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SOCIAL RELATIONAL NETWORK AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN INDIGENOUS OIL SERVICE FIRMS IN PORT HARCOURT

BY

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G2010/M.Sc./MGT/FT/1007

ABSTRACT

The demands and processes of organizations can lead to the formation of groups, namely formal and informal groups. This study was on social relational network and organizational citizenship behavior in indigenous Oil Service Firms in Port Harcourt. The objective was to determine the extent to which the dimensions of Social Relational Network relate with the measures of Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt. The study adopted questionnaire as its research instrument using SPSS package to test stated hypotheses. Our findings showed a significant and strong association between social relationship network and organizational citizenship behavior. The findings also showed that all two dimensions of social relationship network significantly correlate with organizational citizenship behavior thus enhancing civic virtue and sportsmanship. The recommendation from this study is that policies on the management of social relationship networking should be made to match the requirements of the industry. Further research is needed to determine social relational networking and organizational behavior in other sectors of the economy like the banking and telecommunications industry.

Keywords: social relational network, organizational citizenship behavior, oil service firms, civic virtue, sportsmanship, workplace relationships, employee behavior, Nigeria.

Being A Thesis Submitted to the Department of Management, Faculty of Management Sciences, University of Port Harcourt, Choba, Port Harcourt in Partial Fulfillment for the Award of Master of Science (M.Sc.) Degree In Management

SUPERVISOR

PROF. SETH ACCRA JAJA

JULY, 2014

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this project is my original work and has previously not been presented wholly or in part of the award of any other degree and not currently submitted for award of any other degree.

GIFT UGWE ROMAN

G2010/M.Sc./MGT/FT/1007

Signature _____

Date: _____

CERTIFICATION

**UNIVERSITY OF PORT HARCOURT
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

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CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN INDIGENOUS OIL
SERVICE FIRMS IN PORT HARCOURT**

BY

**GIFT UGWE ROMAN
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**The board of examiners certifies as follows: that to the best
of our knowledge, this is the original work of the candidate. That the thesis is accepted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the award of the degree of master of science in management**

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to God Almighty for his infinite love and protection over me.

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The programme that culminated into this thesis has been a very long journey but thanks to God that the journey that commenced in 2010 is finally coming to an end. God Almighty saw me through this journey by first giving me life, good

health, wisdom, resources (financial, human and time) and also giving the human resources who I will later mention the willingness to be there for me. To this great God alone be all the glory, honor and adoration.

My husband Evang. Mark A. Roman has been and is still my back bone that has carried me thus far. His encouragement, financial and moral support cannot be over emphasized. On occasions when pressure surmounted, he was there to give a pat on my back and advised me to continue. To my owner I say thank you, I remain ever grateful and indebted to you.

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The contributions and constant reminders of Mr. Vincent Wahua cannot be forgotten. I appreciate all the effort. Thanks to Mr. Vincent Wahua. Finally I appreciate all my lecturers who added value to me in one way or the other in this programme.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Beugre (2007) posited that an organization has technical requirements which arise from its stated goals. Usually, the accomplishment of these goals requires that certain tasks be done and employees are assigned to perform these tasks. As a result, most employees are likely to be members of a group based on their position in the organization. These are formal groups. On the other hand, when individuals associate on a fairly continuous basis, there is the tendency for groups whose activities may be different from those required by the organization to form. These are informal groups. It therefore follows that the demands and processes of an organization can lead to the formation of groups namely, formal and informal groups. This study is however, interested in the influence of informal groups existing in Nigerian manufacturing firms. This is because, we believe that Organisational Behaviour Scientists have tended to pay less attention to the likely influence of informal groups on the performance of the manufacturing firms.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

One thing comes out clear, and that is, that a lot of researchers interested in African studies have done a lot to improve on the lot of the formal groups, thereby neglecting the likely influences of the informal groups on the performance of Nigerian manufacturing firms.

These widespread and intensive researches on formal groups notwithstanding, something is lacking in the understanding of Nigerian manufacturing firms. The study therefore intends to eliminate or minimize some of these negative research practices through a systematic study of the informal groups in Nigerian manufacturing firms.

1.3 STUDY VARIABLES AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The two major variables in this study are Social Relational Network and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. The predictor variable is Social Relational Network and the dimensions identified here are Length of Settlement in the Community and Membership of Social Group. The criterion variable is Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. This has Civic Virtue and Sportsmanship as its measures. The moderating variable is the structure of the organisation. The hypothesised relationship of the Functioning of Informal Group and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, as well as the moderating effect of the organisational age are shown in the study conceptual framework in Figure 1.1. Furthermore, from this visual representation we were able to formulate our research objectives, questions and hypothesis.

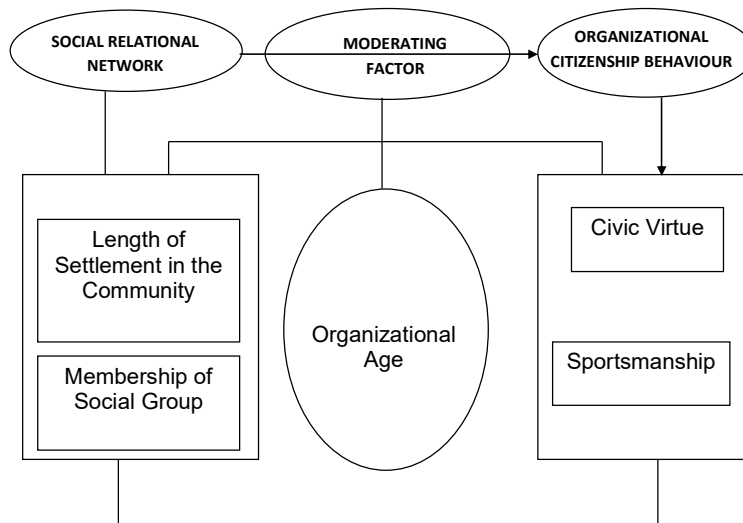


Figure 1.1 Conceptual Framework

Source: Desk Research, 2013

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

There is sufficient evidence to show that theorists on 'social action' have given a great deal of attention to

studies which focus on human and social action, intention, reasoning and motive (Bies, 2011), but have paid very little heed to the unintended consequences of

such studies. The study is specifically aimed at determining the extent to which:

1. Length of Settlement in the Community relate with Civic Virtue as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt.
2. Length of Settlement in the Community relate with Sportsmanship as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt.
3. Membership of Social Group relate with Civic Virtue as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt.
4. Membership of Social Group relate with Sportsmanship as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt.
5. Organisational age moderate the relationship between the Functioning of Informal Group and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR THE STUDY

In order to achieve these objectives of this study, we are asking the following questions:

1. To what extent does Length of Settlement in the Community relate with Civic Virtue as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt?
2. To what extent does Length of Settlement in the Community relate with Sportsmanship as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt?
3. To what extent does Membership of Social Group relate with Civic Virtue as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt?
4. To what extent does Membership of Social Group relate with Sportsmanship as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt?
5. To what extent does Organisational age moderate the relationship between the

Functioning of Informal Group and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt?

1.6 HYPOTHESES FOR THE STUDY

To provide tentative answers to the foregoing questions, we are holding on to the following hypotheses:

H₀₁. There is no significant relationship between Length of Settlement in the Community and Civic Virtue as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt.

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between Length of Settlement in the Community and Sportsmanship as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt.

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between Membership of Social Group and Civic Virtue as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt.

H₀₄: There is no significant relationship between Membership of Social Group and Sportsmanship as a measure of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt.

H₀₅: Organisational age does not moderate the relationship between the Functioning of Informal Group and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Oil Servicing Firms in Port Harcourt.

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Greenberg (2010) have noted that science has three major functions in its relationship to society of mankind and its work institutions. First, its function is to evaluate knowledge through empirical observation and reasoning. Secondly, the function of science is to convert usable theories into practice, or to help convert them and apply them more meaningfully. Thirdly, the function of science is to interpret scientific theories and to demonstrate the possibility of their use of law people to the extent that scientific knowledge may be used in everyday organizational living, where applicable. The results of this study will be useful to managers, scholars, government, and the general public who have a stake in the Oil Servicing Firms.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The study of social relational network and organisational citizenship behaviour seeks explanation as to how to improve performance relationships at work. The groundwork of this chapter is therefore commenced by the discussion of the theoretical framework underlying the study. This explains the theoretical foundation of social relational network on which this study is based. By this, we mean the theories which offered the direction of intellectual map for the study.

Similarly, a good social relational study must be domiciled in one or more specific base line theories to show the basis of the logic which the researcher is adopting. Base line theory appears to offer itself as a form of intellectual map upon which social relational theories could be located in organisational analysis (Babble, 2010 and Ahiauzu, 2004). Theories rarely if ever appear out of thin air, they usually have well established history behind them. Base line theory allows social researchers to appraise and evaluate theories against the background of the intellectual tradition which they sought to emulate. In this study we take a cue from two base line theories described as change in relationship theory developed social interaction theory developed scholars such as Blumer (1969).

Furthermore, the examination of the results of previous studies as they relate to the predictor, criterion as well as the moderating variables was reviewed. This we believe will act like a backing box for the hypothesis, instrument and field study.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The baseline theories for this study are strategic change in relationship and social interactional theory. Firstly, Mitchell (2009) argues that change in relationship was always punctuated with times of stability, thus allowing organizations to assimilate the change and deal with it before the next change arrived. These periods of stability the author argues are getting shorter (Mitchell (2009). Handy (1993) on the other hand identified two types of change in relationship: (1) strategic drift which is a gradual change in relationship that occurs subtly and so is not noticed until it is too late; and (2) transformational change in

relationship which is sudden and radical and mainly caused by discontinuities in the work environment. Berger and Luckman (2006) developed a systematic method of dealing with change in relationship and performance.

Secondly, it has been argued by Blumer (1969) that human response to individual group behaviour is based on the meaning attached to actions. This is because human beings interpret each other's actions instead of merely reacting to each other's action. Berger and Luckman (2006) earlier argued that the meanings typically reflect the norms and values of the dominant culture. The meanings that the human beings attach to others behaviour are shaped by our interactions with them and with the wider society. Consequently, social reality is literally constructed from the social interactions among human beings.

Social interaction as defined by Faulner and De Rond (2012) refers to the persistent and structured sets of autonomous players (individuals or groups) who cooperate on the basis of implicit and open ended contracts. This lend support to Mitchell (2009) observation that social interaction is a specific set of linkages among defined set of persons, with the additional property that the characteristics of these linkages as a whole may be used to interpret the social behaviour of the human beings involved. Social interaction theory is founded on the principle of social network and it is concerned with relationships between interacting entities. The underlying assumption of the social interaction theory is the social man concept). This concept holds that man exists within a web of relationships, and it is this view that gave rise to the human relations movements in organisational studies in the late 1930s.

Social interaction among organisational members is one of the pillars on which the efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation is rested. Studies that attest to this have given rise to the social interaction theory. It is well known that much of employees patterned behaviour take place within groups and is influenced by the norms and sanctions established by the work groups. Groups therefore serve as links to social world. Furthermore, social interaction theory argues that the reason why individuals may outperform their peers is because of the differences in the

networks to which they belong. Link to length of settlement in the community, membership of social group, friends and work partners can provide the assistance and social support at work which may not be part of paid work activities. Jaja (1995) has shown that this theory has reshaped management theory and practice in wider African societies because social factors are more important for both productivity and morale than the strict management control of workers and methods that characterizes western work ethics. Social interaction theory could be deployed in *OCB* and other socio-psychological aspect of work (Granovetter, 1985; Gulati, 1995).

2.3 Organisation and Social Relational Network

According to Cropanzano *et.al* (2013), variations spread through the population of work organizations through a diffusion process. Diffusion process is one important way through which forms and management practices diffuse through the movement of personnel, and particularly the movement of personnel from established forms to newly created worked organizations. Kinicki and Kreitner (2014) also noted how the movement of personnel from one work organization to another, especially a new work organization, carries organizational form and structures, alter with some variations. This shows clearly how personnel movement across work organizations is one important way through which variations in structure and decision-making procedures diffuse.

Variation, whether planned or unplanned, once it has taken place, work organizational forms are selected according to how well they fit their environment. This according to Hawley (1968) suggests that there are as many kinds of work organizational environment. In this selection process, it is the environment which optimizes (Koopmann, 2012; Hannan and Freeman, 1977). It is the environment that selects those combinations of work organizational forms that are suited to the resource base of that environment, and selection occurs principally through the competition among forms. At this point, according to Winter (1975) population ecology comes to look somewhat like microeconomics in that both stress a tight linkage between work organizations and their environments and both emphasize the role of competition in determining what the population of the work organizations come to look like.

The maintenance of work organizational form in the future involves retention process. Carol *et.al* (2013) noted that variation and retention are counterpoised in work organizations. Those aspects of work organizations that make variation and change more likely work against retention of work organizational properties. Also, those forces that work to create the persistence of structures are practices also tend to limit the amount of variation and change in work organisation. According to Cyert and March (1963) standard operating procedures which may become codified and formalized in forms, job descriptions, and manuals of operation, serve as a form of work organization memory maintaining continuity in the performance of work organization.

Dombusch (1955) and Feldman (1976) saw socialization through which new work organizational members learn how things are done in work organizations, as also serving to maintain practices, structures and ways of decision-making in fact many elements of bureaucracy facilitate retention and stability. Blau and Meyer (1971) explained that all elements of bureaucracy contribute to the retention of work organizational structures and practices. Commitment processes also facilitate retention (Zadeh, 2007; Salancik 1977; Staw 1976). This is because the commitments bind individuals to their behavior and make them resist change even when confronted with instances of failure or problems.

From the foregoing, one can see that there is little room in population ecology for elements of rational choice and for the operation of goals, preferences, wants or ambition. Freeman (1982) noted that natural selection approaches to the study of work organizations (focusing as they do on populations, of work organizations) seems to leave no role for individual choice. In this sense, population ecology does differ from the other perspectives so far reviewed.

Resource dependence perspective accepts the view that organizations are externally constrained. In addition, greater retention has to be paid to internal organizational decision making processes. This suggests that work organizations should seek to strategically adapt to their environments. Since work organizations are not internally self-sufficient, they require resources from the environment which makes them become interdependent with those elements of the environment with which they transact. Kahn *et al* (1964) have argued that work organizations are subject

to a set of pressures from those with whom they are interdependent just as individuals in work organizations are subject to pressures from those role occupants with whom they are connected. Resource dependence perspective suggests that the performance of work organizations is externally influenced. This is because the focal work organization must attend to the demands of those within its environment that provide resources that are necessary and important for the survival of work organizations.

Two things stand out in this ideological method. One is that work organizations should respond more to the demands of those work organizations or groups in the environment that control critical resources. Secondly, while managers attempt to manage their external dependence, they should ensure the survival of the work organization and to acquire, if possible, more autonomy and freedom from external constraint. To do this, a variety of strategies may be taken to somehow alter the situation confronting the organization. By so doing, compliance becomes less necessary. So, unlike population ecology perspective, resource dependence perspective argues that although work organizations are constrained by their environment, they also undertake actions that alter those environments. Aldrich and Pfeffer (1979) and Freeman (1982) argued that the ability to alter the environment and manage external dependence is a capacity possessed primarily by large work organizations. And to partake to this benefit, small work organizations now come together in association to achieve a substantial control over their environment.

Based on these views and our understanding of what an organization is, what functional and behavioural pattern does one expect from work organizations? It is well known that the functional and behavioural pattern of any work organization depends on the activities of that work organization as well as the environmental effects on the work organization. If we define a work organization in terms of physical structure, the functional and behavioural pattern will be influenced by these variables. These are: the amount of interaction that occurs in the social system, the effective reaction to the job and the work organization, the effective reaction orientation to those with whom the organisation interacts. The more people have the opportunity for more interaction, the better it is for the performance of the work organization. This is because such interactions lead to inter-personal attraction and

has the effect of increasing attitudinal similarity. Similarly, this leads to effective inter-personal communication which is necessary for co-ordination.

Work organizations create this opportunity for increased interaction through seating arrangements, having one airspace and many other ways. Physical arrangements can also influence reactions to the job. Sloan (1972) found that providing individuals with flexibility to arrange and structure their own space led to more positive attitudes towards the job and work organization. It clearly makes sense that an attractive office or setting that provides both privacy and flexibility for the individuals and encourages significant inter-personal interactions will result in more favourable affective response to work. Work organizations are, indeed, physical structures which through their physical arrangements influences a behavioural pattern that affects the job as well as personal relationship within work organizations.

On the other hand, work organizations as a relational network has its own functional and behavioural consequences. Pettigrew (1973) using network analysis illustrated how the structure of communication patterns can affect power in work organizations. Studies have proved that performance is affected by the network structure within work organization. Network structures that match the task requirement in terms of sharing of information and expertise tend to be associated with more effective group performance. Work organization as a demographic process has effect on adaptation, innovativeness and performance. Katz (1982) argued that increasing group longevity tended to produce increase behavioural stability, greater group homogeneity and increasingly differentiated roles within the group. Organisational demography also has effect on both the rate and type of administrator succession.

Work organization with longer length of service distribution tends to experience inside succession rather than outside one. This long period of close association would tend to develop more stable, predictable and shared expectations and behavior. The maintenance of such shared expectations and behavior would require that an insider, familiar with the culture that had in the work organization, been chosen to fill any high-level vacancy. This is because people who are used to working with each other over a long period of time will have developed more consonant

interaction pattern through years of association. This has the tendency of reducing conflict and increasing behavioural stability, thereby making the job more pleasant for the incumbents. On the other hand, McNeil and Thompson (1971) argued that work organizations with higher proportion of new employees will expend more effort on socialization activities and also rely more on bureaucratic control. Demographic processes in work organizations are pervasive and have the tendency of enriching our analysis and understanding of work organization.

Having examined works on the different perspectives of viewing work organizations, there is the tendency for one to see work organizations as the proverbial elephant felt by three blind men whose description of the animal depended on which side of the animal each touched. So, if one describes work organizations as physical structure, such description can be accepted because work organizations are made up of buildings of different shapes. Sitting arrangements are made within the buildings to facilitate the achievement of the desired objectives. Describing work organization as a relational network holds true because people in work organizations relate to one another while performing their official functions. In other words, there is a structure of social interactions in work organizations. There are types and patterns of relationship that exist within organizations. So, whatever constitutes one's definition of work organizations might also influence the belief of an ideological method of studying work organization.

2.4 Philosophical thoughts on Social Relational Network

Research evidence on progress reports on most of the experiments on the adoption of most western-based work processes in some African countries, such as Algeria, Tanzania, Zambia and Nigeria, have so far not been very satisfactory (Wendy and Poole, 2007; Clegg, 1971; Maseko, 1976). While pondering on what may likely be the cause of this situation in African countries, we accept Davis (1972) views that the effectiveness of an organization depends on the individual worker and the social aspects of the work groups. The influence of these one the performance of African work organization and those operated on the Western management patterns are likely to differ. Hicks and Gullet (1988) have shown that, the individuality of workers both Western and African – has been enhanced by recognition of their differences.

Roethlisberger (1956) argued that while trying to contribute to the growth of knowledge on recognition of individual differences across cultural groupings and how this is likely to affect the performance of work organization pointed out that what is important is seeking to know how a person feels; what his intimate thinking, reflections and preoccupations were; and what he liked and disliked about his work environments. In short, what did the whole blooming business – his job, his supervision, his working conditions – mean to him? The findings of human relations movement in this direction are very relevant here. As they posited, each person is unique. Each is bringing to the job situation certain attitudes, beliefs, and ways of life, as well as certain skills, technical, social, and logical. In terms of his previous experience, each person has certain hopes and expectations of his job situation (Organ, 1988; Mayor 1933; Roethlisberger 1956).

Hicks and Gullet (1976) observed that the basic reason for the emergence of the informal groups at the workplace is that though the formal organization satisfies many of the needs of workers, it does not satisfy all their needs. As the authors explained, though the formal organization satisfies many of the needs of its members, it does not satisfy all the needs. Further, because of the nature of the formal organization, it lacks the ability to meet certain important human needs of its members. Therefore, if the individual has a certain need that is not being met by the formal organization, he must seek satisfaction from another source. This is the primary explanation for the development of the informal organization – to meet important human needs not being met by the formal organization.

We are aware that the reasons workers have for joining informal groups other are the satisfaction of social need, sense of belonging and identification, knowledge of approved behavior, sympathetic ear, assistant in meeting objectives, opportunities for influence and creativity, perpetuation of cultural values and communications and information (Muchinsky, 2010; Mayo 1946; Bernard, 1938). The developmental pattern of informal groups is not quite different from those of the wider society. Just as society formulate laws and beliefs about what is acceptable or otherwise, so does the informal group. By this line of development, informal groups are likely to set standards of behavior for workers. They tend to serve

as pressure pots to make workers to conform to work rules and norms, and provide status systems for workers at the workplace. To achieve all these, they tend to maintain an efficient and effective leadership which is capable of indirectly discharging workers who do not obey order (Lipponen *et.al*, 2004; Hicks and Gullet, 1976). It seems therefore that the informal groups are useful to the formal organizations; provision of additional means of communication and means of social satisfaction for workers; and compensation for managers who lack in ability for effective leadership (Walton 1961; Lesikar 1972; Lind and Tyler 2008).

Commenting on the significance of the informal group at the workplace, Flippo (1970) remarked that over half of all voluntary resignations in many organizations occur within the first six months of employment. Some of these may be due to poor selection and placement techniques, resulting in a mismatch of man and job. Most, however, are the result of poor induction procedures where the new employee is not aided in the process of joining one or more informal groups. Friendships, or at least speaking acquaintances, are highly essential to a satisfactory working environment for most people.

McLaughlin *et al* (1964) and Beach (1970) noted that informal groups have some dysfunctional features in that they have often been negative source of rumours, agents for resistance to change in work methods, and sometimes preventing group conformity to work rules and norms. It is also important to note that Munsterberg (1913) was among the first to study how to find the best man possible, how to produce the best possible work, and how to secure the best possible effect so that all the needs of the worker can be satisfied at the workplace. Using the railway motorman and ship captains as his unit of study he concentrated his study on effect of monotony, fatigue, psychological adjustment, and other factors as they affect the worker and his performance (Folger, and Cropanzano, 2008; Munsterberg, 1913).

Describing how outside social and cultural factors could affect a worker and his job performance, Munsterberg (1913) remarked that the use of psychological tests for fitting the right person in the right job would reduce the almost limitless waste of human resources and would return large economic benefits to both firms and workmen. He concluded by noting that by his approach more subtle human

benefits would accrue to those whose psyche and work well matched. As the author neatly put it, the approach offer no more inspiring idea than this adjustment of work and psyche by which mental dissatisfaction in the work, mental depression and discouragement, may be replaced in our social community by over-flowing joy and perfect inner harmony (Munsterberg, 1913).

The implication of Munsterberg's (1913) work is that individual differences among workers exists at the workplace. There is also research evidence from a host of studies (Mayo, 1933; Roethlisberger and Dickson, 1943) of the effect of social and cultural factors from the wider society on organizational members and their performance at the workplace. It was shown that social or human relationships among workers, researchers and supervisors were not important in determining productivity than were changes in working conditions, especially the morale factor (Roethlisberger 1956).

Observing that other several factors such as political economic and social must have been responsible for the existing situation in workers behaviour at the workplace, Gellerman (1966) attributed the effect of these factors on the workers at the workplace to "the flow of workers from farming to factories, excesses of early factory owners, the rise of the labour movement, technological changes, and professionalization of management".

Criticizing the unemotional, rational and arm's length relationship between the worker and supervisor propounded by the classical theorists which merely expresses the worker's feelings in a paternalistic-dependency or autocratic obedient relationship (Taylor, 1947, Fayol, 1949, Weber, 1933). Mayo (1933) argued that "man's social situation in his work group ranked first and the work was incidental". Thinking along the same line with Mayo (1933), Roethlisberger (1956, p.26) contended that, workers are not isolated, unrelated individuals; they are social animals and should be treated as such.

Highlighting the importance of the informal group at the workplace, Hicks and Gullet (1976) observed that to a great extent, a person's perception of himself and the world around him depends on groups. Because he spends so much time in his work group, it is particularly important in determining one's perception. His values, opinions, needs and aspirations thus largely are determined by his work group. Indeed, if he does

not accept group ideals and ideas as his own, he is liable to suffer an often unbearable social isolation or ostracism from the group. A person tends to accept his groups ways of perceiving or understanding things unconsciously; he tends to be unaware that the group has so profoundly influenced him. All this often presents a classic dilemma. One needs to belong but somehow he must also try to maintain his individuality.

On the basis of his western experience and writing on the dynamics of informal groups, Luthans (1988) maintain that, informal groups play a significant role in the dynamics of the performance of work organizations, He went on to say that, “the major difference between formal and informal groups has official prescribed goals and relationships whereas the informal ones do not”. Despite this distinction, he remarked, “it is a mistake to think of formal and informal groups as tow distinctively separate entities”. He concluded by opinion that the two types of groups coexist and are inseparable since in every informal group seem to have evolved the formal group. Blau and Scott (1962) succinctly accounted for his phenomenon this way, it is impossible to understand the nature of a informal organization organisation without the informal hierarchy of autotypy and the official body of rules, since the formally instituted and the informally entering patters are inextricably intentional. The distinction between the formal and informal aspects of life is therefore an analytical one.

Bakke (1950) opined that, “as factors influencing human behavior, the formal and informal systems are not separable. The author went on to posit that without denying the danger of inconsistency and conflict between the formal and informal systems, we would suggest that the social system to which participants in an organization react, and which is an effective determinant to their behavior, is a synthesis of both formal and informal element (Bakke 1950).

Hicks and Gullet (1976) viewed informal groups as a “shadow” organization. Strauss and Sayles (1972) explaining that the informal groups existing in work organizations are spontaneous, unstructured relationships which exist at all levels of the formal organizational noted that brought together by the formal organizations, employees interact with one another. Increasing interaction builds favourable sentiments towards fellow group members. In turn, these sentiments become the foundation for an

increased variety of activities, many not specified by the job descriptions; special lunch arrangements, trading of job duties, fight with those outside the group and gambling on paycheck numbers. And these increased opportunities for interaction build stronger bonds of identification. Then the groups become something more than a mere collection of people. It develops a customary way of doing things – a set of stable characteristics that are hard to change. It becomes an organization in itself.

Hicks and Gullet (1976) seem to have been influenced by the argument of Strauss (1972) when they contended that once informal groups are formed along this line, management becomes powerless in either abolishing them or having any meaningful control over their workings. The authors went on to say that, this lack of control over the informal groups has frequently been a cause of frustration to managers, particularly when the informal organization appears to be resisting the accomplishment of the formal organisation’s objective (Hicks and Gullet 1976).

We are aware, as Feldman and Arnold (1983) have noted that norms will be strongly enforced by work groups if they; (1) ensure groups success or survival; (2) reflect the preferences of supervisors or other powerful group members; (3) simplify, or make predictable, what behavior is expected of group members; (4) reinforce specific individual members’ roles; and (5) help the group avoid embarrassing interpersonal problems. Generally speaking, informal groups evolve largely from status positions such as: group leader status, primary group member status, fringe status and out status (Hairman and Scott, 1970; Bates, 1967).

2.5 Nature of Social Groups

Johnson and Ouchi (1974) have shown the importance of groups in the performance of work organizations. Leavitt (1975, p.373) accounted for the place of groups in Japanese organizations this way: The Japanese seem to be very groupy, and much less concerned than Americans about issues like individual accountability. Japanese organizations, of course, are thus consonant with Japanese culture, where notions of individuals’ aggressiveness and competitiveness are de-emphasized in favour of self-effacement and group loyalty. But Japanese organizations seem to get a lot done, despite the relative suppression of the individual in favour of the group. It also appears that the advantages of the

groupy. Japanese style has really come to the fore in large technologically complex organizations.

Although it might seem premature in the last decade to suggest that work organizations should be designed around the notion of informal group. Cultural trends have tended to make the idea much more appropriate in recent times. This lends support to a host of research evidence concerning the impact of groups (Kelley and Thibaut 1954; Maier 1930, 1952, 1960, 1963). Some researchers believed that groups are becoming more relevant for organisational as well as cultural reasons (Hoffman 1961, 1965, Hoffman et al 1962; Hoffman and Maier 1959, 1961, 1964, 1967). Groups seem to be particularly used as coordinating and integrating mechanism for dealing with complex tasks that require the inputs of many kinds of specialized knowledge. In fact the development of matrix-type organizations in high technology industry is one effort to modify individually designed organizations towards a more group direction; not for humanistic reasons but as a consequence of tremendous increases in the informational complexity of the jobs that need to be done.

We are aware that the designing of organizations around the groups have some cost and danger points. This has been accounted for in different ways. Such cost and dangers include: that with the use of informal groups provide an escape hatch for individuals; it has the tendency to drive away highly individualistic, non-group people; and if group membership are emphasized when rewarding workers, paying them, promoting them and so on, groups may begin to perceive themselves as power centres in competitive conflict with other group (Drucker 1954; Maier 1960; Maier and Hayes 1962).

However, the effect of the cost and danger points in the use of the fine group with its humanitarianism and its high-minded principles, might be capable of adopting a course of action that is capable of minimizing its inhumane and immoral aspects on the performance of organizations. Thinking along this line, it is our belief that the main principle which ought to be offered in the spirit of Parkinson's law and which we completely accept is that the more amiability and spirit de corps there is among the members of a policy-making in-group, the greater the danger that independent critical thinking will be replaced by group-thinking, which is likely to result in irrational and dehumanizing actions directed against groups

(Janis 1971, p.378). The implication of the foregoing discussion is that there is need for an integration of assets and liabilities in group problem solving. Thinking along this line, Maier (1967, p.385) noted that the forces operating in group, can be classified as assets, liabilities and some other forces which are either assets or liabilities, depending upon the skills of the members, especially those of their leaders.

There is consensus on this argument and a host of researchers have narrated the situation in this sense a number of investigations have raised the question of whether group problem solving is superior, inferior, or equal to individual problem solving. Evidence can be cited in support of each position so that the answer to this question remains ambiguous. Rather than pursue this generalized approach to the question, it seems more fruitful to explore the forces that influence problem solving under the two conditions. It is hoped that a better recognition of these forces will permit clarification of the varied dimensions of the problem-solving process, especially in groups (Hoffman 1965, Kelley and Thibaut 1954).

The forces in group assets in a function of: (1) greater sum total of knowledge and information; (2) greater number of approaches to a problem; (3) participation in problem solving which increases acceptance; and (4) better comprehensive of decisions. It is well known that there is more information in a group than in any of its members. Hence, problems that require the utilization of knowledge give groups an advantage over individuals. There is also research evidence that individuals get into ruts in their thinking, and since group members do not have identical approaches, each can contribute by knocking others out of ruts in thinking (Duncker 1954; Maier 1930; Wertjeonmer, 1959). Similarly, experience has shown that when one individual solves a problem, he still has the task of persuading others. It follows, therefore that when groups solve such problems, a greater number of persons accept and feel responsible for making the solution work. This argument is built on the premise that, a low-quality solution that has good acceptance can be more effective than a higher-quality solution that lacks acceptance (Maier 1967).

It is also pertinent to point out that many organizational problems can be traced to inadequate communication of decisions made by superiors and transmitted to subordinates, who have the task of implementing the decision. Hence, it is arguable that a

full knowledge of goals, obstacles, alternatives, and factual information is essential to communication, and this communication is maximized when the total problem-solving process is shared.

Similarly, liabilities of groups include social pressures, valence of solution, individual domination and conflicting secondary goal such as winning the argument. Some researchers have argued that social pressure is a major force making or conformity (Maier, 1963; Maier and Solem, 1962). The desire to be a good group member and to be accepted tends to silence disagreement and favours consensus, majority opinions tend to be accepted regardless of whether or not their objective quality is logically and scientifically sound, problems requiring solutions based upon facts, regardless of feelings and wishes, can suffer in group problem solving situations. It has been shown that minority opinions in leaderless groups have little influence on the solution reached, even when these opinions are the correct ones. Reaching agreement in a group often is confused with finding the right answer, and it is for this reason that the dimensions of a decision's acceptance and its objective quality must be distinguished.

Maier (1971) observed that when leaderless groups engage in problem solving, they propose a variety of solutions. He went on to argue that, even solution may receive both critical and supportive comments from other participants. He concluded by stating that, if the number of the negative and positive comment of each solution is algebraically summed, each may be given a valence index. Maier's (1967) observations lend support to Hoffman and Maier's (1967) contention that in most leaderless groups a dominant individual emerges and captures more than his share of influence on the outcome. He can achieve this end through a greater degree of participation (valence), persuasive ability, or stubborn persistence (fatiguing the opposition). None of these factors is related to problem-solving ability, so that the best problem solver in the group may not have the influence to upgrade the quality of the group's solution (which he would have had if left to solve the problem by himself).

Some factors within group may serve the assets or liabilities depending largely upon the skill of the discussion leader. These may show themselves in the form of disagreement, conflicting interest versus mutual interest, risk taking time requirement and who changes. As some researchers have noted the fact that

discussion may lead to disagreement can serve either to create hard feeling among members or lend to a resolution of conflict and hence to an innovative solution. Disagreement in discussion may take many forms. Often participants disagree with one another with regard to solutions, but when issues are explored one finds that these conflicting solutions are designed to solve different problems. Before one can rightly expect agreement on a solution, there should be agreement on the nature of the problem. Even before this, there should be agreement on the goal, as well as on the various obstacles that prevent the goal from being reached once distinction are made between goals, obstacles, and solutions (which represent ways of overcoming obstacles). One finds increased opportunities for co-operative problem solving and less conflict (Hoffman and Maier, 1959).

We are aware that groups are moving willing than individuals to research decision involving risks (Wallach and Kogan 1965; Wallach *et al*, 1962). In general, more time is required for a group to reach a decision than for a single individual to reach one. This goal was nicely stated by Thibaut and Kelley (1961) when they argued that wonder whether it may not possible for a rather small, intimate group to establish a problem-solving process that capitalizes upon the total pool of information and provides for great inter-stimulation of ideas without any loss of innovative creativity due to social restraints.

2.6 Nature of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and its Measures

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (**OCB**) has become a lively research field investigated by organizational sociologists, psychologists, and management researchers. Examining the relationship between the formal system, informal environmental settings and **OCB** in the work place, Min-Huei (1995) have shown that **OCB** actions are positively related to indicators of individual, unit, and organisational performance such as generation of positive work climate, organization resources, employee's personality, organisational culture, competence, perceived service quality and organisational effectiveness. This must have influenced Lee and Allen (2002) to observe that, **OCB** actions are workers behaviours that, although not critical to the task or job, serve to facilitate organizational functioning.

Organ (1988:4) defines **OCB** as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly

recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation". Three implications can be drawn from Organ's (1988) definition of **OCB**. The first is that **OCB** actions are thought of as discretionary behaviors, which are not part of the job description, and are performed by the employee as a result of personal choice. The second suggest that **OCB** actions go above and beyond that which is an enforceable requirement of the job description. The third is that **OCB** actions contribute positively to overall organizational effectiveness. Lambert (2006) lends support to Organ's (1988) argument when he posited that **OCB** is a behaviour that: (1) goes beyond the basic requirements of the job; (2) is to a large extent discretionary; and (3) is of benefit to the organisation.

Podsakoff and KacKenzie (1994) re-emphasised the five dimensions of **OCB** as given by Organ (1988) by showing that: (1) altruism is the helping of an individual coworker on a task; (2) courtesy has to do with alerting others in the organisation about changes that may affect their work; (3) conscientiousness is the act of carrying out one's duties beyond the minimum requirements; (4) sportsmanship meant refraining from complaining about trivial matters; and (5) civic virtue has to do with participating in the governance of the organisation. Notwithstanding, the clarity of Organ's (1988) definition of **OCB**, critics have questioned the boundary of the discretion in the nature of workers' job (Lambert, 2005; Lee and Allen, 2002; Bateman and Organ, 1983). Organ (1997), in response to this criticisms, notes that since his original definition, the nature of jobs have moved away from a clearly defined set of tasks and responsibilities to a dynamic and sometimes ambiguous description. This suggests that without a well defined role, it would be difficult to determine what constitutes an extra-role behaviour. This argument is more complicated in a situation when a given extra-role behaviour to one manager or subordinate is considered a role to another. In this sense, it appears conclusive that what behaviours are and are not extra-role vary greatly according to the nature of the job.

Another area of substantial debate is the idea that **OCB** actions are not formally rewarded. Organ (1997) explains that **OCBs** may at some point encourage some sort of reward, but that these rewards would be indirect, uncertain, and not within the contractually guaranteed formal rewards system. In other words

OCB actions may be considered a self-generated incentive at the workplace. This lend support to the arguments and admittance by contemporary scholars that **OCB** actions are likely to lead to monetary rewards and performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place (Obiora, 2012; Lambert, 2005; Organ 1997).

It is pertinent to point out that the construct of **OCB**, from its conception, has been considered multi-dimensional. Smith, Organ and Near (1983) first proposed two dimensions: altruism and general compliance. These two dimensions serve to improve organisational effectiveness in different ways. Altruism in the workplace consists essentially of helping behaviours. These behaviours can both be directed within or outside of the organisation. There is no direct link, or one-to-to-one relationship, between every instance of helping behaviour and a specific gain for the organisation. The idea is that over time, the compilation of workers helping behaviour will eventually be advantageous for the organization (Organ et al., 2006; Pence and Helmreich, 1980).

General compliance behaviour serves to benefit the organisation in several ways. Low rates of absenteeism and rule following help to keep the organisation running efficiently. A compliant employee does not engage in behaviours such as taking excessive breaks or using work time for personal matters. When these types of behaviours are minimized the workforce is naturally more productive.

Later, Organ (1988) deconstructed the dimension of general compliance and added additional dimensions of **OCB**. This deconstruction resulted in a five-factor model consisting of altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The definition of altruism remained much as it was, defined by discretionary behaviours that have the effect of helping a specific work colleague with an organizationally relevant task or problem. Conscientiousness consists of behaviours that go well beyond the minimum role requirements of the organisation (Law, Wong & Chen, 2005). These behaviours indicate that workers accept an adhere to the rules, regulations and procedures of the organisation.

Civic virtue is characterised by behaviours that indicate that the worker's deep concerns and active interest in the life of the organisation (Law *et al*,

2005). This dimension also encompasses positive involvement in the concerns of the organisation (Organ *et al*, 2006). Examples of civic virtue can be seen in daily affairs such as attending meetings and keeping up with what is going on with the organisation in general. Civic virtue can also be demonstrated on a larger scale by defending the organisation's policies and practices when they are challenged by an outside source.

Courtesy has been defined as discretionary behaviours that aim at preventing work-related conflicts with others (Law *et al*, 2005). This dimension is a form of helping behaviour, but one that works to prevent problems from arising. It also includes the word's literal definition of being polite and considerate of others (Organ *et al*, 2006). Examples of courteous behaviours are asking fellow workers if they would like a cup of coffee while you are getting one for

yourself, making extra copies of the meeting agenda for your teammates, and giving a colleague ample notice when you alter something that will affect them.

Finally, sportsmanship has been defined as a willingness on the part of the worker that signifies the workers tolerance of less-than-ideal organisational circumstances without complaining and employee's ability to roll with the punches' even if they do not like or agree with the changes that are occurring within the organisation. By reducing the amount of complaints from workers that administrators have to deal with, sportsmanship conserves time and energy. In a meta-analysis of the *OCB* literature, LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002) found that these five dimensions are very highly correlated and do not have much differentiation among antecedents, indicating some overlap in the dimensions.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS AND MATERIALS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used in carrying out the study. Essentially, a study of this nature is systematically conducted to meet its objectives therefore; it addresses the research design, population and sampling procedure, data collection, validity and reliability and method of data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

There are strategies that could be adopted in social enquiry. One of such strategies is a survey. In this survey, a representative sample of the population is studied and results are generalized (Babbie, 1973; Nachmias and Nachmias, 1976). Research design is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted it constitutes the blue print for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. Again, there are two research approaches often adaptable in any social science inquiry. They include the survey approach and the case study approach. Seltz, *et al* (1959) defined the case study approach as “the intensive analysis of one instance or a few instances for the purpose of a greater understanding of the phenomenon and the possibility of generalization. This would imply that the case study approach comprise the selection of the particular entity whose behaviour is to be examined at a time based on previously defined characteristics. On the other hand, in survey approach, a representative sample of the chosen population is studied. This allows for ease in generalizing result as a considerable portion of the population would have been considered.

From the foregoing, it is our belief that the survey approach serves the study better as it will offer the opportunity of an in-depth analysis of the phenomenon studied for generalization and empirically infer the level of effectiveness of TQM on employee productivity.

3.3 Population of Study and Sample Selection

Ogunsanya (1984) observed that in conducting investigations into a problem certain logical rules of procedures must be followed if the research results are to be valid and acceptable. As a necessary condition therefore every researcher must either study the entire populations otherwise referred to as a census or take samples from the entire population focused by the study. In our study we have favoured the sampling method because of its advantage of cost, speed, scope and accuracy of results over the census. The population for the study could have been the entire managers and subordinate workers in the oil servicing firms in Port Harcourt, but we have used those who are permanent staff.

3.4 Data Collection Methods

Two sources of data was used to generate data for this research the primary and secondary sources. The primary source of data consists of questionnaire oral interview, discussion with employees and personal observation. On the other hand, relevant source documents, text materials, journals and other relevant information in the coded form formed the secondary source of data collection.

The study adopted questionnaire as its research instrument. Questionnaire, commonly constitutes main source of data on the samples of human population. By virtue of the behaviours of business organization as patterns of human situation and interactions, questionnaire do naturally from the main source of data on related samples. They are used to elicit data from respondents who are subjects for the research with the ultimate aim of deducing data and processing them for easy understanding. The questionnaire was administered by direct contact to ensure objective participation leading to unbiased outcome. The questions drawn therein was both structured and unstructured types. The personal interview and observation constituted other instrument for the study.

3.5 Validity and Reliability

These were obtained through the use of supervisors and the determination of Cronbach Alpha values of the variables. The research instrument was subjected to validity test, the instrument was served on the supervisor and some carefully selected personnel within the oil sector. Their responses was examined and analyzed to show validity. The instrument was found to contain items that addressed the variables investigated in the study. The outcome of the test re-test was done with the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. In order to ensure that we measure and observe that which was supposed to be measured and observed, and also ensure consistency, the questionnaire was served on the supervisor and other lecturers in the faculty. Some managers were also served

during the pilot survey. Their responses were validated through the use of Pearson Product Moment Co-efficient Correlation Test, we confirm reliability of instrument.

3.6 Methods of Data Analysis

Data analysis is the refinement and manipulation of data that prepares them for better understanding and meaningfulness. For the purpose of our study we used the non parametric and parametric statistical tools of means percentages and the Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient (Rho) to tests the stated hypotheses. This is done using *SPSS* package. In other words, the descriptive statistics was analyzed by the use of percentages and mean scores. While differential statistics involved the use of Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data acquired from the field exercise. It further analysed the data with a view of making meaning out of them. It commenced with the table on distribution and retrieval of questionnaires.

Table 4.1 illustrating the questionnaire distribution and retrieval frequency

Questionnaire	Number Distributed	Number Returned	Number Used in Analysis
Frequency	97 (100%)	84 (87%)	72 (74%)

Source: Research survey

Table 4.1 is used to illustrate the frequency and percentile rate of the questionnaire distribution and retrieval. As a result of various constraints, not all the respondents were able to answer and return their questionnaire. Also during the data cleaning process which entailed the cross-examination of the instruments for missing values, double ticks on same indicator or item as well as the blank questionnaires, 13% of the questionnaires were considered not useful and error prone, therefore the study made use of 72 questionnaires which accounts for 74% of the initial sample size.

4.2 Demographic Analysis

For the demographic data, analysis is carried out on five major characteristics of the sample which includes gender; employees are grouped into male and female categories which are mutually exclusive, marital status; employees are grouped based on their marital status bothering on single, married and separated (this also covers for widowed and divorced spouses); age; in which employees are categorized into age classifications, qualification; in which employees are classified based on their educational qualifications and finally, experience; here respondents are classified based on their experience and years of service to the particular organization.

Table 4.2 showing the gender distribution for the study

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	47	65.3	65.3	65.3
Female	25	34.7	34.7	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Source: Data output

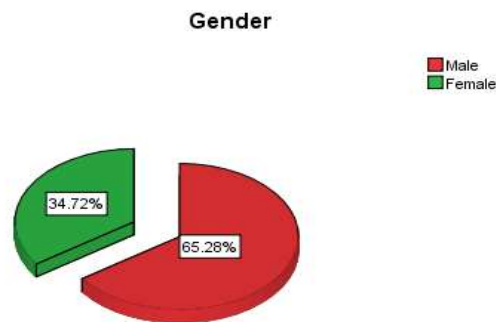


Fig. 4.1 showing pie chart distribution of the study

Table 4.2 and fig 4.1 show that for the gender characteristic, the male respondents exceed the female respondents at a 65% to 35% difference percentile rate. This goes to imply that most of the respondents who participated in the study are male.

Table 4.3 illustrating the status characteristic of respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Single	20	27.8	27.8	27.8
Married	47	65.3	65.3	93.1
Separated	5	6.9	6.9	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Source: Data output

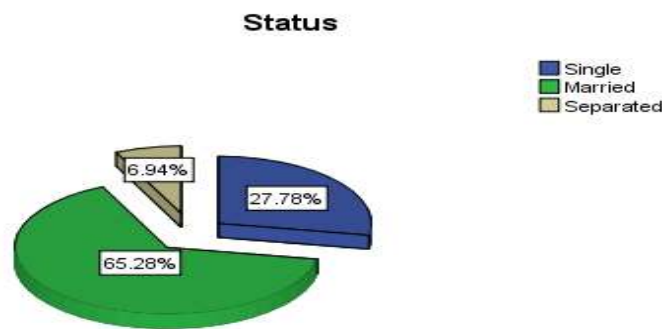


Fig 4.2 showing pie chart distribution for respondents' marital status

For the marital status of the respondents, table 4.3 and fig 4.2 illustrate that the married category has more respondents at a 65% percentile rate, followed by the single category at a 28% percentile rate and finally the separated category which makes up for the remaining 7%

Table 4.4 showing the age distribution for the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Less than 25 years	5	6.9	6.9	6.9
26 - 35 years	25	34.7	34.7	41.7
36 - 45 years	34	47.2	47.2	88.9
46 - 55 years	5	6.9	6.9	95.8
Above 55 years	3	4.2	4.2	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Source: Data output

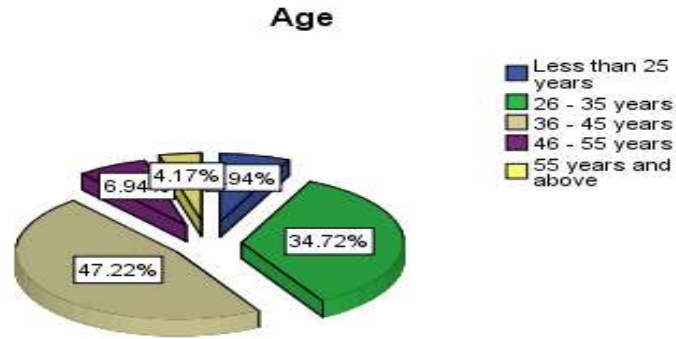


Fig 4.3 showing the pie chart distribution of respondents

For the age characteristic of the sample distribution, the table 4.6 and pie chart 4.5 show that most of the respondents fall into the 36 – 45 years age bracket at a 47% percentile rate, followed by the 26 – 35 years age bracket at a 35% percentile rate, followed by the less than 25 years and the 46 – 55 years categories with both categories having a 6.94% percentile rating, and finally the above 55 years category which accounts for a percentile rate of 4%.

Table 4.5 illustrating the qualification distribution for respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid OND/NCE	12	16.7	16.7	16.7
BSc/HND/Btech/BEng	53	73.6	73.6	90.3
3.00	7	9.7	9.7	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Source: Data output



Fig 4.4 showing the pie chart for qualification

Table 4.5 and figure 4.4 show that most of the respondents under the qualification characteristics of the sample have obtained first degrees at a percentage of 74%, followed by those who have obtained diploma certificates at a 17% percentile rate, and those with masters degrees at 9% while those with PhD degrees account for 3% of the total sum and finally the *SSCE* category which only accounts for one individual and an insignificant percentile rate at 0.4%

Table 4.6 illustrating the distribution for respondents' experience

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 5 to 10 years	26	36.1	36.1	36.1
11 to 15 years	44	61.1	61.1	97.2
16 to 20 years	2	2.8	2.8	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Source: Data output

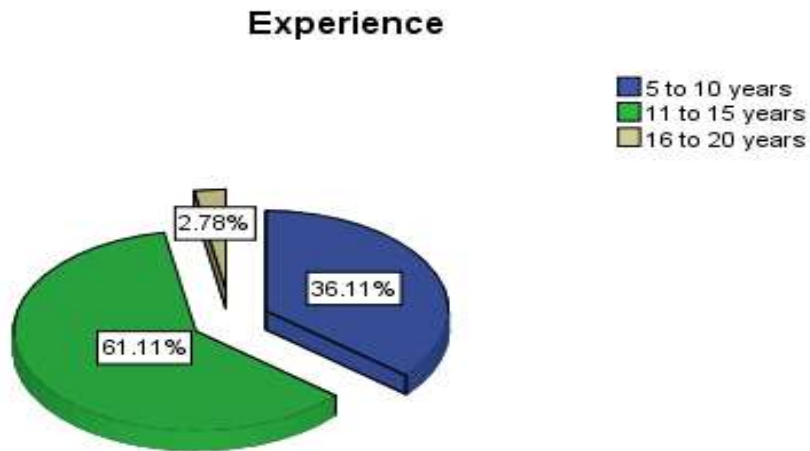


Fig. 4.7 showing chart distribution for respondents' experience

The table and pie chart above illustrate the tenure characteristic of the respondents with a majority of the respondents having served with their particular and respective organizations between 11 – 15 years, making up for 61% percentile rate, followed by those with experience ranging between 5 – 10 years accounting for 36% of the total number of respondents. This is followed by the 16 - 20 years category with a percentile rate of 3%.

4.3 Univariate Analysis

In this section, descriptive statistics here is carried out on individual variables and their measures. We begin with the independent variable which is social relational network. Its measures include the following: length of settlement in community and membership of social group. After which the dependent variable which is organizational citizenship behaviour is also analysed. Its measures also include: civic virtues and sportsmanship. All items are scaled on the five-point Likert scale with five (5) with the adoption of $X < 2.5$ for low scores, $X = 2.5$ for moderate scores and $X > 2.5$ for high scores. (Asawo, 2009; Okpu, 2011)

	N	Minimu	Maximu	Mean	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Std.	Std.	
		m	m		Deviation					Error
		Statistic	Statistic		Statistic					Statistic
Settlement1	72	1.00	5.00	3.5139	1.18670	-.580	.283	-.371	.559	
Settlement2	72	1.00	5.00	3.8889	.86490	-.990	.283	1.317	.559	
Settlement3	72	1.00	5.00	4.0556	.99136	-1.095	.283	1.075	.559	
Valid N (listwise)	72									

Source: Data output

Table 4.7 is used to illustrate the descriptive statistics on the 3 – item indicators of settlement which is a measure of the independent variable Social relational network. Mean scores indicate a high tendency for agreement based on a middle benchmark of 2.5 for a moderate response level.

Table 4.8 illustrating the descriptive statistics for Membership

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Std.	Std.	
		Statistic	Statistic		Deviation					Error
		Statistic	Statistic		Statistic					Statistic
Membership1	72	1.00	5.00	3.5139	1.08761	-.611	.283	.072	.559	
Membership2	72	1.00	5.00	4.2778	.85945	-1.535	.283	2.937	.559	
Membership3	72	1.00	5.00	3.6389	.92395	-.421	.283	.407	.559	
Valid N (listwise)	72									

Source: Data output

Table 4.8 is used to illustrate the descriptive statistics on the 3 – item indicators of membership which is a measure of the independent variable Social relational network. Mean scores indicate a high tendency for agreement based on a middle benchmark of 2.5 for a moderate response level.

Table 4.9 showing descriptive summary for the measures of independent variable

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis	Std.	Std.	
		Statistic	Statistic		Deviation					Error
		Statistic	Statistic		Statistic					Statistic
Settlement	72	1.33	5.00	3.8194	.83157	-1.466	.283	1.582	.559	
Membership	72	1.33	5.00	3.8102	.84813	-1.075	.283	1.086	.559	
Valid N (listwise)	72									

Source: Data output

Table 4.9 showing the descriptive summary of the measures of the independent variable (social relational network) Mean scores (settlement $x = 3.8194$; membership $x = 3.8102$) indicate a high tendency for agreement based on a middle benchmark of 2.5 for a moderate response level.

Table 4.10 showing the descriptive statistics for civic virtue

	N	Minimu	Maximu	Mean	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis		
		m	m		Deviation		Std.	Std.	Error
Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Civic1	72	1.00	5.00	3.9583	1.08040	-1.363	.283	1.485	.559
Civic2	72	1.00	5.00	3.9444	1.17352	-1.342	.283	1.160	.559
Civic3	72	1.00	5.00	3.9861	1.11952	-1.521	.283	1.989	.559
Valid N (listwise)	72								

Source: Data output

Table 4.10 is used to illustrate the descriptive statistics on the 3 – item indicators of Civic virtue which is a measure of the dependent variable organizational citizenship behaviour. Mean scores indicate a high tendency for agreement based on a middle benchmark of 2.5 for a moderate response level.

Table 4.11 showing the descriptive statistics for sportsmanship

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis		
		Statistic	Statistic		Statistic		Deviation	Std.	Std.
Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Sports1	72	1.00	5.00	3.9306	1.11742	-1.417	.283	1.711	.559
Sports2	72	1.00	5.00	4.0694	1.12996	-1.345	.283	.983	.559
Sports3	72	1.00	5.00	4.0972	1.10262	-1.105	.283	.123	.559
Valid N (listwise)	72								

Source: Data output

Table 4.11 is used to illustrate the descriptive statistics on the 3 – item indicators of sportsmanship which is a measure of the dependent variable organizational citizenship behaviour. Mean scores indicate a high tendency for agreement based on a middle benchmark of 2.5 for a moderate response level.

Table 4.12 showing descriptive summary for the measures of the dependent variable

N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Deviation	Statistic	Statistic

	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Civic	72	1.33	5.00	4.0324	1.05284	-1.438	.283	1.033	.559
Sportsmanship	72	1.33	5.00	4.2224	1.06182	-1.338	.283	1.055	.559
Valid N (listwise)	72								

Source: Data output

Table 4.12 showing the descriptive summary of the measures of the dependent variable (organizational citizenship behaviour) Mean scores (Civic x = 4.0324; sportsmanship x = 4.2224) indicate a high tendency for agreement based on a middle benchmark of 2.5 for a moderate response level.

Table 4.13 showing the descriptive statistics for organizational age

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error	Kurtosis	Std. Error
Age1	72	1.00	5.00	3.9861	1.11952	-1.211	.283	.717	.559
Age2	72	1.00	5.00	3.9583	1.14372	-1.079	.283	.322	.559
Age3	72	1.00	5.00	3.9722	1.06112	-1.253	.283	1.174	.559
Valid N (listwise)	72								

Source: Data output

Table 4.13 is used to illustrate the descriptive statistics on the 3 – item indicators of organizational age which is the contextual variable for this study. Mean scores indicate a high tendency for agreement based on a middle benchmark of 2.5 for a moderate response level.

Table 4.14 showing the descriptive summary for all the variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Std. Error	Kurtosis	Std. Error
OrgAge	72	1.33	5.00	3.9722	1.05817	-1.280	.283	.681	.559
SRN	72	1.33	5.00	3.8148	.75503	-1.437	.283	2.014	.559
OCB	72	1.33	5.00	4.0324	1.05284	-1.438	.283	1.033	.559
Valid N (listwise)	72								

Source: Data output

Table 4.12 showing the descriptive summary of the measures of the study variables which include the independent variable (social relational network x = 3.8148) the dependent variable (organizational citizenship behaviour x =

3.8148) and the contextual variable (organizational age $x = 3.9722$). All variables show a tendency for agreement based on the adoption of a 2.5 moderate response benchmark.

4.4 Bivariate Analysis

Analysis in this section is used in the test of previously stated hypotheses. As a two-tailed and non-directional study, evaluation of the result is based on correlations and not the direction of such correlations. The study adopts a 95% confidence interval therefore a significance level of 0.05 relative to the p-value is used in the acceptance or rejection of previously stated hypotheses. As a result of the nature of our data distribution, which is not normally distributed as portrayed by the skewness and kurtosis coefficients of the study variables, the spearman's rank order correlational statistical tool, a non-parametric statistical test tool, is adopted in the test for correlations and strength of relations.

Table 4.15 showing test for hypotheses

		Settlement	Civic	Sportsmanship	
Spearman's rho	Settlement	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.397	.547
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.007	.000
		N	72	72	72

Source: data output

Table 4.15 is used to illustrate the relationship between length of settlement in the community and civic virtue

Rho value: .397

pvalue: .007

Where $p < 0.05$

Length of settlement in the community and sportsmanship

Rho value: .547

pvalue: .000

Where $p < 0.05$

Table 4.16 showing tests for hypotheses

		Membership	Civic	Sportsmanship	
Spearman's rho	Membership	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.261	.304
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.027	.001
		N	72	72	72

Source: Data output

Table 4.15 is used to illustrate the relationship between membership of social group and civic virtue

Rho value: .261

pvalue: .027

Where $p < 0.05$

Length of membership of social group and sportsmanship

Rho value: .304

pvalue: .001

Where $p < 0.05$

From the table 4.15 and 4.16 above, the relationships indicate significant correlations in all bivariate relations. Therefore based on this, all previously stated null hypotheses are rejected and their alternate options are accepted.

4.5 Multivariate Analysis

Analysis in this section is carried out on the supposedly moderating effect of organizational age on the relationship between social relational network and organizational citizenship behaviour. As a result of the nature of the data distribution, the study adopts the partial correlational technique in the test for the moderating effect.

Table 4.17 showing the relationship between social relational network and organizational citizenship behaviour

		SRN	OCB
SRN	Correlation	1	.443
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	df	72	72
OCB	Correlation	.243	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	df	69	69

Source: Data output

Table 4.18 showing the moderating effect of organizational age on the relationship between social relational network and organizational citizenship behaviour

Control Variables			SRN	OCB
OrgAge	SRN	Correlation	1.000	.255
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.031
		df	0	69
	OCB	Correlation	.255	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.031	.
		df	69	0

Source: Data output

Table 4.17 and table 4.18 are used to illustrate the control for the moderating effect of organizational age on the relationship between social relational network and organizational citizenship behaviour. As portrayed in the tables, the effect of social

relational network and organizational citizenship behaviour is less significant when controlling for the moderating effect of organizational age.

4.6 Discussion of findings

Our findings show a significant and strong association between social relational network and organizational citizenship behaviour. The findings also show that all two measures of social relational network significantly correlate with organizational citizenship behaviour thus enhancing civic virtue and sportsmanship.

4.6.1 Length of Settlement in the Community and OCB

The relationship between length of settlement in the community and organizational citizenship behaviour: was tested using Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient and a 0.05 level of significance, As a result of the analysis and based on the decision rule of $p < 0.05$ for rejecting the null hypothesis, we then reject the null hypotheses (H_{01}) – (H_{02}). We therefore restate that: (1) that there is a significant relationship between length of settlement in the community and civic virtue as a measure of organizational citizenship behaviour; and (2) that there is a significant relationship between length of settlement in the community and sportsmanship as a measure of organizational citizenship behaviour.

4.6.2 Membership of Social Group and OCB

The relationship between membership of social group and organizational citizenship behaviour:

was tested using Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient and a 0.05 level of significance, As a result of the analysis and based on the decision rule of $p < 0.05$ for rejecting the null hypothesis, we then reject the null hypotheses (H_{03}) – (H_{04}). We therefore restate that: (1) that there is a significant relationship between membership of social group and civic virtue as a measure of organizational citizenship behaviour; and (2) that there is a significant relationship between membership of social group and sportsmanship as a measure of organizational citizenship behaviour.

4.6.3 Age, Social Relational Network and OCB

The Age of the organization significantly moderates the relationship between social relational network and organizational citizenship behaviour was tested using Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient and a 0.05 level of significance, As a result of the analysis and based on the decision rule of $p < 0.05$ for rejecting the null hypothesis, we then reject the null hypotheses (H_{05}). We therefore restate that the age of the organization significantly moderates the relationship between social relational network and organizational citizenship behaviour.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

Social relational networking is a prevailing circumstance which cuts across various facets of the organization and is a common phenomenon experienced in every organization and group and as such must be effectively managed in an effective way in order to achieve growth and improved organizational relations. The findings from this study reveal significant correlations between social relational networking and organizational citizenship behaviour. The findings show that social relational networking through its measures which length of settlement in community and membership of social group, significantly effects organizational citizenship behaviour thereby enhancing civic virtue and sportsmanship.

The study which was a cross-sectional survey conducted in the Nigerian oil industry made use of the Spearman's rank order correlational tool in the test of its hypothesis. At a 95% confidence interval and a 0.05 level of significance the study shows that settlement significantly impacts on civic virtue and sportsmanship and therefore should be considered as important in achieving organizational citizenship behaviour. The study also finds that membership of social groups also significantly influences organizational civic virtue and sportsmanship and thus is an important ingredient in the pursuit of organizational citizenship behaviour. Although the findings reveal an unequal distribution of the gender with the male in higher proportion in comparison with their female counterparts, recruitment and selection strategies can be used to balance this inequality. The study findings revealed that most of the respondents were married and with the responses of the separated category accounting for the widowed and divorced. Therefore we summarize that more efforts should be put into effectively managing social relational networking as this will significantly enhance and improve on the organizational citizenship behaviour.

5.2 Conclusion

The focus of this study bothered on the investigation of the relationship between social relational networking and organizational citizenship behaviour in the Nigerian oil industry.. Findings from our analysis support a correlation between both variables as both

variables strongly correlate and show significant association. Based on these findings we therefore conclude that the success and achievement of improved organizational citizenship behaviour can be achieved through the effective management of the organizations social relational networking. Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. The effective management of an employee's length of settlement in community is a necessary ingredient in achieving enhanced civic virtue and sportsmanship
2. The effective management of group membership plays an important role in influencing and improving the civic virtue and sportsmanship of employees in the organization.
3. To effectively enhance the effect of social relationship networking on organizational citizenship behaviour, consideration should also be made as regards the age of the organization.

5.3 Recommendations

In view of the research on the importance of social relational networking in enhancing organizational citizenship behaviour, the following recommendations are important.

1. Policies on the management of social relational networking should be made to match the requirements of the industry.
2. The organizational atmosphere should be structured by management in such a way that appreciates and recognizes employees for their efforts, contributions as well as prevailing differences both at the individual and at the organizational level
3. More should be done by management as regards workplace relations and team orientations in order to further enhance the nature of social relational networking.

5.4 Suggestions for further Studies

On a final note, the researcher wishes:

1. To state that this research work is not exhaustive. There is still room for further

research. However, further research is needed in other to determine whether the conclusion of the current study is applicable to other circumstances of social relational networking and organizational citizenship behaviour in other sectors of the economy like the banking and telecommunications industry

2. For further research, other dimensions of social relational networking can be analysed in respect to enhancing organizational citizenship behaviour.
3. Also, for further research, the determinants of social relational networking can further be analyzed being in this case a dependent variable.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE

SOCIAL RELATIONAL NETWORK AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR IN INDIGENOUS OIL SERVICE FIRMS IN PORT HARCOURT

SECTION A: PERSONAL DATA

INSTRUCTION: Please indicate by a tick (√) any option that best describes your person or organization.

1. Please indicate your sex

(a) Male

(b) Female

2. To which of these age brackets do you belong?

(a) Less than 20

(b) 21-30

(c) 31-40

(d) 41-50

(e) 51 and above

3. Your marital status

(a) Married

(b) Single

(c) Separated/Divorced

(d) Widow

4. Your highest educational qualification is

(a) FSLC

(b) SSCE

(c) OND/NCE

(d) Degree/HND

(e) Other, please specify:

5. How many years have you worked in this organization?

- (a) 1 – 5 years
- (b) 6 – 10 years
- (c) 11-15 years
- (d) 16 – 20 years
- (e) 21 and above

SECTION B: SOCIAL RELATIONAL NETWORK AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

INSTRUCTION: This section examines the degree of the relationship between social relational network and organisational citizenship behaviour at the workplace. You are presented with five (5) options as follows: SA (Strongly Agree), A (Agree), D (Disagree), SD (Strongly Disagree), U (Undecided) with their values stated under the response rate. Please tick (√) one cell that is most applicable to you for each statement.

1. Social Relational Network Scale

(A.1) Length of Settlement in the Community

S/N	Statement	SA	A	U	DA	SD
		4	3	0	2	1
1	An organisation member is committed to his job because of the influence of the length of time he has spent in the business community					
2	The length of time an individual has spent in a community serves as inter-personal linkage between the organisation members					
3	The length of time an individual has spent in a community serves as inter-group linkage between members of a work team					

(A.2) Membership of Social group

S/N	Statement	SA	A	U	DA	SD
		4	3	0	2	1
1	An organisation member is committed to his job because of the influence of his being a member of a social group					
2	Membership of a social group serves as inter-personal linkage between organisation members					
3	Membership of a social group serves as inter-group linkage between members of a work team					

2.Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

B.1 Civic Virtue: This is the willingness of serving in committees and voluntarily attending functions that promote the interests of the organisation

S/N	Statement	SA	A	U	DA	SD
		4	3	0	2	1
1	Employees here keep up with developments in the company					
2	Staff members of this organisation attend organisation functions					

	that are not required, but that help the company image					
3	People in this organisation are willing to risk disapproval in order to express their beliefs about what's best for the company					

B.2 Sportsmanship: this is the willingness to tolerate annoyances and whining at work without complaining.

S/N	Statement	SA	A	U	DA	SD
		4	3	0	2	1
1	Organisational members consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.					
2	Organisational members here make "mountains out of molehills" (make problems bigger than they are)					
3	Organisational members focus on what is wrong with their situations rather than the positive sides of those situations.					

3. Organisational Age as a Moderating Factor

S/N	Statement	SA	A	U	DA	SD
		4	3	0	2	1
1						
2						
3						

APPENDIX II

Settlement1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	6	8.3	8.3	8.3
Disagree	7	9.7	9.7	18.1
Undecided	19	26.4	26.4	44.4
Agree	24	33.3	33.3	77.8
Strongly agree	16	22.2	22.2	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Settlement2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	1	1.4	1.4	1.4
Disagree	5	6.9	6.9	8.3
Undecided	10	13.9	13.9	22.2
Agree	41	56.9	56.9	79.2
Strongly agree	15	20.8	20.8	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Settlement3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	2	2.8	2.8	2.8
Disagree	3	4.2	4.2	6.9
Undecided	12	16.7	16.7	23.6
Agree	27	37.5	37.5	61.1
Strongly agree	28	38.9	38.9	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Membership1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	5	6.9	6.9	6.9
Disagree	5	6.9	6.9	13.9
Undecided	23	31.9	31.9	45.8
Agree	26	36.1	36.1	81.9
Strongly agree	13	18.1	18.1	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Membership2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	1	1.4	1.4	1.4
Disagree	3	4.2	4.2	5.6
Undecided	4	5.6	5.6	11.1
Agree	31	43.1	43.1	54.2
Strongly agree	33	45.8	45.8	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Membership3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	2	2.8	2.8	2.8
Disagree	3	4.2	4.2	6.9
Undecided	27	37.5	37.5	44.4
Agree	27	37.5	37.5	81.9
Strongly agree	13	18.1	18.1	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Civic1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	4	5.6	5.6	5.6
Disagree	5	6.9	6.9	12.5
Undecided	4	5.6	5.6	18.1
Agree	36	50.0	50.0	68.1
Strongly agree	23	31.9	31.9	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Civic2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	6	8.3	8.3	8.3
Disagree	3	4.2	4.2	12.5
Undecided	6	8.3	8.3	20.8
Agree	31	43.1	43.1	63.9
Strongly agree	26	36.1	36.1	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Civic3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	6	8.3	8.3	8.3
Disagree	1	1.4	1.4	9.7
Undecided	6	8.3	8.3	18.1
Agree	34	47.2	47.2	65.3
Strongly agree	25	34.7	34.7	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Sports1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	6	8.3	8.3	8.3
Disagree	1	1.4	1.4	9.7
Undecided	8	11.1	11.1	20.8
Agree	34	47.2	47.2	68.1
Strongly agree	23	31.9	31.9	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Sports2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	3	4.2	4.2	4.2
Disagree	8	11.1	11.1	15.3
Undecided	1	1.4	1.4	16.7
Agree	29	40.3	40.3	56.9
Strongly agree	31	43.1	43.1	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Sports3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	1	1.4	1.4	1.4
Disagree	10	13.9	13.9	15.3
Undecided	4	5.6	5.6	20.8
Agree	23	31.9	31.9	52.8
Strongly agree	34	47.2	47.2	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Age1

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	3	4.2	4.2	4.2
Disagree	8	11.1	11.1	15.3
Undecided	3	4.2	4.2	19.4
Agree	31	43.1	43.1	62.5
Strongly agree	27	37.5	37.5	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Age2

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	3	4.2	4.2	4.2
Disagree	8	11.1	11.1	15.3
Undecided	6	8.3	8.3	23.6
Agree	27	37.5	37.5	61.1
Strongly agree	28	38.9	38.9	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	

Age3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid strongly disagree	3	4.2	4.2	4.2
Disagree	6	8.3	8.3	12.5
Undecided	5	6.9	6.9	19.4
Agree	34	47.2	47.2	66.7
Strongly agree	24	33.3	33.3	100.0
Total	72	100.0	100.0	