

TELECOMMUTING AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE OF MOBILE (GSM) TELECOMMUNICATION COMPANIES IN PORT HARCOURT, NIGERIA

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Abstract

This study investigated the relationship between Telecommuting and Organizational Performance of Mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. Telecommuting was conceptualized as the independent variable while profitability, timeliness and efficiency were used as measures of the dependent variable. The study adopted the cross-sectional survey in its investigation of the variables. Primary source of data was generated through self-administered questionnaire. The population of the study was 134 employees of 4 Mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt. A sample of one hundred (100) respondents was calculated using the Taro Yamane's formula for sample size determination. The research instrument was validated through supervisor's vetting and approval while the reliability of the instrument was achieved by the use of the Cronbach Alpha coefficient with all the items scoring above 0.70. Data generated were analyzed and presented using both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques. The hypotheses were tested using the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Statistics. The tests were carried out at a 95% confidence interval and a 0.05 level of significance. The findings revealed a positive and significant relationship between telecommuting and organizational performance of Mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt. The study recommends that mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies should provide more platforms that would encourage and motivate employees to work from environments that are convenient for them as this has a way of reducing cost of hiring office space and increasing profitability in the long run.

Keywords: Telecommuting, profitability, timeliness, efficiency, organizational performance

INTRODUCTION

Telecommuting, virtual work, telework, remote work, work from home – the form and terminology varies, but in a technologically enabled, global business environment the practice of working away from the office is commonplace. Telecommuting in particular has been defined as a work practice whereby employees substitute some or all of their regular working hours to work away from the office, often at home, performing work tasks and communicating with others via technological means (Allen, Golden, & Shockley, 2015; Nilles, 1998). Telecommuting is both popular and controversial. Where telecommuting initially gained traction as a means to improve traffic patterns, reduce energy consumption, and recruit highly specialized workers, today the practice is offered to a wide range of workers, often as a means to manage work and non-work

roles (Allen et al., 2015; Bailey & Kurland, 2002). A 2014 study found that 67% of U.S. companies offered the option of occasional telecommuting, up from 50% in 2010 (Matos & Galinsky, 2014). About 20% of the U.S. working adult population reports telecommuting at least once a month, and of these individuals, 84% telecommute at least once per week (WorldatWork, 2013). Perhaps due to its pervasiveness and visible contrast to traditional, in-office work, there is debate regarding the implications of telecommuting for human capital outcomes such as employee performance, commitment, and organizational culture.

Happily for those who use and/or support voluntary telecommuting arrangements, there is growing evidence of positive links to outcomes of prime interest to organizations, including employees' performance and intent to remain with the organization (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Martin & MacDonnell, 2012). There are a number of gaps in our understanding of telecommuting's effects, however, which the present study helps to address. First, although there is general support for links to positive outcomes like increased performance and decreased turnover intent (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007), less is known regarding the mechanisms of these relationships. Autonomy appears to be an important partial mediator for attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007), but empirical evidence regarding alternative mediators is lacking. Support for previously proposed mechanisms of work-family conflict and organizational/supervisor support is weak at best (Butts, Casper, & Tae, 2013; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007), and although many researchers draw on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to frame positive work outcomes of telecommuting, few studies directly test exchange mechanisms. Furthermore, while telecommuting appears to have small negative links with turnover intent (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; Golden, Veiga, & Dino, 2008), the limited research examining telecommuting and organizational commitment tends to yield mixed results. It may be that telecommuting impacts certain facets of commitment more than others. In addition, commitment and performance outcomes of telecommuting are rarely examined in conjunction, and it is not clear whether the type of commitment engendered by telecommuting unfolds via pathways similar to those resulting in enhanced performance.

Another gap in existing research on telecommuting is a lack of longitudinal data. Although inevitable for most content areas in industrial and organizational psychology, particularly for relatively recent workforce phenomena, this gap increases the possibility of reverse causation. For example, rather than telecommuting enhancing performance through benefits like increased autonomy and positive exchange relationships, high performance on the part of employees (and/or, managerial favoritism) may beget an array of benefits, including autonomy, support, and permission to telecommute. Of course, the two explanations are not mutually exclusive, and relationships may be reciprocal, as well. There have been some attempts to address potential for reverse causality, e.g. via inclusion of control variables, but lagged/longitudinal data would provide a more rigorous test of telecommuting's effects.

The present study helps to address these gaps by using telecommuting data spanning five years to test telecommuting's relationship with current-year performance and commitment, mediated by autonomy and support for work-life balance. This study also examines the potential impact of job type (administrative versus managerial) on these pathways.

This study will also be guided by the following research questions:

- i. What is the relationship between telecommuting and profitability of mobile (GSM)

- telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt?
- ii. What is the relationship between telecommuting and timeliness of mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt?
 - iii. What is the relationship between telecommuting and efficiency of mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt?

LITERATURE REVIEW TELECOMMUTING

Telecommuting means working at home or at a central place convenient to ones customers (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002). The employees make use of their telephones, email and fax to get in touch with their managers and other co-workers. Previous studies have found that organizations practicing telecommuting have the advantage of employees retention (Grippaldi, 2002). According to Kurland and Bailey (1997) there are variety types of telecommuting. The commonly used are: home-based, satellite offices, neighborhood work centers, and mobile workers.

Home-base telecommuting is a method of telecommuting in which employees particularly work from their homes. Employees may opt to work for several days in a week. In order for this arrangement to succeed, employers provide employees with various office equipment and machines for instance, computers and fax machines (Wahab, 2007). On the other hand Satellite offices are other ways of telecommuting whereby employees are stationed at locality convenient to them or to their customers. The offices are properly furnished and have various office equipment (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002). The other form of telecommuting is Neighbourhood work centre. It is more or less like satellite office. The disparity arises in that neighbourhood work centre accommodates employees from more than one company. The organizations or companies may share the lease on buildings but maintain separate offices within the same building. Offices may be furnished by owner of the building or the renting firm (Pyoria, 2009). Mobile working is different from telecommuters because they work from one fixed location. Mobile workers are mostly commuting on the road. They may work from various locations for instance, hotel, planes or vehicle. This arrangement is common for salespersons, reporters or investment bankers (Sahay, Nicholson & Krishna, 2003).

According to Kossek and Lee (2008) organizations makes saving because of reduced absenteeism. Reduced absenteeism displays employees loyalty to the organization which in turn has positive effects on organization performance. Workers operating from home have the advantage of combing work and family or personal responsibilities. This benefits the organization in that absenteeism reduces. In their study Karnowski and White (2002) established that office running costs reduces as a result of better utilization of resources management. Employees reduces their commute time as well (Major, Verive & Joice, 2008).

However, there are challenges associated with telecommuting. Madsen (2011) states that workers telecommuting may feel cut off from the organization set up. Employees are not able to interact with each other thereby losing the sense of belonging. Teamwork and employees' relations are also affected. There is the problem of inadequate resources and lack of technical support. Career development is affected as well (Khaifa & Davidson, 2000). The employer is not able to closely monitor the performance of those employees chosen to telecommute. This may have repercussion for those jobs which are measureable.

According to Bailey and Kurland (2002) extensive studies have been carried out on telecommuting and its influence on performance however very little research has been done on examine decisions and design processes to give support to these programs. Other research indicated that managers/supervisors have problems in monitoring their employees (Kurland & Egan, 1999).

Organizational performance

Firm's performance is the measure of standard or prescribed indicators of effectiveness, efficiency and environmental responsibilities such as cycle time, productivity, waste reduction and regulatory compliance (Noum, 2007). The organizational performance construct is probably the most widely used dependent variable, in fact, it is the ultimate dependent variable of interest for any researchers concerned with just about any area of management yet it remains vague and loosely defined (Richard et al, 2009). The construct has acquired a central role as the deemed goal of the modern industrial activity. Performance is so common in management research that its structure and definition are rarely explicitly justified; instead, its appropriateness, in no matter what form is unquestionably assumed (March and Sutton, 1997). Performance is a recurrent theme in most branches of management, including strategic management, and it is of interest to both academic scholar and practicing managers. Where prescriptions for improving and managing organizational performance are widely available (Nash, 1983) the academic community has been preoccupied with discussion and debates about issues of terminology, level of analysis (like individual work unit organization as a whole) and conceptual bases for assessment of performance (Ford & Shellenberge, 1982).

Although firm performance plays a key role in strategic research, there is considerable debate on appropriateness of various approaches to the concept utilization and measurement of organization performance. The complexity of performance is perhaps the major factor contributing to the debate. Out of literature are three common approaches to organization performance measurement namely, the objective measures of performance that tend to be quantitative, the subjective measures that tend to be qualitative therefore judgemental and usually based on perception of respondent, and triangulation. Organizational performance refers to how well an organization achieves its market-oriented goals as well as its financial goals. The short-term objectives of SCM are primarily to increase productivity and reduce inventory and cycle time, while long-term objectives are to increase market share and profits for all members of the supply chain Tan, (1999). Financial metrics have served as a tool for comparing organizations and evaluating an organization's behavior over time (Holmberg, 2000).

Any organization initiative, including supply chain management, should ultimately lead to enhanced organizational performance. Firm's performance is measured in terms of trade performance. It is calculated on the basis of sales return, field, return on investment, output, market split and the manufactured goods growth (Wang and Lo, 2003: A Neely, 2005). Kaplan and Norton (2011) introduced the balanced score card, (BSC) as a more realistic measure of performance. The balanced scored card defines a strategy's cause and effect relationships and provide a framework to organizing strategic objectives into the financial perspective in line with the vision and mission. The BSC measures the financial aspect, customer services, learning and growth within the organization and internal business processes.

Measures of organizational performance Profitability

Profitability refers to money that a firm can produce with the resources it has. The goal of most organization is profit maximization (Niresh & Velnampy, 2014). Profitability involves the capacity to make benefits from all the business operations of an organization, firm or company (Muya & Gathogo, 2016). Profit usually acts as the entrepreneur's reward for his/her investment. As a matter of fact, profit is the main motivator of an entrepreneur for doing business. Profit is also used as an index for performance measuring of a business (Ogbadu, 2009). Profit is the difference between revenue received from sales and total costs which includes material costs, labor and so on (Stierwald, 2010). Profitability can be expressed either accounting profits or economic profits and it is the main goal of a business venture (Anene, 2014). Profitability portrays the efficiency of the management in converting the firm's resources to profits (Muya & Gathogo, 2016). Thus, firms are likely to gain a lot of benefits related increased profitability (Niresh & Velnampy, 2014). One important precondition for any long-term survival and success of a firm is profitability. It is profitability that attracts investors and the business is likely to survive for a long period of time (Farah & Nina, 2016). Many firms strive to improve their profitability and they do spend countless hours on meetings trying to come up with a way of reducing operating costs as well as on how to increase their sales (Schreibfeder, 2006).

Timeliness

When the employees are productive, they accomplish more in a given amount of time. In turn, efficiency saves their company money in time and labour. When employees are unproductive, they take longer time to complete projects, which cost employee's more money due to the time lost (Olajide, 2000). The importance of higher productivity of the employees in public enterprise cannot be overemphasized, which include the following; Higher incomes and profit; Higher earnings; Increased supplies of both consumer and capital goods at lower costs and lower prices; Ultimate shorter hours of work and improvements in working and living conditions; Strengthening the general economic foundation of workers (Banjoko, 1996). Armstrong (2006) stated that productivity is the time spent by an employee actively participating in his/her job that he or she was hired for, in order to produce the required outcomes according to the employers' job descriptions. As suggested by Bloisi (2003) the core cause of the productivity problems in the South African society are people's motivation levels and their work ethics.

Timeliness according to Mayberry, Nicewander, Qin and Billard (2006), can be referred to as the ability to reduce waiting times and sometimes harmful delays to clients by employees in attending to their needs. The scholar went further to emphasize that a high degree of responsiveness with respect to an activity that is not essential in achieving the organizations goals does not contribute to the effectiveness of organizations; hence hindering their ability to become competitive. Timeliness refers to the delivery of value to customers at an appropriate time. This is distinguished from the notion of speed which typically refers to how fast an organization could be in producing and introducing valuable products to the market ahead of its competitors (Mayberry *et al.*, 2006). This simply goes to mean that speeding up the work that is being done does not necessarily translate to responsiveness even though it can certainly yield greater output.

The present business milieu has become greatly influenced by globalization and as such is consistently breeding hyper-competition among key players in various industries both locally

and internationally. These circumstances have forced organizations to adopt various strategies which they intend to use in redefining their approach towards dealing with the needs of their customers. Most organizations today more than ever have adopted the concept of empowering their teeming customers as a panacea towards attaining desired competitive advantage (Ekis & Arasli, 2007). However, organizations in their bid to respond to the challenges of environment and influence in business should focus on customer needs, wants and retention ability by being prompt in their service and product delivery.

Keeping to deadlines or promptness according to these authors, is necessary in attaining competitive advantage because the frequent meeting of the need of customers leads to increased customer loyalty, satisfaction, and retention. It could also be viewed as an approach that if adequately implemented, will have the tendency to increase the cost of customers switching to close competitors. Additionally, the primary purpose of strategic management system enhancement has been to improve efficiency in organization and strengthen strategic response capacity, as well as its capacity to attain and sustain competitiveness. (Mintzberg *et al.*, 1998).

Efficiency

Bernard (1938) argued that the primary measure of an efficient board is its capacity to survive. Many authors have used efficiency as a primary measurement of performance Cameron, (1986); Drucker, (1954); Murphy, et al., 1996; and Venkatraman & Ramanujam, 1986). Ogboso & Amah, (2016) opines that efficiency refers to the accomplishment of goals with minimum resources or waste. It includes measures such as time minimization, cost minimization, and waste minimization. Speed and time are important resources for any board and must be seen to seek to maximize speed and minimize time. The way a board does this indicates how efficient and productive they are. Speed and time were the essence of time and motion studies since the day of scientific management introduced by Taylor that led to management efficiency. They are sources of competitive advantage. Doing the right thing in corporate governance terms is an important, but not a sufficient, condition for performance. And doing the wrong thing (e.g. an ineffective audit committee, or lack of independence among the executives) will make it more difficult for a board to perform but is not a measure of success or lack of it either. The questions relating to board efficiency are: How effective is the board in dispatching businesses (including through board committees in and between meetings) and following up on decisions, does the board identify and focus on key (not just a long list of) issues and risks facing the organization; is the board able to take initiatives, dealing with crises and identifying emerging issues? The conception of time here is the duration taken to accomplish a task. These honest questions are both a matter of choice. Since it is usually only after an extended period is it possible to know whether the board has dealt with the right issues, how well it has done so, and which issues have not been addressed. Accordingly, failing to ensure succession or invest in new technology is just as much about performance as successful talent management or systems investment. Boards can be really helpful in identifying risks that executive director alone, sometimes preoccupied with current challenges, and may not have spotted. There are two questions rather than one here because a history of dealing with key issues as they arise is not enough. The ability to take initiatives, deal with crises and identify issues that are not part of 'normal business' is a crucial differentiator between an efficient and a tolerable board. For the same reason 'meeting board objectives' isn't

included as a performance measure, since it runs the risk of being too inward-looking and passively taking things too much as they are.

Relationship between Telecommuting and Organizational Performance

While improved performance is expected to arise from work-life balance supportive telecommuting arrangements due in large part to instrumental/tangible benefits, commitment related outcomes are expected to arise at least in part through signaling-and-exchange. Telecommuting is a signal of goodwill and support on the part of the employer, which employees reciprocate in the form of increased performance. Performance can take several forms, including profitability, growth, market share as well as efficiency (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Previous research on telecommuting, performance, and the related outcome of turnover intent tends to indicate small positive and negative associations, respectively. Gajendran and colleagues observed a corrected correlation of $\rho = -0.10$ with turnover intent, but did not draw meta-analytic conclusions regarding links with commitment.

Martin and MacDonnell's 2012 telecommuting meta-analysis indicated a correlation of $r = 0.10$ with organizational performance, operationalized by different studies (Meyer & Allen, 1991), a single dimension, or a hybrid commitment measure. Finally, an experimental study of telecommuting observed increases in performance for telecommuting conditions including at least two location options (Hunton & Norman, 2010).

Despite some indication of benefits, findings regarding telecommuting and performance are far from conclusive. Leslie and colleagues found that FWA use, including occasional and extensive telecommuting, was not related to employees' performance. Another study observed that flex scheduling, but not telecommuting, had positive and negative associations with performance (Hyland, Rowsome, & Rowsome, 2005). Consistent with a signaling perspective, availability of telecommuting may be a stronger predictor of performance than actual use. For instance, Caillier and colleagues found no difference in turnover intent of federal government telecommuters versus non-telecommuters; denial of the opportunity to telecommute, however, was associated with increased turnover intent (Caillier, 2013).

A signaling perspective implies that, when offered as an employee-centric policy (e.g., as a form of unconditional support versus a motivational or performance-enhancing technique), telecommuting is less likely to influence the perceived effort/performance facet of affective commitment. Put simply, employees will not reciprocate with increased effort when increased effort is not expected (or at least, employees do not perceive this expectation). In addition, from a PE fit perspective, ability to shape one's job according to one's needs, preferences, and strengths may allow telecommuters to work better without working harder. From a job demands resources perspective, telecommuters may experience decreased demands in certain aspects of their jobs (most obviously, time spent getting dressed and commuting), that counteract increased effort or demands in others (e.g., increased self-set work standards due to desire or felt obligation to return the favor of telecommuting). Thus, telecommuters may actually expend or perceive themselves as expending the same degree of effort as non-telecommuters, while preserving or even increasing the quality of their contributions. This argument receives support from generally null linkages of telecommuting with self-reported performance (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007), although as others argue this pattern may also result from ceiling effects (Allen et al., 2015). In

contrast to affective commitment, continuance commitment reflects “side-bets” (Becker, 1960; Meyer & Allen, 1984) or awareness of costs of leaving. As such telecommuters’ continuance commitment (specifically perceived sacrifice commitment) should hinge more heavily on day-to-day benefits of telecommuting (versus more abstract perceptions of the employer’s intentions), relative to affective commitment. Signals of support and trust are also likely to be perceived as valuable resources.

From the foregoing point of view, we hereby hypothesized thus:

- H₀₁:** There is no significant relationship between telecommuting and profitability of mobile (GSM)telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt.
- H₀₂:** There is no significant relationship between telecommuting and timeliness of mobile (GSM)telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt.
- H₀₃:** There is no significant relationship between telecommuting and efficiency of mobile (GSM)telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt.

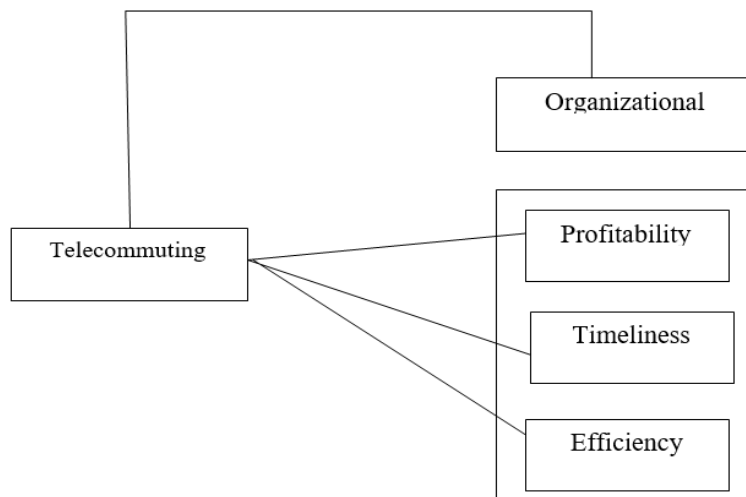


Fig.1 Operational Framework for the hypothesized relationship between Telecommuting and Organizational performance.

Source: Author’s Desk Research, 2018

METHODOLOGY

The study used a cross-sectional design. The population of this study comprises of all the senior and supervisory staff drawn from the main branches of the four (4) different mobile (GSM) network operators in Port Harcourt. A total of one hundred and thirty four (134) employees would be selected from the four telecommunication operators therefore formed the total population for this study. The sample size for the study therefore was 100. The sampling technique applied in selecting a sample in this study was the purposive sampling in which every member has an equal chance of being selected. Descriptive statistics and Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient for data analysis and hypothesis testing with the help of the SPSS version 23 package.

Table 1. Reliability statistics for the instruments

S/No	Dimensions/Measures of the Study variable	Number of items	Number of cases	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Telecommuting	4	89	0.734
2	Profitability	4	89	0.896
3.	Timeliness	4	89	0.771
4.	Efficiency	4	89	0.782

Source: Research data, 2018

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS BIVARIATE ANALYSIS

Data analysis was carried out using the Spearman rank order correlation tool at a 95% confidence interval. Specifically, the tests cover a H_0 hypothesis that was bivariate and declared in the null form. We have based on the statistic of Spearman Rank (ρ) to carry out the analysis. The level of significance 0.05 is adopted as a criterion for the probability of accepting the null hypothesis in ($p > 0.05$) or rejecting the null hypothesis in ($p < 0.05$).

Table 2 Correlations for Teleommuting and Organizational Performance

		Telecommuting	Profitability	Timeliness	Efficiency
Telecommuting	Correlation	1.000	1.000**	.404**	.596**
	Coefficient				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.	.000	.000
	N	89	89	89	89
Profitability	CorrelationCoefficient	1.000**	1.000	.404**	.596**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.	.000	.000
Spearman's rho	N	89	89	89	89
	CorrelationCoefficient	.404**	.404**	1.000	.591**
Timeliness	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	89	89	89	89
Efficiency	CorrelationCoefficient	.596**	.596**	.591**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	89	89	89	89

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

Source: Research Data, 2018 (SPSS output, version 21.0)

Table 4.15 illustrates the test for the three previously postulated bivariate hypothetical statements. **H_{01}** : There is no significant relationship between telecommuting and profitability of mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt.

From the result in the table above, the correlation coefficient (ρ) shows that there is a significant and positive between telecommuting and profitability. The *correlation coefficient 1.000* confirms the magnitude and strength of this relationship and it is significant at $p < 0.000 < 0.01$. The correlation coefficient represents a very strong correlation between the variables. Therefore, based on empirical findings the null hypothesis earlier stated is hereby rejected and the alternate upheld. Thus, there is a significant relationship between telecommuting and profitability of mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt.

H02: There is no significant relationship between telecommuting and timeliness of mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt.

From the result in the table above, the correlation coefficient (ρ) shows that there is a significant and positive telecommuting and timeliness. The *correlation* coefficient of 0.404 confirms the magnitude and strength of this relationship and it is significant at $p\ 0.000 < 0.01$. The correlation coefficient represents a high correlation indicating also a moderate relationship between the variables. Therefore, based on empirical findings the null hypothesis earlier stated is hereby rejected and the alternate upheld. Thus, there is a significant relationship between telecommuting and timeliness of mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt.

H03: There is no significant relationship between telecommuting and efficiency of mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt.

From the result in the table above, the correlation coefficient (ρ) shows that there is a significant and positive telecommuting and efficiency. The *correlation* coefficient of 0.596 confirms the magnitude and strength of this relationship and it is significant at $p\ 0.000 < 0.01$. The correlation coefficient represents a high correlation indicating also a moderate relationship between the variables. Therefore, based on empirical findings the null hypothesis earlier stated is hereby rejected and the alternate upheld. Thus, there is a significant relationship between telecommuting and efficiency of mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This study using descriptive and inferential statistical methods investigated the relationship between telecommuting and organizational performance of mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt. The findings revealed a positive and significant relationship between telecommuting and organizational performance using the Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Statistics tool at a 95% confidence interval. This finding reinforces views by Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, (2006) who believed that organizations makes saving because of reduced absenteeism. Reduced absenteeism displays employee's loyalty to the organization which in turn has positive effects on organization performance. Workers operating from home have the advantage of combing work and family or personal responsibilities. This benefits the organization in that absenteeism reduces. In their study Karnowski and White (2002) established that office running costs reduces as a result of better utilization of resources management. Employees reduce their commute time as well (Major, Verive & Joice, 2008).

However, this finding deviates from the studies conducted by Madsen (2011) who states that workers telecommuting may feel cut off from the organization set up. Employees are not able to interact with each other thereby losing the sense of belonging. Teamwork and employees' relations are also affected. There is the problem of inadequate resources and lack of technical support. Career development is affected as well (Khaifa & Davidson, 2000). The employer is not able to closely monitor the performance of those employees chosen to telecommute. This may have repercussion for those jobs which are measurable.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Organizations are realizing that telecommuting helps them to build profitable, timely as well as efficient operations. As such telecommuting can build and enhance profitability, timeliness and efficiency and improve the organizations' performance. To reap the required objectives from telecommuting therefore, there is a need to implement them according to strategy. Many companies built strategy by keeping tab on their employees. The results of the research reveals that if telecommuting is implemented in organizations and managers give it high attention it can enhance flexible work practice in organizations and help employees in achieving tasks and targets set for their job positions and helps in profitability, timeliness and efficiency. It emphasizes on profitability of the organization as well as the timely and efficient delivery of service by the employees of the organization. The study thus concludes that telecommuting influences the organizational performance of mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies in Port Harcourt positively as it result in increased profitability, and timely and efficient service delivery.

Based on the discussion and conclusion above, the following recommendations are hereby made:

- i. Mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies should provide more platforms that would encourage and motivate employees to work from environments that are convenient for them as this has a way of reducing cost of hiring office space and increasing profitability in the long run.
- ii. Mobile (GSM) telecommunication companies should improve on the capacity of their employees through regular training and development exercises. This would increase their ability to fare well when tasks are shared. Reward systems that would encourage effective and efficient job sharing should be adopted.

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