that sense, they argued that future research should be devoted to contrast the form of relationship between continuance commitment and other outcomes and to extend their empirical findings would have notable implications for human resource management policies and practices (Luchak & Gellatly, 2007). However, these considerations should be taken with caution, due to the limitations associated with Luchak and Gellatly’s (2007) study, on one hand, and on the other hand, due to the recent conceptual critique offered to the three-component model of organizational commitment (Solinger, Offen & Roe, 2008).

Solinger, Offen and Roe (2008)'s conceptual critique of the three-component model argued that the model suffers from conceptual inconsistency and therefore should be retained to predict only employee turnover. They used the attitude-behaviour model to posit that affective commitment can be understood as an attitude towards the organization, while the normative and continuance dimensions are attitudes regarding specific forms of behaviour, which affect only focal outcomes, such as staying or leaving. Therefore, according to that model all dimensions of organizational commitment will be related to turnover, while only the affective dimension will be an antecedent of non-focal outcomes. Thus, a deeper analysis could provide a more global perspective.

Furthermore, the study of Luchak and Gellatly (2007) has several limitations. Their research was based on Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993)'s scales, without taking into consideration Powell and Meyer (2004)'s scale revision, which encompasses the two continuance commitment sub components. Secondly, Luchak and Gellatly (2007) excluded from analysis the normative dimension of organizational commitment, and focused only on affective commitment and continuance commitment. Normative commitment is undoubtedly the most controversial component in Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) model (Bergman, 2006) and various researchers did not consider it in their studies due to its relatively high correlation with other forms of commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 2002). However, the exclusion of normative commitment produces bias in the empirical evaluation of the three component model (Simo, Enache, Sallan and Fernandez, 2014).

That's why Meyer *et al.* (1993) suggested that researchers should clearly define the type of commitment they are interested in and use measures appropriate for the intended purpose. In line with this suggestion, commitment has been studied within different domains like employees' commitment toward their employers, employment, carriers, professions etc. For

this study, we want to research about employees' commitment to their employers and organization.

Theories and Empirical literatures of Organizational Commitment

The Side-Bet theory

This theory also known as exchange theory was postulated by Becker (1960). This approach was one of the earliest attempts to study a comprehensive conceptual framework about employee commitment from perspective on the individual's relationship with the organization. According to Becker's theory, the relationship between employee and organization are based on the "contract" of economic exchange behaviour, committed employees are committed because they have totally hidden or somewhat hidden investments, "side-bets," they have made by remaining in a given organization. If someone left, the investments of "side-bet" will be hardly claimed. The term "side-bets" refers to the accumulation of investments valued by the individual. Becker (1960) argued that over a period of time certain costs accrue that make it more difficult for the person to disengage from a consistent pattern of activity, namely, maintaining membership in the organization.

Becker's approach claimed that a close connection between employee commitment and employees' voluntary turnover behaviour exist. In fact, it identifies employee commitment as a major predictor in the explanation of voluntary turnover. This contention was supported by later research that followed Becker's theory. According to these studies, commitment should be measured by evaluating the reasons, if any, that would cause a person to leave his organization.

While the side-bet theory was abandoned as a leading commitment theory, the close relationship between employee commitment and turnover as advanced by Becker affected

most of the later conceptualization of commitment and established turnover as the main behaviour that should be affected by employee commitment. To buttress this, Haq, Jindong, Hussain, and Anjum (2014) investigated the factors which are likely to affect organizational commitment of bank officers in Pakistan, since the banking industry has been facing higher employee turnover. Data were collected by personally administered questionnaires. One hundred and forty-seven (147) officers working in different bank branches in Lahore participated in the study. Only respondents who had passed their probationary period were included in the study. SPSS version 20 was used to analyze the data. The results revealed a higher correlation between different supporting factors and organizational commitment of bank officers. Regression results show that all factors significantly predicted organizational commitment. Factors affecting the organizational commitment of bank officers include rewards, support from supervisor, promotion opportunities, work-family support, and favorable conditions of the job. This study has implications for Human Resource (HR) Policies to be devised in such a way as to focus on turnover intentions among the experienced employees. By employing such efforts the companies can easily retain their experienced human capital.

Although the theory laid emphasis on investment which can hinder an employee from leaving an organization or being less committed. The theory failed to acknowledge the fact that an offer by another organization which may be higher than the employee's investment in an organization may motivate the employee to leave the organization for the other organization with a higher offer.

Middle Affective-Dependence theory

This was advanced by Porter et al (1974). The focus of commitment shifted from tangible side-bets to the psychological attachment one had to the organization. The affective

dependence school attempted to describe commitment as a kind of attitude-centered but “economic motivated situation”. Employee’s retention does not only come from economic factors but also affective influence and the later maybe more significant. Accordingly, commitment was defined as the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). They claimed employee commitment was combined with three parts: “Strong Acceptance”, “Participation” and “Loyalty”. This theory was established as the main explanation for the process of commitment (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). They advanced commitment as an alternative construct to job satisfaction and argued that commitment can sometimes predict turnover better than job satisfaction.

In disproof of the above assertion, Jahandoost, Niknejadi and Iravani (2013) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment motivational factor in Consultants Government Girls High School in Isfahan. All samples were selected as the population size; Job satisfaction plays an important role on having sustainable growth in any business units. When an unsatisfied employee leaves, the business unit not only loses an employee but also it loses an intangible asset. Therefore, it is necessary to evaluate overall job satisfaction occasionally and provide some guidelines for improving work conditions. In this study, two questionnaires Dunnett job satisfaction and organizational commitment questionnaire were used as a measuring tool. Data from the questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS-18 software and statistical methods such as mean and standard deviation are used. The inferential level of correlation and multiple regression method was used. The sum of the coefficients are standardized betas were significant factors motivating factor in the amount of 0.205 significant impact on organizational commitment has been to explain and predict changes.

Based on the theory, Mowday et al (1979) characterized commitment into 3 related factors namely:

- a. A strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values.
- b. A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization.
- c. A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

The O'Reilly and Chatman Model (1986)

In their attempt to clarify the construct of organizational commitment, they defined organizational commitment as the psychological attachment felt by the individual for an organization, which reflects the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts the characteristics or perspectives of the organization. They described commitment as the basis for one's psychological attachment to an organization which may be predicted on three independent foundations; i) Compliance or instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic rewards. ii) Identification or involvement based on a desire for affiliation. iii) Internalization or involvement on congruence between individual and organizational values.

O' Reilly and Chatman (1986) believed compliance occurs when the attitudes and beliefs of an organizational were adopted by an individual to gain specific rewards. Identification occurs when an individual respects the beliefs and values of the organizational without adopting them as their own. Internalization occurs when the attitudes and beliefs of an organization are the same as the individual. Through criticisms of their work and continued research O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) restructured their framework to acknowledge two dimensions compliance and normative; a combination of internalization an identification. During the time O'Reilly and Chatman began their work on organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen also began their work on organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen's

model was conceptualized on the Becker model (cost attachment) and the Mowday, porter, steers, and Boulian model (Affective attachment).

Meyer and Allen’s Model of Commitment

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), organizational commitment reflects at least three general approaches: affective attachment to the organization, the perceived costs associated with leaving it and the obligation to remain with it. These three approaches are referred to as affective, continuance and normative commitment. Common to these three approaches is the view that commitment is a psychological state that characterizes the employees’ relationship with the organization and has implications for the decision to continue membership of it. The three approaches/components of organizational commitment are represented in figure 1 and discussed hereafter.

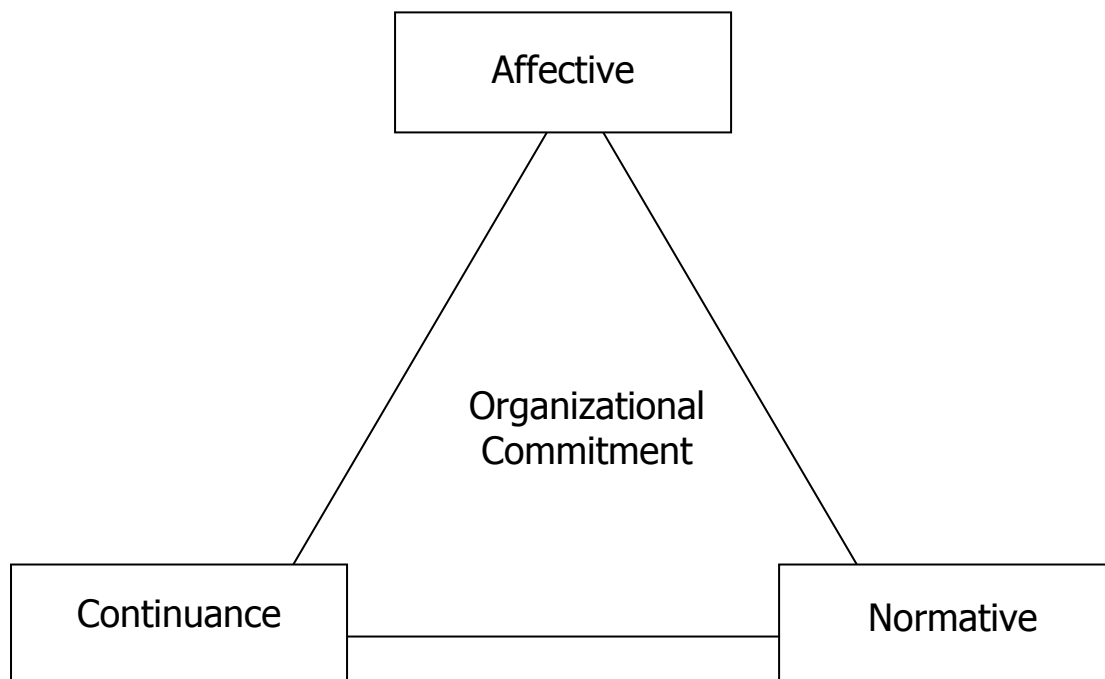


Fig 1: Meyer and Allen’s three dimensions of Organizational Commitment (Source, Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Affective Commitment

It is the most representative component of organizational commitment. The weight of this component of commitment is higher compared to the other two, due to her strong determination and prediction of the behavior of employees. Brunetto, (2012), Sawalha & Zaitouni (2012) and Young & Worchel (1998) opined that open and proper channel of communication between supervisor-subordinate, access to adequate information and participation in decision making builds positive affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1984) defined affective commitment as the “employees’ positive feelings of identification with attachment and involvement in the work organization”. Bagraim (2003) supports this definition but maintains that affective commitment develops if employees are able to meet their expectations and fulfill their needs within the organization.

Continuance Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1984) and Buitendach and Dewitte (2005) conceptualized continuance commitment as the assessment of losses and gains that could be achieved by staying in the organization and an assessment of the "price" organizations have to pay employees for leaving the organization. Thus continuance commitment is seen to occur when the individual or organization begins to weigh the time, effort and finance that will be lost if an employee decides to leave. Employees with high level of sustained commitment remain in organizational systems because they have needs and can't seem to bear the loss of a solid salary, benefits already built and reputation. They also find it difficult to accommodate the cost involved in seeking a new job and reallocation. Hence they decide to remain with the organization.

Normative Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1984); Bagraim (2003) and Sparrow and Cooper (2003) proposed that normative commitment reflects an employees' sense of moral duty, obligation and responsibility to stay with the organization, which is based on feelings of loyalty and obligation (due to fees received for additional education, investment in training and professional development, etc.). Thus employees experience this commitment due to an internal belief that it is their duty to do so as such they consider it as morally right.

Determinants of Employee Commitment

Numerous factors have been found to inspire and determine commitment. For instance, Ongori (2007) opines that the degree to which employees are committed or loyal to their organization depends largely on job enrichment, employee empowerment and compensation. Camilleri (2002) investigated some of the major antecedents that contribute in making employees committed to an organization and found that education level, personality and position significantly determined an individual's level of employee commitment

Also, Lo May-Chiun, Ramayah & Hii (2009) and Avolio, Zhu, Koh & Bhatia (2004) examined the relationship and linkage between leadership styles (focusing mainly on transformational and transactional leadership styles) and employees' commitment in Malaysia and Singapore respectively. Their studies found that transformational leaders are more able to bring in commitment in employees than transactional leaders. This implies that a leader who gives advice, supports, and pay attention to the individual needs of their followers, enhances the level of employee commitment.

In addition, Shastri, Shastri & Sinha (2010) examined the relationship between charismatic leadership and employee commitment in Indian organization with a sample of 147 employees from Eastern and Northern India and found that the two major antecedents (Charismatic leadership and job satisfaction) exert strong effect on employee commitment of the employees of Indian organization in the study sample. This finding indicates that people tend to be more satisfied if their leader displays charismatic behaviour which makes them to be more committed to their organization. Engagement and intention to stay within the organization are affected by relationships built at work and demonstrated behaviours. A number of studies have also found that leader's sensitivity to member's needs is related to employee commitment; hence managers need to be clear about the goals and values of the organization so as to align them with the needs of the workers. Employees should also be given importance by their employers to make them engage in their work as these help to reduce the high turnover rates being experienced in today's Industrial World (Kular, Gatenby, Rees, Soane, & Truss, 2008).

Interpersonal Facilitation

Conceptualization

Interpersonal facilitation is defined as the extent to which a worker helps others, contributes to their effective task performance, or helps maintain a social and psychological climate that facilitates accomplishment of the organizations' goals (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Interpersonal facilitation consists of several types of inter-related behaviors including cooperation, helping, consideration, altruism, and attempts to influence the work related behavior of others. High performers cooperate effectively with others; go out of their way to help others; listen to other's problems; offer friendly advice; seek out others' advice and opinions; display a warm, cheerful, or positive attitude; say and do things to reduce conflict;

complement coworkers, supervisors, or subordinates; participate in informal or after-work social events with coworkers; express loyalty, trust, and concern for coworkers; encourage others to act in organizationally relevant ways; praise others who are successful at work; and consider coworkers' interests and feelings before acting.

George and Brief (1992) suggested that these types of behaviors contribute to the social atmosphere at work by putting coworkers in a positive mood. Workers low on interpersonal facilitation display a negative attitude; speak loudly at inappropriate times; complain about coworkers, supervisors, or subordinates publicly; refuse to cooperate; disagree vocally, act aggressively, or pick fights; tell lies or spread rumors about others; manipulate others; compete with coworkers; act selfishly; fail to help others; avoid associating with coworkers during breaks; and complain about working conditions. These behaviors detract from the interpersonal climate at work and distract coworkers from their organizational responsibilities.

Positive interpersonal relationships at work have an advantageous impact on both organizational and individual variables. Research has demonstrated that friendships at work can improve individual employee attitudes such as job satisfaction, job commitment, engagement and perceived organizational support (Zagenczyk, et al 2010). In addition, employee's negative work attitudes can be mitigated when peers act as confidantes to discuss bad and unpleasant work experiences (Morrison, 2009). Finally, valued work relationships can influence organizational outcomes by increasing institutional participation, establishing supportive and innovative climates, increasing organizational productivity and indirectly reducing the intent to turnover (Song & Olshfski, 2008).

Given that friendships at work provide valuable individual and organizational outcomes, one might ask, how can organizations 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. In this paper, we argue that forming interpersonal connections at work has strong dispositional roots and therefore, employees' relationship with his/her supervisor/leader will influence their development of meaningful interpersonal ties.

Interpersonal facilitation is one of two forms of contextual performance (Van Scotter, Motowidlo & Cross 2000; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) and refers to cooperative, considerate, and helpful behaviors that facilitate coworkers' performance (Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000). Compared to subordinates in low-quality LMXs, subordinates in high-quality LMX relationships should be more likely to engage in cooperative, considerate, and helpful behaviors that benefit others (co-workers and supervisor). In fact, research has shown a carryover effect from positive LMXs to relationships with peers. Specifically, supervisors' differential treatment of subordinates has been found to positively affect coworker communication (Sias & Jablin, 1995), and employees in higher quality LMXs developed collegial and special communication relationships with their peers (Kramer, 1995).

Moreover, subordinates in higher quality LMXs have been found to engage in greater information exchange, self-disclosure, and emotional support with their peers (Kram & Isabella, 1985). Finally, In Lee's (1997) study, employees in high-quality LMXs perceived greater cooperative communication with peers.

Antecedents of Interpersonal Relationships at Work

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 those we claim as our friends are 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 (Turner, 1987) and social identity theories (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) 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). Similarly, the similarity-attraction paradigm and relational demography theory (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992) 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. In addition to demographic antecedents, organizations have many environmental characteristics that can facilitate friendship making (Pogrebin, 1987).

Rousseau (1995) suggested that managers may be instructed to promote a climate of openness and friendship among their staff and to set positive examples of desired workplace relationships. In a study of senior managers, Berman et al. (2002) identified common strategies for promoting a climate of friendship. The strategies included providing employees the opportunity to socialize; encouraging them to act friendly toward one another and to seek

each other for emotional support; and training supervisors to establish positive relationships with employees.

Theory of Interpersonal Facilitation

Attribution Theory

Research on the notion of attribution originates from the framework of Heider (1958), who studied interpersonal relationships and how perceptions shape an individual's perception of another. Since the early work on attribution, researchers have focused on the efforts of people to make inferences from their behavior, and the behavior of others. An attribution can be described as a judgment about an audience or observer's perception of why an act occurred. The issue is not what caused a certain behavior but what others believe influenced the agent or individual at the time of the action.

Attribution theory is useful in understanding individual views of organizational settings and interpretation of the social interactions. Previous attribution research has explored three dimensions of attributions: locus of causality (Kim & Smith, 2005). Locus of causality refers to whether or not the cause of an individual's behavior is perceived as internally or externally attributed. If the cause is perceived to be external to the performer, their peers do not hold the individual accountable.

Researchers have suggested that "intent" or "intentionality" may be an additional dimension of attribution (Gordon & Bowlby, 1989). One of the popular dichotomies in the attribution theory debate has been presented by Jones and Davis (1965) and suggests that based on correspondent inference theory, individuals make inferences about actions by specifying the actor's intentions, which are related to their underlying disposition. Peer perceptions of intent may influence their evaluation of the actions of peers such as performance of citizenship

behaviors. Research supports that perceived intent influences individual perceptions and behaviors (Cotte, Aoulter & Moore, 2005). Specifically, Dasborough and Ashkansay (2002) suggest that subordinate views of leaders may be influenced by their perception of the leader's intent (e.g., sincere organizational focus versus manipulative self-serving focus). These studies offer support that perceptions of a peer's intent of performing helping behaviors may influence how the behaviors are perceived.

Moderating Effects of Perceived Intent

Attribution theory has been used to explain behavior in a number of social contexts. The general thought associated with the theory is that an individual or observer will interpret the behavior, form a perception, of an actor or agent based on what they consider the cause, and this interpretation will become a vital determinant of the reactions and responses of the observer or target (Kelly & Michela, 1980). Furthermore, in evaluating the motives behind engaging in interpersonal citizenship behavior, there are two contrasting views, pro-social motives versus impression management motives. Pro-social motives are considered those that are intended to maintain the others' well-being and are characterized by a genuine desire to help others (Bolino, 1999). Conversely, impression management motives may involve the anticipation of some type of reward or positive payback (Bolino, 1999). Similar motives also have been characterized as altruistic motives and instrumental motives (Allen & Rush, 1998). In this study, we utilize the previously accepted nomenclature of altruistic versus instrumental motives, respectively.

Thus, the motives that are attributed to an individual's performance of citizenship behavior are likely to influence how the behavior is actually interpreted (Ferris, Bhawuk, Fedor & Judge 1995). Eastman (1994) found that individuals who engage in citizenship behaviors that are interpreted as selfless, pro-social, or altruistic by the supervisor received greater rewards

than individuals whose supervisors evaluated the citizenship behavior as selfish, impression management, or instrumental. Attribution theory suggests that in order for OCBs to contribute to enhanced interpersonal relationships, individuals need to attribute the behavior to benevolent intentions of the agent or sender (Bolino, 1999).

Motivation

Conceptualization

Motivation is defined as the process that initiates, guides and maintains goal-oriented Behaviors (Khan, Razi, Ali & Asghar, 2011) Motivation is what causes us to act, whether it is getting a glass of water to reduce thirst or reading a book to gain knowledge. There are three major components to motivation: activation, persistence and intensity (Khan, Razi, Ali & Asghar, 2011). Activation involves the decision to initiate a behavior, such as enrolling in a psychology class. Persistence is the continued effort toward a goal even though obstacles may exist, such as taking more psychology courses in order to earn a degree although it requires a significant investment of time, energy and resources. Finally, intensity can be seen in the concentration and vigor that goes into pursuing a goal. For example, one student might do well academically without much effort, while another student will study regularly, participate in discussions and take advantage of research opportunities outside of class. Motivations conceptually explain reasons to why individuals take on certain acts. Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990) argued that rewards offered by an organization can influence employees' attitude towards their job and organization they work in. Rewards can be intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic rewards come from the work itself like sense of achievement, appreciation, challenge, variety and autonomy. Extrinsic rewards are tangible rewards like pay, benefits, promotion, security and work environment.

Some authors have shown that extrinsic rewards have an impact on organizational commitment. But this study will focus on intrinsic rewards alone, because the researcher believes that intrinsic rewards might have greater impact on organizational commitment than extrinsic rewards. On the assumption that individual feelings/satisfaction is present and enhances general performance of a person. If otherwise, despite the presence of positive benefits, it can still mar positive organizational/individual outcomes. That is to say that if an activity is internally rewarded, external rewards have no influence on such activity. The researcher also believes that the actual quality seen in work performed by individual is influenced by intrinsic factors.

Lawler (1970) defined intrinsic motivation as the degree to which an employee is motivated to perform well because it will result in a good feeling and subjective rewards like feelings of growth, high self-esteem, competence, autonomy etc. Deci (1973) defined intrinsically motivated activities as activities which a person does for no apparent reward but the activity itself or the feelings which result from the activity. Together with Ryan he defined self-determination theory (SDT) in 1985. They state that employees will be intrinsically motivated if their basic need for competence, autonomy and relatedness is satisfied.

According to Lawler (1973), an employee is intrinsically motivated to perform well as long as he/she expects that his/her job will provide the feedback he/she values. This fits well into the expectancy theory approach to motivation (Vroom, 1964). According to this theory, people are motivated to work if they believe that their efforts in the workplace will result in the outcome they expect. Lawler (1970) analyzed the factors that influence intrinsic motivation. Lawler's model is similar to the expectancy theory model and shows that the product of the probability that the effort (E) will lead to the successful performance (P) and

the probability that the performance will lead to the valued (V) outcome (O) determines the level of employee intrinsic motivation. So, based on this model a person will not engage in the activity if he/she does not think that he/she will achieve a successful performance. In the same way he/she will not engage in the activity if he/she thinks that the successful performance will not lead to the wanted outcome (reward). The E->P probability is also influenced by person's self-esteem as well as the previous experience in the similar situations. The experiences from the similar situations in the past will influence the person's believes that certain performance will lead to the wanted outcome (P->O). This will be a very strong connection in case of intrinsic rewards as intrinsic rewards are rewards that individuals give to him/her. This is one of the reasons why intrinsic rewards are powerful motivators (Lawler, 1970).

The highest intrinsic motivation will be achieved when a certain E->P probability exists but not necessarily the highest one. It has been shown that under some conditions the highest motivation is achieved when it is believed that the effort has a 50-50 chance of leading to good performance. E.g. Feeling of achievement, growth, accomplishment will result from a successful performance when there is less than perfect relationship between effort and performance.

Different types of motivation are frequently described as being either extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic motivations are those that arise from outside of the individual and often involve rewards such as trophies, money, social recognition or praise. Intrinsic motivations are those that arise from within the individual, such as doing a complicated cross-word puzzle purely for the personal gratification of solving a problem.

Authors have long recognized a distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is present when individuals do something for pleasure or enjoyment, whereas extrinsic motivation occurs when individuals do something because of external forces (Deci, & Ryan, 2000). Motivation has been a difficult concept to properly define, in part because there “are many philosophical orientations toward the nature of human beings and about what can be known about people” (Pinder, 1998). Although some have argued that the term defies definition (e.g., Dewsbury, 1978), in an extensive multidisciplinary review Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) identified approximately 140 attempts. Pinder (1998) provided a definition that nicely accommodates the different theoretical perspectives that have been brought to bear in the explanation of work motivation:

Work motivation is a set of energetic forces that originates both within as well as beyond an individual’s being, to initiate work-related behavior, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration. There are two noteworthy features of this definition. First, motivation is identified as an energizing force—it is what induces action in employees. Second, this force has implications for the form, direction, intensity, and duration of behavior. That is, it explains what employees are motivated to accomplish, how they will attempt to accomplish it, how hard they will work to do so, and when they will stop.

Many theories have been set forth to explain employee motivation (Pinder, 1998). None are complete, but most make meaningful contributions to our understanding of what is obviously a complex process. Locke (1991, 1997) noted that each of the different theoretical orientations offers a unique perspective and can be combined to form a general model.

Theories of Motivation

Self-determination Theory

According to self-determination theory, motivation reflects an intention to act. This intention can be self-initiated or result from external inducements. Intrinsically motivated behavior is undertaken purely for its own sake (i.e., the activity itself is enjoyable) and reflects “the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one’s capacities, to explore, and to learn” (Ryan & Deci, 2000), while extrinsically motivated behavior refers to “the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome” (Ryan & Deci, 2000). However, according to self-determination theory, extrinsically motivated behavior itself can take different forms depending on the perceived source of regulation (i.e., the impetus for the behavioral intent).

External influences exerted on us as a natural part of the socialization process have the potential to limit our sense of autonomy. Some efforts at influence clearly go against our natural inclinations and are accepted only because of a desire to attain contingent rewards or avoid contingent punishments. Others are more consistent with our personal values and are therefore less likely to be experienced as controlling. Ryan and Deci (2000) specifically identified four different forms of extrinsically motivated behaviour: external, introjected, identified, and integrated.

Externally regulated behavior occurs in order to satisfy an external demand or reward contingency and is associated with feelings of being controlled (e.g., cleaning out the garage at the request of a parent or spouse).

Introjected regulation involves a different form of contingency, one involving self-worth. People often engage in a behavior that is socially acceptable in order to avoid feelings of guilt or anxiety (e.g., paying back a favor), or to gain others’ respect.

Identified regulation comes from a conscious valuing of the action and its intended consequences. Although the tasks themselves might not be enjoyable (i.e., intrinsically motivating), they are seen as serving an important purpose and, thus, are typically experienced as somewhat internal (e.g., studying for an upcoming exam rather than going out with friends).

Finally, with **integrated regulation**, the values guiding the behavior are fully accepted and integrated with other needs and values defining one's self-concept. Consequently, the behavior is experienced as having been freely chosen and therefore fully autonomous. This can be the case even when external sources of influence are quite evident. For example, the soldier who signs up for a tour of duty out of love of country and follows orders willingly should feel as fully autonomous in carrying out these activities as the scientist who chooses to spend long hours in the lab in the pursuit of knowledge.

Regulatory focus theory

At the heart of regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998) is the notion that people are motivated to minimize discrepancies between actual and desired end states (i.e., seek pleasure) and to maximize the discrepancy between actual and undesired end states (i.e., avoid pain). However, the theory goes beyond this basic principle of hedonism by noting that end states can be defined in terms of (a) ideals (i.e., what one wants to be) and (b) oughts' (i.e., what others think one should be). Individuals who seek to minimize discrepancies with their "ideal self" are said to have a promotion focus, whereas those who seek to minimize discrepancies with their "ought self" have a prevention focus. Although there may certainly be some people for whom ideals and ought to's are highly related, Higgins's work suggests that this is unlikely to be true of all, or even most, individuals.

Regulatory focus can be dispositional and reflect a generalized tendency to satisfy nurturance (promotion focus) or security (prevention focus) needs. However, it can also be situationally induced by increasing the relative salience of these needs through priming (e.g. activation through recall or threat) or problem framing (e.g., emphasizing the attainment of positive outcomes or the avoidance of negative outcomes). In either case, regulatory focus has implications for the nature of the goals people set, the strategies they use to attain them, and the emotional reactions they have following success or failure. Of particular relevance for our purposes is the notion that regulatory focus influences the way individuals think about their goals and the implications this has for goal-oriented behavior.

According to Higgins (1998) a promotion focus is concerned with advancements, growth, and accomplishment. The strategic inclination is to make progress by approaching matches to the desired end state. In contrast, a prevention focus is concerned with security, safety, responsibility. Goals are duties and obligations or even necessities. Given these differences, one would expect that people's self-regulatory states would be different when their focus is promotion versus prevention. With a promotion focus, the state should be eager to attain advancements and gains. With a prevention focus, the state should be vigilant to assure safety and non-losses.

Regulatory focus theory complements self-determination theory and also has some similarities to commitment theory. Promotion focus and prevention focus reflect different motivational states. Individuals with a promotion focus see themselves as working toward the attainment of their ideals, whereas those with a prevention focus are attempting to fulfill their obligations.

There are parallels between these motivational states and those characterizing the different forms of perceived regulation in self-determination theory, on the one hand, and the psychological states characterizing the forms of commitment in the three component model, on the other (Van-Dijk & Kluger, 2004). Individuals who are affectively committed, experience more autonomous forms of regulation (i.e., intrinsic, integrated, identified), or both might be expected to have a stronger promotion focus. In contrast, those who have a strong normative or continuance commitment, experience more controlled regulation (introjected or external), or both might have a stronger prevention focus.

Equity theory

Equity theory (Adams, 1963) considers the employment situation as an exchange relationship of benefits /contributions between employers and employees, where benefits include pay, recognition and promotions. Contributions include employee's education, experience, effort, and ability (Daft, 2003). The principle governing equity theory suggests that people evaluate the fairness of their input/output balance by comparing it with their perception of the input/outcome balance of another, where this other may be another person, a class of people, an organization, or the individual relative to the individual's experiences from an earlier point in time. The equity model postulates that under conditions of perceived equity (organizational justice) the individual experiences job satisfaction. On the other hand, under conditions of perceived inequity (organizational injustice) the individual experiences dissatisfaction. A state of equity is therefore said to exist whenever the ratio of one person's outcomes to inputs equals the ratio of another's outcomes to inputs, (Daft, 2003). According to Martin (2005) this can lead to tensions and some psychological discomfort. This may also be followed by a desire to do something about it or take action so as to lessen the tension being experienced. Adams (1963) suggests actions that an employee could employ to ease the tensions: modify

inputs, seek to modify outputs, modify perception of self, modify perception of comparator, change comparator or leave the situation (Mullins, 2005). This is believed to restore a feeling of balance.

This is evidence by the Akanbi, Ofoegbu, and Onyema (2013) research. They examined the role of organizational justice on organizational commitment in Nestle Nigeria PLC Agbara, Lagos State Nigeria. The objectives of the study were to ascertain the significant difference between procedural justice and perceived organizational commitment, and also to examine the significant relationship between distributive justice and perceived organizational commitment. In addition, the study ascertained the main and interaction effect of distributive justice and procedural justice on organizational commitment. The study employed survey research using questionnaire to collect data from all categories of workers in the multi-national manufacturing company. Two hundred and fifteen employees of the company responded to the questionnaire. Four hypotheses were tested with t-test, correlation analysis and analysis of variance. The study indicated that organizational justice as measured by procedural justice and distributive justice can have a significant impact on the organizational commitment of multi-national company. The findings from the study also showed that there was a significant relationship between distributive justice and perceived organizational commitment. Based on the findings from this study, it is recommended that organizations should embrace justice in all ramifications of their practices with the employees to bring about committed employees.

Even though the equity theory is considered straight forward, it cannot cover every contingency (Martin, 2005). Martin further added that even where inequities are perceived, employees are able to tolerate it to some extent provided that the reason for the inequity is

justified. The equity theory therefore has three implications for human resource managers according to Martin (2005). His assertion is that employees will make comparisons, which are subjective. Jobs must therefore be matched properly in terms of the wage/effort bargain. Additionally, managers must be open regarding the basis on which the rewards are made to avoid wrong conclusions about equity. The equity theory illustrates the importance of performance management and reward systems in which, the outcomes are seen by individuals as relevant.

The second implication is that, there is a need for managers to redesign current compensation systems in order to avoid the destroying performance as a result of perceived inequities and thirdly, to ensure that the redesigned systems do not lead to over rewarding of performance as that will not guarantee higher productivity or improved performance.

Cognitive Evaluation theory (CET)

This is concerned how social contexts and interpersonal interaction either facilitate or undermine intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is defined as doing something for its own sake, and applies to activities such as play, sport, and leisure. CET stresses the importance of autonomy and competence to intrinsic motion, and argues that events that are perceived to detract from these will diminish intrinsic motivation. CET specifically addresses how factors such as rewards, deadlines, feedback and pressure affect feelings of autonomy and competence and thus enhance or undermine intrinsic motivation. For instance CET explains why some reward structures, for example, financial incentives, actually detract from subsequent motivation, a phenomenon that is often called ‘the undermining effect of rewards’ (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999).

Finally, a fifth mini-theory was recently introduced called **Goal Contents Theory** (GCT). Research has shown that materialism and other extrinsic goals such as fame or image do not tend to enhance need satisfaction, and thus do not foster well-being, even when one is successful at attaining them (Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Niemiec, Ryan & Deci 2009). In contrast, goals such as intimate relationships, personal growth, or contributing to one's community are conducive to need satisfaction, and therefore facilitate health and wellness. GCT has also been applied to how goals are framed. Evidence suggests that goals framed toward intrinsic aims are better adhered to than those focused on extrinsic outcomes (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

Strategies of Motivating Workers

The following are strategies:

- **Salary, Wages and Conditions of Service:** To use salaries as a motivator effectively, personnel managers must consider four major components of a salary structures. These are the **job rate**, which relates to the importance the organization attaches to each job; **payment**, which encourages workers or groups by rewarding them according to their performance; **personal or special allowances**, associated with factors such as scarcity of particular skills or certain categories of information professionals or librarians, or with long service; and **fringe benefits** such as holidays with pay, pensions, and so on. It is also important to ensure that the prevailing pay in other library or information establishments is taken into consideration in determining the pay structure of their organization.
- **Money:** Akintoye (2000) asserts that money remains the most significant motivational strategy. As far back as 1911, Frederick Taylor and his scientific management associate described money as the most important factor in motivating the industrial workers to achieve greater productivity. Taylor advocated the establishment of incentive wage systems as a means of stimulating workers to higher performance, commitment, and

eventually satisfaction. Money possesses significant motivating power in as much as it symbolizes intangible goals like security, power, prestige, and a feeling of accomplishment and success. Katz, (2005) demonstrates the motivational power of money through the process of job choice. He explains that money has the power to attract, retain, and motivate individuals towards higher performance. For instance, if a librarian or information professional has another job offer which has identical job characteristics with his current job, but greater financial reward, that worker would in all probability be motivated to accept the new job offer. Banjoko (1996) states that many managers use money to reward or punish workers. This is done through the process of rewarding employees for higher productivity by instilling fear of loss of job (e.g., premature retirement due to poor performance). The desire to be promoted and earn enhanced pay may also motivate employees.

- **Staff Training:** No matter how automated an organization may be, high productivity depends on the level of motivation and the effectiveness of the workforce. Staff training is an indispensable strategy for motivating workers. The library organization must have good training programme. This will give the librarian or information professional opportunities for self-improvement and development to meet the challenges and requirements of new equipment and new techniques of performing a task.
- **Information Availability and Communication:** One way managers can stimulate motivation is to give relevant information on the consequences of their actions on others (Olajide, 2000). Information availability brings to bear a powerful peer pressure, where two or more people running together will run faster than when running alone or running without awareness of the pace of the other runners. By sharing information, subordinates compete with one another. Studies on work motivation seem to confirm that it improves workers' performance and satisfaction. For example, Brown and Shepherd (1997)

examine the characteristics of the work of teacher-librarians in four major categories: knowledge base, technical skills, values, and beliefs. He reports that they will succeed in meeting this challenge only if they are motivated by deeply-held values and beliefs regarding the development of a shared vision. Colvin (1998) shows that financial incentives will get people to do more of what they are doing; Silverthorn (1996) investigates motivation and managerial styles in the private and public sector. The results indicate that there is a little difference between the motivational needs of public and private sector employees, managers, and non-managers.

Organizational Commitment and Motivation

O'Driscoll and Randall (1999) study concluded that intrinsic rewards had positive effect on affective commitment i.e. enhancing intrinsic motivation could achieve higher levels of the affective commitment to the organization. When it comes to continuance commitment, the same study showed that satisfaction with rewards (both extrinsic and intrinsic) had no effect on continuance commitment. It was assumed that employees with high continuance commitment were more influenced by lack of available job alternatives than by the rewards given. Research results of Choong & Wong (2011) study showed that intrinsic motivation had a significant effect on organizational commitment. Also, Nawab and Bhatti, (2011) found that employee compensation positively and significantly affect organizational commitment. Employees with stronger affective organizational commitment have greater intrinsic motivation. More autonomous forms of external regulation and a stronger promotion focus in the pursuit of goals (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004).

In organizational psychology, the commitment and motivation literatures have usually evolved independently to a certain extent (Meyer et al., 2004). On the contrary, Meyer et al.

(2004) remarked that commitment is one component of motivation and, is important that they gain a better understanding of two processes themselves and of workplace behavior by integrating theories of commitment and motivation. Some researchers emphasize that commitment levels (High or low organizational commitment) are in relation to such many criteria as performance, satisfaction, and work motivation (Johnson, 2010). For instance, according to Wong and Law (2002), what determines and changes the employees' performance of emotional work is their organizational commitment. It is also stated by De Silva and Yamao (2006) that organizational commitment improves the motivation and creativity of the employees. Meyer et al. (2004) are of the opinion that commitment is considered as one of several energizing forces for motivated behavior. Higher supervisor evaluation and supervisor perceptions which have a key role in motivation result in a greater commitment (De Silva & Yamao, 2006). As a consequence, organizational commitment has a critical role in order to be able to create a business environment that will promote motivation at the workplace (Pool & Pool, 2007).

Akambi (2002) investigated the influence of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation on employee's performance. Subjects for the study consisted of one hundred workers of Flour Mills of Nigeria PLC, Lagos. Data for the study were gathered through the administration of a self-designed questionnaire. The data collected were subjected to appropriate statistical analysis using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, and all the findings were tested at 0.05 level of significance. The result obtained from the analysis showed that there existed relationship between extrinsic motivation and the performance of employees, while no relationship existed between intrinsic motivation and employees' performance. On the basis of these findings, implications of the findings for future study were stated.

Intrinsic Motivation

Conceptualization

Intrinsic motivation is defined as positively valued experiences that an individual employee gets directly from their work tasks (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Ryan and Deci (2000) have argued that intrinsic motivation is crucial for open-ended cognitive development. Hence, Ryan and Deci (2000) defined intrinsic motivation as “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence”. Once the employee finds it enjoyable and interesting, he or she will have desire to exert a considerable effort to perform their task within the organization. However, Grabner and Speckbacher (2009) indicated that intrinsic motivation not only increases effort, but it will also have great influence on other aspects of employee behaviour. Lawler (1970) defines intrinsic motivation as the degree to which an employee is motivated to perform well because it will result in a good feeling and subjective rewards like feelings of growth, high self-esteem, competence, autonomy etc. while Deci (1973) defined intrinsically motivated activities as activities which a person does for no apparent reward but the activity itself or the feelings which result from the activity. Together with Ryan he defined self-determination theory (SDT) in 1985. They state that employees will be intrinsically motivated if their basic need for competence, autonomy and relatedness is satisfied.

Motivations conceptually explain reasons to why individuals take on certain acts. Lincoln and Kalleberg (1990) argued that rewards offered by an organization can influence employees' attitude towards their job and organization they work in. Rewards can be intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic rewards come from the work itself like sense of achievement, appreciation, challenge, variety and autonomy. Extrinsic rewards are tangible rewards like pay, benefits, promotion, security and work environment. Judge (2010) conducted meta-analysis of 120

years of research and has synthesized the findings from 92 quantitative studies. The combined dataset included over 15,000 individuals and 115 correlation coefficients. According to the study, there is very weak (less than 2%) dependency between salary and job satisfaction. Study showed that “the average level of job satisfaction remains relatively stable across studies, regardless of the change in mean pay level (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw & Rich, 2010).

Even though some authors have shown that even extrinsic rewards impact on organizational commitment, it is also as a result of these findings that this study will focus on intrinsic rewards alone. Another reason is that it has been shown that intrinsic rewards have greater impact on organizational commitment than extrinsic rewards (O’Driscoll & Randall, 1999). This conclusion was confirmed by Cho and Perry (2012) research which showed that intrinsic motives relates to employee engagement levels three times more strongly than extrinsic motives. This study hopes to also prove that intrinsic motivation is a stronger predictor of organizational commitment than extrinsic motivation.

Organizational Commitment and Intrinsic Motivation

Prolific research in the area of relationships between work motivation and organizational commitment has been conducted over the past few years (Warsi, Fatima & Sahibzada, 2009). Warsi, Fatima and Sahibzada indicated that work motivation is strongly and positively associated with organizational commitment among the private sectors employees of Pakistan. In order to increase employees’ work motivation and job satisfaction, leaders should grant them challenging task with additional responsibility and authority. This ultimately will increase their job performance within the organization. However, there is paucity of research

focus on relationships between intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment among private sector workers in Anambra State.

Work motivation and organizational commitment has different origin and objective (Meyer et al., 2004). While work motivation is developed from the general motivational theories used to explain task performance, commitment has origins in the sociology and is often used as predictor of employee turnover. Often they are researched independently but there are some studies that investigated motivation impact on employee turnover as well as studies that investigated what impact commitment has on job performance (Meyer et al. 2004).

Meyer et al. (2004) concludes that motivation is a broader concept than commitment and that commitment contributes to the motivated behavior. They also see commitments as something that has long-term implications e.g. commitment to improve employee satisfaction. On the other hand motivation is often short-term oriented. They argue that commitment can be a powerful source of motivation and lead to persistence in a cause of action.

Based on their research results, O'Driscoll and Randall (1999) concluded that intrinsic rewards had positive effect on affective commitment i.e. enhancing intrinsic motivation could achieve higher levels of the affective commitment to the organization. When it comes to continuance commitment, the same study showed that satisfaction with rewards (both extrinsic and intrinsic) had no effect on continuance commitment. It was assumed that employees with high continuance commitment were more influenced by lack of available job alternatives than by the rewards given.

With respect to organizational commitment, private sector employees in Australia report significantly higher levels of commitment than public sector ones (Rachid, 1995; Rachid,

1994). Rachid argues that the “bureaucratic culture” which dominates the public sector, and the “culture gap” (Bourantas, Anagnostelis, Mantes, & Kefalas, 1990) between the perceived and the desired organizational culture, are responsible for lower levels of public sector organizational commitment. Fletcher and Williams (1996), for the UK, concluded that organizational commitment is, by and large, greater for private than for public sector employees. In general, the stereotype seems to hold that public sector employees have lower levels of organizational commitment (Rainey, 1997; Baldwin, 1991; Savery, 1991; Odom, Boxx, & Dunn, 1990). However, as Cho and Lee (2001) state, this assertion cannot be verified by cross-sector analyses. They argue that both organizational culture and inherent societal values determine differences in commitment between public and private sector managers in South Korea, although these differences are not themselves sufficient to support the argument that organizational commitment levels are different between private and public sector.

Goulet and Frank (2002), in a study of employees from three different sectors (public, non-profit, and for-profit), supported the view that the lowest levels of organizational commitment are exhibited in the public sector. They explain these findings by claiming that extrinsic rewards (salary, fringe benefits, and so forth) are critical factors in determining levels of commitment, especially in a robust economy. However, in contrast to this notion, Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2003) found that the degree of civil servants’ organizational commitment is related to their implicit psychological contract. That is, intrinsic rewards and the relational supportive dimensions of their psychological contracts have the ability to work as sufficient motivation for effective job performance, and to bring out desired employee attitudes and behaviors.

Castaing (2006) conducted a study in the French civil service and found that Public Service Motivation (PSM; Perry, 1996) had a substantial effect on affective commitment, implying that if the state hires individuals with high PSM, there will be a positive effect on organizational commitment. PSM is defined as “the belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of the larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate” (Vandenabeele, 2007: 547). PSM is described in terms of beliefs, values and attitudes. It exceeds self- and organizational interest and is characterized by a concern for the public interest which drives civil servants to act accordingly (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Camilleri (2006) found in the Maltese civil service that PSM is reinforced and strengthened by primarily affective commitment but also by normative commitment.

Boyne (2002) presents meta-analytic evidence from thirty-four empirical studies on differences between public and private sector organizations. He points out that, while three out of the five studies which compared organizational commitment between the private and the public sector showed lower commitment in the public sector, the remaining studies indicated no such difference. The lower levels of public sector commitment were attributed to inflexible personnel procedures and the limited link between job performance and rewards.

These studies imply that normative commitment (the sense of obligation, duty and loyalty) is more relevant in the public than in the private sector, due to the nature and content of both the explicit employment contract and implicit psychological contracts. Moreover, this difference could be related to the existence of PSM, since the sense of obligation felt in normative commitment is closer to the perceptions of PSM that involve a “calling” or a sense of duty (Steijn & Leisink, 2006). Normative commitment thus seems to be more prevalent among public sector employees compared to those working in the private sector.

Altindis (2011) investigated the level of organizational commitment and motivation as well as the relationship between health staff's organizational commitment and motivation within state hospitals. Using the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), the relationships between organizational commitment and motivation were examined. Data for this study were obtained through a questionnaire. The questionnaire was applied to health professionals working in state hospitals by using the "Organizational Commitment Questionnaire" and the "Motivation Questionnaire". Within this scope, the organizational commitment levels of the health professionals were analyzed in three dimensions which are emotional commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment and the motivation levels of the health professionals were examined in two dimensions: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The results indicated that intrinsic motivation of health professionals was explained mostly by affective and normative commitment. Also affective and normative commitment impact on intrinsic motivation was more than continuance commitment. The most effective factor on extrinsic motivation was normative commitment. Continuance commitment had effect on extrinsic motivation less than normative commitment. Also it was seen that affective commitment had the lowest effect on external motivation.

Farwa and Niazi (2013) examined the impact of intrinsic motivation on organizational commitment among Islamic Bank employee. Islamic banking is a new phenomenon in the Asian countries as Pakistan; particularly in this decade, with the aim to implement Shariah based Human resource practices and their implementation. In this study, the relationship between intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment was studied. Questionnaire survey was used as a primary data tool to gather information from the unit of analysis, which were individual employee of the Islamic Banks. The results of the research study show that

there exists the relationship between intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment. The reasons for this significance were the difference in behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions of the employees.

Choong and Wong (2011) examined the relationship between intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment of academicians in Malaysian Private Universities. The research is aim to appraise the existing literatures and eventually build up the conceptual framework as well as hypotheses. A stratified proportionate sampling design has been employed. A total of 247 academicians from four Malaysian Private Universities have participated in this research survey. Further to this, intrinsic motivation is significantly correlated with the three components of commitment namely; affective, continuance and normative commitment. Besides, the finding also postulated that intrinsic motivation significantly predicted the organizational commitment. It is recommended that Heads of management, deans and human resources management should provide new and existing academicians with adequate training, workshop, seminar and conference that are related to the job scope. Apart from this, it is encouraged to conduct socialization programs for new academicians. By doing this, universities and faculties will be able to further enhance the academicians intrinsic motivation within an institution. Subsequently, this will strengthen the academics organizational commitment and increase performance. Hopeful to this, the universities will be able to strive for better status, reputation and performance. Eventually, it will be able to attract more foreign students enroll their study in Malaysian Private Universities. And, consequently it will assist in transforming Malaysia from middle-nation income to high-nation income with both inclusive and sustainable by 2020. The researcher having seen past works concludes that extrinsic and intrinsic motivation has positive/significant effect/impact on organizational commitment. But the researcher wants to know if the results of this study will also confirm if

intrinsic motivation predicts organizational commitment among workers despite location, tribe, state and country and if it has a mediation effect on the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Conceptualization

Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) proposed that leader-member relationships are heterogeneous, that is, that the relationship between a leader and a member contained within a work unit are different, and that each leader-member relationship is a unique interpersonal relationship within an organizational structure. They coined the term vertical dyad linkage (VDL) to describe the dyadic relationship between a leader and a subordinate. Much of the research on LMX divides the subordinate's roles and the quality of the LMX into two basic categories based on the leaders' and members' perceptions of the negotiating latitude: the in-group and the out-group (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982; Linden & Graen, 1980; Scandura & Graen, 1984). In-group or high quality LMX is associated with high trust, interaction, support, and formal/informal rewards. In-group members are given more information by the supervisor and report greater job latitude. These in-group members make contributions that go beyond their formal job duties and take on responsibility for the completion of tasks that are most critical to the success of the unit (Linden & Graen, 1980). Conversely, out-group or low quality LMX is characterized by low trust, interaction, support, and rewards. Out-group relationships involve those exchanges limited to the employment contract. In other words, out-group members perform high number of routine, mundane tasks of the unit and experience a more formal exchange with the supervisor (Linden & Graen, 1980). Graen and Cashman (1975) and Linden and Graen

(1980) provide evidence that in-group and out-group memberships tend to develop fairly quickly and remain stable.

Development of leader-member exchange (LMX)

It has been proposed that LMX is a result of role-taking, role-making, and role routinization behaviors exhibited by both supervisor and subordinate. (Graen & Cashman, 1975, Graen, 1976, Graen & Scandura, 1987). Initial dyadic exchange is the stage at which the leader initiates an assignment of tasks and begins to evaluate the behavior of the member and then makes a decision regarding responses to the member. This episode is called role-taking. Moreover, the leader also gathers important information regarding the member's potential for tasks in this phase. The exchange in the role-taking phase is based on economic transactions (Graen & Scandura, 1987).

When the initial stage is complete, the role-making phase begins. Role-making is a continuation of the developmental process in which further exchanges are made (Bauer & Green, 1996). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) called this the acquaintance stage. During this stage, the leader and member evolve how each will behave in various situations and begin to define the nature of their dyadic relationship (Graen & Scandura, 1987). If a dyad is developing into a high quality exchange relationship, the exchange becomes more social and less economic (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Conversely, if the relationship is not evolving to the next level, the relationship will remain based on the employment contract (Bauer & Green, 1996). When this process operates, the leader and member negotiate, because collaboration on tasks is exchanged for a dyadic social structure. Therefore, role-making is built on the mutual contribution of valued resources. Each party must offer something that the other party sees as valuable, and each party must see the exchange as reasonably fair (Graen

& Scandura, 1987). This is the stage at which behavioral aspects of trust come into play. The leader is taking a risk by delegating work to the member (Bauer & Green, 1996).

After the role-making stage, the behaviors of a leader and a member are much more predictable through role routinization. The exchange is maintained over time through the process of collaborating on different tasks. The dyadic relationship that develops interlocked behaviors involves the relational dimensions of trust, respect, loyalty, liking, support, and quality. The exchange of resources of the leader for collaboration on tasks by the member is controlled by mutual expectations (Graen and Scandura, 1987). However, due to the limited resources available to leaders for exchange and the investment of time necessary, a high quality of exchange tends to be developed and maintained in a limited number of leader-member dyads (Dienesch & Linden, 1986; Graen, 1976).

In a comprehensive article, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) also discussed four stages that LMX research has progressed through over the past two decades. The first stage is the initialization of the VDL theory by Graen and colleagues (1975, 1982, and 1995) that analyses the vertical dyad relationship between the leader and his/her member. After the validation of this differentiation process study, the second stage is the investigation of the characteristics of LMX relationships and their organizational implications (for example, the antecedents and outcomes of LMX). Many studies have investigated the contributing factors to the quality of LMX and how they affect organizations. Examples of the antecedents of LMX are: member characteristics, leader characteristics (ability, personality), and member upward influence behaviours: liking, perceived similarities between leaders and members, and expectations of leaders and members about the future of the relationship (Wayne & Ferris 1990).

Many researchers have also studied contextual variables. For example, task characteristics, organizational climate, organizational culture, and leader stress are believed to moderate LMX (Liden et al. 1997). Examples of LMX outcomes are employee performance evaluation, employee actual performance, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, organizational citizenship behaviour, and perceived organizational support. At this stage, the level of analysis is on the organization.

The third stage of LMX development, as described by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), is the process of dyadic partnership building which focuses on the developmental process of LMX. The initial development of leader-member relations is believed to be influenced by the different contexts or individual factors related to the expectations of the quality of future exchanges (Liden et al. 1997). Dienesch and Liden (1986) when proposing a Leadership Making Model pointed out that there has been a lack of study on the dynamic process of LMX development. Recently, Sparrow and Liden (1997) argue that the development of LMX is affected by the social network relations of both leaders and members and, in turn, the quality of LMX is reflected in the subsequent development of a member's relationship developments beyond the leader. Thus, the process of LMX development is not only affected by other relationships but it also affects the development of other relationships. The development of LMX is a dynamic, interactive process that is not constrained within the leader-member dyad. The process is now expanded to the fourth stage with the network orientation.

The final stage, as summarized by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), is the aggregation of differentiated dyadic relationships to group and network levels. They argue that most of the research on LMX has limited its focus on dyads within work groups and independent dyads, while in complex organizations; a leader often works with multiple members together in

collective interaction. Other researchers (Sparrow & Liden 1997) also agree that social analysis is a promising future research direction to examine the nature of LMX in an extended domain. LMX researchers have emphasized the quality of relationships while scholars studying the social network analysis have expanded the LMX horizon by explaining the structural underpinnings in the LMX theory and research. LMX research has contributed to the social network study by emphasizing relationship quality and the nature of exchanges and reciprocity within social networks (Sparrow & Liden 1997).

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) also discussed the nature of LMX and how it fits into the transactional/transformational leadership theory. Since LMX focuses on exchange quality, such as information exchange, and the material and mental support between leader and member, many researchers believe that the nature of LMX is transactional. Though it might be true that in the initial stage of LMX development, exchanges are important in building up good quality LMX, it is trust, loyalty and respect that are essential to a stable relationship between a leader and a member. If any party, a leader or a member, expects returns or rewards on everything he/she is doing for the other party, then there is hardly any possibility that trust and loyalty will grow between them. Therefore, a high quality LMX cannot be established or will last long. The exchange between the leader-member dyad with high LMX may be the result of LMX quality as well as its precursor. As such, Graen and Uhl-Bien argue that LMX may lie between transactional and transformational leaderships but the essential nature of LMX is transformational.

In addition, three traditional leadership approaches that have been developed over time are the trait approach, the behavioural approach and the situational/contingency approach. Each

of these leadership approaches describes different dimensions of leadership, and has its own effect on the association between the leader and his followers (Senior, 1997).

Trait Approach: The earliest research conducted on the concept of leadership focused on identifying the unique qualities or traits that appeared common to effective leaders – the idea that leaders are born and not made (Swanepoel, 2000). The leadership trait model was established in the early 1900s, with its associated theories and perspectives. In essence, this was the first attempt at the theoretical understanding of the nature of leadership. Most leadership research before 1945 suggested that certain traits were inherent in all leaders and were transferable from one situation to another (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). This research led to the identification of some traits that are inherent in most leaders. Researchers such as Stogdill (1974) have tested and studied the impact of traits on leadership. The trait approach attempts to explain leadership effectiveness in terms of the personality and psychological traits of the leader (Maude, 1978). These traits included emotional intelligence; having an extrovert personality (charisma); dominance; masculinity and conservatism and being better adjusted than non-leaders (Senior, 1997). Numerous studies identified emotional intelligence as a critical element for the success of a leader and as a vital resource for any group (Senior, 1997).

The fact that leaders were naturally born and developed meant that selection would be the key to effective leadership within an organisation, rather than other factors such as training and development (Robbins, 1996). One of the criticisms of the trait approach is that it focuses almost entirely on the physical and personality characteristics (Gerber, 1996). More recently, researchers moved away from assessing individuals in terms of traits, and towards assessing how leader behaviour contributes to the success or failure of leadership (Draft, 1999).

Behavioural Approach: Alternative approaches to leadership began to develop after the decline in popularity of trait theories (Swanepoel, 2000). Researchers moved away from assessing individuals in terms of traits, and focused on assessing how leaders' behaviour contributes to the success or failure of leadership (Draft, 1999). But the move away from the trait approach ignited research where leaders were studied either by observing their behaviour in laboratory settings or by asking individuals in field settings to describe the behaviour of persons in positions of authority, then applying different criteria of leader effectiveness to these descriptions.

Situational/Contingency Approach: Dissatisfaction with the trait and behavioural theories gave rise to the situational /contingency approach to leadership. This approach to leadership examined how leadership changes from situation to situation. According to this model, effective leaders diagnose the situation, identify the leadership style that will be most effective, and then determine whether they can implement the required style (Mullins, 1999). Prominent among these theories are Fielder's Contingency theory of leadership, the Path-Goal theory of leader effectiveness, Hersey and Blanchard's Life-Cycle Theory, the Cognitive- Resource Theory, and the Decision-Process Theory (Bass, 1998). Situational approaches to leadership have come about as a result of attempts to build upon and improve the trait and behavioural approaches to leadership. The situational approaches emphasise the importance of the situation as the dominant feature in effective leadership, together with the leader and the followers (Mullins, 1999).

Different environments require different types of leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Situational leadership does not promote an ideal leadership style, but rather considers the ability of a leader to adapt to the environment. Situational leadership studies the behaviour of leaders and their followers in varying situations (Hersey & Blanchard). Hersey and Blanchard

further argued that there was no best leadership style, but rather that there could be best attitudes for managers. The major advance of the situational approach is the recognition that for different development levels and different types of situations, different leadership styles are more effective. Leadership styles can therefore be defined as the behaviour of an organisation's leader as influenced by the situation surrounding that leader (Senior, 1997). Yukl (1998) states that although situational leadership theories provide insights into reasons for effective leadership, conceptual weaknesses limit the approach's utility. Thus, it is difficult to derive specific testable propositions from the approach, with the approach not permitting strong inferences about the direction of causality (Yukl, 1998). There have been many criticisms of the traditional approaches discussed above. One such criticism, by Bass (1990), is that these approaches have not been rigidly tested in practice and are too specific either in defining leadership in terms of traits, behaviours or situation.

Outcomes of leader-member exchange (LMX)

Unlike theories of leadership that propose that leader behaviour can be acquired by training and that leaders will treat all subordinates in the same manner, the LMX model of leadership asserts that it is questionable for leaders to treat all subordinates similarly (Korsgaard, Schweiger, & Sapienza, 1995). The primary value of understanding LMX lies in the prediction of certain outcomes. LMX is generally found to be associated with positive performance-related and attitudinal variables, especially for members. These variables include: (a) higher performance ratings (Linden & Graen, 1980; Linden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993), (b) higher overall satisfaction (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Rosse & Kraut, 1983; Scandura & Graen, 1984), (c) greater satisfaction with supervisor (Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986), (d) stronger organizational commitment (Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986; Nystrom, 1990), and (e) more positive role perceptions (Snyder & Bruning, 1985). On the

other hand, LMX is negatively related to turnover (Graen, Linden, & Hoel, 1982) and intention to quit (Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984).

For example, Linden and Graen (1980) found that out-group members who reported spending less time on decision-making were less likely to volunteer for special assignments and for extra work, and were rated by the leader as being lower on overall performance than in-group members. Rosse and Kraut (1983) found that members' negotiating latitude was positively related to their job satisfaction and negatively related to their job problems. Scandura and Graen (1984) also found that training interventions designed to improve supervisors' understanding and helpfulness in dyadic relations significantly improved the job satisfaction of members who initially had low-quality exchanges with their leaders. Nystrom (1990) examined the quality of vertical exchanges between managers and their bosses, and found that managers who experience low-quality exchanges with their bosses tend to feel little organizational commitment, whereas managers with high-quality exchanges express strong organizational commitment.

Differential treatment of subordinates by supervisors and the perception of fairness also have important consequences both for individuals and for individuals as members of a work group (Yulk, 2006). The perceptions of procedural fairness of subordinates are considered as one of several possible outcomes of a negotiated process of role-making which involve leaders and subordinates during the early phases of their working relationship (Dansereau et al., 1975; Wayne & Ferris, 1990). Recent research efforts have noted the potential importance of differentiated levels of exchange with respect to subordinates' attitude formation, and have called for research to determine if such differential treatment might affect perceptions of fairness and various organizational outcomes (Forret & Turban, 1994).

Theories and Empirical literature of leader-member exchange (LMX)

Social Exchange Theory by Blau, (1964)

The theory views exchange as a social behaviour that may result in both economic and social outcomes. It proposes that social behaviour is the result of an exchange process and that the relationships we choose to create and maintain are the ones that maximize our rewards/benefits and minimize our costs. According to the theorist leader-member exchange is viewed as work-related exchanges through which leaders develop exchange relationships of a distinct quality with each of the subordinates leading to the development of relatively stable relationship that range from lower (out-group) to higher (in-group) quality exchanges (Graen & Scandura 1987). In circumstances where subordinates experience lack of motivations at work, due to job monotonous for example, LMX relationship with the leaders becomes even more critical for success (Harris, 2009). Hence social exchange theory describes how power and influence among leaders and members are conditioned on the availability of alternative exchange partners from whom these leaders and members can obtain valued resources. Blau (1964) also distinguished the differences between social and economic exchange, noting that social exchange tends to produce feelings of personal obligation, gratitude and trust, whereas economic exchange does not. The distinction between social and economic exchange is fundamental to the way in which out-group or low quality exchanges and in-group or high quality exchanges have been distinguished in LMX research (Linden & Graen, 1980; Linden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993). Low quality leader-member relations have been characterized in terms of economic exchanges that do not progress beyond the employment contract, whereas high quality leader-member relations have been characterized by social exchanges that extend beyond the employment contract.

Making reference to social exchange theory, Sanchez and Byrne (2004) asserted that accepting something of value from another person obligates the receiver to the giver. In order to fulfil this obligation and to continue the relationship development, the receiver eventually supplies something of equal or greater value in return. Since one member of the relationship offers benefits to another without any explicit guarantee of reciprocation, trust and fairness become fundamental attributes of the social exchange relationships, particularly in well-developed leadership relationships.

Also Linden and Graen (1980), described high quality LMX as a characteristic of in-group, and low quality LMX is a characteristic of out-group. In-group is characterized by high trust, support, and information sharing. Due to these characteristics, in-group members make contributions that go beyond their formal job duties (Linden & Graen). On the other hand, out-group is characterized by low trust, support, and information, due to which out-group members make little contribution beyond their formal job duties (Linden & Graen). The relationship between a leader and his/her subordinate(s) has been shown to be important for a variety of individual and organizational outcomes. For example, the quality of LMX influences organizational commitment (Kinicki & Vecchio 1994; Nystrom, 1990).

To buttress this, Hsieh (2012) examined the relationships between leader-member exchange (LMX), supervisor support and organizational commitment for bank employees. Data for the study were collected during 2011 by using a questionnaire completed by employees at E Sun Bank and First Bank in southern Taiwan. The study found that the quality of LMX influences employees' organizational commitment through supervisor support. Findings imply that perceived supervisor support acts as a mild mediator in the psychological context towards employees when it comes to the link with LMX and organizational commitment in Chinese

banks. The study showed that a supervisor's considerations for their subordinates can lead to employees feeling important within the organization and that appropriate encouragement could inspire employees to dedicate more effort towards the organization.

Also, Keskes (2014) examined the relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment dimensions. Both styles of leadership known as transformational and transactional styles differ in the process by which the leader motivates his subordinates. Organizational commitment defined by its three types (Affective, Normative and Continuance) measures the strength of an individual identification with and involvement in the organization. The result has shown how leadership dimensions can influence employee organizational commitment. Although there is considerable research available suggesting that transformational leadership is positively associated with organizational commitment in a variety of organizational settings and cultures, there has been little empirical research focusing on the precise ways in which style of leadership impacts employee organizational commitment.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory (Adopted Theory for the study)

Leader-member exchange theory was propounded by Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, (1975). The theory is a relationship based approach to leadership that focuses on the two-way (dyadic) relationship between leaders and followers. Hence it is an approach to understanding a leader's influence on an individual follower or subordinates effectiveness by focusing on dyadic or paired relationship between leaders and each of their subordinates (Graen, & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The theory suggests that leaders develop an exchange with each of their subordinates, and that the quality of these leader-member exchange relationships influences subordinates' responsibility, decisions, and access to resources and performance. LMX was

originally termed the vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) theory (Dansereau, et al. 1975), because of its focus on reciprocal influence processes within vertical dyads composed of one person who has direct authority over another person (Yulk, 2006). LMX is seen as the quality of the exchange relationship between a leader and his subordinates (Hsiung & Tsai, 2009; Lussier & Achua, 2007; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). The theory basically declares that the relationship between a leader and their subordinates is in anticipation of the consequences at the individual, group and organizational level. LMX theory and likewise past research works suggest that supervisors may have high quality relationships with some subordinates (in-group), which is characterized by the exchange of quality resources such as information, support, trust, rewards and effort (Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne, 1997) or may have low-quality relationships with other subordinates (the out-group) which is characterized by the absence of quality resource exchanges (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

In low-quality LMX, employees' performance tends to reflect the formal role requirements as specified in the job description (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). While in high-quality LMX relationships, supervisors get subordinates to help them on various tasks by offering them desirable inducements such as influence and support (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Consistent with the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), these inducements create employee obligations to reciprocate by working harder to satisfy supervisor and organization (Wayne & Green, 1993). Employees in high-quality LMX have also been shown to engage more in helpful behaviours (Wayne & Green), greater information exchange, self-disclosure and emotional support with their peers (Kram & Isabella, 1985), feelings of growth, high self-esteem and competence. These behaviours are indicative of job dedication, motivation and interpersonal facilitation, which have been shown to be positively related to leader-member exchange (Michael, 2013, 2014). Empirical research has also

indicated that the quality of LMX is consistently related not only to work outcomes pertinent to the LMX dyads, but also to organizational relevant criteria such as organizational commitment (Gestner & Day, 1997). Thus, the goal of leader-member exchange theory is to explain the effects of leadership on members, teams and organizations.

Based on the above discussions, Leader-member exchange theory was adopted as the main theoretical framework for this study. This is because it unified the three variables of this study, identifying that these three variables through LMX influence organizational outcomes or behavior. This is clearly seen in the diagrammatic model of Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brover and Ferris (2012).

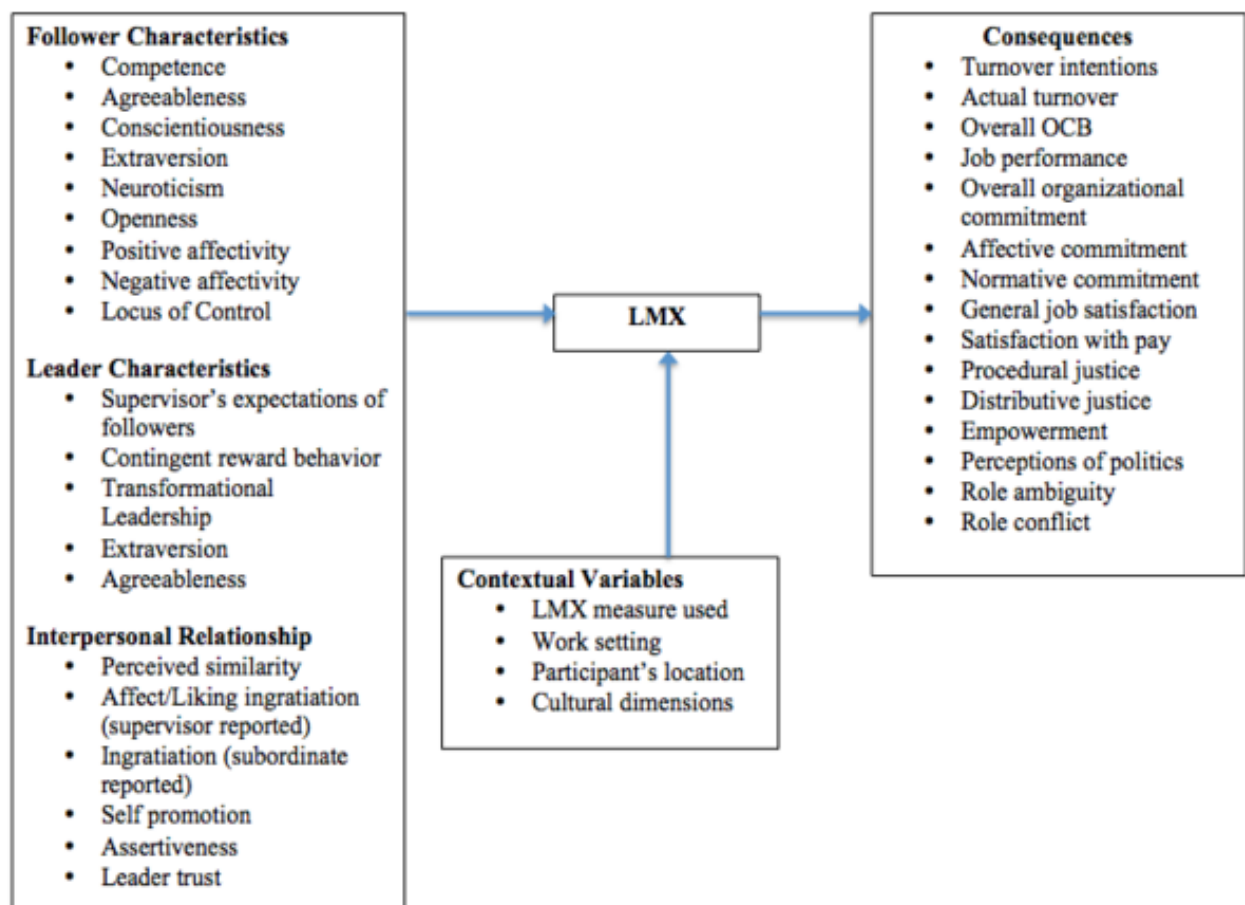


Fig 2: Dulebohn et al (2012) Meta-Analysis of Antecedents and Consequences of LMX (source; Wikipedia.org/wiki/leader-member exchange theory).

In their model above, LMX imbued Intrinsic Motivation as competence, openness and positive affectivity (Follower Characteristics), Interpersonal Facilitation as perceived

similarity, affect/liking ingratiation, self-promotion and leader-trust (Interpersonal Relationship), Leader-Member Exchange as supervisors expectations of followers, transformational leadership and extraversion (Leader Characteristics) and Consequences as organizational commitment, turnover intention, overall Organizational citizenship behavior, general job satisfaction and empowerment. Thus, the three primary groups (follower characteristics, leader characteristics and interpersonal relationship) are seen as antecedents which results through LMX to bring about a consequence (organizational commitment). Other theories of the study explained the concepts but none unified all the variables of the study, thus Leader-Member Exchange theory is adopted as the theoretical framework for this study.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Leadership Behaviour and Organizational Commitment (OC)

Leaders should understand that the issue of employee's organizational commitment is a crucial element to be addressed and it reflects the quality of the leadership in an organization (Limerick, Cunnington & Crowther, 1998; Stum, 1999). Organizational commitment is influenced by the job environment created by the employees' supervisor. This job environment, together with the employee's ability and motivation, will largely determine eventual performance (Cummings & Schwabs, 1973). As far back as 1986, Eisenberger observed that employees' organizational commitment is strongly influenced by perceived (generalized) organizational support, despite this information years back commitment is still an issue in organizations today hence the number of studies springing up in this construct. Effectiveness of leadership is a broad measure of organizational commitment which offers a way to further explore the subject of the relationship between leadership and commitment.

Past researches on the dynamics of leader-member exchange process has found that LMX and leadership styles are positively related to organizational commitment, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with work and organizational citizenship behaviours (Wayne & Green, 1993). Some of these researches are; Research by Marmaya, Hitam, Muhamad, and Balakrishnan, (2011); Gao and Bai, (2011); Riaz, Akram and Ijaz (2011); Lo et al (2009) and Avolio, et al (2004). They examined the effect of leadership style (transformational and transactional) on organizational commitment. The result of the studies showed that there is a significant correlation between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment. Lee (2005); Wat and Shaffer (2005) and Wang et al (2005) also found out that LMX quality mediates the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment. They asserted that quality leader-member relationships appear to be constructive because they foster interactions that help employees feel committed and motivated to contribute to the organization. The more managers and employees develop a high quality relationship and interact effectively, the more likely the employees perform well. Thus if employees perceive that they are being treated fairly by their supervisors, they are more likely to reciprocate by holding positive attitudes about their work, their work outcomes and their supervisors.

Also Loui (1995) examined the relationship between the broad construct of organizational commitment and the outcome measures of supervisory trust, job involvement, and job satisfaction. In all three areas, Loui reported positive relationships with organizational commitment. More specifically, perceived trust in the supervisor, an ability to be involved with the job, and feelings of job satisfaction were major determinants of organizational commitment. Effective leaders are expected to generate higher levels of organizational commitment, as Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) phrased, "Their art is to manufacture ethics to give life through commitment to the spirit of the organization". In nine studies

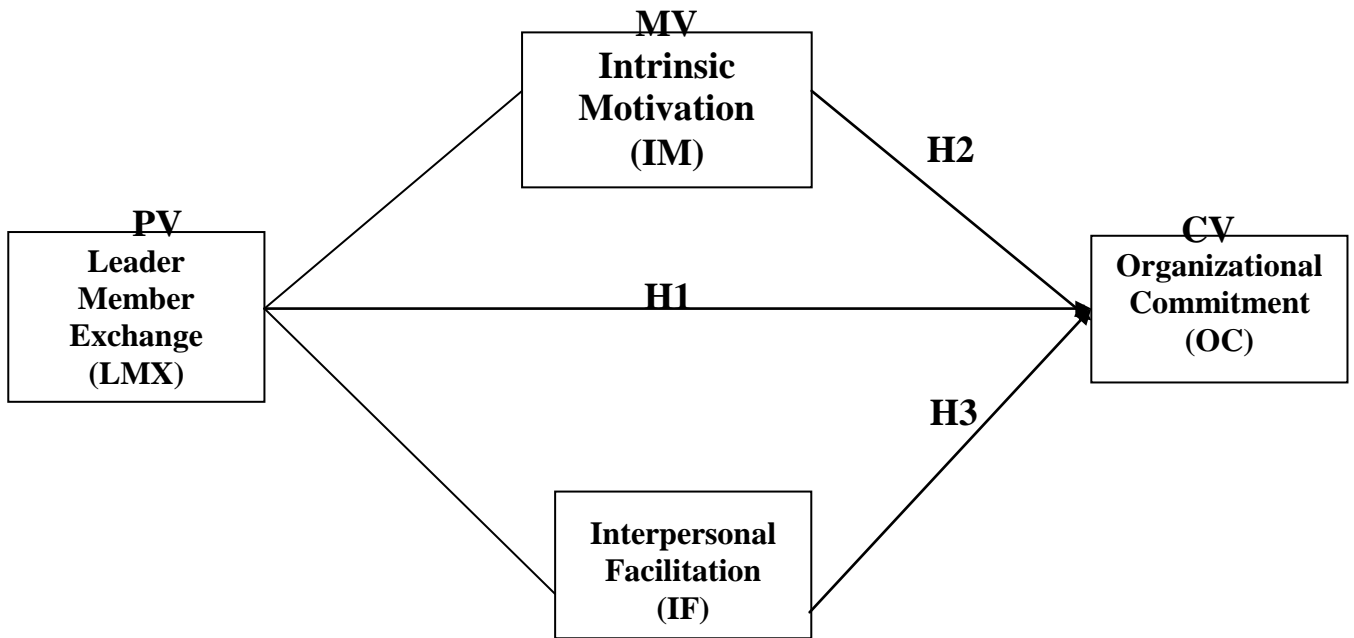
involving 2,734 persons, Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) examined how participatory management and supervisory feedback influenced employee levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The researchers found that when supervisors provided feedback about performance and allowed employees to participate in decision-making, employee levels of affective commitment was stronger than both continuance and normative. That is, employees indicated staying with the organization was more related to wanting to, rather than needing to or feeling they ought to.

In another study involving 763 employees, Becker (1992) examined whether employees' commitment to different constituencies or to the overall organization were better predictors of job satisfaction, intention to quit, and prosocial behaviour. He discovered that employees' commitment to top management, supervisors, and work groups contributed significantly beyond commitment to the organization. According to Yousef (2000), those who perceive their superior as adopting consultative or participative leadership behaviour are more committed to their organization. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) suggested that a supervisor who provides more accurate and timely types of communication enhances the work environment and thereby is likely to increase employees' commitment to the organization. This view was supported by prior research that showed that organizational commitment was higher for employees whose leaders encouraged participation in decision-making (Rhodes & Steers, 1981), emphasized consideration (Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995) and were supportive and concerned for their followers' development (Allen & Meyer, 1996). However, the mechanism through which leader-member exchange could impact on work attitudes and work outcomes remains unclear. Hence the essence of this study to find out if Interpersonal Facilitation and Intrinsic Motivation will mediate the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment.

Summary of Literature Review

Based on the literature reviewed, it is observed that different theoretical postulations have been used to explain the concept of motivation, organizational commitment, leader-member exchange and interpersonal facilitation. They were all reviewed to strengthen the understanding of the variables of the present study. Each of them tried to better the understanding of how the variables influence human behaviour and organizational outcomes, but not without some weaknesses and limitations. One clear limitation is that all the theories reviewed explained the variables of the study independently without linking them to each other. Except for leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, this theory unified all the variables and tried to explain how each is linked to another, using the diagrammatic model of Dulebohn et al (2012). It is as a result of the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory's capacity to unify the variables of the study that prompted its adoption as the main theoretical framework for the present study.

In addition, different studies which are quite similar to the present study have been conducted to determine the factors that are related to the aforementioned constructs. However, most of the studies were conducted outside Nigeria and very few are Nigerian based and to the knowledge of the researcher none has established the mediating effect of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment among organised private sector workers in Awka, Anambra State, Southeast region of Nigeria, hence the essence of this study. It is expected that the present study will contribute to existing literature on the variables of the study as well as on the relationships between the variables and its implications in the organizational settings in Nigeria.



PV: Predictor Variable (LMX)
MV: Mediating Variable (IM & IF)
CV: Criterion Variable (OC)

Fig 3: Conceptual Model of the Study

Hypotheses

H1. Leader-member exchange will have a significant correlation with organisational commitment among organised private sector workers.

H2. Intrinsic motivation will mediate the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational commitment among organised private sector workers.

H3. Interpersonal facilitation will mediate the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational commitment among organised private sector workers.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

In this chapter, the different methods employed in this study, specifically, the participants, instruments, procedure and design and statistics adopted to analyse the data were explained.

Participants

Participants in the study were 627(six hundred and twenty seven) workers from all departments (personnel, marketing, e.t.c.) of the organizations used in the study. Accidental sampling was used to select any worker that is available and is willing to participate in the study. This non-probability sampling technique was used because the participants must give consent to participate in the study and it is only those that consented that were involved in the study hence, probability sampling is not feasible. They were drawn from 15(fifteen) private organizations selected from three commercial cities from the three senatorial zones in Anambra State namely, Anambra Central - Awka, Anambra North - Onitsha and Anambra South - Nnewi. The selection of the organizations was done through simple random sampling by replacement using dip pick (See Appendix B, page 123). These organizations are manufacturing organizations that are into production, marketing and selling of their products. The participants were both male and female workers. They comprised of 343 males (54.7%) and 284 females (45.3%). They were aged between 19 to 62 years, with a mean age of 34.41 years and standard deviation of 9.61. The educational qualifications of the participants varied; Secondary Education 82(13.1%), Ordinary National Diploma (OND)/Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE)/Higher National Diploma (HND) 233(37.2%), Bachelor's degree 209(33.3%), Master's degree 97(15.5%) and Doctorate degree 6(1.0%). Their marital status also varied, 318 were single, 303 were married and 6 belonged to others.

Instruments

Four sets of instruments were used for the study namely; Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993), Leader-Member Exchange scale (LMX) by Liden and Maslyn (1998), Interpersonal Facilitation Scale (IFS) by Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (IMS) by Altindis (2011). In addition, demographic variables which include age, sex, marital status, educational qualification and religion were included in the overall instrument used for the study. An introductory letter was included to seek the consent of the participants and to reassure them of the confidentiality and genuine purpose of the research. The questionnaire used for the study contained 50 items which included the demographic variables and the four instruments of the study (See Appendix A, page 119).

Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS)

This is an 18-item scale used to measure organizational commitment. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) and adapted for Nigerian use by Gbadamosi (2006). It is designed to assess employee commitment to an organization. OCQ measures three dimensions of organizational commitment namely; Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment. The original Meyer, Allen and Smith's OCQ which was adopted by Gbadamosi (2006) had 18 items but after factorial validation of the 18-item OCQ by Ebeh (2010), only 12 items had factor loadings above .35 (Appendix D). This was made up of four (4) items each for affective, continuance and normative commitment. Only these 12(twelve) items were used for the study while the remaining 6(six) items that failed to load were discarded. The discarded items were items 3, 6, 9, 11, 13 and 18. 10(ten) items in the OCQ are scored directly while 2(two) are scored in reverse. The directly scored items include 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 while the

reverse scored items are items 3 and 4. Each dimension of the OCQ could be scored separately. The scoring was done on a 7 (seven) point scale ranging from 1="strongly disagree" to 7="strongly agree" indicating the extent to which the items apply to a participant. Sample items of the OCQ include statements such as "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization", "it would be very hard for me to leave this organization right now, even if I wanted to" and "this organization deserves my loyalty". Meyer et al (1993), reported internal consistency reliability estimates (Cronbach Alpha) for affective commitment (.82), continuance commitment (.74), and Normative Commitment (.83). Similarly, using African samples, Gbadamosi (2006) obtained internal consistency alpha reliability coefficients of .73 for affective commitment, .74 for continuance commitment and .66 for normative commitment. While Ebeh (2010) obtained internal consistency alpha reliability coefficients of .97 for affective commitment, .92 for continuance commitment and .78 for normative commitment. See section D of Appendix A.

Leader-Member Exchange scale (LMX)

This is a 12-item scale used to assess the quality of exchange between a leader or supervisor and their subordinates or supervisee. The leader-member exchange scale (LMX) scale was developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998). The items were directly and positively scored on a 7(seven) point likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree" indicating the extent to which an item apply to a participant. . Sample items of the leader-member exchange scale (LMX) scale include, "Supervisors are a lot of fun to work with" and "Supervisees respect their supervisors' knowledge of the job and competence". Liden and Maslyn (1998) reported a cronbach alpha of 0.90. See section C of Appendix A.

Intrinsic Motivation Scale (IMS)

This is a 16-item scale used to measure work motivation. The Intrinsic motivation scale was developed by Altindis (2011). The scale has two dimensions (intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.). Each dimension has 8(eight) items. This study employed the dimension that measured intrinsic motivation which assesses the degree to which an employee works to gain satisfaction without external reward. The items were directly and positively scored on a 5(five) point likert scale ranging from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5 = “strongly agree”, indicating the extent to which the items apply to a participant. Sample items of the intrinsic motivation scale (IMS) include “I have responsibilities related to work” and “I see myself as an important employee of the organization”. Altindis (2011) reported a Cronbach Alpha value of 0.79 for intrinsic motivation. See section A of Appendix A.

Interpersonal facilitation scale (IFS)

This is a 13-item scale used to measure the extent to which a worker helps others to contribute to their effective task performance, maintain social and psychological climate that facilitates accomplishment of the organizations goals. Interpersonal Facilitation scale was developed by Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996). The items were directly and positively scored on a 5(five) point scale ranging from 1 = “Not at all likely” to 5 = “Extremely likely” indicating the extent to which an item apply to a participant. Sample items of the interpersonal facilitation scale include, “I offer to help others in their work” and “I encourage others to overcome differences and get along”. Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) reported a cronbach alpha value of 0.82. Also Murray (2004) reported an acceptable Cronbach Alpha reliability value of 0.74 for this scale. See section B of Appendix A.

Procedure

Pilot Study

The researcher conducted a pilot study using 93 participants from three organizations in Awka, Onitsha and Nnewi, Anambra State, Southeast Nigeria. The researcher sought permission from the management of the two organizations who granted the researcher the consent to administer the questionnaire to their employees. A total of 93 copies of the questionnaire were distributed, all were returned but only 80 were found useable. A reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) was obtained for the four sets of instrument used for the study namely: .78 for organizational commitment, .92 for interpersonal facilitation, .68 for intrinsic motivation and .66 for leader-member exchange (see Appendix C). The above reliability coefficient results showed that the instruments were reliable and thus can be used for the study. This is because according to Sekaran (2000), reliability coefficients lower than .60 are considered poor, while those in the range of .60 to .80 is acceptable and in the range of .80 and above is considered very good.

Also using concurrent validity, the researcher correlated the scales with the related scales. With respect to interpersonal facilitation, the researcher correlated the 13-item interpersonal facilitation scale with 7-item interpersonal facilitation scale by Van Scotter and Motomidlo (1996). The correlation yielded a concurrent validity of .64. The researcher also correlated the 12-item LMX scale with a 7-item LMX scale by Scandura and Graen (1984). The correlation yielded a concurrent validity of .94. Again, the 8-item intrinsic motivation scale was correlated with the 4-item intrinsic motivation scale by Lawyer and Hall (1970). The scale yielded a concurrent validity of .91. Finally, the 18-item organizational commitment scale by Meyer and Allen (1991) was correlated with the 23-item organizational commitment scale by

Buchanan (1974). The correlation yielded a concurrent validity of .95. Based on this position, the instruments intended for use in the main study were considered both reliable and valid.

Main Study

Multi-stage sampling procedure was adopted for this study. In the first stage, purposive sampling was used to select the private organizations over public organizations because private organizations are the targeted population for the study. The inclusion criterion for private organizations is that they are organizations into manufacturing. In the second stage, the researcher visited the three (3) Senatorial zones in Anambra State (Anambra-Central, Anambra-North and Anambra-South) and purposively selected the biggest commercial city in each. For Anambra-Central, Awka was selected; Anambra-North, Onitsha was selected and in Anambra-South Nnewi was selected. In the third stage, the researcher conveniently selected eight (8) manufacturing organizations from each city. Also, with the help of 3(three) research assistants; the researcher approached the organizations with an identification letter from the Head Department of Psychology and sought permission to administer the questionnaire. Some of the organizations declined participation; hence this spurred the researcher to select five manufacturing organizations for each city (Awka, Onitsha and Nnewi) that their management and workers consented to participate in the study on the grounds of unanimity. The selection was done using simple random sampling by replacement through dip pick (see detailed sampling procedure in Appendix B, page 123).

On the agreed day for distribution, the researcher with the help of the research assistants went to the organizations and selected participants who were available and willing to participate in the study thereby applying the accidental sampling technique. This is a non-probability sampling technique and was used because the participants must give consent to participate in

the study, hence the use of probability sampling is not feasible. The nature and essence of the study was explained to the workers and they were also reassured of the confidentiality of their responses. Each participant was given adequate time to complete the questionnaire while those whose work schedule was tight were allowed to go home with the questionnaire and return them the next day. The distribution and collection process for the three zones lasted for four weeks. A total of 689 copies of the questionnaire were distributed out of which 646 were returned giving a return rate of 93.8% and 627 representing 91% were found useful and thus used for data analysis.

Design/Statistics

The study has leader-member exchange as its predictor variable, organizational commitment as the criterion variable and interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation as the mediator variables. The study is a cross-sectional survey research because data were collected using survey method (questionnaire). Correlational design was employed for the study because the objective of the study was to establish the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational commitment (OC) and the mediating effect of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on the relationship. Mediated Multiple Regression Analysis and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Statistics were used in testing the hypotheses for the study. Mediated Multiple Regression Analysis was used in testing the mediating effect of the variables in the study, while Pearson Product Moment Statistics was used to test the relationship between the variables of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

In this chapter, the results of the statistical analysis of the data obtained in the study are presented in Tables 1, 2 and Figure 4.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and Zero-Order Correlations of the Study Variables.

Variables	Mean	SD	2	3	4	5
1. Age	34.41	9.61	-	-	-	-
2. Organizational Commitment	-	-	1			
3. Leader-Member Exchange	-	-	.295**	1		
4. Intrinsic Motivation	-	-	.472**	.443**	1	
5. Interpersonal Facilitation	-	-	.248**	.561**	.482**	1

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

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

Results from Table 1 shows that a significant positive relationship was found between leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational commitment (OC) ($r = .30$, $p < .01$). This implies that an increase in leader-member exchange (LMX) will be associated with an increase in organizational commitment (OC). Thus hypothesis one is accepted.

Also a significant positive relationship was found between Interpersonal Facilitation (IF) and leader-member exchange (LMX) ($r = .56$, $p < .01$); Interpersonal Facilitation (IF) and organizational commitment (OC) ($r = .25$, $p < .01$). Hence this suggests that increase in interpersonal facilitation (IF) is related to a significant increase in leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational commitment (OC) when they co-exist respectively. Likewise, a significant positive relationship was also found between intrinsic motivation (IM) and leader-member exchange (LMX) ($r = .44$, $p < .01$); and intrinsic motivation (IM) and organizational commitment (OC) ($r = .47$, $p < .01$) thus an increase in intrinsic motivation (IM) is related to

significant increase in leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational commitment (OC). These results provide preliminary support for running mediation which tested hypotheses 2 and 3.

Table 2: Results of Mediation effect of Intrinsic Motivation (IM) and Interpersonal Facilitation (IF) on the relationship between Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Organizational Commitment (OC) of workers.

	R ²	F	df ₁ (df ₂)	SE	B	LLCI	ULCI
Model 1 direct	.20	152.34**	1(625)				
LMX → IM				.01	.15*	.12	.17
Model 2 direct	.23	94.17**	2(624)				
IM → OC				.10	1.06**	.87	1.25
LMX → OC				.03	.09*	.03	.15
Model 3 indirect							
LMX→IM→OC				.02	.15**	.13	.19
Model 4 direct	.32	286.73**	1(625)				
LMX→IF				.02	.34**	.30	.38
Model 5 direct	.10	33.53**	2(624)				
IF → OC				.06	.16*	.04	.29
LMX→OC				.04	.19**	.11	.27
Model 6 indirect							
LMX→IF→OC				.02	.06*	.02	.10

** =P< .001, * = P< .01

Based on the above Table, Model 1, 2 and 3 tested for the direct and indirect (mediation effect) of the following:

- LMX as a predictor of IM (mediator).

- IM and LMX as predictors of OC.
- The mediation effect of IM (mediator) on the relationship between LMX and OC.

In Model 1, the result shows that LMX significantly predicted IM, the Anova model was significant at $F(1, 625) = 152.34^{**}$, $P < .001$, (See Table 2 Model 1) while the adjusted R square value for the model is .20 showing that (IM) contributed to 20% of the model. Furthermore, the unstandardized Beta coefficient value is $B = .15^*$, $P < .001$ (See Table 2 Model 1 and Fig 4). Also the lower limit class interval (LLCI) and the upper limit class interval (ULCI) did not cross zero, $LLCI = .12$ and $ULCI = .17$ (See Table 2 Model 1), thus confirming the significance of the beta value.

In Model 2, the result shows that when IM and LMX are the predictor variables of OC, the Anova model was significant at $F(2, 624) = 94.17^{**}$, $P < .001$. (See Table 2 Model 2) while the adjusted R square value is .23 showing that IM and LMX predicted 23% of OC. Both of the predictor variables beta coefficient value was significant, the Beta values are $IM = 1.06^{**}$, $p < .001$ and $LMX = .09^*$, $P < .01$ (See Table 2 Model 2 and Fig 4).

In Model 3, the result shows that the mediation or indirect effect of IM on the relationship between LMX and OC was significant; the unstandardized Beta coefficient value is $.15^{**}$. The values of $LLCI = .13$ and $ULCI = .19$ (See Table 2 Model 3). These values did not cross zero showing that the mediation effect was significant. This implies that the mechanism through which LMX relates with OC can be significantly explained by introduction of IM, thus the introduction of IM significantly and positively increase the value of the relationship between LMX and OC. In other words when intrinsic motivation (IM) is added to leader-member exchange (LMX), it increases the level of organizational commitment (OC) among workers as such intrinsic motivation (IM) is seen as a good mediator of the relationship

between leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational commitment (OC) hence hypothesis 3 was confirmed.

Also Model 4, 5 and 6 tested for the direct and indirect (mediation effect) of the following:

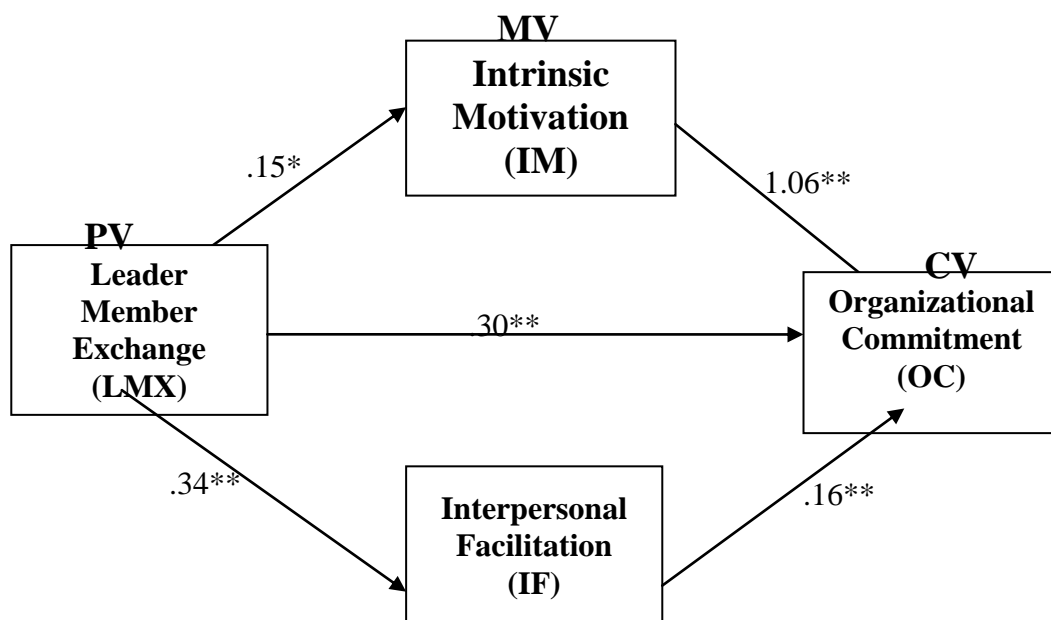
- LMX as a predictor of IF (mediator)
- IF and LMX as a predictor of OC
- The mediation effect of IF (mediator) on the relationship between LMX and OC.

In Model 4, the result shows that LMX significantly predicted IF, the Anova model was significant at $F(1, 625) = 286.73^{**}$, $P < .001$, (See Table 2 Model 4) while the adjusted R square value for the model is .32 showing that IF contributed 32% of the model. Furthermore, the unstandardized Beta coefficient value is $B = .34^{**}$, $P < .001$ (See Table 2, Model 4 and Fig 4). Also the LLCI and the ULCI did not cross zero, LLCI = .30 and ULCI = .38 (See Table 2 Model 4), thus confirming the significance of the beta value.

In Model 5, the result shows that when IF and LMX are the predictor variables of OC, the Anova model was significant at $F(2, 624) = 33.53^{**}$, $P < .001$, (See Table 2 Model 5) while the adjusted R square is = .10 showing that IF and LMX predicted 10% of OC. Both of the predictor variables Beta coefficient value was significant, the Beta values are IF = .16*, $P < .01$ and LMX = .19**, $P < .001$ (See Table 2 Model 5 and Fig 4).

In Model 6, the result shows that the mediation or indirect effect of IF on the relationship between LMX and OC was significant, the unstandardized Beta coefficient is .06*. The values of LLCI = .02 and ULCI = .10 (See Table 2 Model 6). These values did not cross zero showing that the mediation effect was significant. This implies that the mechanism through which LMX relates with OC can also be significantly explained by introduction of IF, thus

the introduction of IF significantly and positively increase the value of the relationship between LMX and OC. In other words, when interpersonal facilitation (IF) is added to leader-member exchange (LMX), it increases the level of organizational commitment (OC) among workers as such interpersonal facilitation (IF) is seen as a good mediator of the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational commitment (OC), hence hypothesis 3 was confirmed.



** = $P < .001$, * = $P < .01$

Fig 4: Statistical Model Result for the Study

Summary of Findings

1. Hypothesis one was confirmed showing that there was a significant correlation between leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational commitment (OC).
2. There was a significant correlation between the variables of the study: interpersonal facilitation (IF) and leader-member exchange (LMX), interpersonal facilitation (IF) and organizational commitment (OC), intrinsic motivation (IM)

and leader-member exchange (LMX), and intrinsic motivation (IM) and organizational commitment (OC).

3. Interpersonal facilitation (IF) significantly mediated the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational commitment (OC).
4. Interpersonal facilitation (IF) significantly mediated the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational commitment (OC).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Discussion

This study investigated the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment, and the mediating effect of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on the relationship. Three hypotheses were tested and the results of the analysis are discussed.

The finding from the analysis showed that hypothesis one was confirmed because leader-member exchange significantly and positively correlated with organizational commitment. A possible explanation for this correlation could be that members feel that their leaders do recognize their abilities and contributions, thus increasing their respect for such leaders and to pay back, their commitment to the organization increases. Thus an increase in leader-member exchange brings about an increase in organizational commitment. It also shows that the way leaders relate with their subordinates in an organization influences the subordinates hence making them committed if the relationship is positive. Prior studies consistently found that leader-member exchange significantly predicts organizational commitment. Some of such findings are that of Hsieh, (2012), Keskes, (2014), Ansari et al., (2001), Lee (2005), Wat and Shaffer (2005), Wong et al., (2002) and Nystrom (1990).

The study by Hsieh (2012) examined the relationship between leader-member exchange, supervisor support and organizational commitment of Chinese bank employees. The study found that the quality of leader-member exchange influences employees' organizational commitment through supervisor support. This finding implies that perceived supervisor support acts as a mild psychological mediator in the link between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment in Chinese banks. The study also showed that a supervisor's

considerations for their subordinates can lead to a feeling of importance among employees within the organization, and appropriate encouragement could inspire employees to dedicate more effort towards actualizing organizational goals.

Keskes, (2014) examined the relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment dimensions, and noted that although the two styles of leadership: transformational and transactional styles differ in the patterns by which the leader motivates his subordinates, both significantly predicted organizational commitment. Ansari et al (2001) and Nystrom (1990) in their studies found that leader-member exchange had a direct effect and correlates positively with organizational commitment. Also Lee (2005), Wat and Shaffer (2005) and Wong et al., (2002) found that leader-member exchange quality mediates the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment. They asserted that quality leader-member exchange relationship appear to be constructive because they foster interactions that help employees feel committed and motivated to contribute to the organization. Schyns and Wolfram (2008) posit that for followers, an attitude such as commitment is a correlate of leader-member exchange. Followers tend to show commitment in return for a good relationship thus if followers are not committed to their organizations, supervisors should be held responsible. The findings are also consistent with the leader-member exchange theory which implies that leader-member exchange positively correlates with organizational commitment.

The second hypothesis of the present study was also confirmed. Interpersonal facilitation positively mediated the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment. This implies that the mechanism through which leader-member exchange relates with organizational commitment can be significantly enhanced by the introduction of interpersonal facilitation, thus the introduction of interpersonal facilitation significantly and

positively increased the value of the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment. In other words, when interpersonal facilitation is added to leader-member exchange, it increases the level of organizational commitment among workers. Although there is paucity of empirical studies to support this finding, the result of the present study is in tandem with the leader-member exchange theory. The theory opines that employees in high quality leader-member exchange have been shown to engage more in helpful behaviours (Wayne & Green, 1993), emotional support with their peers and interrelationship with co-workers and supervisors (Kram & Isabella, 1985). These behaviours are indicative of interpersonal facilitation, which have been shown to be positively related to leader-member exchange (Michael, 2013, 2014). The theory identified that interpersonal facilitation through leader-member exchange influence organizational outcomes or behaviours such as organizational commitment. This was clearly seen in the Dulebohn et al (2012) model. The model imbibed interpersonal facilitation as perceived similarity, affect/liking ingratiation, self-promotion and leader trust under interpersonal relationship and saw it as an antecedent which results through leader-member exchange to bring about a consequence (organizational commitment).

Again, a significant correlation was found between interpersonal facilitation and organizational commitment and between interpersonal facilitation and leader-member exchange. This finding is consistent with a study by Zagenczyk et al (2010) who discovered that positive interpersonal relationships at work have advantageous impact on both organizational and individual variables. They also demonstrated that friendships at work improve individual employee attitudes such as job commitment, job satisfaction and job engagement. Song and Olshfski (2008) agreed with this when they pointed out that valued work relationships influence organizational outcomes by increasing organizational

participation, establishing supportive and innovative climate, increasing organizational productivity and indirectly reducing turnover intentions.

George and Brief (1992) in their work, suggested that workers low in interpersonal facilitation display such negative attitudes as; acting selfishly, failing to help others, refusal to cooperate, complaining about workers and supervisors, avoiding association with co-workers, act aggressively and pick fights. These behaviours are believed to distract co-workers from their organizational responsibilities as such affects their commitment. Indeed, interpersonal facilitation encompasses a range of interpersonal acts that help maintain the interpersonal and social context needed to support effective task performance and improve commitment in organizations. It is behaviour that if imbibed well by workers or supervisors improves leader-member exchange and thus leads one to be committed.

Again the LMX theory, which is the theoretical framework for this study implies that elements of interpersonal facilitation such as engaging in helpful behaviours, supporting peers emotionally and cooperating with co-workers and supervisors are behaviour that lead to high-quality leader-member exchange relationships and engenders positive work outcomes such as commitment.

The third hypothesis showed that intrinsic motivation positively mediated the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment. This implies that the mechanism through which leader-member exchange relates with organizational commitment can be significantly enhanced by introduction of intrinsic motivation. Thus, if intrinsic motivation is added to leader-member exchange, the level of organizational commitment among workers increases.

There is paucity of empirical studies to support the findings but the results align well with the leader-member exchange theory. The theory posits that employees who exhibit high quality leader-member exchange are seen to engage more in helpful behaviours, greater information exchange, competence, openness, self-disclosure and feelings of growth. These behaviours are indicative of job dedication and motivation, which have been shown to be positively related to leader-member exchange (Michael, 2013, 2014). The theory also through the model of Dulebohn et al., (2012), defined intrinsic motivation as competence, openness and positive affectivity under follower characteristics and intrinsic motivation as an antecedent which results through leader-member exchange to bring about a consequence (organizational commitment). Also this study found a significant correlation between intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment and between intrinsic motivation and leader-member exchange. These findings are in accord with a lot of prior studies. Farwa and Niazi, (2013) examined the impact of intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment among Islamic bank employee. The results of the study showed that there exists a relationship between intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment. Choong and Wang (2011) examined the relationship between intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment of academicians in Malaysian private universities and their results showed that intrinsic motivation had a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment and its components (affective, continuance and normative). This is also in line with Altindis (2011) and Warsi, Fatima and Sahidzada (2009) studies. Also, earlier O'Driscoll and Randall (1999) showed that intrinsic rewards had a positive effect on affective commitment, meaning that enhancement of intrinsic motivation could achieve higher levels of affective commitment to the organization.

The foregoing point to the fact that intrinsic motivation is an important factor for enhancing commitment in organizations. This could be so because it is the degree to which an employee is motivated to perform well, it results in good feelings and subjective rewards like feelings of growth, high self-esteem, competence, autonomy etc., (Lawler, 1970). Therefore it is the inner drive of an individual that provides energy or force to the individual to work for positive outcomes like creativity, commitment, performance and involvement. The findings could further be explained by the leader-member exchange theory of Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, (1975), which is the theoretical framework of this study. The theory proposed that elements of intrinsic motivation such as competence, feelings of growth, self-determination and openness lead to high quality leader-member exchange which results to work outcomes such as commitment. Thus an increase in intrinsic motivation leads to an increase in leader-member exchange, and organizational commitment. Finally, the results of this study indicate that interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation improves leader-member exchange relationship which in turn increases employee obligations to reciprocate in terms of increased effort to discharge their duties and be fully committed to the organization.

Implications of the study

The findings of the study implied that an increase in leader-member exchange brings about an increase in organizational commitment. It also showed that when interpersonal facilitation or intrinsic motivation is added to leader-member exchange, it increases significantly the level of organizational commitment among workers. The study has both theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretically, despite the fact that a lot of past studies have been explicit on the implications of leader-member exchange for subordinate commitment in organization, this study has also

added to the body of knowledge on that construct. It is the first study to the best of the researchers knowledge to integrate interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation as mediators of the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment among private sector workers in three commercial cities from the three senatorial zones in Anambra State. Hence the results of this study added to the emerging body of research on organizational commitment and leader-member exchange by revealing that interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation are related to leader-member exchange and organizational commitment, and serve as positive mediators that influence the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment.

Practically the findings have implications for management. Since leader-member exchange, interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation positively affects organizational commitment, supervisors, managers and entrepreneurs shall need to pay attention to their subordinates' perception of the relationship characteristics and act in ways that their expectations of the relationship are upheld. Specifically, it is advised that interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation of workers should be promoted in organizations as it improves the quality of leader-member exchange and thus results to increased positive commitment. It is also crucial for management to design a flexible organizational structure which allows for an interactive communication style that enables employees express their ideas to managements. Existing relationship should also be nurtured as relationships have been proven to influence work outcomes. Management is also advised to organise trainings, workshops or programmes on the issue of commitment in organizations and inform employees on the role variables such as leader-member exchange, interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation can play in increasing commitment in organizations.

Recommendations

From the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

- Organizations should institute development policies that will incorporate leadership training for management positions. Such training and development programs should emphasize mentoring, interpersonal relations and joint development goals. As this when exhibited enhances commitment and productivity in organization.
- It is recommended that management during employment should try to have an insight into the motive of an employee that is his/her motivation to perform the job. This could be inquired through conversation and administration of a test; it will help in making decisions with regards to human resource managements.
- Relationships have been shown to influence work outcomes, thus it is crucial for organizations to nurture existing relationships and to engage in organizational development efforts (Keup, 2000). They should also encourage employees to work closely with others as a team when necessary because it tends to enhance productivity, reduce stress and makes workers feel relaxed and committed.
- Organizations should encourage effective communications among employee and leaders by promoting open and proper channel of communication, and increase employee participation in decision making.
- Managers are also encouraged to conduct socialization programmes for new and existing employees as this will be able to enhance intrinsic motivation and interpersonal facilitation within an organization and subsequently strengthen the employee commitment and increase performance.
- It is also recommended that more research should be done in other settings. For example in the public sector. Markovitis, Davis, Fay and Van Dick (2010) stated that employees in the public and private sectors experience different working conditions

and employment relationships. Thus their attitudes towards the organization and relationships between them are different.

Limitations of the study

Some of the limitations encountered in this study, which can influence the outcome of the present study include:

- The sample size of this study might be considered small for a study that involved the biggest commercial cities in the three senatorial districts of Anambra State. This may limit the generalization of the result, thus future study should apply a more representative sample of the population.
- The research was restricted to only private manufacturing organizations in Anambra State, South East region of Nigeria. Results from similar investigation, service industries and other regions of Nigeria may or may not confirm the present findings.

Suggestions for further research

Researchers who are interested in replicating or conducting a similar study in future should consider the limitations of the study and take caution so as to obtain a generalizable result for their study. In lieu of this, the researcher expresses that this is likely the first study on the mediating effect of interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation on the relationship leader-member exchange and organizational commitment. Therefore, it is recommended that more research should be done with a large number of samples so as to have an in-depth understanding of these constructs.

Studies should be widened beyond the scope of this study, thus studies should be replicated in other work sectors, organizations or industries such as academic institutions, public sectors, telecommunication industries and banks within and outside Anambra State.

Future studies should also consider using quantitative method (survey) and qualitative method (interview) in gathering information for their study. This I believe will give room for a better information void of self-concept or perception which could affect the results. It is also advised that researchers should find a way of persuading managers of organizations to allow them carry out this research as the findings will help move their organizations forward.

Conclusion

Organizational commitment is an important organization behaviour and it is important for all the organizations or institutes. The present study relied on leader-member exchange (LMX) theory by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) which asserts that employees in high-quality leader-member exchange have been shown to engage more in helpful behaviours, Information exchange, self-disclosure, competence, feelings of growth, high self-esteem and emotional support with their peers. These behaviours are indicative of job dedication, motivation and interpersonal facilitation, which have been shown to be positively related to leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational commitment (OC).

Thus the present study hypothesized that leader-member exchange will have a significant correlation with organizational commitment and that interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation will mediate the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment. The analysis of the data collected showed that leader-member exchange had a positive relationship with organizational commitment, while interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation mediated the relationship between leader-member exchange and

organizational commitment. This implies that leader-member exchange, interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation are important factors in ensuring the effectiveness and accomplishment of organisational goals and objectives thus enhancing commitment of workers. Therefore, the way an employee relates with supervisor, co-workers and engages in helpful behaviours and competence increases commitment of workers. Thus, organizations that want its employees to manifest high level of commitment should use human resources to implement leader-member exchange, interpersonal facilitation and intrinsic motivation rather than taking these issues lightly.

Finally, it is hoped that this research findings will encourage researchers to explore other possible mediating variables that will have an effect positively or negatively on the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational commitment.

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APPENDIX A - QUESTIONNAIRE

Department of Psychology
Faculty of Social Sciences
Nnamdi Azikiwe University
Awka
Anambra State
2016

Dear Respondent,

The researcher is a Post-graduate student of the Department of Psychology, Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka. She is carrying out a study for her thesis on “Leader-Member Exchange and Organizational Commitment among Private Sector workers: Moderating roles of Interpersonal facilitation and Intrinsic Motivation.

On the following pages, you will find several kinds of questions. Please follow the instructions carefully and offer your views honestly. There is no right or wrong answers to any questions. I am only interested in your personal and sincere opinions. You are assured that all information (answers) will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used for the research purpose only.

Thanks for your co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Joe-Akunne, Chiamaka Ogechukwu.

PERSONAL DATA

Please fill in the blanks and tick the best option/response that applies to you.

Age: _____

Sex: Male { } Female { }

Marital Status: Single { }, Married { }, Others { }.

Religion: Christian { }, Muslim { }, Others { }.

Educational qualification: Please Tick (√) the highest qualification you have.

Secondary Education { }, Master's Degree { },

OND/NCE/HND { }, Ph.D. { },

Bachelor's Degree { },

SECTION A

Instruction

The statements below represent the degree to which a person wants to work in order to gain satisfaction without any external rewards. Please indicate how accurately each statement describes your inbuilt desire to work by ticking (√) one of the numbers after each statement. This is not a test, so there is no right or wrong answers.

The numbers stands for;

- 1 - Strongly disagree, 4 - Agree,
2 - Disagree, 5 - Strongly agree
3 - Neutral

SN	ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5
1	I have responsibilities related to work					
2	My colleagues appreciate me for what I did for my work					
3	I believe that I have full authority to do my job					
4	I believe that work which I've done is a respectable job					
5	I see myself as an important employee of the hospital					
6	I have the right to decide in a subject related to my work					
7	I enjoy trying to solve complex problems					
8	I'm more comfortable when I can set my own goals					

SECTION B

Instruction

The following statements describe the extent to which a worker helps others, contributes to effective task performance or helps maintain a social and psychological climate that

facilitates accomplishment of the organisations goals. Please read each statement carefully and tick (√) at the appropriate number to each statement to indicate how you relate with others at work. This is not a test, so there is no right or wrong answers.

The numbers stands for:

- 1 - Not at all likely, 4 - Very likely,
- 2 - Slightly likely, 5 - Extremely likely.
- 3 - Somewhat likely,

SN	ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5
1	I communicate effectively at work					
2	I say things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group					
3	I display a cheerful, confident outlook					
4	I offer to help others in their work					
5	I help someone without being asked					
6	I support or encourage a co-workers with a personal problem					
7	I talk to others before taking actions that might affect them					
8	I praise co-workers when they are successful					
9	I treat others fairly					
10	I cooperate effectively with others					
11	I listen to others' ideas about getting work done					
12	I encourage others to overcome differences and get along					
13	I give co-workers advice about what to do when they need help to get started					

SECTION C

Instruction

Statements below describe the quality of exchange/relationship between a leader and his subordinates. Please indicate by ticking (√) at the appropriate number that best describes your perception of supervisor/supervisee relationship in your organization. This is not a test, so there is no right or wrong answers.

The numbers stands for:

- 1 - Strongly disagree, 5 - Slightly agree,
- 2 - Moderately disagree 6 - Moderately Agree,
- 3 - Slightly disagree 7 - Strongly Agree.
- 4 - Not sure

SN	ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Supervisees are willing to put in extra effort beyond what is normally required to meet their supervisors' work goals.							
2	Supervisors would defend supervisees if the supervisees were criticized by others.							
3	Supervisors are a lot of fun to work with.							
4	Supervisees are impressed with their supervisors' knowledge of							

	their jobs.								
5	Supervisors defend supervisees' work and actions to their superiors even without a complete knowledge of the issue.								
6	Supervisees do not mind putting in maximum effort for their supervisors.								
7	Supervisees admire their supervisors' professional skills.								
8	Supervisors are people that one would like to have as friends.								
9	Supervisees respect their supervisors' knowledge of the job and competence.								
10	Supervisees do work for their supervisors that go beyond what are specified in their job descriptions.								
11	Supervisees like their supervisors very much as people.								
12	Supervisors would defend supervisees in front of others at work if supervisees make an honest mistakes								

SECTION D

Instruction

The following are statements designed to find out your degree of attachment/commitment and loyalty towards your organization. It is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers. Please read each statement carefully and indicate by ticking (√) at the appropriate number to the statement to indicate how you feel about your organization.

The numbers stands for:

- 1 - Strongly disagree, 5 - Slightly agree,
 2 - Moderately disagree, 6 - Moderately Agree,
 3 - Slightly disagree, 7 - Strongly Agree.
 4 - Not sure,

SN	ITEMS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.							
2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.							
3	I do feel "emotional attached" to this organization.							
4	I do not feel like "part of the family" at this organization.							
5	Right now, staying with this organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.							
6	It would be very hard for me to leave this organization right now, even if I wanted to.							
7	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.							
8	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.							
9	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization.							
10	I would feel guilty if I left this organization now.							
11	This organization deserves my loyalty.							

12	I would not leave this organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.								
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APPENDIX B – SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Multi-Stage sampling procedure was adopted for this study.

In the first stage, purposive sampling was used to select the private organizations over public organizations because private organizations are the targeted population of the study. The inclusion criterion for private organizations is that they are into manufacturing.

In the second stage, the researcher visited the three senatorial zones in Anambra State and selected the big commercial city in each (for Anambra Central – Awka, Anambra North – Onitsha, and Anambra South – Nnewi).

In the third stage, the researcher conveniently and randomly selected eight (8) manufacturing organizations from each city. With the help of research assistants, the researcher approached the organizations with an identification letter and sought permission to conduct the research (administer questionnaire). Some of the organizations declined participation; this spurred the researcher to select five (5) organizations only from each city. Simple random sampling by replacement was used in this selection. This was done through deep pick whereby the eight conveniently selected organizations were written down in a paper, folded and put in a basket. Thereafter five organizations was deep picked from each city and approached. Any one that declined participation was dropped and another deep pick was done to replace it. Hence, the total number of organizations used was fifteen. The population frame of the company includes;

Awka:	Onitsha	Nnewi
• Organization A - 50	Organization A - 100	Organization A - 500
• Organization B - 50	Organization B - 50	Organization B - 300
• Organization C - 30	Organization C - 80	Organization C - 150
• Organization D - 100	Organization D - 80	Organization D - 500
• Organization E - 50	Organization E - 100	Organization E - 200.

Sum Total of population frame = 2,340.

In the fourth stage, the sample size for the study was determined by looking at the different sample size worked out by Meyer, (1973) in the table below for populations ranging from 1000 to infinity at 95 percent confidence level and using Taro Yamane's formula for

determining sample size; $n = N/1+N(e)^2$, n = sample size, N = population frame (size), e = level of precision.

S/N	Population Size	Sample size
1	Infinity	384
2	500,000	384
3	100,000	383
4	50,000	381
5	10,000	370
6	5,000	357
7	3,000	341
8	2,000	322
9	1,000	278

Meyers’ Population and sample size table

From the calculations of Meyer (1973) in the table above, the suggestion is that a sample of 384 workers could do for an infinite population. Consequently, in using Taro Yamane’s formula, a sample size of 342 workers was suggested.

$$n = N/1+N(e)^2 \quad n = 2,340/1+2,340(0.05)^2$$

$$n = 2,340/1+2,340(0.0025)$$

$$n = 2,340/1+2,340 \times 0.0025$$

$$n = 2,340/1+5.85$$

$$n = 2,340/6.85$$

$$n = 342.$$

Based on the above sample size determined and also on the suggestion by Nwuneli (1991) in Allen, (2013) that the bigger the sample, the better for statistical inference, hence a sample of 627 workers was considered adequate for this study and the most conservative for a 5 (five) percent error tolerance. Also, proportional formula ($n/N \times p/1$, where n = population frame of each organization, N = total number of population frame for all the organizations, P = sample size used for the study) was applied to select the appropriate proportion of workers for each organization.

For Awka;

$$\begin{aligned}n/N \times p/1, \text{ Organization A} &= 50/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.021 \times 627 \\ &= 13.167.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization B} &= 50/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.021 \times 627 \\ &= 13.167.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization C} &= 30/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.013 \times 627 \\ &= 8.151.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization D} &= 100/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.043 \times 627 \\ &= 26.961.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization E} &= 50/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.021 \times 627 \\ &= 13.167.\end{aligned}$$

For Onitsha;

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization A} &= 100/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.043 \times 627 \\ &= 26.961.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization B} &= 50/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.021 \times 627 \\ &= 13.167.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization C} &= 80/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.034 \times 627 \\ &= 21.318.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization D} &= 80/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.034 \times 627 \\ &= 21.318.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization E} &= 100/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.043 \times 627 \\ &= 26.961.\end{aligned}$$

For Nnewi;

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization A} &= 500/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.214 \times 627 \\ &= 134.178.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization B} &= 300/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.128 \times 627 \\ &= 80.256.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization C} &= 150/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.064 \times 627 \\ &= 40.128.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization D} &= 500/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.214 \times 627 \\ &= 134.178.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Organization E} &= 200/2,340 \times 627/1 \\ &= 0.086 \times 627 \\ &= 53.922.\end{aligned}$$

Hence; Awka = 13.167 + 13.167 + 8.151 + 26.961 + 13.167 = 74.613,

Onitsha = 26.961 + 13.167 + 21.318 + 21.318 + 26.961 = 109.725,

Nnewi = 134.178 + 80.256 + 40.128 + 134.178 + 53.922 = 442.662.

Hence; 74.613 + 109.725 + 442.662 = 627.

For the fifth and final stage, accidental sampling was used to select any employee that is available and willing to participate in the study. This non-probability sampling technique was used because the participants must give consent to participate in the study and it is only those that consented that were used in the study. Hence, the use of probability sampling is not feasible.

APPENDIX C – DATA ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY

DESCRIPTIVE AND CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Sex of respondent	1.4530	.49818	627
Age	34.4115	9.60962	627
Academic Qualification	2.5407	.93709	627
Religion	1.0734	.34061	627
Marital Status	1.5024	.51919	627
OC	54.6651	9.57530	627
LMX	60.5917	11.51409	627
IM	31.9346	3.81822	627
IF	53.1005	6.98042	627

Correlations

		Sex of respondent	Age	Academic Qualification	Religion	Marital Status	OC	LMX	IM	IF
Sex of respondent	Pearson Correlation	1	-.238**	-.108**	-.083*	-.115**	.071	.046	.040	-.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.007	.037	.004	.076	.251	.318	.769
	N	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.238**	1	.288**	.014	.660**	-.011	.077	.010	.048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.723	.000	.779	.055	.793	.235
	N	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627
Academic Qualification	Pearson Correlation	-.108**	.288**	1	.246**	.183**	.070	.140**	.116**	-.001
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.000		.000	.000	.081	.000	.004	.980
	N	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627
Religion	Pearson Correlation	-.083*	.014	.246**	1	-.109**	.000	.003	-.043	.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.037	.723	.000		.006	.994	.937	.283	.426
	N	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627
Marital Status	Pearson Correlation	-.115**	.660**	.183**	-.109**	1	-.023	.107**	.040	.131**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.000	.000	.006		.571	.007	.318	.001
	N	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627

OC	Pearson	.071	-.011	.070	.000	-.023	1	.295**	.472**	.248**
	Correlation									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.076	.779	.081	.994	.571	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627
LMX	Pearson	.046	.077	.140**	.003	.107**	.295**	1	.443**	.561**
	Correlation									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.251	.055	.000	.937	.007	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627
IM	Pearson	.040	.010	.116**	-.043	.040	.472**	.443**	1	.482**
	Correlation									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.318	.793	.004	.283	.318	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627
IF	Pearson	-.012	.048	-.001	.032	.131**	.248**	.561**	.482**	1
	Correlation									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.769	.235	.980	.426	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627	627

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

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

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=Age Sex Marital Status Religion Academic
/ORDER=ANALYSIS.

Frequencies

[DataSet5] C:\Users\chimaks\Documents\new Ur Data.sav

Statistics

		Age	Sex of respondent	Marital Status	Religion	Academic Qualification
N	Valid	627	627	627	627	627
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0

Frequency Table

		Age			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	19.00	7	1.1	1.1	1.1
	20.00	12	1.9	1.9	3.0
	22.00	8	1.3	1.3	4.3
	23.00	24	3.8	3.8	8.1

24.00	33	5.3	5.3	13.4
25.00	56	8.9	8.9	22.3
26.00	51	8.1	8.1	30.5
27.00	24	3.8	3.8	34.3
28.00	27	4.3	4.3	38.6
29.00	27	4.3	4.3	42.9
30.00	21	3.3	3.3	46.3
31.00	5	.8	.8	47.0
32.00	9	1.4	1.4	48.5
33.00	12	1.9	1.9	50.4
34.00	2	.3	.3	50.7
35.00	25	4.0	4.0	54.7
36.00	46	7.3	7.3	62.0
37.00	7	1.1	1.1	63.2
38.00	15	2.4	2.4	65.6
39.00	22	3.5	3.5	69.1
40.00	11	1.8	1.8	70.8
41.00	19	3.0	3.0	73.8
42.00	24	3.8	3.8	77.7
43.00	9	1.4	1.4	79.1
44.00	13	2.1	2.1	81.2
45.00	7	1.1	1.1	82.3
46.00	34	5.4	5.4	87.7
48.00	15	2.4	2.4	90.1
49.00	10	1.6	1.6	91.7
50.00	18	2.9	2.9	94.6
51.00	7	1.1	1.1	95.7
52.00	8	1.3	1.3	97.0
54.00	9	1.4	1.4	98.4
56.00	5	.8	.8	99.2
57.00	1	.2	.2	99.4
60.00	2	.3	.3	99.7
62.00	2	.3	.3	100.0
Total	627	100.0	100.0	

Sex of respondent

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	343	54.7	54.7	54.7
Valid Female	284	45.3	45.3	100.0
Total	627	100.0	100.0	

Marital Status

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Single	318	50.7	50.7	50.7
Valid Married	303	48.3	48.3	99.0
Valid Others	6	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	627	100.0	100.0	

Religion

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Christian	595	94.9	94.9	94.9
Valid Muslim	19	3.0	3.0	97.9
Valid Others	12	1.9	1.9	99.8
Valid 4.00	1	.2	.2	100.0
Total	627	100.0	100.0	

Academic Qualification

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Secondary	82	13.1	13.1	13.1
Valid OND/NCE/HND	233	37.2	37.2	50.2
Valid Bachelor's Degree	209	33.3	33.3	83.6
Valid Master's Degree	97	15.5	15.5	99.0
Valid Ph.D	6	1.0	1.0	100.0
Total	627	100.0	100.0	

MEDIATION ANALYSIS OF IF AND IM

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.13

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2013).
www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model = 4
Y = OC
X = LMX
M = IM

Sample size
627

Outcome: IM

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
p	.4427	.1960	11.7405	152.3378	1.0000	625.0000
	.0000					

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI
ULCI					
constant	23.0397	.7336	31.4084	.0000	21.5991
	24.4802				
LMX	.1468	.0119	12.3425	.0000	.1234
	.1702				

Outcome: OC

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
p	.4815	.2319	70.6545	94.1715	2.0000	624.0000
	.0000					

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI
ULCI					
constant	15.2782	2.8896	5.2874	.0000	9.6037
	20.9526				
IM	1.0638	.0981	10.8408	.0000	.8711
	1.2565				
LMX	.0894	.0325	2.7469	.0062	.0255
	.1533				

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL

Outcome: OC

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
p	.2953	.0872	83.8270	59.6921	1.0000	625.0000
	.0000					

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI
ULCI					
constant	39.7870	1.9601	20.2984	.0000	35.9378
	43.6362				
LMX	.2455	.0318	7.7261	.0000	.1831
	.3080				

***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.2455	.0318	7.7261	.0000	.1831	.3080

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.0894	.0325	2.7469	.0062	.0255	.1533

Indirect effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IM .1562	.0159	.1265	.1890

Partially standardized indirect effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IM .0163	.0016	.0134	.0195

Completely standardized indirect effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IM .1878	.0184	.1532	.2251

Ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IM .6360	.1053	.4812	.8968

Ratio of indirect to direct effect of X on Y

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IM 1.7471	21.2438	.9121	7.6962

R-squared mediation effect size (R-sq_med)

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IM .0779	.0177	.0450	.1153

Preacher and Kelley (2011) Kappa-squared

Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IM .1795	.0166	.1479	.2129

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS

Number of bootstrap samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals:
10000

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
95.00

----- END MATRIX -----

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.13

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2013).
www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model = 4
Y = OC
X = LMX
M = Interfa

Sample size
627

Outcome: Interfa

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
p	.5608	.3145	33.4557	286.7340	1.0000	625.0000
	.0000					

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI
ULCI					
constant	32.5003	1.2383	26.2461	.0000	30.0686
34.9320					
LMX	.3400	.0201	16.9332	.0000	.3006
.3794					

Outcome: OC

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
p	.3115	.0970	83.0550	33.5281	2.0000	624.0000
	.0000					

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI
ULCI					
constant	34.4420	2.8288	12.1754	.0000	28.8868
	39.9971				
Interfa	.1645	.0630	2.6095	.0093	.0407
	.2882				
LMX	.1896	.0382	4.9631	.0000	.1146
	.2647				

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL

Outcome: OC

Model Summary						
	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2
p	.2953	.0872	83.8270	59.6921	1.0000	625.0000
	.0000					

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI
ULCI					
constant	39.7870	1.9601	20.2984	.0000	35.9378
	43.6362				
LMX	.2455	.0318	7.7261	.0000	.1831
	.3080				

***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS

Total effect of X on Y						
	Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
	.2455	.0318	7.7261	.0000	.1831	.3080

Direct effect of X on Y						
	Effect	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
	.1896	.0382	4.9631	.0000	.1146	.2647

Indirect effect of X on Y					
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Interfa	.0559	.0194	.0179	.0944	

Partially standardized indirect effect of X on Y					
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Interfa	.0058	.0020	.0018	.0098	

Completely standardized indirect effect of X on Y					
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Interfa	.0672	.0228	.0218	.1116	

Ratio of indirect to total effect of X on Y					
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Interfa	.2277	.0870	.0699	.4144	

Ratio of indirect to direct effect of X on Y					
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
Interfa	.2949	.1683	.0751	.7076	

R-squared mediation effect size (R-sq_med)					
	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	

Interfa .0515 .0136 .0289 .0825

Preacher and Kelley (2011) Kappa-squared

	Effect	Boot SE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
Interfa	.0583	.0197	.0189	.0969

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS *****

Number of bootstrap samples for bias corrected bootstrap confidence intervals:
10000

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
95.00

----- END MATRIX -----

RELIABILITY ANALYSIS FOR PILOT STUDY

Alpha Reliability on organizational Commitment Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.781	.779	23

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
70.1125	187.038	13.67618	23

Alpha Reliability on Interpersonal Facilitation Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.924	.922	13

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
42.5875	52.195	7.22460	13

**Alpha Reliability on Leader-member Exchange
Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.664	.663	12

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
35.3750	66.997	8.18516	12

**Alpha Reliability on Intrinsic Motivation
Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.685	.676	8

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
30.7750	35.645	5.97034	8

CONCURRENT VALIDITY ANALYSIS FOR THE STUDY VARIABLES

Concurrent Validity on Interpersonal facilitation, Leader-member Exchange, Intrinsic Motivation and Organizational Commitment

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
7 item interpersonal facilitation scale	26.7125	5.22941	80
13 item interpersonal facilitation	42.5875	7.22460	80

Correlations

		7 item interpersonal facilitation scale	13 item interpersonal facilitation
7 item interpersonal facilitation scale	Pearson Correlation	1	.638(**)

	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	80	80
13 item interpersonal facilitation	Pearson Correlation	.638(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	80	80

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

Correlations

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
7 item leader member exchange	19.6000	5.37128	80
12 item LMX	35.3750	8.18516	80

Correlations

		7 item leader member exchange	12 item LMX
7 item leader member exchange	Pearson Correlation	1	.936(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	80	80
12 item LMX	Pearson Correlation	.936(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	80	80

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

Correlations

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
4 item intrinsic motivation	15.6375	3.26176	80
8 item intrinsic motivation	30.7750	5.97034	80

Correlations

		4 item intrinsic motivation	8 item intrinsic motivation
4 item intrinsic motivation	Pearson Correlation	1	.905(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	80	80
8 item intrinsic motivation	Pearson Correlation	.905(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	80	80

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

Correlations

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
18 item organizational commitment	50.8500	13.49083	80
23 item organizational commitment scale	70.1125	13.67618	80

Correlations

		18 item organizational commitment	23 item organizational commitment scale
18 item organizational commitment	Pearson Correlation	1	.954(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	80	80
23 item organizational commitment scale	Pearson Correlation	.954(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	80	80

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

**APPENDIX D – FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT SCALE BY EBEH, RICHARD (2010).**

KMO and Bartlett’s Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.716
Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2634.595
	Df	153
	Sig.	.000

Summary of items and factor Loading of Varimax Orthogonal Three-factor Solution for the 18-Item Allen and Smith’s (1993) Organizational Commitment Questionnaires

S/ N	Item	Factor Loading			Communalities
		AC	CC	NC	
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	.956			.926
2	I really feel as if this organizations problem is my own.	.987			.982
3	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.				
4	I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organization.	.916			.855
5	I do not feel like “part of the family” at this organization.	.939			.894
6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.				
7	Right now, staying with this organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.		.726		.558
8	It would be very hard for me to leave this organization right now, even if I wanted to.		.770		.602
9	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this organization now.				
10	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.		.982		.985
11	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.				
12	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.		.908		.854
13	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.				
14.	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave this			.789	.794

	organization now.				
15	I would feel guilty if left this organization now.			.645	.416
16	This organization deserves my loyalty.			.513	.385
17	I would not leave this organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.			.828	.730
18	I owe a great deal to this organization.				

AC – Affective commitment

NC – Normative commitment

CC – Continuance commitment

Eigenvalues, Percentages of Variance and Cumulative Percentages for factors of the 18-Item Allen and Smith's (1993) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.983	33.190	33.190	3.983	33.190	33.190	3.763	31.347	31.347
2	3.004	25.037	58.227	3.004	25.037	58.227	3.222	26.847	58.194
3	2.413	20.111	78.338	2.413	20.111	78.338	2.417	20.144	78.338

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

INTER CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ITEMS FOR THE 12-ITEM MEASURE OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE WITH THE THREE SUB-SCALES

Original OCQ Items	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
OCQ1	.874(**)	.041	.027
OCQ2	.877(**)	.028	.033
OCQ4	.841(**)	.002	.056
OCQ5	.854(**)	.016	.058
OCQ7	.058	.817(**)	-.004
OCQ8	.008	.805(**)	.022
OCQ10	.108	.831(**)	-.020
OCQ12	.109	.778(**)	-.015
OCQ14	-.081	-.077	.542(**)
OCQ15	-.020	-.006	.662(**)
OCQ16	-.058	-.146	.698(**)
OCQ17	-.042	-.103	.800(**)
Affective Commitment	1	-.002	.019
Continuance Commitment	-.002	1	-.078
Normative Commitment	.019	-.078	1

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

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