

Exploring the Application, Dimensionality and Factor Structure of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale among Local Government Employees in Lagos, Nigeria

Ikenna Jennifer Amaka*¹, Siti Noormi Alias¹ and Mohd Ashraff Mohd Anuar¹

¹*Department of Professional Development & Continuing Education, Faculty of Educational Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, 43400 UPM Serdang, Selangor, Malaysia*

**Corresponding author*

Abstract: - Previous studies have observed a paradigm shift in the debate concerning the dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior. Building on organizational citizenship behavior literature, the present study intends to validate the dimensionality of the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) scale developed by Smith et al., (1983) who proposed a 2 dimensional 16-item instrument. Data was collected through a survey questionnaire using systematic random sampling technique to employees of local government in Lagos State, Nigeria. A total of 400 questionnaires were administered and 393 valid responses were obtained over a period of 4-weeks. Factor analysis and reliability analysis were conducted to confirm that the instrument is valid within the context of local government employees. The implication of this current study is that OCB scale developed by Smith et al., (1983) has revealed two-dimensional structures comprising of; altruism and generalized compliance. The instrument was found to be valid and reliable scale for OCB measurement among employees of public organization, particularly Local Government employees in Lagos, Nigeria.

Keywords: Organizational citizenship behavior, dimensionality, local government employees, Lagos, OCB scale

I. INTRODUCTION

Several studies about organizational behaviors (OCB) discipline within management studies leads to the development of certain constructs that explains employee behaviors in an organization. Organizational citizenship behaviors represent extra-role that employee undertake that goes beyond the call of duty to support an organization and its members (Glinska-Newes & Szostek, 2018). Kvitne, (2017) cited that Katz (1964) is of the opinion that behaviors which are cooperative and helpful are important for organizational operations. He acknowledged three broad types of behavior that are critical for organizational success. He posits that first; people must be motivated to remain with the organization. Second, the employees must understand and fulfill their role and requirements based on their job description. Third, he stated that organizations need employees that are willing to do more than is required of them. This last claim marks the beginning of OCB.

OCB was first defined by Organ (1988) as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2005, p. 3). This definition includes both behavior and outcome aspects and implies that citizenship behaviors are; 1) discretionary, and thus not a part of the formal job requirement, 2) not directly connected to formal rewards, and 3) beneficial for organizational efficiency (Lo & Ramayah, 2009). This definition is still frequently referred to but has received several criticisms. Critics have claimed that some employees might perceive elements of OCB as more or less part of their job, making the lines between discretionary behavior and job requirements less clear (Khan, Yasir, Mohd Yusof, Mohammad Saleem, & Khan, 2017). Another argument is that several organizational rewards are not contractually guaranteed by the formal reward system (e.g., promotion), and can be a beneficial outcome of engagement in OCB (Harvey, Bolino, & Kelemen, 2018). Organ (1997) answered this criticism by redefining OCB as “behaviors that are contributing to organizational efficiency by supporting the social and psychological environment where task performance takes place” (Mohammad, Habib, & Zakaria, 2010).

Since its emergence, OCB have received considerable research interest. Many studies have tried to identify the antecedents that can lead to OCB as well as OCB dimensions (e.g., Bateman and organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983; Organ, 1990; Moorman, 1993; Organ, 1994; Organ and Lingl, 1995; Skarlicki and Latham, 1996) (Farooqui, 2012). Most of the studies on the validation of Bateman and Organ, (1983)'s OCB scale, and its dimensionality were conducted in European context and Asian culture. Ideally, OCB should be conducted by keeping in view the cultural context. Podsakoff et al. (2000) cautioned that “cultural context may affect the forms of citizenship behavior observed in organizations” (p. 556). However, African culture that is known to be very rich and diverse may hold differences or similarities in terms perception of the people regarding OCB dimension with that

of developed countries and other locations. Therefore, it is anticipated that studying OCB in African culture, especially Nigeria would add value to the understanding of OCB literature and its practices. This study aims to contribute to the growing number of international and context specified studies on OCB by investigating the dimensionality of a specific OCB measure. It can also be assumed that the findings from this study will significantly contribute in the theory development and in practice.

More so, research about the specific factors that promote OCBs under differing organizational context is scarce (Mohammad et al., 2010). It has been observed from the literature that most studies on OCB were reported from private sector, with few researches were reported from the public sector. Nonetheless, research has been neglected particularly in local government (LGAs) setting and employees' voluntary behavior is quite important in public organizations such as the LGAs. Moreover, in the local government context, OCB have an important role in terms of analyzing the relationship that local government employees have with each other and with the organization. Therefore, this study would fill up this gap by considering the local government settings as its research setting. It is being anticipated that the nature of management and employee relationship may vary from one organizational setting to another. Thus, the objectives of this research is to examine the application, dimensionality and factor structure of organizational citizenship behavior scale among local government employees in Lagos, Nigeria and also to examine differences in organizational citizenship behavior based on differences in local government areas (LGAs).

II. LITERATURE

As described by Organ, Podsakoff, and Mackenzie (2006), organizational scholars have long argued that successful organizations are reliant on employees who will not only complete their formal tasks proficiently, but also engage in voluntary and spontaneous behaviors that support their coworkers and the organization more broadly (Harvey et al., 2018). Bateman and Organ (1983) published the first empirical examination of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and demonstrated that employees who were satisfied with their jobs engaged in higher levels of OCB, including behaviors like protecting organizational property, training and helping others to perform their jobs better, taking a personal interest in other employees, coming up with new ideas for handling work, cooperating well with those around them, refraining from complaining and finding fault with other employees, and so forth. Since this initial study, research on OCB has increased exponentially. By 2014, over 2,100 articles on OCB had been published, according to Podsakoff, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Maynes, and Spolma (2014). Generally speaking, researchers in organizational behavior tend to favor the OCB label, and they make a distinction between in-role (i.e., formally prescribed) job performance and OCB (Harvey et al., 2018).

Early research on OCB tends to focus on helping (often labeled "altruism") and generalized compliance, which is less interpersonal and involves behaviors like following rules, showing up regularly and on time, and not wasting time while at work (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Over the years, researchers identified a number of different conceptual frameworks that proposed different (but often very similar) types of OCB. Organ (1988) discussed five types of OCB – altruism (helping others), conscientiousness (being punctual and reliable), sportsmanship (refraining from complaining), courtesy (touching base with others), and civic virtue (being involved) and Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) developed a 24-item scale to measure these behaviors. A short time later, based on political science theories regarding behaviors that are critical for civic citizenship in society, Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) identified five different types of OCB – loyalty (defending the organization), obedience (being punctual and complying with rules), social participation (being involved), advocacy participation (being outspoken), and functional participation (taking on additional responsibilities and pursuing training) and developed a 34-item scale to measure them.

Furthermore, due to the varying antecedents and conditions that influence organizational behavior, it has been termed as a complex phenomenon (Khan et al., 2017). Bolino et al. (2012) argue that self-concept orientations implicitly affect individual development in OCB, as they highly affect what types of citizenship behaviors individuals engage in, when they decide to perform them and when they decide to modify their behavior. For example, they propose that employees with an individual self-concept orientation (i.e., either working or chronic) will be motivated to engage in OCB because of impression management motives, using OCB as a form of leverage to get what they want.

Employees with a relational self-concept orientation will be more motivated by pro-social motives and will therefore, engage more in OCB directed at other individuals in the organization. Based on feedback from their organizational environment, choices are made, planned, executed and evaluated in cycles over days, months or even years. These cycles will lead to both short-term fluctuations and long-term development in self-concept orientations, and thus also cause a development in the motivation for and engagement in OCB (Bolino et al., 2012). The benefit of the self-regulation approach to OCB is that it explicitly focuses on intra-individual development (i.e., chronic and working self-concepts) and why individuals might vary in this development (i.e., different self-orientations). However, considering the lack of longitudinal studies, the empirical grounding for these assumptions is scarce. In the following section, previous research on OCB dynamism will be discussed in terms of development and methodological issues (Khan et al., 2017).

According to Yen et al. (2008), there is a lack of consensus among previous researchers, regarding a model for OCB. They further added that multidimensional approach has been

used in defining the construct of OCB, having variations in the dimensions. Therefore, this study intend to review the previous literature on OCB, thereby providing key dimensions offered by several different scholars and further highlight the dimensions of OCB on which majority of the scholars have consensus for their importance in the conceptualization of OCB (Khan et al., 2017).

2.1 OCB Dimensionality

Despite the importance of examining organizational citizenship behaviors in organizations for leadership effectiveness and with the growing literature on OCB, there is diverse view, with no consensus regarding its dimensionality (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007). Podsakoff et al. (2000) argue that the lack of consensus may be attributed to researchers' emphasis on identifying potential antecedents and outcomes, rather than defining the nature of OCB itself (p. 516). However, some of the most commonly used dimensional frameworks are those developed by Smith, Organ and Near, (1983) and Williams and Anderson (1991) (Podsakoff et al., 2009).

The idea of OCB can be traced back to Katz (1964) who pointed out a set of discretionary behaviors that were essential for organizational effectiveness. Smith et al. (1983) conceptualized these behaviors as "organizational citizen behaviors" and suggested a two-dimensional framework, consisting of altruism (e.g., helping other individuals) and generalized compliance (e.g., abiding general laws, norms, and rules).

Organ (1988) deconstructed generalized compliance and expanded the taxonomy of OCB to include altruism, civic virtue (e.g., participation in meetings, offering suggestions to improve operations), conscientiousness (e.g., abiding rules and procedures), courtesy (e.g., being polite and considerate of others) and sportsmanship (e.g., not complaining about trivial matters). On the contrary, Williams and Anderson (1991) argued that OCB should be organized based on the direction of behaviors, rather than content. Mainly grounded in Organ's (1988) dimensions, they suggested a two-dimensional framework consisting of OCB-I and OCB-O. The OCB-I refers to beneficial behaviors directed at other individuals in the organization, as helping other colleagues and assisting supervisors without being asked, while OCB-O refers to behavior that benefits the organization in general, including adherence to informal rules and attendance at work above the norm (Williams & Anderson, 1991). The distinction between OCB-O and OCB-I have been supported by factor analysis and have been shown to relate to different antecedents (e.g., Turnley et al., 2003; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

OCBs are well recognized in management studies, including propositions of their measurement and identification of their antecedents. Surprisingly, less attention has been paid so far to an impact that an organization type, namely private or public, may have on OCB scope and frequency among

employees. The issue is particularly relevant as behaviors standing for opposite to OCB, i.e. so-called counter-productive work behaviors (CWB) are proved to appear more frequently in public sector organizations. It is hypothesized then that, by analogy, OCBs are more frequent among employees of the private sector (Glinska-Newes & Szostek, 2018).

Contemporary organizations of various kinds are more often than ever built on team-work. Consequently, their success is dependent on individual initiative and willingness to contribute to the collective results (LePine et al., 2002). Among various constructs identified in management studies, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) represent and explain particularly beneficial individual employee behaviors supporting overall organizational performance (Glińska - Neweś & Lis, 2016) (Glinska-Newes & Szostek, 2018).

As stated by LePine, Erez, and Johnson (2002), these behavioral dimensions have yet to be differentiated from one another in the empirical literature even though many scholars have claimed that OCB is composed of conceptually distinct behavioral dimensions. Studies have found that there are approximately 30 forms of citizenship behavior that have been developed (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000) and generally it can be grouped into seven dimensions known as, (i) Helping Behavior, (ii) Sportsmanship, (iii) Organizational Loyalty, (iv) Organizational Compliance, (v) Individual Initiative, (vi) Civic Virtue, and (vii) Self Development.

2.2 Theoretical Development in OCB

The OCB have traditionally been explained in terms of social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), even though, several alternative theoretical frameworks have been developed in an attempt to explain its dynamic nature, some of these frameworks are based on underlying assumption that citizenship behaviors are motivated behavior. Because of its discretionary nature, OCB has traditionally been seen as one of the core outcomes of social exchanges in the employment relationship (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Holmes, 1981) such exchanges are based on initiated and voluntary actions by either employer or employee and the expectation that the other party will eventually reciprocate these actions. If one party does not meet their obligations the imbalance in the exchange relationship will force the other party to either increase or withhold their efforts to restore equivalence (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). By following this argument, employees are expected to regulate their engagement in OCB relative to what they receive, or want to receive in the future, by their employer.

Organ (1987) argued that employees can choose to engage in OCB to reciprocate good or fair treatment from the organization or withhold such behavior if they feel unfairly treated. This implies that organizational citizenship behavior

develops as an effect of social exchanges between employees and their employers. However, SET does not make any suggestions to how this development evolves over time or how this development differs between individuals (Bolino et al., 2012; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Hence, building upon the social exchange theory, the purpose of this study is to assess the validity (content, construct, convergent, and discriminant) and reliability of Organ's (1983) measures of centralization and formalization and, thereby to add clarity to the operationalization of this construct (Lo & Ramayah, 2009).

III. METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted on local government employees in Lagos state, Nigeria. The study uses quantitative approach, where the data used in this study is from primary source obtained from distributing questionnaires to the respondents. The population of this study comprised of all the local governments' employees in Lagos State, whereas probability sampling technique was employed. In this probability sampling, multi-stage sampling technique was employed, which comprised of Simple random sampling where three (3) Local government councils were randomly selected out of the 20 LGAs in Lagos State. Secondly, proportionate sampling was employed to assign samples to each LGA based on the proportion of the population of employees in each LGA. Finally, due to lack of comprehensive list of the employees of the selected LGAs, simple random sampling technique cannot be used in selecting the individual samples. Thus, systematic random sampling was used in selecting the target respondents where every third employee was selected.

Data collection for this study was conducted by the researcher by administering the questionnaire to the target respondent. The study data collection was conducted using drop-and pick (self-administered) method of data collection. The survey was conducted between the months of February and March, 2018 with the help of enumerators who were trained about the content of the questionnaire. The sampled respondents were confronted with the questionnaire and asked for their consent to take part in the survey. The respondents were informed that all the information inquired are exclusively for academic purpose only, and would be kept confidential. This was done to reduce possible strategic bias that could occur if they perceived that their response would be made available they might ignore or avoid taking part in the survey (Mmopelwa, Kgathi, & Molefhe, 2007). Finally, the data obtained from the field was analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 23.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Socioeconomic characteristics of the respondent

The result of the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents is presented in Table 4.1. From the total number of respondents, the gender distribution shows that male were 221 (56.2%) of the respondents, while 172 (43.8%) were

female. This indicates that ratio of male is much higher than that of female in local government service in Lagos state. For marital status of the employees, the result showed that those who were married constitute the majority (232) 59.0%, single were 94 (23.9%), divorced were 46 (11.7%), while those responded as widow were 21 (5.3%). Based on the Job position, those on the junior staff cadre were the majority of the employees interviewed 235 (59.8%), the senior staffs were 110 (28.0), while those on the director's position were 48 (12.2%).

For the respondents' age distribution, majority of them (139) '35.4%' falls within the age range 29 years and below, while 126 (32.1%) were within the age range of 30-39. Those between the range of 40 to 49 were only 86 (21.9%), whereas those who are 50 years and above constitute the least category of the respondents (42) 10.7. On the level of education, those respondents who attended only secondary school were 95 (24.2%), those with either diploma or NCE were 140 (35.6%), while those with bachelor degree were 121 (30.8%) and lastly, MSc and PhD holders constitute only 37 (9.4%) of the total respondents. The result of the distribution of the employees based on departments have revealed that administrative staffs were 81 (20.6%), those in the department of agriculture were 85 (21.6%), those in education department were 95 (24.2%). Respondents in other departments such as health were 65 (16.51%), while those in works department were 67 (17.0%). Lastly, the distribution of the employees based on years they spent in services has revealed that those that worked for period of 1-9 years constitute the majority of the respondents (275) 70%, while those who spent 10-19 years in services were 62 (15.8%). Those that were within the range of 20-29 years in service were 39 (9.9%) and those who have been in services for 30 years and above were 17 (4.3%).

Table 0.1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

Variables		Frequency	Percentage
Gender			
	Male	221	56.2
	Female	172	43.8
Marital Status			
	Married	232	59.0
	Single	94	23.9
	Divorced	46	11.7
	Widow	21	5.3
Income			
	N 29,000 and below	129	32.8
	N 30,000 - 49,000	164	41.7
	N 50,000 - 69,000	78	19.8
	N 70,000 and above	22	5.6
Job Position			
	Junior Staff	235	59.8

	Senior Staff	110	28.0
	Director	48	12.2
Age			
	29 and below	139	35.4
	30-39	126	32.1
	40-49	86	21.9
	50 and above	42	10.7
Level of Education			
	Secondary School	95	24.2
	Diploma/ NCE	140	35.6
	Bachelor degree	121	30.8
	MSc/PhD	37	9.4
Department			
	Administration	81	20.6
	Agriculture	85	21.6
	Education	95	24.2
	Health	65	16.5
	Works	67	17.0
Years in services			
	1-9	275	70.0
	10-19	62	15.8
	20-29	39	9.9
	30 and above	17	4.3

4.2 The Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) operates on the notion that measurable and observable variables can be reduced to fewer latent variables that share a common variance and are unobservable, which is known as reducing dimensionality (Bartholomew, Knott, & Moustaki, 2011). This study employed the EFA in order to explore and assess the dimensionality of items measuring the OCB construct. Many researchers, for example Awang, (2014), Noor et al. (2015), and Yahaya et al. (2018) emphasized that the researcher needs to employ Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) procedure for every construct to determine if the dimensionality of items has changed from previous study where the dimensions were developed (Awang, 2015). The dimensionality of items may change when the existing study is different from previous study in terms of difference in industry, the difference in culture and socio-economic status between the two populations, and also the lapse in time (duration) between the existing study and the previous studies. In other words, the dimensions obtained by previous studies might not hold especially when the current study is conducted in different environment and different industry (Awang, 2014).

The factorability of the items measuring organization citizenship behavior among local government employees in Lagos state was examined. The results in Table 4.2 indicated that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .909, which is considered as 'excellent' (Field 2009) and it exceeded the minimum required value of 0.6. Any $KMO \geq .70$ indicates that the data is adequate for factor analysis (Awang, 2010). This KMO generally indicates whether or not the variables are able to be grouped into a smaller set of underlying factors and it ranges from 0 to 1. The Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2 (120) = 3073.403, p < .001$ was significant, showing a good correlations between the items for factor analysis. The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix (KMO for individual items) were all greater than 0.79, which is higher than the minimum acceptable limit of 0.50 (Field, 2009). Lastly, the communalities of the items were all above 0.3, indicating that the items shared some common variance with each other. Given all the results of these indicators, the suitability of the data for factor analysis with the 16 items is justified.

Table 0.2: The KMO and Bartlett's Test Score for the OCB Scale

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.909
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3073.403
	Df	120
	Sig.	.000

Two round of Principal components analysis (PCA) were conducted in this study with orthogonal rotation (varimax) and oblimin solutions (direct oblimin) on the 16 items measuring organizational citizenship behavior. The goal of rotation is to attain an optimal simple structure which attempts to have each variable load on as few factors as possible, but maximizes the number of high loadings on each variable (Gie Yong & Pearce, 2013). There was no much difference between the outcome of the varimax and oblimin solutions, however, after cross examination of the two solutions varimax was used, as it provides the best defined factor structure. The varimax minimizes the number of variables that have high loadings on each factor and works to make small loadings even smaller (Gie Yong & Pearce, 2013). Furthermore, Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) propose the use of orthogonal approach such as the varimax as their results are easier to interpret.

According to a rule of thumb, using an alpha level of .01 (two-tailed), a rotated factor loading for a sample size of at least 300 would need to be at least .32 to be considered statistically meaningful (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, a factor loading of .32 gives us approximately 10% of the overlapping variance (Gie Yong & Pearce, 2013). Two factors (dimensions) were extracted, which have eigen value greater than 1 (5.808 and 3.438), explaining 57.788% of the variance. From the rotated components matrix for the final solution, all items had primary loadings above 0.5, and thus, all contribute

to the simple factors’ structure. The factor loading of each of the 16 items retained in the final solution is presented in Table 4.3. Two factors were obtained and thus, their labels were maintained as ‘Altruism and Generalized Compliance’. This factor analysis indicated the two-dimension structure of the Smith et al., (1983) scale for measuring organizational citizenship behavior construct among local government employees in Lagos, Nigeria.

The Internal consistency for the items of the construct was examined using reliability analysis, where the Cronbach’s alpha value of the 16 items was obtained as 0.880 (see Table 4.3), which is considered ‘superb’ (Field, 2009). The construct was measured using the interval scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) with the given item statement. The item statements, mean score for each item and their standard deviation were obtained and presented in Table 4.3, showing higher mean score (on a 5-point likert scale). This indicated positive response to OCB.

Table 0.3. Exploratory Factor Analyses using Principal Component Analyses

	Item Statement:	Mean	Std. Dev.	Communalities	Factor Loadings	
				Extraction	Factor 1	Factor 2
OCB1	Helps others who have been absent	3.64	.875	.649	.761	
OCB2	Punctuality	3.66	.846	.707	.754	
OCB3	Volunteers for things that are not required	3.69	.892	.711	.752	
OCB4	Takes undeserved breaks	3.77	.828	.731	.751	
OCB5	Orients new people even though it is not required	3.75	.869	.708	.741	
OCB6	Attendance at work is above the norm	3.68	.816	.678	.732	
OCB7	Helps others who have heavy work loads	3.58	.872	.762	.714	
OCB8	Coasts towards the end of the day	3.75	.835	.748	.706	
OCB9	Gives advance notice if unable to come to work	3.72	.833	.663	.691	
OCB10	Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations	3.68	.840	.702	.680	
OCB11	Does not take unnecessary time off work	3.78	.877	.704		.842
OCB12	Assists supervisor with his or her work	3.76	.859	.749		.840
OCB13	Makes innovative suggestions to improve department	3.72	.799	.735		.816
OCB14	Does not take extra breaks	3.77	.889	.742		.772
OCB15	Attend functions not required but that help organizational image	3.80	.860	.728		.756
OCB16	Does not spend time in idle conversation	3.76	.893	.658		.741
Eigenvalue				8.105		
% of Variance Explained				50.656		
Cronbach Alpha				.935		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. 2 components extracted.

4.3 The Employee Level of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In order to examine the employees’ level of organizational citizenship behavior, composite score for the 16-items was computed as a single OCB construct, and thus index was formed. It was categorized into; high level of OCB, moderate level of OCB and low level of OCB. The descriptive statistic of these categories is presented as frequency and percentage in Figure 4.1. The result shows that the employees that

exhibited high level of organizational citizenship behavior were 259 (65.9%), those who show moderate level of organizational citizenship behavior constituted 86 (21.9%), whereas the last category that exhibited low level of organizational citizenship behavior were 48 (12.2%). This study outcome has shown that majority of the local government employees in Lagos state exhibited high level of organizational citizenship behavior, which is an indication of higher organizational performance.

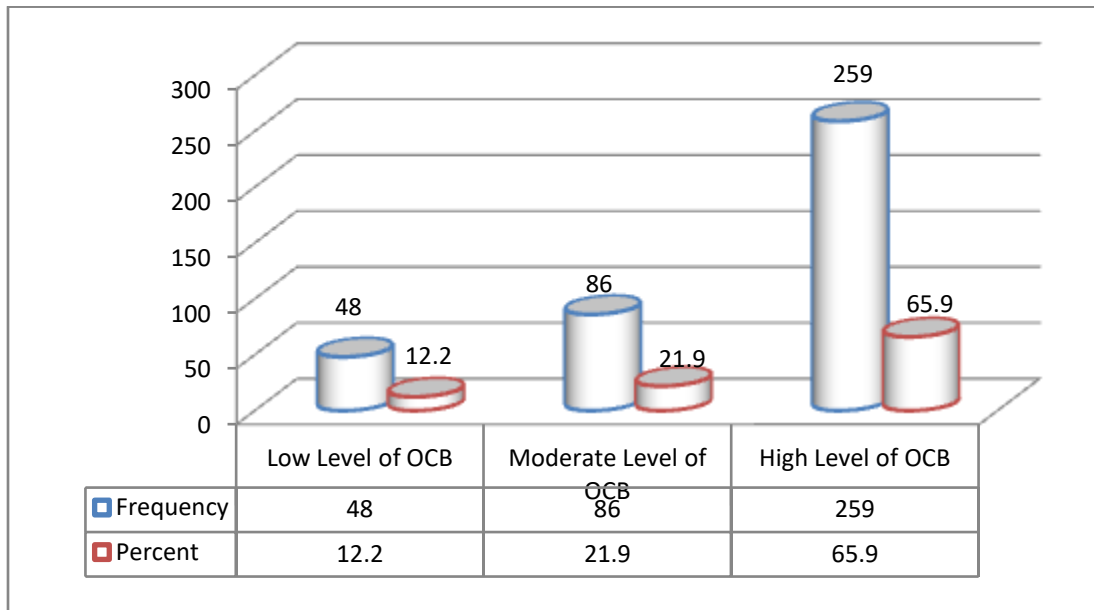


Figure 0.1 The Employee Level of Job Performance

4.4 Differences in Level of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Based on Local Government Areas (LGAs)

In order to see whether there is significant difference in OCB based on Local Government Areas, analyses of variance (ANOVA) test was carried out. The ANOVA result (Table 4.4) on organizational citizenship behavior has also shown a statistically significant different outcome, $F(2,390) = 4.256, p = 0.015$. The mean value and standard deviation obtained

(61.43±9.24) indicated that the employees of Lagos Island local government area revealed high OCB, followed by those of Apapa LGA with mean and standard deviation values= 58.84±9.16. However, the employees of Ikeja LGA have exhibited the least OCB with mean and standard deviation score of 57.99 ±10.64. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that employees of Lagos Island exhibited highest level of organizational citizenship behavior compared to employees of Apapa and Ikeja LGAs.

Table 0.4 ANOVA Results of Differences in OCB based on LGAs

Variables	LGAs	N	Mean	Std. Dev	Df	F	Sig.
Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	Ikeja	141	57.99	10.64	(2, 390)	4.256	.015
	Apapa	120	58.84	9.16			
	Lagos Island	132	61.43	9.24			

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The positive contribution of OCB to organizational performance and understanding the importance of the dimensionality of OCB can be extremely useful for organizational behavior studies. Although the dimensionality of OCB has been studied in previous researches, no known researches have been found to empirically study the dimensionality of OCB in the Nigerian context. Hence, this study has added to the growing body of research in OCB by examining the factor structure, reliability as well as dimensionality of Smith et al., (1983) scale for measuring OCB. The study outcome proves that the Smith et al., (1983) scale comprises of two factors namely altruism and generalized compliance in Nigerian context.

The results of this study show some interesting similarities and differences concerning the dimensionality of OCB. Thus, having a guide like the present study to follow can be very helpful to researchers in OCB related areas. Although the study has provided sufficient insights into the dimensions of OCB, the results could not be generalized in view of the fact that all the data were taken from the same source and there is a possibility of common methods variance. Thus, longitudinal studies are likely to provide a better insight into the dimensionality of OCB over a period of time. It is unclear whether the findings may have the same implications for OCB in different cultural environment as the views of the participants in this current study area might not necessarily represent the views of other employees in other part of the country. Comparative studies across geographical locations, professions, cultures, and industries are needed in order to

truly understand the dimensionality of the construct in African countries such as Nigeria.

REFERENCE

- [1]. Awang, Z. (2014). Validating the Measurement Model : Cfa. In *Hand Book of SEM* (2nd ed., pp. 54–73). MPWS Rich Resources.
- [2]. Awang, Z. (2015). *SEM made simple: A guide to learning Structural Equation Modeling. Structural Equation Modelling using amos grafic.*
- [3]. Bartholomew, D., Knott, M., & Moustaki, I. (2011). *Latent Variable Models and Factor Analysis: A Unified Approach: 3rd Edition. Latent Variable Models and Factor Analysis: A Unified Approach: 3rd Edition.* <http://doi.org/10.1002/9781119970583>
- [4]. Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job Satisfaction and the Good Soldier: The Relationship Between Affect and Employee "Citizenship". *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 587–595. <http://doi.org/10.2307/255908>
- [5]. Farooqui, M. R. (2012). Measuring Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) as a Consequence of Organizational Climate (OC). *Asian Journal of Business Management*, 4(3), 294–302. <http://doi.org/www.maxwellsci.com/print/ajbm/v4-294-302.pdf>
- [6]. Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistics Using Spss.* London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- [7]. Gie Yong, A., & Pearce, S. (2013). A Beginner's Guide to Factor Analysis: Focusing on Exploratory Factor Analysis. *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology*, 9(2), 79–94.
- [8]. Glinska-Newes, A., & Szostek, D. (2018). ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR *. *International Journal of Contemporary Management*, 17(1), 45–58. <http://doi.org/10.4467/24498939IJCM.18.003.8382>
- [9]. Harvey, J., Bolino, M. C., & Kelemen, T. K. (2018). Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the 21 st Century : How Might Going the Extra Mile Look Different at the Start of the New Millennium ? Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the 21st Century : How Might Going the Extra Mile Look Different at the St. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 36(July). <http://doi.org/10.1108/S0742-730120180000036002>
- [10]. Khan, H., Yasir, M., Mohd Yusof, H., Mohammad Saleem, M., & Khan, N. U. (2017). A REVIEW OF THE CONCEPTUALIZATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR. *City University Research Journal*, (2013), 81–87.
- [11]. Kvitne, M. B. (2017). *Development of Organizational Citizenship Behavior and the Effect of Psychological Contract Fulfillment.*
- [12]. Lo, M.-C., & Ramayah, T. (2009). Dimensionality of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) in a Multicultural Society: The Case of Malaysia. *International Business Research*, 2(1), 48–55. <http://doi.org/10.5539/ibr.v2n1p48>
- [13]. Mmopelwa, G., Kgathi, D. L., & Molefhe, L. (2007). Tourists ' perceptions and their willingness to pay for park fees : A case study of self-drive tourists and clients for mobile tour operators in Moremi Game Reserve , Botswana. *Tourism Management*, 28, 1044–1056. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2006.08.014>
- [14]. Mohammad, J., Habib, F. Q., & Zakaria, S. (2010). ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR AND COMMITMENT: DO AGE AND TENURE MAKE ANY DIFFERENCE ? *BMQR*, 1(3).
- [15]. Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics* (5th ed.). Boston: Pearson.