



COMMUNICATION PATTERNS AND TEAM SPIRITUALITY OF ACADEMIC STAFF OF PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN BAYELSA AND RIVERS STATES, NIGERIA

ELIA ERNEST OMILOLI, PhD

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT
NIGER DELTA UNIVERSITY
WILBERFORCE ISLAND
BAYELSA STATE

ABSTRACT : Organizational team spirit should not be regarded as an end in itself for as old employees leave an organization and are replaced with new ones, organizational team spirit dynamics changes. Organizations should rather strive for team spirituality - an organization-wide consciousness to continuously cultivate, nurture and sustain team spirit within the organization. Hence the need to understand factors that affect and are affected by team spirituality within organizations. As misunderstanding among organizational members occasioned by miscommunication can have adverse organizational consequences, this study examined the correlation between communication patterns and team spirituality. Intrapersonal communication and extrapersonal communication constituted communication patterns dimensions while supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness were measures of team spirituality, with corporate culture as a moderating variable. The study population comprised private secondary school teachers in Government-approved private secondary schools in Bayelsa and Rivers States of Nigeria. Using stratified random sampling technique, copies of researcher-designed questionnaire were distributed to a total sample size of 561 teachers from private secondary school teachers in Bayelsa and Rivers State, which was determined with the Taro Yamane (1967) formula. Nine research questions and nine hypotheses were posed for the study in line with the study objectives; descriptive statistics were used to analyze the responses to the questionnaire questions while Pearson Product Moment correlation co-efficient (r) was employed as the inferential statistics to test the research hypotheses. Findings of the study showed that Intrapersonal communication positively and significantly correlated to team spirituality dimensions of supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness; that extrapersonal communication positively and significantly correlated to team spirituality dimensions of supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness ; and that corporate culture does moderate the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality. Hence the need for organizations to increase interactions amongst employees and between employees and supervisors so as to engender team spirituality.

Keywords: Co-worker support, Extrapersonal communication, Intrapersonal Communication, Mentoring, Selflessness, Supervisor support, Team Spirituality

CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Business organizations need communication to thrive, especially in today's highly dynamic business environment. As systems theorists pointed out, interaction and interdependence between the subsystems of an organization determines organizational success (Gordon, 2021). Interaction presupposes communication between two or more persons. Indeed, Communication, the exchange of meaningful content between parties, is essential for the optimal attainment of organizational goals as well as the viability of the organization (Keyton, 2011). Indeed, without communication, there would be no organization (Agulanna & Awujo, 2011).

At work, employees, like all human beings, communicate consciously and or unconsciously, verbally and or symbolically, intrapersonally and extrapersonally. Intrapersonal communication refers to communication within an individual (Brinthaup, 2019; Eugenio-Vela, 2012; Karczewski & Karczewski, 2018). Within the organizational setting, intrapersonal communication occurs prior to, during or after communication with other employees or supervisors. McLean (2005) enumerated selftalk, recall, memory, acts of imagination and visualization, as forms of intrapersonal communication. For dialogical self-theorists, intrapersonal communication derives from a communicant's personal experience as well as everything around him or her (Hermans, 2003; Hermans & Hermans-Konopka, 2010; Van Raalte, Vincent & Dickens, 2019). Extrapersonal communication, on the other hand, entails the communication between an individual and other person in the organization, whether at the same hierarchical level (lateral communication), higher levels (upward communication), or lower levels (downward communication). Extrapersonal communications are varied in tone and content, from directives passed down from supervisors to employees; reports, recommendations or suggestions sent upwards from subordinates to supervisor; to informal communication between colleagues (Eze, 2006).

Both intrapersonal and extrapersonal communications, which constitute organizational communication, can either be task or social in orientation. While task related intrapersonal communication includes recall of organizational procedures while working, socially oriented organizational communication occurs during sessions of supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness among employees.

Supervisor support is the conviction of employees that their organization cares about their welfare; that they are recognized as human resources by their organization and valued for their input and contributions toward the attainment of organizational objectives (Burns, 2016; Geldenhuys, 2020; Kumar, Duggirala, Hayatnagarkar & Balaraman, 2017; Powell, 2011). Mentoring is a professional relationship between two persons: a mentor and a mentee, where the mentor, who is more knowledgeable and experienced, shares knowledge, insights, and wisdom with a mentee, who is less knowledgeable and experienced, albeit with respect to a particular area (Lagace-Roy & Knackstedt, 2007). Though mentoring, like supervisor support, is usually a top-down relationship, that is from someone on a higher hierarchy to another on a lower hierarchy, mentoring may occur between persons at the same hierarchical level, otherwise known as peer mentoring (Allen, Russell & Maetzke, 1997).

Co-worker support is the support received by workers from organizational members at the same level as them (Ergun & Nartgun, 2017). Co-worker support is advantageous to the employee and organization because it helps organizational members remain focused on the task at hand, resolve conflicts amicably and creates affinity among organizational members (Martinez-Cort, 2011). Selflessness within the organizational context is the intent of employees to make the work experience of other employees and or management as seamless as possible without coercion or prompting. That is, selflessness or altruism is help arising from the genuine motivation to curb the distress or improve the well-being of other persons in the organization without prompting (Moss, 2016). Selfless employees are usually willing to help orient new workers, help relieve sick employees or co-workers with heavy work load, all without prompting from Management.

Task and socially oriented organizational communication must take place within, as well as across organizational structures for the attainment of organizational goals. Adu-Oppong and Agyin- Birikorang (2014) found that organizational communication also facilitates the building of loyalty and trust, the formation of relationships, increased job satisfaction, increased productivity, proper utilization of resources and reduced conflicts. For these benefits to accrue to organizations, however, organizations must not just communicate but communicate effectively. Communication is said to be effective when common understanding is reached between communicants (Lunenburg, 2010a; Ondondo, 2015) and when there is absence of noise in the communication process (Keyton, 2010; Shaw, 2011).

Every organization has a corporate culture that influences the communication and interactions among members (Tarver, 2021). Corporate culture is the complete re-orientation of organizational members through the organization's way of life in such a way that the organization and its members are distinct from other organizations and their members (Hofstede, 2011). An organization's corporate culture entails the beliefs, behaviours, values, rituals, practices, and its general way of life (Hofstede, 2012; Tarver, 2021). It is unique to each organization and it is discernible from the organizational members ways of interactions and carrying on business (Koontz & Weihrich, 1990). The team spirituality of an organization is also unique to the organization. Team spirituality is an organization-wide consciousness and drive to cultivate, nurture and sustain team spirit among organizational members. Team spirit, which entails comradeliness amongst organizational members, engenders smooth working conditions within the organization (Ahmed, 2019a).

Though having employees with team spirit is highly desirable, it should not be regarded as an end by itself, for the level of team spirit would vary as employees move out of, and new employees move into the organization. Organizations should strive to continuously cultivate, nurture and sustain team spirit amongst employees because employees may choose to leave an organization at any time, for a variety of reasons. Lee, Hung and Chen (2012) listed poor organizational cohesiveness among employees, employees not understanding the corporate culture or not fitting into the organization, and lack of sense of belonging,

as factors that could cause employees to leave an organization. Other authors and scholars have mainly focused on the link between communication and organizational performance (Adu-Oppong & Agyin- Birikorang, 2014; Mishra, Boynton & Mishra 2014); and team spirit and employees isolation, motivation, and consensus building (Chen, Liou, Wang, Fan, & Chi, 2007; Clark, 2003; Troen & Boles, 2010). However, it does appear that the link between communication pattern and team spirituality has not been investigated. Hence this study seeks to investigate the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality with corporate culture as a moderating variable.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In the course of organizational life, employees communicate intrapersonally and extrapersonally within and across organizational structures in a bid to facilitate the attainment of individual and organizational goals. These communicative exchanges can be task and or socially oriented. Misunderstanding amongst organizational members occasioned by miscommunication would portend adverse organizational consequences. As evidenced by various studies, organizational communication is positively linked to improved performance and productivity, as well as employees' job satisfaction (Carriere and Bourque, 2009; Kibe, 2014; Tuerah, Panagalila, Najoan, & Korompis, 2019; Udegbe, Akintola, & Ganiyat, 2012; Yildirim, 2014). Recent empirical studies have also positively linked team spirit to increased productivity and job satisfaction (Armendariz, 2012; Kemanci, 2018; Koster, 2014; Lee, Gillespie, Mann & Wearing, 2010; Qureshi, Hamid, Jeihoony, Ali, Brohi ... Shah, 2018).

However, as old employees leave an organization and are replaced with new employees, organizational communication and team spirit are affected until the new employees are assimilated into the organization. Rollag, Parise and Cross (2005) revealed that when employees leave an organization, the organization suffers a shift in dynamics as other organizational members feel their absence for some time until the replacements are properly integrated into the organization. As various authors have noted that turnover is high in private secondary schools (Heller, 2004; Oke, Ajagbe, Ogbari & Adeyeye, 2016; Okeke, Okaforcha & Ekwesianya, 2019), management of private secondary schools should not regard team spirit as an end, but rather strive to attain team spirituality. That is, the goal of the organizations should be to have a corporate culture that continuously cultivates, nurtures and sustains team spirit through supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness.

Though literature is replete with benefits of team spirit (Fapohunda, 2013; Mintrom, 2010; Sahu, 2015; Silva, Cunha, Clegg, Neves, & Rodrigues, 2014; Skripak, 2016), and how effective communication facilitates the attainment of organizational objectives (Agulanna & Awujo, 2011; Keyton, 2011); there is however a dearth of studies linking communication patterns and team spirituality. This research gap - the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality, with corporate culture as a moderating variable - would be investigated in this study.

1.2.1 A profile of private Secondary Schools in Bayelsa and Rivers State

Private secondary schools in Bayelsa and Rivers States, like their public school counterparts, are established to provide six years of schooling to students between the ages of 11 and 19 and it builds on the foundation set during the primary education to prepare students for post secondary education and indeed life out of school (Garba, 2012). Private secondary schools however differ from public secondary schools in terms of ownership, level of monitoring, availability of facilities, quality of teachers, class size, parental involvement and even parental income (Olasheinde & Olatoye, 2014; Ozcan & Zabadi, 2015).

Amongst the private secondary schools variations also exist; ownership of private secondary schools range from private individuals to corporate and religious bodies. Private secondary schools also differ in size and structure, from the numerous small, unregistered and unapproved private secondary schools ('Mushroom' schools) -operating in private residence, rooms or make shift structures to big private secondary schools having proper educational facilities such as Boarding houses, school buses, blocks of classrooms, well stocked libraries, staffrooms, equipped laboratories, workshops, audio-visual aids and playgrounds (Agboghroma & Okose, 2017; Awodipe, 2016; Fasuba, 2019; Obajemu, 2017; Oke & Ihenetu, 2018; Sabitu, Babatunde & Oluwole, 2012).

Quality of teachers of private secondary schools also varies according to the size and approval status of the schools in Bayelsa and Rivers States. As the employment of teachers with teaching qualification is a pre-requisite for Government approval, big private secondary schools employ only certified teachers unlike the "mushroom" schools that employ anyone who can teach. Adekola (2010), however, noted that for anyone to be called a professional teacher, he or she must possess at least a National Certification of Education (NCE).

As noted earlier, turnover is high in private secondary school (Heller, 2004; Oke, Ajagbe, Ogbari & Adeyeye, 2016; Okeke, Okaforcha & Ekwesianya, 2019). Ehigiamusoe's (2012) averment that the average monthly teacher salary in a public school is between three and four times higher than in private school might be a reason for the high turnover in private secondary schools, as this disparity in salary could act as temptation to lure qualified private secondary school teacher to public secondary schools. Worse still, some private secondary school teachers seek better paid employment outside the teaching profession (Abdullahi, n.d). Hence the need for private secondary schools to strive to retain their teachers.

1.3 Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is a set of ideas that, when taken as a whole, explain a phenomenon in great detail (Jabareen, 2009). This research uses corporate culture as a moderator to investigate how different types of communication (intrapersonal and extrapersonal) relate to different aspects of team spirituality (supervisor support, mentorship, coworker support, and selflessness). Figure 1 below illustrates diagrammatically, the conceptual framework of this study.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

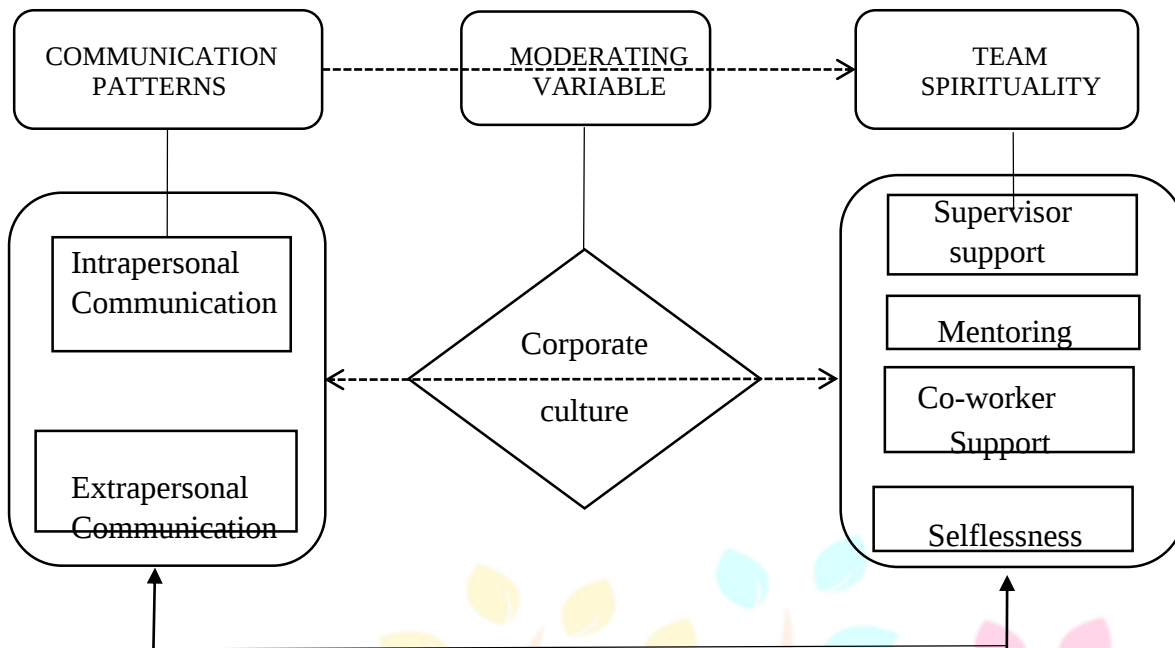


Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework showing the hypothetical relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality with corporate culture as a moderating factor

1.4 Aim and Objectives

Specifically, this study aimed to determine whether or not corporate culture acts as a moderating factor between communication styles and team spirituality.

1. Determine the relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support.
2. Ascertain the relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring.
3. Assess the relationship between intrapersonal communication and co-worker support.
4. Investigate the relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness.
5. Determine the relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support.
6. Ascertain the relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring.
7. Determine the relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support.
8. Investigate the relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness.
9. Assess how Corporate culture significantly moderates the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality.

1.5 Research Questions

Drawing from the research objectives above, the following are the research questions of this study:

1. What is the relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support?
2. What is the relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring?
3. What is the relationship between intrapersonal communication and co-worker support?
4. What is the relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness?
5. What is the relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support?
6. What is the relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring?
7. What is the relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support?
8. What is the relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness?
9. How does corporate culture significantly moderate the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality?

1.6 Research Hypotheses

This investigation was based on the following hypotheses:

1. There is no significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support.
2. There is no significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring.
3. There is no significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and co-worker support.
4. There is no significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness.
5. There is no significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support.
6. There is no significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring.
7. There is no significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support.
8. There is no significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness.
9. Corporate culture does not significantly moderate the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality.

1.7 Scope of the Study

Content Scope: The content scope of this study stretched across the theoretical domains of communication patterns dimensions of intrapersonal and extrapersonal communication, team spirituality measures - supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness, and corporate culture.

Geographical Scope: The study was delimited to two states – Bayelsa and Rivers States of Nigeria.

Unit of Analysis: The unit of analysis of this study was individual employees (academic staff) of private secondary schools in Bayelsa and Rivers State of Nigeria. The level of analysis was the micro level of analysis.

1.8 Significance of the Study

This study would be significant because it seeks to establish a direct link between intrapersonal and extrapersonal communications and team spirituality measures - supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness. The results of the study of the link between communication patterns and team spirituality in private secondary schools would also be of immense benefits to proprietors/proprietresses, administrators and principals of private secondary schools. Human Resources Managers in general would also find the findings of this study insightful as they would better cultivate, nurture and sustain team spirit among organizational members. This study would also be valuable to researchers in general.

1.9 Operational Definition of Terms

To avoid misconception, the following terms used in this study are operational defined thus:

Communication: the exchange of meaningful content between two communicants in an organization

Communication patterns: Communication patterns are the forms of communication. This study operationalizes communication patterns as intrapersonal communication (communication within an employee) and extrapersonal communication (communication between an employee and colleagues), whether at the same hierarchical level, lower or higher hierarchical level.

Corporate culture: the predominant beliefs, values, attitudes, behaviours, and practices that define an organization and influences employees' interactions within and outside the organization

Co-worker support: The support an employee receives from colleagues at the same hierarchical level

Culture: The collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one society (organization) from another

Extrapersonal Communication: Communications between an employee and his or her colleagues at the same, lower or higher hierarchical level

Intrapersonal Communication: Communication within an employee prior to, during or after communications with his or her colleagues

Mentoring: A professional relationship between a more experienced organizational member (mentor) and a less experienced organizational member (mentee), in which the mentor shares knowledge, insight and wisdom with the mentee

Organizational members: Organizational members in this study would mainly refer to teachers, Heads of Departments (supervisors) and principals of private secondary schools

Selflessness: The willingness of organizational members to help colleagues without prompting

Supervisor support: The extent to which employees feel heard, cared for and valued by their supervisor

Team: A group of persons with complementary skills who work together to achieve an objective

Team Spirit: Camaraderie and feeling of togetherness that enable organizational members work harmoniously for the attainment of organizational objectives

Team spirituality: The cultivation, nurturing and sustenance of team spirit amongst organizational members. This study operationalizes measures of team spirituality as extent of supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness among employees.

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Conceptual Review

2.1.1 Communication Patterns

Communication patterns constitute a sub-set of organizational communication depicting levels of communicative exchange - intrapersonal and extrapersonal communication - of organizational members. The relevance of organizational communication to the successful operations of organizations is well acknowledged in literature. Bagobiri and Kassah (2017) described communication as a lubricant which fosters the smooth operation of the management process. Eze (2006) avers that communication, which is a basic working skill essential for the sound performance of Human Resource Manager's job, takes up 75 to 80 percent of the time of all sorts of managers in organizations. Adeleke (2012) stressed the significance of clear and open lines of communication between supervisors and their reports (subordinate). Within the organizational setting, business communication is involved in every process from determining problems within the organization, coming up with the solutions and letting others know in the best possible ways (Business Communication for success, 2015).

Communication within the organization is analogous to communication within societies, and an understanding of organizational communication and particularly communication patterns, is predicated on an understanding of the communication itself. The Latin word "communis," meaning "to make common," is where we get our word "communication." Building from this etymological root of the word, communication involves making thoughts, opinions or feelings common (knowledge). Wambui, Kibui & Gathuthi (2012) stated that when people communicate, they are trying to establish 'commonness' with someone. Another Latin term linked to Communication is 'communicare' which means to share. Some definitions of communication draw from this etymological root: Communication is the exchange of information between people (Pearson & Nelson, 2000); communication means the system of information transfer among people (Katz, 2014). Communication is therefore the exchange of meaningful content between parties.

A communicative exchange is a process. This means that communication has a series of steps that can be taken to arrive at a given end. The communication process presents the elements and steps that are involved in the exchange of ideas, opinions and meaningful content between communicants. For Ndimele and Innocent (2016) communication as a process means the transmission of information and messages which can impact positively or negatively on behaviour. Their definition here draw attention to the eventual outcome of the communication process. Various models have been put forward to explain the communication process, ranging from the linear model, through the interactional, and to the transactional communication model.

Linear Communication Model: Harold Lasswell's (1948) iconic model is one of the first communication models. He conceptualized the communication process as a chain of questions: WHO? SAYS WHAT? IN WHAT CHANNEL? TO WHOM? WITH WHAT EFFECT? For instance, in a classroom during classes, the teacher teaching constitutes the *who* the subject matter is the *says what*, speech is the *in what channel*, the students in the classroom is the *to whom*, while the lessons learnt is then the *with what effect*. Similarly, within the organization, one organizational member (a manager for instance) can communicate business policy with others in the organization through email and the action taken is then the effect of the communicative process.

Lasswell's model was rather simplistic and did not take into cognizance two very important communication elements – noise and feedback. Subsequent models like the Shannon and Weaver (1948) 'mathematical' model addressed this deficiency as their model integrated more elements and was less linear in nature and closer to an actual communicational encounter. However, though the Shannon-Weaver model incorporated the element of feedback, the model is still pretty much linear in nature because according to the model, communicants can either be sender or receiver but not both; and the model provides for only one channel for only one message (Corey, 2019). This implies that when the teacher is teaching, the teacher is the sender but when a student has a question or answers one, the roles reverse and the teacher becomes the receiver. The model does not take into cognizance the non-verbal signals of the students (which makes them senders even while they are receivers of the teacher's communication) and the teacher's reception of the students' non-verbal cues (which makes the teacher simultaneously a sender and a receiver).

Interactional Communication model: With Interactional models communication is an on-going process with communicants alternating sender/receiver positions. These models also introduced the element of the communicants' field of experience – physical and psychological context of the communicants. A person's field of experience which draws from the person's environment, experiences and culture, colours a person's thought process which in turn influences the person's communication. Corey (2019) stated that each communicative exchange is different because each communicant has a unique sphere of experience that moulds their communications with others. In spite of the improvements of the interactional model over the linear model, the interactional model still has some deficiencies.

Transactional models: For transactional models, both parties are responsible for how the communicative exchange turns out (Corey, 2019). Communication, according to Corey (2019), is "the process through which meaning is created, interpreted, and negotiated," all of which are central to the transactional model of communication. Thus, the final product of the communication process is negotiated. Even when a person sets out to 'tell' another something, the communication process is affected by many factors such as the environment and feedback received. Noise, another factor that affects the communication process, refers to something that distorts the effective encoding, sending, reception or decoding of communicated stimuli, thus preventing the intended meaning from being reached (McLean, 2005). Noise can occur at any point in the communication process.

Human beings, as social beings, are communicating beings and cannot refrain from communicating because communication is essential for the survival of all sentient being. Humans communicate for survival at the personal, interpersonal and societal

levels. This is evidenced by the *lamina terminalis* in the brain alerting humans of the need to rehydrate when the body needs more water; neonates communicating to caregivers (through crying) their need for sustenance, a change, or attention; talking drums alerting villagers of danger or issuing warnings to other villages in indigenous West African societies (Frank, 2019; Perry, 2020; Rodriguez, 2016). Organizations also need communication to remain viable.

Various studies (Hoerr, 2018; Mishra et al., 2014; Mukharl & Prasetyo, 2020) have shown that communication is linked to the successful attainment of organizational objectives. Akpotu (2019) placed communication practices at the centre of all workplace activities. Lawal (1993) stated that communication forms the basic foundation for the interaction between persons within and outside an organization. Indeed, communication is essential for every aspect of organizational life and the successful attainment of business objectives, as communication serves myriad of purposes within business organizations. For Agulanna and Awujo (2011), ultimately, communication should engender enhanced performance by facilitating understanding amongst organizational members. Diverse other ways that communication serves organizations including: allowing managers to share goals with shareholders; exchanging opinion, providing feedback, stimulating behaviour changes in employees; inspiring loyalty from employees (Markovic & Salamzadeh, 2018; Udegbe, Akintola & Ganiyat, 2012).

Informational, emotional, creative, persuasive, and ritualistic are the five additional functions of communication recognized by Britannica (2021). The transmission of information, such as data, between individuals is facilitated through means of communication. Within an organization such as a school, informative communication include lesson notes of teachers, time tables, school policies. Affective communication - communication aids the sharing of emotions. With or without words, a teacher could communicate that s/he is not having a nice day and would therefore need co-worker support. Imaginative communication - communication aids creative expression, self-talk and daydreaming. Art works, fictional stories and poems all represent forms of creative communication within a school setting. Persuasive communication - communication aids attempts to influence, motivate or change another's opinion or beliefs. Employees use persuasive communication during meetings, especially when there are divergent views. A teacher seeking to reduce his/her workload would use persuasive communication with the principal. Ritualistic communication - communication aids the transmission of social expectations. Ritualistic communication is especially relevant for sustenance of corporate culture. New employees learn the way things are done in the organization through ritualistic communication.

2.1.2 Forms of organizational communication

Besides intrapersonal and extrapersonal categorization of organizational communication (organizational communication patterns), Organizational communication can be also be classified into verbal/non-verbal as well as formal/informal communication. These forms of communication are subsumed within intrapersonal and extrapersonal communication, thereby making them pertinent to this study.

Verbal Communication: Verbal communication entails communicating with words, sounds, language and speaking (Fatimayin, 2018). Human beings communicate verbally in all spheres of live. Within the business setting, verbal communication has to do with the various utilization of words among organizational members in personal conversations or through official mediated means (Locker and Kaczmarek, 2014). Verbal communication does not however preclude written communication, as whenever words are utilized in communication, the communication is verbal in nature. Thus, verbal communication can be oral or written. Verbal communication occurs during discussions between colleagues, a supervisor and employee, a teacher in front of classroom of students, as well as when an employee writes a report to his/her superior or minutes of meetings are taken. Through questions and answers, communicants have an opportunity to clarify grey areas. Verbal communication proficiencies – oral and written – are important to organizational efficiency.

Non-verbal communication: Any communicative exchange where words - written or oral – are not utilized in the exchange of meaningful content. Non-verbal communication may be voluntary or involuntary. People, unconsciously and regularly, communicate non-verbally in their personal and professional lives. Ukonu and wogu (2017) revealed that Africa is known for rich diversity of gestural signals, music and dance, drum messages and signal fires. Eze (2006) avers that a lot of unconscious communication takes place in work places, as feelings of likeness, hatred, trust and distrust get communicated through attitudes. Gestures, paralanguage, space, dressing, tone, facial expressions, body position, all constitute forms of non-verbal communication (Adu-Oppong & Agyin-Birikorang, 2014; Business communication for success, 2015; Fatimayin, 2018; Wambui et al., 2012). Peter Drucker cited in Business communication for success (2015) noted that in communicating, communicants must pay close attention and discern what is not said in the communicative exchange.

Organizations are mindful of this form of communication because of its distinctive characteristics as it is used internationally; includes both intentional and unintentional messages; non-verbal communication is contextual – contextual clues aid understanding; non-verbal communication is continuous – one non-verbal cue can blend into another; non-verbal communication, especially unintentional non-verbal communication can however contradict verbal communication (Business communication for success, 2015; Wambui et al., 2012)

Formal Communication: Formal communication is the controlled flow of official communication within an organization through pre-defined channels. This form of communication is geared towards achieving a particular goal, unambiguous, has well-established channels and procedure (Gomez & Dailey, 2017). Wambui et al. (2012) stated that formal communication which occurs in professional settings, corporate meetings and conferences, follows certain rules, conventions and principles for the communication of messages. Similarly, for Wrench and Punyanunt-Carter (2012), formal communication can help organizations to set out prescribed interactional behaviour within the organization. Directives (oral or written) from the Principal to teachers, minutes of meetings, end of term assessment reports submitted by teachers, appointment letters of newly employed teachers, lesson notes and lesson plans submitted to supervisors, a proposal for inter-house sports competition from the Games master, all constitute formal communication within a school environment. Formal communication also features during supervisor-

subordinate and mentor-mentee interactions as well as during co-workers work-related interactions. All organizations have a formal communication system which entails the route formal communication follows around the organization.

Informal communication: Organizational Informal communication, also referred to as grapevine, refers to voluntary and unstructured information exchange. It can be amongst organizational members or between organizational members and outsiders. Informal communication system affects the organization (positively or negatively) as it transmits information through channels not accounted for in the formal system. Bittel (1978) defined the grapevine as the channel, usually an oral, one-to-one channel, through which rumours can spread throughout the organization extremely rapidly. Similarly, Lawal (1993) described grapevine as consisting of rumours, gossips and truthful information. Alparslan and Kılınç (2015) described informal communication as the social glue in the work place that recognizes social needs of persons in the organization.

Features of informal communication that distinguish it from formal communication include: spontaneity, increased interactivity, it travels faster and has a richer content, it does not follow pre-determined paths, tends to occur in face to face communication, develops and strengthens personal relationships in the workplace, thereby improving job satisfaction (Alparslan, & Kılınç, 2015; Lawal, 1993; Wambui et al., 2012). Informal communication can thus be used to promote perceptions of supervisor support and co-worker support. Though mentor-mentee interactions and acts of selflessness from employees usually employ formal routes of communication, informal communication also features in these communicative exchanges. Indeed, informal communication can serve as a glue to the formal communicative efforts during these interactions.

2.1.3 Intrapersonal Communication

Intrapersonal communication has been defined by various authors as the communication within an individual (Ehondor, 2017; Deveci & Nunn, 2018; Ndimele and Innocent, 2016; Vickery, Keaton & Bodie, 2015). This all-encompassing definition embraces the communication within the central nervous system as intrapersonal communication, as signals are sent and received within it with the aid of neurons, which are also known as nerve cells. Vandergrindt (2018) identified three types of neurons - sensory, motor and interneurons - which carry on various forms of communication within the Central Nervous System. Singing to oneself would also fit under this definition of intrapersonal communication as communication within an individual. Sharma (2013) described music as one of the most powerful and unique form of communication which can change our ways of feeling, thinking and actions.

This study conceptually defines intrapersonal communication as communication within an individual prior to, during and after communicative interactions with other members of the organization. This definition implies that intrapersonal communication serves as the basis for other forms of communication within the organization. The study therefore favours definitions of intrapersonal communication that emphasize interactions within the individual. For instance, for Hermans and Hermans-Konopka (2010), when individuals communicate intrapersonally, conversations are being carried on by various *I*-positions within the individual; For Honeycutt, Zagacki and Edwards, (1987), it has to do with internal interactions involving not just the self but others as well that affects behaviour; Shedletsky (2017) definition that including planning, problem solving and internal message production implies internal dialogue with imagined other; Eugenio-Vela (2012) definitions recognized the fact that individuals during intrapersonal communication engage in imagined representations.

The above definitions, as well as this study's conceptualized definition of intrapersonal communication as communication within an individual prior to, during and after communicative interactions with other members of the organization, embrace intrapersonal communication dimensions such as imagined interactions and self talk. With imagined interaction individuals are engaged internally with imagined others such as co-workers, supervisors, spouses, parents, friends and even enemies (Honeycutt & McCain, 2008; Honeycutt et al., 1987). When persons are involved in imagined interactions, such persons mentally prepare for and or review conversations with imagined others (Ford, 2003).

Thus, prior to, during and after a conversation with a co-worker or supervisor, an employee could engage in imagined conversations with the would-be communicant. When trying to convince either the co-worker or supervisor about the viability of a new idea, for instance, the employee engages in imagined interactions where she/he imagines the various possible reactions of the co-worker or supervisor. The outcome of the imagined interaction would dictate the approach the employee eventually takes during the actual conversation. As the conversation progresses, the employee (as well as the fellow communicant) would continue to have imagined interactions as they try to 'get in the other's head', so as to understand the other's intent. This is because, as Ford (2003) indicated, a person debates internally the likely consequences of various options of a given line of conversation even in the process of carrying on the conversation. The person then chooses the path that best satisfies his or her needs at the given time.

Ford (2003) stressed that during imagined interactions, people converse internally with themselves as well as converse internally with other persons. This lends credence to dialogical self-theorist, Hubert Hermans' assertion that our minds are populated by other people, and that there are many people in the world who play a role in our mind (Hermans, 2010). Each of the imagined persons in our minds are assigned a voice, and two or more of these 'voices' engage in conversations prior to, during or after communicative interactions with others. The positions assigned to imagined others is dependent on the people's perceptions of these persons. Thus, if an employee perceives a supervisor as being supportive, the imagined position of the supervisor would be supportive and the imagined interactions between the employee and the supervisor would be positive and supportive. Similarly, if the employee thinks a co-worker is selfless or that a mentor is a positive role model, the imagined interactions with these persons would be positive, as against an employee who believes that a co-worker is selfish or that his/her mentor has a negative attitude concerning the organization. Decisions of how best to carry on conversations with these people, would depend on the imagined interactions of the employee.

Imagined interactions are therefore important to not just the employee but the person or persons he or she carries on conversations with. Other benefits of imagined interactions are that imagined interactions enables one to define and redefine their relationships

with others, and create relational expectations that help the individuals make sense out of behaviours that they observe in others and themselves (Allen & Berkos, n.d). In like vein, Ford (2003) points out positive benefits of imagined interactions when he stated that it helps sustain relationships, prepare the communicant for the actual out-of-person conversation, fill a void in the absence of actual conversation, helps clarify ideas before they are expressed among others.

Self-Talk: Self-talk, as the name implies, entails verbal communication with oneself where the individual communicates by sending messages and receiving them himself or herself. Self-talk is described by Latinjak, Hernando-Gimeno, Lorigo-Mendez, & Hardy (2019) as "verbalizations addressed to the self, explicitly or covertly, distinguished by interpretive components connected to their content." while Hoigaard and Johansen cited in Daftari, Sofian, Sadeghi & Akbari (2011), explained that self-talk has to do with a conversation taking place within an individual in which the individual examines matters pertaining to him or her and draws conclusions.

A person's self talk, which depends on one's personality, is a mix of one's conscious and unconscious beliefs and biases, and can either be positive, neutral or negative (Daftari, et al., 2011; Holland, 2020; Mead, 2021). Neutral self talk within the organization setting is usually task related. A teacher for instance could remind himself that he has a class by 1.00 pm and he needs to prepare the notes for the class. Positive self-talk which is optimistic and upbeat, has a 'can-do' attitude. It entails telling oneself that one is capable of being all that one can be. Positive self-talk recognizes mistakes for what they are and reassures the individual that they do not define the individual. Positive self-talk does not however make the individual out as an infallible demi-god. Mead (2021) stated that positive self-talk is not narcissism but is rather about showing oneself some self compassion and understanding for who you are and what you have been through. Holland (2020) revealed that positive self-talk can prove advantageous for persons who engage in positive self talk as it can improve their work-life balance and overall mental and physiological wellness. These benefits would translate to improved, motivation, self-esteem, productivity and better interpersonal relationships with co-workers and supervisors.

Negative self-talk takes place in persons who have a poor opinion of themselves and their ability to manage situations. Holland (2020) listed four categories of negative self talk - Personalizing, magnifying, Catastrophizing and Polarizing. Personalizing: A person who blames himself or herself for every wrong thing that happens. A teacher that falls under this category would blame his/herself for every misunderstanding, every breakdown in communication. Rather than feel that a team wins or loses together, this person believes he/she is the weakest member of the team – the weakest link which could cause the destruction of the team. Magnifying: Here a person who focuses on the negative aspects of a situation, ignoring any and all of the positive. A teacher with this outlook sees the glass as half empty and would distrust his co-worker's selfless attitude and assume that the co-worker has an ulterior motive for his/her selfless acts. Catastrophizing: A person expects the worst and rarely lets logic or reason persuade him/her otherwise. A teacher with this outlook would be convinced that he/she is about to be given the sack, as soon as downsizing rumours filter through the grapevine. Polarizing: A person sees the world in black and white, good and bad; with no grey areas in-between. A teacher with this outlook would talk herself out of helping a co-worker who is sick if she feels that she is being paid to teach her classes, no more, no less.

With imagined interactions the focus is on the fellow communicants, and the person's perception of the fellow communicants dictates how the person carries on the communicative exchange. While for self-talk, the focus is on the first person, and how the person perceives him/herself influences how he/she carries on the communicative exchange, is the point of interest. Both imagined interactions and self-talk therefore have implications for performance and interpersonal relationships of employees within the organization. Both organizational imagined interactions and self-talk are verbal – silently expressed, overtly expressed or written. Intrapersonal communication utilizes words only, as people do not communicate internally with gestures and facial expressions. A person can communicate with him/herself through written words as well, such as when a person lays out his/her thoughts on paper to organize them. Such communication falls under written intrapersonal communication when the writing is for the person's consumption alone.

2.1.4 Extrapersonal Communication

As part of an employee's normal work day, the employee engages in various communicative exchanges with various members of the organization. All such communicative exchanges are extrapersonal communications as they occur outside the individual. Extrapersonal communication is therefore the exchange of meaningful content between one member of the organization and another or others within the organization. While some of the communicative exchanges are task related and formal, some are social in orientation and informal. The Organizational structure – which is unique for most organizations as it is drawn up with the corporate culture in mind – dictates the communication patterns that exist within an organization (Lunenburg, 2010b). Though practically all organizations have formal and informal extrapersonal communication within the organization, the mode, frequency and efficacy of extrapersonal communication within an organization depend on the organizational structure. For instance, extrapersonal communication patterns in an organization with a flat structural form would definitely be different from the communication patterns in another organization with a tall structural form. Forms of extrapersonal communication within an organization are downward, upward, lateral and informal (grapevine) communications.

2.1.4.1 Downward Communication

This has to do with how information, ideas, instruction and commands move from superior organizational members to junior organizational members. Adeleke (2012) defined communication from the downward perspective as the author in defining communication emphasized the passing of information on expected duties and results as well as the provision of necessary resources to subordinates for the accomplishment of tasks as constituting communication in the business sense. The author's definition of communication is therefore clearly from the downward communication perspective. Most downward communications are usually in the form of directives, orders, instructions and rules; that is information relevant to the performance of organization tasks (Eze, 2006; Lawal, 1993). Five broad goals of downward communication were identified by Lunenburg (2010b): 1. carrying out plans, schemes, and aims: The sharing of goals and plans for achieving them. When the

Principal informs teachers of a new curriculum, the communication pattern employed is downward communication; 2. Guidelines for doing a specific work and explaining how that action fits into the larger context of the job are examples of job instructions and justification. Teachers of a school could, for instance, be asked to round up classes early on a particular day to make room for a famous author coming to deliver a motivational lecture; 3. Procedures and practices: This has to do with letting subordinates know the expected directions and steps they as employees are expected to follow for the accomplishment of tasks within the organization; 4. Employees receive information about their own and the company's performance according to predetermined goals in the form of performance feedback. 5. Socialization: invitations to social events such as weddings, picnics or birthdays of organizational members which help build comradeliness are achieved through downward communication.

2.1.4.2 Upward Communication

Upward communication is reverse of most conventional organizational communication as here, communication flows towards the top. Employees communicate ideas, suggestions, comments and complaints to management through upward communication. Though most managers are quick to acknowledge and extol the role downward communication plays in the attainment of organizational objectives, the same attention is not paid to upward communication in some organizations. Upward communication is however essential to the optimal performance of organizations. Benefits of upward communication that have been identified by authors include helping management gain insight about the issues frontline employees face on daily basis, motivating employees to provide constructive feedback to grow the organization, facilitating collective decision making and problem solving, serving as a measure of organizational morale, provides employees opportunity to ask questions and make complaints, transmitting of information needed for decision making, highlighting of the soundness of the organization's decision making function, meeting the esteem need of employees and encouraging creative ideas within the organization, among others (Ahmed, 2019b; Bittel, 1978; Eze, 2006; Lunenburg, 2010b).

Lunenburg (2010b) itemized various types of upward communication: 1. Reporting of Problems and exceptions: Employees bring serious problems such as a malfunctioning machine or a teacher's fainting spell while teaching, for instance, to the notice of management through upward communication; 2. presentation of alternative course of action: Suggestions made by workers for enhancing current methods of doing work in order to boost productivity across the board. A case in point in schools being a suggestion to move 'difficult' subjects to earlier periods in the day when students and teachers are fresh – mentally and physically; 3. Performance reports: intermittent reports on performance of employees, their respective departments and indeed the organization as a whole can be transmitted upward; 4. Grievances and disputes: When conflicts occur within the organization, it is not advisable to ignore it as it could brew hostility; bring the problem before management may lead to amicable settlement. A clash of teaching periods between two teachers is brought up to management's notice through upward communication; and 5. Financial and accounting information: Costs, accounts receivable are communicated upwards. A school bus driver who inadvertently spends money on the school bus on the way to pick up or drop off students puts in to management a demand for refund.

The extent to which upward communication is efficacious in an organization rests on how open the channels of upward communication are in the organization. When there are barriers to upward communication in an organization, they rob the organization of the opportunity to build motivated employees, engender a sense of belonging among the employees and foster team spirituality within the organization. Possible barriers to upward communication may be the filtering of valuable information which could occur when Employees remove negative aspects of an issue in order to impress their superiors; not actively listening which occurs when Managers who do not perceive the value of the insight of their employees might not pay close attention when employees put forward suggestions; and failure to take action that is where lack of initiative on both parts may affect upward communication (Ahmed, 2019a).

Both downward and upward communication can be accomplished through diverse channels. While most official messages are best communicated in written form, some can be communicated orally as well. Thus, the same message can be transmitted either downward or upward both orally and in written form. Indeed, a combination of oral and written communication method is the best assurance that the information will be received as intended.

2.1.4.3 Lateral Communication

Lateral communication/horizontal communication entails transmission of information to other organizational members at the same level. Lateral communication enables organizational members to form relationships with persons outside their departments (Eze, 2006). Lateral communication could be seen as an aberration from the scalar chain of authority that is an essential element of the bureaucratic system. Scalar chain implies a top to bottom hierarchy of authority, with every organizational member knowing their place on the chain (Popewi, 2018). Henri Fayol, the French engineer who espoused the 14 Principles of Management, proposed that in crises situations, an alternative to scalar chain – a gang plank could shorten the communication route between two employees in different departments.

Lateral communication is beneficial to the organization because it saves time and reduces distortion of the message as received by the recipient. Lateral communication serves other functions within an organization. Hirokawa (1979) cited in Wrench and Punyanunt-Carter (2012) showed that lateral communication is beneficial to the organization through a number of functions that it performs in the organization. Task coordination: Staff are enabled to coordinate tasks that would engender the accomplishment of organizational goals. Problem solving: Employees are able to brainstorm with employees across board in search of solutions to problems bedevilling the organization through horizontal communication. For problems that affect the entire organization, all hands would need to be on deck to procure solutions to such problems.

Sharing of information: Employees become aware of the activities of other departments through horizontal sharing of information. The opportunities for interaction within the organization determine the extent to which information is effectively shared horizontally. With the aid of social media platforms, sharing of information is much easier in many organizations.

Conflict resolution: The easiest way to resolve conflict when individuals are in contention is direct interaction. As conflicts are most times due to misunderstanding, where there is a clash between two teachers' teaching periods, they first could try to resolve the problem through compromise rather than go the long way through their respective Heads of Departments, to the Vice Principal, to the Principal, and then back again to the respective teachers.

For organizations to fully reap the benefits accruable from lateral communication, they must put in place measures to facilitate effective lateral communication within the organization. McClelland and Wilmot (1990) stated that organizations could attain effective lateral communication by improving quality and quantity of message sharing between and amongst organizational members at the same organizational level, having lateral teams, as well as improving accountability and through regular training.

2.1.4.4 Informal Communication

Informal communication, otherwise called the grapevine is an unstructured information exchanges between organizational members that do not follow pre-defined routes. The Hawthorne studies pushed informal communication networks to the fore, as the studies showed that they are responsible for, and greatly influence the day to day happening within organizations. Though managers are wary of the possibility of unreliable information being transmitted through the grapevine, Wrench & Punyanunt-Carter (2012) pointed out that grapevine perform a number of functions within organizations and should therefore must exist in organizations for the attainment of organizational objectives. Some of such functions include: the speed of transmitting information on the grapevines make them ideal for quick dissemination of certain information; their unstructured nature can help get information to persons irrespective of status within the organization; grapevines can complement the formal channels of communication within the organization; grapevines can provide for employees much needed information about the organization; grapevines can help management test employees perceptions of some proposed policies before actual implementation; and grapevines can help build teamwork, as well as motivate employees and engender corporate identity.

As informal/grapevine communications are unstructured, either party in a communicative exchange can initiate the exchange and the sharing can travel back and forth between persons without formal communication links. Hence, a non-academic staff such a cleaner could share a piece of information with the Proprietor and vice versa, same as either a Head of Department or form teacher or subject teacher could initiate a communicative exchange with another member or even a group of persons within the school. Though these exchanges might not be task related, they are still beneficial to the school, as they affect the perceived co-worker support, supervisor support, and consequently team spirituality within the organization.

2.1.5 Team Spirituality

One's appreciation of the concept of team spirituality is grounded on a proper understanding of what a team is and what team spirit entails. A team is an organized group of individuals who interact and collaborate for the attainment of a common objective. Though teams and groups are sometimes confused one for another, not every group of persons constitutes a team. A group can become a team when the individuals that constitute the group work together towards a given objective. A bunch of strangers queuing to withdraw money from an ATM machine constitute a group. Each person is an individual though they are all there to withdraw money; if however a new comer tries to cut in line, the group would become a team as they work together to put the new comer in his/her place. The common purpose of this bunch of strangers, transforms the group into a team. For as long as they continue to work together toward their common objective, they remain a team, failing which they dissolve back into a group.

A school can operate as either a group or as a team. The school operates as a group when the organizational members come together as independent individuals with a common goal, while the school operates as a team when organizational members are interdependent persons with common objectives to achieve (Prachi, 2019). Thus, the school constitutes a group when individual teachers believe that they are in the school to teach in return for the remuneration received – service rendered for money; on the other hand, where the teachers believe that the role they and their colleagues play are interconnected and leads to the achievement of a given objective, the teachers in the school form a team. Ugwuzor (2017) illustrated the essence of employees sharing a common goal by stating that organizations would not derive expected benefits where employees exhibit dysfunctional or counter-productive tendencies and where employees' behaviours are not in tandem with the goals of the organization.

There are a lot of benefits that could accrue to the school as well as individual staff members, when the teachers are a team. Some of such benefits include: Increased interactions and communication: As team members, there would be increased interactions between staff. Because tasks are interconnected, staff would need to communicate formally (upward, downward and lateral) and even informally. Beside improved quantity of communication, there would be improved quality of communication as team members would be more open to sharing information than would workers working independently.

Improved trust: Improved interaction and communication would build trust between staff. For teams to function effectively, each team member needs to be assured that the other members of the team are pulling their weight. Without trust, this would be impossible. Increased productivity: Team members are more productive due to collaboration. Team members get more done in a shorter time than they would have done working alone. Improve creativity and innovation: As part of a collaborative team, team members rub off each other developing new ideas, with the effect that what they achieve is much greater than what they would have come up with individually. Problem solving: Problem solving is one of the main reason why teams are constituted. Problems are better solved when people collaborate as a team. Healthy competition: Employees in a team strive to work harder so as to contribute their quota to the team. This could lead to healthy competition amongst the team members. Higher morale: Team members get a sense of belonging from being part of a team thereby fulfilling their social/relatedness needs. Perceived support: Being part of a team could also improve the team spirituality within the organization by improving the employees perceptions of either or both co-worker support and supervisor support and consequently, the organizational support the employees believe they have.

An organization can transform its members who are just a group (an assemblage of independent individual with a common situation) to a team (a group of interdependent individuals). Team performance model, a framework for comprehending team

development created by Allan Drexler and David Sibbet, might help the business get there (Stephan, 2017). The framework contains seven steps – with each step having a likely question which team members would answer or require answers to (Loehr, 2018). This study favours Wrench and Unyanunt-Carter's (2012) adaptation of the model as their team performance model presents the stages in a circular format, as it is appropriate for the transformation and sustenance of an organization (which is an on-going concern) into a team.

Orientation – (*why am I here?*): As group members come together, they need to know why they should be a team, working collaboratively and interdependently. A proper appreciation of this question would be achieved when team members understand the why of the team in the first team, why was the team formed? What objectives should team members strive to achieve? And also what they as members stand to gain as team members (Loehr, 2018). Some members might also be worried whether they could be accepted by other members of the team (Stephan, 2017). All such questions and worries need to be addressed at the orientation stage if the team is to function effectively. New teachers get socialized into the organization through orientation. Most new recruits get an impression of what to expect as a member of the organization during the recruitment process.

Trust building – (*who are you?*): At this stage team members are concerned about other members of the team and what they bring to the team (Stephan, 2017). As a team is interdependent, how well organizational members know each other has an impact on trust levels within the organization/team. Trust can be built through interaction and so organizations would need to put in place creative ways to increase interaction between team members. Beside task related formal communications, avenues for social communication among employees should also be invented.

Goal clarification – (*What are we doing?*): Team members must appreciate the team's main goals which they are expected to strive toward achieving. As the actions and/or inactions of employees go a long way to make or mar the expected productive outcomes of the organization (Ugwuzor, 2018), the goals of the organization must be clear to team members. For a secondary school whose major goal is the provision of high quality and well-rounded education to students in return for their parents' huge investment, the school would need all staff to be on board with this goal for it to be actualized.

Commitment – (*How will we do it?*): Individually and collectively, team members need to be committed to the task and be willing to allocate time and effort to make it work efficiently. Stephan (2017) stated that agreed roles are key at this stage. Collective decision making engender in employees perceived organizational support which in turn makes them work harder toward the accomplishment of organizational goals. For the school whose goal is the provision of high quality and well-rounded education, deliberations would center on how best to achieve this, that is what particular subjects and extra-curricular activities would enable the school achieve this goal. Roles are also assigned at this stage -subject teachers, Games Masters/Mistresses, Guidance Counsellors.

Implementation – (*Who does what, when and where*): Once the team agrees on how each member will contribute to the team's goals, with specifications of who, what, when, where and why, implementation would be easier, as each know how his/her place fits into the larger picture. This stage is therefore dominated by timing and scheduling (Stephan, 2017). Having identified the subjects and extra-curricular activities that would facilitate the attainment of the school's goals, as well as assigned roles to team members, time tables and schedule of activities that would optimally benefit the students would then be drawn up.

High performance: High performance can be achieved only when team members realize everyone has a role to play; that all roles are interconnected; that some team members might be weaker than others; that it is a collective responsibility to make the team and the task at hand to work; hence the need for stronger members to help the weak ones attain their potential. Loehr (2018) stated that team success is tied to interdependency of team members. With collaborations among team members, teams could even surpass their expectations. Co-worker support, supervisor support, mentoring and selflessness are all avenues through which high performance could be attained by organizations.

Renewal: Overtime, team members may feel burnt out from striving to achieve optimal results. To renew employees' team spirit, organizational support and periodic recognition from top management will serve to energize team member and spur them to work harder towards the attainment of organizational objectives. Most schools have annual end of year parties where teachers are presented with gifts. This creates a sense of belonging and spurs the teachers to greater effort.

Successful execution of each stage has positive by products such as improved team identity, mutual regard, reliability, clear integrated goals, shared vision, spontaneous interaction, synergy, and better decision making while failure has negative consequences for the organization such as disorientation, mistrust, apathy, resistance, missed deadlines, overload and burnout. The above model not only creates a functional team but also engender team spirit among team members.

2.1.5.1 Team Spirit Versus Team Spirituality

According to the 2021 edition of Oxford Learner's Dictionaries, "team spirit" is "the readiness and desire of individuals to work together and assist one another as members of a team." Cambridge Dictionary (2021) defined it as a feeling of belonging together that the members of a group have toward others in the group; while from Collins Dictionary (2021) definition, it is evident that when team members are truly proud of being part of the team and are loyal to the team, they strive to give their best to the team for optimum performance of the team. The above three dictionary definitions bring to the limelight the following: Team spirit is an attitude; this attitude develops as a result of positive interaction with other members of the team; the positive interaction satisfies various needs of the individual – existence, security, social/relatedness/belongingness/affiliation needs, need for esteem or need for achievement; and the employee consequently reciprocates with loyalty and goodwill to the team and fellow team members, as well as improved productivity. Team spirit is therefore an individual's positive disposition to facilitate the attainment of a team's goals and improve the lot of team members, occasioned by the feelings of belongingness the individual feels as a member of the team.

Team spirituality on the other hand refers to an organization-wide consciousness and drive to cultivate, nurture and sustain team spirit among organizational members. Team spirit therefore moves from being just a means to an end, to being an end in itself, which every member of the organization work toward achieving. Team spirit is vulnerable to the individual actions of team members and even small changes in team composition may disrupt existing dynamics (Silva et al., 2014). Take a school, for instance, where a particular English teacher bakes and brings delicious cupcakes for everyone during staff meetings, should that teacher leave the school, team dynamics would not be the same for some time, irrespective of the fact that a new teacher has been employed in his place.

Thus, while having employees high in team spirit is desirable, it is even better for organizations to aim for team spirituality. This is because, in the former case, levels of team spirit in the organization would fluctuate as members move out or into the organization. In the latter case however, team spirit level in the organization remains relatively stable because at every point in time, from entry to exit, organizational members are encouraged to be team players. Through organizational socialization the new teacher appreciates what is expected of him/her (not baking cupcakes per se) and acquires the necessary attitudes, behaviour, knowledge and skills necessary to become an effective team player (Wrench & Punyanunt-Carter, 2012).

Team spirituality portends benefits for each singular employee as well as the organization as a whole. Benefits organizational members could derive from team spirituality include increased perceived support from co-workers, supervisors and the organization at large, as well as the satisfaction of various needs of organizational members' needs - belongingness/affiliation needs, growth and achievement needs. For the organization, benefits accruable include highly motivated workforce, low turnover rates and high productivity.

2.1.5.2 Attributes of High Team Spirituality

An organization could be said to have team spirituality when organizational members exhibit:

Willingness to help others within the organization: The appreciation that every organization is as strong as its weakest member could cause organizational members to help those within the organization in need. Older and more experienced organizational members provide mentoring for greener organizational members; new employees are reoriented by older organizational members; individuals help co-workers who are sick or overloaded; employees feel heard by their supervisors. **Trust:** Organizational members trust each other to put in their best to get the job done; that each is committed to the common goal; and is willing and able to assist other organizational members towards the attainment of organizational goals. **Collective responsibility and accountability:** Organizational members feel collectively responsible for the accomplishment of organizational activities. Results, for better or worse, are claimed by the entire team. **Interdependence:** Organizational members accomplish tasks and attain organizational goals through collaboration. Collaboration gives organizational members a sense of belonging which would make them want to remain with the organization, working hard to achieve its objectives.

Willingness to learn from others in the organization: No one within the organization has a monopoly of knowledge. Even the mentee could have something of value to share with the mentor, just as an employee could share something of value with the supervisor. Mutual respect for each other would facilitate this learning process. In organizations with high team spirituality, everyone would keep an open mind and be ready to learn from others. **Effective communication:** Organizational members would need to effectively communicate formally and informally in order to achieve organizational goals. **Sacrifice:** Team members are willing to let other members of the team shine. Team members who hug the glory would adversely affect team spirituality. Avenues available for organizations to attain team spirituality include supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness amongst organizational members.

2.1.6 Supervisor Support

A supervisor, as a link between management and the employee, is indispensable to the efficient attainment of organizational goals. Various definitions of the supervisor and what he/she does show this: Cambridge Dictionary (2023) and Natsir (2022) defined a supervisor from the point of view of the expected duties and his or her expectations - that is one has charge over others that she or he expects to perform duties in a pre-defined manner and in accordance with directives from top management; Yourdictionary (2021) defined a supervisor from a school's perspective - here, a supervisor is one who has authority over other teachers in a given subject area; A supervisor is a member of staff whose responsibility it is to monitor ongoing projects and tasks to ensure they are progressing as expected and in accordance with the manager's directives (Natsir, 2022). The manager aids in the organization's goal-attainment by doing the following. As of 2012 (CompassPoint), ensuring that individual performance goals are in line with company objectives; providing timely, specific, and actionable feedback on how well employees are meeting those objectives; From the perspective of Azman, Sieng, Ajis, Dollah & Boerhannoeddin (2009), the problem solving, leadership and mentoring traits of the supervisor as well as the ability to collaborate with the subordinates to bring to fruition organizational plans; Templar (2015) believes that the supervisor would get the best of members of his or her team when she or he compliment their work, are considerate show exemplary behaviour for the members of the team (Templar, 2015).

A supervisor is therefore an individual authorized by the organization to act as an intermediary between top management and employees, having technical, leadership, interpersonal and communicative competencies, that aid the supervisor oversee subordinates. Within a school system, supervisors include Heads of Departments and Vice Principals. These persons act as a link between teachers, on one hand, and the Principals and Proprietors/Proprietresses on the other hand.

2.1.6.1 Roles of Supervisors

As part of the regular work day in an organization, supervisors motivate, direct, inspire, as well as provide the resources subordinates need for the performance of their duties. How well supervisors play their role affects the attainment of the organizational goals because the quality of supervision affects the workers' performance and behaviour (Emeti & Omiloli, 2020). Acharya (n.d) identified some avenues through which supervisors can effectively play their roles:

Serving as a link between workers and management: Through downward communication, the supervisor communicates the policies of the management (which she/he also received through downward communication from top management) to workers; and provides feedback (which she/he received through upward communication) to top management.

Issuing orders and instructions: Ambiguities of what is required of employees would be reduced with clear orders and instructions from supervisors. A subordinate can give better performance when he knows the work he is supposed to do. Hence if a Civic Education teacher is not assigned specific classes to teach, he or she would be unsure of how many classes to teach. Indeed, there could be clashes between Civic Education teachers as two or more Civic Education teachers might assign themselves to a particular class while some classes would go without teachers. **Planning and organizing the work:** The supervisor specifies expected targets, methods and procedures. Each school has its own way of doing things (the corporate culture) and the supervisor facilitates this through planning and organization.

Proper assignment of work: The supervisor assigns work to each worker and delegates authority to workers. Supervisors prepare timetables which specify time periods and order of the various subjects. **Motivating subordinates:** The supervisor, by providing support and caring for the employees welfare, meets various needs of the employees, thereby motivating them to perform optimally and engender organizational goals actualization. **Feedback to workers:** Supervisors evaluate the work of subordinates, comparing actual performance of workers against set standards. Where short comings are discovered, the supervisor communicates the short comings to the concerned subordinates and suggests corrective measures.

Supervisor support is the conviction of employees that their inputs are acknowledged by the organization and that the organization is mindful of their welfare (Powell, 2011). Qureshi, et al., (2018) defined supervisor support as the employees assessment of the overall behaviour of their direct superiors towards them. Thus, the employee reaps benefits from supervisor support that go beyond the optimum performance of the given assignment, but extends to the improvement of the career of the employees and indeed life outside the organization (Qureshi et al., 2018). In a nutshell, employees' perceived supervisor support portends benefits for the organization as employee-supervisor relationship can affect how much employees are willing to go above and beyond for the organizational goals (Armendariz, 2012). This is because an employee associates the support he /she receives from a supervisor to his /her perceived organizational support (Ahmed, Ismail, Amin & Ramzani, 2011). Recent studies have also linked Supervisor support to increased employee job satisfaction (Apenteng, 2012; Armendariz, 2012; Emeti & Omiloli, 2020; Norling & Chopik, 2020; Powell, 2011; Qureshi & Hamid, 2017).

Supervisor support is a social phenomenon. Thus, while one employee might feel that he or she enjoys supervisor support, another employee might perceive low supervisor support from the same supervisor. A lot depends on the needs of the employees. Across board however, there are certain attributes of supervisors that could improve employees' perception of supervisor support. Important supervisor attributes highlighted by CLIMB (2019) include good communication skills, leadership, empathy and compassion, conflict resolution, delegation, issue solving, time and priority management, and self-assurance. These qualities can also improve employees' perceived supervisor support as can be seen below.

Effective communicator: This is someone who is able to get the message across effectively using the right means. Effective communicators can, in a few words, communicate their intended message in a way that it would have the desired effect on the other communicant; they also understand the need for criticism, especially when criticism are given constructively (CLIMB, 2019). This is especially important during informal communicative exchanges. **Leadership:** Good supervisors are good leaders who lead their exemplary behaviour to their subordinates. They must also be adept at appreciating which subordinates are best suited for particular tasks and then assign such subordinates to those particular tasks. Thus, where the Chemistry teacher has a higher potential as Games Master than the Physical and Health Education teacher, the Chemistry teacher should be made the Games Master of the school.

Empathy and compassion: While certain behaviours are not permissible in some organizations, supervisors should exhibit empathy and compassion when dealing with subordinates when they are found wanting. Though leaving school during school hours to attend to personal matters without obtaining permission is inappropriate, the supervisor would need to exhibit empathy and compassion while addressing the issue, as always going strictly by the book might affect team spirituality. **Conflict resolution:** Within the organizational setting, there is inevitability of conflict because the workplace is composed of persons with diverse personalities. A good supervisor is however sensitive to friction almost before it begins and does something about it (Templar, 2015).

Ability to delegate: Proper delegation make employees accepted within the organization as they are trusted to help the organization attain its objectives. A good supervisor would pick experienced subordinates to peer mentor co-workers, for instance. Both employees in this case would have a high level of supervisor support. **Problem solving:** Good supervisors help employees solve problems through critical thinking and creativity. Supervisors are sometimes required to resolve conflicts between teachers. How this is done could affect employees' perception of supervisor support. **Time and priority management:** Ability to prioritize and delegate fairly affects how employees perceive supervisor support. When some teachers are overloaded while others are under-assigned task, perceived supervisor support would be low. **Confidence:** Subordinates trust in the supervisor would be high when the supervisors exhibit confidence and assuredness during decision making. The subordinates would be sure that their supervisors would have their back before top management, rather than throw them under the bus; perceived supervisor support would therefore be high as a consequence.

2.1.7 Mentoring

Mentoring is a capacity building process involving the transfer of knowledge between two persons, a mentor and a mentee, where the mentor who is the more experienced person in the dyadic exchange shares knowledge and expertise with the mentee. This knowledge sharing facilitates the development of personal and professional skills of the mentee thereby making him/her a better citizen of the organization (Lagace-Roy & Knackstedt, 2007). The mentor takes the mentee under his/her wings, helping the

mentee overcome obstacles as they arise as he/she leads the mentee through organizational and personal life. Daloz (1986) in Wong and Premkumar (2007) likened mentors to tour guides for our lives rather than a trip, who point out to mentees the good things as well as the bad things along the way.

Mentoring is advantageous to the mentee, the mentor and the organization. Various authors have identified favourable impacts of mentoring. Mentoring is beneficial to both mentor and mentee. Stead (2005) identified that for the mentor, mentoring improves various skills of the mentoring including leadership and professionalism as well as satisfies social needs of the mentors. Cronin (2020) listed increased self-confidence, communicating and leadership skill and gaining exposure to new perspectives, as benefits of mentoring. For Allen et al. (1999), mentoring can help eliminate or at least reduce some stress and its adverse effects.

Though mentoring and coaching are two distinct concepts, they are sometimes used interchangeably, one for the other. This is probably because both are concerned with employee learning and career development. In a school system, older and more experienced teachers can mentor new teachers. The mentor could pass knowledge on how to handle unruly students, class management, time management, how to improve interpersonal communication and relationship with others. Besides discussions, the mentee would watch the mentor in action as she/he teaches a class or interacts with others. As both mentor and mentee are adults, learning patterns adopted for students in the school would not be appropriate for mentoring sessions. Wong and Premkumar (2007) noted that in dealing with adults their experience in life as well as their maturity as well as their desire to be actively involved in their own learning process.

Although mentoring is usually a top-down relationship, that is from someone on a higher hierarchy to another on a lower hierarchy, mentoring may occur between persons in the same hierarchical level – peer mentoring. Peer mentoring occurs in a mentoring relationship between colleagues at the same age or hierarchical level, where one had more advanced skills and or is more knowledgeable in a given professional area, and mentors the other who is less knowledgeable (Richardson, 2019). For instance, a class teacher skilled in class management can mentor another teacher in this area. The exchange can be more reciprocal in nature than the traditional mentoring scenario, especially where the mentee also brings something to the table. At this point, the mentor becomes the mentee while the mentee becomes the mentor. Peer mentoring has other advantages such as overcoming the hierarchical gap, making for a more balanced knowledge sharing as both persons contribute to the relationship, self-confidence of peer mentors enjoy a boost through peer mentoring, and peer mentoring promotes a feeling of belonging and integration.

Mentoring (both traditional and peer mentoring) offers opportunities for team building and sustenance. Besides improving the mentee's task related skill which enables the mentee to constructively contribute to the team, mentoring affords mentors and mentees the opportunity to bond, improve communicative and interpersonal relationship skills. Mentoring also facilitates the building of trust and interdependence as well as the chance to learn from others as the mentor also learns from the mentee. A mentor's willingness to learn from the mentee meets the mentee's external and internal esteem needs. Mentoring satisfies the social/relatedness/affiliation needs of both the mentor and the mentee, thereby engendering feelings of belongingness. Team spirituality is also enhanced as both the mentor and the mentee make sacrifices of time and effort to make the mentoring relationship work for their individual and organizational benefits.

2.1.8 Co-Worker Support

Co-worker support is the needed task-related and or psychosocial support received by employees from their colleagues within the organizational setting which makes the employees work experience better (Bateman, 2009). As employees spend a good portion of their work day working side by side with co-workers, the social relationship between co-workers has significant effect on the workers and organization. Supportive relations at work has the potential to help employees remain focused and perform assigned tasks effectively and efficiently, as much is done within the allotted time; hence rather than employees waste valuable time second guessing co-workers actions and intentions, colleagues can easily resolve conflicts as they arise (Martinez-Cort, 2011). Various studies have linked co-worker support to a number of favourable organizational outcomes:

Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction is the overall feeling organizational members have concerning their job in general as well as its component parts (Aziri, 2011). Zhu (2013) named supervisors, the job, work colleagues, the compensation and promotion opportunities as various aspects that contribute to job satisfaction. Several scholarly efforts have linked job satisfaction to co-worker support – Bateman (2009), Beehr and McGrath (1992), Ibrahim (2014), Norling and Chopik (2020), Zhu (2013). Reduced turnover intention: Turnover intention, also called intention to quit, is the conscious wilfulness to seek other alternatives in other organizations (Kosi, Selemena, Boateng & Mensah, 2015). Studies that have linked employees' intention to quit to co-worker support include Bateman (2009), Jungert (2012), Kosi et al. (2015).

Favourable perception of work environment: According to Sloan (2012), the negative consequences of unjust treatment by a boss on job satisfaction and psychological discomfort are mitigated by the support of one's coworkers. Thus, through co-worker support, the employee would perceive the working environment as being less harsh irrespective of how unsupportive the supervisors might be. **Reduced Workplace stress:** Workplace stress occurs when the competencies of a given employee does not match those needed to accomplish an assigned task (csponline. 2015). Karlin, Brondolo and Schartz (2003) and Norling and Chopik (2020) linked extent of workplace stress to co-worker support. **Improved Competencies:** As co-workers share knowledge and experiences, work skills are enriched (Akpotu & Konyefa, 2019).

2.1.8.1 Traits of a Supportive Co-Worker

An employee would be ascribed a supportive co-worker if the employee exhibits traits. **Listening skills:** Sometimes, all an upset employee needs is someone to talk to, in other words a friendly ear. A co-worker with active listening skills could provide the support the distraught employee needs. Mulvania (2020) stated that active listening, is a conscious effort that builds strong relationships, does not come easily as it requires concerted effort from the listener to be attentive. John Powell, a theologian cited in Wambui et al. (2012) stressed that when actively listening the listener must sieve through what is being said to discover

the true essence of the speaker, as speakers reveal themselves in the course of speaking. A person is said to be actively listening when the person (i) pays close attention (ii) demonstrates physically that he or she is listening (nodding, smiling, look of surprise) (iii) checks for understanding (iv) does not interrupt and (v) responds appropriately. Thus, the active listener must not just listen, but must be seen as listening, only then can co-worker be seen as a supportive co-worker.

Verbal communication skills: Verbal communication entails the use of spoken or written words to transmit meaningful content. A supportive co-worker needs to communicate effectively because irrespective of one's intentions, miscommunication and misunderstanding has been linked to negative organizational outcomes such as stress-related ailments and burnout (Ben-Nun, 2015). A supportive co-worker should be mindful of the following: Clarity of ideas: A sender should say what he or she means. A person's imagined interactions prior to and during a communicative exchange would help him/her clarify ideas before voicing them through extrapersonal interaction.

Non-verbal communication skill: When people communicate non-verbally, they do so without using words. Besides facial expressions, gestures, body movement and eye contact, various non verbal speech elements, as well as written elements such as how a person writes or the presentation, can all be used to communicate (Wambui et al., 2016). McPheat (2010) stated that the largest part of the message being sent is made up of non-verbal information. As non-verbal communication occurs continuously and most times unconsciously, supportive co-workers must be mindful of their use. A teacher might unconsciously transfer a scowl from the paper he or she is grading to the face to a passing teacher. A quick smile and or an explanation for the scowl would prevent misunderstanding and engender team spirituality in the school. Employees also need to be mindful to match non-verbal communication cues such as facial expressions to their verbal communication. The appropriate facial expression of concern should follow a 'sorry' after a colleague reveals that she has misplaced her purse. A look of glee at that moment (probably occasioned by the receiver's intrapersonal communication on another matter) might cause relationships between these colleagues to be strained, thereby affecting team spirituality in the organization.

A supportive co-worker should be empathetic and compassionate. Empathy has to do with the ability to mentally connect with another and what the other person is going through in a particular circumstance and at a particular moment while compassion has to do with not just sympathizing with another for what he or she is going through but also desiring to provide succour of some kind (Chambers Dictionary, 2003a, 2003b). Empathy most often develops from seeing things through someone else's eye or 'walking a mile in someone's shoes'. As similar circumstances brew empathy, a spouse might be sympathetic to a teacher's workload, while a co-worker is in a better position to be empathetic.

Ability to help is another trait of a supportive co-worker. For while an empathetic and compassionate co-worker might be willing to help alleviate the burdens of an overloaded colleague, offers of assistance might be counter-productive if the co-worker lacks the competencies to do so. What this implies for a secondary school system is that an Agricultural Science teacher desirous of assisting an overloaded Literature teacher mark scripts on the Three-Act Structure of a particular book, needs not only to have read the book, but also have an appreciation of the concept of a Three-Act structure of narrative writing; failing which such help would be counter-productive.

2.1.9 Selflessness

Selflessness, also known as altruism, is a person's innate desire to help another voluntarily and without an expectation of reciprocity. It's an ingrained disposition to care for other people, to empathize with their plight and take steps to improve their lives (Jaja & Gabriel, 2014). Selflessness is a universal trait as everyone at some point or other in their lives feels the urge to help another human being. Altruistic individuals carry out selfless acts not because they are compelled to do so, or because they expect a reward in return; they rather do so because it is the right thing to do. In helping other, selfless individuals are also willing to make personal sacrifice. The right thing is therefore done for goodness sake. For an act to be ascribed a selfless behaviour, it must be in the other person's interest, the helper must not be coerced to do so and always, the behaviour should not be done with the anticipation that the receiver would repay in kind or any other type of reward in return (Jaja & Gabriel, 2014).

Selflessness is also evident within work organizations. Within the organizational setting, selflessness is not just one's desire to help, it must be followed by helpful actions to assist others in the organization to accomplish organizational task (Emilisa, 2019). Similarly, Hsiung (2014) defined altruistic behaviour as a positive behaviour of an employee which goes beyond the call of duty; adding that employees with greater altruistic behaviours will dedicate themselves to extra-role behaviours such as innovation and creativity. Selfless employees are usually willing to help orient new workers, help relieve co-workers with heavy work load or sick employees, all without prompting from Management.

While some individuals are altruistic by nature, selfless acts can still be encouraged within organizations that (i) recognize and reward selfless acts because, in as much as selfless acts are done without an expectation of reward, it feels good to be appreciated; (ii) expose selfless individuals to the impacts of their acts; and (iii) employees skills and competencies are improved, as this would increase the capability of the employees to selflessly help others (hppy, 2020). It is necessary to promote selflessness within an organization because it has positive implications for the selfless individual, the receiver and the entire organization.

Some of such benefits include: Meeting social needs: Selflessness meets social needs (the need for belongingness, for association, to love and be loved, to have good relationships) of both the selfless individual as well as that of the receiver. Emilisa (2019) pointed out that altruism increases the likelihood of interactions with others within the organization. Meeting internal self-esteem needs: Internal self-esteem has to do with how someone sees him/herself. Akpotu & Konyefa (2019) stated that an employee's self-esteem is an indication of the employee's assessment of his or her place within the organization. Helping others selflessly improves a person's self-confidence and sense of accomplishment. Singh's (2018) statement that helping others enriches the meaning and purpose of one's lives links selflessness to one's internal self-esteem. Improves one's personality: Selflessness aids the helper to curb excesses and or improve in personality areas where the helper is wanting or inadequate (Singh, 2018). Snowballing effect: Selfless acts of an employee encourage other employees to act selflessly, with the effect that the

organization develops a supportive helpful culture (happy, 2020; Singh, 2018). Improving organizational efficiency: By helping orient new workers and helping relieve co-workers with heavy work load or sick employees, selfless employees aid the organization lower monitoring cost, improve efficient interdependencies among employees and decrease resources required for effective socialization of new comers (Koster, 2014). Improves organizational performance: Employees' selflessness within the organization is not limited to co-workers as employees' selfless acts can be directed to supervisors and the organization as a whole. As employees voluntarily undertake extra work without conditions, organizational performance would undoubtedly improve (Hsiung, 2014). Facilitating team spirituality: All the above benefits ultimately engenders team spirituality within the organization.

A school environment affords lots of opportunities for selflessness given the workload of teachers and as new teachers move into the organization. A selfless employee has all the traits of a supportive co-worker. However, a major distinguishing feature of a selfless employee is that he or she acts without an expectation of external reward. The helper is rather motivated by an inner desire to help alleviate the distress of another.

2.1.10 Corporate Culture

An organization is composed of individuals who have their personal values, beliefs, assumptions and ways of doing things, forged by their respective societies. These individuals, as they come into the organization, encounter a new collective way of doing things, values, beliefs and assumptions within the organization – corporate culture. Though corporate culture, otherwise known as organizational culture, has been defined again and again by diverse authors, the various definitions all serve to explain why company ABC is unique and differs from company XYZ, irrespective of the fact that they provide similar services. Corporate culture has been defined as: All the core values, beliefs and assumptions that help to get employees committed and motivated (Owoyemi & Ekwoaba, 2014); Organizational culture refers to the norms and practices that its members adhere to in their interactions with one another, their job, and the outside world (Hofstede Insights, 2019); the sum total of the shared beliefs, norms, and procedures that shape how a group operates as a unit (Wong, 2020); The way in which we do things here or how 'things are done around here' (O'Donnell & Boyle, 2008); Groupthink is the way a group of people (or an organization) have been programmed collectively to think and act differently from outsiders (Hofstede, 2012).

2.1.10.1 Types of Corporate Culture

The practices of organizations which distinguishes one organization from another situate organization's preferences for certain states on various continuum devised by different authors. Hence, diverse categorizations of corporate culture exist. One of which is the Competing Values Framework (CVF) which balances the organization's internal needs and the needs of the external environment versus the need for control and as well as being flexible (O'Donnell and Boyle, 2008). This study however favours the categorization by Hofstede (2012), adapted below:

Organizational effectiveness – process oriented versus result oriented: Corporate cultures could be opposed on being process-oriented (with emphasis on technical and bureaucratic routines) or result-oriented (concern for outcomes). Some schools may require that teachers follow strict guidelines while others may allow the use of initiative by teachers to improve students' performance.

Management philosophy – Job oriented versus employee oriented: Some corporate cultures place premium on job performance while other assume a broad responsibility for well-being of organizational members. The place of teachers' personal problems within the organization would depend on management philosophy and a new teacher, for instance, could quickly learn that the organization frowns on teachers absenting themselves from class on account of personal problems.

Focus - Professional versus parochial: This has to do with where one's loyalty lies – with the profession or with the organization. Mostly, the more professional education an individual has, the higher the person's loyalty ties to the profession. Teachers who are members of the Nigerian Union of Teachers, for instance, would want to act according to the tenets of the profession. For organizations with a local focus, however, the teachers would identify more with the organization, deriving their identity from it. Here, 'seasoned' teachers would be the heroes of the organization rather than newly employed M.ED degree holders.

Approachability – open systems versus closed systems: Approachability opposes the ease with which new members get assimilated into the organizational culture. While open systems quickly assimilate new members into the organization, new employees of close systems would go through a long and gruelling process before they become 'one of the team'. Approachability also opposes internal and external communications systems within organizations.

Level of control – This deals with types of control, contrasting the levels of formality within organizations. While some organizations have very rigid cultures, others are more flexible. While some organizations could frown upon the utilization of social media as a channel for official communication, some organizations send memos, organizational policies and even job scheduling through social media platforms such as WhatsApp.

Customer orientation - Pragmatic versus normative: This dimension contrasts ways of dealing with the environment, especially customers. While some private schools may strictly apply a rule of 'no school fees receipt, no entry' on the first day of school, others might be more lenient.

There is no one best organizational culture. Each organization forges its own culture from its experiences and in line with its organizational goals. Corporate cultures differ from organization to organization even among companies within the same industry and even when organizational members are drawn from the same society. Thus, an organization's culture cannot be rubber stamped on another organization. There are however certain qualities across board that should be incorporated in the corporate culture of organizations, especially for organizations striving to foster team spirituality.

2.1.10.2 Manifestations of Corporate Culture

Corporate culture is an abstract phenomenon, which existence within the organization is gleaned through symbols, heroes, rituals and values expressed by organizational members. Hofstede (2012) described symbols, heroes, rituals and values (which are manifestations of an organization's corporate culture) as layers of mental programming, likening them to the layers of an onion. These manifestations of an organization's corporate culture feature in both intrapersonal and extrapersonal communication.

The first three outer layers – symbols, heroes and rituals - are visible elements within the organization. Symbols are the most superficial of the manifestations of a corporate culture and include words, gestures, clothings and objects which hold a particular meaning for members. Marfo, Opoku-Agyema & Nsiah (2011), defined symbol as a creation that represents a message or a thought. Heroes are persons, dead or alive, who are highly revered within an organization and therefore serve as good role models. Just like symbols, the significance of heroes is limited to the initiated, as persons outside the organization would not regard them as such. The music teacher who has led the school choir to win numerous competitions; a former Principal who revolutionized class arrangements for more efficient teaching and learning; or even a student's parent who revamped the school library, could all be heroes within a school system. Rituals: Rituals, as defined by Hofstede (2012), are group behaviours that are unnecessary from a technical standpoint to achieve the intended results but are socially necessary within a given culture. Thus, rituals do not produce direct results but are carried out for the feelings they evoke. Values: Values in relation to corporate culture are an organization's broad preference for a certain state of affairs over others. Values might be learnt unconsciously and over a given period of time. African children, for instance, learn from a very young age reverence for elders.

2.1.10.3 Corporate Culture and Communication Patterns

The four manifestations of corporate culture explained above all feature in communication patterns (both intrapersonally and extrapersonally). Communication, whether intrapersonal and extrapersonal, is geared towards the attainment of meaning sharing through verbal or non-verbal means (Wambui et al, 2012). Such meaning creation is achieved through symbols. Britannica (2021) classified the written, the spoken language and visual objects as symbols and stated that it is the very act of symbolization that gives these elements their true meanings. This is seen where a secondary school requires all teachers to dress in traditional attires on Fridays or wear a particular colour on a given day. When teachers are seen together by others outside the organization, these symbols communicate non-verbally that they are a team; while the significance of the dress might not be obvious to outsiders, the organizational members appreciate the significance.

Organizational rituals also aid communication patterns. When particular rituals precede a given activity, the initiation of the rituals would communicate to organizational members what is required of them. Various organizations have rituals that aid organizational communication. Ways of greetings one another, roll-calls, mid-week after-school prayers and school assemblies before classes are all examples of rituals in some schools in Nigeria. Values of the organization also feature in various organizational communications. Corporate mission statement, actions that are encouraged or discouraged all communicate the values of the organization.

2.1.10.4 Corporate Culture and Team Spirituality

As new organizational members come into an organization, they are introduced to new organizational practices – symbols, rituals and values. As they get integrated and adopt the organizational practices, they become one of the team. New teachers that come into the school, for instance, get introduced to new way of doing things – addressing others within the organization, dressing, organizational rituals and values. While most of these symbols, rituals and values might not directly lead to teacher's productivity, they could improve team spirituality within the school.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

Three theories: Dialogical self theory, Symbolic Interactionism and Perceived Organizational Support Theory, provide the theoretical underpinnings of this study.

2.2.1 Dialogical Self Theory

The dialogical self-theory (DST) is pertinent to this study because it brings to the fore the role the self plays in intrapersonal communication and extrapersonal communication within the organization and how these communication patterns can help show the presence or lack of supervisor support, co-worker support, selflessness and mentoring relationships that portend team spirituality within the organization.

At a cursory glance, Hermans (1992) Dialogical Self Theory would seem paradoxical as it combines 'self' (which calls to mind a lone person), and 'dialogue' (which presupposes conversation between two or more persons). Even the Dutch psychologist who popularized the dialogical self theory, recognizes the seeming paradoxicality of the concepts in the theory, as he stated that the theory brings together two concepts which are both psychologically or philosophically distinct; for while the self is usually a reflective concept concerned with internal processes, dialogue presupposes an interaction between two persons and the process is external to both parties (Hermans & Gieser, 2012).

Upon closer investigations, however, the possibility of a dialogical self becomes apparent, especially when it is looked at as a "dynamic multiplicity of I- positions" (Ho et al., 2001). Hermans (2014) revealed that the self, a citizen of the outside world, is itself a society comprising of various I-positions. Thus, the self is a mini-society itself and the various I – positions are parts of the whole I. At various times, the self swings between the various I-positions, having conversations and indeed even arguments with and amongst his various selves and between the self and other I-positions signifying imagined communicants. (Hermans & Gieser, 2012).

2.2.1.1 Dialogical Self Theory and Communication Patterns

The dialogical self is present in both intrapersonal and extrapersonal communicative exchanges. During intrapersonal communication the organizational member is a mini-society populated by various *I*-positions which are distinct and are assigned a voice. Hermans (2001) avers that the *I*, as part of the dialogical self is both static and dynamic which can be or shift positions as situations demands.

During extrapersonal communication the dominant *I*-position overshadows external conversations. As an organizational member engages in a communicative exchange with others in the organization (whether at the same, higher or lower hierarchical level), the dialogical self carries on imagined interactions with the person(s) he or she is communicating extrapersonally with. Consequently, internal and external dialogues are intertwined to a large extent (Hermans, 2001). Indeed, dialogicality profits from both internal and external dialogues taking place simultaneously within the communicants (Valsiner, 2000 in Hermans, 2001). This is why the teacher shifts back and forth between the external and internal dialogue. The less the distance that is kept between the external dialogue and internal dialogue, the better for the parties as when either or both parties constantly keep distance between the internal dialogue and external dialogue, communication becomes deceitful. Where there are appreciable differences between intrapersonal communication and extrapersonal communication there is the higher likelihoods of dishonesty, double-dealing and deliberate intention to deceive (Ho et al., 2001).

2.2.1.2 Dialogical Self-Theory and Team Spirituality

For meaningful dialogue to ensue between two communicants (whether two colleagues at the same hierarchical level, a supervisor and an employee, or a mentor and a mentee), there must be mutual understanding of one another's world outlook, between them. Within an organization striving to attain team spirituality through supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness, there should be the appropriate degree of commonness of purpose which would portend the needed degree of common understanding of each other's world.

For organizations that lack the appropriate degree of commonness of purpose, there would be higher level of dialogical misunderstanding. Dialogical misunderstanding occurs where there is a gap between not just what each communicant knows but also between what each communicant believes the other knows, thereby causing one or both communicants to assume wrongly that understanding has been successfully achieved (Hermans, 2001). Such faulty assumptions lead to dialogical misunderstanding.

Dialogical misunderstanding would be more prevalent when employees are new to the organization because of large non-sharing areas between the new employees and others in the organization. Such dialogical misunderstanding could have severe consequences on Communication Patterns and team spirituality within the organization, productivity and viability of organizations. Dialogical misunderstanding however decreases when areas of shared meaning/ understanding increase as the new employees age in the organization. As Hermans (2001) pointed out, the more communicants continually interact, the better appreciation each would have of the other's world view, making for meaningful dialogue as misunderstanding as a result of dialogical differences is diminished.

2.2.2 Symbolic Interactionism

The theory of symbolic interactionism provides the theoretical grounding for this research because it explains how meanings are acquired via communication; meanings that should promote team spirituality through management support, mentorship, peer support, and selflessness on the job. The self is a prominent feature of symbolic interactionism as the self, in communicating weighs the pros and cons of each action through their meanings (Nickerson, 2021).

Symbolic interactionism is an offshoot of interactionism, a sociological theory which posits that the human beings form and give meanings to the world around them as they interact with others. Thus, people shape and are shaped by interactions through the meanings derived from the interactions. As Dong (2008), stated, interactionism holds that human beings draw meanings not just from social interactions but also from personal experiences and that it is on the basis of these meanings that they undertake social actions. Similarly, Aksan, Kisac, Aydin and Demirbiken (2009) averred that interactions amongst people provides them the needed wherewithal to undertake future interactions. Though various interactionism authorities such as George Herbert Mead, Max Weber and Herbert Blumer, approached the concept differently, the central theme was the creation of meaning through interaction.

Symbolic interactionism thus explains how while interacting, people arrive at meanings of symbols as they continually interact symbolically (Eugenio-Vela, 2012). Libretexts (2021) stated that symbolic interactionism explains how humans and society are interrelated, in that people arrive at meaningful sharing of content, whether through their acts or conversations, as a result of the symbols (as defined by society) employed. In recognition of the role symbols play in human communication, Aksan et al (2009) aver that human's symbolic communication is the distinguishing factor between human communication and that of lower animals. Libretexts (2021) in like vein stated that humans defer from lower animals because humans do not just respond to their environment, that is stimuli – response, but they have the ability to interrupt that process. For humans, there is stimulus – cognition – response. Cognition, which guides the human response, is aided by meanings derived from symbols.

2.2.2.1 Symbolic Interactionism and Communication Patterns

Symbolic interactionism theory assumes that humans attach certain socially acceptable meanings to symbols used in communication and the meanings drawn from the symbols facilitate understanding between the communicants. Symbols used in communication are therefore central to meaning-making through interaction. According to Britannica (2021), symbols include both words and images that represent something abstract and something concrete whose significance is heightened via the act of symbolization. Symbols are indispensable to communicate exchanges because they stand in for the various elements that aid the

communication of a given phenomenon of interest to the communicants (Durkel, 2015; Marfo, Opoku-Agyema & Nsiah, 2011). Indeed, symbols are utilized in both verbal and non-verbal communication (Tuerah, Pangalila and Najoan, 2019) .

During communication, Communicants use language which contains symbols to share meaning. Wijayi and Nasution (2018) averred that language is basically a human construct and it, through the aid of pre-determined symbols, facilitate the sharing of meaning content. Cengage (2018) revealed reality is arrived at through symbols used in language and communication. Reality is however as defined by the communicants. For as human beings interact with one another, meaning of concepts are formed, changed or modified. The communicant therefore function as both an agent for change and a responder to change (Ugwuzor, 2020). Thus, whether communicating intrapersonally or extrapersonally within the organization, the symbols adopted in communicating would be those that would produce the intended meaning within the organizational context.

2.2.2.2 Symbolic Interactionism and Team Spirituality

Blumer (1969) agreed with symbolic interactionism's ideas, which hold that people's actions toward things are determined by the meanings they attach to those things, that meanings are the result of interactions between people, and that social actions are the result of the ways in which people's actions complement one another. Within an organization therefore, organizational members make their own meanings of the symbols used in communication; symbols that would help members draw out team spirituality through supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness. Thus, the concept of team spirituality is moulded out of the interaction of a group of people; though symbols that help define team spirituality for a group of employees might defer from the symbols that define the concept for another group of employees.

2.2.3 Perceived Organizational Support Theory

Perceived Organizational Support (POS) is an employee's conviction that his/her organization cares for his/her well-being, and values his/her contributions to the attainment of organizational objectives (Maan, Abid, Butt, Ashfaq & Ahmed, 2020). Kelley (2010) stated that Perceived Organization Support describes the relationship between an employee and his or her organization in which both parties benefit. For Caesens, Stinghamber, Domoulin, DeWilde and Mierop (2019), An organization with a POS captures a culture that values its workers and recognizes their accomplishments. The organization is personified with human-like characteristics - the ability to support, care for, and value employees' contributions. The employee draws his/her perception of organizational support (POS) from a combination of the support s/he perceives from management, supervisors and from co-workers (Ahmed, et al., 2011).

Supervisor support is however enjoys a closely association to POS than co-workers support does because supervisors, who most times act as conduits of organizational resources and who might contribute to the determination of salary increases and bonuses accruable to employees, are regarded as agents acting on behalf of the organizations (on organization's intentions rather than their own personal motive), and so employees ascribe higher correlations between them and the organization than between co-workers and the organization (Caesens et al., 2019; Jagasree & Sheela, 2012; Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stewart, & Adis, 2015). Thus, a teacher would more closely link the Vice Principal and support received from him/her to the organization and organizational support than other teachers and support received from them.

As supervisors are usually viewed as organizational agents, employees link treatment received from supervisor (favourable or unfavourable) to extent of organizational support. This however depends on the extent of the supervisor's organizational embodiment (SOE). SOE is the extent to which a supervisor is identified with the organization (Eisenberger, Shoss, Karagolar, Gonzale-Morales, Wickham & Buffardi, 2014). Both POS and SOE are subjective, and so different employees might differ in their perception of the SOE of a particular supervisor, which will in turn affect their respective POS.

The realization that on one hand, employees desire that their organization would be committed to the welfare of its employees, and on the other hand, the organization desires that its employees are committed to the organization, birthed research on Perceived Organizational Support (Jagashree and Sheela, 2012). According to Tamunosiki-Amadi, Sele, and Omiloli (2020), organizations care much about employee commitment since it shows how strongly workers identify with the firm and its mission.

Employees' commitment is however predicated on the belief that the organization would fulfil its part of the social-exchange relationship – the satisfaction of the employees' socio-emotional needs in return for increased effort and continuous loyalty to the organization. The tangible benefits and social resources which constitute the socio-emotional needs the employees expect to satisfy on the job include the need for esteem (recognition, approval and respect), pay and promotion, access to information, medical benefits, good working conditions (Caesens et al., 2019; Jagasree, & Sheela, 2012; Kabugu, 2014).

Kubuga (2014) identified five types of commitment that aid employees' POS within their organizations - Associative commitment, Affinitive commitment, Moral commitment, Structural commitment and Affective commitment. Associative commitment: This is the increase in employees' self-esteem and status occasioned by organizational membership (that is employees feel privileged to be associated with the organization). Affinitive commitment: This is the extent of compatibility of employees' and organizational interests and values. Moral commitment: This is concerned with employees' perception of mutuality of obligation and responsibility between the organization and employees; Structural commitment: This entails employees' belief that they are in a mutually beneficial and fair economic exchange with the organization; and Affective commitment: This is the extent to which employees' have strong emotional bond to the organization and the work they do.

Though all five employees' commitment indicators affect Perceived Organizational Support, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that POS has the strongest relationship with affective commitment; with the resultant effect that POS employees (employees with high Perceived Organizational Support) become concerned about the organization. Various studies have also found that POS has important benefits for employees and organizations alike. Benefits for employees include: reduced relationship conflict, increased trust in the organization, positive mood, reduced stress, increased job satisfaction, while benefits for the organization include decreased employees' turnover/ lower levels of intentions to quit, lower levels of absenteeism and

burnout; inclination to return to work sooner after injury, increased affective commitment, increased performance (Caesens et al., 2019; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoads, 2001; Eisenberger, Malone & Presson, 2016; Kubuga, 2014; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Ugwuzor, 2011).

2.2.3.1 Perceived Organizational Support Theory and Communication Patterns

Employees' impressions of how they are being treated stem from their own assessments of the exchanges they have had with management and coworkers (supervisors and co-workers). When employees are convinced that they enjoy supportive treatment from their organization, the employees would have a felt obligation towards the organization - employees' inner desire to reciprocate the favourable and supportive treatment received (Caesens et al.; Kurtessis et al., 2015). When a person is treated well by another, the reciprocity norm dictates that the other returns the favourable treatment, to the mutual benefit of both parties (Arshadi, 2011).

The role Communication patterns play in Perceived Organizational Support is further amplified in the assertion of Eisenberger et al. (2014) that individuals high in reciprocation wariness would be distrustful of others and their readiness to abide by the reciprocity norm. Reciprocity wariness might develop from negative experiences or might be innate. Either way, it engenders low POS which portends adverse consequences for the organization such as increased levels of intention to quit, decreased commitment to the attainment of organizational objectives, and could indeed translate to lower team spirituality.

This is why organizations should strive to achieve POS employees by ensuring antecedents/predictors of POS such as fairness, rewards and job conditions and supervisor support. Fairness: This entails non-preferential treatment of employees and procedural justice in performance appraisal which enables employees to discern acts that would be rewarded by the organization and those that would attract punishment (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, Rupp, 2001; Jagasree & Sheela, 2012; Ugwuzor, 2022). Eisenberger et al. (2016) divided fair treatment at work into four types of justice: procedural, distributive, informational and interpersonal.

When an employee is certain (through his or her intrapersonal communication debates) that improved effort on his/her part would result in favourable returns such as improved respect and even promotion for him/her, the employee would have a high POS. Kurtessis et al. (2015) revealed that high POS employees have implicit confidence that they would be rewarded for giving their best to the organization rather than made to suffer for it. Where the employee however feels that the organization plays favourites in the apportioning of rewards and punishments, irrespective of amount of effort and loyalty exhibited by employees, employees' POS would be low. This could be detrimental to the organization. In a school setting for instance, a teacher might be unwilling to help orient new teachers or volunteer to take classes off another overworked teacher. Furthermore, debasing treatment like scolding a teacher before students would affect the teacher's interpersonal justice perception and thereby adversely affect the teacher's POS.

Rewards and work conditions: This has to do with growth opportunities and job stress Jagasree and Sheela (2012) revealed that Eisenberger and his colleagues opined that when organizations dish out rewards given arbitrarily for work done could adversely affect Perceived Organizational Support within the organization. POS invokes the Social Exchange theory by recognizing that employees trade increased effort and loyalty for the attainment of socio-emotional needs. Employees expect not just remuneration for services rendered but also respect, approval and recognition. Employees also expect the organization to have policies, norms and cultures that facilitate career development opportunities. Employees' expectations of possible organizational support they would receive from the organization get built up before the employment during the recruitment process. Thus, organizations desirous of having high POS employees present a caring and supportive organization to prospective employees.

Eisenberger et al. (2016) also stressed that when rewards are given to best satisfy the various needs of individual employees, the employees would enjoy a higher perceived organizational support. A teacher would have a high POS if his/her many years of meritorious service is rewarded with regular salary, health benefits, awards, and good physical working environment. The reverse would be the case for a teacher who is made to teach a class two floors up in spite of his/her bad leg. The second teacher would have a low POS as the organization would be perceived as uncaring and unsupportive due to the actions or inactions of its agent, the Principal. This is because the Principal's actions are regarded as an embodiment of the organization's and not just the Principal's magnanimity or otherwise (Kubuga, 2014).

Supervisor support: Supervisors are regarded as agents of the organization due to the middle-man role they play between the organization and employees. CompassPoint (2012) outlined supervisor's role as the intimating subordinate about the goals and expectations of the organization, evaluating the work of employees, providing support, and balancing the needs of employees and the organization in such a way that both parties achieve their objectives. When supervisor's organizational embodiment is high, employees highly identify supervisors with the organization and consequently attribute the relationship they have with the supervisors and the extent of support they receive to their relationship with the organization and extent of organizational support (Ahmed et al. 2011; Eisenberger et al., 2014; Jagasree & Sheela, 2012).

2.2.3.2 Perceived Organizational Support and Team Spirituality

For a business to achieve team spirituality, defined as "a shared awareness of the importance of creating and maintaining a culture of teamwork," all employees and managers must believe they are contributing to the company's success. Eisenberger et al. (2014) theorized that supervisors also have their own perceived organizational support (SPOS) and that, in the course of their supervisory duties over subordinates, supervisors can reciprocate for the favourable supervisor perceived organizational support by drawing out the best from their subordinates and by making them more committed to the attainment of organizational objectives through the optimum performance of their supervisory roles as they pertain to the employees. Thus, SPOS is especially important to organizations because supervisors with high SPOS would better treat employees favourably thereby engendering high POS in the employees.

Setting attainable objectives and providing rewards based on how effectively they are accomplished; providing individualized benefits; providing a fair and equitable environment in which all management decisions and policies are made, monitored, and enforced Organizations may foster team spirituality by providing resources to managers in order to produce SPOS managers, who in turn produce POS managers, who produce SPOS managers, etc (Eisenberger et al., 2016).

POS and SPOS are both relevant to team spirituality as employees with high POS have reduced relationship conflicts, positive mood, reduced stress and lower levels of intention to quit, provide better co-worker support and are more likely to exhibit selflessness at work; while supervisors with high SPOS would better provide supervisory support and mentoring to employees.

2.3 Empirical Review

Several scholarly efforts have been expended in recent times to favourably situate organizational communication and variables of team spirituality – supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness – within effective organizations. Specifically, various studies (Armendariz, 2012; arriere and Bourque, 2009; Kemanci, 2018; Qureshi et al., 2018; Sizer, 2008; Tuerah et al., 2019; Udegbe et al., Yildirim, 2014) have linked supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness to team spirituality through job satisfaction, reduced intention to quit, motivation, engagement, well being and organizational commitment. Other studies have also linked communication patterns to team spirituality dimensions.

2.3.1 Intrapersonal Communication and Supervisor Support

Service workers at major, national pest control enterprises in the Midwest and the South East were the focus of a study by Johlke and Duhan (2000) who looked at the relationship between supervisors' communication styles and their workers' levels of job satisfaction. Their research demonstrated that when supervisors used indirect material in their communications, service workers had clearer understanding of their manager's expectations and backing. The study therefore draws a direct link between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support.

Armendariz (2012) investigated the benefits of supervisor support by analysing data from the American National Study of the changing workforce (NSCW) – a nationally representative, repeated cross sectional survey – conducted in 1997 and 2002. Results from a sample of 5687 people across both years pointed to a strong correlation between supervisor support and feelings of accomplishment, team spirit on the work, and promotion prospects.

The study of Sein, Mugo and Kiama (2018) also drew a link between intrapersonal communication and Supervisor Support. The authors analyzed the impact of interactions with managers and peers in Kenyan telecommunications firms on workers' productivity. They had surmised that supervisor support can bring about psychological meaningfulness, safety and availability which would have an effect on employee performance. Psychological meaningfulness was described as the work values related with standard or individual idealism, and availability was defined as the provision of resources (physical, emotional, and cognitive) that would motivate the person to be interested in the role he or she performs. The correlation between how an employee was viewed by their superiors and by their peers was statistically significant ($t\text{-value} = 6.623$, $\text{sig. value} = 0.000 \leq 0.05$).

Another study carried out on positive role of supervisor support within the organization is that of Qureshi et al. (2018). The authors of this study analyzed how having a supportive supervisor affected the happiness of nurses working in public hospitals. The results of the study, which included 570 participants, showed that I participants' perceptions of fairness had a positive correlation with their level of work satisfaction ($r = 0.392$, $p = 0.0001$). (ii) Having a supportive supervisor was found to be a strong predictor of happiness on the job ($r = 0.609$; $p = 0.0001$). There is a substantial relationship between how people feel about their workplace fairness and their level of job satisfaction ($r = 0.062$; $p = 0.042$). As fairness perception is as a result of an employee's intrapersonal communication, this study links intrapersonal communication to supervisor support.

2.3.2 Intrapersonal Communication and Mentoring

Some studies have shown relationships between intrapersonal communication and mentoring. One of which is that of Rollnik-Sadowska, Glinska and Ryciuk (2021). Their work sought Using Computer Assisted Web Interviews (CAWI) and a sample of 103 mentors and 119 mentees, findings showed positive and direct effect of non-verbal channels and tools of communication on the effectiveness of communication in the mentoring process.

In 2005, Allen, Day, and Lentz studied the impact of comfort on mentoring relationships. Informal mentoring (which forms organically via mutual attraction), interpersonal comfort, and professional mentoring were all shown to be positively correlated, but the researchers found that interpersonal comfort did not buffer interactions between different types of mentoring (formal vs. informal). Mutual attraction here are a product of the mentor's and mentee's individual intrapersonal process. This study thus shows a positive link between intrapersonal communication and mentoring.

Mentoring and intrapersonal communication were also investigated by Bartuseviciene, Bartkute-Norkuniene, Jodiene, Zvaigzne, Kotane, Mietule, and Murinska (2021). Both quantitative and qualitative analyses of survey responses about mentoring's impact on mentorees' communicative abilities were conducted for this study. Of the mentors' and mentees' major elements impacting communication, the ability to understand each other's viewpoints, feelings, and experiences and to discern a person's intentions from their outward look and conduct was determined to be the least essential. This data hints that mentoring discussions prioritize interpersonal over intrapersonal exchanges. The authors postulated that factors such as psychological meaningfulness, safety, and availability at work are influenced by employees' interactions with coworkers and with the direct leadership or supervisors.

2.3.3 Intrapersonal Communication and Co-worker Support

An indirect connection has been drawn by some studies between intrapersonal communication and co-worker support. Adriyanto (2021) study was to investigate whether job satisfaction can be enhanced through colleague support and communication. One

hundred people filled out surveys for the study that was conducted in Indonesia's Semarang municipal government's secretary's office. The quality of communication and social support were shown to have substantial effects on work satisfaction, whereas social support had little bearing on job engagement. According to the study's definition, social support consists of material and emotional help from friends and family. As a result, we may infer that supportive internal communications lead to happier employees overall.

One alternative is to use Bateman's (2009) study. Bateman's (2009) survey of 98 retail workers at two New Zealand women's fashion enterprises found that having supportive coworkers is strongly correlated with feeling more committed to one's profession, less stressed out on the job, and less likely to want to quit. As intention to quit or not is a function of one's intrapersonal communication brought about by some external factors, this study links intrapersonal communication to co-worker support.

2.3.4 Intrapersonal Communication and Selflessness

The influence of verbal feedback on expected feedback on altruistic conduct was tested by Ellingsten and Johannesson (2007) with 276 business and economics majors from the Stockholm School of Economics. The findings demonstrated the effectiveness of both verbal rewards and penalties in fostering helpful actions. This study therefore shows there is a link between intrapersonal communication and selflessness as anticipated verbal rewards and punishment are a product of intrapersonal communication.

2.3.5 Extrapersonal Communication and Supervisor Support

In 2010, researchers Lee, Gillespie, Mann, and Wearing examined the connection between trustworthy leadership and success. Leaders (or supervisors) can encourage team members to improve performance by having them teach and learn from one another. Tuerah et al. (2019) investigated the working relationships, leadership styles, and communication styles of Indonesian elementary school teachers in the city of Tomohon. According to a survey of 195 educators, open lines of communication, high levels of performance, good work ethics, effective leadership, and open lines of communication all contribute to greater job satisfaction. As extrapersonal communication within a school is interpersonal communication between two staff of the school, on the same, higher or lower hierarchical level, this study links extrapersonal communication to job satisfaction and performance.

Tasnim and Akkas (2017) study in Dubai was another study which drew a positive link between extrapersonal communication and supervisors' communication skills. In the study interpersonal communication skills was included as supervisory communication skills. Findings showed that the two concepts are positively correlated. This study thus draw a positive link between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support.

Michael (2014) discovered that when workers have positive LMX connections with their supervisors, they are more likely to express their appreciation for their coworkers and the work they do. The purpose of the study was to determine if supervisors who have positive LMX connections are more likely to engage in supportive behaviors, such as providing their subordinates with positive feedback (Michael, 2014).

2.3.6 Extrapersonal Communication and Mentoring

Studies that have sought to establish relationships between interpersonal communication within organizations (extrapersonal communication) and mentoring include those of Ismail, Omar and Abdullah (2017), Rollnik-Sadowska et al., (2021), Yim and Waters (2013). Ismail et al. Investigated mentoring communication practices and their relationship with study performance. Their study population constituted undergraduate students of the faculty of Economics and Management in a Malaysian Public research university. From a sample of 300 students, the findings showed that interpersonal communication does act as an important determinant of study performance. It however also showed that the implementation of interpersonal communication in mentoring relations does not enhance mentee study performance.

Rollnik-Sadowska et al. (2021) who studied models of communication effectiveness in the mentoring process, found that effectiveness of communication in the mentoring process is positively and directly influenced by written and oral channels and tools of communication. This finding therefore indicates that extrapersonal communication is positively linked to mentoring.

Interpersonal fluency, attributional confidence, and effective communication were among the topics that Yim and Waters (2013) explored in the context of mentoring relationships. Mentoring relationships provide both emotional and practical help, according to a study of 403 graduate students in Australia. This is especially true when the mentor is approachable, competent, and communicative.

2.3.7 Extrapersonal Communication and Co-Worker Support

Some studies have indirectly linked extrapersonal communication and co-worker support. Sein et al. (2018) studied the correlation between supervisor and co-worker relationship and the performance of employees in telecommunication companies. The study which was carried out in Kenya found that co-workers have significant effect on employee performance because psychological conditions at work which affect performance such as psychological meaningfulness are influenced by employees' relationships with colleagues.

Adriyanto's research from 2021 discovered that social support and communication quality both significantly impact employees' levels of work satisfaction. Support from one's coworkers was also found to be indirectly related to extrapersonal communication. Because one kind of social assistance offered by the company is called "colleague support," and its definition is "an interpersonal exchange in which one person supports another within the business," this is the case.

Sanyal and Hisam (2018) studied the positive effects of teamwork within organizations. The results indicated that teamwork, leadership, structure, performance reviews, and rewards all had a favorable effect on employee productivity, with teamwork having the greatest influence on productivity.

2.3.8 Extrapersonal Communication and Selflessness

Very few studies have linked social engagement with generosity. As an example, consider the research undertaken by Mahat, Trisnawati, and Megawati (2021). Researchers analyzed the effects of belonging to a group, feeling encouraged, and being generous on word of mouth through the use of an online poll. Google forms were distributed to 120 Adidas brand advocates who are also owners of at least two Adidas products apiece. The data demonstrate the statistical significance of the impact of altruism on word of mouth: $p = .045$, $C-R = 2.002$. It was hypothesized that if people in a certain area were more kind to one another, they would talk less about money and more about other things.

Corporate communication is linked to the five pillars of organizational citizenship behavior that Yildirim's (2014) study identifies: altruism, conscientiousness, civility, civic virtue, and sportsmanship. The study found that the highest connection of any organizational citizenship behavior with prosocial behavior was communication with management. Altruism was conceptually defined as the voluntary behavior of the employee to help his colleagues in an organizational responsibility or with a problem, and civic virtue was defined as following the changes and improvements in the organization and actively taking part in the acceptance of the changes and contributing positively to the organization's image (Yildirim, 2014).

2.3.9 Corporate Culture, Communication Patterns and Team Spirituality

Various studies have shown relationships between corporate culture and communication patterns and team spirituality dimensions. Employee performance and teamwork were found to have a positive and strong relationship by Kemanci's (2018) research on management, laboratory scientists, physicians, and nurses at the University of Abuja Teaching Hospital in Gwagwalada, Abuja-Nigeria, and by Koster's (2014) research on career satisfaction and altruistic organizational citizenship behaviour.

Similarly, Kibe (2014) studied the effects of communication strategies such as open, inclusive, two-way, result driven and multi-channel communication on organizational outcomes. The results of the study conducted on 132 employees of Kenya Ports Authority showed that effective communication strategies enhance organizational performance.

Two studies that have linked communication within an organization to job satisfaction and productivity are Udegbe et al (2012), and Carriere and Bourque (2009). Udegbe et al. (2012) studied how business communication affected 100 different enterprises in Lagos State, Nigeria, both big and small, producing and providing services. The study revealed that internal and external business communications which are emphasized and practiced to a reasonable extent within the organizations under study, contribute to improved job satisfaction, profitability and public credibility. According to studies by Carriere and Bourque (2009), differences in job happiness, communication satisfaction, and emotional commitment to the business may all be traced back to internal communication methods.

2.4 Summary of literature reviewed

The review of related literature shows that communication patterns and team spirituality variable are essential to the effective functioning of organizations through improved job satisfaction, improved performance and organizational commitment. However, though the review in some instances, revealed an indirect link between communication pattern and team spirituality dimensions, there was no direct link between the two concepts. Furthermore, research works have not isolated intrapersonal communication and studied its effects on team spirituality dimensions. This study therefore seeks to fill these research gaps by determining whether there is a direct link between communication patterns (intrapersonal and extrapersonal) and team spirituality dimensions of supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness, with corporate culture as a moderating variable.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Philosophical Foundation

Every research undertaking has a philosophical foundation which directs the researcher from the formulation of problem to analysis and discussion of results. Knowledge, its origins, and its evolution are all aspects of research philosophy, says Bajpai (2011). For Zukauskas, Vveinhardt and Andriukaitiene (2018), research philosophy is relevant to researchers as it helps them resolve the decision making issues pertaining to the choice of research strategy to be adopted, the formulation of the problem, data collection techniques, processing and analysis.

There are diverse research philosophical approaches researchers could base their studies on. Though there are four major approaches – positivism, interpretivism, pragmatism and postmodernism – some authors like Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) also listed critical realism as a philosophical approach as a philosophical approach. The philosophical approach a researcher settles on is predicated on certain assumptions the researcher holds concerning knowledge – epistemological, ontological and axiological. Epistemological assumptions have to do with what the researcher assumes constitutes acceptable, valid and legitimate knowledge (Saunders et al., 2009). Similarly, Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) described epistemology as how we know the truth or what counts as knowledge within the world. The use of qualitative or quantitative data on a particular study would depend on the researcher's assumption.

Ontological assumptions have to do with the researcher's assumptions concerning the nature of reality (Chege & Otiene, 2020; Saunderson et al., 2009). The assumption of ascribing human-like traits to organizations (the ability to care for employees), for instance, encourages Perceive Organizational Support Theory studies; just as the assumption that teachers are social beings underlies this study on communication patterns and team spirituality. Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) stated that ontological assumptions aid researcher in drawing out meanings from the data collected from the field during the research.

Axiological assumptions have to do with the researcher's assumptions concerning ethical issues that need to be considered when planning a research (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Ethical issues guide the researcher all through the study. Choosing one topic rather than another suggests that the researcher values that topic over the other. Saunders et al. (2009) stated that the researchers ethical values influence the researcher's decision on what research philosophy to be adopted, the preferred data collection methods and even the population of the study.

The philosophical foundation underlying this study is the positivist stance because the researcher's assumptions are in line with the positivism philosophical approach. According to Feigl's (2020) definition of positivist in the Encyclopaedia Britannica, positivism is any system that relies solely on empirical data and rejects the use of a priori or metaphysical assumptions. According to Saunders et al. (2009), in order to come up with law-like generalizations, positivism must be grounded in an observable social reality. According to Collis and Hussey (2014), positivism was developed in the natural sciences and is predicated on conducting scientific experiments to test hypotheses and using statistical analysis to uncover logical or mathematical proof.

Positivism is differentiated from the other approaches as a result of the ontological, epistemological and axiological assumptions.

The positivist approach was suited to this study because the researcher was independent of what was being researched, objective and detached; scientific methods were utilized, and law-like generalizations produced.

3.2 Research Design

According to Akhtar (2016), a research design is a strategy for collecting and analyzing data that prioritizes precision, efficiency, and applicability to the study's stated aims. Research design, as defined by Claybaugh (2020), is the process by which a researcher organizes the many components of a study such that they collectively answer the research question or problem. A research design therefore facilitates attainment of the study's objectives. There are various classifications of research from which researchers can choose to constitute their research design. DiscoverPhDs (2020) provided different criteria for the classifications of research: classifications according to research purpose, type of inference to be drawn, intended depth of scope, type of data used, degree of manipulation of variables, time required to study the phenomenon, and according to sources of information. Guided by the researcher's research philosophical leaning, the researcher chooses between or amongst the different sub-types of the classifications of research.

Thus, in order to achieve this study's aim and objectives, the correlational survey method is adopted as the research design as this best provides data for testing to ascertain the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality, with corporate culture as moderating variable, and because it was economical, convenient and practicable.

3.3 Population of Study

If you hear the word "population," chances are good that a recent census was conducted. Nevertheless, this does not imply that a census has been conducted when the term "population of study," also known as "statistical population," is used. A census is "the complete enumeration of the population in a country, territory, or area," as defined by the United Nations. This yields a wealth of information about the population in question, including its size, location, age and sex composition, standard of living, and other crucial socioeconomic characteristics (UNFPA, 2019). Yet, the wider group of persons who have comparable traits and are chosen for a study's statistical sample is referred to as the statistical population (Momoh, 2021). Population of study may be non-living objects phenomenon under study determines the population types. In research, the population entails the entirety of

components being studied, and this is not limited to human beings as other animate and indeed inanimate objects such as organizations can constitute the population of the study (Bhandari, 2020).

Participants in this study were secondary school teachers from accredited private institutions in Nigeria's Rivers and Bayelsa states. There are one thousand, three hundred and forty one (1341) private secondary school teachers from sixty-five (65) Government Approved private secondary schools in Bayelsa State (Bayelsa-EMIS, 2022); and three thousand, two hundred and sixty three (3263) private secondary school teachers from one hundred and three (103) Government Approved private secondary schools in Rivers State (Directorate of Inspection, Rivers State Ministry of education, 2021). The statistical population of the study was therefore four thousand, six hundred and four (4604) private secondary school teachers.

3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

The term "sample" refers to the randomly chosen subset of the wider statistical population used in a research. Participants in a survey are selected at random from a broader pool (the population) of people who could fill out the questionnaire. A sample, as described by Oribhabor and Anyanwu (2019), is a subset of a larger population that is drawn for research. A sample is selected for a study when it is impractical to study each and every member of a given population. When the statistical population is large, it is also more economical to study a fraction of the population rather than to study the entirety of the population. Inferences of the population are drawn from the study of the sample. Osuala (2013) enumerated reduced cost, greater speed, and greater accuracy as benefits of studying samples over studying the entire population. This study's sample size was 664 teachers selected from two Nigerian states in South South Nigeria. This sample size was determined with Yamane's (1967) sample size determination formula:

Where n = sample size; N = Population size; e = margin of error

For Bayelsa State:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} = \frac{1341}{1 + 1341(0.05)^2} = 308$$

Calculated sample size for Bayelsa State is therefore 308

For Rivers State:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} = \frac{3263}{1 + 3263(0.05)^2} = 356$$

Calculated sample size for Rivers State is therefore 356

Table 3.1 below shows the sample size derived for each State and sample size of the study

Table 3.1 Sample Size determination

State	N (Population of teachers of private secondary schools)	E (margin of error)	N (sample size)
Bayelsa State	1341	0.05	308
Rivers State	3263	0.05	356
TOTAL	4604		664

Hence three hundred and eight (308) private secondary school teachers from Government Approved secondary schools in Bayelsa State and three hundred and fifty-six (356) private secondary school teachers from Government Approved secondary schools in Rivers State were selected from the private secondary schools in both States to constitute the sample size of six hundred and sixty four (664) private secondary school teachers of the study. However, the actual respondents of the study was five hundred and sixty one (561) from retrieved questionnaire.

Sampling is the practice of selecting a representative subset of a statistical population for analysis (Majid, 2018). Researchers can choose from a large range of sampling methods, but they can all be sorted into two broad categories: probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Osuala, 2013). The researcher's approach may change based on factors such as the nature of the study population being studied (Majid, 2018). Using a combination of random and targeted sampling, we were able to choose 664 educators from private high schools in the United States.

While conducting a stratified sample, the total population is first divided into homogenous sub-groups called strata, which are then constructed based on certain common features in the population data and are mutually exhaustive and exclusive (Frey, 2018; Thomas, 2020). Osuala (2013) believes that stratification increases precision for very little additional cost. According to Thomas (2020), when a researcher suspects that several subgroups will have different mean values, stratified sampling is the most appropriate probability sampling strategy to apply. In this study, as the statistical population of Rivers State private secondary school teachers is much higher than the statistical population of Bayelsa State, the study population was stratified along state lines before the sample size is determined for each stratum – state.

Simple random sampling technique is a sampling technique that gives every element of the population an equal probability of chosen, and where different sub-sets of the same number are constituted from the statistical population, every element in each of the sub-sets would have the same opportunity of being chosen (Tadakaluru, 2020). Nguyen, Shih, Srivastava, Tirathapura and

Xu (2019) revealed that the power of random sampling lies in its generality. After the stratification of the study population along state lines, and determining the sample size for each state, simple random sampling enabled the researcher to pick the individual teachers of the study. This entire process is called stratified random sampling technique. Nguyen, et al. (2019) explained that in stratified random sampling, the population is divided into smaller portions - strata - out of which individual samples are determined for each of the portions using random sampling. Stratified random sampling technique was thus suitable for ensuring that every private secondary teacher in Bayelsa and Rivers State had the same opportunity of being chosen.

3.5 Method of Data Collection

Data collection answer the question of how qualitative and or quantitative data for the study would be arrived at. Data collection is defined by Kabir (2016) defined data collection as whole process that involves getting the data about the various variables under study in such a way that the researcher would be able to arrive at answers to the research questions as well as to be able to test the hypotheses of the study. How data is collected can affect the reliability of a study as well as the generalizability of the study's findings and results. There are various data collecting methods and avenues available to a researcher, some of which include experiments, questionnaire, interviews, direct observations, documents and other materials, focus group, case studies, diaries, letters, portfolios (Athukorala, 2009; Sindin, 2017; Valcheva, 2018).

While some of the above data collection methods entail first hand collection of data – primary sources of data, others such as documents and other materials, diaries, letters and portfolios are collected by someone other than the user for another purpose (Sindin, 2017). Compared to secondary sources, primary data collection sources such as the questionnaire, interviews, experiments, direct observation and focus groups have certain advantages. Such advantages of primary sources of data collection include they provide data specific to the researcher's needs, they are more accurate and reliable, have higher levels of control, and they provide up-to-date information as data are collected in real-time (Ajayi, 2017; Sindin, 2017; Valcheva, 2018).

In line with this study's research design dimensions, particularly type of data used (quantitative), and degree of manipulation of variables (non-experimental), the questionnaire was employed as the avenue for collecting the data. A questionnaire is a document with a number of questions and options on a given subject matter designed to elicit responses from respondents (Bhandari (2021). A questionnaire has a number of advantages which makes it suitable for this study. Compared to some of the other data collection techniques, questionnaire is less expensive, does not require as much effort from the researcher, often has standardized answers, eliminates researcher bias and permits anonymity, thereby engendering more honest responses (Athukorala, 2009; Chaleunvong, 2009).

A researcher designed questionnaire entitled Questionnaire for Test of Communication Patterns and Team Spirituality (qtCOMPATEASPY) was prepared. The body of the questionnaire has 7 sub-parts (A – G) which would elude information on communication patterns, team spirituality and corporate culture from the study sample. Research assistants were employed to distribute and retrieve copies of the questionnaire from respondents across the two states to facilitate easy and timely distribution and retrieval.

3.6 Measurement of Variables

A variable is anything that can take on more than one value. Bevans (2019) defined a variable in statistical research as an attribute of an object of study. Price, et al. (2015) described a variable as a quantity or quality that varies across people or situations. Every study has one or more variables. Osuala (2013) stated that variables can be classified in several ways – independent versus dependent variables, active versus attribute variables, and continuous versus categorical variables. The type of study being conducted determines the type of study variables. For instance, an experimental study could have dependent and independent variables. For a correlational study such as this however, there is no distinction between independent and dependent variables. The study was rather focused on establishing positive, negative or zero correlation between communication patterns and team spirituality.

The term "measurement of variables" refers to the scientific method of collecting and documenting data through careful observation and recording (Kabir, 2016). It involves assigning numerical values to variables and interpreting them. While assignment of numerical values to variables is a function of scaling, interpretation of data is a function of levels of measurement. This study's instrument utilized a Likert type scale which measures respondents' attitudes towards a phenomenon by requiring respondents to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement to a set of statements. A 5-point Likert type scale of agreement – Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Fairly Agree (FA), Disagree (DA) and Strongly Disagree (SDA) - were applied as follows:

Sub-sections A – Intrapersonal communication scale and B – extrapersonal communication scale contained statements on communication patterns (that is intrapersonal communication and extrapersonal communication). Respondents were required to indicate on a scale their agreement or disagreement with statements such as 'What I think about myself affect how I communicate with others in the school' (intrapersonal communication) and My communication with others in the school is affected by how fellow teachers communicate with me' (extrapersonal communication).

Sub-sections C – F was designed to provide information on team spirituality through the supervisor support scale, mentoring scale, co-worker support scale and selflessness scale; while sub-section G was the corporate culture scale. Respondents were asked to indicate on a scale their agreement or disagreement with statements such as 'I am provided with every tool needed to facilitate my jobs' (supervisor support); 'More experienced staff in the school teach me how to be a better teacher for the benefit of the school' (mentoring); 'My colleagues help make the teaching job bearable for me' (co-worker support); 'When I help others in the school, I do it without an expectation of a reward' (selflessness); and 'Ways of doing things in my school (culture) encourages communication among persons in the school' (corporate culture).

Inferences drawn from a set of variables depends on the levels of measurement. A wrong level of measurement for a study would portend that the wrong conclusion would be drawn. When determining how to interpret data from a variable and which

statistical analysis to perform, Kabir (2016) argues that the researcher's capacity to pick between several levels of measuring that variable is crucial. An ordinal scale is employed in this investigation rather than a nominal, ordinal, interval, or ratio scale.

Ordinal level of measurement groups variables into descriptive categories – ordering them on some kind of hierarchical scale (Hillier, 2021). With Ordinal data, though values are ranked, the differences between the ranks are not equidistant. Thus, a position ranked 4 is not twice as much as a position ranked 2. Osuala (2013) stated that the ordinal level of measurement is suitable for measuring attitude as it serves to rank Respondents according to some characteristics such as favourability towards a certain issue. In this study, private secondary school teachers were required to rate the extent to which they agree with statements on communication patterns, team spirituality and corporate culture.

3.7 Validity of Instrument

The concept of validity refers to checking that a measuring device actually measures the target variable. According to Kabir (2016), when data collection is legitimate, the results accurately reflect the phenomena under study. According to Mohajan (2017), validity is "the extent to which study findings are true," a notion that includes the whole experimental idea and determines whether or not the results gained fit all of the conditions of the scientific research process.

There are several types of validity, including internal, external, face, content, concept, and criterion validity. Validity, both inside and outside the experiment, is common. High criteria validity is attained when an instrument faithfully measures the specific outcome it is designed to assess; low face validity is achieved when an instrument merely appears to be related to a particular construct; and high content validity is achieved when an instrument adequately measures all relevant characteristics of the construct (Middleton, 2021; Taherdoost, 2016).

To ensure validity of instrument, the composition of the instrument followed the literature review on the dimensions of communication patterns, team spirituality and corporate culture. The contents of the various scales was also validated through a peer review system and put through further scrutiny by various experts, especially in the field of management. Their suggestions were incorporated in order to improve validity of the scale.

3.8 Reliability of Instrument

Inferring how well a test measures a phenomenon from its reliability is possible since reliability is synonymous with repeatability (Kabir, 2016). Osuala (2013) stated that reliability is normally based on two assumptions – repeatability of study and consistency of result. That is, a reliable measure can be used to measure a variable again to produce the same result. There are various methods available to researchers to determine the reliability of their instrument, one of which is the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which provides an overall assessment of a measure's or dimension's reliability, often returns findings in the range of 0 to 1. In interpreting Cronbach's alpha coefficients, George and Mallery (2003) recommends that where $\alpha \geq .7$ is acceptable. Cronbach's alpha was used to the data collection instrument to determine its reliability. SPSS was used for the analysis. Table 3.2 below displays the results of a Cronbach's alpha study of the research instrument.

Table 3.2 Reliability Statistics for the study variables

Variables	Dimensions and Measures	Number of Scale Items	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient
Communication Patterns	Intrapersonal Communication	5	.784
	Extrapersonal Communication	5	.876
Team Spirituality	Supervisor Support	5	.703
	Mentoring	5	.736
	Co-worker Support	5	.851
	Selflessness	5	.716
Corporate Culture		5	.819

3.9 Data Analysis Techniques

Descriptive statistics, which based on the study's conceptual foundations and research approach, were used to convey the results of the research questions. The nine hypotheses were tested using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient.

Descriptive statistics used were simple percentages and weighted mean. For the weighted mean in this study, the five responses that were used were coded 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, for strongly agree, agree, fairly agree, disagree and strongly disagree, respectively which implies a weighted mean of $5+4+3+2+1 = 15/5 = 3$ (criterion mean). Decker (2018) opines that any average value greater than the criterion mean value (3) of the scale is construed as overall approval/agreement that majority of the respondents supported the issue raised, while a value below 3 ($M < 3$) would represent disapproval/disagreement or not supported. The study therefore, adopts a mean value of 3.0 as the cut-off mean score.

The Pearson R-Squared Correlation was used to determine the strength of a relationship between two ordinal-scale variables (Osuala, 2013).

Data collected from the field would be fed into the SPSS package and the results read out, and inferences on the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality with Corporate Culture as moderating variable drawn.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study sought to establish the link between Communication Patterns and Team Spirituality, with corporate culture as a moderating variable. In particular, the relationship between intrapersonal communication and team spirituality dimensions of supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness; the relationship between extrapersonal communication and team spirituality dimensions of supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness; and the moderating effect of corporate culture on the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality, were examined.

4.1 Presentation and Analysis Of Data

The presentation and analysis of data starts with the data on the distribution and retrieval of questionnaire.

4.1.1 Distribution of Questionnaire

The distribution of questionnaire followed the stratified sampling technique discussed in Chapter 3. The stratified random sampling technique was used to distribute the six hundred and sixty four copies of the questionnaire to private teachers of Government approved private secondary schools in Bayelsa and Rivers States. Three hundred and eight (308) copies were distributed in Bayelsa State while for Rivers State, three hundred and fifty (356) copies were distributed.

4.1.2 Response Rate

Table 4.1 below presents the data on the retrieval of questionnaire and the response rate.

Table 4.1 Response Rate

STATE	ISSUED	RETURNED	USABLE	PERCENTAGE
BAYELSA	308	296	290	94
RIVERS	356	283	271	76
	664	579	561	84

There was a total of 296 questionnaires sent out to private secondary school teachers in Bayelsa State, and 290 of them were returned for analysis, for a response rate of 94%. From the 283 copies that were found, 271 were suitable for the research, for a total of 271, or 76% of the 356 copies that were issued in Rivers State. In all, 561 viable copies were found, representing 84% of the total number of copies disseminated. This proportion will do for the purposes of the research.

4.1.3 Presentation and Analysis of Research Questions

In order to investigate the dimensions of communication patterns and the measures of team spirituality with the moderating influence of corporate culture among private secondary school teachers, the Likert type scale was adopted in the questionnaire. The scale was used to gather respondents' opinions by asking them to rate their feelings out of the five possible responses to give broad estimates of their agreement or disagreement with statements (Decker, 2018). Simple percentages were then used to analyze the research questions. Nine (9) research questions were drawn up for this study to investigate whether there is a relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality dimensions and whether corporate culture moderates the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality dimensions.

Research Question 1

What is the relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support?

Table 4.2 and figure 4.1 provide the analysis for research question 1.

Table 4.2 Relationship between Intrapersonal Communication and Supervisor Support

Relationship between Intrapersonal Communication and Supervisor Support					
	Percentage Response				
	SA	A	FA	DA	SD
What I think of my supervisor and what my supervisor thinks of me influences how my supervisor treats me	24	43	16	11	6

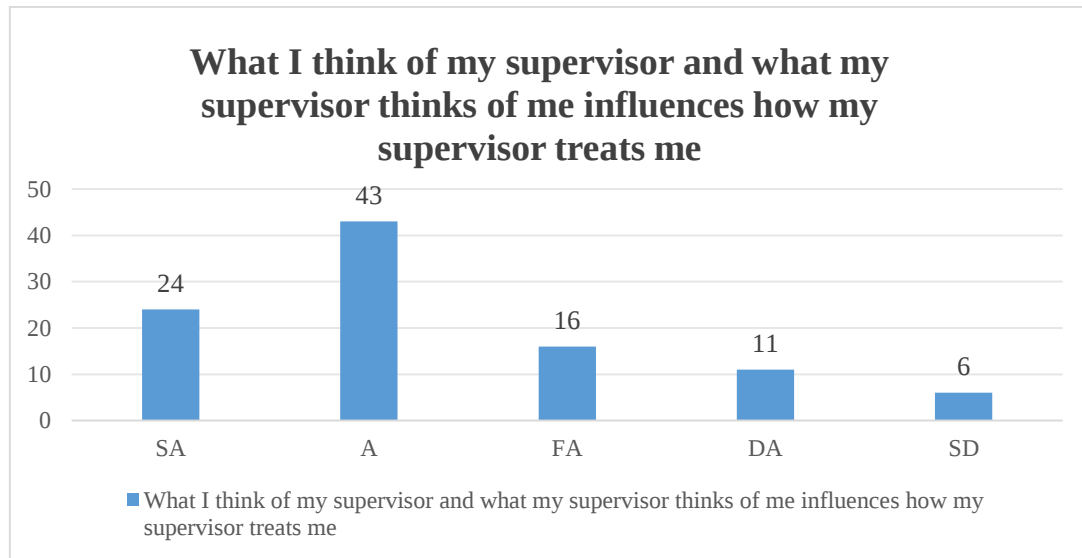


Figure 4.1 Relationship between Intrapersonal Communication and Supervisor Support

From Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1, it is obvious that more than 80% of the respondents agree that what they think of their supervisors and what their supervisors think about them influence how their supervisors treat them; 24% of the respondents strongly agree; 43% of the respondents agree; 16% of the respondents fairly agree; 11% disagree while 6% of the respondents strongly disagree that what they think of their supervisors and what their supervisors think about them influence how their supervisors treat them.

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between intrapersonal communication and Mentoring?

Table 4.3 and figure 4.2 provide the analysis for research question 2, .

Table 4.3 Relationship between Intrapersonal Communication and Mentoring

Relationship between Intrapersonal Communication and Mentoring					
	PERCENTAGE SCORES				
	SA	A	FA	DA	SD
What I think of senior and or more experienced colleagues influences my willingness to be mentored by them	18	24	43	10	5
What I think of junior or less experienced colleagues influences my willingness to mentor them	16	44	25	5	10

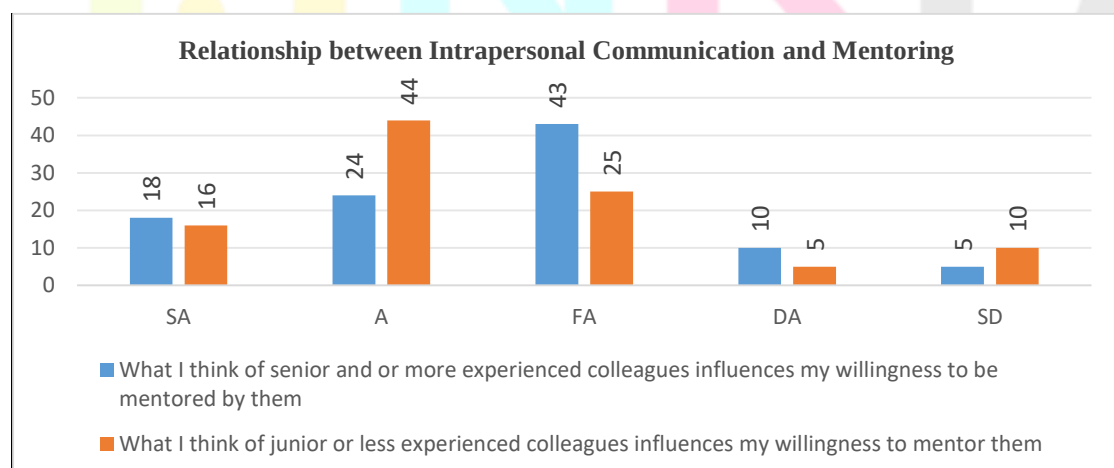


Figure 4.2 Relationship between Intrapersonal Communication and Mentoring

From the above table and figure, it is evident that the percentage of respondents who agree that what they think of others and what others think of them influence their willingness to either mentor others or to be mentored by others is higher than those that disagree. 18% of the respondents strongly agree that what they think of senior and or more experienced colleagues influence their willingness to be mentored by the senior and or more experienced colleagues; 24% agree, 43% fairly agree. 10% of the respondents however disagree that what they think of senior and or more experienced colleagues influence their willingness to be mentored by them while 5% strongly disagree. Also, 16% strongly agree that what they think of junior or less experienced colleagues influence their willingness to mentor junior or less experienced colleagues; 44% agree; 25% fairly agree; while 5% and 10% disagree and strongly disagree respectively that what they think of junior or less experienced colleagues influence their willingness to mentor junior or less experienced colleagues. The weighted mean for this item is 3.5.

Research Question 3

What is the relationship between intrapersonal communication and Co-worker Support?

Table 4.4 and figure 4.3 provide the analysis for research question 3 .

Table 4.4 Relationship between Intrapersonal Communication and Co-worker Support

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTRAPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND CO-WORKER SUPPORT					
	PERCENTAGE SCORES				
	SA	A	FA	DA	SD
What I think of my co-workers influences my willingness to assist them at work	11	43	24	17	5
What my co-workers think of me influences their willingness to assist me at work	12	37	33	18	0

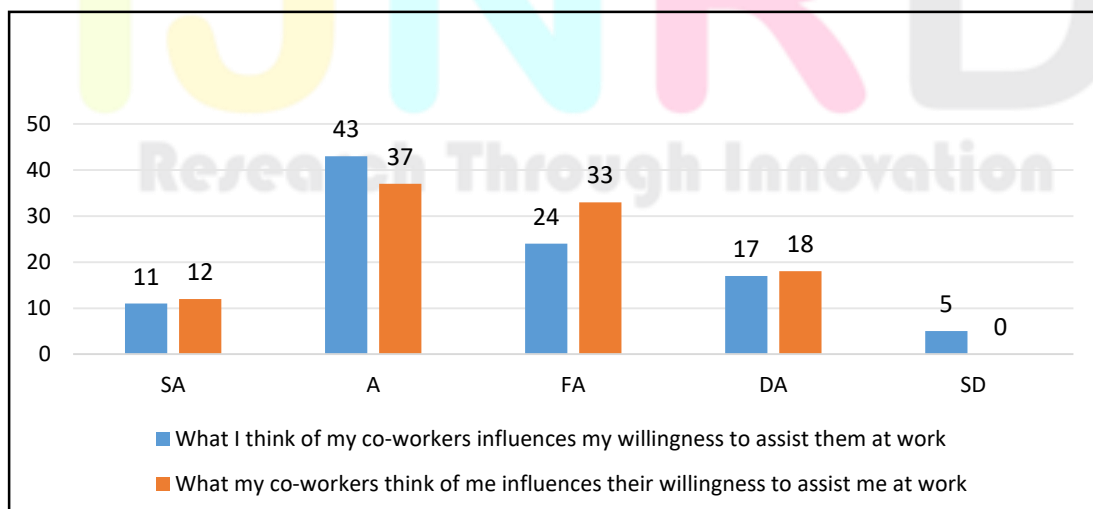


Figure 4.3 Relationship between Intrapersonal Communication and Co-worker Support

Most of the respondents believe that what they think of co-workers and what co-workers think of them influence willingness to assist each other at work. As can be seen in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.3, 11% of the respondents strongly agree that what they think of co-workers influence their willingness to assist co-workers at work; 43%, agree while 24% fairly agree. On the other hand, 17% of the respondents disagree that what they think of co-workers influence their willingness to assist co-workers at work; and 5% strongly disagree. Similarly, 12% of the respondents strongly agree that what their co-workers think of them influence the co-workers' willingness to assist them at work; 37% agree; 33% fairly agree while 18% disagree that what their co-workers think of them influence the co-workers' willingness to assist them at work.

Research Question 4

What is the relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness?

Table 4.5 and figure 4.4 provide the analysis for research question 4 .

Table 4.5 Relationship between Intrapersonal Communication and selflessness

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTRAPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND SELFLESSNESS					
	PERCENTAGE SCORES				
	SA	A	FA	DA	SD
What I think of newly-employed teachers influences my willingness to help them settle down in the school	12	24	42	17	5

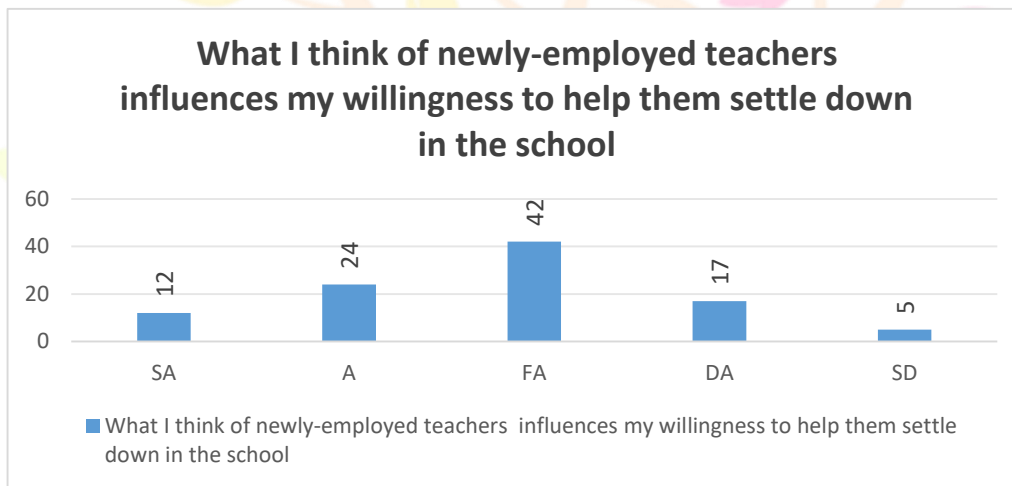


Figure 4.4 Relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness

Table 4.5 and figure 4.4 show that majority of the respondents agree that their interactions with their supervisors influence how they are treated by their supervisors; 12% of the respondents strongly agree that what they think of newly-employed teachers influence their willingness to help them settle down in the school; 24% agree and 42% fairly agree; however 17% disagree and 5% strongly disagree that what they think of newly-employed teachers influence their willingness to help them settle down in the school.

Research Question 5

What is the relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support?

Table 4.6 and figure 4.5 provide the analysis for research question 5.

Table 4.6 Relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXTRAPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND SUPERVISOR SUPPORT					
	PERCENTAGE SCORES				
	SA	A	FA	DA	SD
My interactions with my supervisor influence how my supervisor treats me at work	23	44	17	11	5

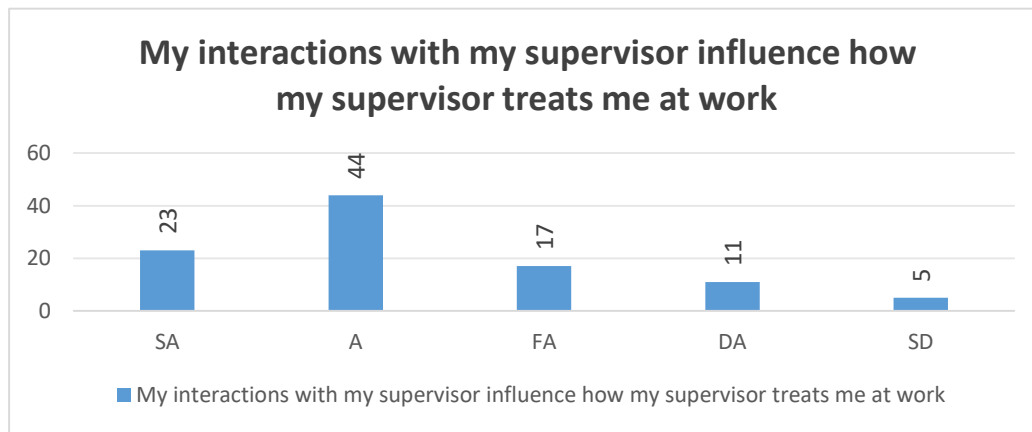


Figure 4.5 Relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support

From table 4.6 and figure 4.5, it is obvious that majority of the teachers believe that their interactions with their supervisor influence how their supervisor treats them at work; 23% strongly agree that their interactions with their supervisor influence how their supervisor treats them at work; 44% agree and 17% fairly agree; while 11% and 5% disagree and strongly disagree respectively that their interactions with their supervisor influence how their supervisor treats them at work.

Research Question 6

What is the relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring?

Table 4.7 and figure 4.6 provide the analysis for research question 6

Table 4.7 Relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXTRAPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND MENTORING					
	PERCENTAGE SCORES				
	SA	A	FA	DA	SD
My interactions with senior and or more experienced colleagues influence their willingness to mentor me	24	45	16	5	10
My interactions with junior or less experienced colleagues influence my willingness to mentor them	15	46	23	11	5

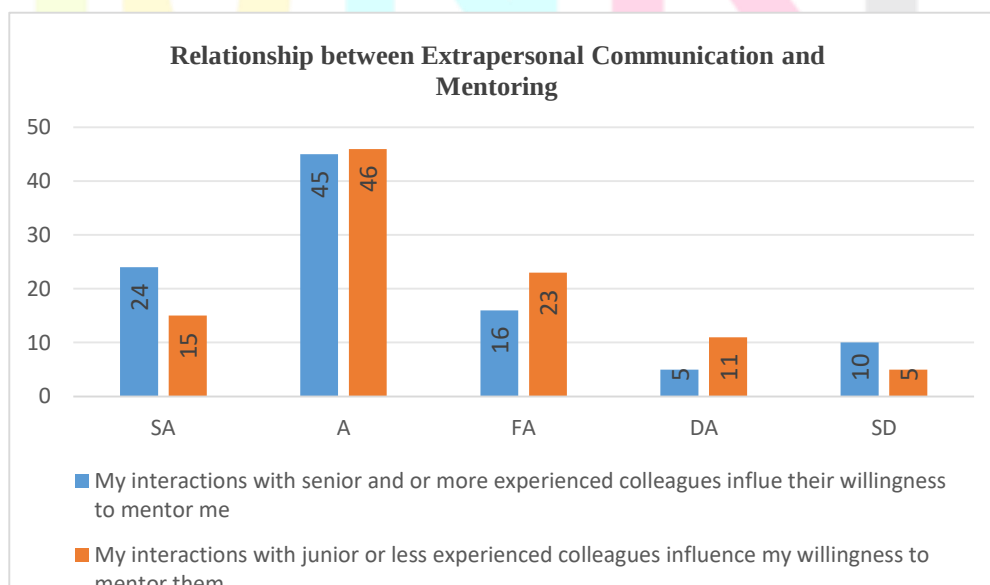


Figure 4.6 Relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring

From table 4.7 and figure 4.6, it is discernible that most of the respondents believe that their interactions with other teachers influence willingness to mentor others or be mentored by them; 24%, 45% and 16% of the respondents strongly agree, agree and fairly agree respectively that their interactions with senior and or more experienced colleagues influence their willingness to be mentored by them; while 5% and 10% disagree and strongly disagree respectively that their interactions with senior and or more experienced colleagues influence their willingness to be mentored by them. Similarly, 15%, 46% and 23% strongly agree, agree and fairly disagree that their interactions with junior and or less experienced colleagues influence their willingness to mentor the junior and or less experienced colleagues.

Research Question 7

What is the relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support?

Table 4.8 and figure 4.7 provide the analysis for research question 7.

Table 4.8 Relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXTRAPRSONAL COMMUNICATION AND CO WORKER SUPPORT					
	PERCENTAGE SCORES				
	SA	A	FA	DA	SD
My interactions with co-workers influences our willingness to help each other at work	12	43	23	17	5

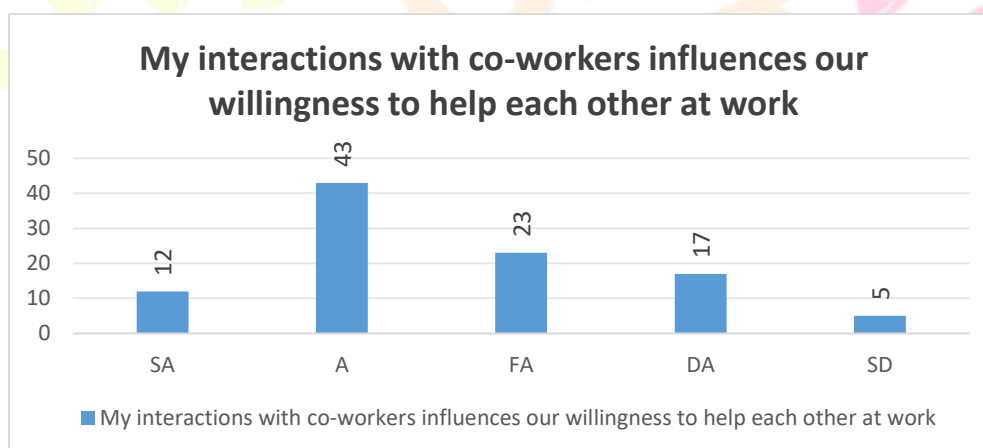


Figure 4.7 Relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support

Table 4.8 and figure 4.7 show that most of the respondents agree that their interactions with co-workers influence their willingness to help each other at work; 12%, 43% and 23% respectively strongly agree, agree and fairly agree respectively that their interactions with co-workers influence their willingness to help each other at work. On the other hand, 17% disagree that their interactions with co-workers influence their willingness to help each other at work; while 5% strongly disagree.

Research Question 8

What is the relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness?

Table 4.9 and figure 4.8 provide the analysis for research question 8.

Table 4.9 Relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXTRAPERSONAL COMMUNICATION AND SELFLESSNESS					
	PERCENTAGE SCORES				
	SA	A	FA	DA	SD
My interactions with newly employed teachers influence my willingness to help them settle down in the school	11	43	25	16	5

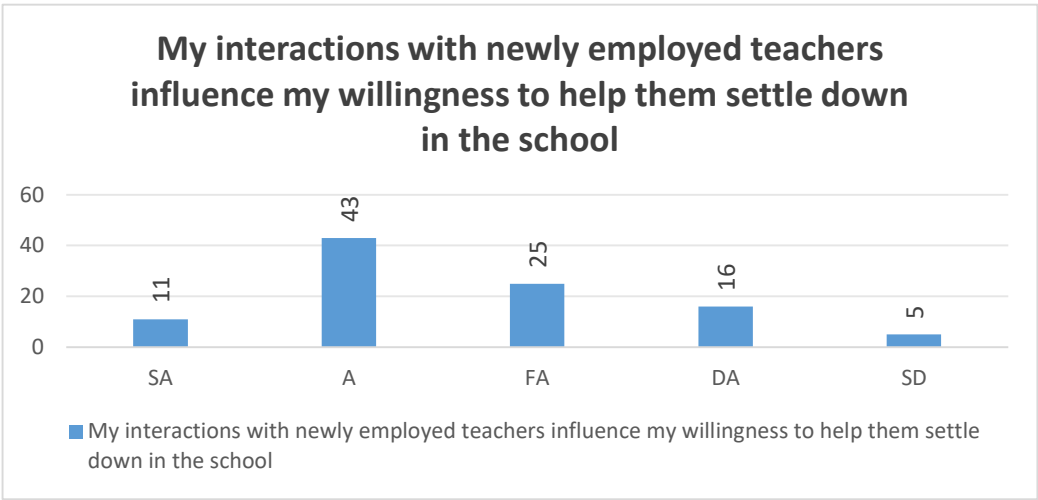


Figure 4.8 Relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness

Table 4.9 and figure 4.8 show that most of the respondents indicated that their interactions with newly employed teachers influence their willingness to help newly employed teachers settle down in school; 11% of the respondents strongly agree that their interactions with newly employed teachers influence their willingness to help newly employed teachers settle down in school; 43% agree and 25% fairly agree; while 16% of the respondents disagree that their interactions with newly employed teachers influence their willingness to help newly employed teachers settle down in school and 5% strongly disagree.

Research Question 9

Does corporate culture significantly moderate the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality?

Table 4.10 and figure 4.9 provide the analysis for research question 9

Table 4.10 Moderating relationship between corporate culture and communication patterns and team spirituality

CORPORATE CULTURE					
	PERCENTAGE SCORES				
	SA	A	FA	DA	SD
My school's corporate culture (how things are done) influences the way we communicate at school and the spirit of oneness in my school	12	43	23	17	5

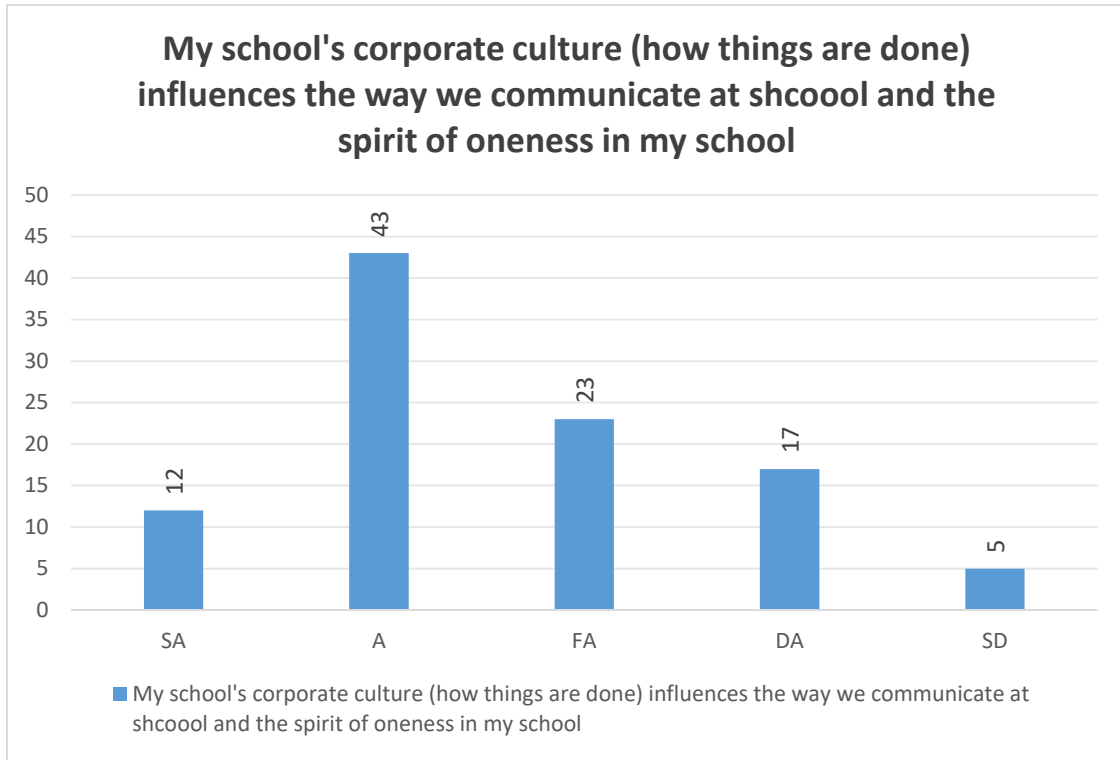


Figure 4.9 Moderating relationship between corporate culture and communication patterns and team spirituality

Table 4.10 and figure 4.9 show that majority of the respondents indicated that the corporate culture of their school (how things) are done influence the way they communicate in the school and the spirit of oneness in the school; 12% strongly agreed that the corporate culture of their school (how things are done) influence the way they communicate in the school and the spirit of oneness in the school; 43% and 23% of the respondents agreed and fairly agreed respectively; while 17% and 5% disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively that the corporate culture of their school (how things are done) influence the way they communicate in the school and the spirit of oneness in the school.

4.1.4 Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.11 presents the descriptive statistics for responses on communication patterns dimensions

Table 4.11 Descriptive Statistics for communication patterns dimensions

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Communication Patterns	561	1	5	3.62	1.087
Intrapersonal Communication	561	1	5	3.70	1.103
Extrapersonal Communication	561	1	5	3.54	1.084
Valid N (listwise)	561				

The communication patterns construct was measured using two components (intrapersonal and extrapersonal communication) to investigate how private secondary school teachers communicate in their schools. The descriptive statistics for the aggregated mean score on communication patterns is 3.62 with a standard deviation of 1.087 showing the spread in the data while the mean values for intrapersonal and extrapersonal communication are 3.70 and 3.54 with the corresponding standard deviation of 1.103 and 1,084 respectively. This signifies that the two components of communication patterns had mean values above the 3.0 threshold, denoting that they both play vital roles in terms of the communication patterns adopted by teachers of private secondary schools in this study area.

Table 4.12 Descriptive Statistics for team spirituality measures

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Team Spirituality	561	1	5	3.62	1.020
Supervisor Support	561	1	5	3.54	1.072
Mentoring	561	1	5	3.70	1.007

Co-worker Support	561	1	5	3.58	1.009
Selflessness	561	1	5	3.67	1.013
Valid N (listwise)	561				

Team spirituality was measured using supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness in a bid to examine the variable that play more significant role among private secondary school teachers. The outcome of the descriptive statistics revealed the aggregated mean score on team spirituality to be 3.62 and a standard deviation of 1.020 while the mean values for the four components are 3.54; 3.70; 3.58 and 3.67 with their corresponding standard deviations of 1.072; 1.007; 1.009 and 1.013 respectively. This outcome denote that team spirituality measures of supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness all play significant role among private secondary school teachers with mentoring taking the lead then followed by selflessness, co-worker support and supervisor support in that order. The implication of this result is that teachers easily learn from their colleagues and this learning process engenders a sense of consciousness, mindfulness and collaboration in a bid to achieving organizational predetermined goals through team effectiveness.

Table 4.13 Descriptive Statistics for the predictor, criterion and moderator

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Communication Patterns	561	1	5	3.62	1.087
Team Spirituality	561	1	5	3.62	1.020
Corporate Culture	561	1	5	3.73	.950
Valid N (listwise)	561				

The result of the descriptive statistics on the key variables (communication patterns, team spirituality and corporate culture) are univariately assessed in order to ascertain how each one describe their individual manifestation among private secondary school teachers. The idea is to find out which of the aforementioned variable play more vital role among the teachers in these schools. The outcome revealed that all three variables manifested high mean score with corporate culture having 3.73 and a standard deviation of .950; communication patterns with mean score of 3.62 and a corresponding standard deviation of 1.087; team spirituality with a mean score of 3.62 and a standard deviation of 1.020 respectively. This depicts the convergence that these variables play vital roles among private secondary school teachers in terms of the culture practice, communication patterns and their team spirituality.

4.1.5 Hypotheses Testing

The hypotheses proposed in chapter one of this study were all tested statistically with the aid of the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Statistical tool. The idea behind the adoption of this statistical tool is rooted in the fact that this study seeks to investigate the existence and or strength of a linear association between variables and this is achieved through the aid of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Statistical Test of Hypotheses

In testing the hypotheses proposed in chapter one of this study, the interpretations of results were guided by the Guildford Scale of 1956 given in Irving (2005) because the scale provide a consistent means for interpreting the statistical correlations as stated below:

- I.< .20 slight correlation, almost negligible
- II.< .20 - .40 low correlation, but small relationship
- III.< .40 - .70 moderate correlation, but substantial relationship
- IV.< .70 - .90 high correlation, marked relationship
- V.> .90 very high correlation, very dependable relationship

However, these interpretations were evaluated in light of the significant level of the correlations hence the results below:

H₀₁: There is no significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support.

Table 4.14 Correlation between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support

Correlations			
		Intrapersonal Communication	Supervisor Support
Intrapersonal Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.698**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000

	N	561	561
Supervisor Support	Pearson Correlation	.698**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	561	561
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was performed to evaluate the relationship between intrapersonal communication patterns and supervisor support. The bivariate result indicated a moderately significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support where ($r = .698^{**}$ and $p = .000$) which is < 0.01 . The null hypothesis (H_{01}) - there is no significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support - is rejected and the alternate (H_{A1}) accepted on the basis of the significant level of the correlation. Based on the criteria for hypothetical acceptance, the study affirmed that intrapersonal communication has positive and significant relationship with supervisor support among private secondary school teachers.

H₀₂: There is no significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring

Table 4.15 Correlation between intrapersonal communication and mentoring

Correlations			
		Intrapersonal Communication	Mentoring
Intrapersonal Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.729**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	561	561
Mentoring	Pearson Correlation	.729**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	561	561
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

A Pearson Correlation Coefficient was performed to examine the associated relationship between intrapersonal communication patterns and mentoring. The outcome of the correlation revealed a significant strength of relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring where ($r = .729^{**}$ and $p = .000$) which is < 0.01 . This denotes that the null hypothesis (H_{02}) - there is no significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring - is rejected and the alternate (H_{A2}) accepted on the basis of the significant level of the correlation. Hence, the study holds that intrapersonal communication positively correlate with mentoring among private secondary school teachers.

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and co-worker support.

Table 4.16 Correlation between intrapersonal communication and co-worker support

Correlations			
		Intrapersonal Communication	Co-worker Support
Intrapersonal Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.869**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	561	561
Co-worker Support	Pearson Correlation	.869**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	561	561
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was performed to investigate the relationship between intrapersonal communication patterns and co-workers support. The result of the bivariate analysis revealed a high direction of relationship between intrapersonal communication and co-workers support where ($r = .869^{**}$ and $p = .000$) which is < 0.01 . This implies that

the null hypothesis (H_{03}) is rejected on the basis of the significant level of the correlation and the alternate (H_{A3}) accepted. Hence, the study affirmed that intrapersonal communication pattern is a significantly relates to co-worker support among private secondary school teachers.

H₀₄: There is no significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness

Table 4.17 Correlation between intrapersonal communication and selflessness

Correlations			
		Intrapersonal Communication	Selflessness
Intrapersonal Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.661**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	561	561
Selflessness	Pearson Correlation	.661**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	561	561

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

A Pearson Correlation Coefficient was performed to explore the relationship between intrapersonal communication patterns and selflessness. The outcome of the correlation revealed a moderately significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness where ($r = .661^{**}$ and $p = .000$) which is < 0.01 . This denote that the null hypothesis (H_{04}) is rejected and the alternate (H_{A4}) accepted on the ground of the significant level of the correlation. Thus, the study affirmed that intrapersonal communication patterns is significantly related to selflessness among private secondary school teachers.

H₀₅: There is no significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support

Table 4.18 Correlation between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support

Correlations			
		Extra-personal Communication	Supervisor Support
Extra-personal Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.717**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	561	561
Supervisor Support	Pearson Correlation	.717**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	561	561

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

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was performed to evaluate the relationship between extra-personal communication patterns and supervisor support. The bivariate result indicated a marked significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support where ($r = .717^{**}$ and $p = .000$) that is < 0.01 . This implies that the null hypothesis (H_{05}) is rejected and the alternate (H_{A5}) accepted on the basis of the significant level of the correlation. On the basis of the outcome, the study affirmed that extra-personal communication has positive and significant relationship with supervisor support among private secondary school teachers.

H₀₆: There is no significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring

Table 4.19 Correlation between extrapersonal communication and mentoring

Correlations			
		Extra-personal Communication	Mentoring
Extra-personal Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.689**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	561	561
Mentoring	Pearson Correlation	.689**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	

	N	561	561
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

A Pearson Correlation Coefficient was performed to investigate the associated relationship between extra-personal communication patterns and mentoring. The outcome of the correlation revealed a substantial level of significant relationship between extra-personal communication and mentoring where ($r = .689^{**}$ and $p = .000$) which is < 0.01 . This denote that the null hypothesis (H_{06}) is rejected and the alternate (H_{A6}) accepted on the basis of the significant level of the correlation. The study affirmed that extra-personal communication positively correlate with mentoring among private secondary school teachers.

H₀₇: There is no significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support.

Table 4.20 Correlation between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support

Correlations			
		Extra-personal Communication	Co-worker Support
Extra-personal Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.877**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	561	561
Co-worker Support	Pearson Correlation	.877**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	561	561
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was performed to explore the empirical relationship between extra-personal communication patterns and co-workers support. The result of the bivariate analysis revealed a high direction of relationship between extra-personal communication patterns and co-workers support where ($r = .877^{**}$ and $p = .000$) that is < 0.01 . This denote that the null hypothesis (H_{07}) is rejected on the basis of the significant level of the correlation and the alternate (H_{A7}) accepted. On the basis of the outcome, the study affirmed that extra-personal communication pattern is a significant predictor of co-worker support among private secondary school teachers.

H₀₈: There is no significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness

Table 4.21 Correlations between extrapersonal communication and selflessness

Correlations			
		Extra-personal Communication	Selflessness
Extra-personal Communication	Pearson Correlation	1	.699**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	561	561
Selflessness	Pearson Correlation	.699**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	561	561
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

A Pearson Correlation Coefficient was performed to evaluate the empirical relationship between extra-personal communication patterns and selflessness. The outcome of the correlation revealed a substantial significant relationship between extra-personal communication and selflessness where ($r = .699^{**}$ and $p = .000$) that is < 0.01 . This denote that the null hypothesis (H_{08}) is rejected and the alternate (H_{A8}) accepted on the ground of the significant level of the correlation. Thus, the study affirmed that extra-personal communication patterns significantly influence selflessness among private secondary school teachers.

Multivariate Analysis

In analyzing the moderating influence of corporate culture on the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality among private secondary school teachers, the partial correlation is used and the result is presented below:

H₀₉: Corporate culture does not significantly moderate the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality.

Table 4.22 Multivariate correlations among communication patterns, team spirituality and corporate culture

Correlations					
Moderating Variables			Communication Patterns	Team Spirituality	Corporate Culture
none- ^a	Communication Patterns	Correlation	1.000	.994	.979
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
		Df	0	559	559
	Team Spirituality	Correlation	.994	1.000	.990
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
		Df	559	0	559
	Corporate Culture	Correlation	.979	.990	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.
		Df	559	559	0
Corporate Culture	Communication Patterns	Correlation	1.000	.885	
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000	
		Df	0	558	
	Team Spirituality	Correlation	.885	1.000	
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.	
		Df	558	0	

a. Cells contain zero-order (Pearson) correlations.

The ninth hypothesis is tested to ascertain the moderating influence of corporate culture on the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality. The result of the partial correlation shows that corporate culture had a dependable level of moderation on the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality as the correlation value (.885 and $p = .000$) indicating a positive and significant relationship. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected on the basis of the significant outcome; hence corporate culture moderates the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality.

Table 4.23 Summary of the Hypotheses Results and Decision

S/N	Hypotheses	Results	Extent of Relationship	Decision
H ₀₁	There is no relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support.	$r = .698^{**}$ $p = .000$	Positive and significant correlation	Null hypothesis rejected
H ₀₂	There is no relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring.	$r = .729^{**}$ $p = .000$	Positive and significant relationship	Null hypothesis rejected
H ₀₃	There is no relationship between intrapersonal communication and co-worker support.	$r = .869^{**}$ $p = .000$	Positive and significant relationship	Null hypothesis rejected
H ₀₄	There is no relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness.	$r = .661^{**}$ $p = .000$	Positive and significant correlation	Null hypothesis rejected
H ₀₅	There is no relationship between extrapersonal	$r = .717^{**}$	Positive and	Null

	communication and supervisor support.	$p = .000$	significant relationship	hypothesis rejected
H₀₆	There is no relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring	$r = .689^{**}$ $p = .000$	Positive and significant correlation	Null hypothesis rejected
H₀₇	There is no relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support	$r = .877^{**}$ $p = .000$	Positive and significant correlation	Null hypothesis rejected
H₀₈	There is no relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness.	$r = .699^{**}$ $p = .000$	Positive and significant relationship	Null hypothesis rejected
H₀₉	Corporate culture does not moderate the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality	$r = .885^{**}$ $p = .000$	Positive and significant relationship	Null hypothesis rejected

4.2 Discussion of Findings

The purpose of this research was to identify the factors that contribute to effective team communication and spirituality, with an emphasis on the moderating role of corporate culture. These factors included intrapersonal and interpersonal communication on the one hand, and supervisor and peer support, mentoring, and altruism on the other. There were nine hypotheses and nine research questions developed for the investigation.

The primary purpose of exploring the hypothesized association between employee support and intrapersonal communication at work was to test the null hypothesis. Findings of research question one showed that with more than 80% of the respondents agreeing that what they think of their supervisors and what their supervisors think about them, influence how their supervisors treat them, there is a relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support. Similarly, the Pearson Product Moment correlation analysis of hypothesis one which stated that there is no relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor support showed that intrapersonal communication is positively and significantly related to supervisor support ($r = .698$; $p = .000$).

This study lends credence to studies that have linked intrapersonal communication to supervisor support. Some studies (Armendariz, 2012; Johlke & Duhan, 2000; Sein et al., 2018 & Qureshi et al., 2018) have linked intrapersonal communication with supervisor support. Armendariz's (2012) study, in which the author showed that supervisory support is positively connected with these characteristics, comes close to associating the two variables since intrapersonal communication aids in one's sentiments of job satisfaction, sense of solidarity, and perceived advancement.

Johlke and Duhan (2000) showed that when managers used indirect material in their communications with employees, there was less confusion about the manager's expectations and support. The uncertainty that arises within a company is a direct outcome of poor internal communication. Supportive contact amongst group members is therefore established. Relevant to this research is the work of Qureshi et al. (2018), who found that fairness perception considerably affects job satisfaction and that supervisory support strongly predicts job satisfaction. One's sense of justice is developed via internal dialogue. As a result, their research inferred a connection between intrapersonal communication and supervisory encouragement.

Research question two and hypothesis two sought to determine the relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring. With a weighted mean of 3.4 and 3.5 for the items that measured responses on how what teachers think of others and what others think of them influence their willingness to either mentor others or to be mentored by others respectively, the findings show that there is a relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring. The analysis of Hypothesis two which stated that there is no relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring showed that intrapersonal communication is positively and significantly related to mentoring ($r = .729$; $p = .000$).

This results lends credence to the studies of Rollnik-Sadowska et al. (2021) and Allen et al. (2005) which found a positive link between intrapersonal communication and mentoring. Rollnik-Sadowska et al. had found that non-verbal channels and tools have a positive correlation with mentoring through effectiveness in communication. Non-verbal channels and tools of communication are formed from intrapersonal communication. Allen et al. (2005) discovered a favorable correlation between informal mentoring and interpersonal comfort and professional mentoring.

Nonetheless, the results of this study indicated good correlations between intrapersonal communication and mentoring, in contrast to the findings of Bartuseviciene et al. (2021), who reported a weak association between the two. These results cast doubt on the idea that the most crucial parts of mentoring are the mentor and mentee's capacity to empathize with and gain insight from one another's experiences, feelings, and outward appearance.

Research question three and hypothesis three sought to establish the relationship between intrapersonal communication and co-worker support. Findings showed that with a weighted mean of 3.4 each for items that measured responses on how what respondents think about co-workers and what co-workers thinks about them influence their willingness to either assist the co-workers or the co-workers' willingness to assist them, there is a relationship between intrapersonal communication and co-worker support. The results of Hypothesis three which stated that there is no relationship between intrapersonal communication and co-

worker support showed that intrapersonal communication is positively and significantly related to co-worker support ($r = .869$; $p = .000$).

This study validates the findings in Adriyanto (2021) and Bateman (2009). Adriyanto (2021) had found that the quality of communication among organizational members had a significant effect on job satisfaction through social support. Bateman (2009) found that co-worker support has a significant relationship with job satisfaction and intention to quit (both intrapersonal communication outcomes).

Research question four and hypothesis four sought to establish the relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness. Findings showed that with a weighted mean of 3.2 for the item that measured responses on how what respondents think about newly employed teachers influence their willingness to help the newly employed teachers settle down in school, there is a relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness. The results of Hypothesis four which stated that there is no relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness showed that intrapersonal communication is positively and significantly related to selflessness ($r = .661$; $p = .000$). This study lends credence to the study of Ellingsten and Johannesson (2007). Ellingsten and Johannesson (2007) had found a positive link between intrapersonal communication and selflessness through anticipated verbal rewards and punishment.

Research question five and hypothesis five sought to ascertain the relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support. Findings showed that with a weighted mean of 3.7 for the item that measured responses on how respondents' interactions with their supervisors influence how their supervisors treat them at work, there is a relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support. The results of Hypothesis five which stated that there is no relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support showed that extrapersonal communication is positively and significantly related to supervisor support ($r = .717$; $p = .000$).

This study lends credence to the studies of Lee et al. (2010), Michael (2014), Tasnim and Akkas (2017) and Tuerah et al. (2019) who variously found positive links between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support through supervisory communication skills, job satisfaction and interpersonal communication. Lee et al (2010) found that leaders have an effect on information sharing. This study's finding that showed that extrapersonal communication is significantly related to supervisor support therefore validates their study. As it shows that with supervisor support, team members (employees) would be more willing to communicate positively with others within the organization. Michael (2014) found that high quality LMX relationships encourage supportive supervisor communication. Thus showing a positive relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support. Tasnim and Akkas (2017) found out a positive correlation between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support through verbal and written responses given by supervisors.

Research question six and hypothesis six sought to determine the relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring. With a weighted mean of 3.7 and 3.6 for the items that measured responses on how respondents' interactions with their senior and or more experienced colleagues or junior or less experienced colleagues influence their willingness to mentor the respondents or the respondents' willingness to mentor the junior or less experienced colleagues respectively, findings show that there is a relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring. The results of Hypothesis six which stated that there is no relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring showed that extrapersonal communication is positively and significantly related to mentoring ($r = .689$; $p = .000$).

The works of Rollnik-Sadowska et al. (2021) and Yim and Waters (2013) are validated by this study as they found links between some forms of extrapersonal communication and mentoring. Rollnik-Sadowska et al (2021) found that mentoring is favourably related to effective communication through social engagement in the mentoring process. Yim and Waters (2013) found that interpersonal comfort, attributional confidence and communication quality were positively associated with psychosocial in mentoring relationships.

This results however negates the findings of Ismail et al. whose study on undergraduates found that the implementation of interpersonal communication in mentoring relations does not enhance mentee study performance. This study found that within the organizational setting, extrapersonal communication is positively linked to mentoring.

Research question seven and hypothesis seven sought to establish the relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support. Findings showed that with a weighted mean of 3.4 for the item that measured responses on how respondents' interactions with the co-workers influence their willingness to help each other at work, there is a relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support. The results of Hypothesis seven which stated that there is no relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support showed that extrapersonal communication is positively and significantly related to co-worker support ($r = .877$; $p = .000$).

This study validates the studies of Adriyanto (2021), Sanyal and Hisam (2018) and Sein et al (2018). Adriyanto (2021) found that colleague support obtained through interpersonal exchange among colleagues has a significant effect on job satisfaction and that the quality of communication has a significant effect on job satisfaction. Sein et al. (2018) found that co-workers have effect on employee performance through psychological meaningfulness.

Similarly, Sanyal and Hisam (2018) which found that trust among team members have a significant impact on performance was validated by this work as trust among team members is built from interactions among the team members.

Research question eight and hypothesis eight sought to ascertain the relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness. Findings showed that with a weighted mean of 3.4 for the item that measured responses on how respondents' interactions with newly employed teachers influence the respondents' willingness to assist them settle down in the school, there is a relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness. The results of Hypothesis eight which stated that there is

no relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness showed that extrapersonal communication is positively and significantly related to selflessness ($r = .699$; $p = .000$)

This study validates the work of Yildirim (2014) where the findings which found that communication is correlates significantly with altruistic behaviour within the organization. It also validates the results of Mahat et al (2021) where they found that altruism has a significant effect on Word of Mouth.

Research question nine and hypothesis nine sought to ascertain the moderating relationship of corporate culture in the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality. Findings showed that the weighted mean for the item that measured responses on how their schools' corporate culture influence the way they communicate at school and the spirit of oneness in their school is 3.4. Hence corporate culture has a moderating relationship in the relationship between corporate culture and team spirituality. The results of hypothesis nine which stated that corporate culture does not moderate the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality corporate culture significantly and positively moderates the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality ($r = .885$; $p = .000$).

This study lends credence to various works that have found correlations between various forms of Corporate culture, communication patterns and team spirituality such as that of Carriere and Bourque (2009) in which the authors found that communication satisfaction, job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment are all affected by internal communication practices. As internal communication practices are a function of the corporate culture of the organization and team spirituality can affect job satisfaction and affective organization commitment, there is a moderating link between corporate culture in the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality.

Similarly, Udegbe et al. (2012) found that internal and external business business communications contribute to improved job satisfaction, profitability and public credibility. Kemanci (2018) found that altruistic organizational citizenship behaviour is positively associated with affective commitment, continuance commitment, task interdependence, relation with co-worker and longer tenure. Kibe found that effective communication strategies enhance organizational performance.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

This study sought to establish the relationship between communication patterns (intrapersonal communication and extrapersonal communication) and team spirituality (supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness) with corporate culture as a moderating variable.

The population of the study consisted of private secondary school teachers of Government Approved secondary schools in Bayelsa and Rivers States. A researcher designed titled Questionnaire for Test of communication patterns and Team spirituality (qtCOMPATEASPY) was employed for data collection. Out of a total of 664 distributed copies of the questionnaire, 561 copies were retrieved and usable for analysis.

Nine research questions and nine hypotheses were posed. Analysis showed that

1. There is a positive and significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and supervisor.
2. There is a positive and significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and mentoring.
3. There is a positive and significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and co-worker support.
4. There is a positive and significant relationship between intrapersonal communication and selflessness
5. There is a positive and significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and supervisor support.
6. There is a positive and significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and mentoring.
7. There is a positive and significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and co-worker support.
8. There is a positive and significant relationship between extrapersonal communication and selflessness
9. Corporate culture positive and significant moderates the relationship between communication patterns and team spirituality

5.2 Conclusion

Communication patterns and team spirituality are closely related. What an organizational member thinks about others and what one believes others think about him/her affects how the person communicates with others in the organization and indeed how one interacts with others at any level. Teachers as human beings are social beings who cannot refrain from communicating. They communicate consciously and or unconsciously, intrapersonally and extrapersonally within the organization.

These communicative exchanges (even at the intrapersonal level) have implications on the interactions amongst employees and between employees and supervisors. These interactions help engender team spirituality when they promote supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness within the organization.

5.3 Recommendation

Based on the findings of the study, the following are recommended

1. Supervisors should strive to evoke positive thoughts from employees through their actions.
2. Mentors and mentees alike should be encouraged to value the mentoring relationship
3. Regular training sessions on communication should be carried out in organizations to educate employees on how intrapersonal communication can affect co-worker support
4. Employees should be schooled to be empathetic or regard new entrants as valuable additions to the organization who need help to settle down
5. Organizations should increase the interactions between supervisors and employees
6. Interpersonal communication skills of mentors and mentees should be improved where necessary through training
7. Organizations should increase social interactions among employees in order to engender co-worker support
8. Organizational members should be encouraged to interact with new entrants to pave the way for selflessness toward the new entrants
9. The corporate culture of organizations should provide for regular training sessions on communication patterns within the organization in such a way that supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness would be at the optimum to engender team spirituality.

5.4 Limitations of The Study

This study inadvertently faced some limitations in the course of data gathering. These limitations included

1. Problems with Distribution and retrieval of questionnaire: As the unit of analysis was individual teachers in private secondary schools, administration of questionnaire had to be delayed until the schools were in session.

Also, given the busy schedule of the teachers, most of the questionnaire were retrieved a number of days after distribution.

2. This study was a Cross sectional survey rather than longitudinal study. A longitudinal study would have shown causal relationships.
3. Dearth of previous research studies on direct correlation of communication patterns and team spirituality dimension.

The above limitations notwithstanding, the research was successfully carried out.

5.4 Contributions to Knowledge

This study contributed to knowledge in a number of ways:

1. This was the first study that established a direct link between intrapersonal communication and team spirituality dimensions of supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness.
2. This study also established for the first time a direct link between extrapersonal communication and team spirituality dimensions of supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness
3. Team spirituality - the organization wide consciousness to continuously cultivate, nurture and sustain team spirit within the organization - was first introduced in this work
4. This work also conceptualized the definition of intrapersonal communication as the communication within an individual prior to, during and after communicative exchanges with others within the organization. The work also introduced the concept of extrapersonal communication as the communicative exchanges between organizational members at the same, lower or higher level within the organization.
5. This study provides valuable planning and research data for Human Resource Managers and Researchers in gene

5.5 Areas of Further Study

While this study has successfully established a link between communication patterns and team spirituality with corporate culture as a moderating variable, further studies are suggested as follows:

1. A replication of this study in other service sectors.
2. A longitudinal study on team spirituality to ascertain how supervisor support, mentoring, co-worker support and selflessness engenders greater team spirituality over time.
3. Further study on the effect of intrapersonal communication on extrapersonal communication within the organization.

International Research Journal

REFERENCES

- 1) Acharya, S. (n.d). *Supervision: meaning, definitions, significance, techniques, factors, requisities and other details*. Retrieved from <https://www.economicsdiscussion.net> on 08/05/2021
- 2) Adekola, B. (2010). Work engagement among secondary school English teachers. *Pakistan Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(2), 51 - 55
- 3) Adeleke, A. (2012). *Management Concepts and Applications*. (2nd ed.). Lagos: Concept Publications
- 4) Adriyanto, A. T. (2021). *Enhancing job satisfaction through Colleague support and communication*. Retrieved from www.researchgate.net/publication/358111111 DoI:10.2991/aer.k.210121.030
- 5) Adu-Oppong, A. & Agyin-Birikorang, E. (2014). Communication in the workplace: Guidelines for improving effectiveness *Global Journal of Commerce & Management Perspective*.3(5), 208-213.
- 6) Agulanna, E. & Awujo, A. (2011). *Human Resources Management – A graphic approach*. Owerri: Career Publishers.
- 7) Ahmed, A. (2019a). *Examples of good team spirit*. Retrieved from www.smallbusiness.chron.com on 08/03/21
- 8) Ahmed, A. (2019b). *Barriers to upward communication*. Retrieved from <https://www.bizfluent.com>
- 9) Ahmed, I., Ismail, W.K., Amin, S. M. & Ramzani, M. (2011). Conceptualizing perceived organizational support: A Theoretical perspective. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 5(12), 784 . 789
- 10) Ajayi, V. O. (2017). *Primary sources of data and secondary sources of data*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publications/318111111>
- 11) Akhtar, I. (2016). *Research design*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/318111111>
- 12) Akpotu, C. & Konyefa, R. (2019). Employee self-esteem and workplace spontaneity in the Nigeria Hospitality sector. *Global Journal of Social science studies*, 5(2), 168 - 178
- 13) Akpotu, C. (2019). Expanding Theoretical frontiers for understanding human behaviour in indigenous Nigerian work organizations. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 7(9), 534 – 545

- 14) Aksan, N. Kisac, B., Aydin, M. & Demirbiken, S. (2009). Symbolic Interaction theory. *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 1, 902 -904
- 15) Allen, T. D., Russell, J. A. & Maetzke, S. B. (1997). Formal Peer Mentoring: Factors related to protégés' satisfaction and willingness to mentor others. *Group & Organization Management*, 22(4), 488 – 507.
- 16) Allen, T. H. & Berkos, K. M. (n.d). *Imagined interactions conflict linkage theory*. Retrieved from <https://core.ac.uk>pdf>
- 17) Alparslan, A. M., & Kılınç, U. K. (2015). The power of informal communication and perceived organizational support on energy at work and extra role behavior: a survey on teachers. *International Journal of Human Sciences*, 12(2), 113-138. doi: 10.14687/ijhs.v12i2.3243118
- 18) Apenteng, J. O. (2012). *The effect of supervision on staff performance in GA South Municipal Education Directorate*. Retrieved from <http://www.ir.knust.edu.gh> on 12/03/21
- 19) Apuke, D. (2017). Quantitative research method: A synopsis approach. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review (Kuwait chapter)*, 6(10), 40 - 47
- 20) Armendariz, R. E. (2012). What are the benefits of supervisor support? Are they affected by an employee's race? Retrieved from <https://etd.ohiolink.edu> on 12/03/21
- 21) Arshadi, N. (2011). The relationships of perceived organizational support (POS) with organizational commitment, in-role performance, and turnover intention: Mediating role of felt obligation. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 30, 1103 – 1108
- 22) Athukorala, N. A. (2009). *Data Collection*. Retrieved from <http://dl.lib.uom.lk>
- 23) Aziri, B. (2011). Job Satisfaction: A literature Review. *Management Research and Practice*, 3(4), 77 - 86
- 24) Azman, I. Sieng, L. C., Ajis, M. N., Dollah, F. N., & Boerhannoeddin, A. (2009). *Relationship between supervisor role and job performance in the workplace training program*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication>
- 25) Bagobiri, Y. E. & Kassah, V. (2017). *Comparative Management*. Kaduna: Dove Graphix
- 26) Bajpai, N. (2011). *Business Research methods*. India: Pearson Education
- 27) Bateman, G. (2009). *Employee perceptions of co-worker support*. Retrieved from <https://core.ac.uk>
- 28) Bayelsa-EMIS (2022). *List of Government Approved Private Secondary Schools in Bayelsa State*. Government of Bayelsa State Ministry of Education
- 29) Beehr, T. A. & McGrath, J. E. (1992). Social support, occupational stress anxiety. *Anxiety, stress and coping*, 5, 7 – 19
- 30) Bevans, R. (2019). *Understanding types of variables*. Retrieved from <https://www.scribbr.com>
- 31) Bhandari, P. (2020). *Population Vs sample: what is the difference?* Retrieved from <https://www.scribbr.com/methodology>
- 32) Bhandari, P. (2021). *Questionnaire design: Methods, question types, steps*. Retrieved from <https://www.scribbr.com/methodology>
- 33) Bittel, L. R. (Ed.). (1978). *Encyclopedia of Professional Management*. New York: McGraw-Hill
- 34) Blumer, H. (1966). Sociological Implications of the thought of George Herbert Mead. *American Journal of Sociology*, 535 -548. In Yu, H. (Ed) (2002). *Western Social Theory: Classic and contemporary Readings*. Shanghai: Fudan University Press
- 35) Blumer, H. (1969). *Symbolic interactionism: Perspective and method*. Englewood cliffs, NJ: prentice Hall
- 36) Brinthaup, T. M. (2019). Individual differences in Self-talk frequency: Social isolation and cognitive disruption. *Front. Psychol* 10(1088). Doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01088.
- 37) Britannica (2021). *Types of Communication*. Retrieved from <http://www.britannica.com>
- 38) Burns, K. L. (2016). *Perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support*. Retrieved from <https://scholarsworks.sjsu.edu>
- 39) Business communication for success (2015). Minnesota: Minnesota Libraries
- 40) Caesens, G., Stinglhamber, F. Domoulin, S., DeWilde, M. & Mierop, A. (2019). *Perceived Organizational Support and Workplace Conflict: The Mediating Role of Failure-Related Trust*. Retrieved from www.frontiersin.org on 17/04/2021
- 41) Cambridge Dictionary (2021). *Team spirit*. Retrieved from <https://google.com/amp/s/dictionary> on 15/04/21
- 42) Carriere, J. & Bourque, C. (2009). The effects of organizational communication on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in a land ambulance service an the mediating role of communication satisfaction. *Career development International*, 14(1), 29 - 49
- 43) Celko, J. (2010). *Scales*. Retrieved from <https://www.sciencedirect.com> on 26/05/21
- 44) Cengage (2018). *Symbolic Interactionism*. Retrieved from <https://encyclopedia.com>
- 45) Chaleunvong, K. (2009). *Data Collection techniques*. Retrieved from <https://www.gfmer.ch>
- 46) Chambers Dictionary (2003a) *Compassion*. Edinburgh: Chambers Harrap
- 47) Chambers Dictionary (2003b) *Empathy*. Edinburgh: Chambers Harrap
- 48) Chege, A. K. & Otieno, O. C. (2020). Research philosophy design and methodologies: A systematic review of research paradigms in Information Technology. *Global scientific Journals*, 8(5), 33 – 38
- 49) Chen, M., Liou, Y., Wang, C. Fan, Y. & Chi, Y. J. (2007). Team spirit: Design, implementation and evaluation of a web-based group decision support system. *Decision support systems*, 43(4),
- 50) Clark, R. E. (2003) Fostering the work motivation of individuals and teams. *Performance Improvement*, 42(3), 21-29.
- 51) Claybaugh, Z. (2020). *Research guides: organizing Academic Research papers: Types of Research Designs*. Retrieved from <https://library.sacredheard.edu>
- 52) CLIMB (2019). *8 key qualities for successful supervisors*. Retrieved from <https://climb.pcc.edu>

- 53) Cole, N. L. (2019). *Symbolic Interaction theory: History, Development and examples*. Retrieved from <https://www.thoughtco.com>
- 54) Collins Dictionary (2021). *Team spirit*. Retrieved from <https://www.collinsdictionary.com> on 24/04/21
- 55) Collis, J. & Hussey, R. (2014). *Business Research* (4th Ed.) Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan
- 56) CompassPoint (2012). *Supervisor Roles and Responsibilities: Helping people succeed*. Retrieved from <http://gnof.org> on 10/03/2021
- 57) Corey, A. M. (2019). Chapter 1: Introducing communication. In Pierce, T. *The Evolution of Human Communication: From Theory to Practice*. Ontario: Pressbooks
- 58) Cronin, N. (2020). *Mentoring statistics: The Research you need to know*. Retrieved from <https://www.guided-ai.com>
- 59) Cropanzano, R., Byrne, Z. S., Bobocel, D., & Rupp, D. E. (2001). Moral virtues, fairness heuristics, social entities, and other denizens of organizational justice. *Journal of vocational Behaviour*, 58, 164 – 209
- 60) CSPonline (2015). *Understanding work stress: Causes, symptoms and solutions*. Retrieved from <https://online.csp.edu>
- 61) Daftari, M. A., Sofian, O. F. M., Sadeghi, H. & Akbari, H. (2011). A description of self-talk narrative self-talk to examine the value of self-talk in soccer player. *Researcher in sport science Quarterly*. 2(1), 7 – 17
- 62) Daloz, L. (1986). *Effective teaching and mentoring*. Retrieved from <https://www.tandfonline.com>
- 63) Decker, F. (2018). *How to average likert scales?* Retrieved from <https://sciencing.com>
- 64) Deveci, T. & Nunn, R. (2018). Intrapersonal communication as a life-long learning skill in engineering education. *Yuksekgretim Dergisi* 8(1), 68 – 77 doi: 10.2399/yod.17.009
- 65) DiscoverPhDs (2020). *Types of Research – Explained with Examples*. Retrieved from <https://discoverphds.com> on 21/05/21
- 66) Dong, X. (2008). Symbolic interaction in sociology of education textbooks in Mainland China: Coverage, perspective and implications. *International Education Studies*, 1(3), 14 - 20
- 67) Drushal, M. E. (2012). *Motivational components of Theory Z management: an integrative*. Retrieved from www.biblicalstudies.org.uk on 12/04/2021
- 68) Durkel, J. (2015). *Non-verbal communication: cues, signals and symbols*. Retrieved from <http://tsbvi.edu>
- 69) Ehigiamusoe, U. K. (2012). Private Sector participation in secondary education in Nigeria: Implications for national development. *International Journal of Development and Sustainability*, 1(3), 1 - 3
- 70) Ehondor, B. (2017). *Intrapersonal communication as foundation for personal branding*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/313529725>
- 71) Eisenberger, R. Malone, G. P. & Presson, W. D. (2016). Optimizing perceived organizational support to enhance employee engagement. *SHRM-SIOP Science of HR series*, 1 - 22
- 72) Eisenberger, R. Shoss, M. K., Karagonlar, G., Gozalez-Morales, G. Wickham, R. E. & Buffardi, L. C. (2014). The supervisor POS-LMX subordinate POS Chain: Moderation by reciprocation wariness and supervisor organizational embodiment. *Journal of organizational Behaviour*, 35, 635 - 656
- 73) Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D., & Rhoades, L. (2001). Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 42–51. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.86.1.42
- 74) Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 500–507. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.500
- 75) Emeti, C. I. & Omiloli, E. E. (2020). Effects of age and gender on Nigerian employees' attitude to work: A theoretical perspective. *Reiko International Journal of Business, Management and Economy*, 7(1), 30 – 39.
- 76) Emilisa, N. (2019). The role of altruism, organizational learning capability and organizational trust: A study from online motorcycle drivers in Jakarta. *Review of integrative Business and Economic Research*, 8(2), 98 – 109
- 77) Ergun, E. & Nartgun, S. S. (2017). Academicians' perceptions regarding supervisor support, co-worker support and life satisfaction. *European Journal of Education Studies* 3(1), 123 – 151
- 78) Eugenio-Vela, J. S. (2012). Approaches to the study of individual-landscape interaction as an evocation intrapersonal communication. *SciELO*, 21(64), 1 – 28.
- 79) Eze, F. C. (2006). *Human Resources Management in Nigeria – the Key Components*. Enugu: Bencilia Ventures.
- 80) Fapohunda, T. M. (2013). Towards effective team building in the workplace. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 1(4), 1 -12.
- 81) Fatimayin, F. (2018). *What is communication?* Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net>
- 82) Feigl, H. (2020). *Positivism*. Retrieved from <https://www.britannica.com/topic/positivism>
- 83) Ford, S. G. (2003). *The role of imagined interaction and self-efficacy in psychosocial adjustment to spousal bereavement: a communication perspective*. LSU Doctoral Dissertations. Retrieved from https://digitalcommons.isu.edu/gradschool_dissertations/110
- 84) Frank, M. (2019). *The Neuroscience of thirst: how your brain tells you to look for water*. Retrieved from <http://sitn.hms.harvard.edu> on 05/03/21
- 85) Frey, B. B. (2018). *Stratified random sampling*. In SAGE Encyclopedia of Educational Research Measurement and Evaluation. Retrieved from <https://www.methods.sagepub.com> doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781506326139.n671>
- 86) Garba, A. (2012). Secondary Education in Nigeria: A synthesis of Basic Student-specific concerns from Guidance and Counselling perspective. *Journal of International Co-operation in Education*, 15(2), 195 - 205
- 87) Geldenhuys, A. (2020). *The influence of Perceived Supervisor Support, Psychological Empowerment and Affective Commitment on Turnover Intention Among Support Staff at a Selected Tertiary Institution in the Western Cape*. A Thesis retrieved from <http://etd.uwc.ac.za/handle/11394/7841> on 09/03/21

- 88) Gomez, L. F. & Dailey, S. L. (2017). *Formal Communication*. <https://www.Retrieved from researchgate.net on 26/04/2021>
- 89) Gordon, J. (2021). *Systems Theory of Management – Explained*. Retrieved from <http://www.thebusinessprofessor.com> on 08/03/21
- 90) Hermans, H. J. M. (2001). The Dialogical Self: Towards a Theory of Cultural Positioning. *Culture & Psychology*, 7(3), 243 - 281
- 91) Hermans, H. J. M. (2003). The construction and reconstruction of a dialogical self. *J. Constr. Psychol.* 16, 89–130. doi: 10.1080/10720530390117902
- 92) Hermans, H. J. M. (2010). *Hubert Hermans' summary of the dialogical self*. Retrieved from <https://youtubevideo.net>
- 93) Hermans, H. J. M. & Gieser, T. (2012). *Introductory chapter: History, main tenets and core concepts of dialogical self theory*. In Hubert Hermans and Thorsten Gieser (eds). *Handbook of Dialogical self theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- 94) Hermans, H., and Hermans-Konopka, A. (2010). *Dialogical Self Theory: Positioning and Counter-Positioning in a Globalizing Society*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 95) Hillier, W. (2021). *What is ordinal data*. Retrieved from <https://www.careerfoundry.com>
- 96) Hirokawa, R. Y. (1979). Communication and the managerial function: some suggestions for improving organizational communication. *Communication*, 8, 83 -95
- 97) Hoerr, T. R. (2018). Principal connection / Maybe your mirror is fuzzy. *Educational Leadership*, 75(6, 90 - 91
- 98) Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede model in context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2(1), 3 – 26. Hofstede, G. (2012). *National Cultures, Organizational Cultures, and the Role of Management*. Maastrich: Maastrich University
- 99) Hofstede, G. (2012). *National cultures, organizational cultures, and the role of management*. Retrieved from <https://www.bbvaopenmind.com> on 10/05/21
- 100) Hofstede Insights (2019). *National culture and organizational culture – how are they different?* Retrieved from <https://news.hofstede-insights.com>
- 101) Holland, K. (2020). *Positive self talk: How talking to yourself is a good thing*. Retrieved from <https://www.healthline.com>
- 102) Honeycutt, J. M., Zagacki, K. S., & Edwards, R. (1987). *Intrapersonal Communication and Imagined Interactions*. Retrieved from
- 103) Hppy (2020). *Inspiring employees to give back/altruism in the workplace* Retrieved from <https://gethppy.com>
- 104) Hsiung, T. (2014). The relationships among salary, altruistic behaviour and job performance in the National Basketball Association. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(9), 193 - 198
- 105) Ibrahim, H. I. (2014). The relationship between job stress, co-worker support and organization-based self-esteem: A survey across different occupations. *International Refereed Research Journal*, 5(2), 69 – 78.
- 106) Jabareen, Y. (2009). Building a conceptual framework: Philosophy, Definitions, and Procedure. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(4), 49 – 62
- 107) Jagasree, K. & Sheela, M. (2012). Perceived organizational Support – an overview on its antecedents and consequences. *International Journal of Multi-disciplinary Research*, 2(4), 1 – 13
- 108) Jaja, S. A. & Gabriel, J. M. O. (2014). Employees' altruism and organizational adaptation in Nigeria. *Advances in Research*, 2(12), 1054 – 1064)
- 109) Kabir, S. M. S. (2016). *Measurement concepts: variable, reliability, validity and norm*. Retrieved from <https://researchgate.net> on 15/05/21
- 110) Katz, J. E. (2014). *Guiding children's social and emotional development*. New Jersey: Pearson
- 111) Kelley, C. (2010). *Perceived organizational support as a predictor of stigma and treatment seeking for psychological problems*. Retrieved from <https://tigerprints.clemson.edu>
- 112) Kemanci, G. (2018). Investigating the impact of Esprit De Corps/Team Spirit on Employees performance in University of Abuja Teaching Hospital, Gwagwalada, Abuja. *Nile Journal of Business and Economics*, 8, 36 - 47
- 113) Keyton, J. (2011). *Communication and organizational culture: A key to understanding work experiences*. (2nd Ed.). London: Sage Publications
- 114) Kibe, C. W. (2014). Effects of communication strategies on organizational performance: A case study of Kenya Ports Authority. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 6(11), 6 - 10
- 115) Kivunja, C. & Kuyini, A. B. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational contexts. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(5), 26 - 41
- 116) Koontz, H. & Weihrich, H. (1998). *Essentials of Management*. (5th Ed.) New Delhi: Tata McGraw-Hill
- 117) Kosi, I. Sulemana, I., Boateng, J. & Mensah, R. (2015). Level of job satisfaction among teachers. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net>
- 118) Koster, F. (2014). "When two worlds collide": Career satisfaction and altruistic organizational citizenship behaviour. *Int. Journal of Business science and Applied Management*, 9(1), 1 – 12
- 119) Kowalczyk, D. (2013). *Non-experimental and experimental research: Differences, advantages, & disadvantages*. Retrieved from <https://study.com/academy/lesson/> on 22/5/32
- 120) Kubuga, K. (2014). *Assessing the impact of organizational support on training and Development: A case study of the University for development studies*. A thesis retrieved from <http://ir.knust.edu.gh> on 15/04/2021
- 121) Kumar, S., Duggirala, M., Hayatnagarkar, H. G. & Balaraman, V. (2017). *Understanding impact of supervisory support on work outcomes using agent based simulation*. Retrieved from <http://ceur-ws.org> on 08/03/21

- 122) Kurtessis, J. N., Eisenberger, R. Ford, M. T. Buffard, L. C., Stewart, K. A. & Adis, C. S. (2015). Perceived organizational support: A Meta-Analytic Evaluation of Organizational Support Theory. *Journal of Management*, 20(10), 1 – 31
- 123) Lagace-Roy, D. & Knackstedt, J. (2007). *Mentoring Handbook*. Retrieved from <https://researchgate.net/>
- 124) Lasswell H. D. (1948). *The Structure and Function of Communications in Society*, in the Communication of Ideas, ed. L. Bryson, 37–51. New York: Knopf.
- 125) Latinjak, A. T., Hernando-Gimeno, C., Lorigo-Mendez, L. & Hardy, J. (2019). *Endorsement and Constructive Criticism of an Innovative Online Reflexive Self-Talk Intervention*. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01819>
- 126) Lavrakas, P. J. (Ed.) (2008). *Cross-sectional survey design*. In Encyclopedia of survey research methods. Retrieved from <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412963947>
- 127) Lawal, A. A. (1993). *Management in focus*. Lagos: Sahanit Nigeria Limited
- 128) Lee, D., Hung, L. & Chen, M. (2012). Empirical study on the influence among corporate sponsorship, organizational commitment, organizational cohesiveness and turnover intention. *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, 2(2), 43 - 53
- 129) Libretexts (2021). *The symbolic interactionist perspective*. Retrieved from https://socialsci_libretexts.org
- 130) Locker, K. O. & Kaczmarek, S. K. (2014) *Business communication: building critical skills*. (8th ed). Boston, MA: McGraw Hill; Irwin.
- 131) Loehr, A. (2018). *Learn this efficient model for building high performing teams*. Retrieved from <https://www.anneloehr.com>
- 132) Lunenburg, F. C. (2010a). Communication: The Process, Barriers, And Improving Effectiveness. *Schooling*, 1(1), 1-11.
- 133) Lunenburg, F. C. (2010b). *Formal communication channels: Upward, Downward, Horizontal, and External*. Retrieved from www.nationalforum.com
- 134) Maan, A. T., Abid, G., Butt, T. H., Ashfaq, F. & Ahmed, S. (2020). Perceived Organizational Support and job satisfaction: A moderated mediation model of proactive personality and psychological empowerment. *Futur Bus. J.* 6(1), 1 - 12
- 135) Majid, U. (2018). Research Fundamentals: Study Design, population and sample size. *URNCSST*, 2(1), 1 - 7
- 136) Marfo, C. Opoku-Agyema, K. & Nsiah, J. (2011). Symbols of communication: The case of Adinkra and other symbols of Akan. *The International Journal –Language society and culture*, 32, 63 - 71
- 137) Markovic, M. R. & Salamzadeh, A. (2018). *The importance of communication in Business management*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/>
- 138) McClelland, V. A. & Wilmot, R. E. (1990). Improve lateral communication. *Personnel Journal*, 69, 32 - 38
- 139) McCombes, S. (2019). *Correlational Research*. Retrieved from <https://www.scribbr.com>
- 140) McLean, S. (2005). *The basics of interpersonal communication*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- 141) McLeod, S. (2019). *What is the difference between qualitative and quantitative research?* Retrieved from <https://www.simplypsychology.org/>
- 142) McPheat, S. (2010). *Effective Communication Skills*. Retrieved from www.bookboon.com
- 143) Mead, E. (2021). *What is positive self-talk? (Incl. Examples)*. Retrieved from <https://www.positivepsychology.com>
- 144) Merriam-Webster (2021). *Definition of hypothetico-deductive*. Retrieved from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/>
- 145) Middleton, F. (2021). *The types of validity explained with easy examples*. Retrieved from <https://www.scribbr.com>
- 146) Mintrom, M. (2010). *Creating team spirit and a culture of excellence among course participants*. Retrieved from www.akoaoatearoa.ac.nz/gppg-ebook on 12/03/21
- 147) Mishra K, Boynton L & Mishra A. (2014). Driving employee engagement: the expanded role of internal communications. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 51(2), 183–202.
- 148) Mohajan, H. (2017). Two criteria for good measurements in Research validity and reliability. *Annals of Spiru Haret University* 17(3), 58 - 82
- 149) Momoh, O. (2021). *Population*. Retrieved from <https://www.investopedia.com> on 21/5/21
- 150) Moss, S. (2016). *Measures of helping and altruism*. Retrieved from <https://www.sicotests.com/ps> on 12/12/20
- 151) Mukhtar1, R. & Prasetyo, M. A. M., (2020). The Influence of Transformational Leadership, Interpersonal Communication, and Organizational Conflict on Organizational Effectiveness. *International Journal of Educational Review*, 2 (1),
- 152) Mulvania, P. (2020). *The importance of active listening*. Retrieved from <https://www.gifttolifeinstitute.org>
- 153) Ndimele, O. & Innocent, K. H. (2016). *Fundamental of Mass Communication*. (2nd Edition). Port Harcourt: M & J Grand Orbit Communications
- 154) Nguyen, T. D., Shih, M., Srivastava, D., Tirlhapura, S. & Xu, B. (2019). Stratified Random sampling from streaming and store data. In proceedings of the 22nd International Conference on Extending Database Technology (EDBT). ISBN 978-3-89318-081-3
- 155) Nickerson, C. (2021). *Symbolic Interactionism theory and examples*. Retrieved from <https://www.simplypsychology.org>
- 156) Norling, L. R. & Chopik, W. J. (2020). The Association Between Coworker Support and Work-Family Interference: A Test of Work Environment and Burnout as Mediators. *Front. Psychol.* 11, 819. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2020.00819
- 157) O'Donnell, O. & Boyle, R. (2008). *Understanding and managing organizational culture*. Dublin: Institute of Public Administration
- 158) Oke, A. O. Ajagbe, M. A. Ogbari, M. E., & Adeyeye, J. O. (2016). Teacher Retention and Attrition: A review of the Literature. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(2), 371 – 378.

- 159) Okeke, N. I., Okaforcha, C. & Ekwesianya, (2019). Attrition and strategies for teacher retention in secondary schools in Anambra State. *GOJEHMS*, 1(1), 148 - 156
- 160) Olasehinde, K. J. & Olatoye, R. A. (2014). A comparative study of public and private senior secondary school students' science achievement in Katsina State, Nigeria. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 4(3), 203 - 207
- 161) Ondondo, E. A. (2015). Acquired Language Disorders as Barriers to Effective Communication. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(7), 1324-1329.
- 162) Oribhabor, C. B. & Anyanwu, C. A. (2019). Research sampling and sample size determination: A practical application. *Federal University Dutsin-Ma Journal of Educational Research*, 2(1): 47 - 56
- 163) Osuala, E. C. (2013). *Introduction to Research Methodology*. Onitsha: Africana-First Publishers
- 164) Owoyemi, O. O. Ekwoaba, J. O. (2014). Organizational culture: A tool for management to control, motivate and enhance employees' performance. *American Journal of Business and Management*, 3(3), 168 - 177
- 165) Oxford Learner's Dictionaries (2021). *Team spirit*. Retrieved from <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com>
- 166) Ozcan, D. & Zabadi, T. I. (2015). Comparison of public and private school teachers and school principals' opinions in Abuja, Nigeria. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences*, 10(1), 53 - 64
- 167) Pearson, J. & Nelson, P. (2000). *An introduction to human communication: Understanding and sharing*. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill
- 168) Perry, C. (2020). *11 Reasons why babies cry – and how to soothe their tears*. Retrieved from the bump.com on 05/03/2021
- 169) Poperwi, L. (2019). Principles of Management: The relevance and applicability in the management of current and future organizations. *Sch. J. Econ. Bus. Manag.* 5(9), 808 – 912 e-ISSN 2348 - 5302
- 170) Powell, J. (2011). *Supervisor Support*. Retrieved from <http://scontrino-powell.com> on 10/04/2021
- 171) Prachi, M. (2019). *Group vs Team*. Retrieved from <https://theinvestorsbook.com> on 22/04/2021
- 172) Price, P. C., Jhangiani, R. Chiang, A. (2015). *Research methods in psychology* (2nd ed). Retrieved from <https://opentextbc.ca/researchmethods/front-matter/>
- 173) Qureshi, M. A., Hamid, K. B., Jeihoony, P., Ali, R., Brohi, N. A. ... Shah, S. M. (2018). Is supervisor support matter in job satisfaction: A moderation role of fairness perception among nurses in Pakistan. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 17(6), 1 – 10.
- 174) Ramsberg, N. (2018). *Research methodology*. Retrieved from <https://www.medium.com>
- 175) Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 698–714. DOI: 10.1037//0021-9010.87.4.698
- 176) Richardson, M. (2019). *Peer Mentoring*. Retrieved from https://artofmentoring.net/peer_mentoring/ on 15/03/2021
- 177) Rodriguez, W. (2016). *Talking drums: Ancient storytellers of West Africa*. Retrieved from <http://archaicroots.com/drums> on 05/03/21
- 178) Rollag, K., Parise, S. & Cross, R. (2005). Getting new hires up to speed quickly. *MITSloan Management Review*, 46(2), 35 – 41
- 179) Sabitu, A. O., Babatunde, E. G., Oluwole, A. F. (2012). School types, facilities and academic performance of students in senior secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. *International Education Studies*, 5(3), 44 - 48
- 180) Sahu, S. K. (2015). *Importance of Teamwork in organizations*. Retrieved from www.linkedin.com/pulse on 12/03/21
- 181) Sanyal, S. & Hisam, M. W. (2018). The impact of team work on work performance of employees: A study of Faculty members in Dhofar university. *Journal of Business and Management*, 20(3), 15 - 22
- 182) Saunders, M. N. K., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Understanding research philosophies and approaches*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net> on 18/05/21
- 183) Setia, M. S. (2016). *Methodology series: Module 3: Cross-Sectional studies*. Retrieved <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc>
- 184) Shannon, C. & Weaver, W. (1948). The mathematical theory of communication. *Bell system Technical Journal*, 27, 379 – 423, 623 - 656
- 185) Sharma, P. B. (2013). Music: A tool of non-verbal communication (with special reference to Indian music). *International Journal of Communication and Media Studies*, 3(4), 1 – 6
- 186) Shaw, G. B. (2011). *The wit and wisdom of George Bernard Shaw*. Mineola: Dover Publications.
- 187) Shedletsky, L. (2017). *Intrapersonal communication*. SAGE Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods
- 188) Silva, T. Cunha, M. P., Clegg, S. R., Neves, P., Rego, A. & Rodrigues, R. A. (2014). Smells like team spirit: Opening a paradoxical black box. *Human Relations*, 67(3), 287 – 310.
- 189) Sindin, X. P. (2017). *Secondary data*. In The SAGE Encyclopedia of Communication Research Methods. ISBN:9781483381411 doi: <http://dx.org/10.4135/9781483381411.n557>
- 190) Singh, N. (2018). *The magic of altruism in the workplace*. Retrieved from <https://www.linkedin.com>
- 191) Sizer, C. (2008). *The effects of mentoring on job satisfaction among military academicians*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net>
- 192) Skripak, S. J. (2016). *Teamwork in Business*. Retrieved from www.vtechworks.lib.vt.edu on 12/03/21
- 193) Sloan, M. M. (2012). Unfair treatment in the workplace and worker well-being: the role of coworker support in a service work environment. *Work Occupat.* 39, 3–34. doi: 10.1177/0730888411406555
- 194) Stead, V. (2005). *Mentoring: A model for leadership development?* Retrieved from <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com>
- 195) Stephan, F. (2017). *Drexler/Sibbet Team performance model*. Retrieved from <https://www.kaizenko.com> on 21/04/21
- 196) Taber, K. S. (2018). The use of Cronbach's Alpha when developing and reporting research instruments in Science Education. *Res. Sci. Educ*, 48, 1273 - 1296

- 197) Tadakaluru, S. (2020). *Introduction to sampling techniques /Different sampling types and techniques*. Retrieved from <https://www.mygreatlearning.com> on 23/5/2021
- 198) Taherdoost, H. (2021). Validity and reliability of the research instrument; how to test the validity of a questionnaire/survey in a research, 5,
- 199) Tamunosiki-Amadi, J. O., Sele, G. O. & Omiloli, E. E. (2020). Social intelligence and employee commitment in Bayelsa State Health Sector. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 11(2), 68 - 76
- 200) Tarver, E. (2021). *Corporate Culture*. Retrieved from [Investopedia.com/terms/c/corporate-culture.asp](https://www.investopedia.com/terms/c/corporate-culture.asp)
- 201) Tavakol, M. & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's Alpha. *Int. J. Med. Educ*, 2, 53 - 55
- 202) Templar, R. (2015). *The Rules of Management*. London: Pearson
- 203) Thomas, L. (2020). *Stratified sampling: A step-by-step guide with examples*. Retrieved from <https://www.scribbr.com>
- 204) Troen, V. & Boles, K. C. (2010). Team Spirit. *JSD*. 31(1): 59 – 62.
- 205) Tuerah, P. R., Panagalila, T., Najoan, M. & Korompis, E. V. (2019). Effects of Interpersonal Communication, Work Ethic and Leadership Style towards Junior High School Teacher Performance in the City of Tomohon. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research*, 383, 676 – 681
- 206) Udegbe, M. I., Akintola, O. K. A. & Ganiyat, O. (2012). Impact of Business communication on organizational performance in Nigerian companies. *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research*, 2(1), 16 - 26
- 207) Ugwuzor, M. (2011). Workplace diversity management in Nigerian Firms: The interplay of workplace culture. *Journal of Educational Research*, 5(2), 1 – 8
- 208) Ugwuzor, M. (2017). Survivor behaviour management and organizational survival. *IJCBM*, 6(6), 22 – 30.
- 209) Ugwuzor, M. (2018). Repackaging employee behaviour for National Development in Nigeria. *Journal of Management Sciences*, 3(1), 155 – 162.
- 210) Ugwuzor, M. (2020). Behaviour exploration for National Development. *Niger Delta Journal of Management Sciences*, 1(2), 25 – 37
- 211) Ugwuzor, M. (2022). Social capital and workplace injustice: A dark side Discourse. *World Journal of innovative research*, 12(2), 51 -55
- 212) Ukonu, M. O. & Wogu, J. O. (2017). *Communication systems in Africa*. Nsukka: University of Nigeria
- 213) UNFPA (2019). *Census*. Retrieved from <https://www.unfpa.org/census>
- 214) Valcheva, S. (2018). *Primary data Vs. Secondary data: Definition, sources, Advantages*. Retrieved from <https://www.intellspot.com>
- 215) Valsiner, J. (2000). *Culture and Human Development: An Introduction*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net>
- 216) Van Raalte JL, Vincent A & Dickens YL (2019) Dialogical Consciousness and Descriptive Experience Sampling: Implications for the Study of Intrapersonal Communication in Sport. *Front. Psychol*. 10:653. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00653
- 217) Vandergriendt, C. (2018). *What are neurons*. Retrieved from <https://heartline.com>
- 218) Vickery, A. J., Keaton, S. A. & Bodie, G. D. (2015). Intrapersonal communication and listening goals: An examination of attributes and functions of imagined interactions and Active-Empathic Listening Behaviour. *Southern Communication Journal*, 80(1), 20 - 38
- 219) Wambui, T. W., Kibui, A. W., & Gathuthi, E. (2012). *Communication Skills Vol. 1 - Students Coursebook*. Saarbrücken: Lap Lambert Academic Publishing <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/303893422> on 04/03/2021
- 220) Wijaya, L. & Nasution, S. S. (2018). Language as art and communication tool. Proceedings of the 1st Annual International Conference on Language and Literature, 18-19 April 2018, Fakultas Sastra, UISU, Medan, Indonesia.
- 221) Wong, K. (2020). *Organizational culture: Definition, importance and development*. Retrieved from <https://www.achievers.com> on 15/04/21
- 222) Wrench, J. S. & Punyanunt-Carter, N. (2012). *An introduction to organizational communication*. Retrieved from <http://2012books.lardbucket.org>
- 223) Yamane, T. (1967). *Statistics, an introductory Analysis*. (2nd Ed). New York: Harper and Row
- 224) Yau-fair Ho, D., Chan, S. F. Peng, S. & Ng, A. K. (2001). The dialogical self: Converging East-West constructions. *Culture and Psychology*, 7, 393 - 408
- 225) Yildirim, O. (2014). The impact of organizational communication on organizational citizenship behaviour: Research Findings. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 150, 1095 – 1100
- 226) Yourdictionary (2021). *Supervisor meaning – Best 10 definitions of supervisor*. Retrieved from <https://www.yourdictionary.com>
- 227) Zendage, H. (2018). Douglas McGregor Theory X and Y. *Scholarly Research Journal for Humanity Science & English Language*, 6(26), 7640 – 7643
- 228) Zhu, Y. (2013). A review of job satisfaction. *Asian Social Science*, 9(1), 293 - 298
- 229) Zukauskas, P., Vveinhardt, J. & Andriukaitiene, R. (2018). *Philosophy and paradigm of scientific research*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net> on 21-05-21