



**NOBEL INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS SCHOOL  
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ADMINISTRATION**

**The Effect of Person-Job Fit and Job-Training Fit on  
Employee Work Behaviour Within the Ghanaian  
Manufacturing Sector**

**Submitted by**

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## Abstract

The impact of person-job fit (PJF) and job-training fit (JTF) on employee work behaviour is an issue receiving increasing attention within the Organizational Studies and Human Resource literature; especially as companies consider how they will continue to improve performance among their employees. In particular, the ability of employees to effectively perform their job roles, and the impact of their skills and personality on organizational performance, have placed a greater emphasis on understanding the multiplicity of antecedents impacting their workplace behaviour. A review of the extant literature revealed the need for further studies on the role of organizational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment as essential yet rarely explored constructs. Consequently, this study sought to extend the literature by analyzing how PJF and JTF could impact on work behaviour and how this relationship could be contingent on factors such as environmental fit, psychological empowerment and organizational commitment. To effectively address the primary research objective, this thesis used a quantitative research approach, conducting a survey of 600 employees in tile manufacturing companies in Ghana. In total, 484 responses were received, resulting in a response rate of 80.66%. Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression and Exploratory Factor Analysis techniques were used in analyzing the collected data. The results show that PJF had a positive and significant impact on in-role performance of employees, suggesting that workers perform better in their direct job roles when they meet the specific skill demands placed on them by the role and the organizational environment. The examination of the moderator relationship found that the relationship between JTF and in-role performance of the employee is stronger when organisational commitment is high rather than low. Also, the results shows that the relationship between JTF and in-role performance of the employee is stronger when the environmental fit is high rather than low. Likewise, it was found that in the ceramics tile manufacturing industry, psychological empowerment tends to reduce both in-role and extra-role performance, while commitment tends to enhance both in-role and extra-role performance. The study recommends the need for organizations to focus on improving the PJF of employees through competence training, given its positive impact on their performance. In addition, as much as staff are empowered, there is the need for controls to be in place to avoid the abuse of the empowerment to the extent of producing negative performance outcomes.

**Keywords:** Work behaviour, Person-Job fit, Job-training fit, Psychological empowerment, Organisational commitment.

## **Dedication**

I dedicate this thesis to:

To God Almighty – for his unmatched grace, mercy and the breath of life.

To my biological father, Mr. Martin Kwame Yevugah and my biological mother, Francisca Foli – for support.

To my lovely wife, Patience Alokore Yevugah– for all the priceless love, care and support you have shown me since you came into my life.

To Eyram, Junior, and Yoland - like arrows in the hands of a mighty warrior are children born in a man's youth.

“The Lord is my shepherd; I shall not want. He maketh me to lie down in green pastures: he leadeth me beside the still waters.” – **Psalm 23: 1-2**

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I, David **Yevugah**, hereby declare that this dissertation is the product of original research conducted by me under the supervision of Dr. Johnson Okeniyi. I also declare that this dissertation has not been submitted to any other institution for assessment, publication, or for any other purpose. Where the works of other people have been used, references have been duly cited. It is in this regard that I declare this work as originally mine. It is hereby presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Business Administration at the Nobel International Business School.



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Date: 10/05/2021

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JTF	-	Job training fit
AVE	-	Average Variance Extracted
CEO	-	Chief Executive Officer
CFO	-	Chief Finance Officer
CR	-	Composite Reliability
EFA	-	Exploratory Factor Analysis
HR	-	Human Resource
OCB	-	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
PCA	-	Principal Component Analysis
PJF	-	Person-job Fit
SET	-	Social Exchange Theory
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TWA	-	Theory of Work Adjustment
VIF	-	Variance Inflation Factor

## Chapter One

### 1.1 Background and context

Studies on employee performance have concentrated on how to assess a match between the requirement of jobs and the ability of employees in respect of their skills, understanding, and capabilities (Sekiguchi & Huber, 2011). The training of people in a particular job and the experience gained on the job is imperative in enhancing their performance. Relating to this, people are employed based on their ability to deliver on the job and the skills and behaviors they possess that enables them to effectively meet the demands of a given role. Consequently, Makarius and Srinivasan (2017) pointed out that the interest of researchers in this area is focused on the necessity of recruiting staff whose skills/abilities are in sync with the role, objectives and culture of the hiring organisation. In several instances, it has been asserted that when the right person is used for the right job, and with on-the-job training focused on the role performed by the employee, high performance is attained (van Vianen 2000; Verquer, Beehr & Wagner, 2003).

The diversity of skills and competencies widely available, coupled with dynamics in the industry and the marketplace inform employers to constantly seek to recruit individuals compatible with the culture and vision of the organisation and who are also adequately skilled to execute their respective roles to meet the outlined corporate goals. Consequently, Person-job fit (stated hereafter as PJF) and Job training fit (stated hereafter as JTF) are critical in enhancing the capacity of employees towards the performance of both their core and peripheral duties in a given job role (Kinnie, Hutchinson, Purcell, Rayton & Swart, 2005).

Person-job fit focuses on the congruence between the perceptions of an individual and the job he/she does (Wong & Tetrick, 2017; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, 2000). This fit is very important when one considers how well an employee will become more attracted to an organisation (Cai, Cai, Sun, & Ma, 2018). Likewise, researchers such as Verquer et al., (2003) and Vianen (2000) argued that the satisfaction of employees on a job and their level of commitment to the employing-organisation is an important indicator for PJF. PJF has been used to study issues relating to employee motivation and retention, even though this complements other prevalent approaches to studying these constructs.

This notwithstanding, an observation of the literature on PJF shows that though the outcome of this construct is overly researched, studies from developed countries on the mechanisms that stimulate this fit are few (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013; Colbert, Kristof-Brown, Bradley & Barrick, 2008; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005). Further, Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) contend that the skills and personality of employees are key determinants of PJF; and produces employee commitment which eventually impacts their in-role and extra-role performance. It is equally crucial that any given research on PJF must explore the moderating role of organizational commitment, as the contemporary opinion of motivation, organizational commitment, and employees' incentives suggest a complex web of interrelationships that needs further exploration for a sort of resolution in the extant literature on this phenomenon (Jiang, Xiao, Qi & Xia, 2009).

Further to the above, exploring the moderating role of organizational commitment, environmental fit, and psychological empowerment are relevant contemporary issues, noting the dynamism of current business environment. For example, environmental fit assesses how employees fit into their organizational work environment and how such work environment is compatible with their individual values and culture. The concept of organizational commitment relates to the commitment of the employee during his/her work in the organization and how he/she has been trained and equipped with the requisite skills for significant contribution to work and organizational outcomes. Psychological empowerment similarly is not only a desirable activity, but, one that focus on how organizations commit their resources to retain knowledgeable employees (Obisi, 2011). Considerations towards achieving organizational synergy includes, organizational review of procedures for recruitment and staff selection, designing right training system, and ensuring the empowerment of employees. Psychological empowerment similarly is not only a desirable activity but one that focus on how organizations commit their resources retain knowledgeable employees (Obisi, 2011). Considerations towards achieving organizational synergy includes organizational review of procedures for recruitment and staff selection, designing right training system and ensuring the empowerment of employees.

The management literature underscores the important role organizational commitment and environmental fit plays when employees fit a given role and they receive the required training. The effect of this, is, likely to enhance the competitive advantage of organizations

(Baker & Sinkula, 2002; Darroch & McNaughton, 2002; Lyon & Ferrier, 2002; Brockmand & Morgan, 2003). The consensus from most of these studies is that the empowerment of employees is very necessary for their performance in a given job over a while and consequently empowerment must not be ignored. Consequently, employees become attached to an organization when they sense compatibility between their values, culture, and that of the firm. This compatibility results in positive workplace behaviors among employees.

Further to the above, one of the significant outcomes and behavioral variables that encourages organizational effectiveness is employee work behaviour - consisting of in-role and extra-role employee performance (LaPin, Erez & Johnson, 2002). According to Obedgiu, Bagire and Mafabi, (2017), there is the likelihood that organizational commitment will moderate organizational citizenship behavior. Also, psychological empowerment has a greater impact on organizational citizenship behavior (Kim, Losekoo & Milne, 2013). Harris, Wheeler and Kacmer (2009) suggest that when there is freedom in the workplace, it enables employees to display positive work attitudes through empowerment. When there is the existence of a perceived good social exchange relationship between managers and empowered employees, then there is the likelihood that these employees will diligently perform assigned roles (Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Therefore, psychological empowerment is considered by this study as a contingent factor in employee work behaviour (Vilela, Gonzalez & Varela, 2008).

Even though there have been studies from the perspective of developing markets on how PJF and JTF affect employee performance, there is less of a distinction drawn to properly ascertain the case of in-role and extra-role employee performance. Also, there is still little about the mechanisms through which organisational commitment and employee empowerment moderates the relationship. Equally, the moderating role of environmental fit has not been extensively researched in studies relating to JTF and PJF (Huang, Yuan & Li, 2019; Farzaneh, Farashah & Kazemi, 2014). In line with the above, PJF and JTF influence work behavior, however, this is contingent on certain factors such as organizational commitment, psychological empowerment and environment fit (Boon, Den Hartog, Boselie, & Paauwe, 2011).

## 1.2 Problem statement

Past research has shown that for employees to be able to perform their job roles well, they should possess a competency that is right for the job (Beydler, 2017; Edwards, 1991). Therefore, for employees to deliver better performance, they need to be skilful and competent (Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Berry, 2008). For organizations, the most expected and desirable type of behaviour from its members is to present a self-sacrificing attitude that does not require motivation such as sanctions, incentive propaganda, or any type of mandatory enforcement. In contemporary business environment, organizations expect their employees to demonstrate behaviours that are not enforced but have a positive contribution to the organisation in addition to their formal duties to achieve the overall corporate goals and objectives. However, organizations have ignored the fact that providing job-specific training to staff to meet role demands facilitates both in-role and extra-role (organizational citizenship behaviours) that are considered as vital in promoting organisational performance (Gürbüz, 2006).

The relationship between PJF, and organisational citizenship behaviour has so far been addressed by several studies (Farzaneh et al., 2014; Subramaniam & Jasmin, 2017; Tugal & Kilic, 2015). Meanwhile the previously simplistic relationship conceptualized in the past studies are more complex than originally imagined. The relationship between PJT on organizational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) could be dependent on certain contingent factors. Also, OCB cannot be used as the only indicator for the work performance of employees. The in-role performance together with OCB makes up work behaviours.

Previous studies dwelt on the impact of PJF on either in-role or extra role aspect of work behaviour. The current study extends the literature by focusing on the impact of PJF and JTF on both in-role and extra-role (employee work behavior). It further examines how this relationship could be contingent on factors such as environmental fit, psychological empowerment and organizational commitment. Thus, previous studies focused much on factors that motivate and facilitate employee's engagement and commitment to their jobs. Since PJF is about what the employer requires from the employee and what the employee has to offer to the organization, the addition of JTF to this study becomes critical given its role in developing employee's knowledge, skills and ability for their positions. This assertion is buttressed by Noe (2002) who underscored that JTF is critical to developing employee's

knowledge, skills and competence. Further to this, organizations will have to continuously provide training that fit the work demands of their employees as and when the requirements of their jobs change. Hence, JTF enhances the ability of employees to perform on the job to yield satisfaction (Subramaniam & Jasmin, 2017). Likewise, this tends to increase employee commitment and also enhance organizational citizenship behaviour.

In the presence of fit between the job and the person, performance is likely to still suffer when the values and culture of the organization are not in line with that of the individual employee. This is where environmental fit is needed as it ensures that there is alignment between the values of the employee and their working environment. It is expected that employees who have PJF, will from the beginning perform their assigned tasks and other extra-role tasks. However, due to lack of environmental fit within organizations, the in-role and extra-role performance of the employee is affected with time to the extent that the job they do does not fall in line with the requirements, values and cultures of their organisation (Bhat, 2013; Diamantidis & Chatzoglou, 2012). There is, therefore, a lack of employee performance that promotes organizational ineffectiveness within most organizations (LePine et al., 2002). Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean (1995) argued that the goal of positive work behaviours of employees is to ensure the attainment of set organisational goals. Studies have also shown that for certain behaviours to be regarded in the context of employee performance, it should be welcomed positively by a person outside the organization (Arslantaş & Pekdemir, 2007).

Furthermore, Vilela, González & Ferrín (2008) suggest that JTF is ideal in promoting the in-role and extra-role capability of the employee. This leads to employee job satisfaction and outcomes that are favourable concerning attaining organisational goals through the performance of employee duties. However, since the right training is lacking, the ensuing misfit creates a lack of organisational commitment and the required skills needed for the performance of their job. In effect, it leads to a feeling of meaninglessness of purpose in the tasks performed by employees; resulting in a diminished sense of empowerment and attachment to the job. This eventually results in less commitment and involvement by employees who also become less focused (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

In addition to the above, employees are also not provided with the environment that encourages psychological empowerment. Even organizations that do provide such an environment, do not provide the existence of a perceived strong social exchange relationship between managers and empowered employees (Kim, Lee & Jang, 2017). This has made employees not to engage in organizational citizenship behaviour (Wat & Shaffer, 2005). Employees who are psychologically empowered see their leaders to be trustworthy (Kim et al., 2013). Harris, Wheeler, and Kacmer (2009) suggest role freedom promotes empowerment and enables employees to display high in-role and extra-role performance.

This study examines the complexity of the relationship between PJF, JTF and employee work behavior; leading to an empirical assessment of the relative importance of the various fits (Carless, 2005). This study fills a gap from an empirical perspective by attempting to examine the relationship between fit on employee behavior, rather than focusing on attitude towards the behaviour. Focusing on fit is important given its increasing impact of staff performance and retention (Stone et al., 2019). Also, there is still little about the mechanisms through which organisational commitment and employee empowerment moderates the relationship. Further, the moderating role of environmental fit has not been extensively researched in studies relating to job and person fit (Huang, Yuan & Li, 2019).

More importantly, there is limited knowledge on the possible moderating role of certain contingent factors on the relationship between PJF, job training fit and employee work behaviour. There is little known about the mechanism by which these independent variables could lead to the performance of in-role and extra-roles of employees in the organisation. Some researchers (e.g., Vilela, Gonzialez & Ferrin, 2018; Homer & Kahle, 1988) using the social exchange quality concept provide contextual factors such as organisational commitment, psychological empowerment. Also, using the theory of work adjustment, the environmental fit is shown to be imperative to ensure the performance of employees. It is therefore important to assess the role played by these contextual factors as a potential moderating factor. Further justification for the necessity of the current study is provided in Section 1.5. In Ghana, Mekpor and Dartey-Baah (2019) explained that voluntary workplace behaviours may be either positive or negative and lead to varying repercussions for organizational performance. For instance, OCBs lead to improved performance whereas counter productive workplace behaviours undermine productivity. The multitude of studies

on employee workplace behaviours for Ghanaian firms tend to focus on in-role duties. The current study thus conceptualizes workplace behaviours to include the in-role and extra-role aspects of employee performance. Whereas other manufacturing sectors have been researched, the ceramic tile manufacturing industry is a relatively new one that holds the potential for fresh empirical insights.

### **1.3 Research question**

The study is guided by the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship between PJF and the work behavior of employees within the Ghanaian ceramics tile manufacturing industry?
2. What is the relationship between JTF and the work behavior of employees within the Ghanaian ceramics tile manufacturing industry?
3. How do organizational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment moderate the relationship between PJF and work behavior of employees within the Ghanaian ceramics tile manufacturing industry?
4. How do organizational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment moderate the relationship between JTF and work behavior of employees within the Ghanaian ceramics tile manufacturing industry?

### **1.4 Research objective**

The main aim of this research is to empirically examine how the complexity of the relationship between person-job fit, job training fit and employee work behaviour (using organisational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment of the employee as moderators) might impact on the performance of employees from an emerging market perspective. Gaining such an understanding is critical to inform policy that enhance work experience and performance among employees. Specifically, the following are the research objectives

1. To assess the relationship between PJF and the work behavior of employees within the Ghanaian ceramics tile manufacturing industry
2. To examine the relationship between JTF and the work behavior of employees within the Ghanaian ceramics tile manufacturing industry

3. To analyze the moderating role of organizational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment on the relationship between PJF and work behavior of employees within the Ghanaian ceramics tile manufacturing industry
4. To analyze the moderating role of organizational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment on the relationship between job training fit and work behavior of employees within the Ghanaian ceramics tile manufacturing industry

### **1.5 Contribution to existing research**

The relevance of this study is seen in the certainty that most organizations in contemporary dynamic business environment seek to gain a competitive edge over their rivals. However, one way to achieve such advantage is by improving the skills, know-how, experiences, and capacities of employees through training programs that meet the requirements of the job they do. When training is designed to fit the requirements of employees, it helps the organization improve its performance and helps to reduce organizational cost (Tharenou, Saks & Moore, 2007). Tsaur and Lin (2004) noted that time and money are lost by organizations when they design training that does not meet both the job and their employee requirements. This study thus provides an evaluation of how PJF and JTF affect employees work performance, and the moderating roles of psychological empowerment, environmental fit and organizational commitment.

There are five important contributions that this study could make to the extant literature. First, in the context of the moderating role of psychological empowerment, this study may contribute to the training literature. There is also a consensus in the extant management literature that these three moderating variables are critical to enhancing the competitive advantage of organisations (Safari et al., 2020). Thus, whereas ample empirical evidence exists on the positive correlation between PJF, job training fit (JTF) and employee performance, the contextual influence from the workplace environment must not be ignored (Barrick and Parks-Leduc, 2019). Although research linking PJF and employee work behaviours exist (Farzaneh, et al., 2014; Subramaniam & Jasmin, 2017; Schmidt 2007; Tugal & Kilic, 2015), an understanding of the unique moderating characteristics of organizational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment on PJF, JTF and employee work behaviour in the training literature is limited.

This thesis thus focuses on the contingency role of environmental fit, organisational commitment and psychological empowerment in the hypothesized relationships. The role of these three moderator constructs is necessary to predict the influence of training on performance. In exploring them, this study may contribute to the employee work behaviour literature by providing better insight on the factors that are vital regarding the encouragement of performance among employees.

In particular, this study contextualizes employee work behaviour as dependent on both the in-role/actual assigned roles of the employee and the extra-roles performed in the discharge of duties (Hughes et al., 2019). Empirical studies over the past (e.g., Farzaneh, Farashah & Kazemi, 2014; Jawad, Tabassum, Raja & Abraiz, 2013) have failed to make this distinction when JTF and PJF is being considered.

Also, the congruence theory by Barrett (1978) states that person-job fit is the fit that exist between an employees' preferences and the requirements of the job. This study extends understanding of this theory by providing that JTF is very important in impacting on both in-role and extra-role performance of the employee. Therefore, this study contends that when there is the existence of congruency between an employee's preference, knowledge, skills and ability, and training is provided to fit the requirement of the job, it contributes to motivational outcomes that will promote employee performance.

The study thus offers a workable approach on how managers could deploy contingent measures (such as better working culture/climate, staff empowerment, etc.) to improve workplace performance, which transcends beyond the mere matching of persons to jobs. Lastly, this study may also help in developing a theoretical framework to link PJF, JTF and employee performance, to include contingency factors like psychological empowerment, organizational commitment and organizational fit.

### **1.6 Significance of the study**

This study provides important insight into the management of organizations, employees, Human resource practitioners and future researchers. Practically, the study underscores the need for firms to put in place mechanisms for training and employee development to promote

or enhance extra-role behaviors of employees. The research highlights certain training and development which could be put in place to enhance the skills and attitudes of employees.

For employees and potential employees of firms, this study significantly highlights the structural changes in employer expectations and how employees could position themselves to meet the demands of the 21<sup>st</sup>-century job roles in organizations. The study further provides insights on the need for employees to understand the changing market and industry patterns and how they can reorient their minds and equip themselves to fit into specific assigned roles.

For human resource (HR) practitioners, this study adds up to the human resources and organizational behavior literature by exploring how it can be applicable across diverse organizations. Further to this, the study provides experts with actionable guidance on how organizations can improve the work attitude and skills of qualified employees that will continuously meet the requirements of the job they do and exhibit employee work behavior (in-role and extra-role work performance). The results provide a blueprint to HR practitioners on the design of tailor-made employee programs to boost the capacity of employees towards achieving organizational objectives.

### **1.7 Delimitation of the study**

Delimitation refers to the boundary or the scope of the research. It seeks to focus on the inclusions and exclusions. Firms that participated in the study were chosen as they represent the leading manufacturing firms in Ghana (with more than 98% of the market share for locally manufactured ceramics tiles) who are into ceramics tiles production and they can employ a significantly large number of employees for their operations. Two of these firms are concentrated in the Western region namely Keda Ghana Ceramics Company Limited and Goodwill Ceramics Company Limited and the third one named Sentuo Ceramics Company Limited located in Tema in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. Employing some 1,800 employees, and sourcing 90% of its raw materials from Ghana, mainly from the Central and Western regions, Sentuo Ceramics is one of the key players in the country's ceramic tile manufacturing industry. Over the last 5 years ceramic tile manufacturing companies in Ghana have invested over \$400 million USD. For instance, Goodwill which is located in Takoradi invested by around 50 million US dollars, and it occupies nearly 270 thousand square meters of land with about 100 Chinese employees, over 1800 local employees, creates 2000 jobs

indirectly as well. It has set up and started running 3 production lines with a 120,000 square meters daily capacity of floor and wall tiles, making itself one of the largest ceramic tile manufacturing companies in Ghana. Keda Ghana Ceramics company limited also located in the Shama district of the Western Region has also invested over 125 million US dollars occupies little over 250 thousand square meters of land. The company currently employees over 1400 locals as direct jobs and over 3000 indirect jobs. The focus of the research is not on other firms in the country.

Quantitative method was specifically used as the research approach with data collecting focusing on the staff of the three tile manufacturing companies. Reliance on quantitative method stems from the need to collect numerical data with which the underlying relationships among the variables for this study could be tested (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The quantitative data collection focused on general staff working in the three ceramics tile manufacturing companies in Ghana.

### 1.8 Definition of key terms

The researcher articulates the definitions of the key terms outlined in this chapter which are to be used for the study.

*Table 1: Definition of key terms*

<b>Key Terms</b>	<b>Definition</b>
<b>Person-Job -Fit</b>	The congruence that exists between the characteristics of an individual and that of the job performed at work (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Lee, Reiche & Song 2010)
<b>Job Training-Fit</b>	The appropriate deployment of employees (based on their competence) to roles that advance organizational goals (Mullins, 2007)
<b>Environmental fit</b>	This refers to the extent to which working space characteristics of an organization are compatible with the diverse attributes of employees (Rayton, Yalabik & Rapti, 2019; Kristof-Brown & Billsberry, 2012).
<b>Organizational Commitment</b>	Organizational Commitment is defined as an individual's psychological bond to the organisation, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty, and belief in the values of the organisation (O'Reilly, 1989)
<b>Psychological empowerment (referred to as PE hereafter)</b>	It is defined as an individual's experience of intrinsic motivation that is based on cognition about him or herself concerning his or her work role (Spreitzer, 2007)
<b>In-role performance</b>	This refers to the core behavioural pattern expected of individuals with regards to the primary demands of their job (Zhu, 2013).
<b>Extra-role performance</b>	This refers to the attitude expectations that are external to the job (Zhu, 2013).

## **1.9 Organisation of dissertation**

In all, there are five chapters in this study.

Chapter one represents the introduction of the study. It discusses, among other things, the background, problem statement, research questions and the significance of the study.

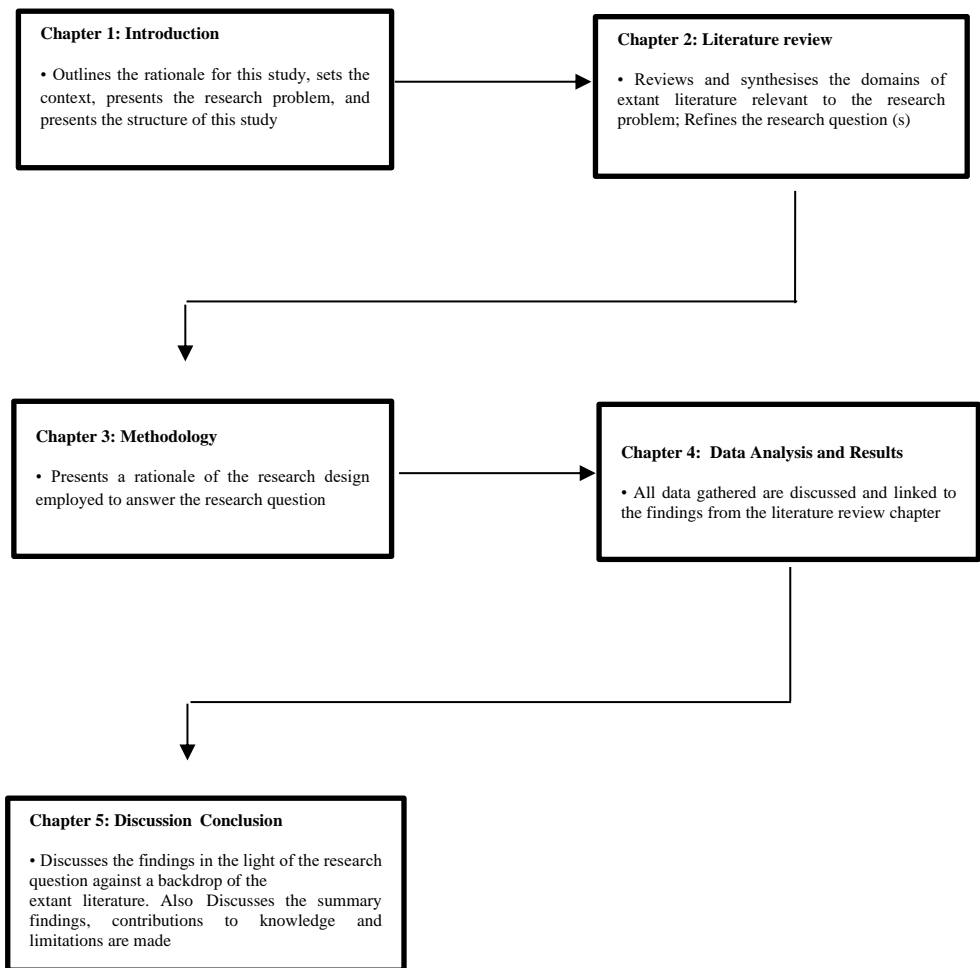
Chapter two explores the relevant literature on job training fit, PJF and employee work behaviour. The existence of a relationship between constructs such as PJF, job training fit, employee work behaviour, is argued and then linked to the overall performance of organisations. The reasons for poor employee work behaviour are discussed with the identification of factors that potentially influence employee work behaviour. It then concludes with a review of the literature on the theoretical framework within which the research is positioned. The literature on two theories - Social Exchange and Theory of Work Adjustment is also reviewed and used to build a model that could be applied to organizations.

Chapter three details the methodology for gathering data and analysis. The procedure for gathering data, data gathering instruments, research design, study population, sampling techniques, and sample size, as well as the justification of the methods and approach of the study are addressed. The limitations of the study are also pointed out.

Chapter four analyses the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire and presents the findings. In essence, all data gathered are discussed and linked to the findings from the literature review chapter.

Chapter five exemplifies how the research question(s) are answered by research findings. This is done by analysing the result from chapter four and linking the results to findings based on literature to adequately explain the moderating role of an environmental fit, psychological empowerment and organizational commitment on PJF, job training fit and employee work behaviour. This chapter as well explains the research implication in current knowledge on the problem area. Conclusions, recommendations for further inquiry and practice modification are discussed in this chapter. Figure 1 provides an outline of the study with an emphasis on how the Chapters are interrelated.

Figure 1: Research outline



Source: Author's Construction

## **Chapter Two**

### **Review of Related Literature**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter reviews the literature to cover relevant key constructs. It offers detailed insights into extant scholarly literature on the impact of person-job-fit and job training fit on employee work behavior. The chapter, first of all, conceptualizes all key constructs that have been employed in the study to properly situate them in context. Consequently, relevant articles on key variables such as person-job-fit, organizational commitment, psychological empowerment, environmental fit, job training fit and employee work behavior as well as the control variables are reviewed. The conceptual overview of the main variables is immediately followed by the adoption of two key and relevant theoretical perspectives to justify or refute the correlations assumed between the independent and dependent variables. Thus, in explaining the relationships among the constructs, the researcher relies heavily on the Social Exchange and The Work Adjustment theories, which have enjoyed widespread acceptance and are used among researchers and practitioners in understanding the motivations behind the general conduct of employees and especially their work behavior. The chapter thereafter identifies the key gaps in the extant literature regarding the impact of person-job-fit and job training fit on employee work behavior; with a consideration of the moderating influences of psychological empowerment, organizational commitment, and environmental fit. Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the conceptual model and advances arguments for the proposed hypotheses.

#### **2.1 Conceptual overview of key constructs**

This study adopts specific variables to investigate the nature of the relationship between person-job-fit, job training fit and employee work behaviour. These include person-job-fit, job training fit, organizational commitment, psychological empowerment, environmental fit and employee work behaviour. To fully understand the nature and extent of associations and correlations among these constructs, this sub-section is specifically dedicated to providing a conceptual basis and context within which the variables should be construed.

### **2.1.1 *Person-job-fit***

Person job-fit broadly covers the alignment that exists between an individual and the requirements directly placed on them due to a specific job they perform (Kristof-Brown, et al. 2005). Also, Newton and Jimmieson (2009) argue that an individual's work is congruent to his preferences and that they are immediately related to a particular work. The concept of PJF is fundamentally for the selection of an employee for the job (Boon et al., 2011). Modern changes and evolutions in the business environment have brought serious challenges and pressures on virtually all organizations. In particular, growing trends in technology and the complexities of business competition mean that firms must continually adapt strategies to not only remain in business but to also become more competitive and profitable than ever (Chhabra, 2015). To optimally exploit the workforce, Pulakos, Arad, Donovan and Plamondon (2000) suggested that, firms ought to redesign their approach in managing the careers of their workers and to ensure that; individual workers are equipped to easily adapt to the requirements of their job roles. There existed a litany of scholarly works predating the opinions of Pulakos et al. (2000) by decades, on the need for organizations to ensure a “fit” between the personnel and the job for maximum job performance (Boon et al., 2011; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006, Kristof, 1996;).

Person-job-fit as a human resource practice has been widely researched. Generally, PJF has been employed to denote the extent to which a “fit” or “match” exists between key attributes, demands or characteristics of particular jobs and the capabilities of the employees that are selected to perform those tasks (Rahmadani & Sebayang, 2017). Also, it is a measure of how employees’ competencies and abilities fit or suit the specific demands of their assigned jobs or tasks (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Sekiguchi, 2004). For Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005), PJF can be extended to represent an attempt to investigate the interactions, which exist between individual employees and their work surroundings to identify and understand what factors influence the quality of their outputs. Person-job-fit is thus conceptualized as the correlation between the knowledge, skills and capabilities possessed by individual workers and the unique demands of their jobs (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Leng & Chin, 2016). It thus measures the extent to which employees’ unique competencies, skills and abilities suit the specific jobs for which they are recruited. As such, it is concerned with the selection of the most appropriate or “fitting” candidates for specified jobs (Sekiguchi, 2004). Its primary goal is to aid

organizations in deciding who the right people are, by comparing key attributes of prospective employees such as their training, competence, skills, etc. with those of the job for which they are recruited (DeRue & Morgeson, 2007; Kristof-Brown, Jansen, & Colbert, 2005). As Robbins and Judge (2011) put it, when there is a failure on the part of management to ensure that a fit exists between employees' characteristics and job demands, the performance of employees will be compromised, their job satisfaction will dwindle and ultimately, firm competitiveness and profitability will be lost.

Arguing on the assumptions of the theory of work adjustment, scholars unanimously agree that the closer the correlation (or fit) between the person and the job, the more effective and efficient individual workers will be at their roles (Leng & Chin, 2016). Also, it has been discovered in the course of this review that, scholars have explored three key attributes of the concept of PJF namely; ability, attitude and interest (Robbins, 2006). Meanwhile, ability emphasizes employees' capacity to perform according to the expectations and demands of a job whereas attitude entails either positive or negative evaluative perceptions as well as statements about employees' performance at a job. Interest means employees' pleasurable feelings about the job. However, Chhabra (2015) found that, demand-ability and need-supply fits have also been employed in understanding the concept. While a demand-ability fit focuses on the match between job demands and employees' abilities, a need-supply fit evaluates the extent to which job attributes satisfy the needs and interests of workers; and forms the subjective and objective evaluations made by employees regarding the various aspects and elements of person-job-fit which determines their overall outlooks, organizational behaviors and effectiveness on their jobs (Chhabra, 2015; Vahidi et al., 2016).

Bohlander and Snell (2004) maintained that the fundamental importance of PJF to the organization lies in its ability to facilitate the identification of employees fit for particular jobs to enhance corporate performance in the long term. In cases where the relevant skills for new jobs fall short in supply, person-job-fit assists in adapting and enhancing the competencies of employees to ensure the desired match between what they can do and what the jobs require. For Bohlander and Snell (2004), "fitted" and well-suited employees do not only engage more in organizational citizenship behaviour but are also more willing to commit to the organisation than those employees who are not.

Person-job-fit is explained as the congruence that exists between the characteristics of an individual and their job role (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Lee, Reiche & Song 2010). In the earlier models of professional advice, it is the presence of conformity relating to worker characteristics and the features of the work task (Su, Murdock, & Rounds, 2015). Along with the main position in hiring procedures and choices, PJF concept has over the years become more and more vital in the field of human resource management, industrial and organisational psychology (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). In particular, individual job-fit in practicality has turned out to be a complex concept among various fields. The abilities of employees and the demands of their job give rise to the fit that exists between the needs of employees and their job supplies (Cable & DeRue, 2002). All these have influences on the job fit perceptions (Cable & DeRue, 2002). This means that an employee will seek and maintain their job depending on how attractive the characteristics of the job itself is are: example, salaries, job security and the schedule of the job. This resulted in people-fit, scientists expanding the scope on the formulation of people-fit to incorporate both demand-fit and supply-fit requirements (Chuang, Shen, & Judge, 2015; Li & Hung, 2010; Wang, et al., 2011).

Further to the above, these two separate views are now combined into the general formulation of individual job-fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Vogel & Feldman, 2009). There is the existence of a good PJF when there is the ability of an individual that necessitates the effective performance of the required tasks or the job and thereby ensuring that the said job or task meets that individual's needs (Edwards, 1991; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Leng & Chin, 2016;). Employee job-fit initiation in agreement can fairly involve employee concerns, character, beliefs, objectives, wishes, and work features as particular aspects of the material. Chuang, Shen and Judge (2016) further stated, that though the concerned aspect consists of particular beliefs, wishes and objectives, in contrast, a specific employee desire represents the job characteristics dimension that positively impacts job fit. Since PJF is about what an employee requires from a job and what the job provides, the role of job training fit is vitally a keyway of developing employee's knowledge, skills and ability for their positions (Kleiman, 2004; Khan, Khan & Khan, 2011; Noe, 2002).

Accordingly, the operationalization of PJF in this study in terms of an employees' discernment is the degree to which an employees' knowledge, skills and ability match the

requirements of the job and the degree to which the organization provides training that is in line with improving knowledge, skills, and ability to continue to meet job demands (Yevugah & Caesar, 2018). The conceptualization used in this research refers to the background and size of the employee job-fit construction, derived from the recognizable person environment-fit theories.

Research on PJF is overly focused on the consequences of fit, or misfit (Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Kristof-Brown, 2000) and on how individual differences and abilities affect the job fit process (Caldwell, Harold, & Fedor, 2004; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Lu, Wang, Lu, Du, & Bakker, 2014). Studies on PJF generally focus on the dynamism of ‘person’ and ignore some important activities of organizations in the method of work fit (Boon et al., 2011; Hoffman & Boehr, 2006). For example, Lu et al., (2010) in a study of Taiwanese employees from nine companies, which involved a sample size of 427, found out that when employees are engaged, to produce a superior individual job-fit, they operate on their work setting-fit through job creation. However, the Taiwanese study did not examine the accessibility of resources for specific training programs, which are essential for the facilitation and creation of workplace ideas and skills of staff. Although job-fit is a constant method of communication in between staff as well as their job setting, it is insufficient for organizations to merely concentrate on the individual qualities but must ensure that more attention is placed on attributes of the changes in the work setting to ensure the right training is provided to the individual to enable them to maintain adequate job-fit over time.

### ***2.1.2 Job training fit***

Another variable of importance in the study of factors related to the development of positive organizational behaviors among employees has been the concept of matching employees’ training with their job requirements, otherwise referred to as JTF. Delbridge and Keenoy (2010) for instance conceded that the current trends in organizational competition and business requirements make it utterly imperative for HR policies of firms to be focused on nurturing and developing human capital through the provision of training that fits the technical demands of their jobs. According to Treven (2001), training forms one of the fundamental components of all sophisticated human resource management arrangements and as such, it allows workers of different educational backgrounds and dispositions to effectively align with the specific requirements of their jobs and the organization at large.

Landy (1985, p. 306) explains job training as “a set of planned activities on the part of an organisation to increase the job knowledge and skills or to modify the attitudes and social behaviour of its members in ways consistent with the goals of the organization and the requirements of the job”. For Patrick (2000), training constitutes an orderly enhancement of employees’ skills, competence, and knowledge to enable them to perform at a particular job

Job-training fit has been conceptualized by Mullins (2007) as the appropriate deployment of employees (based on their competence) to roles that advance organizational goals. It represents the congruence or match between training acquired by employees and the jobs they are deployed to do in the organization. Also, Yevugah and Caesar (2018) conceptualized JTF in terms of the ability of training programmes to offer the right skills and competence to employees as required by organizational roles. It is expected that any training programme help to improve employees’ skills, competence, attitudes and motivation towards effectively discharging the demands of jobs (Lawrence et al., 2004; Patrick, 2000). In a latter study on training-fit, Vogtenhuber (2014) explains that training is tailored to the requirements of specific roles will enable employees to properly comprehend the fine details of what is expected of them and further empower them psychologically to succeed. Indeed, Yevugah and Caesar (2018) acknowledges that training that consider such details results in the psychological empowerment of the employee; positioning them to become reliable and commitment to the cause of the employer. In the views expressed by Cosh et al. (2003), JTF if properly and regularly done, can positively impact several areas of an organization’s operations and performance.

The importance of JTF has been highlighted by Obisi (2011) who maintained that a fit should not only be desired by business organizations: but also backed by a corresponding allocation of resources to pursue it. This will result in full commitment from the workforce. Similarly, Yevugah and Caesar (2018) also argue that maintaining a fit between the training employees acquire and the demand of their roles is a must. Commenting on the desirable impacts of JTF, researchers such as Edralin (2004); Lynton and Pareek (2000); and Vemić (2007) have all asserted that, business organizations will only remain profitable and competitive if they master the ability to provide their employees with appropriate training to meet the job requirements. For Woolf (2007), JTF constitutes a non-negotiable constituent of key

strategies by which organizations may achieve competitiveness, higher market shares and superior performance. Aside from improving organizational knowledge base, JTF also makes an organization attractive to highly skilled prospective employees who often see the firm as a preferred, dream workplace (Love & Singh, 2011; Sutherland, Torricelli & Karg, 2002). It thus encourages the development of effective as well as normative commitments among employees who feel obliged to stay; leading to reduced number of turnover intentions. Having studied the relationship between training programmes and organizational commitment, Bartlett (2001) advocates that firms should prioritize training activities that fit employees' task requirements at the workplace to help develop retention desires and citizenship behaviors among them.

Following Yevugah and Caesar (2018), this study conceptualizes job training fit as the capacity of an employee-training program to enhance the expertise, behaviors of employees and to motivate them to satisfy their job demands. In addition, job training is defined by Landy (1985 p. 306) as "a set of planned activities on the part of an organization to increase the job knowledge and skills or to modify the attitudes and social behavior of its members in ways consistent with the goals of the organization and the requirements of the job". Training is a systematic development of the skills, knowledge, and expertise vital for the effective performance of a given task (Patrick, 2000); and explained by Mullins (2007) as the right supply of skilled and competent staff who are working on a way to achieve the goals of the organization. According to Armstrong (2006), training is defined as the use of systematic and planned instruction of activities to promote learning.

Kristof-Brown (2000) characterizes fit as the harmony between need, values or abilities of an individual and the culture or the environment of an organization or the job. Similarly, Lawrence et al., (2004) define fit as the congruence between need, values or abilities of an individual and the culture or the environment of an organisation or the job. Synthesizing the definition of fit and job training (Landy, 1985; Lawrence et al., 2004; Patrick, 2000), job training fit is hereby defined by Yevugah and Caesar (2018) as the capacity of an employee training program to enhance the expertise, behaviour and motivates employees to satisfy their job demands. In the same vein, Werbel and Gilliland, (1999) earlier contended that the concept of job training fit is the traditional foundation for employee training. On demand-abilities perspective, the achievement of fit occurs when there is adequate training to provide

understanding, expertise, and capabilities on the part of the employees to meet the demands of the job. On the needs-supplies, there is the existence of fit when the training given to the employees is well-suited to the requirements of the job of the employees.

Accordingly, there is satisfaction with an employees' job once there is fit between the job role and training offered (Kristof, 2005). This enables the effective performance of the job by employees (Hamid & Yahya, 2011). It is therefore very important for organizations to plan and undertake training based on the job demands of employees given its significant positive effect on organizational performance (Cosh, Hughes, Bullock & Potton, 2003).

Accordingly, this study adopts the definition job training fit, culled from Yevugah and Caesar (2018) as the capacity of an employee training program to enhance the expertise, behaviour and motivates employees to satisfy their job demands as its operational definition. Trainees carry with them into the workplace either positive or negative impressions and attitudes depending on the type of training they are given before working in an organization or undertaking the specific task (Sahoo & Mishra, 2019). In the same vien, Bartlett (2001) argued that these attitudes are vital as they could even be considered as training outcomes.

Lowry et al (2002) concluded there was a significantly higher score for employees who received training that fit their jobs than those who had not during a job satisfaction survey. Conversely, the willingness of employees to leave an organization is adversely influenced by organizational learning culture and job satisfaction (Egan, Yang & Bartlett 2004). This suggests that given these arrays of the impact that training has on employees, there is a dire need for organizations to ensure the introduction and entrenchment of training packages that align with not only their corporate goals but with the individual career ambitions of their employees. Also, the impact of training on attitudes suggests that it possesses the ability to influence creativity and other innate skills among employees. Understanding the extent of such an influence is needed both from the academic and practitioner's viewpoint.

### ***2.1.3 Organizational commitment***

One of the most widely researched constructs in the organizational behaviour literature is organizational commitment of employees. Organisational commitment has been described as the bond that keeps employees with particular organizations for a long period (Leite,

Rodrigues & Albuquerque, 2014). Also, Leng and Chin (2016, p.81) view organizational commitment as “the relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization”. Leng and Chin were thus of the view that employees who are fully committed to the organization are those who are willing and eager to expand their efforts towards meeting organizational objectives. Committed employees readily accept and internalize core corporate values and principles, and demonstrate profound enthusiasm towards remaining in the firm for as long as is possible (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2009). Further, Antilla (2014) opines that organizational commitment involves a certain strong psychological connection or attachment by employees to the organizations they work for. It measures the extent to which workers personalize and accept the firm’s interests, values and perspectives (Ruokolainen, 2011).

There is general consensus within the extant literature regarding the variables that effectively predict and engender commitment among employees. For instance, workplace experiences relating to the scope, complexity and variety of roles have been noted as predictors of organizational commitment (Leite et al., 2014). Similarly, employees’ perceptions about justice, support from the organisation, level of autonomy, empowerment, role congruity and interestingness, fairness, etc. have also been observed as capable of generating commitment (Fornes & Rocco, 2004; Leite, 2014). According to Fornes and Rocco (2004), when there is congruency both between the roles and skills of employees as well as between their values, interests and those of their organisation, commitment is likely to occur.

The existence of such congruence is important to the organization because it facilitates the full deployment of employees’ skills and competence by making their works interesting, challenging as well as satisfying to them. Research has found that key attributes of employees’ jobs namely; skill variety, job significance, task identity and the extent of autonomy allowed in the execution of tasks all have significant positive impacts on the development of commitment among employees to the particular jobs and the organisation as a whole (Boon et al., 2011; Fornes & Rocco, 2004; Katsikea et al., 2011; Sahoo & Mishra, 2019; Nelson, 1999). By skill, variety is meant by the mix of skills, competence and activities required by the job. Task identity relates to employees identifying with or being the ones who do the job from start to finish. Task significance measures the extent to which the job impacts the lives of employees as well as the performance of the organization while autonomy defines

the level of discretionary powers and independence enjoyed by employees in planning and executing their work (Dubois & Singh, 2009; Katsikea et al., 2011). The combined effect of the above variables according to Fornes and Rocco (2004) is that the more employees perceive improvements in these, the higher their level of commitment, job satisfaction, motivation and job performance. Most scholars in organizational studies have viewed commitment from two distinct perspectives: organizational commitment and employee (individual) commitment. Whereas organizational commitment relates to that bond between employees and the organization which is influenced by organizational attributes such as goals, values and supervisor's leadership skills, employee commitment is concerned with and motivated by factors such as workers' attachment to their jobs, particular teams, careers, etc (Obedgiu, Bagire & Mafabi, 2017; Mercurio, 2015).

#### 2.1.3.1 Commitment, behaviours and attitudes

In their relentless quest to provide comprehensive insights into the concept of organizational commitment and how it affects employees' behaviours, scholars have designed and suggested several models on the subject. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) contend that commitment is mostly formed at three different levels namely; compliance, identification and internalization. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) regarded compliance as the most basic form of commitment because, at this level, employees' commitment to the organisation is tied to expectations of rewards. At this shallow stage, employees engage in various acts of commitment to the organisation and behaviours to attract some benefits from the firm (Antilla, 2014). The model suggests that a deeper level of commitment than compliance occurs among employees when they move beyond expectations of rewards to the stage where they identify with the values and objectives of the organisation (Antilla, 2014). At this level, employees develop a sense of pride in being associated with the organisation, value the firm and are willing to maintain their relationship with the organisation. At the third and final stage according to O'Reilly and Chatman, the individual employee eventually internalizes the core values and goals of the organisation and begins to sync the same with their values and goals. Commitment is highest at this level because employees find that it develops congruence between their values, interests and goals on one hand and those of the organisation on the other.

According to Weibo, Kaur and Jun (2010) the key strength of this model lies in the fact that it is one of the earliest attempts at distinguishing commitment that is based on a social exchange relationship and one that is based on the psychological attachment, which transcends expectations of rewards. This notwithstanding, the model attracted numerous criticisms notable among which was the argument that compliance should not be viewed as a form of commitment due to its positive relationship with turnover contrary to empirical evidence that, organizational commitment must exert a positive influence on retention (Antilla, 2014). Secondly, the lines of distinction between identification and internalization are not as fine as O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) would have us believe. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) contended that both stages consist of virtually the same components and may be fused into one aspect of commitment. For these and many other reasons, the model did not enjoy widespread acceptance and eventually gave way to another three-dimensional framework conceptualized by Allen and Meyer (1990).

Extant literature generally acknowledges the work of Allen and Meyer (1990) as the most accepted and used theory on organizational commitment (Cohen 2007; Garcia-Gabrera & Garcia-Soto, 2012; Herrbach 2006; Markovits, Boer & van Dick, 2013;). For several years, researchers agreed with Allen and Meyer that, organizational commitment is presented in three distinct forms namely affective, continuance and normative commitment. According to Allen and Meyer (1990), affective commitment involves employees developing strong emotional attachments with the organisation due to the extent of their identification with the values and goals of the organisation. It involves an intrinsic motivation on the part of employees to pursue and realize these objectives and internalize firm values because they effectively align with their aspirations and values, regardless of whether there are rewards or not (Dabir & Azarpira, 2017). Employees who demonstrate affective commitment will therefore remain with the organization out of desire. Allen and Meyer (1990) also maintained that continuance commitment represents the form of organizational commitment which is sustained as a result of cost implications associated with turnover. Thus, employees remain committed to the organisation because they will suffer some losses or incur costs if they leave (Dabir & Azarpira, 2017). Where for instance, employees have acquired key skills over a period with a particular organization which skills are not transferable, they will feel committed to the existing organization due to the risk of not finding a suitable replacement job if they leave. In this case, employees having calculated the risks (costs) associated with

leaving, are compelled to stay (Garcia-Gabrera & Garcia-Soto, 2012). Finally, employees may also develop a commitment to the organization as a result of a certain sense of obligation on their part to stay (Dabir & Azarpira, 2017): they simply feel staying is the right thing to do. It is asserted that this form of (normative) commitment results partly from factors embedded not only in the organisational processes of socialization but also in family and societal factors including even unique employee experiences before joining the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Boer & van Dick, 2013).

Although criticisms exist concerning this model too, especially concerning the similarities between affective and normative commitment, it has enjoyed widespread acceptance among researchers and practitioners interested in understanding the antecedents, nature and impacts of organisational commitment among employees. In particular, affective commitment has been of tremendous importance as observed from the extant literature.

Yet still, new models have been suggested since the works of Obedgiu, Bagire and Mafabi, (2017). Notable among these is Cohen's (2007) model, which conceptualized organizational commitment from four perspectives. The key point of departure from earlier theories on commitment occurs when Cohen (2007) breaks organizational commitment into two broad categories, which further consisted of two components each. In the first category, Cohen separates employee commitment which is developed before the individual enters into the firm from one that develops when they become members of the firm. The second category deals with the bases upon which employees' commitment develops which gives birth to instrumental and psychological commitments. Like O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) concept of compliance, Cohen perceived instrumental commitment as one which is based on expectations of rewards in the form of a pay rise and promotions in an exchange relationship whereas psychological attachments are derived from employees' positive evaluations about fairness or justice, firm support, leadership, etc. (Cohen, 2007). According to Cohen, prospective employees develop significant perceptions about what they expect in their relationship with the firm even before deciding to join. It is these expectations about the benefits or rewards which they stand to gain in the relationship and the extent to which they are met upon entering the firm that forms the basis for the development of instrumental and normative commitments among them. As has been explained earlier, instrumental commitments are predicated on expectations of rewards while normative commitment relates

to certain moral obligations to remain with the organization. Deeper levels of affective commitment develop later as employees become more identified and psychologically connected with the organisation. It must be pointed out here that, this model is similar to Allen and Meyer's (1990) model except that, Cohen focuses on benefits and expectations for which employees will stay and get committed rather than costs associated with their turnover intentions: it is sameness perceived from different angles (Anttila, 2014). Regardless of which model is employed, it remains imperative for both researchers and practitioners to pay particular attention to the various scholarly opinions on how organizational commitment develops among employees, its nature and most importantly how it affects employees' citizenship behaviours in the organizational setting.

Lambert, (2004) explains commitment as the representation of employees 'desire and loyalty which they have concerning their involvement in the organisation. Committed employees are normally willing to exert extra effort towards the achievement of corporate goals and objectives (Narteh, 2012). It is defined as the binding force and stable psychology that links employee with the mission of the organization. (Thomas et al., 2006). Cook and Wall (1980) contended that the concept of organizational commitment refers to how emotionally an individual reacts towards the characteristics of the organization he/she works for and that individual's apprehension with regards to the goals and values of that organization.

According to Allen and Meyer (1990), organizational commitment is a psychological state that makes an individual remain in the organization. This definition, just demonstrates that a person's tie to an association and might be because of the presence of some relational ties. In support of the above, Allen, Meyer and Cohen (2003) portrayed commitment as a power that attaches a person to endeavour an effort which is significant for the accomplishment of at least one objective. This notwithstanding, employee commitment is also defined by Narteh (2012), as the way an employee feels attached to his/her organizations; and encompasses the willingness to adapt to the organization's culture and values. Narteh (2012) argued that for organizations to enjoy full employee commitment, they must allow organizational commitment to willingly come from the employee and not by force.

Further to this, Miller and Lee (2001) contended that organizational commitment is typically categorized with regards to how well a worker accepts the goals and objectives of an

organization just as ready as the said worker is, as far as how the representative can grant the institution one's utmost best. According to O'Reilly (1989), organizational commitment is the psychological bond that exists between an employee and an organization. This bond incorporates the employees' feeling of occupation contribution, how steadfast the worker is, and the workers' confidence in the way of life and estimations of the association. Further to this, Miller and Lee (2001) also contended that organizational commitment is dependent on how well an employee accepts the goals and objectives of an organization and how the said employee is willing to give his/her best to the organization.

Commitment binds an individual to a course of action relevant to one or more goals (Cohen, 2003). It contributes to work stability within the organizational setting which can prompt a steady and gainful workforce (Arnold, 2005). According to Williams and Anderson (1991), organizations benefit positively from organizational commitment; given that when employees exhibit feelings that show affiliation, attachment and citizenship behaviour, it improves the overall performance of the organisation. This according to Williams and Anderson (1991) goes a long way to enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization. Kimpakorn and Tocquer (2007) are of the view that organizations should usually measure employee commitment by thinking about the workers' activity execution and the recurrence with which the said representatives think about leaving or remaining in the association.

Buchanan (1974) expresses three key components of organizational commitment as identification, involvement and loyalty. Firstly, identification concerns the pride of an employee in an organization and as well the internalization of the goals and values of the organization. Involvement is focused on the willingness of an employee to invest effort for the well-being of the organization. Finally, loyalty refers to the ability of an employee to show affection for, and how attached they are to the organization. It also allows an organization to assess an employees' sense of belonging and the desire on the part of the employee to remain within the organization (Vilela, Gonzalez & Varela, 2008).

Accordingly, this study adopts the definition of organizational commitment by O'Reilly (1989, p.17) as "an individual's psychological bond to the organization, including a sense of

job involvement, loyalty, and belief in the values of the organization”, as its operational definition.

#### ***2.1.4 Psychological empowerment***

The concept of psychological empowerment relates to an individual’s experience of intrinsic motivation that is based on cognitions about him concerning his work role (Spreitzer, 2007). A significant number of studies have referred to the current pace of globalization and suggested that organizations across all have to harness the positive work attitudes, intelligence and innovative capabilities of their employees if they are to remain competitive (Bester, Stander & van Zyl, 2015; Birt, Wallis & Winternitz, 2004). One way to achieve this according to Kontoghiorghes (2014) and Van Dierendonck and Dijkstra (2012) is for organizations and their leaders to come up with strategies aimed at empowering them to improve organizational performance. Consequently, employee empowerment is an important concept in present-day organizational management.

##### **2.1.4.1 Empowerment - types**

The concept of empowerment is discussed within the literature from three different perspectives namely; structural, psychological and leadership empowerment (Bester et al. 2015; Kuokkanen & Leino-Kilpi, 2000; Menon, 2001). For instance, there is structural empowerment involves changes in organizational arrangements through the enhancement of communication channels, improving work environments, teamwork and perceptions of justice as well as equity aimed at enabling and entrusting power to employees (Bish, Kenny & Nay, 2014). According to Van Dierendonck and Dijkstra (2012), leadership empowerment relates to employees’ perceptions about the extent to which leadership of the firm enables them to participate in corporate decision-making to independently engage in problem-solving behaviours as well as to “manage” themselves (Tuckey, Bakker & Dollard, 2012). Fong and Snape (2013) viewed psychological empowerment as a kind of motivation which is intrinsic to the individual employee and which is consequential to the successful adoption of structural empowerment. The generalized assumption is that visible and effective structural empowerment efforts will engender feelings of recognition, significance and authority among employees to further enhance their levels of job satisfaction, commitment and output (Bartram, Karimi, Leggat, & Stanton, 2014; Stander & Rothmann, 2010).

Similarly, psychological empowerment in this perspective is referred to as the belief that an employee personally has about roles and responsibilities within an organisation (Spreitzer, 2007). Spreitzer (2007) avers that the active orientation of an individual concerning work role of the said individual and the same way must comprise of perception that is laid out by the workplace instead of a fixed identity quality. There is the implication therefore that there is a linkage between personal belief and employee empowerment (Spreitzer, 2007).

Further to the above, Konzak, Stelly and Trusty (2002) define psychological empowerment as a course of enhancing the emotional state of employees within organizations by identifying the situations that foster hopelessness and ensuring that these situations are removed through organizational practices, informal techniques and the provision of adequate information. It is thus a process of motivation that allows an individual to experience a sense of having the ability to do something, as well as providing an individual with an effective shield to help fight against the adverse effects of stress (Yagil, 2006). Conger and Kanungo (1988) characterize psychological autonomy as a procedure to upgrade sentiments of self-viability among staff through the distinguishing proof of conditions that cultivate feebleness and through their evacuation by both formal hierarchical practices and casual strategies of giving adequacy data.

Like many other scholars, the definition of Spreitzer (1995) implies that psychological empowerment has four key dimensions: meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. By meaning, Spreitzer is referring to employees own evaluations concerning the importance of their jobs. It denotes a sense of purpose and represents a match between the values of employees and those of the firm (Spreitzer et al., 1997). Competence measures employees' perceptions about their ability to fulfil the requirements of their jobs: their capacity to competently perform or discharge their responsibilities. The self-determination dimension deals with the extent to which employees feel that they are in control of their jobs. It includes variables such as the level of independence or autonomy accorded to employees regarding their choices and initiatives. Finally, the impact dimension of psychological empowerment evaluates employees' ability to exert significant influences on organisational decisions and outcomes through their work. According to Bester et al. (2015), these four dimensions effectively interact to determine the empowerment needs of employees at the workplace and their subsequent attitudes. Where employees' perceptions regarding any or all

of these cognitions are low, Spreitzer et al. (1997) contended the psychological empowerment is lacking in the organization. Consequently, subsequent empirical discussions on the moderating influence of psychological empowerment on the relationship between person-job-fit and organizational commitment leading to organizational citizenship behaviour among employees will be premised on these four cognitions. As such, psychological empowerment in the context of this study represents an individual's experience of intrinsic motivation that is based on cognitions about him or herself concerning his or her work role (Spreitzer, 2007).

Empowerment is developed through two main approaches, namely the systemic or social and mental methodologies (Chan, Taylor & Markham, 2008; Gkorezis, Hatzithomas & Petridou, 2011). The systemic proposition is predominantly focused on superiors' actions. This takes into consideration the kind of changes that occur in the structural conditions of an organization as a result of power-sharing and granting authority for initiative choosing (Menon, 2001). On the other hand, regarding the psychological perspective of empowerment, the emphasis is on the employee motivation with the focus on how an employee's subjective mindset perceives the environments he or she works in (Kim, Murrmann & George, 2012). Individuals within the organizations make assessments and judgments concerning the performance of specific tasks within an organization. According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990), there are four dimensions of assessments and judgments within organizations. These are subjective segments of characteristic inspiration, sway, ability, weightiness and decision (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

Menon (2001) further expressed psychological empowerment from the standpoint of the mental state of the enlightened employee and described it as a perceptual state exemplified by a context of presumed power, expertise and idealization of ambitions. He goes on to say that the sub-measurement of psychological empowerment alludes to the estimation of the assignment objective or reason; a decision is made in connection to the thoughts people possess or principles. This means it includes the person's inherent in contemplating a particular task (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). In this assessment, there is a correlation between the essentials of work employment and feelings, characteristics and executions. (Chan, et al, 2008). Accordingly, this study adopts the definition of psychological empowerment by Spreitzer (2007) as a person's understanding of natural inspiration that

depends on insights about oneself in connection to his or her work job as its operational definition.

### ***2.1.5 Environmental fit***

There is ample research on environmental/organizational fit both within the human resources and organizational psychology literature (Kooji & Boon, 2018; Memon et al., 2018; Rayton, Yalabik & Rapti, 2019). Essentially, the term is used to explain the extent to which working space characteristics of an organization is compatible with the diverse attributes of employees (Kristof-Brown & Billsberry, 2012; Rayton, Yalabik & Rapti, 2019). It specifically encapsulates issues related to the culture of the organization (Schneider, Ehrhart & Macey, 2013), its reward systems and features of the job at hand (Caza, 2016). The empirical literature widely accepts the orthodoxy that any congruence between the organizational and personality characteristics of employees will likely increase employee satisfaction, performance and vice versa (Chen, Sparrow & Cooper, 2016). Also, the behavioural pattern of employees is often impacted by the degree of compatibility between their personality traits and the features of their respective workplaces. For instance, a high level of person-organisation fit produces a high degree of compatibility. The ensuing high congruence does not only engender a strong culture and value system among co-employees but also promotes higher levels of work performance among employees (Andrews, Baker & Hunt, 2010; Schneider, Ehrhart & Macey, 2013; Stone et al. 2019;).

Given the implications of the foregoing understanding on the criticality of environmental fit to the performance and behaviour of employees, firms must attach much seriousness to the staff recruitment function (Weale, Wells & Oakman, 2017). In other words, recruitment in modern times should not necessarily concern the hiring of competent staff but needs to strategically entail the acquisition of human capital that is compatible with the overall working culture of the organisation to make it competitive (Asseburg, Homberg & Vogel, 2018; Werbel & DeMarie, 2005). This is necessary to avoid the emergence of counterproductive and incongruent work behaviours among staff. Hiring staff whose personality trait is compatible with that of the organisation was also found to be a key predictor of turnover intentions/behaviours among staff (Chi et al., 2019; Morrow & Brough, 2019). Morrow and Brough (2019) found that compatibility between the personality of an employee and the characteristics of the organisation produces wellbeing and intrinsic

fulfilment which culminates in a negative impact on turnover decisions. This points to the fact that, apart from its strategic importance to the staff hiring function, environmental fit could be exploited as an entry-level tool to mitigate the shortage in skilled labor supply (Andrews, Baker & Hung, 2010). The explanation is that through a careful judgement of the value system of potential staff and that of the firm, hiring managers are likely to make prudent decisions and hire young staff who score high in environmental fit.

As a construct, environmental-fit was first applied in community psychology but has now been imported into organizational psychology (Beasley, Jason & Miller, 2012) and gone through several conceptual configurations over the past two decades with the person-environment fit model and attraction-selection-attrition theory commonly used as anchor theories. The latter theory, for instance, posits that people naturally seek to work or are attracted to work in organizations with which they share high levels of compatibility in terms of values (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019; Gregory, Albritton & Osmonbekov, 2010). Conversely, people will not be attracted to work in companies with which they share little in common. Most studies on the environmental-fit construct over the last two decades often focus on work-related outcomes such as performance, satisfaction, retention and work engagement as outcomes (dependent variables); with a heavy reliance on personality traits as predicting/independent variables (Sørli et al., 2020). Early research directly measured both the characteristics of the environment and the person (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown & Billsberry, 2012); whereas recent scales (such as the General Environment Fit Scale) indirectly concentrated their efforts on the values, needs and demands of people and the environment in which they work (Beasley, Jason & Miller, 2012).

According to Awoniyi, Griego and Morgan, (2002), there is significant positive relationship between training transfer and the work environment (support for autonomy/freedom, low workload pressure, creativity, and sufficient resources). Similarly, Awoniyi et al., (2002) found that as support for each of these dimensions (work environment) increases, so does transfer of training. On the basis of these findings, it simply means that the right environmental fit promotes creativity which tends influence positive transfer of training. Conclusions drawn from Awoniyi et al., (2002) provided empirical evidence to the effect that, individuals transfer their training to the job when their preferred 'ideal 'environment matches the real environment.

Further to the above the study of Shalley, Gilson and Blum (2000) found a positive relationship between creativity fit and job satisfaction. Specifically, they found that fit between demands for creativity and abilities for creativity related to lower stress and higher job satisfaction. In addition, they also concluded that there is a positive relationship between creative environments and job outcomes. Further to this, Spanjol, Tam and Tam (2015) indicates that the nature of the job itself can serve as an intrinsic motivation when it is interesting, involving, exciting, satisfying and challenging. She indicated that the environment in which people work significantly relates to the creativity of their job outcome. Thus, the creativity of the people tends to increase in environments where work is challenging, and where there are work group supports and organizational encouragement for creative work. This is a clear indication that when a work environment encourages creativity to flourish, it also encourages transfer of newly learned behaviours. Accordingly, this study adopts the definition of environmental fit as the extent to which working space characteristics of an organization is compatible with the diverse attributes of employees (Kristof-Brown & Billsberry, 2012; Rayton, Yalabik & Rapti, 2019).

#### ***2.1.6 Employee work behaviour***

A considerable volume of research work has been dedicated to exploring the behaviors of employees in organizational settings. This growing attention to the general attitudes and behaviors of employees, especially their in-role and extra-role behaviors has been attributed mainly to the acknowledgement that, employee work performance behaviors, have become key enablers of organizational success, performance and competitiveness (Chan, 2014). Researchers have contended that general performance of work ought not to be estimated just by job performance but should include contextual performance (for instance Sekiguchi, 2004; Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011). According to Bergman et al (2008), contextual performance is the actions that add to the psychological and social parts of the institution. Instances of such actions are assisting and cooperating with colleagues, volunteering for extra works, observing institutional procedures and rules, and other different prosocial actions (Sekiguchi, 2004). Organizational behaviour researchers frequently make use of the term, contextual performance reciprocally with other related terms, for example, organizational citizenship behaviour (for instance Sekiguchi, 2004; Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011), prosocial behaviour (for instance Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011), and extra-job

behaviour (for instance, Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995), when alluding to those prosocial actions (Sekiguchi, 2004).

Employee work behaviour in this study has been used to refer to both in-role and extra-role employee performance. In-role performance of the employees relates to the core behavioural pattern expected of individuals with regards to the primary demands of their job (Zhu, 2013). This includes performing duties as stated in the job description and purposely in the letter of appointment while extra-role behaviour (organizational citizenship behaviour) refers to employee “behaviour that goes beyond the basic requirements of the job, is to a large extent discretionary, and is of benefit to the organization”. What this means is that, although such behaviours are not considered to be fundamental requirements of employees’ jobs, they contribute significantly to the effective and successful operation of the organization in the end (Lee & Allen, 2002). These views are in line with those expressed by Wittig-Berman and Lang (1990) who stated that OCBs are employees’ behaviours which serve the interest of the organization but which behaviours are not their official duties towards the organization.

A critical analysis of these definitions all at once reveals that there are at least three observable aspects of organisational citizenship behaviour. First of all, OCBs constitute efforts that are not prescribed in employees’ job descriptions and as such are discretionary or voluntary. They represent employees’ motivations to do more for the organization (Pickford & Joy, 2016). Secondly, OCBs are acts that transcend the formal job requirements. Lastly, despite being unenforceable by the formal structures, OCBs are critical success factors to organizations. Despite strong criticisms of Organ’s (1988) definition especially with regards to the difficulty in accepting whether OCBs are truly voluntary, some scholars including Garg and Suri (2013) have argued that such difficulties resulted from a general shift of jobs from being a well-defined collection of tasks to increasingly unclear and ambiguous job requirements. These scholars including even Organ’s (1997) own rebuttal maintained that, with jobs becoming more vaguely defined, it is almost impossible to determine which behaviours are discretionary. Izhar (2009, p.375) defined OCBs as “those organizationally beneficial behaviours and gestures that can neither be enforced based on formal role obligations nor elicited by a contractual guarantee of recompense”.

Paillé (2013) emphasized the role of employee work behaviour in business success and further stated that both researchers and organizational practitioners have been increasingly

occupied with a search for critical means by which employees may be incentivized to give more of their efforts than what is formally required of them. And on the key challenge of identifying the best strategies to inspire employee performance at the workplace, extant literature suggests that such behaviours are predicated upon multiples of factors, notable among which are the particular employees' personality traits; conduct, their perceptions of organizational justice and fairness; style of management etc. (Gore, Kiefner & Combs, 2012; Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006; Swaminathan & Jawahar, 2013). The general position adopted by researchers on this subject is that HR practices of firms comprise interactions which if professionally managed will enhance employees' intrinsic motivations, increases their commitment levels and ultimately provide the needed environment for engendering as well as promoting employee work behaviours (Fu, 2013; Husin, Chelladurai & Musa, 2012; Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006; Snape & Redman, 2010; Sun, Aryee & Law, 2007). Furthermore, once organisational dynamics continue to change and become increasingly more complex, businesses regardless of their form and industry will continuously rely on the extra-role performance of their workforce in addition to their traditional in-role requirements (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). In this section, therefore, the researcher reviews extant literature to synthesize scholarly work on how PJF and JTF impacts both in-role and extra-role performance among employees and within the context of the stated objectives of this study.

A review of the works of scholars such as Halbesleben and Bellairs (2015) and Pickford and Joy (2016) on the subject also leads to the understanding that, similar in-role and extra-role behaviours exhibited by different employees may not necessarily originate from the same motivations nor serve the same aims. In their opinion, a demonstration of courtesy by two employees of the same organization, for instance, may result from totally different motivations. Thus, whereas the one may stem from an intrinsic desire to improve output, the other may be based on expectations of recognition and future rewards in the form of promotions (Halbesleben & Bellairs, 2015; Pickford & Joy, 2016). Based on these assumptions, Halbesleben and Bellairs (2015) asserted that employees will usually select particular responsibilities based on the alignment with their objectives and values as well as future career prospects. For this reason, organizations are entreated to continuously invest in discovering the specific motivations and actions that trigger the performance of specific

assigned roles and organizational citizenship behaviour among their staff and to work towards enhancing same (Pickford & Joy, 2016).

On the specific benefits that organizations derive from organizational citizenship behaviour, Chiabaru and Baker (2006) and Grant and Mayer (2009) cited in Pickford and Joy (2016) observed that these may be categorized into two forms: affiliative and challenging OCBs. Affiliative OCBs aim at preserving prevailing work processes and conditions while challenging OCBs aim at establishing a new order by highlighting problems associated with existing structures. Organizations according to Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004) will record varying experiences regarding the levels of performance demonstrated by their employees. Therefore, firms must prioritize the creation of highly effective structures and opportunities for knowledge acquisition to optimize the impacts of performance of duties. Consequently, the emphasis is on the creation of organizational environments that enable employees to internalize positive workplace values and make them more disposed towards engaging in extra work performance. While admitting the difficulties associated with identifying decisive enablers of extra-role performance, Pickford and Joy (2016) maintained that, improvements in employees' psychological empowerment measured in terms of their involvement in corporate decisions and control over their tasks. In their words, Vanyperen et al. (1999: 387) stated thus "the more employees feel that they participate in decision-making, the more they feel supported by their immediate supervisor, which is accompanied by exhibiting more organizational citizenship behaviour...".

In addition to the proposition above, it is imperative to state that, extra-role performance (organizational citizenship behaviours) comprise behaviours like sportsmanship, civic virtue and helping discretionary behaviour. These behaviours do not directly relate to an individual's job performance (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Paine, 1998). Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behaviours (referred to as OCB hereafter) as behaviours that are not part of the formal job description outline of a job, and for that matter are not compulsory for one to have before being employed. They also include behaviours that are not rewarded by the organization; however, these behaviours are indispensable if an organisation needs to be successful. In short, OCB is defined as work-related behaviours that are discretionary, i.e., not related to the formal organisational reward system, and, in aggregate, promote the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988). Sportsmanship, an instance of the

conduct of organizational citizenship, is an employee's willingness to accept "less than ideal" situations without "complaining, railing against real or imagined slights, and making federal cases out of small potatoes" (Organ, 1988, p. 11). According to MacKenzie et al., (1998), civic virtue is a behavioural trait that induces an employee to perform and contribute to the well-being of the organization. Examples of such behaviour include attending meetings or events that are not obligatory but very beneficial to the well-being of the organization as well as adjustment to changes within the organization, being innovative and coming up with a recommendation on how the operations and procedures with the organization can be improved.

Organizational citizenship behaviour is defined by Organ (1988) as behaviours related to work, but not linked to the official institution's compensation scheme, but encourages the effective operations of the organization. Also, the conduct of institutional ethnicity reflects those actions carried out by staff that surpass the lowest work demands anticipated by the organization to support the well-being of workers (Jehad, Quoquad, Farzana & Mohmad, 2011). Empirical research shows a positive association of organizational citizenship behaviour, employee level, and organizational level outcomes such as performance (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009), organizational commitment (Liu, 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2011), and organizational justice (Ang, Van Dyne & Begley, 2003). Five aspects of institutional ethnicity conduct as per Organ (1988) and the most popular assessment aspect as suggested by Organ (1988), and as shown by Podsakoff et al. (2009) consist of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue. In their research, they explained altruism as coming up with creative ways to assist others in an organization to solve difficulties. Conscientiousness in their study refers to trying to be careful, however, complying with the rules and going beyond at least the requirements of the organisation through hard work while sportsmanship refers to respecting rules and regulations of an organisation and understanding the existence of imperfect situations devoid of grievance.

Further to the above, Podsakoff et al (2009) explained courtesy as avoidance of problems related to work by notifying and prompting others at the workplace in advance while civic virtue relates to ensuring that one remains focused and proactive when taking part in organized activities. Organizational citizenship behaviour is divided into two types (Williams & Anderson, 1991): the first one is behaviours directed at an exact employee like courtesy

and altruism. The second one looks at behaviours apprehensive with providing total organizational benefits. However, Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, and Woehr (2007) did conduct investigations into the dimensionality of the organizational citizenship behaviour construct and did find out the overall validity and robustness of Organ's classification.

There are three categories of employee behaviour (Katz, 1964) and these include behaviours that are displayed when employees are first oriented into an organization and are made to remain. The second is behaviours displayed when they are then made to follow up by performing specific role requirements as expected per the training they are given and the last is behaviours displayed when they involve themselves in undertakings that go beyond the descriptions and expectations of their job.

### ***2.1.7 Job complexity***

The job attributes model provides the most common framework to deal with job design studies (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). According to this model, motivating jobs are characterized by independence, task significance, job identity and feedback from the job. Studies on this model for instance Roberts and Glick (1981) have zeroed in solely on reactions, for example, absenteeism, turnover, satisfaction, performance and motivation. However, job design can impact employee work behaviour empowering them to create and approve explicit behavioural assumptions about what they can do at work to acquire satisfactory work results (Hackman & Lawler, 1971).

In the study conducted by Hackman and Oldham (1975), they recommended that greater independence is associated with greater experienced obligation regarding work results, which may bring about employees taking extra responsibilities. In like manner, Katerberg et al. (1979) in their work established job complexity to be a proportion of commitment focused on the readiness to apply extensive exertion in the interest of the organization. Readiness to apply exertion is like an eagerness to assume a role. The second part of a commitment in their research estimated the conviction and acknowledgement of organizational values and goals, which is predictable with the belief that jobs can be intended to accomplish commitment to institutional objectives (Katsikea et al., 2011). Trust in, acknowledgement of, and commitment to organizational objectives should bring about the upsurge in employees' endeavours to keep up a mutual vision. It was demonstrated by Shalley, Gilson and Blum

(2000) that low job complexity is correlated with the higher formality of connections, which thus hinders impulsive, casual communication. Hence, people may interconnect under states of greater job complexity. Also, it has been proposed (for example Heide et al., 2018) that structures which result in profoundly recommended and routinized jobs additionally bring about diminished amounts of motivation. Interestingly, more complex jobs should bring about more inventions, which would expect workers to participate in more experimenting behaviours.

### **2.1.8 Job embeddedness**

Job embeddedness refers to employee retention and advance from the unfolding voluntary employee turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001; Zhang, Fried & Griffeth, 2012). The concept is a relatively new one and as said by Karatepe and Ngeche (2011), it is under-investigated in the hospitality and marketing literature. There are four decision ways in unfolding voluntary employee turnover. According to Lee et al. (2017) the first decision is portrayed by a stun to the system and a prior activity plan is set up for leaving the institution.

For example, an individual who gets an enviable job offer can show genuine quitting without thinking about their present connection to the institution and without thinking about other options. The second decision is portrayed by a stun, prompting image infringement. Be that as it may, there is no prior arrangement set up (Lee and Mitchell, 1994). For instance, an individual who doesn't get the promotion he or she thinks he or she deserves quits the institution without a quest for options. According to Harman et al. (2007), the third decision is likewise portrayed by a stun, prompting image infringement. In this stage, there is some antagonism and an assessment of options. For instance, an individual can be moved to another place, department etc. and gets miserable. The individual in question begins looking for options. If the person in question finds a better option, genuine quitting happens. In the final decision again by Lee et al. (2017), no stun is included. An individual may quit the institution because of dissatisfaction in his or her job with or without looking for options.

It was contended by Mitchell et al. (2001) that, the four decision ways as mentioned above prompted the development of the Job Embeddedness concept. In this concept, three dimensions emerged which are links, fit and sacrifice. These dimensions allude to the assortment powers that keep a person in the institution. On-the-job embeddedness alludes to

organization fit, links, and sacrifices whilst off-the-job embeddedness alludes to community fit, connections, and sacrifices. The dimensions of job embeddedness are as follows:

#### **2.1.8.1 *Links***

People having formal or casual associations with colleagues in the working environment and with companions and others in the community are profoundly embedded in their jobs. As argued by Holtom, Mitchell, and Lee (2006) family and other social organizations in the community have direct impacts on people and their decision making. Under these conditions, more connections in the institution and the community allude to higher levels of job embeddedness. For instance, according to Mitchell et al. (2001), the elderly employees and wedded workers with kids are less inclined to leave the association, because various connections exist among them and others in the institution and the community at large.

According to Mitchell et al, (2001), they described links as the formal or casual associations between an individual and organizations or others (Mitchell et al., 2001). Additionally, Wheeler et al. (2010), described links in an institution as formal or casual associations that exist between an employee and others or gatherings in the institution. Links can be considered as elements that join an employee with their work colleagues, managers and different partners with whom the person is working. This connecting cycle or social coordination brings about an increase with employee term and accordingly diminishes a person's longing to work somewhere else. Similar studies, for example, Zhan, Friend and Griffeth, 2012 and Reitz (2009) which are related to the Job Embeddedness recommends that, force from work colleagues is a significant factor that decides employees' connection to their work. Consequently, links will be associations that an individual has with others and organizations. Thus, it follows that it tends to be more difficult for an individual to leave, the more embedded that individual is if the person is more associated with the organization.

#### **2.1.8.2 *Fit***

On the off chance that there is fit between employees' ethics and tentative arrangements and the demands of his work just as the institution culture, at that point these workers are greatly embedded at their workplace. Moreover, such a fit should exist among workers and the community. For instance, the environment, facilities and overall culture of the location

impact individuals and the decisions they tend to make (Holtom et al., 2006). Workers who don't see such a fit are generally not embedded in their works.

Mitchell et al. (2001) contend that fit signifies a worker's apparent compatibility or consolation with the institution and with their current environment. Ethics, professional goal plans must fit with that of the organization's overall culture. This empowers the worker to feel associated with the institution and his or her work demands. Hence, there is a higher probability of a person feeling personally and professionally attached to an organization if the fit is better and higher. It was found by O'Reilly et al. (1991) that, misfits with an institution's ethics, values ended somewhat more rapidly than fits. According to Chatman (1991) and Bergiel et al. (2009), they noted that, when institutional entry produces poor person-organization fit, workers are probably going to leave the institution.

### **2.1.8.3 Sacrifice**

People know about what they will eventually lose because of their intentional turnover (Holtom et al., 2006; Mitchell et al., 2001). For instance, they surrender colleagues and lose the present and impending jobs and special opportunities for promotion in the institution. Moreover, people leaving an appealing and safe community might not have a similar working environment in the new location. Accordingly, people know about such opportunity costs and tend to be extremely embedded in their works.

Sacrifice is the third dimension of Job Embeddedness and described as the apparent opportunity costs related to leaving. The opportunity costs could be psychological or physical. Quitting from an organization could imply surrendering the incentives or rewards related with the tenure in the institution (salaries, a special location in the office, bonuses etc.), just as the individual's costs, for example, friendship with work colleagues or certain advantages or benefits solely to the institution. Along these lines, people who are high on a Job Embeddedness scale may decide to remain with an employing institution, regardless of whether conditions are not exactly ideal or below the accepted standard (Harman et al., 2009).

The outcomes of job embeddedness include the following:

#### **2.1.8.4 Turnover intentions**

It is important to understand employee turnover intentions in the employee job embeddedness (JE) concept which is very crucial since JE is a theory of employee retention. According to Lee et al. (2017) and Thoresen et al. (2003), turnover intentions allude to employees' eagerness to leave an institution. As it has been earlier established, employees' that are greatly embedded in their work stay in their workplaces, because they have a high association with their coworkers in the work environment and others in the community, like ethics and plans for the future fit with those of the institution and the community. Also, employees will stay with the organization as they would prefer not to lose the prevailing opportunities (for instance allowances, bonuses, promotions, etc.) in the institution and the community. There exists a persuading proof that work embeddedness diminishes turnover expectations/intentional turnover (e.g., Karatepe & Ngeche, 2011; Mitchell et al., 2001).

#### **2.1.8.5 In-role performance**

According to Rai et al. (2018) and Bakker, Demerouti, and Verbeke (2004), this particular outcome alludes to the formally required results and behaviours that conform to the organization's goals and missions. It is evident that some firms for example banking firms, hospitality firms are in search of high performing workers to provide quality of service and show high degrees of in-role performance. According to Lee et al. (2004), workers with an elevated degree of job embeddedness will portray certain characteristics. First of all, they tend to be engaged with and attached to tasks and individuals and also, they tend to harbour the feeling that they fit properly in their works and can utilize their skills. Thirdly, they tend to forgo valued benefits if they leave and thus the motivation to execute their jobs tend to be high. Job embeddedness is basic in forecasting workers' in-role performance. Although there are few studies on job embeddedness, available literature shows that job embeddedness increases the in-role performance of workers (Karatepe & Ngeche, 2011; Lee et al., 2004).

#### **2.1.8.6 Extra-role performance**

Extra-role performance is also one of the key outcomes of job embeddedness. According to Bettencourt and Brown (1997) and Huges et al. (2019), this outcome refers to the optional behaviours of employees who deal directly with serving customers that goes beyond the official job requirement practices of contact workers in serving clients. With a pool of

forefront workers with elevated levels of extra-role performance, it is significant for banking firms, hospitality firms and other firms that deal directly with customers because these customers do have constant complaints and requests, and these contact employees may go beyond their conventional job requirements to resolve the complaints and meet these requests. Similar to the situation with the in-role performance concept, Lee et al. (2004) also concluded with empirical proof that the impact of job embeddedness on extra-role performance is restricted.

### **2.1.9 Employee skills**

Any organization of higher learning or business whose objective is to succeed and survive in the business environment envisages the need to commit resources into progressive training and development to expand skills in productivity and also secure the best return in human capital investment (Knoke & Kalleberg, 1994). According to Nyaupane et al. (2020), there is the probability that workers with the relevant collection of skills, knowledge and job-related competencies will execute their works when job training fit is high. According to Hastie and Dawes (2001), people tend to have the propensity to watch and grasp events dependent on what they know and accept. Consequently, with pertinent, appropriate ethics and directions about the workers' job, there is the probability that institutional happenings and job-related issues will be better perceived by the workers.

According to Sawyer (1992) and Amabile (1988), workers may perceive their knowledge and know-how in a particular field of an institution by obviously understanding the methodology one utilizes at work. It, therefore, improves the understanding, and thus, permits workers to additionally acquire related, appropriate information and knowledge to do their work. Similarly, it additionally helps in the realization of fruitful areas that may require further enhancement in performance. This enables the organizations to channel the focus of the workers and help to get the needed knowledge and skills to adjust their behaviours and assist them fit into their works.

Cheng and Ho (2001) deliberated on the significance of training and its effect on performance. Though performance is one of the essential estimates highlighted by the top management, workers are also more worried about their productivity and are progressively mindful of the fast outmodedness of their skills and knowledge in their fierce working

environs. As their writing proposes, by adequately preparing and developing workers, they will turn out to be more adjusted for career development, since professional capabilities bring about individual motivation.

To show Cheng and Ho's (2001) stands or assertion, it was commented by Constantino and Merchant (1996) that both education and training are important segments for an effective conflict resolution structure. One may imagine clearly how an inability to train and educate by the institution could bring about unfavourable engagement or conflicts among workers and their employers. When these conflicts occur, they might prompt quite a few complicated situations, which includes official and genuine complaints which inevitably become genuine lawsuits against the institution, which could affect the institution's money, energy and time which could have been channeled to improve the institution's productivity.

Whenever colleges or organizations retain open doors for training and developing their workers, they additionally neglect to show an understanding to recognize the institutional conflict. Constantino and Merchant (1996) recognized that all institutions must set aside a conflict management system. Anytime conflict is shown in the institution by a section of dissatisfied workers, their dissatisfaction can bring about furious confusion, disappointment, complaints and disturbances in the institution. Once more, with a conflict management system in place, employees would possibly have the option to short out such a troublemaking process.

From the above, workers must profit from continuous employer training and development. According to Campbell and Kuncel (2001), one of the most regularly experienced human resources development mediations is training and development. To improve work performance, skills training, abilities and behaviours must be moved to the work environment, kept up after some time and summed up across settings (Holton & Baldwin, 2000). Identifying Specific training in most cases has been a complex matter and has been the focal point of most of the literature available on training (Chiaburu & Teklab, 2005). To be precise, notwithstanding the specific type of work training, getting workers ready for a job or training is viewed as applicable to encouraging a positive connection between learning fulfilment and the viability of applied learning (Liu, 2002; Wang, 2001). Conversely, although scholars have proposed that training is imperative to institutions (Knoke &

Knalleberg 1994; Liu, 2002; Wang, 2001), as said by Young (2008), training programmes in most cases are the first to go. The pattern to reduce training programmes during bad or worsening economic times appears to be limited if, in reality, training influences work capability and alleviates work environment conflict.

Besides, a few writers have additionally expounded on the significance of staff advancement. Both formal and casual training opportunities are thought to give a discussion about the improvement of talent. At the point when talent is cultivated and sustained, comparative advantages in job performance are unblemished (Bowling, 2007; Davenport, 2006;). Moreover, according to Pool and Pool (2007), organizational commitment relies upon compelling training programmes. As per these scholars, institutions showing sharp understanding make arrangements for fulfilling the training needs of their present labour force. It was shown by Cheng and Ho (2001) that, sufficient training yields checked enhancements in worker communication and capability of performance just as expanding in time of retention. Also, when these training programmes focus on communication skills with colleagues, there exist important increments in benefit just as a more prominent number of revealed positive working connections that come about as a result.

It has been highlighted that the correlation between training and behaviour connects with working with others (Karia & Ahmad, 2000). Workers that have a positive working attitude tend to be stakeholders along the line and work achievement is of a higher need. Moreover, a successful institution accomplishes a partnership between management and employees. This partnership consists of teamwork, participation and constant learning application.

The announced discoveries further recommend that a workers' involvement in the decision-making process and resolving issues bring about organizational trust (Da'as, 2020). Businesses and organizations need to develop and invent ceaselessly, seek after the supporting turn of events, and adapt to fast change in their outside surroundings just as progressively as the competition that exists in the international market. Subsequently, businesses need to reinforce or extend the knowledge pool, abilities and skills of their workers. Following this, training and education must be fused into a methodical and formal framework if the objectives of workers and organizations are to be accomplished

(Lindenbaum, Vesa & den Hond, 2020; Lorne, 2020; Vladoš, Deniozos & Chatzinikolaou, 2018)

According to Markus (2001), training is referred to as the arranged intermediation that is intended to improve the contributing factors of a person's work performance. It is therefore linked to the abilities a worker must gain to improve the likelihood of accomplishing the institution's general business and academic objectives and goals. As per Cheng et al. (2001), a positive training given to workers may help with the decrease of uneasiness or disappointment, which most workers have encountered time and again during their career professions.

As indicated by Yang and Chang (2008), workers who are focused on learning demonstrated a more significant level of satisfaction that positively affects their job performance. Locke (1979) on the other hand referred to job satisfaction as an enjoyable or positive passionate state coming about because of a positive job appraisal or experiences. In the literature of Yang and Chang (2008), they recommended that commitment is a result of sufficient training and development for effective work completion and an increase in work performance.

Moreover, the bigger the variance between the skills required to undertake a job and the actual skills existing to perform a job, the more prominent the absence of job satisfaction and the more the upsurge in worker turnover that exists in the institution. On the other hand, at that point, not having what it takes to undertake a work proficiently can set up workers for failure and jeopardize the firm's competitive advantage. The subsequent high employee turnover would foresee the relevance for much additional training that would then directly affect the primary aim of any business.

Additionally, poor remarks after a job appraisal as a result of horrible showing surveys because of insufficient training can create worker conflicts and job dissatisfaction. Although there is no immediate connection in the writing between job satisfaction and training, it was contended by Rowden and Shamsuddin (2000) and Rowden and Conine (2005) that the most carefully trained workers will better fulfil the expectations of their employers and their customers.

### ***2.1.10 Working experience of employees***

Employee working experience has come out to be a hot and ongoing discussion in the field of personnel management. Establishing a decent work experience brings about an institution pulling in and maintaining skilled and talented workers, which thus brings about having an engaged labour force. According to Tracy Maylett and Matthew Wride (2017), an institution with connected labour forces is more productive, experiences higher growth and development, and wins the fight to maintain the most skillful and talented employees.

Carr et al. (2006) defined employee experience as the information, know-how, skills, aptitudes and capacities picked up in a particular profession or field. Also, it can be viewed as an aggregation of all the knowledge gained by a worker as a result of working for various institutions or the same institution for an extensive timeframe. To properly appreciate what working experience of employees is, one can begin by taking a gander at what employee working experience isn't.

As indicated by Bipp (2010), working experience of employees isn't what we call Employee Life Cycle (ELC), rather, the ELC is essential for the enormous idea of workers' experience. ELC is comprised of cycles or stages and steps in which the workers partake in their connections or affiliation with the institution they work for. ELC is consecutive and ordered and expects a particular beginning and end. The ELC considers the significant cycles and functions like onboarding, selecting, worker–development, promotions and exit interviews. Moreover, the ELC begins with the main contact of the institution and stops with the last collaboration with the same institution after closure. Consequently, according to Hunters and Thatcher (2007), the ELC is a domain of the Human Resource Department in an organization. While the vast majority have seen employee working experience as ELC, this opinion may miss the central issues.

Similarly, as experience isn't ELC, working experience of employees can't likewise be compared with the management of employee talents, it is neither Personnel Management. Once more, it was shown in the works by Kutor and Anbazhagan (2015), that talent management is significant while planning working experience of employees however it is just a portion of the enormous employee experience. Furthermore, because experience

doesn't attempt to catch what workers feel about the institution, employee satisfaction can't sufficiently clearly describe the working experience of employees.

A study was conducted among Ghanaian companies by Ahmadi et al. (2012), and it was found out that there exists a correlation between employee work experience and institutional productivity and efficacy in the accomplishment of its goals. In the same study, it was discovered that the efficacy of the production cycle was accomplished given that there were experienced workers and highly educated employees in the supervisory and management levels. In that capacity, the institution had the option to produce new items since they had ready, talented, abled and educated workers who adequately and productively improved the organization's productivity.

There was a different view in the work conducted by Kotur and Anbazhagan (2015). In their work, they disagreed that employee work experience can aid the production of the wanted quality of goods. This is because each institution utilizes diverse structures which workers are expected to learn. The scholars rather express that the faster the learning process of workers either experienced or inexperienced is the thing that makes them more serious in conveying goods and services or no earlier work experience gathered. Regardless, IBM (2014) could not help contradicting the authors because, in his study on the impact of employee work experience on delivery of services, it was apparent that the workers with longer work experience had the better advantage to adjust quickly to new structures and processes than the individuals who have no earlier work experience.

The reason why institutions need experienced employees according to Plouffe and Egoire (2011), is that they have invested a lot of time and energy in picking up the needed skills and knowledge that can help to drive the performance of the goals of the organization. Be that as it may, even as such managers recruit, they consider the component of work experience since it is important to likewise have on board talented, skilled and knowledgeable workers.

#### ***2.1.11 The concept of organizational commitment and its impact on employee work behaviour***

According to Sahnawaz and Juyal (2006), organizational commitment is considered to be one of the key factors in accomplishing competitive performance. Also, as per Obedgiu,

Bagire and Mafabi (2017), it is a multidimensional concept that can foresee results, for example, absenteeism, performance, organizational goals and turnover. It is therefore considered as a significant concept in organizational research since its demonstrated relationship with job-related concepts such as business-related builds, for example, non-attendance, job satisfaction, turnover, job-involvement and employer-employee relationship (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Bagraim, 2003; Katsikea et al., 2011). Available research suggests that, when workers expect that they can develop and learn with their present employers, their degree of duty to remain with that specific institution is higher (Opkara, 2004). Moreover, according to Samad (2007), satisfied and committed employees are considered to be higher performers that contribute towards organizational productivity.

A commitment was seen by Buchanan (1974) as a partisan, full of feeling a connection to the objectives and ethics of an institution, to one's function comparable to objectives and ethics, and the institution for the wellbeing of its own, aside its simply instrumental worth. The commitment comprises of three parts which are:

- a) Identification – acceptance as one's objectives and ethics of the institution;
- b) Involvement – being psychologically inundated or absorbed in the actions of one's work job; and
- c) Loyalty – a sentiment of love for and connection to the institution.

There are several definitions of the organizational commitment concept. For instance, Mercurio (2015) describes organizational commitment as a worker attitude and behavioral expectations; the eagerness to apply impressive exertion in the interest of the institution and a strong urge to keep up enrollment of the institution. At that point, Mowday, Steers and Doorman (1982) developed that the idea of organizational commitment can be described by these three factors:

- a) solid confidence in, and acknowledgement of, the institution's objectives and ethics;
- b) readiness to apply extensive exertion in the interest of the association; and
- c) strong urge to stay in the institution.

It is upheld by O'Reilly (2001) who described the organizational commitment as a person's psychological attachment to the institution, which includes a sense of loyalty, job involvement, and confidence in the ethics of the institution. Defined differently, organizational commitment is how strong a person identifies him or herself with the objectives of an institution's numerous citizenries, which include positive involvement which is indispensable to creating shared objectives and goals in a specific institution (Katsikea et al., 2011; Mercurio, 2015). Following this, organizational commitment can be viewed as emotional reactions or attitudes which joins an employee to the institution, which include three phases of identification, internalization and compliance, which show that the individual acknowledges the impact of others to get something from others to keep up a self-defining and satisfying relationship and individual discovers the ethics of the institution to be inherently fulfilling and compatible with individual ethics respectively.

In the past ten years, it has become evident that organizational commitment is a multi-faceted concept that comprises three dimensions: continuance, normative and affective. Meyer and Allen (1991) determined the three-dimension model of organizational commitment as follows:

- Meyer and Allen (1991) defined affective commitment as the worker's passionate attachment to the institution. Workers with strong affective commitment stay with the institution because they need to do as such. This condition of attachment mirrors the quality of a person's relationship with and involvement in a specific institution.
- Continuance commitment on the other hand alludes to the degree to which the worker sees that leaving the institution will be costly. Workers with strong continuance commitment stay because they need to do as such. (Meyer & Allen, 1991).
- Lastly, Meyer and Allen (1991) defined normative commitment as a worker's sentiments of commitment to the institution and the conviction that staying is the proper thing to do. Employees with solid normative commitment stay because they feel that they should do so.

In a nutshell, the three dimensions endeavour to clarify the total quality of individual relationship with an institution because they want to (affective), they have to (continuance) and they should (normative) stay in an institution. Each of these commitment ties the person

in the institution in various ways and will diversely influence the way the worker behaves in the work environment. (Mercurio, 2011; Meyer et al., 2002).

Be it as it may, the most attractive profile of organizational commitment among workers, particularly those engaged with the services industry which requests continual good service, is seen as an affective commitment which is the most well-known dimension in the Meyer and Allen (1991) model. Accordingly, understanding the significance of having workers with solid affective commitment in the institution, this research focuses on the impact of affective commitment as one of attitudinal concept that connects to workers' performance in an institution.

Employee commitment as per Organ and Ryan (1995) and Katsikea et al. (2011) is strongly correlated with Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). In the three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment by Meyer and Allen (1991) in their Three-segment Conceptualization, they concluded that employees who are highly dedicated to their organizations are ready to go past their recommended work jobs are more wanted by institutions than others. OCB and employee commitment are two concepts in which workers go past their endorsed work jobs. This was then demonstrated in the met analysis of Meyer et al., (2002) which established that OCB related positively with normative and affective commitment.

It has been recorded by numerous researchers that the idea of organizational commitment leads to advantageous, desirable and organizational results, for example, absenteeism reduction, turnover and increase in effectiveness (Steers, 1977; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Watchman et al., 1974;). It was insisted by Steyrer et al., (2008) that, organizational commitment does not only lead to employees' continuous membership with an institution, it however positively influences workers' workplace behaviours. Studies undertaken by some researchers, for example, Meyer and Allen (1996, Organ and Ryan (1995), Samad (2007), Muhammad et.al. (2010) strongly describe the significant effect of organizational commitment on people's performance and work satisfaction (Mannheim et al., 1997; Samad, 2007; Azeem, 2010). The resulting positive correlation between desirable organizational outcomes and organizational commitment is the aftereffect of an individual relationship, where people connect themselves to the institution as a byproduct of certain esteemed

rewards or prize from the institution. (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Point & Perry, 1983). When contrasted with the other dimensions of organizational commitment, affective commitment showed the strongest correlation with employee performance according to past studies conducted by Shore, Barksdale and Shore (1995) and Muhammad et.al (2010). Increase in affective commitment as per Boles et al. (2007) and Bergmann et al. (2000) is correlated positively with the high organizational outcome, including reduced turnover, decreased intent to search for new jobs and job performance ratings.

Notwithstanding, there appears to be incoherence on the correlation between organizational behaviours and employee commitment in the extant literature. Although Meyer and Allen (1993) uncovered that worker commitment leads towards organizational behaviour, Ang et al. (2003) on the other hand contradicted the views shared by Meyer that there isn't any correlation between the two concepts. It was also revealed by Shore and Wayne (1993) that, employee commitment reduces OCB among employees. As indicated by them, OCB does not come about as a result of employee commitment but rather, worker's sentiments of obligation towards the institution and other individual employees which results in OCB. This implies that the correlation between OCB and employee commitment generally relies on the kind of commitment under study.

#### ***2.1.12 The concept of environmental fit and its impact on employee work behaviour***

Numerous researchers have endeavoured to conceptualize the workplace environment. Maybe it might be characterized in its easiest form as the situations, conditions, settings and circumstances under which individuals work. It is additionally explained by Briner, (2000) as a general class that incorporates the physical setting (for example heat, hardware and so forth), traits of the job itself (for example task complexity, workload etc.), more extensive organizational characteristics (for example history, work history etc.) and even parts of the other organizational settings (for example market conditions in the labour market, work-home relationship, industry sector etc.). It implies that the workplace environment is the total of the severally connected relationships that exist among the employers and employees in the work environment in which the workers work, which encompasses the human, technical and the institutional environment.

The working environment has three significant sub-conditions which incorporate the human resource, technical resource and the organizational environment (Torraco, 2005). The technical environment consisted of all things that aided in a faster work execution such as equipment, tools, technological infrastructure and any other technical or physical components of the work environment. The human environment in their definition consists of coworkers, friends, individuals with whom workers relate, group and working groups, interactional issues, the management and supervisors. It could be deduced from their definition that; the human environment is the organization of formal and casual cooperation among coworkers; groups just as the employee-employer relationship that exists inside the framework of the institutions. Such cooperation (particularly the informal one) allows the sharing of knowledge and information just as the inter sharing of knowledge among workers. It has been recognized in past researches such as Lenient (2000) and Stanley (2003) that employees' interactive relations at the work environment will in the general impact their confidence. Theoretically, whatever influences confidence at work is probably going to influence work commitment.

Further, the third type of work environment as indicated by Yusuf and Metiboba, (2012) which is organizational environment consists of procedures, practices, systems, philosophies and values which work usually under management's control. Akintayo (2012) in his work stated clearly that, the organizational environment is the prompt job and national environment where an institution draws its raw materials, transforms them and returns them in the form of services and products to be consumed by the public. This national and task environment comprises customer's role, the influence of suppliers, stakeholders, the national economy, sociocultural elements, legislation, technology, philosophies and managerial policies. All these go far in affecting individuals' attitude and mindset towards work.

These three sub-dimensions of organizational environment can again be broken down into two fundamental kinds, dependent on the impact they apply on the individuals at work. In the study conducted by Kyko (2005), he suggested that a worker's personality profile at the workplace is influenced by the work environment. He stated that a worker's personality isn't static. Rather, it is dynamic and varies with the experiences in the workplace. In the works conducted by Akinyele (2010), Chaddha, Ravi and Noida (2011), Yusuf and Metiboba (2012) and Asaaf and Alswalha (2013), they all classified work environment into the toxic and

conducive environment. Conducive workplace environment provides enjoyable encounters to the workers and assists them with realizing in the personality profile whereas toxic work environment, on the other hand, is workplace conditions that are painful to the experiences and de-complete worker's behaviour. Kyko accepts that unreliable or uncertain employees can change to be dependable and more dedicated to the work in a conducive workplace because such conditions fortify the self-actualizing traits in them. While the opposite might be the situation under a poisonous climate, it is these two sorts of a working environment that might impact both the psychological and physical wellbeing of employees.

According to Briner (2000), workplace environments have numerous factors, properties or components that may influence both the psychological and physical well-being of employees. According to Chandraseker (2011), how well workers involve themselves with factors in their workplaces impacts by a large extent, their absenteeism, error rate, level of innovation and coordination with other workers, and most importantly how long they remain in the work is a factor of their commitment levels towards their job.

Since the working environment is made out of numerous components, it is almost certain that a person's working conduct and attitude will be impacted more by the blend of the work setting properties than just by anyone of them. According to Lawler (1986), Walton (1980) and Weisbord (1987), the pattern in the field of organizational development to a more framework-situated change effort recommends that arrangement of varied characteristics is important to create the desired change in the organization. This point of view infers that the existence of various work setting highlights all, inducing similar kinds of conduct ought to have a synergistic or intuitive impact. Said differently, the mixture of practices should strengthen the attitudes and conducts to a more noteworthy degree than basically the consolidated impact of the different characteristics. In the current setting, three institutional qualities have been theorized as similarly affecting the work style behaviours. Additionally, these individual characteristics should have an interactive impact on behaviours and not just additive effects.

Another conforming thought is that different institutional qualities or characteristics ought to be compatible or congruent with each other to send predictable messages to people in regards to proper behaviours. According to Brew and Huse (1972) and Porras (1987), preferred

behaviours are bound to be displayed when an assortment of components in the work setting convey congruent and steady messages with regards to which behaviours are wanted. On the other hand, as stated by Lager (1980), Kotter (1978) and Nadler and Tushman (1977), work settings that portray differences in expected behaviours will produce ineffectiveness in the long term and negatively impact performance. In the current setting, congruency is at a high level when the institutional factors uphold a comparable recurrence of the workstyle behaviours (regardless of whether it be high, medium, or low), while congruency is on a lower level if a few characteristics of the work context improve the work style behaviours while others restrain them. In the last case, work behaviour is probably going to be conflicting, for example, comparative behaviours will be displayed with fluctuating recurrence.

### ***2.1.13 The concept of psychological empowerment (PE) and impacts on employee behaviour***

According to Maynard, Gilson, and Mathieu (2012), Rogelberg (2007) and Spreitzer (2008), empowerment has been thought of as regarding a social - basic setting dependent on power or authority and responsibility and as the psychological setting as far as the real mental condition of the individual. As per Maynard, Mathieu, Gilson, O'Boyle, and Cigularov (2013), even though each of the two contexts shares the principal factors of control and power, power focuses more on the allocation of power from a leader to a follower through practices, policies and rules whilst control focuses on the cognitive belief and the intrinsic aspects that one can act in a self-decided manner (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Spreitzer, 1995a). Available studies for example Bandura (1977), Conger and Kanungo (1988), Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2013), Koberg, Boss, Senjem, and Goodman (1999), and Rogelberg (2007) suggests that the social system of the social-structural setting is focused on the associated dynamic where authority, information, decision making and autonomy is shared by a leader with followers in this manner giving a feeling of control, power, and self-efficacy within subordinates. Nonetheless, Knol and Van Linge (2009), Koberg, Boss, Senjem, and Goodman (1999), Maynard, Gilson, and Mathieu, 2012 and Spreitzer (2008) concluded that the psychological setting is seen as an inborn inspirational principle wherein one emotionally sees the value of the creativity and acts from an internal psychological paradigm of control as opposed to through designated control from leadership.

While trying to all the more emphatically describe Psychological Empowerment as a helpful measure for institutions to use, two important models have arisen. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) suggested a model dependent on the research by Knol and Van Linge (2009) where they came about with a four-dimensional model: fitness, decision, significance and fitness. Their model postulates that a person's decision to participate in action depends on a parity of the degree the management supports cooperation with the person's value and conviction that the work has meaning, they are skillful to accomplish the work, and they can affect (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

An assessment made by Spreitzer (1995) on this model compelled her to accept the components of meaning, impact and competence while adjusting the component of choice to that of self-determination. According to Maynard, Gilson, Mathieu (2012) and Spreitzer (1995), the meaning of self-determination expands the capacity of only deciding to act to the capacity to act independently, innovate an action, decipher on how to accomplish a task, and have individual power over the task.

The capacity to influence PE among workers has been appeared to have positive results prompting results that bring about accomplishment for an institution. According to Zimmerman (1995) and Zimmerman, Israel, Schulz, and Checkoway (1992), Psychological Empowerment has interactional, intrapersonal, and conduct features that can affect the way toward achieving institutional results. In earlier studies, the emphasis was essentially on the components of behaviour that brought about organizational outcomes. As suggested by Aji, Yusof, Osman, and Yusop (2010), if this is seen autonomously, the aspects of behaviours limit the job and value of the intrapersonal feature which fills in as the enthusiastic drive that prompts results.

It was stated by these authors Harrison, Newman, and Roth (2006), Spreitzer (1995); Zimmerman, Israel, Schulz, and Checkoway (1992) that, perspectives, confidence in one's capacity, and environmental interpretation start from the intrapersonal aspect and fill in as arbiters between leader-assigned power and follower results by inspiring the behavioural factor. As per Seibert et al. (2011), results of PE have been explored as far as these features and isolated into two fundamental classes: attitudinal or behavioural results. An analysis comprising of 142 articles confirmed that PE at the intrapersonal level has behavioural results

to incorporate organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions and work-related strain. Seibert et al. (2011) assessment of the works on the behavioural viewpoint uncovered behavioural outcomes of psychological empowerment included OCB, innovations and work performance. Variables that characterized the workplace have appeared to add to the mentality of work commitment (Wang & Liu, 2015). Responses gathered from 218 medical attendants from two top Chinese emergency clinics inspected the connection between commitment, PE, and the practice environment. Discoveries indicated a strong positive correlation between work commitment and the practice environment. In any case, it was the element of PE that improved on the impression of the practice environment that achieved the perspectives of work commitment (Wang & Liu, 2015).

In the research conducted by Li, Wei, Ren, and Di (2015), investigating the relationship PE has with innovative performance and contextual, a sample of 209 development and research teams and their supervisors, psychological empowerment was seen to have a significantly positive correlation with each of the three results. Discoveries of this research additionally found an incomplete mediated impact of intrinsic motivation between psychological empowerment PE and the different performance factors. The researchers' hypothesized that the ramifications of inherent motivation are not straightforwardly related with the proportion of PE and that the intrinsic motivation of the employee can be controlled to achieve better performance in place of worker's degree of psychological empowerment (Li et al., 2015).

Scientists investigated the relationship between attitudinal and behavioural results of PE. An investigation of 291 Indian industrial directors from the drug, designing, IT, hardware, and flight ventures investigated the part of PE on work commitment and turnover intentions (Bhatnagar, 2012). The discoveries uncovered that PE fills in as an indicator of work commitment. Further, work commitment was connected emphatically to innovations and adversely to employee intentions to leave (Bhatnagar, 2012). The result of ingenuity was found to result from the behaviour of work commitment as forecasted by the impacts of PE.

Like the discoveries of de Klerk and Stander (2014), it could be set that PE's effect on the attitudinal result of work commitment impacts the conduct result of innovation and therefore reduces turnover intentions (Bhatnagar, 2012). Psychological empowerment has been found to identify with the results of loyalty, satisfaction and task outcomes. (Yao, Chen, & Cai,

2013) The research results lead to the affirmation that PE fills in as an influencer over every one of the three factors yet the variable of satisfaction partially mediated employee loyalty and their work performance approving the ramifications of the intrapersonal and behavioural impacts of psychological empowerment (Zimmerman et al., 1992).

Studies undertaken by de Klerk and Stander (2014) attested that leadership empowerment behaviour could affect workers' perception and encounters in the working environment. In this study, 322 manufacturing workers were sampled, the results found that PE mediated the relationship between employee commitment and leadership empowerment behaviours. In investigating the turnover intentions of this manufacturing employees, a negative connection between the concepts under study was resolved through the mediating effect of psychological empowerment (de Klerk & Stander, 2014). These prove Spreitzer's belief that individuals that are empowered, through their PE, have control and decision over the workplace (Spreitzer, DeJanasz, & Quinn, 1997).

According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1977), activities that result in behavioural outcomes are impacted somewhat by attitudes. As per Zimmerman et al. (1992), the mentality-related results of PE are identified with the behavioural results of PE as one takes part in impacting the environment to achieve substantial outcomes wanted by an institution. It has been demonstrated by PE to be an effective mediator in collecting these outcomes. For instance, research was led on the connection between high-performance work system (HPWS), or high-performance practices, and the result of caring of the patient. HPWS includes different HR practices and interactional elements of the job environment (Bonias, Bartram, Leggat, & Stanton, 2010). A sample made up of 541 Australian health care workers were studied. Discoveries uncovered that PE mediated the correlation between HPWS and quality of caring for patients. Strikingly, assessment of the four components of PE, 'competence', 'meaning', 'impact', and 'self-determination', found that impact couldn't add to the mediating effect (Bonias et al., 2010).

## **2.2 Empirical review of literature**

According to Edwards (1991), Person-Job-fit can be a practical indicator of how well a job is performed since people with high person-job had been established to be positively correlated with work result. Moreover, Barrett (1978) theory of congruence as referred to by

Lawrence (2004) clarified that person-job-fit is the fit that could occur between a person's knowledge, skills and ability or his or her job preferences. Along these lines when congruency is present between an individual's knowledge, skills and ability (KSAs) and his or her job preferences, it will result eventually in a motivational outcome (Barrett, 1978; Edwards, 1991) and this is key to having better-performed jobs. Moreover, countless exact practical studies have recognized that the PJF is significant for work result. Some examples of research studies that have established a positive correlation between PJF and organizational commitment, job performance and contextual performance, job offer acceptance, environmental fit, job satisfaction, tension reduction as well as intention to leave a job include works done by (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; Saks & Ashforth, 2002; Shin, 2004). Also, in the study conducted by Hecht and Allen in the year 2003, they discovered that PJF concerning the unbiased propensity or preference for structuring time that influences a person behaviour does have an impact on his or her job performance as well as his or her prosperity while the study conducted by Caldwell and O'Reilly (1990) concluded that, the PJF was directly correlated with job performance and satisfaction. Additionally, the correlation between PJF with turnover, job performance and satisfaction were confirmed by the work conducted by Caldwell and Mirable (1992).

In a different report, PJF was discovered to be associated with job performance (Greenberg, 2002), commitment and productivity (Rousseau & Mc Lean Parks, 1992), and is directly related to employee attendance to work, job performance, job satisfaction, motivation, reduction in stress, and retention (Edwards, 1991). Kristoff et al. (2005) concluded that, when person-organization fit and PJF were tested on performance, the association was generally unobtrusive; negating with the assertions of Li and Hung (2010) where PJF was found to be strongly related to performance.

All things considered, in relations to other behavioural results as conducted by Kristoff-Brown, Jansen and Colbert (2002); Saks and Ashforth (1997), Person-job fit showed a stronger relationship than person-organization fit. Although a significant review had concluded on the impact of PJF on job performance, more work is expected to be done to confirm their correlation (Mosley, 2002). Also given the varieties in results on the association between the two concepts (Edwards, 1991), research on the correlation between person-job-

fit and job performance have in this manner yet to go to a comparable understanding (Conte, Rizzutto & Steiner, 1999; Taylor, Locke, Lee, & Gist, 1984). Likewise, past researches on the correlation between PJF and job performance have contained blended outcomes (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001), consequently, there is a need to further investigate the correlation that may exist between PJF and job performance of employees presently working in different sectors of the economy.

Some other past studies conducted by for example Edwards (1991) and Kristof-Brown (1996) have hypothesized two essential suppositions of PJF: demand capacities, and need-supplies or supplies-value fit. In the first assumption, an employee's task and job requirements are matched with his abilities, knowledge and skills whilst the second assumption comes to being when the employees' desires, needs, or preferences are met by the task that they undertake (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 285). This abstract appraisal of the two parts of the PJF (need-supply and demand abilities) adds to foreseeing employees' task-related behaviours and attitudes. This idea has been stressed by numerous organizational models, for example, the adjustment theory, satisfaction and well-being. This follows Guan et al (2010) conclusion that PJF has reliably been described as a fundamental determinant of direct task-related attitudes.

Various researches undertaken in the context of the Western World have concluded that PJF is positively correlated with employee work quality, job satisfaction and positive adjustment in a new institution (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Chatman, 1991; Edwards, 1996; Rice, MacFarlin, Hunt, & Near, 1985; Spokane, 1985). In the research by Guan et al. (2010), in the Asian setting, they concluded that PJF has a strong negative correlation with turnover intent among employees employed in various institutions in the Capital City of China, Beijing. In particular, the research established that the correlation between PJF was comparatively stronger than the findings in the Western context as predicted in the study by Cable and DeRue (2002). Subsequently, this affirms that the PJF has a stronger correlation with various task-related employee behaviours and attitudes, especially employee turnover.

In focusing on the variables that impact work embeddedness, Bowman (2009) explored the function of a supervisor by conceptualizing it as leader-member exchange (LMX). Then again, Wheeler et al. (2010) demonstrated that personnel management practices adequately

make up for bad quality LMX connections in building job embeddedness, which at that point prompts diminished employee turnover intentions.

In the study by Chen et al. (2010) which looked at the relationship between organizational commitments, organizational open-mindedness, personnel and planning autonomy, Job Embeddedness, knowledge, and work team effectiveness. The outcomes demonstrated that organizational commitment and open-mindedness are positively correlated to Job Embeddedness, it also showed that Job Embeddedness had a significant correlation with knowledge, and work team effectiveness, however, the correlation between job embeddedness and job autonomy was not significant.

Studies undertaken by organizational behaviour scholars have uncovered the indication of a good fit between employee training and their performed duties as very important (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005) because of the way employees feel a sense of association and it is reflected in their various institutions by displaying engaged behaviour. According to Saks (2006), employees can achieve better than their assigned responsibilities and results in advancement in the organization due to the engaged behaviours exhibited.

In the study conducted by Bartlett (2001 p. 349) he discovered a better correlation between workplace training and organizational commitment. He suggested that institutions embrace new research methods to exhibit to decision-makers in an organization that employees undertake the job training fit and preparation that fit the positions that representatives do add to wanted working environment behaviours and attitudes which may thus impact employee performance. It is in this manner that, Wexley and Lartham (2002) noted that, it is significant that in deciding the most proficient training method, there is the requirement for organizations to consider the qualities like employee skills, abilities, working experiences and other work-related issues. Based on the findings of Wexley and Latham, Swart, Mann, Brown and Price (2005) concluded that it will guarantee that the training provides an answer to cover job performance concerns, for example, closing the variance or gap between the expected or standard and the actual job performance. According to Obisi (2011), the training process in itself must be deliberate to take into account enhancement in employees' performance to highlight the employee capabilities and empower them to perform their allocated works adequately and proficiently (Sahinidis and Bouris, 2008).

Observational proof has demonstrated that higher levels of person-environment fit are characteristic of positive results, for example, job satisfaction (Andela and van der Doef, 2019; Liu, Liu, and Hu, 2010; Rauvola, et al., 2020) and organizational commitment (Dhurup, 2019; Greguras and Diefendorff, 2009). There exist numerous pieces of evidence that show a significant correlation between person-organization fit and PJF on pro-social, for example organization citizenship behaviours (OCBs), self-reported teamwork, and employee job performances (Farzaneh et al., 2014; Kristof-Brown et al., 2018; Oh et al., 2014). On the other hand, Cable and Edwards (2004) concluded that, when misfit arises, individuals accept that their psychological needs have been disregarded, bringing about negative outcomes, for example, work dissatisfaction for the employee's organizational performance (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

Precisely, the extent, to which employees see that their capabilities match the job requirements is directly proportional to their commitment to their institutions (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). The significance level of PJF is identified with attendance, job performance with higher motivation (Edwards, 1991). In the work by Warr and Inceoglu (2012), they exhibited that poor job fit considerably affects employee work commitment. The thought is that opinions about job fit impact employee's state of motivation that brings about the experience of positive feelings that is significant in employee work commitment. Person-Job fit has not exclusively been connected to work engagement and commitment but to a demonstration of extra-role behaviours (Farzaneh et al., 2014), showing the general significance of job-fit in organizational performance.

With additional thorough studies on the topic of person-environment fit, consideration has been bit by bit given with the impact of PJF, which underscores the match between a person's abilities, knowledge, skills and job requirements (Zhou et al., 2011). Various researches account that an employee whose individual ethics fit better with the ethics of their job description exhibits more elevated levels of organizational citizenship behaviours (Farzaneh et al., 2014; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999; Kristof Brown et al., 2005; Vigoda, 2000).

In the empirical study conducted by Zhang and Long (2013), it was discovered that the correlation between PJF and job results is impacted by individual factors and leads to inconclusiveness if we disregard such possibility factors. As per Stets and Serpe's (2013)

identity theory, employees with low degrees of job commitment are likely to exhibit low levels of job innovation behaviours and job involvements since they will in general display more negative work attitudes and behaviour (Duffy et al., 2011; Pei and Zhao, 2015), which doesn't help enhance organizational performance. In this way, the part played by job commitment must be paid attention to. Job Commitment according to Blau (2009) is showing to be a better indicator of workers' behaviours and attitudes since it reflects behavioural choices of employees in a rather unstable labour force.

### ***2.2.1 Person-job-fit and employee work behaviour***

Significant correlations have been asserted and supported by empirical evidence on the relationship between person-job-fit and employee work behaviour. Rahmadani and Sebayang (2017) for instance show that employees who do not demonstrate high levels of fit with their roles tend to be unprofessional, are unwilling to develop their abilities and consequently are least likely to engage in extra-role behaviours. This position is supported by Bohlander & Snell (2004) who have also asserted links between person-job-fit and the development of employee work behaviour (in-role and OCB). Conclusions drawn from Hamid and Yahya (2011) provided empirical evidence to the effect that, high levels of fit between employees and their jobs enable them to fully understand their roles and this helps them to fully engage in both their work and other roles. This category of employees find satisfaction and meaning in what they do, feel empowered by their skills and competence and consequently exhibit high levels of job engagement and extra-roles.

In Silverthone (2003), high levels of congruence between employees and their roles purportedly improve their satisfaction with those roles and make them inclined to undertaking extra-role responsibilities. Similar findings recorded in Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson (2005) and Robbins (2006) have further confirmed a relationship between person-job-fit and extra-role behaviour. These sources argued that similarities in the competencies and tasks of employees are an indisputable variable in the creation of a committed workforce willing to go the extra mile to make things work. Person-job-fit thus constitutes a major influencer of workplace behaviour in general and extra-role in particular (Rahmadani & Sebayang, 2017). As a key predictor of meaning and purpose, person-job-fit constitutes a critical condition for employees' willingness to engage in actions that advance

the realization of their objectives such as employee work behaviour (Chalofsky, 2003; May, Gilson & Harter, 2004).

According to Yen and Ok (2008), perceptions of fit between employees and jobs result in psychological attachments to jobs and engender employee work behaviour among them. This conclusion has also been observed in the work of Chung and Sackett (2005). A more recent study of the relationship between person-job-fit and extra-role behaviour in the Pakistani banking and telecommunication industries reported in Icheme, Ezenwakwelu and Owuze (2017) presented a positive relationship between the two variables. This study observed a similar conclusion in another study conducted by Kristof-Brown and Guay (2011) where a significantly positive and strong relationship was empirically asserted between perceptions of fit and extra-role conducts among employees. Thus, in Hoffman and Woehr (2006) as well as researchers such as Kristof-Brown and Guay (2011) (2006); Verquer *et al.*, (2003); etc., strong PJF emerged as an important precondition for favourable work attitudes and citizenship behaviours which are necessary for ensuring organizational success. Specifically, citizenship behaviours and intrinsic motivation have been highlighted by Resick, *et al.*, (2013) as two key consequences of PJF that benefit both employees and the organisation. They stated unequivocally that, “people, who perceive a strong sense of fit... tend to be good organizational citizens by regularly engaging in discretionary behaviours that benefit both co-workers and the firm as a whole” (Resick *et al.*, 2013, p. 99).

### ***2.2.2 Person-job-fit, organizational commitment and employee work behaviour***

A lot of confirmatory empirical evidence exists in very early scholarly investigations into the relationship between person-job-fit, organizational commitment and employee work behaviour. Studies such as Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvara (2005); Meyer *et al.*, (2002) as well as Solinger *et al.* (2008) have discovered evidence that confirmed even earlier assumptions that the organizational citizenship behaviour exhibited by employees at the workplace positively correlate with organizational commitment and more so with its affective component in particular. Employee work behaviour dimensions such as help for work colleagues, dissemination of valuable information, overtime, etc. have all been positively linked to especially effective commitments of employees (Solinger *et al.*, 2008). Person-organization fit is, a factor that makes employees more willing to demonstrate their

competence and commitment in a professional context, and finally to show citizenship behaviours (Resick, et al., 2013).

Person-job-fit affects work-related behaviours including extra-role behaviours of employees by increasing their job satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Leng & Chin, 2016). The strong and positive relationship between person-job-fit, organizational commitment and organisational citizenship was confirmed by Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) who applied the theory of work adjustment and concluded that employees who perform better at their jobs, become more committed to the organization and demonstrate more organizational citizenship behaviour depending on the extent of fit that exists between their abilities and the demands of the jobs into which they are recruited. Empirical findings by Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson (2005) indicated that high perceptions of the different dimensions of person-job-fit correlate with the attitudes and behaviours exhibited by employees at the workplace. This includes their identification with and internalization of organizational values (commitment) and their desire to undertake duties and actions that are not formally required of them.

Treating organizational commitment as the mediating variable, Chhabra (2015) found that the extent to which employees develop affective commitments with the organization and are willing to involve in OCBs has been predicted largely by the “interaction or fit” between their competencies, values and goals on the one hand and the specific attributes of their jobs. In Chhabra’s estimation, once perceptions of fit between the “person” and the “job” are adequately high, there is a high propensity that they will be committed to the organization and engage in OCBs. In furtherance of the argument in favour of the correlation between person-job-fit, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour, Chhabra (2015) gave an account of study results compiled from the United States (US). The records revealed that, in that country, perceived person-job-fit determined not only the career choices and attractiveness of firms to prospective employees but also the subsequent job satisfaction, organizational commitment and OCBs of those employees when they eventually joined the organization (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Chhabra, 2015; Saks & Ashforth, 2002). Chhabra (2015) further discussed that those employees whose personalities do not match with the characteristics of the job are less committed and more likely to look for alternative job prospects and hence are less motivated to passionately discharge even their traditional

duties let alone engaging in OCBs. In the absence of PJF, therefore, organizational commitment plummets and citizenship behaviours toward the firm by employees cannot be expected (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). Empirical evidence from these sources thus supports the mediating influence of organizational commitment on the correlation between person-job-fit and all aspects of organizational citizenship behaviour.

Huge perceptions of mismatch between “personal attributes” and job demands have also been attributed to increased levels of dissatisfaction and low levels of commitment among employees. According to Christiansen, Sliter and Frost (2014), this will negatively impact the formation of organizational citizenship behaviour among employees. In addition to the above, Mahdi et al. (2012) has also argued (although generally) that, person-job-fit effectively predicts the workplace behaviours and by extension, OCBs of employees. A strong link between person-job-fit and all aspects of organisational commitment has been empirically espoused by Panaccio and Vandenberghe (2012) with Fornes and Rocco (2004) arguing that such levels of commitment form the basis for the development of organizational citizenship behaviour. A similarly strong argument by Alvino (2014) indicated that organizational citizenship behaviour in the form of employees’ willingness to work overtime without rewards is almost always preceded by a strong psychological attachment and bonding with the firm. In the concluding remarks of Leng and Chin (2016), the researchers observed a strong relationship between employees’ job fit, organizational commitment, intention to stay and most importantly, their likelihood to undertake organizational citizenship behaviour.

### ***2.2.3 Person-job-fit, psychological empowerment and organizational commitment***

Extant literature unanimously agrees on the positive impact exerted by psychological empowerment on the correlation between person-job-fit and organizational commitment. First of all, in investigating the relationship between person-job-fit and organizational commitment, Robbins (2006) outlined and analyzed three key dimensions of person-job-fit: ability, aptitude and interest. The findings were that HR practices that select employees with the required abilities regarding specific roles create feelings of empowerment and ensure that workers develop commitment for the organization. This is because, strong perceptions of empowerment in the area of competence is an indication of a perfect fit between employees and their jobs which is likely to reinforce their commitment levels towards the organization

(Robbins, 2006). Similarly, it has been found that strong perceptions of fairness, equality and justice, which form the basis of psychological empowerment, will impact positively on the relationship between person-job-fit and organizational commitment (Rahmadan & Sebayang, 2017). Considering attitude as a key component of person-job-fit, Robbins (2006) argued that, employees' attitudes and workplace behaviour will be affected significantly by their perceptions of how the organization treats them. Low perceptions of justice coupled with a lack of fit between employees' and organizational values will generate feelings of worthlessness and powerlessness and have negative implications for organizational commitment (Robbins, 2006).

According to Bohlander and Snell (2004), because person-job-fit is primarily aimed at identifying and selecting the most competent fits for selected jobs, employees who lack this fit will also lack psychological empowerment and consequently cannot demonstrate high levels of organizational commitment. This view was shared by Silverthone (2003) who maintained that individuals who fit their jobs usually demonstrate high levels of job satisfaction and employee performance, both of which are key determinants of employee empowerment and commitment. If employees' job expectations and purpose are met through deliberate organizational policies of empowerment, Rahmadan and Sebayang (2017) observed that their satisfaction and commitment levels would be enhanced.

Iqbal and Hashmi (2015) observed that the unique importance of psychological empowerment in all organizations consists in the special role it plays in the development of employees' commitment and their likelihood to engage in future citizenship behaviours. In Abdulrab, Zumrah, Almaamari and Al-Tahitah (2017) and Ameen and Ahmad (2017), psychological empowerment featured prominently as a key enabler of organizational commitment eliciting possible acts of organizational citizenship behaviour among employees. Scholarly research works by Chiang and Hsieh (2012) to understand the nature of influence exerted by psychological empowerment on organizational citizenship behaviour concluded that, employees who demonstrate high levels of fit with their jobs (measured by their job performance, effectiveness and innovativeness) and are more empowered and also engage in organizational citizenship behaviour. The study found strong influences by perceptions of empowerment on employees' ability to perform their jobs well, get committed to their tasks and engage in citizenship behaviours. Further analysis of psychological

empowerment in a moderating capacity between organization and job-fit on one hand and organizational commitment on the other also revealed that job satisfaction is enhanced as a result of perceptions of job-fit which led to significant improvements in organizational commitment and intention to stay (Najafi et al., 2011).

Jha (2014) used psychological empowerment as a moderating construct in exploring the relationship between employees' performance (viewed in terms of job-fit) and their organizational citizenship behaviour. The results were positive. It has also been observed in Tuckey et al. (2012); Van Schalkwyk, Du Toit, Bothma, and Rothmann (2010) as well as Bartram, Karimi, Leggat, and Stanton (2014) that, the positive correlation between person-job-fit and organizational commitment is stronger when employees develop intrinsic motivations as a result of psychological empowerment, leading to they becoming more satisfied with and loyal to their organizations: they become more committed. In organizations where HR practices prioritize person-job-fit, Brouer, Coleman-Gallagher, Sablynski and Wheeler (2007) asserted that psychological empowerment acts as a catalyst to engender feelings of belongingness, ownership and most importantly commitment which leads to further acts of organizational citizenship among employees. They argued that empowerment enhances commitment and reduces employees' turnover intentions. There also exists a multiplicity of research findings in recent years on the role of psychological empowerment in promoting organizational commitment and consequently, organizational citizenship behaviour (e.g., Khajepour, Baharlou, Montakhab Yeganeh & Hashemi, 2016; Qing, Asif, Hussain & Jameel, 2019; Singh & Singh, 2019). Thus, in addition to its ability to improve employees' job satisfaction, job security and remove role ambiguities, psychological empowerment in the presence of proper person-job-fit will significantly enhance employees' engagement, commitment and willingness to engage in organizational citizenship behaviour (Dierendonck & Dijkstra, 2012; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Van Dijke et al., 2012; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

Another study conducted on the relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment by John (2005) cited in Hashmi (2012) indicated that all the elements of organizational commitment were positively associated with employee empowerment. Whenever psychological empowerment improves within the organization, significant improvements in employees' commitment to the objectives and values of the

organisation is observed (Patrick and Laschinger, 2006). In an even more direct correlation, Joo and Shim (2010) concluded that psychological empowerment constitutes a key enabler of commitment among employees. Similarly, the capacity of psychological empowerment to boost organisational commitment at the workplace has also been empirically tested and confirmed by other authors such as Liu and Chiu (2007), Liden et al. (2000), and Vacharakiat (2008). A study to evaluate the extent of correlation between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment found for instance that, perceptions of match or fit between employees and the requirements of their roles accounted for their commitment levels. Even more emphatic was the revelation that, when they (employees) perceived meaning, autonomy and impact (which are core attributes of empowerment), their levels of commitment to their organizations improved significantly (Hashmi, 2012). In the same study, although Hashmi (2012) observed that, high perceptions of competence, skills and the ability to discharge duties as required (person-job-fit) may not independently enhance organizational commitment because employees can transfer such competencies to better-pay jobs. The source indicated however that, when a high sense of psychological empowerment is maintained and employees perceive high impacts, recognition and rewards for their contributions to the organization, their commitment will improve significantly (Hashmi, 2012).

All these studies seem to underscore the fact that, an already positive correlation between PJF, organizational commitment and psychological empowerment will serve as a strong catalyst and moderating variable in reinforcing such relationship and create the necessary preconditions for employees to involve in organizational citizenship behaviour.

#### ***2.2.4 Person-job-fit, job training fit and organisational citizenship behaviour***

In earlier sections of this study, compelling empirical evidence has been adduced in support of the direct correlation between person-job-fit and employees' organizational citizenship behaviour. Further research findings contained in extant literature suggest that the introduction of job training fit as a mediating variable into that relationship reinforces the influence exerted by person-job-fit on OCBs. Specifically, this study discovers as Mathis and Jackson (2003) put it that, in the absence of fit perceptions between employees' competences, abilities and skills and requirements of their jobs, general performance and OCBs, in particular, may suffer. This assertion according to Guan et al. (2010) is heavily supported by

both evidence and theory. Whether viewed from demand or needs perspectives, Guan et al. (2010) maintained that job-training dimension of the fit theory effectively predicts workplace behaviours including, in particular, OCBs.

Other sources including Cable and De Rue (2002); Saks and Ash forth (2002) cited in Bhat (2014) found significant correlations between person-job-fit and OCBs under the mediating influence of job training fit. The combined impacts of person-job-fit and job training fit on the development of OCBs among employees have also been confirmed by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) and Vilela et al. (2008). Again, findings published by Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) have indicated that although the formation of OCBs among employees is more strongly predicted by person-job-fit than job training fit, any further improvements in the latter as part of the relationship will help to create even deeper acts of commitment and OCBs.

As has been suggested in Farzaneh, et al., (2014), high perceptions of PJF and job training fit correlate significantly with all kinds of pro-social attitudes including organizational citizenship behaviour among employees. Thus, as espoused elsewhere in this study, whenever shared similarities exist between peoples' competencies and their jobs, it demonstrates positive implications for OCBs (Vilela et al., 2008). More so, when their training activities are tailored to their job demands, the relationship becomes even stronger and more impactful. The point Vilela et al. (2008) seemed to communicate here is that both dimensions of fit perceptions (Person-job and Job Training) are effectively associated with extra-role behaviours, especially organizational citizenship behaviour. It must be noted that findings such as the above abound in extant literature to the extent that, several scholars concluded that most dimensions of OCBs originate from proper fits between employees and the jobs assigned to them (Kim et al., 2013; Wat & Shaffer, 2005). According to these sources, when these employees further receive training that suits their job requirements, their OCBs are improved significantly.

Arguing based on the fit theory, Farzaneh et al. (2014) opined that, specific workplace behaviours are created among employees depending on the nature of interactions that occur between these employees and their environments. And if it holds that employees' behaviours are predicted by their assessments of the work environment, then, it follows those perceptions

of fit concerning their jobs and the kind of training provided to them will influence their organisational citizenship behaviour (Hamid & Yahya, 2011).

In their attempt to highlight the significant role played by job training fit on the relationship between PJF and OCBs, Delbridge and Keenoy (2010); Bhat (2013); Diamantidis and Chatzoglou (2012) emphasized that, although prospective employees may be recruited initially based on high standards of fit between their competencies and the job requirements (PJF), HR practices must focus on the provision of training programmes that continuously fine-tune their skills and knowledge in line with changing role and organizational demands. When this is done, employees' abilities, their levels of empowerment and commitment will improve along with their willingness to engage in citizenship behaviours that further the interests of the organization (Ibid). As hinted previously, PJF is essential for the development of any acts of extra-role behaviours among employees but a genuine commitment to providing training programs that fit their specific job requirements will further boost OCBs (Obisi, 2011). According to Yevugah and Caesar (2018), job training fit does not only help employees to better comprehend what is expected of them and enhance corporate performance but also predisposes them to acts of organizational citizenship such as helping their colleagues to grasp the nuances of their roles as well as to develop their competence. It is essential for the development of employees' innovativeness, commitment and willingness to go that extra mile to improve organisational fortunes (Acton & Golden, 2003; Karia & Ahmad, 2000).

### **2.3 Gaps in the literature**

Despite the extensive research undertaken to understand organizational citizenship behaviour, its antecedents and impact on corporate performance, significant gaps still exist in many aspects. First of all, it has been observed that virtually all extant literature on the relationship between person-job-fit, job training fit and employee work performance has ignored the important role of contingent factors like environmental fit. Also, extant literature has ignored employees' personality parameters such as openness to novel experience which attribute may be indispensable in shaping their in-role and extra-role performance. There is a gap in understanding how the elements of fit reflect this valuable quality of employees which can enhance their suitability for key roles and improve their sense of empowerment as well as predispose them to work behaviours that advance organizational objectives.

Another issue of concern which has been observed in the course of this review relates to the fact that, although evidence abounds in support of the influence exerted by person-job-fit, job training fit and the moderating roles of organizational commitment, psychological empowerment and environmental fit, none of the reviewed inquiries explored the combined impact of the predictors on both in-role and extra-role behaviours. This research does not focus on only the extra-role performance of the employee but also on the specifically assigned responsibility of the employee. This enables the study to explore the relative importance of these predictors when it comes to in-role performance versus extra-role performance.

## **2.4 Theoretical perspectives**

Researchers have adopted different theories to understand employees' behaviours. Some have employed the theory of work adjustment to explain that, PJF, for instance, leads to higher commitments and job performance (Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1968) while others relied on role congruity theory or the social exchange theory to make similar claims (Barrett, 1978; Edwards, 1991). The researcher makes use of the Social Exchange Theory (SET) and the Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) as the theoretical foundation of the study. The following sub-section, therefore, delves into the details of the two theories including their meaning, key assumptions as well as their relevance to citizenship behaviours among employees within organizational setups. It seeks to also adduce evidence to underscore how the SET and TWA explain the complex relationships that exist among the independent, moderating and dependent variables explored in the study.

### **2.4.1 Social exchange theory (SET)**

Social Exchange Theory (SET) has been one of the most pervasive theoretical perspectives employed by researchers in understanding and explaining employees' organisational or workplace behaviours across industries and fields (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). It has been applied to the study of a plethora of organisational constructs including employees' engagement, organisational commitment, positive and negative workplace behaviours, psychological empowerment of employees, etc. Researchers over the decades have unanimously attributed the progress and development of the social exchange theory to the works of Blau, (1964); Homans, (1961); Thibaut and Kelley, (1959) who opined that all

human relationships may be explained or evaluated from either a benefit or cost perspective. Thus, to these scholars, people commit to relationships based on their assessments of expected benefits or costs emanating from those relationships (Lambe, Wittmann & Spekman, 2001). With this assumption, the SET maintains that in every social exchange relationship, people will seek to maximize their benefits and minimize costs as far as possible and the greater the benefits, the more likely they are to increase their commitments (Blau, 1964; Cook & Yamagishi, 1983; Homans, 1961; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). What this implies is that long term relationships are only possible for as long as the benefits (as expected) to each party in the relationship exceed the costs.

West and Turner (2007) argued that, between rewards (benefits) and costs, humans will always seek benefits and avoid costs in social relationships. They will do whatever it takes to optimize benefits in terms of those things that give them happiness, value or enhance their status at the expense of losses (Helm, Rolfes & Günter, 2006). According to Gardner, Paul, & Patel, 1995, p. 187), this assumption views humans generally as selfish actors in social relationships who “will attempt to control their environments to achieve specific objectives” to maximize the benefits. It is an assumption which explains social relationships in terms of the exchanges inherent in those relationships without which long term commitments are not possible. It is referred to as the human nature approach.

The second approach to explaining the social exchange theory deviates from the exchange of economic benefits and views social relationships in terms of the nature and quality of relationships (Yang, Chiu, Tzeng, & Yeh, 2008). This approach maintains that social relationships are to be perceived as mutually interdependent interactions based on the principle of reciprocity. In this sense, human relationships may be explained as a chain of interactions that creates obligations which are interdependent in nature (Blau, 1964). Thus, the actions of either party to the relationship are contingent on the favourable actions of the other: a certain “rule of reciprocity”. This assumption sees each party to a social relationship as either a giver or receiver. As rational beings, West and Turner (2007) maintained that either party only feels a sense of obligation to reciprocate or fully commit to the relationship if they perceive some benefits in doing so. Again, where there are perceptions of only costs and losses without benefits or something of value to either party, individuals will not be motivated enough to commit to a relationship. The point of divergence between this

assumption and earlier approaches to the study of organizational behaviour consists in the fact that “value” or “benefit” as used here is not limited to economic exchanges in the form of money or other tangible gains. Benefits may come in the form of intangible social capital such as respect, prestige, etc. (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Thus, employees in addition to (or instead of) economic gains receive social and emotional benefits from the organization which they feel obliged to repay with their commitment, loyalty and citizenship behaviours. Karatepe (2012) for instance held the opinion that providing the kind of training that directly relates to the job requirements of employees is imperative in the attempt to win their commitment (whether emotional, physical or cognitive) and causes them to engage in citizenship behaviours. The assertion of Karatepe (2012) indicates that any significant improvement in both aspects of fit namely PJF and JTF will cause a corresponding improvement in employees’ perceptions of empowerment and enhance their commitment to the organization and ultimately predispose them to organizational citizenship behaviours.

When applied to relational behaviours in business organizations, the social exchange theory represents a trade-off between employees’ efforts and commitment on the one hand, and the benefits (both economic and social) they derive in return on the other hand (Blau, 1964). The implication is that employees will be willing to commit fully to the organization and even engage in citizenship behaviours that will advance the prospects of the organization if they perceive some benefits for engaging in such acts. According to Gouldner (1960), when the firm treats its employees properly, they (employees) feel a sense of obligation to “return the favour” in line with the rule of reciprocity. Therefore, employees who develop high perceptions of organizational support, empowerment (measured in terms of their involvement in decision making and autonomy, etc.), recognition and many others are more likely to develop effectively or at worst, continual commitment for the organization and engage in various acts of citizenship behaviours to “repay” these benefits (Chou, 2016). Social exchange theory assumes that when employees receive proper care by the firms for which they work, a strong relationship of mutual interdependence will develop between these employees and the organization (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

In their study of the correlation between selected social exchange constructs and the development of organizational citizenship behaviour, Ahmadi, Forouzandeh & Kahreh (2010) found that commitment to duty and the willingness to undertake citizenship

behaviours were more prevalent among employees with high levels of perceived organizational support than otherwise. Having defined organisational support in terms of the importance attached by firms to their employees' involvement in corporate processes, their roles and worth, their training and skills acquisition as well as their general welfare, the study concludes that high perceptions of organisational support will trigger obligations of reciprocal attitudes in the form of citizenship behaviours among employees (Ahmadi et al., 2010). A second social exchange construct, distributive justice, has also been observed to have strong correlations with citizenship behaviours by the same researchers.

In agreement with Greenberg (1990), Ahmadi et al. (2010) argued that, aside organizational support, high perceptions of justice regarding the distribution of roles, rewards, promotions and other benefits within an organization can influence the development of commitment and citizenship behaviours among employees. In particular, Ahmadi et al. (2010) were of the view that fair deployment of employees' appropriate roles (PJF) and the provision of training programmes that sharpen their skills to become better at what they do (job training fit) as well as the adoption of mechanisms that empower them psychologically will help to engender citizenship behaviours among them towards the organization. Consequently, perceptions of mismatch between employees' roles and their qualifications; between their roles and training; and a lack of empowerment will lead to low levels of commitment and little or no desire to engage in extra-role activities (Artis, 2007). In furtherance of this correlation, extant literature indicates that the kind of workplace experiences provided by organizations will determine employees' perceptions of fairness or justice regarding the exchanges that occur (Ahmadi et al., 2010).

When the exchanges are reasonably fair, employees demonstrate great affective commitments which further result in acts of OCBs (Ahmadi et al., 2010). Otherwise, their commitment and subsequent citizenship behaviours to the organization will plummet. This argument has been empirically supported by Jahangir, Akbar and Haq (2004) who made similar observations and conclusions on the role of justice or fairness in promoting OCBs. The findings listed herein support a certain argument that the development of long-term commitments among employees and their organizational citizenship behaviour is largely dependent upon "social" rather than "economic" benefits (Cho & Johnson, 2008; Organ, 1990). While observing very strong and positive correlations between social exchanges and

organizational citizenship behaviour such as altruism, Shore et al. (2006) found no correlations between economic exchanges and OCBs. This reinforces previous arguments and falls in line with new findings that, the social exchange theory explains organizational citizenship behaviour.

Kim, Aryee, Loi, and Kim (2013) studied the antecedents of OCBs in South Korea and they found that the relationship between aspects of person organization fit which include job fit and OCBs were mediated by perceptions of employees regarding their social engagements with the firm. The implication of this finding for businesses is that they can improve OCBs by adopting HR practices that ensure a match or fit between the values and objectives of employees and those of the organization as well as between employees' competencies and qualifications, and the roles into which they are recruited (Kim et al., 2013). Also, a study conducted in Norway by Redmond (2013) concluded with empirical evidence that, the association between the firm's competency model and OCBs was effectively mediated by perceptions of social exchange among employees while economic exchanges exerted no influences.

Observations contained in the study conducted by Jiang and Law (2013) showed significant mediating influences by the social exchange on the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behaviour at the individual level in terms of altruism and courtesy. Similar discussions have been observed from Kuvaas and Dysvik (2009) who argued based on empirical findings that organizational citizenship behaviour among casual workers was influenced by their perceptions regarding how permanent employees were treated by the organization. By implication, whether or not these temporal employees will develop any interests (commitments) at all to work for the organization will depend on their perceptions of justice and exchanges "enjoyed" by the permanent employees (Kuvaas & Dysvik 2009). Elstad, Christophersen, and Turmo (2011) have also studied teachers' organizational citizenship behaviour concerning social exchanges in Norway and made observations that are similar to the above findings in all aspects.

#### ***2.4.2 Theory of work adjustment (TWA)***

The theory of work adjustment attempts to explain the interrelatedness between employees and their job environments and to predict their retention decisions (Dahling & Librizzi, 2014;

Swanson & Schneider, 2020). It has been traditionally attributed to René Dawis, George England and Lloyd Lofquist based on the Work Adjustment Project which was carried out at the University of Minnesota in 1964. At the heart of the theory is the assumption that employees commit to their jobs and perform better when there is a high level of congruence between their skills, competence, knowledge, etc. and their job requirements (Dawis, 2004). The congruence job-skill-environment congruence produces satisfied employees who become committed to the organisation. The job-work environment fit also lead to engagement in organisational citizenship behaviours. When the physical and psychological needs of the employee is met, TWA argues that they become more willing to engage in extra-role activities to the benefit of the organization (Bayl-Smith & Griffin, 2018; Dahling and Librizzi, 2015). TWA also highlights the mediating role of organisational commitment in the relationship between PJF and OCB.

The TWA theory thus maintains that the work environment offers diverse kinds of patterns of reinforcement that may interfere with the needs of an employee or their abilities. In the event of harmony between an individual and the work environment, satisfaction ensues leading to stability in the behaviour and conduct of the employee (Bayl-Smith & Griffin, 2018). It assumes also that, when perceptions of rewards or benefits attached to employees' jobs are closely related to their needs, goals and values, they feel more satisfied and are likely to get committed to their work and organisation. In explaining the theory of work adjustment, Dahling and Librizzi (2014) stated that it analyzes the extent to which the two dimensions of PJF namely needs-supplies fit and demands-abilities fit will determine the retention attitudes of employees. The fit between abilities and demands explains the connection between employees' skills and competence on one hand and what the job requires them to do on the other hand (Dahling & Librizzi, 2014; Swanson & Schneider, 2020). Whereas the needs-supplies fit view explains the correlation between employees' needs or values and what their job offers to them, the abilities-demands fit explain there is some kind of adjustment between the employee and the organisation to the extent that, there exists a match between each of the pairs above, employees will enjoy satisfaction, be committed and willing to stay as well as engage in organisational citizenship behaviour. Consequently, employees will not only stay in a job when their needs are met as it serves a source of motivation; they will equally be engaged in behaviours that promote the growth and welfare of the organization in the long term.

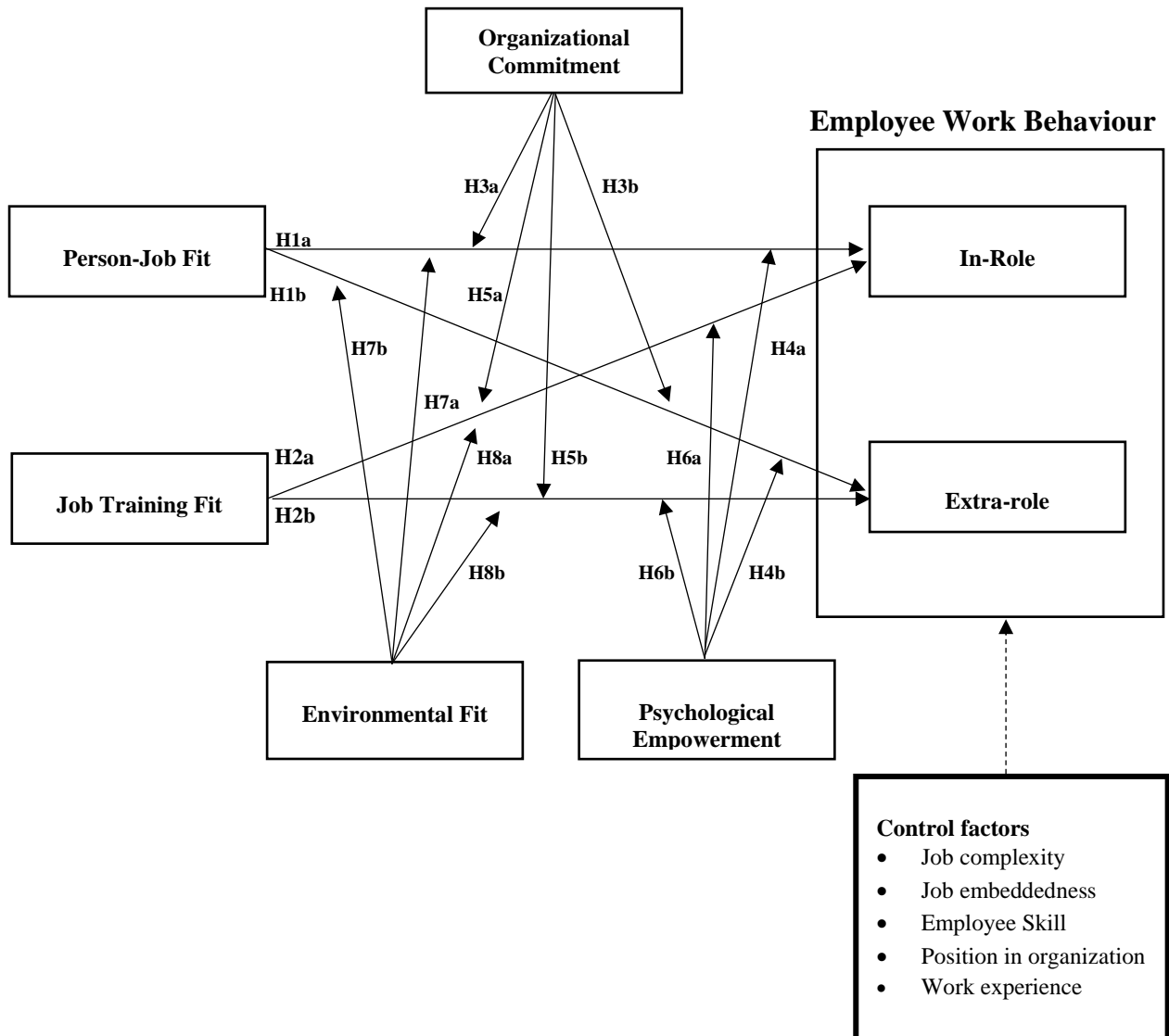
In its application to workplace turnover, work-related behaviours and career decisions, shortcomings of the TWA theory are glaring within the literature (Bayl-Smith & Griffin, 2018; Skinner, 1993). For instance, Bayl-Smith and Griffin (2018) argues that previous studies applying the TWA ignored adaptive and proactive behaviours which may be found among employees. This is because these categories of behaviours are considered as positive and helpful to the organization. In essence, the TWA is overly subscribed to studies that largely focus on negative workplace behaviours such as Counterproductive Work Behaviours (referred to as CWBs hereafter). Dawis (2005) maintains that some of the shortcomings of the TWA is due to inconsistencies regarding constructs such as satisfaction. Despite the litany of limitations, the TWA still remains one of the most popular work adjustment theories as its dimensions are highly inclined to quantitative empirical testing. According to Swanson and Schneider (2020), TWA has been one of the most widely employed theories in explaining the two types of fit within organizations because it offers significant guidelines in fostering job satisfaction and commitment among employees. Among the values identified by Dawis (2005) as re-enforcers of satisfaction, commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour among employees were altruism and autonomy which, as espoused earlier, are in line with dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviour; and achievement and status which effectively align with task identification and recognition aspects of psychological empowerment respectively. The observed relationship with the thesis here is that the theory of work adjustment explains the correlation between PJF on one hand and psychological empowerment as well as organizational citizenship behaviour on another.

Cable and DeRue (2002) cited in Dahling and Librizzi (2014) for instance relied on TWA and observed empirically that, employees will most likely expend their energy, become fully committed and satisfied with their job environment and engage in extra-role activities only if they perceive that the organization in general and their jobs, in particular, support the realization of their physical and psychological needs. Researchers including Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson (2005); Wang, Zhan, Mccune and Truxillo (2011) have tested the correlation between the needs-supplies fit dimension of PJF and found that it is positively associated with employees' job satisfaction, commitment and their willingness to demonstrate citizenship behaviours. The significance of the Theory of Work Adjustments in the context of this study consists in the observation that, it underpins the relationship between the various dimensions of fit, namely, person-job and JTF and the development of

organizational citizenship behaviour among employees. Aside that, it also helps in understanding the important role played by PJF in ensuring organizational commitment towards the enhancement of citizenship behaviours among employees (Swanson & Schneider, 2020). The Theory of work Adjustments highlights the mediating role of organizational commitment in the correlation between PJF and organizational citizenship behaviour. Finally, as indicated above, TWA explains that, key aspects of psychological empowerment such as task identification and employee recognition effectively moderate the ability of PJF to create and enhance organizational commitment and create the preconditions for organizational citizenship behaviour to occur among employees.

**2.5 Conceptual model, discussion of and presentation of hypotheses**

Figure 2: Conceptual model



## **2.6 Discussion and presentation of hypotheses**

Figure 2 shows the conceptual model which was tested quantitatively. The independent variables in the study include job training fit (JTF) and person job fit (PJF). The moderating variables include organizational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment. It is expected that the independent and moderating factors will impact positively on employee work behaviour. In this study, the PJF is said to exist when the peculiar characteristics of an individual match that of a particular job (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019; Beasley, Jason & Miller, 2012). It arises under two notable conditions. For instance, when the individual shares the same value as their work environment – supplementary; or when both the individual and environment meet the needs of each other – complementary (Beasley, Jason & Miller, 2012). On the other hand, employee behaviour in the current study is conceptualized to entail in-role and extra-role performance where the former concerns the core behavioural pattern expected of individuals with regards to the primary demands of their job and the latter mirrors the attitude expectations that are external to the job (Zhu, 2013).

### ***2.6.1 Person-job-fit and employee work behaviour***

First, the conceptual model hypothesizes a direct relationship between PJF and employee work behaviour. In this study, employee performance has been delineated into in-role employee performance and extra-role employee behaviour. This study defines person job-fit as the congruence that exists between the characteristics (such as skills, competence, ability, knowledge) of an individual and requirements of the jobs they are expected to perform at work (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Lee, Reiche & Song 2010). As has been espoused in previous sections, extensive empirical evidence based on extant literature supports the assumption that PJF will correlate favourably with the development of the role and extra-role performance of employees at the workplace. Rahmadani and Sebayang (2017) found PJF to be effectively associated with employee performance. They adduced specific evidence to emphasize the point that, low levels of PJF will have significant negative implications for performance among employees. Secondly, findings from Bohlander and Snell (2004) as well as Hamid and Yahya (2011) have also indicated the existence of strong correlations between perceptions of PJF and employees' willingness to perform their assigned duties and other extra organizational roles. According to their arguments, these researchers asserted that a fit between employees' qualifications or the competence and what is required of them ensures

that they grasp the nuances of their jobs and cause them to fully engage in their roles and citizenship acts. Also, the existence of congruence between workers and their roles (PJF) was found to exert significant influences on extra employee behaviour by Silverthone (2003) albeit through job satisfaction. The foregoing empirical observations have been confirmed in several other studies including Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson (2005) and Robbins (2006) who based on their results, considered PJF as an indispensable variable in the creation of a committed workforce which is willing to go the extra mile to make things work. Chalofsky (2003); May, Gilson and Harter (2004) have also studied the relationship and found significant evidence in the affirmative. The researcher observed similar conclusions in Yen and Ok (2008) who confirmed a link between PJF and the tendency of employees to develop strong psychological bonds with the organisation and make them able to perform their required roles (Chung & Sackett, 2005). The correlation between PJF and in-role and extra-role behaviours was strongly advocated and empirically supported by Icheme, Ezenwakwelu and Owuze (2017) in their study of selected banks and telecommunication companies in Pakistan as well as in Kristof-Brown and Guay (2011) who concluded that perceptions of fit correlate with employees' extra-role behaviours. Among the critical factors which explain employees' workplace behaviours and citizenship conducts, Hoffman and Woehr (2006); Verquer et al. (2003) prioritized the unique influence of PJF and asserted that it also exerts significant impacts on firm performance and success. Perhaps, the most profound statement in support of the nexus between PJF and organizational citizenship behaviour was what has been observed in Resick et al. (2013, p. 99) that "people, who perceive a strong sense of fit... tend to be good organisational citizens by regularly engaging in discretionary behaviours that benefit both co-workers and the firm as a whole"

Aside the above empirical findings in support of the argument, basic assumptions of the social exchange theory have also lent extensive credence to the correlation assumed in the conceptual framework. As has been hinted earlier, high perceptions of distributive justice (the fair allocation of roles, rewards, etc.) have the propensity of influencing employees' commitment to their jobs and the organization and can affect their ability to perform assigned roles significantly (Ahmadi et al., 2010). In line with the social exchange theory, Artis (2007) observed a decline in the extra-role behaviours of employees in response to perceptions of mismatch between their abilities, skills and the roles into which they were deployed.

The theory of work adjustment also contributes to understanding this relationship by asserting that, employees perform their assigned tasks and other extra duties based on their perceptions on whether a fit exists between both aspects of PJF namely needs-supplies and abilities-demands (Dahling & Librizzi, 2014). This implies a direct correlation between PJF and employees' in-role and extra-role behaviours. Considering the extent and strength of these findings and arguments the researcher hypothesized that:

*H1a: There is a positive relationship between person-job fit and in-role performance of employees*

*H1b: There is a positive relationship between person-job fit and extra-role performance of employees*

### **2.6.2 Job training fit and employee work behaviours**

The second relationship depicted in the conceptual model relates to the correlation between job training fit and employee work behaviour. Job training fit is used in the study to refer to the capacity of an employee training program to enhance the expertise, behaviours of employees and to motivate them to satisfy their job demands (Yevugah & Caesar, 2018).

In the empirical evidence provided by Mathis and Jackson (2003) for instance, a lack of fit between an organization's training activities and employees' job characteristics will significantly diminish the positive impacts of PJF on in-role and extra-role performance of the employee. As stated earlier, job training fit has been acknowledged as a strong predictor of workers' in-role behaviour in general and extra-role behaviour in particular (Guan et al., 2010). It is important to state that, job training fit has been observed to be capable of enhancing the development of higher employee performance by Kristof-Brown et al., (2005) and Vilela et al., (2008). Additional investigations by Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) found the effects of PJF to be stronger on extra-role behaviour than the impact of job training fit.

This review also discovered that researchers have posited based on supporting evidence that, despite the acknowledgement of the potential of PJF to foster role and extra-role behaviour among employees, provision of further training to bring their skills closer to the requirements of their roles is important in extending their performance at the workplace (Bhat, 2013; Delbridge & Keenoy, 2010; Diamantidis & Chatzoglou, 2012).

According to Obisi (2011), one effective way to improve the impact of PJF on the development of the role and extra-role employee performance is for organizations to provide training that suits the specific requirements of employees' jobs. Yevugah and Caesar (2018) have also made related conclusions regarding the relationship between job training fit and extra-role behaviours. This study maintains this assertion and consequently seeks to find out the extent to which this is the case in the Ghanaian ceramic industry. The social exchange theory confirms this relationship by holding that, organizations which are supportive of employees' career development through the provision of relevant training experience higher levels of employee performance than those that do not (Ahmadi et al., 2010). As has been explained elsewhere, this follows the principle of reciprocity and psychological contract which underlie the social exchange theory. The researcher hypothesized therefore that:

*H2a: There is a positive relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of employees*

*H2b: There is a positive relationship between job training fit and extra-role performance of employees*

### ***2.6.3 The moderating role of organizational commitment to the relationship between person-job-fit and employee work behaviour***

The conceptual model also assumes that organisational commitment will moderate the relationship between PJF and employee work behaviour. Empirical evidence holds that most of the in-role and extra-role performance of the employees at the workplace is facilitated by their commitment to the organization (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvara, 2005; Meyer et al., 2002; Solinger et al. 2008). Solinger et al. (2008) for instance have established some correlations between employees' affective commitment and acts of extra work (such as OCB which may be displayed as altruism, overtime without pay and the dissemination of information). The moderating influence of organisational commitment on the relationship between PJF and employee work behaviour has received some levels of research (e.g., Resick, et al. 2013; Leng & Chin, 2016).

Similar arguments regarding the relationship between PJF, organizational commitment and employee work performance were made by Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001). Applying the theory of work adjustment, they asserted that, employees' performance, commitment and consequently their role and extra-role behaviours will increase in proportion to their

perceptions of fit between what they can do and what is required of them. In their study of the different aspects of PJF, Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson (2005) concluded PJF relating to workplace attitudes including employees' performance through organizational commitment was measured in terms of their willingness to identify the firm and internalize its values. It was observed also that, when Chhabra (2015) employed organizational commitment in a moderating capacity to investigate its impact on the correlation between PJF and organisational citizenship behaviour, the finding indicated that, effective commitments among employees developed concerning perceptions of fit between their competencies, values and goals on the one hand and the specific attributes of their jobs. What this means is that the affective component of organizational commitment will effectively moderate the relationship between PJF and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Thus, employees will become more committed and more willing to undertake organizational citizenship behaviour once they perceive high levels of fit with regards to their skills and jobs. Reports from the US recorded earlier in this study have also confirmed the relationship between person-job-fit, organizational commitment and extra-role performance of the employee (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Chhabra, 2015; Saks & Ashforth, 2002) cited in Chhabra (2015). Low levels of organisational commitment according to Chhabra therefore will adversely affect the strong and positive relationship between PJF and employee performance and vice versa. Attributing low levels of organizational commitment among employees to high perceptions of mismatch between personal attributes and job requirements, Christiansen, Sliter and Frost (2014) asserted a corresponding negative implication for the enhancement of performance of employees. Another empirical evidence in support of the moderating influence of organizational commitment on the relationship between PJF and organizational citizenship behaviour was what Panaccio and Vandenberghe (2012) asserted in their work when they found significant correlations between all components of commitment and PJF. Further arguments suggested that such levels of commitment as observed by Panaccio and Vandenberghe (2012) are necessary for generating positive work behaviours among employees (Fornes & Rocco, 2004).

Findings by Swanson and Schneider (2013) based on the assumptions of the theory of work adjustment concluded with the argument that, PJF in all its aspects is responsible for the loyalty and commitment of employees to their organizations and can lead to the extra-role

performance of employees. Again, Dawis (2005) explained the origins of extra-role in terms of the relationship between PJF, organizational commitment and employees' willingness to perform mandatory, extra-role responsibilities.

Based on the foregoing arguments adduced, the researcher hypothesized that:

***H3a: The relationship between person-job fit and in-role employee performance will be stronger if the organizational commitment is high rather than low.***

***H3b: The relationship between person-job fit and extra-role employee performance will be stronger if an organizational commitment is high rather than low.***

#### ***2.6.4 The moderating role of psychological empowerment on the relationship between person-job-fit and employee work behaviour***

Another observable relationship portrayed in the conceptual model is the assumption that the relationship between PJF and employee work behaviour will be moderated by psychological empowerment. By implication, the model asserts that, when there is psychological empowerment of employees, PJF will create higher levels of achievement of role and extra-roles among employees towards the organisation. Having conceptualized psychological empowerment as representing an individual's experience of intrinsic motivation based on cognitions about him or herself concerning his or her work role (Spreitzer, 2007), the researcher discovered empirical evidence to support the correlation between PJF and work behaviour under the moderating influence of psychological empowerment. Robbins (2006) conducted an inquiry into the relationship between PJF and employment achievement of role and extra-roles and discovered that PJF improved feelings of empowerment and resulted in high levels of positive employee behaviours towards the organization. He insisted also that, the workplace behaviours of employees are mostly influenced by their perceptions of justice (psychological empowerment).

Also, low perceptions of justice coupled with a lack of fit between employees' and organizational values will generate feelings of worthlessness and powerlessness and have negative implications for organizational commitment and vice versa (Robbins, 2006). It has been found by Rahmadani and Sebayang (2017) also that, with the existence of psychological empowerment in the form of high perceptions of fairness, equality and justice, the correlation between PJF and work behaviour becomes stronger. Also, if psychological empowerment is

provided to employees through a fit between their jobs and respective competencies, organisational commitment among them will significantly increase. According to Bohlander and Snell (2004), psychological empowerment is partially predicated upon PJF and has the impact of creating organizational commitment among employees leading to their demonstration of positive work behaviours from employees. The point was also made in Silverthone (2003) to the effect that, PJF leads to high levels of job satisfaction and performance among employees and that these two variables constitute key antecedents of employee empowerment and commitment.

Theoretically, the application of the social exchange theory suggests that employees will trade their responsibilities in exchange for cognitions of empowerment based on the rule of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). This view is supported by Chou (2016) who argued on the back of the social exchange theory that, high perceptions of empowerment among employees in terms of their involvement in decision making, autonomy and the level of recognition given to their contributions will correlate effectively with their engagement in in-role and extra-role behaviours. Again, according to the social exchange theory, the provision of psychological empowerment to employees by their organizations will generate a corresponding psychological contract between the two and consequently oblige employees to reciprocate the favour with their undivided citizenship behaviour (Ahmadi et al., 2010). Conversely, the lack of empowerment signified by feelings of exclusion and ingratitude will adversely affect employees' commitment levels. Following the social exchange theory therefore, they will respond by withdrawing or withholding not only their commitment but also their citizenship behaviours (Artis, 2007). Similarly, in the exchange relationship between employees and the organization, social exchange theory dictates that, when perceptions of justice which is at the core of psychological empowerment are high, employees develop a high sense of commitment towards the firm, are willing to stay longer and engage in citizenship behaviours.

In the course of this study, the observation was also made concerning the moderating influence of some critical components of psychological empowerment on the relationship between PJF and extra-role performance. Specifically, Dawis (2005) suggested the existence of an association between individual values of status and achievement which measure psychological empowerment and the extent of employees' involvement in the extra-role

performance. This is indicative of the acknowledgement that, PJF acts through the moderating influence of psychological empowerment to enhance the role and extra-role behaviour among workers.

These findings and related arguments led the researcher to hypothesize that,

*H4a: The relationship between person-job fit and in-role employee performance will be stronger if psychological empowerment is high rather than low.*

*H4b: The relationship between person-job fit and extra-role employee performance will be stronger if psychological empowerment is high rather than low.*

#### ***2.6.5 The moderating role of organizational commitment on the relationship between job training fit and employee work behaviour***

The study underscores that job training fit will impact on work behaviour when organizational commitment remains higher on the part of the employees. Organizational commitment in this study is understood to mean an individual's psychological bond to the organisation, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty, and belief in the values of the organisation (O'Reilly, 1989). Meanwhile, several empirical findings have supported the positive relationship between organizational commitment and the development of work behaviours among employees towards the firm. Some researchers including Wat and Shaffer (2005) cited in Farzaneh et al., (2014) for instance have argued on the back of compelling evidence that, most work behaviours arise from employees' commitment to work and the organization as a whole. When employees have the required training but are not committed to the course of the organization, their optimal output will be not felt and this invariably impacts negatively on their achievement of extra-roles in the organization.

The organizational commitment remains an important moderating variable considering employees' perceptions of justice and management support as key antecedents of organizational commitment, Farzaneh et al., (2014) maintained that, employees' commitment constitutes a key factor in impacting on some key organizational factors to impact on the role and extra-role behaviours. In their concluding remarks, therefore, Farzaneh et al., (2014) upheld the positive relationship between organizational commitment in general and affective commitment in particular on one hand and extra-role behaviour on the other. Vilela et al. (2008) agreed with this position by referring to organizational commitment as an

affective construct which relates positively with extra work behaviour. The source argued that it is only when employees are fully committed that they become willing to give that extra effort in making their organizations better (Viela et al, 2008).

Based on the review of literature, when committed employees demonstrate high perceptions of trust in and support from their organizations, they are more focused on discovering ways in which they may reciprocate these “benefits”. It is this that leads them to increase their dedication to work and to engage in various forms of citizenship behaviours (Bellini, Ramaci, Bonaiuto, Cubico, Favretto & Johnsen, 2019). The most certain construct that predicts employees’ extra work behaviour according to Ertürk et al. (2004), has been their affective commitment toward the organisation. With high levels of job fit, organizational commitment can impact on work performance rather than the sole contribution of the earlier.

Employing the social exchange theory to advance their argument, Farzaneh et al., (2014) opined that, with the right and needed training, employees interact with their organizations along with the principle of reciprocity with each party religiously committed to fulfilling their obligations, and a strong relationship which transcends the originally agreed role requirements is engendered. According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), such strong relationships create conducive environments for the development of organizational commitment and consequently improves employees’ responsiveness to assigned roles and extra-role behaviours towards the needs of the organization. They are more inclined to sacrifice their efforts, time, expertise, etc. in the form of extra-role behaviour just so that their firms will succeed (Farzaneh et al., 2014). Organizational commitment, therefore, acts to transform hitherto economic exchange relationships between job training fit and employee work performance. Based on the foregoing arguments and evidence, the researcher hypothesized that:

***H5a: The relationship between job training fit and in-role employee performance will be stronger if the organizational commitment is high rather than low.***

***H5b: The relationship between job training fit and extra-role employee performance will be stronger if the organizational commitment is high rather than low.***

### ***2.6.6 The moderating role of psychological empowerment on the relationship between job training fit and employee work behaviour***

The next relationship established in the conceptual model was the moderating role of psychological empowerment on the relationship between job training fit and employee work behaviour. The role played by psychological empowerment is important in enhancing the abilities of the employees after the necessary training has been received. When the training needs in addition to the empowerment of the mind is achieved, the employee gives out his best due to the recognition of the role played by the organization. What this shows is the fact that, in the relationship between job training fit and employee work behaviour, psychological empowerment will act as a catalyst to enhance the strength of that relationship. Similar arguments based on evidence have also been discovered in Abdulrab et al. (2017) concerning the impact of psychological empowerment on the generation and enhancement of organizational commitment. Chiang and Hsieh (2012) investigated the extent of influence exerted by psychological empowerment on role behaviour and concluded that employees with a high sense of job fit experience more empowerment and engage in more citizenship acts than those who do not.

Psychological empowerment has also acted in a moderating capacity to enhance organizational commitment in a study of the correlation between job training fit and commitment (Najafi et al., 2011). Several scholarly types of research indicate that training fit exerts a far stronger influence on role behaviour through psychological empowerment which leads to enhancements in the commitment levels of employees (Bartram et al., 2014; Tuckey et al., 2012); Van Schalkwyk et al., 2010). Where research has established a strong relationship between job training fit and role behaviour, Brouer et al. (2007) argued that psychological empowerment acts as a catalyst to engender feelings of belongingness, ownership and most importantly enhances employees' commitment which leads to further acts of performing assigned and extra duties.

Job training fit in the presence of proper levels of psychological empowerment will significantly enhance employees' engagement, commitment and willingness to engage in the performance of duties (Dierendonck & Dijkstra, 2012; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Van Dijke et al., 2012; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Another observation by John (2005) and related by Hashmi (2012) argued in favour of a positive association between psychological

empowerment and organizational commitment by asserting that, any improvements in psychological empowerment will yield a corresponding increase in employees' commitment to the organisation (Patrick & Laschinger, 2006). These findings strengthen the veracity of conclusions drawn from Liu and Chiu (2007); Liden et al. (2000); Vacharakiat (2008), and Joo and Shim (2010) which have all concerted to the positive relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment.

Based on the foregoing arguments and evidence, the researcher hypothesized that:

***H6a: The relationship between job training fit and in-role employee performance will be stronger if psychological empowerment is high rather than low.***

***H6b: The relationship between job training fit and extra-role employee performance will be stronger if psychological empowerment is high rather than low.***

### ***2.6.7 The moderating role of environmental fit on the relationship between PJF and employee work behaviour.***

Both the empirical and theoretical literature points to an established positive relationship between PJF and employee work behaviour (Beasley, Jason & Miller, 2012). Organizations design jobs and vacancies in ways that demand specific knowledge, skills and abilities from potential applicants. Over the years, the aim is to attract people who possess the specific set of competencies needed to perform the core functions of the job (Schneider, Ehrhart & Macey, 2013; Schneider, 1987). On the flip side, individuals constantly seek to work in-roles where their skills are not only compatible with the primary demands of the job but are capable of meeting specific performance goals. Consequently, people tend to stay in their jobs when their skills match what the organization demands of them and vice versa. The normal practice is for organizations to seek, attract and retain employees whose skill set matches the requirements of the job and fire those unable to perform.

In the job-fit cum employee work behaviour equation, the intervening role of the work environment and its glaring impact on workplace behaviour is often overlooked. When the environment-fit construct is introduced, the complexity and complexion of the relationship changes (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019); prompting the need for further exploration. For instance, a highly competent employee with dynamic problem-solving skills is less likely to perform in their role when the organizational culture is toxic and stifles creativity. In the

same vein, factors such as limited support from supervisors, generational disparities, poor mentorship and lack of training/development are few examples of the many organizational-fit related issues that could negatively impact the in-role and extra-role performance of even highly skilled staff in firms. The logical explanation to this assertion is that, as per the tenets of Schneider (1987) attraction-selection-attrition model, a non-supportive environment is likely to demotivate employees due to the ensuing incongruence they are certain to experience. Barrick and Parks-Leduc (2019) posit that the dampened levels of motivation negatively impact the work behaviour and performance of the employee.

Thus, whereas personal traits, values and motivation level of the employee is a good predictor of performance and workplace behaviour, the contextual influence from the workplace environment should not be ignored (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019; Van Loon, Vandenaabeele & Leisink, 2017). In most cases, the environment may either enhance employee work behaviour or undermine it. Stone et al. (2019) concluded that aside the indirect influence on job satisfaction, environmental-fit directly impacts organizational citizenship behaviours among employees. Based on the above review, the researcher hypothesizes that:

***H7a: The relationship between person-job fit and in-role employee performance will be stronger if the environmental fit is high rather than low.***

With more recent conceptualizations of environmental fit, the new normal is to recruit individuals having a multi-faceted set of skills that could be exploited by the organisation for OCB orientation while remaining competitive (Morgan & Barrick, 2017). The manifestation of OCB and other extra-role behaviours among employees is highly dependent on the degree of compatibility between them and the work environment. In a properly structured and well-manicured work environment, employees are naturally willing to put in extra effort (exhibit non-core work behaviours) in the discharge of their duties to meet overall organisational goals. For instance, Turner (2020) posits that supportive leadership and supervisory orientation within the cultural fabric of an organisation creates a fertile atmosphere for the nurturing of extra-role behaviours among employees. In the health sector, Salanova et al. (2011) found that transformational leadership culture within an organization is likely to enhance extra-role performance among nurses as it encourages individual development of skills and intensifies task engagement. This suggests that the extent of compatibility between

individual employees and the climate of their work environment is critical to either the facilitation or undermining of extra-role performance.

It is also evident in the extant literature that the orientation and style of leaders ultimately determines the organizational climate and culture. The Upper Echelons Theory (Abatecola & Cristofaro, 2018) for instance points to a significant correlation between background characteristics of senior managers and firm outcomes. In line with this thought of reasoning, Paillé et al. (2014) posit that the strategic direction provided by senior managers moderates the effect of HR practices on organizational citizenship behaviours. They further argued that employees will care about the environment when senior managers take the initiative. Once again, this shows how employees cannot escape the effect of what happens in their work environment; and also highlights the intervening role of organization-fit in the relationship between PJF and extra-role performance. Based on the above review, the researcher hypothesizes that:

***H7b: The relationship between person-job fit and extra-role employee performance will be stronger if the environmental fit is high rather than low.***

#### ***2.6.8 The moderating role of environmental fit on the relationship between job training fit and employee work behaviour***

Training is a monumental construct within the human resource and organisational psychology literature for many reasons (Bhat & Rainayee, 2019; Esteban-Lloret, Aragón-Sánchez & Carrasco-Hernández, 2018). This is due largely in part to the huge cost implications it has for the budget of organizations. This has shifted increased attention to the concept of JTF which refers to the compatibility or congruence between the training an employee is given and the skills required to perform in a particular role. Specifically, Yevugah and Caesar (2018, p.112) define JTF as “*the capacity of an employee training program to enhance the expertise, behaviour and motivation of employees to satisfy their job demands*”. The costs implications of employee training mean organizations are now more interested in providing job-specific training to their employees to enable them to meet the core skill demands of their respective jobs (Brown & Sitzmann, 2011; Esteban-Lloret, Aragón-Sánchez & Carrasco-Hernández, 2018). Work-related training has a positive impact on the performance of employees as it motivates them to be creative and innovative. Yevugah

and Caesar (2018) emphasized that organizations that want to improve personnel creativity and performance must provide job-specific training to their staff.

Aside the testing of the causal link between JTF and employee work behaviour, the current study is also interested in examining the moderating role of environmental-fit. Providing job-specific training to employees may only help them to an extent to perform the core and peripheral duties connected to their job roles. Certain organizational factors within the working environment tend to influence the behaviour and subsequently the performance of employees. For instance, the organizational culture and leadership style represent aspects of the working environment that could potentially influence the performance and behaviour of the skillful employee. Thus, whereas an employee may be competent for a particular job, a non-supportive working environment coupled with a redundant leadership style will likely result in counterproductive work behaviours and decreased performance. For instance, the transformational leadership style could help improve the performance of employees as it encourages intellectual stimulation and creativity among employees (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Mittal & Dhar, 2015). In the same vein, an organizational culture that promotes learning and creativity among employees encourages work commitment, OCB behaviour and eventually impacts performance (Laforet, 2016). Based on the above review, the researcher hypothesizes that;

***H8a: The relationship between job training fit and in-role employee performance will be stronger if the environmental fit is high rather than low.***

Employees are given specific training to enable them to perform not only the core duties connected to their workplace role but to also play pro-social roles that are collectively referred to as Organizational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs). The mechanism through which environmental fit intervenes in the relationship between JTF and extra-role of the employee is captured to an extent in the extant literature. For example, Stone et al. (2019) posit that by providing specialized training to employees on the values and culture of the organization, employers may succeed in influencing extra-role work behaviours. Such pieces of training practically clone employees according to the pattern of the organization's culture and over time, through a subtle workplace socialization process and psychological empowerment (Farzaneh, et. al., 2014), they tend to act in ways that mirror the values of the firm. Also, employees at times engage in OCBs and other extra-role work behaviours as a reciprocation

for the training and other personal development opportunities offered them by the organization (Walumbwa, Wu & Orwa, 2008). The onus thus lies on the organization to use training as an avenue to effectively communicate its culture and positions on OCB as convinced employees will likely pursue OCBs when their perception is changed through the training and interactions (Jiao, Richards & Zhang, 2011). All these underscores the need for organizations to recruit people whose value systems are closely similar to that of the firm. On the flip side, negative organizational culture and lack of appropriate reward for OCBs will disconnect employees from heeding to the values of the employer and ultimately degenerate into the manifestation of counterproductive workplace behaviours (Stone et al., 2019). Based on the above review, the researcher hypothesizes that;

*H8b: The relationship between job training fit and extra-role employee performance will be stronger if the environmental fit is high rather than low.*

## **2.7 Chapter summary**

The purpose of this chapter was to review the literature pertaining to PJF, JTF and employee performance. It emerged that employee performance is largely influenced by the degree of compatibility between the worker and the organization or workplace culture. Any incongruence is likely to produce undesirable performance results which may eventually culminate into counterproductive work behaviours and turnover. Further, the review of the literature further revealed that moderators such as environmental fit, psychological empowerment and organizational commitment could change the complexions of the direct hypothesized relationships.

## Chapter Three

### Research Methodology

#### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology and design that was employed to collect and analyze the data required to achieve the objectives set out in this study. The selection of appropriate methodology is influenced by the philosophical assumptions of the researcher that directed the research objectives and the hypotheses which were tested in the study. The key objective of the research is to examine the effect of PJF and JTF on employee work behavior. This section discusses the philosophical assumptions, research approaches and designs, techniques, and processes used in collecting data for this thesis. Given the different types of data collection instruments available, justification is given for the techniques used. Also, the rationale behind the sampling techniques used for the two-stage data collection is explained.

#### 3.1 Philosophical assumptions

Philosophical assumptions are very important in every research as they present the assumptions which influence a researcher's viewpoint of the world or a research area. In conducting an empirical study, it is essential to consider the philosophical underpinnings of the study (Dainty, 2007). Creswell (2002) emphasized the relevance of various assumptions that researchers tend to make as these provide direction for designing all phases of a research study. Primarily, these assumptions relate to the ontological, epistemological and axiological disposition of the study.

##### 3.1.1 *Ontological assumptions*

Ontology means the nature of reality and arose out of the branch of philosophy known as metaphysics. Ontology is fundamentally concerned with analyzing various types of existence (Sentesy, 2020). Ontology is about how people view reality and raises the question of whether the brain experiences reality or is the experience of the scientist more real? Ontological assumptions can be classified into two broad categories, being objective and subjective (Park, Sang, Lee & Jones-Jang, 2019). Objective category of ontology sees reality as being made up of objects that can be measured and tested thereby associated with positivist paradigm; while subjective ontology considers reality as a mix of perceptions of living

subjects thereby associated with interpretivism paradigm (Lawson, 2019). There are primarily two types of ontology, namely, objectivism and subjectivism.

Objectivism relies on the traditions of the natural sciences and argues that the social world that the investigator studies is autonomous of the social actors (Saunders et al., 2015). To the objectivists, the social world's existence is external to the individual, irrespective of the awareness of concrete realities and facts of such existence (Pözlner & Wright, 2020). Therefore, to the objectivists, the social world is not influenced in any known form by the understanding, views and perspectives of the human actors (Saunders et al., 2015). Burrell and Morgan (1979, p.4) posit that the "the social world exists independently of the individual's appreciation of it"; and there is only one true social reality experienced by all social actors (Saunders et al., 2015, p. 128).

While subjectivism, on the other hand, associates with the assumptions of the fields of arts and humanities with the belief that social reality is made up of the views, discernments and resulting behaviours of individuals (Saunders et al., 2015). The subjectivist believes that there is no real or social world external to the individual but the world as it is known is the construction of people by their social interactions, perceptions and cultural tendencies over time. Pözlner and Wright (2020, p.4) states that the "social world external to individual cognition is made up of nothing more than names, concepts and labels" applied to structure reality. From ontological perspective, subjectivism shares the assumptions of nominalism (which is also known as conventionalism). The extreme form of nominalism is of the view that social phenomena studied by the researcher are the creation of the researcher and other actors from their interpretations, linguistic narratives and contextual sympathies (Saunders et al., 2015). The current study takes the objective ontology which is in line with the quantitative approach.

### ***3.1.2 Epistemological assumptions***

Epistemology relates to what counts as knowledge and ways by which one can know. It concerns itself with how the world can be studied and what is considered as evidence (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; McGregor, & Murnane, 2010). Epistemology offers information on people perspectives of the world and how they conduct events in the world (Green, 2017). Epistemological assumptions thus relate to how knowledge is created, acquired and

exchanged (Scotland, 2012) and how we know the reality (Krauss, 2005). Epistemology provides a foundation to determine the type of knowledge that is possible, valid, legitimate and adequate (Green, 2017). The epistemological perspective of research is defined by what forms of knowledge the researchers assume can be obtained and how the knowledge can be sorted out as true or false. Therefore, epistemology informs the researcher's view of the world and how the researcher acts in the world (Green, 2017).

### ***3.1.3 Axiological assumptions***

Axiological assumptions concern the role of values in the research. This is the extent of separation of the researcher from the object of research (Ravitch & Carl, 2019). Objectivists are of the view that facts can be separated from values and set out to prove statistically that the research is valid and reliable and also free from biases and values. Subjectivists are of the view that values are entrenched in all endeavours and that things can only be described based on how we perceive them and not as they are. Researchers of this view document their biases and values as they believe that facts cannot be separated from values. This research takes into account the views of participants by using objective methods to validate the outcome of the qualitative information and insights gleaned through the process.

### ***3.1.4 Methodological assumptions***

The methodological framework can be described as a combination of varied approaches (which may be quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, etc) utilized to generate research data (Collis & Hussey, 2009). The methodology is usually developed following the formation of the research question. A quantitative approach which relies on questionnaire for data collection was preferred for the current.

## **3.2 Research paradigms**

There are four major research paradigms or philosophical worldviews. They include positivism, interpretivism, critical theory and pragmatist paradigm (Burrell & Morgan, 1994; Mack, 2010; Scotland, 2012).

### ***3.2.1 Interpretivism***

Interpretivism largely use methods that generate qualitative data which are analyzed through researchers own interpretations. Data is normally collected through focus groups discussions, open-ended interviews, open-ended observations, and open-ended questionnaires. Despite the argument adduced by proponents of interpretivism in favour of it, it has a significant number of flaws (Cresswell, 2009; Gray, 2013). Interpretivism is flawed by concerns such as generalization of results, replicability of study, validity, subjectivity in analysis of results, lack of participants' independence and ethical issues (Coll & Kalnins, 2009). The study does not rely on the interpretive approach, since it is a purely quantitative study. The most popular opposing paradigm to positivism in research is interpretivism. Interpretivism is considered the major substitute to positivism in contemporary research (Balewa& Hussein, 2014). The interpretivism holds the view that what the positivists consider as truth or reality is constructed by the researcher and as such a fabrication of individuals' thoughts. Guba and Lincoln's (1996) opined that reality or fact is a construct of a person's mind which is not independent of the individual who generated it. As such there can be several of such realities that stand the tendency of contradicting each other. Relativism is the ontological perspective of interpretivism (Scotland, 2012).

Relativism is described to mean that reality is subjective and differs among individuals (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). There is a strong correlation between the consciousness of the world and making meaning of the world in that, the reality is discovered through the engagement between consciousness and objects which are already pregnant with meanings. Constructivism emphasizes that meaningful knowledge and reality can be gained through the interaction between humans and the world in a social setting, therefore the social world can better be understood from the perspective of individuals who participated in it (Crotty, 1998). Interpretive Methodology is oriented toward obtaining an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question through an investigation where the researcher is actively involved in the interaction with the participant (Cresswell, 2009). Examples of the methodology employed under this paradigm are case studies, Phenomenology, ethnography, and hermeneutics (Gray, 2013).

### ***3.2.2 Positivist paradigm***

Positivism is deemed as one of the major research approaches that find its root from the ontological doctrine that “Truth and reality are free and independent of the viewer and observer” (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014, p.81). They emphasized that a significant number of academics who associate with the philosophy of research agree with this standpoint. The positivist investigators hold the view that the universe can be understood by independent and objective analysis. Positivism is rooted in realist and objectivist ontology, implying that discovering what is true or real is done independently of the observer’s influence or biases (Pring, 2000; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Kaboub (2004) endorsed positivism as a truth-seeking paradigm propounded by Auguste Comte who contended that only scientific and technical processes can reveal the reality of truth. The positivist paradigm underscores the importance of scientific technique, the impartiality of measurement, testability and replicability as bases for the observation of factual happenings. (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014). Donaldson (1996) noted that though positivism commonly associates with natural sciences, many researchers have suggested that adopting the basic assumptions of positivism would be of benefit to the social scientist on the assertion that methodological procedures of natural science may be directly adapted to the study of human social actions. According to Creswell (2002), methodology oriented toward positivism usually attempts to explain relationships and also attempts to reveal causes which influence outcomes. Positivism always provides a reasonable basis for prediction and generalization thereby leaning towards the deductive approach.

Positivism uses a methodology where verification of the truth through testing is encouraged; providing a strong basis for the use of quantitative research techniques (Gelo, 2012). Thus, positivism is oriented toward experimental designs which manipulate confounding variables in observing phenomena and collects numeric and structured data which are analyzed through inferential statistics. The argument in favour of positivism was elaborated by Crotty (1998) by metaphorically comparing it to a tree that “A tree in the forest is a tree, regardless of whether anyone is aware of its existence or not. As an object of that kind, it carries the intrinsic meaning of trueness. When human beings recognize it as a tree, they are simply discovering a meaning that has been lying in wait for them all along.” This reinforces the assertion of the positivist that phenomena exist independently and can be discovered through

objective and scientific research. Guba & Lincoln (1994) noted that though post-positivism has emerged as a variant of positivism, it essentially remains within the same set of beliefs. This approach is therefore ideal for the current study.

The researcher's perspective thus influences the approach to investigating and finding out what exists and can be known. The current study takes on a positivist approach. This is because the positivism seeks to give a true account or objective truth about an event.

### ***3.2.3 Critical theory***

The critical theory believes that research aims to challenge and change social relationships through confronting the constraints to humanity (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Critical theorists contend that social creations or views should be framed by the "social, political, cultural, historical, and economic forces in the environment, particularly forces created by powerful individuals" (Heppner, Wampold, Kivlighan, 2008, p. 13). The critical theory thus assumes that the purpose of investigation involves gaining an understanding of social substances and being able to affect alterations to such substances (Mack, 2010). It aims to liberate the less empowered through confronting societal injustice and inequality (Scotland, 2012). The theory, therefore, advocates the balance of interests among the actors in the social world and a change of the replications of discriminations and exclusiveness (Mack 2010, p. 9). In the view of critical theorists, research is not detachable from politics (Scotland, 2012). Critical theory has diverse ideologies which include post-modernism, neo-Marxism and feminism (Mack, 2010). It thus seeks to motivate attention to social and economic changes that expose structural inequalities and concerns of marginalized groups including gender disparity, racial biases, and minority interests.

The ontological perspective of critical theory is that the social world is the creation of actors in groups and institutions with the epistemological stance that knowledge is created by actors in society (Mack, 2010). The epistemological position of critical theory is also that of subjectivism which is connected to a "real-world phenomena and linked with societal ideology" (Scotland, 2012, p. 13). The researcher and the researched object are assumed to be linked with each other with the values and biases of the researcher able to influence the outcome of the inquiry (Guba & Lincoln 1994). Therefore, reality can be altered by human

endeavour and knowledge is influenced by social constructions and power relationships (Mack, 2010, p. 9; Scotland, 2012, p. 12).

### **3.2.4 Pragmatic paradigm**

A pragmatic orientation rejects the development of distinct methodological identities, for example, researchers' self-identity as qualitative or quantitative researchers. It is argued that any piece of research operates within a particular paradigm.

The pragmatism paradigm asserts that the most important determinant of a researcher's philosophy for any study is the research question and that both positivism and phenomenological philosophies can both be combined within the scope of a single research based on the nature of the research question (Suanders et al., 2009). In effect thereof, pragmatist researchers strive to reconcile subjectivism and objectivism, values and facts, different contextualized experiences and accurate rigorous knowledge (Saunders et al., 2009). Studies using pragmatism as a paradigm typically seek to contribute practical solutions to a problem to reshape future practice. The researchers process of inquiry is initiated by doubt and a sense that something is wrong or out of place but with a resultant re-creation of belief once the problem is resolved (Elkjaer & Simpson, 2011; Saunders et al., 2009). It is important to note that pragmatists do not always use multiple methods but rather use the method or methods that enable credible, well-founded, relevant and reliable data to be collected to advance the research (Kelemen & Rumens, 2008).

## **3.3 Research approach**

The approaches of research can be categorized into three, namely; quantitative research approach, qualitative research approach, and the mixed-method approach. A summary of the three research approaches follows.

### **3.3.1 Qualitative research approach**

Qualitative research is characterized by procedures, contexts, interpretations and the use of inductive reasoning to obtain meaning and understanding. The approach is grounded on a constructivist epistemology which is of the view that knowledge or what is viewed as reality are socially constructed (Yilmaz, 2013). In essence, the researcher and the subject being studied are inseparably connected. Yilmaz distinguishes qualitative research as research that

is an “emergent, inductive, interpretive and naturalistic approach to the study of people, cases, phenomena, social situations and processes in their natural settings to reveal in descriptive terms the meanings that people attach to their experiences of the world” (Yilmaz, 2013, p. 312). Creswell (2014) and Levitt et al. (2018) note that qualitative research data tend to be open-ended with no predetermined responses in contrast to quantitative research data that typically comprises closed-ended responses.

Qualitative research approach uses techniques that lead to elaborate interpretations of observations without depending on numerical measurement. It is less structured than quantitative approaches and has its focus directed toward the discovery of true inner meanings and new insight (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2010). Qualitative research is an interactive process that allows those who are being studied to speak for themselves (Hughes, 2012). A qualitative approach has the characteristics of being conducted in a natural setting; Sample size usually small; dependent on inductive logic; and involves the extensive use of descriptive data (Creswell, 2009; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Qualitative research usually makes use of interviews, open-ended questionnaires, and focus group discussions in gathering data for interpretive analysis (Antwi & Hamza, 2015).

### ***3.3.2 Mixed research approach***

The mixed research approach is the third emerging methodology of research that integrates both qualitative and quantitative techniques in a single enquiry or sustained program of enquiry. Mixed research method does not seek to replace either quantitative or qualitative approach but primarily seek to combine the strengths of both thereby minimizes the weaknesses of both in a single research study (Creswell, 2014; Johnson & Onwuegbusie, 2004). Mixed research method creates a synergy by collecting and analyzing closed-ended and open-ended data either concurrently or sequentially (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Several typologies of mixing have been suggested and used in contemporary research (Morgan, 1998; Creswell 1994). According to Johnson & Onwuegbusie, 2004; Morse, 1991; Morgan, 1994, mixing could be based on paradigm emphasis thus ratio of quantitative to qualitative; time ordering dimension which implies whether both techniques should be employed concurrently or sequentially; and whether mixing should occur at the objective phase, or data collection phase or analysis and interpretation phase.

### **3.3.3 Quantitative research approach**

A quantitative approach to research is seen as the most dominant research method in developing new knowledge and fundamentally requires quantification of figures (Williams, 2007). Quantitative methodologies with the survey method have been used in many studies in the social science disciplines (Lubinski 1996). Lubinski (1996) further prescribes that “to understand the human behaviour, especially the psychology of individual differences; scientific and established foundation must be built”. “Quantitative research can emphasize the large-scale sets of data of the respondents that need to be collected and analyzed numerically” (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight 2006, p.66). Thus, “the quantitative paradigm has been characterized by the use of theoretical propositions for empirical testing to determine if such propositions are true” (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe 1991, p.235).

Quantitative research describes social phenomena concerning numerical data which are analyzed by applying statistically based tools and methods. Yilmaz (2013) explains that quantitative research is based on objectivist epistemology and thus adopts the approach that social phenomena have an objective reality that exists independent of the subjects being studied. In this approach, the researcher and the researched subject are considered independent of each other and the researcher should be distant from the studied subject.

Quantitative research involves defining a causal relationship through deductive reasoning, structured data collection, statistical analysis, theory/hypothesis testing, explanation, confirmation, generalization and prediction (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Levitt et al., 2018; Yilmaz, 2013). Data collection in quantitative research provides accurate and specific numerical data that are relatively easy to generate from the study sample. The quantitative approach consists of investigations for which data is analyzed in terms of numbers. It, therefore, requires data collection strategies that will generate observations which can be quantified and subjected to statistical analysis to affirm or disaffirm the knowledge being claimed (Creswell, 2003). The quantitative approach to research has the following key attributes. First, quantitative research helps to identify causal relationships. It also presents a clear definition of how variables in a study are measured and show the consistency of results if the study is repeated. Quantitative research also helps in the development of the hypothesis which is subjected to empirical testing (Burns, 2000). The quantitative approach also leans toward deductive logic.

Besides, “theories are tested by using the hypothesis deductive approach which uses the ontological orientation towards objectivism by viewing social reality accordingly” (Giacomini, 2010, p.126). The epistemological orientation is towards the natural scientific model or positivism. Nevertheless, the quantitative paradigm has strengths and weaknesses and the main strength is generating precise, quantitative, numerical data from large survey size (Maxwell & Delaney 2004). Furthermore, William (2003), suggested that findings are considered to be reliable and could be generalized and replicated on many different populations. The findings might also be inapplicable to specific local situations and individuals.

The quantitative approach is employed in addressing the research questions of this study. The approach was adopted because the researcher sought to produce reliable and generalizable results that can be replicated on other industries aside the ceramic tile industries. The quantitative approach is distinct from the qualitative approach and table 2 presents the main differences between the two major approaches. The current study adopts a quantitative approach as the collection of numerical data using scale items was imperative to help examine the impact of PJF and JTF on employee workplace behaviour.

*Table 2: Features of quantitative and qualitative research*

<b>Quantitative research</b>	<b>Qualitative research</b>
The researcher aims to groups themes, count observations and explains the meaning of the observations	The researcher aim is detailed and provides a complete description of a situation in an exploratory manner.
Questions such as “to what extent”, “to analyze, to assess”, “to evaluate” are normally used	Questions such as “to describe”, “to explore”, “to delve into”, “to explain” are mostly used
The research has a specific objective in mind and aims to either accept or reject a hypothesis	The researcher does not know specifically what he wants. He may have a rough idea of what he seeks to find out
Begins with theory to data	Starts with data collection and derivation of theory at the end of the study

Data is in the form of statistics and numbers	Data is in the form of objects, pictures or words
Tools such as questionnaires or laboratory test variables are used	Tools such as interviews and open-ended questions are used.
It is objective which leads to efficient testing of the study hypothesis	It is subjective as it makes use of the assertions of respondents and observations by the researcher
The researcher is separated or completely from the respondents	The researcher gets immersed with the study participant as he is involved in the data collection procedure

Source: Miles and Huberman (1994)

The current study thus used a quantitative research approach in which survey was used as a data collection method. This method was considered appropriate given the positivistic paradigm/philosophy of the researcher. Also, it important to understand the impact of PJF and JTF on employee work behaviour and the collection of numerical data was critical in assess the hypothesized relationships.

### 3.4 Research design

Research design can be described as the picture of how the study will be carried out and in what way the parts will be made to work together in a synchronized manner (Radianti, Majchrzak, Fromm & Wohlgenannt, 2020). It covers the data collection strategies and procedural plan used to answer the research questions in a valid, objective and accurate sequence. Research design represents a logical footprint and is the equivalent of the architects' initial design of a proposed building. It is the overall plan of action and structure of the research. Van Wyk (2012) opines that the research design presents a practical framework for connecting the conceptual research problems to the related empirical research. Accordingly, research design addresses and responds to the goals, intents and plans of the research while expressing the choices and preferences of the researcher. In the view of Creswell (2014), research design defines the “plans and procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis” (p. 3). While the focus is on choices and strategies in research design, it further enables the

researcher to obtain evidence that addresses questions and offers the basis for testing theories with clarity. Research design thus provides a guide to the research data required, methods for data collection, sampling criteria, sample size and the techniques of data analysis to answer research questions and achieving research objectives. As the logical blueprint of the research, it establishes the framework that enhances the validity and accuracy of the study. In this regard, Yin (2017) advises researchers to apply strong designs to reinforce the validity of research studies and ensure that research data effectively responds to research objectives.

There are three types of research designs: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory design. Yin (2011, 2017) suggests that the use of a particular method is dependent on the nature of the research questions, the degree of control the researcher has over the social events, and the extent of emphasis on the timeliness and contextual conditions of events. Given that the objective of this study is to explain the effect of PJF and JTF on employee work behaviour, an explanatory research design was used (Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009).

Explanatory research emphasizes why social events occur and the factors that influence or lead to their occurrence. The purpose of explanatory research is to address the 'why' questions (Neuman, 2014) and assess the causal link between variables involved in a research problem (Levitt et al., 2018; Van Wyk, 2012). Given that it seeks to explain the presumed factors that link one event to another (Yin, 2003, 2017), it is thus useful in illuminating the effect of fits on employee work behaviour with the moderating role of organizational commitment, psychological empowerment and environmental fit. Neuman (2014) explains that explanatory studies usually define the framework of a prevailing theory and test the theory or define its application within a new setting or context. This research design availed data that enabled the researcher to test the theoretical perspectives of the study theories within the space of employee work behaviour in the Ceramic tiles manufacturing industry of Ghana. As explanatory research explores why and how there is a relationship between two situations or phenomena (Kumar, 2014; Van Wyk, 2012), this study used its causal relationship assessment to explore the effect of various predictors on work behaviour.

The reason for the use of the explanatory design was due to the following. First, the research gaps suggest a need to gather empirical data to identify the effect of PJF and JTF on employee work behaviour. The quantitative approach helped to gather the needed empirical data in a

form that can be analyzed to determine the effect of PJF and JTF on employee work behaviour focusing on organisational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment as moderators. The quantitative study was conducted on all the three tile manufacturing companies in Ghana. The three companies have 98% of the market share for locally manufactured ceramics tiles. This is necessary to gather further details to adequately explain PJF and JTF and work behaviour process among employees. Hence the rationale for using quantitative data is to objectively capture the intricate aspects of the PJF, JTF and work behaviour; also offer the opportunity for generalizations of the results to the larger manufacturing sector in Ghana.

Since there is a gap in literature on how organizational commitment, psychological empowerment and environmental fit moderate the relationship between PJF, JTF and employee work behaviour, it is important to not only identify the reasons why organizations have failed to provide their employees with the required training and opportunities that meet the needs of their jobs after recruitment but of more necessity is how job training fit can help improve work behaviour (LePine et al., 2002). For this to be achieved, it was necessary to collect the quantitative strand of data for this study. It is also imperative to state that, the study is cross-sectional focusing on collecting one-time data from all the study participants using questionnaires.

### **3.5 Population, sample and sampling of respondents**

Research population according to Gravetter and Forzanno (2012) refers to the entire number of people that are of interest to the researcher. According to Barreiro and Albandoz (2001), factors such as time limitation, budget constraint, and extreme difficulty make it irrational to study every participant of interest in a large population. It is considered prudent to study entire participants of interest (census) when the population is of very small size (Jacobs, 2010). Given the above reason, much emphasis is placed on the relevance of a sample. A sample is explained as a group of participants selected as a representative of a population and the process of selection is termed as sampling (Sreevidya & Sunitha, 2011). The population for this study, therefore, consists of employees of three ceramics tile manufacturing companies in Ghana. This sector employs about 5,000 Ghanaian employees.

The process of selecting individuals or entities out of a population for a study is known as sampling. There are two main methods of sampling known as probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Kothari, 2004). The probability sampling method, which allows the selection of a representative sample is usually used for quantitative research (Levy & Lemeshow, 2013; Neuman, 2014). Probability sampling offers an equal and independent chance to all units of being selected in a large population (Kumar, 2019). The key types of probability sampling methods are: simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling, systematic sampling, multi-stage sampling (Kothari, 2004). The aim of the probability selection process is usually to remove the element of possible bias of the researcher and enable numerical estimations of representativeness of the entire population (Kothari, 2004).

In non-probability sampling techniques, there is a deliberate selection of samples to reflect particular properties or characteristics within the population. The researcher is not interested in obtaining a sample which is statistically representative of the population, but may be interested in the features of the population which are an essential basis for the selection of the sample (Neuman, 2014). Examples of non-probability sampling methods include purposive sampling, convenience sampling, snowball sampling, quota sampling (Kothari, 2004). These methods are usually used in qualitative research and for conducting comprehensive, small-scale, and in-depth studies (Ritchie et al., 2003). This study notes that the non-probability samples face the weakness of sampling biases, as the sampling is subjective, and the findings lack generalizability. To ensure that sampling errors are minimized, and to accord generalizability of findings, this study adopted the probability sampling methods which are explained in the next section.

### **3.5.1 Sample size**

For the sample size, Yamane (1967)'s formula for determining the optimal sample size was utilized in determining the ideal sample size for the study. The formula is given below;

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}, \text{ where}$$

- i.*  $n$  - is the resulting sample size.
- ii.*  $N$  - is the population size. This constitutes staff in the 3 ceramics tile manufacturing companies located in Ghana. The three tile manufacturing companies are the only

ones in the country. They include Wangkeny/Goodwill, Sentuo and Keda Ghana Company Ltd. In total, there were approximately 5000 staff in the population. This number was obtained from the HR department of the respective organizations. This was the population size used in the final computation.

- iii.*  $e$  - is the level of precision, which is represented by a confidence interval of +/- 5% (0.05)

Given these values, the sample size is calculated as follows,

$$\frac{5000}{1+5000(0.05)^2} = \mathbf{370}$$

This gives a sample size of not less than 370 respondents as the acceptable sample size for the study.

### ***3.5.2 Sampling technique and study location***

The researcher employed a simple random sampling approach to select full-time employees working in the ceramics tile manufacturing companies in Ghana. The population consists of all employees of the ceramics tile manufacturing companies. In Ghana, there are only three ceramics tile manufacturing companies. Keda had a population of 1,400 employees, Sentuo had a population of 1800 employees while Goodwill had a population of 1800 employees.

Below is the sampling ratio used in selecting the ideal number.

Organisation	Keda	Sentuo	Goodwill
Population	1400	1800	1800
Ratio of sample	28%	36%	36%
Using max respondents	600 168	216	216
Number of folded papers (Yes/No)	336	432	432

The researcher purposively included all Heads of Departments and Supervisors as their numbers were not large. As specified above, the quota sampling was employed as the researcher ensured that the samples were commensurate with the staff population in the three ceramic tile manufacturing companies. Consequently, the researcher sampled 1,200 participants for all three companies. Equal numbers of pieces of papers (inscribed 'Yes' and

'No') were folded and placed in a box and each staff had to pick. Staff who picked 'Yes' were added to the research and questionnaires were given to them to respond. Staff who picked 'no' were excluded from the research. Staff were allowed to pick the ballots until their allocated number were obtained for the research. This was repeated for all the three ceramics tile manufacturing companies. Through this method, a total of 600 staff including factory hands (general factory workers) and supervisors and Heads of Departments were included in the study. A total of 600 staff from were sampled for inclusion in the survey. Hence, a total of six hundred (600) questionnaires were administered. These excluded the top management staff. The study population was located at the Western Region and Greater Accra Regions of Ghana.

The data was collected through field administration of 600 questionnaires to take care of non-response issues and missing data. After 2 months, 484 questionnaires were received representing 80.66% response rate.

### **3.6 Research instrument and data collection**

To achieve the objectives of the study, primary data was collected. Primary data originates from the researcher (in the process of using defined procedures to address the research problem) as they were previously not in existence. (Hox & Boeije, 2005). Questionnaires were used to collect the primary data. Questionnaire is explained as a list of items or statement of questions relating to a study to which the respondents are required to answer in the absence or presence of the researcher. They could be open-ended (for qualitative data) and close-ended to collect quantitative data (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). For this study, a close-ended questionnaire, also known as a structured questionnaire was used to collect the data. Refer to Appendix1 for a sample of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire has the advantages of being cost-effective; easy access to respondents; time effective; and high anonymity of respondents. It, however, has a major setback of low response rate (Amoah & Eshun, 2015). Structured questionnaires were administered to staff of the three major ceramic tile manufacturing companies in Ghana. Two of the organizations, namely Wangkeny/Goodwill Ceramic Company, and Keda Ceramic Company Ltd. were located in the Western Region whiles one, Sentuo Ceramics Ltd. was located in the Greater

Accra region. The use of questionnaire generated quantitative data for quantitative analysis using the SPSS.

### **3.6.1 Survey instrument**

There are broadly three types of questionnaires, unstructured, structured and the quasi-structured questionnaire, which is a combination of the two (Acharya, 2010). The unstructured questionnaires have open-ended questions which provide a frame of reference for the answers but place limited restrictions on the respondents by allowing the respondents freedom to express their opinion and offer answers as they wish (Neuman, 2014). The open-ended questions can elicit rich and impartial data and maybe demand more time for collection and analysis (Neuman, 2014; O’Leary, 2004).

This study used a structured questionnaire that had closed-ended questions. Quantitative data collection procedures frequently use structured questionnaires. The rationale for the use of the structured questionnaire with closed-ended questions in this study is that it enabled respondents to respond to the structured pattern that fits the defined response category, for easy coding. The responses are provided without the interference or influence of the researcher. Structured questionnaires are thus viable alternatives to direct interface or interaction with the respondents and provide the tool to reach a large sample within a relatively short time. The administration of the questionnaires provides convenience that offers respondents time to evaluate their responses before answering a question. The administration of the questionnaire is inexpensive while it equally offers the desired level of confidentiality or anonymity highly desired by the study respondents who are employees. Structured questionnaires have been suggested to generate sound and systematic information from respondents and the questions can demonstrate “high levels of statistical validity and reliability” (Lee 2006, p. 761). The other benefit of the study’s structured questionnaire is that it offers minimal discrepancies, is easier to administer and presents consistency in the answers from respondents. It also enables the researcher to reach a larger audience with the same set of questions in comparison to interviews. A demerit of the closed-ended questionnaire is that it compels or restrict respondents to consider predetermined categories of the researcher which may be outside the choice, beliefs and feelings of the respondents (Neuman, 2014). It does not also provide the flexibility of customizing the instrument to the circumstance of targeted individuals, as possible with other data collection instruments. On

the balance of the above features and attributes, the study adopted the use of a structured questionnaire with close-ended questions.

### ***3.6.2 Design of the questionnaire***

The design of a questionnaire should ensure consistency with the expected analysis of the data. A well-designed set of questions helps in maximizing response rates, validity and reliability of data collected. The objectives and hypotheses of quantitative study or the research questions provide the guide to the methodology and plan for analysis of data. Accordingly, the organization of the questionnaire, the constructs and issues it addresses are influenced by the objectives and hypotheses of the research (Acharya, 2010). The questionnaire design essentially includes all variables that feature in the research conceptual framework. A requirement for initiating the construction of a questionnaire is therefore to have clear objectives and hypotheses, a schedule of selected variables and items, and the section breaks for topics to be addressed. Therefore, the study questionnaire was constructed in alignment with the research objectives, the literature overview and the theoretical framework.

A well-designed questionnaire has more than few qualities. Lee et al (2006) describe these to include; be well organized, have clear questions and be composed of clearly stated and exhaustive answer options. The conditions to maximize the opportunity of obtaining valid responses according to Lee et al (2006) include:

- The respondents must understand the questions and have some understanding as other respondents. The language of the questions should be at the appropriate level for respondents.
- Respondents must have the ability to provide answers to the questions.
- There must be a willingness by respondents to provide the required information.

Additionally, a well-designed questionnaire should also have a logical sequence or flow of questions that retains the attention of the respondent until completion. Levy and Lemeshow (2013) suggest that unnecessarily long questionnaires that are time-consuming (more than 30 minutes) face a greater risk of being ignored or haphazardly completed relative to shorter questionnaires that require shorter times. The researcher acknowledged that the design of

the questionnaire is of significance as it impacts the extent of the appeal of the questionnaire to respondents, its response rate, and the data reliability and validity. As explained by Levy and Lemeshow, a questionnaire should be aesthetically appealing and have good physical layout. This is because respondents are more likely to complete questionnaires that have professional and attractive appearance than those with less professional appeal and aesthetics (Levy & Lemeshow, 2013). For instance, O'Leary (2004) suggests that faintly printed or photocopied questionnaires should be avoided so as not to diminish the interest of respondents. To maximize appeal to respondents, the aesthetics, physical design and printing of the questionnaire used in the study were of very high standards, as they were handled by professional typesetters.

### ***3.6.3 Questionnaire format and rating scale***

Questionnaire items may be either open-ended or unstructured and closed-ended or structured (Neuman, 2014). The open-ended questions require respondents to construct answers using their choice of words. They offer respondents the freedom to provide any information and express opinions as they desire but may however limit the response due to the amount of space available for an answer. O'Leary (2004) notes that open-ended questions can engender rich and candid data, but such data may be difficult to code and analyze. The form of the questions used in this quantitative study is the close-ended questions. The close-ended questions require respondents to choose from a predetermined set of responses and are generally easy to code and statistically analyze. The form of closed-ended questions permits the use of rating scales. A rating scale in this context is the use of a score to represent both the direction and intensity of a respondent's attitude or disposition to an issue. Scaling involves the construction of possible answers or opinions of respondents in a defined order of behaviour or attitudes. There are four methods identified in the literature by which measurement scales can be constructed. These are nominal scales, ordinal scales, interval scales, and ratio scales (Johns, 2010; Ogbechie, 2012). The measurement scale of the study is the ordinal scales. Each has a defined level of measurement precision, with ratio scales having the highest and nominal scales having the lowest measurement precision (Ogbechie, 2012).

The three common formats of rating in questionnaire development are Thurstone, the Semantic Differential and Likert scale. Thurstone scaling has equal appearing interval scales

for measuring attitudes and are based on the law of comparative judgement. The Thurstone scale is developed by selecting belief or attitudinal statements with a scale value evenly spread from one extreme to the other. The Semantic Differential scale indirectly measures feeling about a concept, object, or person. The scale provides subjective feeling or emotional state on a subject of interest by applying a set of scales anchored at their extreme points by words that have opposite or contrasting meanings. Respondents are required to select the point on the scale continuum that best expresses their attitude or feeling about the concept or subject. The Likert scale was developed by Rensis Likert in 1932. The questionnaire for this quantitative study used the Likert rating scale. The Likert rating scale is an attitudinal measurement scale that indicates the degree of the respondent's agreement with a specific issue, question or statement on a given continuum. It structures the respondents' preferences or opinions from extremely negative to extremely positive and requires respondents to indicate their level of agreement with a given statement by way of an ordinal scale (Acharya, 2010; Otman, 2014; Sullivan & Artino, 2013). The Likert scale has the strength of its simplicity, ease of construction and use, and is highly likely to produce reliable scale (Bertram, 2006). It also has a feature that enables successful adaptation to measure several classes of affective and attitudinal attributes (Lee, 2006). The Likert scale equally comes with weaknesses worthy of attention. Bertram explains that the Likert scale is subject to a central tendency bias as respondents tend to avoid extreme response options. The scale may prompt acquiescence bias, where respondents simply indicate agreement with presented statements to satisfy the expectations of the study. There is also the social desirability bias as respondents may favour socially desirable responses in place of being factual with their experiences or opinions. Likert scales face the difficulty of reproducibility and demonstrating validity concerning measuring what was expected to be measured.

The various number of scale points have been used in survey research, from two to eleven or sometimes more (Johns, 2010). The five-point Likert rating scale is commonly used as it strikes a balance between the need to provide enough response options and minimizing the complexity respondents face regarding the choice of options when there are too many scale points. Researchers are of the view that data from rating scales such as Likert scales become less accurate as the length of scale points rise above seven or drops below five. There are however no many significant attributes that indicate the superiority of the five-point scale and the seven-point scale, though Likert opted for five (Johns, 2010). The typical Likert scale

is a 5 or 7-point ordinal scale not an interval scale (Pershing, 2006) and there are no metrics or quantitative intervals between the words that make up the responses to items. The ordinal scale enables the responses to be rated or ranked, but the distance between responses is not usually measurable (Sullivan & Artino, 2013). Likert scales are not equal as the distance between responses cannot be assumed to be equidistant although the numbers allotted to the responses are. Literature, however, show the tendency for respondents to perceive the rating choices as having scaled intervals, in terms of having evenly spread points in an attitude series (Bertram, 2006; Johns, 2010; Pershing, 2006; Sullivan & Artino, 2013).

Following the above features of the scales, the questionnaire used in the quantitative study comprised closed-ended questions with possible answers measured on a five-point Likert rating scale. The five-point “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” format is used throughout the questionnaire. The five-point rating scale provided the needed balance between having too few response options and having too many response alternatives. The questionnaire requested the respondents to indicate on a scale of 1 to 5 the extent to which they agree or disagree with the statements or issues raised in the various sections of the questionnaire. The use of a five-point Likert scale in the questionnaire also contributes to improving the construct validity (Otman, 2014). The questionnaire was coded in two formats; positive coding for positively worded questions and negative coding for negatively worded questions. The positively worded questions were coded as 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree. The negatively worded questions were coded as 5 = strongly disagree, 4 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 2 = agree and 1 = strongly agree.

#### ***3.6.4 Survey questionnaire administration***

The different ways surveys can be administered include face-to-face, by telephone or by mail to respondents (Menon & Muraleedharan, 2020; Olson et al., 2020; Zhang, Kuchinke, Woud, Velten & Margraf, 2017). In face-to-face surveys, the researcher seeks information directly from the respondents through personal interviews. It involves the one-on-one engagement of the respondent (Creswell, 2014). Face-to-face interviews offer the researcher the advantage of relative ease to establish trust through rapport with the added potential to enhance the quality of data (Nandi & Platt, 2017). The researcher has the opportunity of obtaining detailed insights into the subject, reading the body language of interviewees and having flexibility in the order of the questions (DeJonckheere & Vaughn, 2019). The face-to-face surveys enable

the administration of very complex questionnaires, engagement of difficult to access population and achieve a high response rate (Einola & Alvesson, 2020). However, it is comparatively more susceptible to interviewers' bias with the researcher's presence being a source of response bias (Creswell, 2014). The face-to-face surveys are also relatively more expensive, require expertise and may not provide desired anonymity and confidentiality.

Telephone surveys involve collecting information by using the telephone to communicate with the interviewees. It can be conducted within minimal time and cost and enables easy observance of instructions. Telephone survey also offers faster data collection, gives wider geographical coverage and provides an opportunity to reach difficult to access places (Edwards & Holland, 2013). It is more appealing to interviewees when conversing sensitive topics and provides anonymity and confidentiality. Telephone survey thus gives greater social distance and lead to more open conversions and responses on subjects that are open to considerable social desirability bias (Nandi & Platt, 2017). However, it does not provide an opportunity for adequate control of the conversation and gives a lower response rate and credibility to relative to face- to- face surveys. As it does not enable the interviewer to have facial contact with the interviewee, data collectable from non-verbal communication including body and sign languages may be missing. Technological development (e.g., Skype™ or Facetime™) and other communication modes with visual contact have however expanded the benefits and scope of telephone-based interviews (Edwards & Holland, 2013). The interviewer and interviewee may not however have access to these technologies.

In mailed or self-administered surveys, questionnaires are printed and sent by mail or delivered electronically to respondents. The respondents are requested to complete the instruments and return. The surveys give the respondents flexibility of completing the questionnaires at their convenient time, is comparatively inexpensive (Kumar, 2019) and enable the reach of widely dispersed respondents (Forza, 2002; Nigel et al., 2009; O'Leary, 2004). The surveys ensure anonymity and confidentiality and minimize the researcher's bias. However, mail surveys have low response rates, take longer periods to conduct and typically do not have enough room for open-ended questions. These surveys do not offer respondents the benefit of seeking clarification and respondents may consult and use the opinion of others in their responses. With mail surveys, the researcher needs to have the contact addresses of

the respondents and can thus only reach people with accessible mail or email addresses or online contacts (Forza, 2002; Kumar, 2019).

It is, therefore, noted that each method of survey administration has its strengths and associated shortcomings. The choice of the method to be adopted has to be premised on the context and the requirements of the specific survey. The issues include time available for the study, cost constraint and other scarce resources. Following all the considerations above, this study used a face-to-face survey in conducting the self-administered surveys with printed questionnaires. It enabled the one-on-one engagement of the respondent and enhanced quality of data as it permitted researcher flexibility in the order of the questions and the opportunity of deep insights into questions raised. It offered the opportunity of noting the body language of interviewees and was not expensive to conduct.

### ***3.6.5 Follow up in the data collection process***

There were follow-ups to ensure a high response rate. Follow-up strategies were adopted where the expected rate of response is not met during the collection of data (Dillman 2008; Van der Stede et al. 2005). Also, nonresponse bias (takes place in situations where targeted respondents fail to take part in a study making the sample not reliable) were duly controlled or minimized. Not only that but also, issues relating to nonresponse were dealt with before, during and after the collection of data since the external validity of a study could be affected due to hypothetical variations in nonresponse groups resulting in deceptive conclusions (King and He 2005; Van der Stede et al. 2005). According to Rogelberg and Stanton (2007), nonresponse bias could be controlled before and during the collection of data if participants are pre-informed, incentivized and reminded, in addition to others. Furthermore, nonresponse bias after the collection of data could be minimized by ensuring there is very little variation between the responses of the early and late respondents. In the view of Armstrong and Overton (1977), late respondents tend towards being non-respondents compared to early respondents. Outliers were further identified and analyzed to ascertain their suitability for inclusion.

### **3.7 Quantitative research**

#### ***3.7.1 Pre-testing of the instruments***

The questionnaire was pre-tested to ensure that the questions were clear, comprehensive and easy to answer. This also helped to reduce errors with the questionnaire (Babbie, 2011). Acharya (2010) explains that the pre-testing of a questionnaire should check its general and specific use of language, consistency and ambiguity, and completion time.

The pre-testing exercise resulted in amendments and corrections of the questionnaire to reflect the objectives of the exercise and improve the performance of the instrument. This activity was done on a sample of 10 respondents comprising a section of respondents in one of the Ceramic tile manufacturing companies. These respondents were not part of the main research. Before pre-testing, as an initial step, to improve the reliability and validity of the data collected and the final response rate, the prepared questionnaire was subjected to an extensive review. The reviews and inputs ensured the instrument addressed the research objectives and questions and reflected relevant theories and literature on employee work behaviour. The pre-test exercise produced the final version of the questionnaire and demonstrated that it contains clear and direct questions indicating that the construct validity is acceptable. The study thus applied pre-testing as a means to establish the validity of the study instrument.

#### ***3.7.2 Validity and reliability***

The methods for assessing the validity of an instrument include content and construct validity (Creswell, 2014; Neuman, 2014; Ogbechie, 2012; Yin, 2017). Content validity builds on face validity by seeking to establish that the items measure the content intended for measurement and assesses their significance to the phenomenon of interest. This study used validated scales from prior research.

Construct validity results when the items measure hypothetical constructs or concepts or behave per theory. In this study, construct validity was established by ensuring the statements in the questionnaire were constructed to align with the theoretical underpinnings of PJF, JTF and employee work behaviour literature. The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was used to establish the construct validity (convergent and discriminant). This study thus established

the validity of the scores in the survey to confirm that the instrument was appropriate for the survey research (Creswell, 2014). The study equally ensured that the research instrument covered constructs and contents relevant to the theoretical underpinnings of both the independent, dependent and the moderating variables. To establish reliability, the instruments were subjected to extensive review and scrutiny by 12 subject matter experts. The research experts' scrutiny determined the appropriateness of the instruments and the constructs under investigation.

Finally, the degree of reliability of the quantitative study instrument was statistically conducted to determine the Cronbach's alpha values. The Cronbach's Alpha measures the internal consistency of the questionnaire using the inter-correlation of the items. The Cronbach alpha coefficient is generally accepted as a reliable indicator of the extent to which the various items of the questionnaire are positively correlated to one another. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated for each section of the questionnaire. The general rule is that for a questionnaire to be reliable the Cronbach alpha result should be of the range +0.5 to +0.9 (a higher value represents higher reliability) (George & Mallery, 2003; Taber, 2017). A negative value is not accepted and a value less than +0.5 is not regarded as reliable. The reliability results will be discussed in the next chapter.

### ***3.7.3 Unit of analysis***

The unit of analysis of data could be carried out at the individual, group, firm or national levels. However, in this study, the unit of analysis is at the individual level. The unit of analysis is crucial to the extent that it relates to the research problem and research questions. The unit of analysis signifies the extent of data collection in the later stages of data analysis. Specifically, the unit of analysis is made up of departmental heads and employees of the 3 ceramic tile manufacturing companies in Ghana that have a leading role to perform in the work behaviours of their respective organizations. According to Brancato et al. (2006), it is helpful if respondents' knowledge can assist them to respond well to questions regarding surveys personally, and also look for information that they so desire within the enterprise.

### 3.8 Method of data analysis

The researcher adopted a four-stage analysis in analyzing the quantitative data. This involved a factor analysis of all the items in the questionnaire to get an idea and effective measure of all the scales in the conceptual model. The factor analysis was employed to reduce items used in measuring the variables into a more relevant and manageable number. This conforms with studies done by prior researchers (Badara & Saidin, 2014). The second analysis consisted of the creation of composite factors; where similar factors were merged and then the average was used as one factor to test its impact on the other factors. The third stage involved correlational analysis of the various scales.

Lastly, Ordinary Least Squares Regression was used to analyze the quantitative data with the composite factor created. The regression analysis was done using SPSS 2.0 (statistical package for social sciences). Essentially the analysis is presented in three stages: the demographic analysis, the analysis of the responses and the regression analysis. In conducting any statistical analysis certain expectations have to be attained. The first assumption is that the data is normal. In this context, normal data is data whose responses appear to be bell-shaped. This indicates that the responses do not skew to the left or the right but rather cluster at the mean giving a bell shape. The assumption for normality can be assessed using graphical or numerical method. The numerical method involves the use of skewness and kurtosis. The graphical method involves the use of normality probability Q-Q plot and the histogram. These tests were conducted in this study and the assumption for normality was met. The results are presented in appendices 6 and 8.

The regression was carried out to estimate the relationship between the job training fit and PJF (independent variables) and employee work behaviour, with both in-role and extra-role behaviour (dependent variable) and the effect of the moderating variables on these relationships. The equation of the regression model is in this general form:

$$Y_2 = a + bx_2 + u_2;$$

where  $y$  is the dependent variable,  $a$  is the value of constant or intercept,  $b$  is the regression coefficients associated with the independent variables,  $x$  is the independent variable and  $u$  is the error term. Models were developed for the regression analysis depicting the relationship between the independent and dependent variables to test the hypotheses. which is presented in chapter four. The results have four models. The first model presents the effect of the control

variables on the dependent variables. The second model shows the result of the effect of the independent variable of interest on the dependent variable. The third model represents the result of the moderating effect on the dependent variables while the fourth model, includes the interaction effect of the independent variables of interest and moderating variables on the dependent variable.

### **3.9 Ethical consideration**

Ethics in research refers to what is considered as right or wrong as per the moral research actions (Neuman, 2014). This research involved relating to people and collecting and analyzing data collected from them. Accordingly, the researcher needed to understand and apply the ethical frameworks that underpin the study and anticipate and incorporate ethical issues in the research process. Ethical considerations apply to all methods of research (Creswell, 2014). The ethical issues apply at all phases of the research process, i.e., from inception up to after research is concluded. Creswell (2014) states that the researcher should respect the rights, values, culture, gender and other preferences of the participants. Ethical issues that the researcher put into perspectives during and after the conduct of research are presented below (Creswell, 2014).

In general, the respondents were fully informed and their consent gained before the researcher included them in the study. They were also assured that information received will be treated confidentially to prevent it from getting into the public domain and the information will be used exclusively for academic purposes. Respondents were duly informed about the importance of the study and how their cooperation will help in future policy formulation in their various industries of operations. Notwithstanding, individuals or firms who did not expressly show any interest in participating in the exercise after some levels of persuasion were not pushed any further to coerce them to participate in the study. Specifically, below are some of the definite ethical considerations of the research.

#### **3.9.1 Informed consent**

Informed consent requires that participants be made to clearly understand the purpose of the research, the parties conducting or involved in the study, the procedure involved, the possible uses of the data and details of the participant's involvement. In this study, the researcher informed the participants and respondents to the structured questionnaire of the aim of the

research, the name and details of the researcher and their expected role during the data gathering process. The procedure for collecting data during the quantitative data collection was explained.

### ***3.9.2 Respect for anonymity and confidentiality***

Ethical consideration for anonymity and confidentiality requires that participants be informed of the conditions and degree of anonymity and confidentiality attending their involvement in the research process. Anonymity denotes protecting the identity of the participants from persons outside the research team and where possible even from the research team. Confidentiality demands ensuring participants responses are not linked or attributable to their identities. In this regard, the researcher should be aware of the possible emotional and social implications that a loss of confidentiality may have on participants. In this research process, the researcher assured the participants that their name and that of their organisation was not in focus and remain firmly confidential. It was stated to the participants that all information obtained will be treated anonymously, confidentially and used only for research purposes. In furtherance of this respect, the identity of questionnaire respondents was not requested and there are no easily traceable links between the respondents and their responses. Accordingly, the data collected anonymously in the quantitative phase cannot be identified with a particular respondent. The researcher also ensured secured storage and restriction of access to the collected data. The imperative of confidentiality is extended to analysis and publication of research findings such that identities of subjects are not revealed or connectable and there will be eventual destruction of raw data.

### ***3.9.3 Protecting participants from harm and risk***

It is necessary to give due consideration to the harm and risk to participants and to take measures to avert them. The concept of harm in research is commonly associated with a psychological or emotional injury that could arise from the interaction of the participants with the study, rather than physical harm. The researcher assured that the participants were not exposed to any interaction that could cause such harm as a result of their involvement with the study process. In furtherance of this, the researcher provided the participants with a clear understanding of the research issues to be addressed and the procedures to be adopted. Care was exercised not to move towards asking or collect harmful information. Also, there

was due attention to any signs of discomfort expressed by participants and appropriate readiness to respond to any concerns around confidentiality.

#### ***3.9.4 Honesty and integrity of reporting***

Credible research requires compliance with basic principles and standards of honesty, trust and integrity. The researcher must ensure that data collection procedure is legitimate and meets ethical standards and that the results generated from the data are accurately derived and not misleading. In consideration of these, this researcher ensured openness and integrity of the data collection process. The study gave due attention to the diversity of perspectives about the topic, including results that were contrary to the researcher's expectations. The study also avoided the tendency to give greater disclosure or devotion to positive or expected results of the researcher.

#### ***3.9.5 Develop appropriate expertise and experience***

Research requires appropriate expertise and capacity for it to be responsibly and credibly conducted. This study was guided by experts' suggestions that researchers need to have good knowledge of the research topic including being conversant with related literature, previous research and the applicable research methods, as well as their weaknesses. Accordingly, the researcher had to build appropriate capacity and understanding of the research environment before conducting the study.

#### ***3.9.6 Conduct of research within the law***

Research must be conducted within the law that regulates the standards and conduct of research involving human endeavours. The researcher took adequate care to ensure understanding and compliance with applicable laws thus, enabling the research process to be per legal requirements. In this regard, there was compliance with legislation on matters such as human rights, respect for the privacy of individuals and data protection, confidentiality, plagiarism and intellectual property.

#### **3.10 Common method variance bias**

The researcher in the course of data analysis checked for the existence of common method variance bias which occurs when data is collected using cross-section research designs. This occurs when a questionnaire is answered by a single respondent who responds to both the

dependent and independent variable questions. This procedure could lead to systematic measurement bias and error in the true relationships existing between the constructs (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesan & Moorman, 2008). Harman's single factor test is one technique to identify common method variance. The researcher performed exploratory factor analysis (EFA) as part of the testing of the common method variance bias. This was done using the non-rotated factor solution to determine the number of factors that are necessary to account for the variance in the variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). If a single factor emerges as the factor with majority variance (50% or more) or one general factor will account for the majority of the covariance among the measures, then it is concluded that a substantial amount of common method variance is present. This study followed the recommendation by Harman (1967) by performing EFA to determine if any of the variables accounted for more than 50% of the variance. From the results (appendix 4), none of the factors accounted for 50% of the variance. The rule of thumb is that, when none of the factors accounts for 50% or more of the total explanatory variance, then there is no problem of common method bias.

### **3.11 Operationalisation and measurement of scales**

The questionnaire comprised of five sections (Refer to Appendix 1). Section A (PJF and Job Training Fit), Section B (Organisational Commitment, Psychological empowerment and Environmental Fit); and Section C (Employee work performance which is categorised into in-role and extra-role performance of the employee). Section D is the control factors which is presented as Job complexity, skill, position, work experience and job embeddedness. Section E outlines the biographical information of respondents. The biographical section sought to gather demographic data of respondents and the characteristics of participating manufacturing companies. Items covered under the demographic section include Gender, Age, Marital status, years of working in the organisation, level of education, years of existence of the organisation and the total number of full-time employees.

**Independent variables:** The researcher used two independent variables, namely, PJF and job training fit.

**Person-job Fit:** This construct was measured with five (5) items adapted from the study of Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001). All the five items were used for the measurement and they

included items like “*My abilities fit the demands of this job*” and “*I have the right skills and abilities for doing this job*”. The scale had a Cronbach alpha value of 0.788. All items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1=strong disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4- agree and 5=strongly agree). PJF was coded in the SPSS as JobFit1, JobFit2, JobFit3, JobFit4 and JobFit5 according to the numbering on the questionnaire distributed.

***Job Training Fit:*** This construct was measured with five (5) items adapted from the study of Bulut and Culha (2010). Four items were used for the measurement and they included items like “I try to learn as much as I can from training programmes” and “I tend to learn more from training programmes than most people”. The scale had a Cronbach alpha value of 0.722. All items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1=strong disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4- agree and 5=strongly agree). Job Training Fit was coded in the SPSS as JobTraining1, JobTraining2, JobTraining3, JobTraining4 and JobTraining5 according to the numbering on the questionnaire distributed.

**Moderating variables:** The researcher used three moderating variables, namely, organizational commitment, psychological empowerment and environmental fit.

***Organizational commitment:*** This construct was measured with nine (9) items adapted from the study of Mathews and Shepherd (2012). Three items were used for the measurement and they included items like “I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for this organization” and “I feel myself to be a part of this company”. The scale had a Cronbach alpha value of 0.640. All items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1=strong disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4- agree and 5=strongly agree). The organisational commitment was coded in the SPSS as OrgCommit1, OrgCommit2, OrgCommit3, OrgCommit4, OrgCommit5, OrgCommit6, OrgCommit7, OrgCommit8 and OrgCommit9.

***Psychological empowerment:*** This construct was measured with twelve (12) items adapted from the study of Spreitzer (1995). Six items were used for the final measurement and they included items like “My impact on what happens in my department is large” and “I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department”. The scale had a Cronbach alpha value of 0.837. All items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1=strong disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4- agree and 5=strongly agree). Psychological empowerment was coded in the

SPSS as Psycho1, Psycho2, Psycho3, Psycho4, Psycho5, Psycho6, Psycho7, Psycho8, Psycho9, Psycho10, Psycho11 and Psycho12.

***Environmental fit:*** This construct was measured with three (3) items adapted from the study of Cable and ReRue (2002). Three items were used for the final measurement and they included items like “The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values” and “My values match my organization’s values and culture”. The scale had a Cronbach alpha value of 0.717. All items were rated on a 5 -point Likert scale (1=strong disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4- agree and 5=strongly agree. Environmental fit was coded in the SPSS as Env1, Env2 and Env3.

**Dependent variable:** The researcher used employee work behaviour (in-role and extra-role performance) as the dependent variables. The role performance construct was measured with six (6) items with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.619 whiles the extra-role performance was also measured with six (6) items with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.801. All adapted from the study of Turnley et al (2003).

**Control variables:** The researcher also used the following variables to control for the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables. The control variables include gender, age, marital status position, education and years of being in the stated organisation and certain categorical variables such as job complexity, skill and job embeddedness.

### **3.12 Chapter summary**

In this chapter, the research design and methodology used to collect data from the respondents has been discussed. Also, justification was given for the chosen data collection methods (specifically a survey of workers in the ceramic tile manufacturing industry). It further discussed that a probability sampling technique was used for the quantitative phase and then a purposive technique for the case study. The findings from the study are presented in the next chapter.

## **Chapter Four**

### **Results and Findings**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings of the study based on the stated research objectives. The main purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship between PJF, JTF and employee work behaviour. More importantly, the research assesses the role of organisational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment as moderating variables on the relationship between PJF, JTF and employee work behaviour. The results of how these factors affect employee work behaviour among tiles manufacturing firms in Ghana is presented in this chapter. The chapter is organized as follows; a presentation of the demographic characteristics of respondents, measurement statistics and normality results, validity and reliability results, exploratory factor analysis result, measurement summary, correlation and regression results.

#### **4.1 Background information**

This section presents a discussion of the background characteristics of the respondents that participated in the study. A total of 3 ceramics tiles manufacturing firms were used. A total of 600 questionnaires were administered to all employees in the organisation. These excluded the senior management staff. The data was collected through field administration of the questionnaire. After 2 months, 484 questionnaires were received representing 80.66% response rate. A description of the respondents' characteristics is presented in Table 3. Respondents' background information was solicited along the lines of the following descriptors; their gender, their age, their educational level, their positions held.

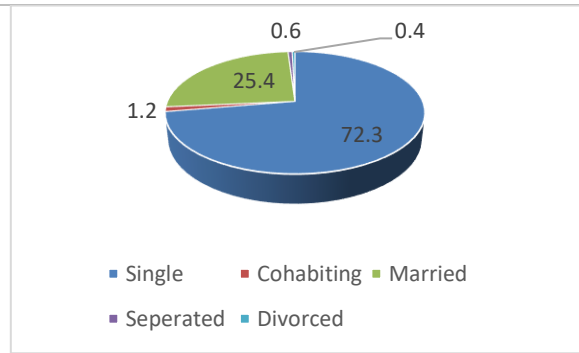
It is important to state that due to missing values or incomplete responses the total response for some of the questions did not tally to the total number of questionnaires administered. Two (2) respondents did not fill their gender information. All other variables were filled by the respondents. From the results presented below, in terms of gender, 418 of the respondents were males representing 86.4 per cent of the total sample, while 66 were females representing 13.4 per cent of the total sample. Based on the responses received, it was noted that there were more male respondents than females. This indicated that the factory work in the

ceramics tiles manufacturing industry is male-dominated. A summary of the descriptive characteristics of the respondents as discussed above is presented in Table 3 below.

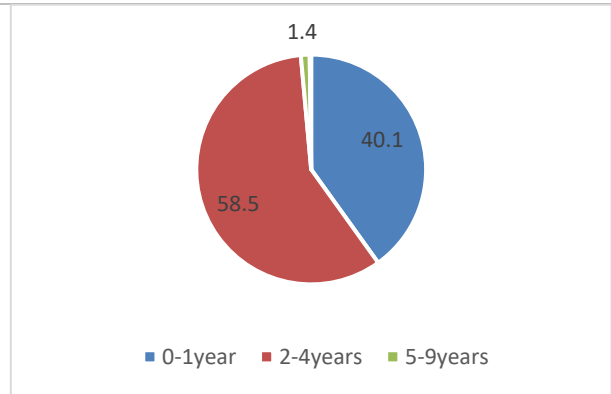
Table 3: Demographic characteristics of respondents

Tabular representation			Figurative representation	
Gender	Frequency	Per cent	<p>A 3D pie chart showing the gender distribution of respondents. The chart is divided into two segments: a large blue segment representing Male at 86.4% and a smaller red segment representing Female at 13.6%. A legend below the chart identifies the colors: blue for Male and red for Female.</p>	
Male	418	86.4		
Female	66	13.6		
Total	484	100		
Age of respondents	Frequency	Per cent	<p>A 3D bar chart showing the age distribution of respondents. The x-axis lists age groups: Below 20years, 21-25years, 26-30years, 31-35years, 36-40years, and 40years and above. The y-axis represents frequency, ranging from 0 to 250. The bars are red and their heights correspond to the frequency values: 13, 137, 205, 95, 27, and 7 respectively.</p>	
Below 20years	13	2.7		
21-25years	137	28.3		
26-30years	205	42.4		
31-35years	95	19.6		
36-40years	27	5.6		
40years and above	7	1.4		
Total	484	100.0		

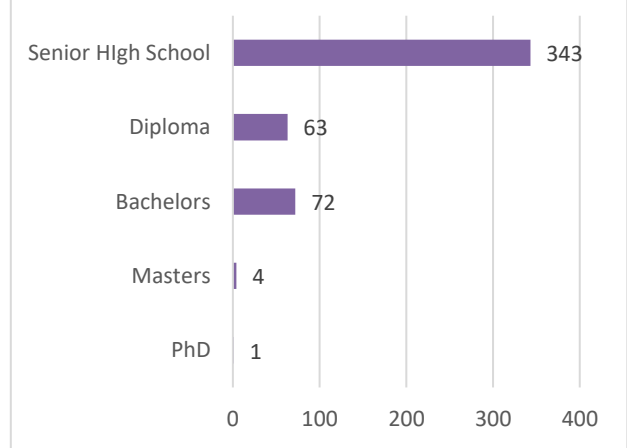
Marital Status	Frequency	Per cent
Single	350	72.3
Cohabiting	6	1.2
Married	123	25.4
Separated	3	0.6
Divorced	2	0.4
Total	484	100.0

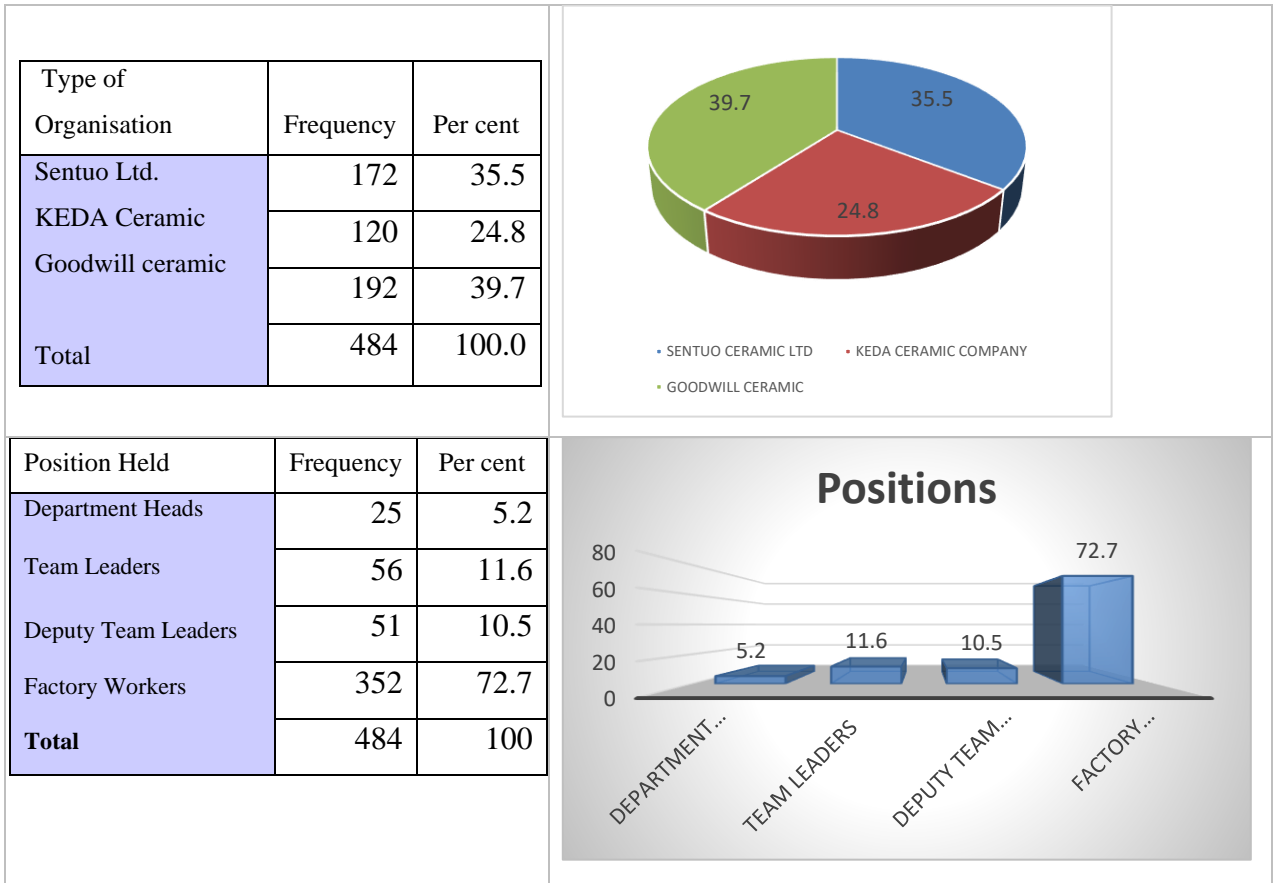


Years of Work	Frequency	Per cent
0-1year	194	40.1
2-4years	283	58.5
5-9years	7	1.4
Total	484	100.0



Education	Frequency	Per cent
PhD	1	0.2
Masters	4	0.8
Bachelors	72	14.9
Diploma	63	13.0
Senior High School	341	70.5
Total	484	100.0





In terms of age, the majority of employees numbered 205 fell between the age brackets of 26 and 30 years, representing 42.4 per cent. While 27 employees were between the age ranges of 36-40 years, constituting 5.6 per cent of the total sample. Thus, it can be noted that most of the respondents were between the ages of 26-30 years. This is not very surprising as the Ceramic tile manufacturing industry needs a youthful population due to the nature of work and their assigned roles.

With regards to their marital status, we could infer from the table above that, majority of them (350) were single representing 72.3%. Six of the workers representing 1.2% were cohabiting whereas 123 of them representing 25.4% were married. From the above, 3 of the respondents were separated while 2 of them were divorced, representing 6% and .4% respectively.

However, in terms of the positions the respondents held in their respective organizations, results showed that 25 were department heads which constituted 5.2 per cent of the total sample, whereby, 56 were team leaders constituting 11.6 per cent of the total sample

surveyed. Also, 51 were deputy team leaders representing 10.5 per cent, and 352 were factory workers constituting 72.7 per cent of the total sample. Thus, it can be noted that most of the respondents that participated in the survey were factory workers.

Concerning the years of work of the respondents in their respective organisation, it could be deduced that 194 of the workers representing 40.1 per cent had worked in the organisation for less than a year. A total of 283 of the respondents representing 58.5 per cent had been in their organisation for within 2 and 4 years. 6 of the respondents representing 1.4 per cent had been in their organisation for within 5 to 9 years.

With regards to the educational level of the respondents, 1 of them representing 0.2 per cent had a PhD. Also, 4 of the respondents were holders of Master's degree, representing 0.8 per cent, while 72 were bachelor's degree holders representing 14.9 per cent and also 63 of the respondents were diploma degree holders constituting 13 per cent of the total sample. Further, 341 of the respondents representing 70.5 per cent were senior high school leavers.

## **4.2 Measurement statistics and normality**

### **4.2.1 Measurement statistics**

This section presents a summary result of the individual items used to measure the constructs in the study. The measurement statistics and normality results of the items employed are presented using inferential statistics. Table 4 presents the results of the inferential statistics showing the minimum and maximum response level of the respondents, the standard deviation and mean of the responses gathered as well as the skewness and kurtosis of the responses gathered. The maximum and minimum values show the scale to which the respondents agree or disagree with the questions posed to them. The table suggests that all the items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 to 5 (i.e., 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree). The mean statistics, however, indicate the average distribution of the trend of response received for each question. From table 4, it was found that, to a large extent, respondents agreed ( $M=4.2692$ ) to the statement "JobFit1: My abilities fit the demand of the job". Relating to the statement "OrgCommit6: I'm not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation", respondents generally disagreed to this statement. This statement was reversed through reverse coding to ensure consistency with the other questions. The

respondents fairly agreed ( $M = 3.3843$ ) to the statement, “OrgCommit8: I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good”. This item was also coded reversely for extra analysis.

A normality test on all individual measures was conducted to examine the spread for all the measures in the questionnaire. The standard deviation statistics in table 4 below shows how the individual items responses are spread out away from the mean. A low standard deviation shows that the distribution is very close to the mean or average score whereas a high standard deviation depicts that the data distribution is widely spread-out away from the mean. For example, the items *JobFit1* to *OrgCommit8* had low standard deviations which means that their distributions were very close to their respective means. This was in contrast to the standard deviations of *OrgCommit6*, *OrgCommit7* and *OrgCommit8* which were spread out away from the mean.

Moreover, the skewness and the kurtosis of the data depicts the slope of the data. Specifically, the skewness of the distribution explains the asymmetrical behaviour of the data. Thus, the data set can either be normally, negatively or positively distributed. A data set that is negatively skewed is tilted to the left of the mean, whereas a positively skewed data is tilted to the right of the mean. However, for a normal distribution, the skewness score is usually close to zero. Kurtosis value provides “information about the ‘peakedness’ of the distribution”. A value very close to zero also signifies that the data is almost perfectly a normal distribution (Pallant, 2013). A value of -3 and 3 suggest that the data is normally distributed for both the skewness and kurtosis. An examination of table 4 suggests that all the figures are normally distributed.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std.		
					Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
JobFit1	483	1.00	5.00	4.2692	.69529	-1.460	2.836
JobFit2	483	2.00	5.00	4.3209	.65574	-.935	1.732
JobFit3	484	1.00	5.00	4.2211	.79770	-1.352	2.840
JobFit4	483	1.00	5.00	4.2899	.73080	-1.407	1.628
JobTraining1	484	1.00	5.00	4.1921	.71819	-.943	1.837
JobTraining2	484	1.00	5.00	4.0682	.76512	-.729	.847
JobTraining3	484	1.00	5.00	4.2045	.74593	-1.192	2.882
OrgCommit6	481	1.00	5.00	2.6757	1.37038	.156	-1.359
OrgCommit7	483	1.00	5.00	3.3975	1.01817	-.336	-.249
OrgCommit8	484	1.00	5.00	3.3843	1.08683	-.459	-.373
Psycho7	472	1.00	5.00	3.5826	1.03933	-.444	-.338
Psycho8	473	1.00	5.00	3.2410	1.12420	-.090	-.805
Psycho9	478	1.00	5.00	3.2469	1.08629	-.099	-.751
Psycho10	480	1.00	5.00	3.4542	1.06862	-.169	-.848
Psycho11	479	1.00	5.00	3.3486	1.05574	-.047	-.740
Psycho12	479	1.00	5.00	3.3361	1.07354	-.130	-.657
EnvFit1	483	1.00	5.00	3.6128	.85530	-.504	.634
EnvFit2	484	1.00	5.00	3.4669	.90601	-.170	.085
EnvFit3	484	1.00	5.00	3.4649	.94836	-.550	.061
EnvFit4	484	1.00	5.00	3.7500	.98514	-.774	.510
INROLE3	483	1.00	5.00	3.9565	.79428	-.720	1.074
INROLE4	484	1.00	5.00	4.0413	.74095	-.863	1.844
INROLE5	484	1.00	5.00	3.9401	.83810	-.713	.590
INROLE6	484	1.00	5.00	3.9112	.91816	-.935	1.063
EXTRA3	481	1.00	5.00	2.3888	1.16216	.691	-.369
EXTRA4	480	1.00	5.00	2.2604	1.12334	.832	.017
EXTRA5	480	1.00	5.00	2.0604	1.05906	1.108	.758
JobComplex1	482	1.00	5.00	4.0581	.87275	-1.168	1.999
JobComplex2	482	1.00	5.00	3.9585	.90180	-1.028	1.348
JobComplex4	484	1.00	5.00	3.5475	1.09384	-.374	-.611
Skill2	484	1.00	5.00	3.8368	.84651	-.361	-.053
Skill3	484	1.00	5.00	3.8285	.80983	-.711	1.222
Skill4	484	1.00	6.00	4.0558	.76342	-.907	1.851
JobEmbed2	479	1.00	5.00	3.9290	.94580	-1.050	1.199
JobEmbed3	479	1.00	5.00	3.9833	1.21002	1.549	1.024

### 4.3 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted to understand the relationship between the various items used in measuring the various constructs. Thus, the exploratory factor analysis was conducted to ascertain the theoretical structure or the underlying relationships between the various measured variables.

To understand the relationship between the various items, a principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted using an orthogonal transformation to convert the measurement items into some uncorrelated principal components. Thus, this was done to bring out the strong patterns of the data set. From the varimax rotation result, 6 components were extracted for the study. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis,  $KMO = .740$  which is excellent (Hair et al., 2010). The rule of thumb is the KMO should be above 0.6 and it should be significant. Bartlett’s test of sphericity  $\chi^2(484) = 4747.481, p < .001$ , indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for PCA. The process of obtaining unidimensionality was achieved by a series of iterations and deletions of some cross-loadings. The final analysis, however, showed the extraction of 10 factors which showed eigenvalues over Kaiser’s criterion of 1 and cumulatively explained 62.393 per cent of the variance.

Table 5 presented below shows the rotated factor loadings and the KMO and Bartlett’s test of sphericity results. Based on the rotated factor extraction obtained, six items loaded on component 1 which corresponded to the ‘Psychological contract’ construct. Additionally, four items loaded on component 2 which corresponded with the construct ‘Extra-role behaviour’. Also, four items loaded on component 3 which related to the construct ‘Job Fit’. Another four items loaded on component 4 which corresponded with the construct ‘Environmental Fit’ whiles four items loaded on component 5 labelled as ‘in-role performance’, Three items loaded on component 6 labelled as ‘Job Complexity’, Three items loaded on ‘Skills’ whiles three items loaded on the 8<sup>th</sup> component labelled as organisational commitment. Three items loaded on Job Training Fit whiles the last component was job embeddedness with 2 items.

Table 5: Exploratory factor analysis result

	Component									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
JobFit1	.121	.021	.748	-.093	.109	.052	.002	.027	.082	-.004
JobFit2	.069	-.036	.745	.024	.030	.007	-.001	.033	.167	.072
JobFit3	-.007	-.290	.675	.065	.103	-.029	-.032	.016	.010	.079
JobFit4	.009	-.063	.768	-.035	-.046	.043	-.036	-.044	.113	.076
JobTraining1	.011	.039	.143	-.038	.075	-.122	.134	-.132	.757	-.162
JobTraining2	-.022	-.089	.058	.054	.014	.064	.040	.083	.765	.063
JobTraining3	.017	.002	.222	.037	.067	.085	-.115	.025	.690	.203
OrgCommit6	.187	.198	-.093	-.046	-.101	.043	.039	.715	-.052	.001
OrgCommit7	-.089	-.031	-.029	.001	-.052	-.075	.116	.768	-.065	.071
OrgCommit8	-.021	.062	.147	-.030	-.007	.073	-.055	.774	.114	-.049
Psycho7	.763	.021	-.027	.132	-.085	-.009	-.033	.009	.022	-.016
Psycho8	.722	.114	-.018	.023	-.082	-.041	.082	-.147	-.030	.175
Psycho9	.748	.165	.085	-.049	-.127	.028	.104	-.006	-.030	.149
Psycho10	.777	.039	.047	.074	-.095	-.026	.105	.050	-.056	-.045
Psycho11	.828	-.003	.051	-.004	.043	.020	-.083	.103	.068	-.024
Psycho12	.766	.090	.085	-.022	.077	.045	-.112	.032	.027	-.036
EnvFit1	-.019	.074	.074	.724	.055	.027	-.012	-.094	-.082	.011
EnvFit2	.075	.116	-.030	.629	-.117	.193	-.035	.094	.073	.040
EnvFit3	.019	-.081	.025	.823	.020	-.131	.046	-.042	-.012	-.020
EnvFit4	.074	-.035	-.117	.726	.092	-.032	-.012	-.016	.086	-.002
INROLE3	-.034	.053	.173	.068	.591	-.005	.098	-.136	-.058	.072
INROLE4	-.047	-.057	-.014	.044	.729	.010	-.079	.007	.061	-.008
INROLE5	-.088	-.041	-.031	.012	.726	.191	.058	.020	.007	.065
INROLE6	-.044	-.028	.064	-.060	.755	.022	.049	-.049	.126	.081
EXTRA3	.122	.755	-.018	.066	-.066	-.060	.064	-.005	.019	-.004
EXTRA4	.177	.758	-.073	-.032	-.007	.014	-.008	.032	-.067	.020
EXTRA5	-.011	.801	-.077	.085	-.033	.102	-.077	.029	.022	.015
EXTRA6	.064	.775	-.123	-.046	.034	.040	-.021	.157	-.039	-.029
JobComplex1	-.045	-.028	.025	.018	.080	.864	.065	.020	.025	.011
JobComplex2	-.020	.045	.102	.092	.125	.810	.061	-.023	-.053	.046
JobComplex4	.092	.081	-.049	-.087	.004	.628	.256	.042	.074	-.131
Skill2	.155	.059	.015	-.073	-.026	.093	.736	.157	-.008	-.226
Skill3	-.024	.019	.004	-.031	.006	.165	.817	-.027	.024	-.066
Skill4	-.080	-.125	-.085	.095	.149	.084	.696	-.005	.043	.176
JobEmbed2	.095	-.058	.098	-.015	.101	-.003	-.066	.054	.067	.833
JobEmbed3	.048	.062	.112	.033	.104	-.049	-.026	-.026	.027	.859

As explained earlier, the cumulated variance explained by the 10 extracted components totaled 62.393 per cent of the total variance in the variables. However, it is important to note that the individual component of PJF contributed 11.655 per cent of the total variance explained while Job Training Fit which loaded on component 2 contributed 9.455 per cent to the total variance explained. The construct 'Organizational commitment' contributed 7.437 per cent of the total variance, while, the construct 'Psychological empowerment' Environmental fit, in-role performance, extra-role performance, job complexity, skills and job embeddedness contributed 6.526 per cent, 6.025 per cent, 5.290 per cent, 4.536 per cent, 4.168 per cent, 3.726 per cent and 3.577 per cent respectively. The complete result is shown in Table 6. It is also critical to note that 10 components are selected because in each case, the Kaiser criterion is greater than 1, While component 1 has 4.196, component 10 has 1.288.

**Table 6: Total variances explained**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.196	11.655	11.655	4.196	11.655	11.655	3.733	10.369	10.369
2	3.404	9.455	21.110	3.404	9.455	21.110	2.651	7.365	17.734
3	2.677	7.437	28.546	2.677	7.437	28.546	2.409	6.691	24.425
4	2.349	6.526	35.072	2.349	6.526	35.072	2.232	6.199	30.624
5	2.169	6.025	41.097	2.169	6.025	41.097	2.172	6.033	36.656
6	1.904	5.290	46.387	1.904	5.290	46.387	2.002	5.562	42.218
7	1.633	4.536	50.923	1.633	4.536	50.923	1.910	5.306	47.524
8	1.500	4.168	55.091	1.500	4.168	55.091	1.865	5.180	52.703
9	1.341	3.726	58.817	1.341	3.726	58.817	1.779	4.941	57.645
10	1.288	3.577	62.393	1.288	3.577	62.393	1.709	4.748	62.393
11	.897	2.492	64.885						
12	.876	2.434	67.319						
13	.842	2.339	69.658						
14	.758	2.107	71.765						
15	.736	2.044	73.808						
16	.713	1.981	75.789						
17	.612	1.700	77.489						
18	.609	1.693	79.182						
19	.601	1.669	80.851						
20	.562	1.562	82.413						
21	.541	1.502	83.915						
22	.523	1.453	85.368						
23	.505	1.404	86.772						
24	.491	1.365	88.137						
25	.451	1.254	89.391						
26	.441	1.225	90.616						
27	.431	1.198	91.814						
28	.407	1.132	92.945						
29	.386	1.073	94.019						
30	.360	.999	95.018						
31	.352	.978	95.996						
32	.338	.939	96.935						
33	.310	.862	97.797						
34	.290	.806	98.603						
35	.254	.705	99.308						
36	.249	.692	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The researcher also presented the reliabilities, validities and composite reliability results of the factors based on the PCA. Table 7 presents the measurement summary, with the factor loadings extracted, Cronbach alpha showing the reliabilities, composite reliabilities and the Average Variance Extracted for each construct and its measurement item. All item standardized loadings for each construct were significant ( $p < .001$ ), which supports the dimensionality of the constructs (Hair et al., 2006; Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Also, composite reliability of the main constructs in the study were above 0.70.

*Table 7: Measurement summary with reliability, composite reliability and Average Variance Extracted*

Code	Items	Loadings	Reliability ( $\alpha$ )	CR	AVE
<b>Person-Job Fit</b>			<b>.759</b>	<b>.8240</b>	<b>.5399</b>
JobFit1	My abilities fit the demands of this job	.748			
JobFit2	I have the right skills and abilities for doing this job	.745			
JobFit3	There is a good match between the requirements of this job and my skills	.675			
JobFit4	My personality is a good match for this job	.768			
<b>Job Training Fit</b>			<b>.660</b>	<b>0.6291</b>	<b>.5448</b>
JobTraining1	I try to learn as much as I can from training programmes	.757			
JobTraining2	I tend to learn more from training programmes than most people	.765			
JobTraining3	I am usually motivated to learn the skills emphasized in training programmes	.690			
<b>Organisational commitment</b>			<b>.640</b>	<b>0.6285</b>	<b>.5667</b>
OrgCommit6	I'm not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation	.715			
OrgCommit7	Even if (company name) were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer	.768			
OrgCommit8	The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job	.774			
<b>Psychological empowerment</b>			<b>.870</b>	<b>.8959</b>	<b>.5898</b>
Psycho7	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job	.763			
Psycho8	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work	.722			
Psycho9	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job	.748			
Psycho10	My impact on what happens in my department is large	.777			
Psycho11	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department	.828			
Psycho12	I have significant influence over what happens in my department	.766			
<b>Environmental Fit</b>			<b>.717</b>	<b>.8178</b>	<b>.5311</b>
EnvFit1	The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organisation values	.724			
EnvFit2	My values match my organisation's values	.629			
EnvFit3	My organisation's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life	.823			
EnvFit4	My values match my organisation's culture	.726			

Table 7 continuation

Code	Items	Loadings	Reliability ( $\alpha$ )	CR	AVE
<b>In-role performance</b>			.691	.7950	.4945
INROLE3	I fulfil all the responsibilities specified in my job description	.591			
INROLE4	I consistently meet the formal requirement of my work	.729			
INROLE5	I always complete all my assigned duties	.726			
INROLE6	I consistently meet the formal performance requirements of the job	.755			
<b>Extra-role performance</b>			.801	.8554	.5967
EXTRA3	I sometimes neglect aspects of the job that I am obligated to perform	.755			
EXTRA4	This organisation inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance	.758			
EXTRA5	I do a good job in terms of quantity and quality	.801			
EXTRA6	I am ready to help new employees with their work	.775			
<b>Job Complexity</b>			.689	.6996	.5990
JobComplex1	The job requires that I only do one task or activity at a time	.864			
JobComplex2	The tasks on the job are simple and uncomplicated	.810			
JobComplex4	The job involves performing relatively simple tasks	.628			
<b>Skills</b>			.648	.6333	.5345
Skill2	The job requires me to utilize a variety of different skills to complete the work.	.736			
Skill3	The job requires me to use several complex or high-level skills	.817			
Skill4	The job requires the use of several skills.	.696			
<b>Job embeddedness</b>			.528	.8344	.7159
JobEmbed2	Overall, I fit very well in the organisation	.833			
JobEmbed3	My closest friends are in the organisation	.859			

#### 4.4 Descriptive statistics, correlation and Validity

This section discusses the relationships between the various constructs. Table 8 shows the result for the existing relationships between the constructs as well as the descriptive statistics of the various constructs. Correlation analysis tests how one variable relates to another variable. It is not expected for two variables which are supposed to be conceptually distinct and different from each other to have a correlation coefficient of 1 or very close to one. When that happens, then there is a likely problem of multicollinearity. Thus, using the benchmark specified by Gujarati (2003), when the correlation coefficients between the two constructs are greater than 0.8, then there is a likely problem of multicollinearity. From table 8, it can be noted that none of the correlation coefficients was beyond the 0.8 benchmarks, hence it is concluded that variables are distinct and conceptually different from each other. In other words, there is no problem of multicollinearity. The Pearson correlation indicated that the correlation among constructs was not too high eliminating any problem of multicollinearity. Further analysis of this assumption is done using the variance inflation factor in the regression analysis.

From the correlation matrix in Table 8, it can be noted that in-role performance significantly (at 1% level of significance) and positively correlated with Person-job Fit with a correlation coefficient of .143<sup>\*\*</sup>, while in-role performance also significantly and positively correlated with Job Training Fit with a correlation coefficient of .144<sup>\*\*</sup>. Additionally, the extra-role performance also significantly and positively correlates with PJF at a correlation coefficient of .177<sup>\*\*</sup> and with the age of business positively at .293<sup>\*</sup>. The standard deviation of the various variables is relatively low showing that the distribution of the variables is closely clustered around the mean.

In determining whether the constructs used for this study are valid, and they measure what they were purported to measure, the researcher performed constructs validity which comprised of running analysis for convergent validity and discriminant validity using the AVEs. As indicated in Table 8, the loadings for the measures of each construct, were all relatively large and positive above 0.50. However, the square of these loadings indicates the commonality of the measure or the variance that the measure has in common with the construct. When the commonality measures are standardized, the average commonality of a

block of indicators is referred to as the average variance extracted (AVE) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The criterion for establishing convergent validity is that the AVE measures should exceed .50 to ensure that on the average, the measures share at least half of their variation with the latent variable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hjorth, 1994). As shown in Table 8, the AVE criteria were met for all the six main constructs. Thus, for the constructs with AVE .50 and above, the convergent validity of their measures was supported. The discriminant validity of the constructs was assessed as suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) by comparing the squared root of the AVE (diagonal elements) with the correlations among construct (off-diagonal elements). Table 9 shows that the diagonal elements were significantly greater than off-diagonal elements which support the discriminant validity of the construct.

**Table 8: Correlation results**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>12</b>
In-role performance	1											
Extra-role performance	.117**	1										
Person-job fit	.143**	.177**	1									
Job training fit	.144**	.083	.326**	1								
Org Commitment	-.121**	-.166**	.018	.029	1							
Psychological empowerment	-.128**	-.205**	.125**	.007	.101*	1						
Environmental fit	.048	-.019	-.010	.039	-.041	.072	1					
Job complexity	.159**	-.037	.004	.026	.030	-.012	.004	1				
Skills	.124**	.053	-.027	.037	.066	.006	-.004	.311**	1			
Job Embeddedness	.126**	.012	.230**	.143**	.017	.101*	.047	-.035	-.059	1		
Age of Business	.093*	.293**	.265**	.144**	-.003	.003	-.063	-.008	-.036	.124**	1	
Total employees	.150**	.105*	.287**	.086	-.015	.012	-.033	.061	-.058	.148**	.341**	1
Mean	3.9625	-2.240	4.2750	4.1550	3.1522	3.3741	3.5740	3.8506	3.9070	3.9523	1.9008	4.805
Standard deviation	.59445	.89197	.54901	.57363	.89481	.83791	.68050	.75892	.61858	.89976	.48846	.8287
Skewness	-.942	-.812	-1.681	-.989	.058	-.184	-.705	-.828	-.605	1.044	1.369	-1.27
Kurtosis	1.824	.112	5.322	2.013	-.614	-.555	.997	.959	1.548	1.088	1.549	1.666
AVE	.7032	.7724	.7348	.7381	.7528	.7679	.7287	.7739	.7311	.8461	-	-

<sup>+</sup> $p < .10$ , \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$  (two-tailed test)

Note: M= Mean, SD= Standard deviation, S = Skewness, K = Kurtosis, AVE= Average Variance Extracted

Off diagonal elements show the squared root of AVE (in bold)

## **4.5 Diagnostic tests**

### **4.5.1 *non-response bias***

Non-response bias is used to compare the mean values of the questionnaire scale items between respondents who answered the questionnaires early and those who did so after follow-up. When there is a significant difference between the two categories (Lings & Greenly, 2010), then we have non-response bias. In this study, questionnaires were specifically sent to the sample by a team of data collectors and they were given a time frame to submit. We did not use other questionnaire submitted at a later date and therefore, non-response bias was not likely to be a problem with this data. Again, the response rate achieved for this study was 80.66%. Some authors have argued that where there is a very high response rate, test for non-response bias may not be necessary (Ledden et al., 2011; Anabila et al., 2018).

### **4.5.2 *Sample size assumption***

The 484 responses obtained from the respondents meet the regression analysis recommendation proposed by Hair et al. (2012). The authors propose 5 to 10 times the number of items in the most complex constructs. The questionnaire had 60 items: therefore, the minimum sample size is 300 or 600 for the maximum sample. In either scenario, the obtained sample size of 484 for this study meets the minimum sample size requirement for the application of regression analysis.

### **4.5.3 *Homoscedasticity assumption***

According to Penrose, Nelson and Fisher (1985), the term homoscedasticity relates to whether the residuals are bunch together at some values, and at other values, spread far apart or whether these residuals are equally distributed, or whether they tend to. Homoscedasticity was also not presented as two case outliers and 3 cases respectively were deleted (see appendix 5 and 7).

### **4.5.4 *Multicollinearity assumption***

Multicollinearity is when the independent variables are highly correlated (Field 2009). The Variance Inflation Factor denoted by VIF was used to test the assumption of multicollinearity. Hair et al. (2012) indicated VIF quantifies how much each of the variances

in the variables is inflated. The tolerance values of greater than 0.10 and VIF values of less than 10, according to Hair et al., (2012), all indicated that the multicollinearity assumption was not violated. From the results obtained none of the VIFs was above .10 which showed that the results are free from multicollinearity.

#### **4.3.5 Linearity assumption**

The research also met the linearity assumption in line with performing regression analysis. According to Williams, Grajales and Kurkiewicz, D. (2013), to make an acceptable inference, linearity and normality are key. In ensuring normality, the residuals which are the differences between the observed value of the dependent variable and the predicted value or simply the error terms should be normal. This could be assessed by using a normal predicted probability (P-P) plot and the histogram. The result of this could be found in appendix 6 and appendix 8 of the study.

#### **4.6 Regression results**

The Ordinary Least Squares Regression analysis was employed in analyzing the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables. Multicollinearity among the variables used for the study was tested to ensure that the assumption in carrying out a regression analysis was met or not violated. The Variance Inflation Factor denoted by VIF was used to test the assumptions. Hair et al (1995) indicated VIF quantifies how much each of the variances in the variables is inflated. The tolerance value of greater than 0.10 and VIF value of less than 5 all indicate that the multicollinearity assumption was not violated. The moderating hypotheses with multiple regression analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) was tested. An initial regression with the control variables was run, followed by the independent variables of interest in model 2. In model 3, the control variables, independent variable together with the moderator variables were run. In the last model, the hypothesized interactions were added which is the product of the independent variables of interest and the moderating variables. The constituent variables were mean-centered before creating the interaction terms to eliminate multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). Table 9 and Table 10 shows the regression results.

*Regression results showing the effect of PJF, JTF, PSE, OC and EF on in-role performance*

	In-role performance			
	Model 1 β (t-values)	Model 2 β (t-values)	Model 3 β (t-values)	Model 4 β (t-values)
<b>Control Variables</b>				
Constant	3.465(20.830)***	2.872(10.548)***	3.256(10.047)***	3.319(10.203)***
Job complexity	.132(2.811)**	.130(2.800)***	.130(2.836)***	.129(2.806)***
Skills	.097(2.079)**	.092(1.980)*	.102(2.235)**	.108(2.333)**
Job embeddedness	.111(2.476)*	.088(1.931)	.100(2.217)*	.087(1.916) **
Age of business	.041(.876)	.020(.412)	.019(.394)	.009(.182)
Total employees	.118(2.468)*	.10392.131)*	.099(2.069)*	.084(1.749) **
<b>Independent variables</b>				
Person-job Fit		.058(1.170)	.080(1.618)	.205(5.215) ***
Job training fit		.098(2.098)*	.092(1.999)*	.206(5.217) ***
<b>Moderator</b>				
Psychological empowerment (PSE)			-.144(-3.262)***	-.133(-3.021)***
Organisational commitment (OC)			.117(2.674)	.128(2.907)***
Environmental fit (EF)			.049(1.115)	.038(.857)
<b>Interaction Effect</b>				
Person-job Fit x PSE				-.108(-2.291)**
Person-job Fit x OC				.079(1.553)
Person-job Fit x EF				.046(.977)
Job Training Fit x PSE				-.006(-.130)
Job Training Fit x OC				.079(-1.655) **
Job Training Fit x EF				.094(2.089)*
R <sup>2</sup>	.069	.084	.123	.145
F value	7.057***	6.213***	6.603***	4.910***
ΔR <sup>2</sup>		.015	.039	.022
Δ F value	7.057	3.888	6.962	.022
Degrees of freedom	5/474	7/472	10/469	16/463

\* $p < .10$ , \*\* $p < .05$ , \*\*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\*\* $p < .001$ . Note: Standardized regression coefficients were reported with t-values for each effect in parentheses.

From the above, there were 2 direct hypotheses and 8 moderating hypotheses. Table 9 above presents the results of these tested hypotheses. The direct hypotheses present the results of the effect of PJF and Job Training Fit on the in-role performance of the employee. Further, the direct effect of psychological empowerment, organisational commitment and environmental fit on in-role performance were assessed. The moderating hypotheses highlight the interaction effect of psychological empowerment, Organisational commitment

and Environmental and job fit and job training fit on the in-role performance of the employees in the Ghanaian Ceramic tile manufacturing Industry.

Based on the results presented in Table 9, the control variables explained 6.9 per cent of the variability in the in-role performance of the employee as indicated in Model 1. However, the addition of the independent variables to the control variables in Model 2 increased the variance ( $R^2$ ) explanation to 8.4 percent ( $\Delta F = 3.888, p < .001$ ) over the explained variability in the in-role performance of the employee in Model 2. Moreover, in Model 3, the moderator variable was added to the control variables and independent variables and this further increased the variance ( $R^2$ ) to 12.3 percent ( $\Delta F = 6.962, p < .001$ ). In the model 4 however, when the interacting terms were added to the control, independent and moderator variables, the variance ( $R^2$ ) increased further to 14.5 percent ( $\Delta F = .022, p < .001$ ).

Regarding the hypotheses tested by the study, the researcher hypothesized that PJF will have a significant and positive relationship with in-role performance of the employee. Based on the results, it was found (as shown in Model 4) that the PJF had a positive and significant relationship with in-role performance of the employee ( $\beta = .205, t = 5.215, p < .001$ ). This, therefore, provides support for hypothesis 1. Thus, it can be inferred that, when there is employee job fit, then employees exhibit higher levels of in-role performance behaviours. In the second place, the second hypothesis held that job training fit will have a positive relationship with in-role performance of the employee. This hypothesis was equally supported as there was a positive, and significant relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of the employee ( $\beta = .206, t = 5.217, p < .001$ ). Thus, hypothesis 2 was also confirmed.

Although not hypothesized, the direct effect of psychological empowerment, organisational commitment and environmental fit were also assessed. From the table above, it could be deduced that psychological empowerment had a negative and significant relationship with in-role performance of the employee ( $\beta = -.133, t = -3.021, p < .001$ ) whiles, in contrast, the organisational commitment had a positive and significant relationship with in-role performance of the employee ( $\beta = .128, t = 2.907, p < .01$ ).

Also, environmental fit had a positive but insignificant relationship with in-role performance of the employee ( $\beta = .038, t = .857, p > .10$ ).

Additionally, the study also tested a moderating hypothesis which contended that the positive relationship between PJF and in-role performance of the employee will be stronger if psychological empowerment is high rather than low. This relationship was not supported ( $\beta = -.108, t = -2.291, p < .01$ ) because there was a negative and insignificant relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 4 which stated that the relationship between PJF and in-role performance of the employee will be stronger if the organisational commitment was high rather than low was also not supported ( $\beta = .079, t = 1.553, p > .10$ ) as there was a positive but insignificant relationship between the constructs. It was also found that the relationship between PJF and in-role performance of the employee will be stronger if the environmental fit was high rather than low was also not supported ( $\beta = .046, t = .977, p > .10$ ). Hypothesis 5 was therefore not supported.

It was evident that hypothesis 6 was also not supported as it could be deduced from the table that the relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of the employee is stronger when psychological empowerment is high rather than low ( $\beta = -.006, t = -.130, p > .10$ ) whereas hypothesis 7 which stated that the relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of the employee is stronger when organisational commitment is high rather than low was rather supported. This is because there was a positive and significant relationship between the constructs ( $\beta = .079, t = 1.655, p < .10$ ). lastly, the relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of the employee is stronger when the environmental fit is high rather than low ( $\beta = .094, t = 2.089, p < .05$ ) was also supported. Out of a total of eight hypotheses, 4 of them were supported. Table 12 presents a summary of the hypothesis and their respective decisions.

Table 10: Regression results showing the effect of PJF, JTF, PSE, OC and EF on extra-role performance

	Extra-role performance			
	Model 5 $\beta$ (t-values)	Model 6 $\beta$ (t-values)	Model 7 $\beta$ (t-values)	Model 8 $\beta$ (t-values)
<b>Control Variables</b>				
Constant	-3.338(-13.516)***	-4.039(-9.980)***	-2.969(-6.286)***	-3.018(-6.303)***
Job complexity	-.062(-1.328)	-.062(-1.337)	-.063(-1.411)	-.063(-1.389)
Skills	.082(1.765)	.081(1.745)	.094(2.108)*	.090(1.983)*
Job embeddedness	-.027(-.597)	-.050(-1.097)	-.029(-.671)	-.029(-.649)
Age of business	.287(6.134)***	.265(5.600)***	.260(5.682)***	.255(5.544)***
Total employees	.019(.399)	-.006(-.119)	-.013(-.285)	-.008(-.172)
<b>Independent variables</b>				
Person-job Fit		.119(2.426)**	.149(3.113)***	.152(3.084)***
Job training fit		.011(.229)	.005(.119)	.011(.243)
<b>Moderator</b>				
Psychological empowerment (PSE)			-.207(-4.818)***	-.204(-4.709)***
Organisational commitment (OC)			.152(3.590)***	.152(3.535)**
Environmental fit (EF)			.010(.225)	.003(.076)
<b>Interaction Effect</b>				
Person-job Fit x PSE				-.030(-.651)
Person-job Fit x OC				.054(1.078)
Person-job Fit x EF				.010(.220)
Job Training Fit x PSE				.146(2.016)*
Job Training Fit x OC				-.036(-.755)
Job Training Fit x EF				.020(.453)
<hr/>				
R <sup>2</sup>	.027	.135	.302	.320
F value	1.528	6.921***	15.605***	12.313***
$\Delta R^2$		.108	.167	.018
$\Delta F$ value	1.528	24.946	47.435	2.578
Degrees of freedom	7/401	2/399	2/397	4/393

\* $p < .10$ , \*\* $p < .05$ , \*\*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\*\* $p < .001$ . Note: Standardized regression coefficients were reported with t-values for each effect in parentheses.

This section of the regression considers extra-role performance as the dependent variable. Table 10 present the results of these tested hypotheses. The direct hypotheses present the results of the effect of PJF and JTF on an extra performance of the employee. Further, the direct effect of psychological empowerment, organisational commitment and environmental fit on extra performance was assessed. The moderating hypotheses highlight the interaction effect of how the psychological empowerment, Organisational commitment and Environmental fit together with job fit and job training fit impact on an extra performance of employees in the Ghanaian Ceramic tile manufacturing Industry.

Based on the results presented in Table 10, the control variables explained 2.7 per cent of the variability in the extra performance of the employee as indicated in Model 5. However, the addition of the independent variables to the control variables in Model 6 increased the variance ( $R^2$ ) explained variance to 13.5 per cent ( $\Delta F = 24.946, p < .001$ ) over the explained variability in the extra performance of the employee in Model 6. Moreover, in Model 7, the moderator variables were added to the control variables and independent variables and this further increased the variance ( $R^2$ ) to 30.2per cent ( $\Delta F = 47.435, p < .001$ ). In the model 8 however, when the interacting terms were added to the control, independent and moderator variables, the variance ( $R^2$ ) increased further to 32 per cent ( $\Delta F = 2.578, p < .001$ ).

Regarding the hypotheses tested by the study, the researcher hypothesized that PJF will have a significant and positive relationship with the extra performance of the employee. Based on the results, it was found that the PJF had a positive and significant relationship with the extra performance of the employee ( $\beta = .152, t = 3.084, p < .001$ ). This, therefore, provides support for hypothesis 9. Thus, it can be inferred that, when there is employee job fit, then employees exhibit higher levels of extra performance behaviours. In the second place, the second hypothesis held that job training fit will have a positive relationship with the extra performance of the employee. This hypothesis was not supported as there was a positive, but insignificant relationship between job training fit and extra performance of the employee ( $\beta = .011, t = .243, p < .10$ ). Thus, hypothesis 10 was not confirmed. From table 10, it could be deduced that psychological empowerment had a negative and significant relationship with extra performance of the employee ( $\beta = -.204, t = -4.709, p < .001$ ) while in contrast, organisational commitment had a positive and significant relationship with extra

performance of the employee ( $\beta = .152, t = 3.535, p < .01$ ). Environmental fit had a positive but insignificant relationship with extra performance of the employee ( $\beta = .003, t = .076, p > .10$ ). Additionally, the study also tested a moderating hypothesis which contended that the positive relationship between PJF and extra performance of the employee will be stronger if psychological empowerment is high rather than low. This relationship was not supported ( $\beta = -.030, t = -.651, p < .10$ ) because there was a negative and insignificant relationship between the variables. Hypothesis 12 which stated that the relationship between job fit and extra performance of the employee will be stronger if the organisational commitment was high rather than low was also not supported ( $\beta = .054, t = 1.078, p > .10$ ) as there was a positive but insignificant relationship between the constructs. It was also found that the relationship between job fit and extra performance of the employee will be stronger if the environmental fit was high rather than low was also not supported ( $\beta = .010, t = .220, p > .10$ ). Hypothesis 13 was therefore not supported.

It was evident that hypothesis 14 was supported as it could be deduced from the table that the relationship between job training fit and extra performance of the employee was stronger when psychological empowerment is high rather than low ( $\beta = .146, t = 2.016, p < .05$ ) whereas hypothesis 15 which stated that the relationship between job training fit and extra performance of the employee is stronger when organisational commitment is high rather than low was also not supported. This is because there was a negative and insignificant relationship between the constructs ( $\beta = -.036, t = -.755, p > .10$ ). Lastly, the relationship between job training fit and extra performance of the employee is stronger when the environmental fit is high rather than low ( $\beta = .020, t = .453, p < .05$ ) was equally not supported. Out of a total of eight hypotheses, 4 of them were supported. Table 11 presents a summary of the hypothesis and their respective decisions.

**Table 11: Summary of Regression Analysis**

No	Relationship	Direction	$\beta$	T-Values	Decision
H1	Person Job-fit $\longrightarrow$ In-role P	+	0.205	5.215***	<b>Supported</b>
H2	Job training fit $\longrightarrow$ In-role P	+	0.206	5.217***	<b>Supported</b>
H3	Person-job Fit x PSE $\longrightarrow$ In-role P	+	-0.108	-2.291**	Not Supported
H4	Person-job Fit x OC $\longrightarrow$ In-role P	+	0.079	1.553	Not Supported
H5	Person-job Fit x EF $\longrightarrow$ In-role P	+	0.046	0.977	Not Supported
H6	Job Training Fit x PSE $\longrightarrow$ In-role P	+	-0.006	-0.130	Not Supported
H7	Job Training Fit x OC $\longrightarrow$ In-role P	+	0.079	1.655**	<b>Supported</b>
H8	Job Training Fit x EF $\longrightarrow$ In-role P	+	0.940	2.084*	<b>Supported</b>
H9	Person Job-fit $\dashrightarrow$ Extra -role P	+	0.152	3.084***	<b>Supported</b>
H10	Job training fit $\longrightarrow$ Extra -role P	+	0.011	0.243	Not Supported
H11	Person-job Fit x PSE $\longrightarrow$ Extra -role P	+	-0.030	-0.651	Not Supported
H12	Person-job Fit x OC $\longrightarrow$ Extra -role P	+	0.054	1.078	Not Supported
H13	Person-job Fit x EF $\longrightarrow$ Extra -role P	+	0.010	0.220	Not Supported
H14	Job Training Fit x PSE $\longrightarrow$ Extra -role P	+	0.146	2.016*	<b>Supported</b>
H15	Job Training Fit x OC $\longrightarrow$ Extra -role P	+	-0.036	-0.755	Not Supported
H16	Job Training Fit x EF $\longrightarrow$ Extra -role P	+	0.020	0.453	Not Supported

## Chapter Five

### Summary, Discussions and Implication

#### 5.1 Introduction

The purpose of the study was to analyze the effect of PJF and job training fit on employee work behavior by focusing on both in-role work behavior and extra-role work behavior. Further to this, the moderating roles of organizational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment were also assessed. This chapter consists of the summary of the major findings from the study, discussion of results, recommendations, limitations and implications for future research and conclusion. The chapter proposes theoretical implication and recommendations for the study categorized by recommendations for improvement and those for additional studies.

#### 5.2 Summary

The study adopted a quantitative approach and an explanatory research design. The researcher employed a simple random sampling approach to select full-time employees working in three ceramics manufacturing companies in Ghana. The researcher used Yamane's formula to arrive at an appropriate sample size of 484 employees. The questionnaire was pre-tested to ensure that it was clear and comprehensive to the respondents and also to ensure the reliability and validity of the data collected. A correlation analysis was carried out to draw inferences about the population from the sample. Thereafter a multiple regression analysis was undertaken to determine the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Having two dependent variables, there were two regression models. Consequently, two separate regression analyses were carried out with the first having in-role performance as the dependent variable and the second having extra-role performance as the dependent variable. In all, 8 hypotheses were tested for each model and a total of 16 hypotheses were tested for the study. Relating to the 8 hypotheses, where in-role performance was the dependent variable, 4 out of 8 hypotheses were supported whiles, for the hypotheses where extra-role performance was the dependent variable, 2 out of 8 were supported. Below is a summary of the supporting hypotheses.

1. There is a positive relationship between PJF and in-role performance of the employee

2. There is a positive relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of the employee
3. The positive relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of the employee will be stronger when organisational commitment is high rather than low
4. The positive relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of the employee will be stronger when the environmental fit is high rather than low
5. There is a positive relationship between person-job fit and extra-role performance of the employee
6. The positive relationship between job training fit and extra-role performance of the employee will be stronger when psychological empowerment is high rather than low

Below are the unsupported hypotheses based on the analysis of the results:

1. The positive relationship between person-job fit and in-role performance of the employee will be stronger when psychological empowerment is high rather than low
2. The positive relationship between person-job fit and in-role performance of the employee will be stronger when organizational commitment is high rather than low
3. The positive relationship between person-job fit and in-role performance of the employee will be stronger when the environmental fit is high rather than low
4. The positive relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of the employee will be stronger when psychological empowerment is high rather than low
5. There is a positive relationship between job training fit and extra-role performance of the employee
6. The positive relationship between person-job fit and extra-role performance of the employee will be stronger when psychological empowerment is high rather than low
7. The positive relationship between person-job fit and extra-role performance of the employee will be stronger when organizational commitment is high rather than low
8. The positive relationship between person-job fit and extra-role performance of the employee will be stronger when the environmental fit is high rather than low
9. The positive relationship between job training fit and extra-role performance of the employee will be stronger when organizational commitment is high rather than low

10. The positive relationship between job training fit and extra-role performance of the employee will be stronger when the environmental fit is high rather than low

### **5.3 Discussions**

This section discusses the results of the study alongside the various research objectives. The discussions were based on the results obtained from the correlation analyses and multiple regression analyses. This section has three subsections. The first subsection discusses the research objective relating the fit factors to in-role and extra-role work behaviours. The second subsection explains the moderating role of organizational commitment, environmental fit and psychological empowerment on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The third subsection discusses the results of other variables that were included in the study as control variables. Although they were not the focus of the study, it is worth discussing the variables that were significant. These variables are also important in contributing to knowledge as far as this study is concerned. From the regression analysis, hypothesized relationships with  $p\text{-value} > 0.10$  were rejected while those with  $p\text{-values} < 0.10$  were not rejected and discussed. The first hypothesis that there is a significant and positive relationship between PJF and in-role work behaviour was supported.

#### ***5.3.1 The relationship between person-job fit and job training fit and in-role performance***

First, from the results, it can be deduced that there is a direct relationship between PJF and in-role performance. As the skills and competences of an employee match the requirement of a job, the employee tends to perform better at the core tasks. This is shown in the positive value of the Beta ( $\beta$ ) as well as the significant t-value. The result depicts that, all other things being equal when there is a unit change in PJF, performance of core tasks improves by 20.5 per cent (refer to table 9). The results imply that when there is compatibility between employees and the tasks they perform at work, they perform better. When the needs of an employee match with the supplies or dictates of the job, the employee performs better. This finding synchronizes with the dictates of the theory of Work Adjustment, which indicates that workers commit to their jobs and perform better when there is a high level of congruence between their skills, competence, knowledge, and their job requirement. The result also resonates well with the Social Exchange Theory as the SET proposes that in every social

exchange relationship, employees will seek to maximize their benefits and minimize costs as far as possible and the greater the benefits, the more likely they are to increase their commitments and improve their performance.

This result is in line with the study of Yen and Ok (2008) who confirmed a relationship between PJF and the tendency of employees to develop strong psychological bonds with the organization and to in-role work performance behaviours. Furthermore, this result corroborates studies such as Chung and Sacket (2011), Icheme et al (2017), Kristof-Brown and Guay (2011) and May et al (2004). In the case of Hoffman and Woehr (2006); Verquer, Beehr and Wagner (2003) prioritized the unique influence of PJF and asserted that it also exerts significant impacts on firm performance and success.

In line with the social exchange theory, Artis (2007) observed a decline in the performance of employees in response to perceptions of mismatch between their abilities, skills and the roles into which they were deployed. Similarly, Dahling and Librizzi (2014) were of the view that employees engage in organizational citizenship behaviour based on their perceptions on whether a fit exists between both aspects of PJF namely needs-supplies and abilities-demands. With the establishment of this result, it is imperative to state that, when there is a mismatch in terms of the abilities of an employee, then there is the limited display of performance in the organization. Organizations are therefore tasked to be efficient in recruiting the right brains for the job as this goes a long way to impact on the fortunes of the organization.

Secondly, hypothesis 2 which stated that there is a positive relationship between JTF and in-role performance was also supported. From the analysis of the regression, we could deduce that there is a direct relationship between job training fit and in-role performance. This is shown in the positive value of the Beta ( $\beta$ ) as well as the significant t-value. The result depicts that, all other things being equal when there is a unit change in PJF, in-role work performance behaviour increases by 20.6 per cent. This result suggests a corresponding increase in task-related performance should the appropriate training be provided to the employee. The results also indicate that employees who devote their energy and focus on training related to their

tasks tend to perform better at their core tasks. The result reaffirms the fact that JTF has been acknowledged as a strong predictor of workers' organizational behaviour in general. This result corroborates with previous research from Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) and Vilela et al. (2008) who maintains that job training fit has been observed to be capable of enhancing the development of positive work behaviour. Also, according to Kristof (2005), there is satisfaction with an employees' job once there is the existence of congruence between the type of training (fit) and the job they do. This enables the effective performance of the job by employees (Hamid & Yahya, 2011). This result is also in line with studies by Tahir and Sajjad, (2013); Bataineh, (2014); Dabale, (2014); Nan, (2014); Athar & Shah, (2015), who are of the view that there is a positive correlation between employee training and performance.

Again, this finding contributes to the two theories used for this thesis. Social exchange theory is validated by this finding as employees who tend to benefit from training by the organization tend to perform better. In this exchange relationship, they receive training and give off hard work which is seen in performance. The result also lends support to the Theory of Work Adjustment. As the needs of employees are met through the supplies of the organization which comes in the form of training, the employee is satisfied and gives off better performance.

### ***5.3.2 The moderating role of psychological empowerment on the relationship between person-job fit and job training fit and in-role performance***

The results also identified that the interaction effect between PJF and psychological empowerment had a negative effect on in-role performance. This relationship was not statistically significant. This indicates that psychological empowerment does not moderates the relationship between PJF and in-role performance. This result is in contrast with previous with previous studies which underscored the need for psychological empowerment in the relationship between PJF and work behaviour. Spreitzer (2007) for instance, discovered empirical evidence to support the correlation between PJF and work behaviour under the moderating influence of psychological empowerment. Theoretically, the application of the social exchange theory suggests that employees will trade their responsibilities in exchange

for cognitions of empowerment based on the rule of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). This view is supported by Chou (2016) who argued based on the social exchange theory that, high perceptions of empowerment among employees in terms of their involvement in decision making, autonomy and the level of recognition given to their contributions will correlate effectively with their engagement in in-role and extra-role behaviors. This result does not corroborate other studies such as Ahmadi et al., (2010), Chou (2016) and Dawis (2005) who found the need for psychological empowerment in in-role performance.

Again, the interaction effect of job training fit and psychological empowerment was negatively related to in-role performance. This relationship was not statistically significant. However, it implies a damping role of psychological empowerment on the relationship between JTF and in-role performance. This implied that the hypothesis which stated that, the relationship between job training fit and in-role performance will be stronger when psychological empowerment was high than when it is low was not supported. This result suggests that psychological empowerment has a tendency of being abused when job training fit is high, to the extent that it results in a reduction of employee core function performance. This result is in contrast with previous research which underscored the need for psychological empowerment in the relationship between job training fit and in-role performance. In previous empirical studies, job training fit in the presence of proper levels of psychological empowerment was seen to significantly enhance employees' engagement, commitment and willingness to engage in the performance of duties (Dierendonck & Dijkstra, 2012; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Van Dijke et al., 2012; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

### ***5.3.3 The moderating role of organizational commitment on the relationship between person-job fit and job training fit and in-role performance***

The results also identified that the interaction effect between PJF and organizational commitment was positively related to in-role performance. This was however not significant. This implies that the relationship between PJF and in-role performance was stronger when the organizational commitment was high, although this was not statistically significant. This outcome suggests that the effect of PJF on in-role performance could be enhanced when there is a higher level of commitment on the part of the employee. This study corroborates the

study of Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) who applied the theory of work adjustment and asserted that employees' performance, commitment and consequently their in-role and extra-role behaviours will increase in proportion to their perceptions of fit between what they can do and what is required of them. It is imperative to state that, effective commitments among employees developed concerning perceptions of fit between their competencies, values and goals on the one hand and the specific attributes of their jobs. The finding established in this study is in line with existing empirical research such as Fornes & Rocco (2004), Dawis (2005), Christiansen et al., (2014) who underscored the need for higher levels of employee commitment for a strong relationship between job training and employee performance to take place.

Another interesting result was that the interaction effect of job training fit and organizational commitment was negatively and significantly related to in-role performance. This implies that, the hypothesis which stated that, the relationship between job training fit and in-role performance will be stronger when employee commitment is high than when it is low was not supported. This result is in contrast to previous studies on the role of organizational commitment. Several empirical studies have supported the positive relationship between organizational commitment and the development of work behaviours among employees towards the firm (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Bagraim, 2003; Katsikea et al., 2011). Some researchers including Mercurio (2011), Meyer et al., (2002), Samad (2007) and Wat and Shaffer (2005) for instance have argued with the support of compelling evidence that, most work behaviours arise from employees' commitment to work and the organization as a whole. The findings of these studies cannot, therefore, be linked to the results obtained in previous studies.

#### ***5.3.4 The moderating role of environmental fit on the relationship between person-job fit and job training fit and in-role performance***

Environmental fit did not significantly moderate the relationship between person-job fit and in-role performance. Environmental fit was also not significant as an independent variable. This shows that good working conditions on its own are not significant for in-role performance.

The results reveal that the interaction effect between PJF and environmental fit had a positive but insignificant effect on in-role performance. This implied that the relationship between PJF and in-role performance is not conditioned by environmental fit. The hypothesis was therefore not supported. This finding is in contrast to previous studies (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019; Van Loon, Vandenberghe & Leisink, 2017). Prior studies maintained that when the environment-fit construct is introduced, the complexity and complexion of the relationship changes (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019). The conditions of work have a tendency of lowering the attitude of high performing employees. For instance, highly competent employees with dynamic problem-solving skills are less likely to perform in their role when the organizational culture is toxic and stifles creativity. In the current study, it is not clear why environmental fit was not statistically significant. In an exploratory study on the working environment of ceramics factories the interaction of PJF and the environmental fit was not significantly related to in-role performance.

In finding reasons for this unsupported hypothesis, the literature identified that, whereas personal traits, values and motivation level of the employee is a good predictor of performance and workplace behaviour, the contextual influence from the workplace environment should not be ignored (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019; Van Loon, Vandenberghe & Leisink, 2017). In most cases, the environment may either enhance employee work behaviour or undermine it. In the context of this study, the environment did not significantly influence work performance once the personality of the employee matches with the job requirements.

Secondly, the interaction effect of job training fit and the environmental fit was positive and significantly related to in-role performance. This implied that, the hypothesis which stated that, the relationship between job training fit and in-role performance will be stronger when the environmental fit was high than when it is low was supported. This shows that training as well as the working environment is important for in-role performance. This outcome suggests that the effect of job training fit on in-role performance could be enhanced when there is a higher level of commitment on the part of the employee. This finding corroborates the study of Yevugah and Caesar (2018) who emphasized that organizations that want to

improve personnel creativity and performance must provide job-specific training to their staff. Work-related training has a positive impact on the performance of employees as it motivates them to be creative and innovative. In support of prior research by Laforet (2016), he asserted that an organizational culture that promotes learning and creativity among employees encourages work commitment, OCB behaviour and eventually impacts performance. Conclusively, providing job-specific training to employees may only help them to an extent to perform the core and peripheral duties connected to their job roles. It is therefore not surprising that environmental fit is an important indicator in the job training fit-in-role performance relationship.

### ***5.3.5 The relationship between person-job fit and job training fit on extra-role work performance***

From the results, there was a positive relationship between PJF and extra-role performance of the employee. From the analysis of the regression, the researcher deduced that there is a direct relationship between PJF and extra-role performance. This is shown in the positive value of the Beta ( $\beta$ ) as well as the significant t-value. The result depicts that, all other things being equal when there is a unit change in PJF, extra-role work performance behavior increases by 15.2 per cent. This result suggests a corresponding increase in extra-role performance should Job training fit also increase. This corroborates with other prior research (e.g., Hamid & Yahya, 2011; Rahmadani & Sebayang, 2017; Robbins, 2006; Silverthone, 2003, etc). This review also discovered that researchers have posited based on supporting evidence that, despite the acknowledgement of the potential of PJF to foster role and extra-role behaviour among employees, provision of further training to bring their skills closer to the requirements of their roles is important in extending their performance at the workplace (Bhat, 2013; Delbridge & Keenoy, 2010; Diamantidis & Chatzoglou, 2012).

Secondly, there was a positive but not significant relationship between job training fit and extra-role performance of the employee. This implied that the hypothesis that job training fit will significantly impact on extra-role performance was not supported. Interestingly, this finding departs from the expected outcome. The role of job training fit in employee performance is mixed in the literature. A segment of authors find job training to be

responsible for enhancing the development of higher employee performance (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Vilela et al., 2008). Other studies also found PJF to have a stronger influence on employee performance rather than JTF. For instance, Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) found the effects of PJF to be stronger on extra-role behaviour than the impact of job training fit. In this study, JTF had an effect on in-role performance rather than extra-role performance. This interesting finding requires an in-depth with a different methodological approach study to investigate.

### ***5.3.6 The moderating role of psychological empowerment on the relationship between person-job fit, job training fit and extra-role performance of the employee.***

The results revealed that the interaction effect of PJF and psychological empowerment on extra-role performance was negative and not significant. This implied that the hypothesis stating that the relationship between PJF and extra-role performance was stronger when extra-role performance was high than low was not supported by the study. This result is in contrast to prior studies (e.g., Artis, 2007; Dawis, 2005;) who suggested the existence of an association between individual values of status and achievement which measure psychological empowerment and the extent of employees' involvement in the extra-role performance.

The hypothesis that the positive relationship between job training fit and extra-role performance of the employee was stronger when psychological empowerment is high rather than low was supported. This outcome suggests that the effect of job training fit on extra-role performance could be enhanced when there is a higher level of commitment on the part of the employee. This is corroborated by a recent study by Stone et al. (2019) who posited that by providing specialized training to employees on the values and culture of the organisation, employers may succeed in influencing extra-role work behaviours. The result suggests that pieces of training clone employees according to the pattern of the organization's culture and over time, through a subtle workplace socialization process and psychological empowerment. This result is in line with other prior empirical research (e.g., Jiao et al., 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2008) who established that employees at times engage in OCBs and other extra-role work

behaviours as a reciprocation for the training and other personal development opportunities offered them by the organization.

The results established that psychological empowerment moderates the relationship between job training fit and extra-role performance, whereas job training fit alone has no significant influence on extra-role performance. This implies that in industry setting like the ceramics industry, training alone is not enough to enhance extra-role behaviour. Empowerment is also needed in addition to training. The results also indicate that psychological empowerment tends to serve as a strong determinant of extra-role performance than as a moderator. In serving as a determinant, there is a tendency of abusing psychological empowerment to yield negative extra-role performance.

### ***5.3.7 The moderating role of employee commitment on the relationship between person-job fit, job training fit and extra-role performance of the employee***

From the results, the hypothesis that the positive relationship between PJF and extra-role performance of the employee was stronger when organizational commitment is high rather than low was not supported. This is because the interaction effect between PJF and organizational commitment was positive but not significant. This result is in contrast to some previous studies (e.g. Wat & Shaffer, 2005) who saw the need for employee commitment to attain extra-role performance.

Similarly, the interaction effect of job training fit and organizational commitment was negative and insignificantly related to the extra-role performance of the employee. Therefore, the hypothesis that the positive relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of the employee was stronger when organizational commitment is high rather than low was not supported.

Several empirical findings have supported the positive relationship between organizational commitment and the development of work behaviours among employees towards the firm. Some researchers including Wat and Shaffer (2005) cited in Farzaneh et al., (2014) for instance have argued that, most work behaviours arise from employees' commitment to work

and the organization as a whole. This implies that employee commitment is a strong determinant of work behaviour. It is not surprising that the use of organisational commitment as an independent variable in the model was significant. The results indicate that organisational commitment serves as a strong determinant of extra-role performance rather than a moderator. This validates its relevance as a determinant of extra-role performance as indicated by earlier studies.

***5.3.8 The moderating role of environmental fit on the relationship between person-job fit, job training fit and extra-role performance of the employee.***

From the results, the hypothesis that the positive relationship between PJF and extra-role performance of the employee was stronger when the environmental fit is high rather than low was not supported. This is because the interaction effect between PJF and the environmental fit was positive but not significant.

Prior studies maintained that, when the environment-fit construct is introduced, the complexity and complexion of the relationship changes (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019), prompting the need for further exploration. For instance, a highly competent employee with dynamic problem-solving skills is less likely to perform in their role when the organisational culture is toxic and stifles creativity. According to the findings of Morrow and Brough (2019), compatibility between the personality of an employee and the characteristics of the organisation is likely to produce a kind of wellbeing and intrinsic fulfilment which culminates in a negative impact on turnover decisions. In the current study, the interaction of PJF and the environmental fit was not significantly related to in-role performance.

Similarly, the interaction effect of job training fit and environmental fit commitment was negative and insignificantly related to the extra-role performance of the employee. Therefore, the hypothesis that the positive relationship between job training fit and in-role performance of the employee was stronger when the environmental fit is high rather than low was not supported. This finding contradicts existing findings by Awoniyi et al., (2002) who contended that there is a significant positive relationship between training transfer and the work environment. It simply means that the right environmental fit promotes creativity which

tends influence positive transfer of training. Awoniyi et al., (2002) further contended that, individuals within an organization will transfer their training to the job when their preferred 'ideal' environment matches the real environment.

#### **5.4 The implications of the results**

The positive relationship between PJF and in-role and extra-role performance indicates that the ability of employees fit the demands of the job. This is because the satisfaction of the employee is very important in making him/her give out the best. This satisfaction comes about when an employee has the working knowledge and competence about the job task. Employers need to know that once the employee has the competence and skills required for the job, all things being equal, the employee will perform well. Human Resource practitioners should use acceptable and standard recruitment methods to get the right human resource for the right job. The abilities of the employee could be assessed using the educational qualification and the work experience gathered over the past which fits the demands of the job.

Secondly, employees should make sure they have the right skills and abilities although such skills and abilities will consequently be assessed by the employer. The competence of the person should not be overlooked during recruitment although the onus lies with the employer to decide who has the fit. The right procedure should be used to select people for a particular work. When the skills and abilities of the employee meet the requirement of the job, then the employee is in the right position to perform outlined roles and even do more. When employees know their job well, they do not waste much time but strive to do more as they have confidence. Also, organizations should ensure that there is a good match between the requirement of the job and the skills possessed by an employee. When there is a match, then employees can accomplish any task assigned to them on the job. Lastly, management should ensure that the personality of an employee is a good match for the job.

Following the positive relationship between job training fit and extra-role behaviour, employers are tasked to provide specific job training to employees to build their capacities to perform well on their job. Without constant training and exposure to new ways of doing

things, the contribution of the employee will be limited to the routine assignment given. It is also imperative that employees take such training sessions serious and assimilate it as part of what they are required to do. Employees should also learn from other experienced persons who are already on the job as this will expose them to certain skills which they were not privy to. With the right job-specific training and general employee training on the operations of the company, they develop such attachment to the company. This is because employees will feel the organisation has their interest at heart.

The results obtained have a lot of important implications for management regarding the role played by psychological empowerment. The results suggest that psychological empowerment moderates the relationship between job-training and extra-role performance. Management of organizations should note that the work given to employees gives them a sense of meaning. This meaning is heightened when the employee is offered training relevant to the job and is also empowered. With good conditions of services, employees understand the essence of the work in their lives and in the life of their families. Such a situation will cause an employee to give out his best and contribute positively to organizational performance. Psychological empowerment is a two-sided sword, which implies that both the employer and the employee need to ensure it happens. The employee is tasked to ensure he builds confidence on the job and enhances his capabilities by learning from his mistakes and learning from others. There is a need for employees to also build their capabilities to make them confident on the job. When employees receive training and are also empowered, they exhibit higher OCBs

The research also suggests to management to give some levels of autonomy to an employee to encourage their level of innovation leading to higher organizational citizenship behaviour. There should be considerable levels of opportunity for independence and freedom in how employees do their job. When employees are allowed to make decisions within the confines of their duties, they become responsible. It is important to state that, the way and manner the organisation is structured and evolves is significant because when people are only confined to a routine and standardized laid down procedure, all in the name of organizational structures they are not able to get creative; rather, working in project teams, for instance, must be encouraged. It is therefore important for managers to allow employees to make some

decisions when need be and also trust in their decision and not always be controlling the work tightly from above.

Leadership of organizations must encourage employees to think about problems in new ways need to have a vision and picture of the future and should look for new opportunities for the organisation. Leadership should also encourage employees to think independently and also make others enthusiastic about his/her plan for the organization. An engaged workforce is a productive workforce so leadership must be deliberate about engagement and culture by defining clear plans and strategies of attaining them.

By implication, organizations must be sure of what kind of skills and competence for the future, what should the organisation look for in the employees they employ: people with creativity, complex problem-solving techniques, critical thinking abilities, high emotional intelligence, good judgement and decision-making skills, service orientation, negotiation skills, high cognitive thinking, not technologically challenged, effective people management skills and innovation-oriented. Such employees give out their all for the organisation and they understand the importance of their contribution and the implications of the business and how that can effectively migrate their minds and hearts towards the achievement of extra responsibilities for the organisation. This implies that organizations must recruit, develop and maintain and retain the “strongest” caliber of employees possible because they will be needed to promote organizational citizenship behaviour.

Contrarily, psychological empowerment negatively moderates the relationship between PJF and in-role performance. The implication of this to management is that employees that are competent and skilled for the job and are also empowered need to be monitored to control the exhibition of poor performance. Interestingly, psychological empowerment serves as a strong determinant of both in-role and extra-role performance and in a negative manner. This implies that employees who are empowered tend to exhibit low task-related performance and low OCBs. Power in the manufacturing industry has a tendency of being abused and this calls for employers to balance the extent of empowerment provided to employees. There is the need for controls to be in place to prevent the abuse of empowerment by employees.

The study also indicates that environmental fit plays a little role in moderating the relationship between PJF and both in-role and extra-role performance. In the context of ceramic tile industries and manufacturing in general, issues of values of employees' *vis a vis* the values of the organization matter a little. The setting of this study is production and it is likely environmental fit may be significant in a service industry.

### **5.5 Challenges and Limitation of the study**

In a doctoral research study of such a nature, limitations cannot be avoided, but their impact could be reduced to enhance the quality of the research. In conducting this research, the researcher predicted the possibility of certain challenges which could impact on the study. These challenges include, but are not limited to difficulty in securing information from respondents in the Ceramic tile manufacturing industry. All three (3) companies are partly owned by Chinese and getting access to information was very difficult. Most of the foreign firms in the country are hesitant in providing information to the public. It is important to state that, these personnel sign organizational confidential policies, which has consequences when one flaunts them. To eliminate this challenge, an introductory letter was first of all obtained from the PhD Program director specifically outlining the purpose of the research and observing any ethical consideration. The researcher further had meetings with the respective Human Resource departments and explained the study to them well and sought the permission of senior management to distribute the questionnaires to the employees. The management of the organisation to a large extent understood that the findings of the research will be made available to them upon completion and this finding could help them in their management of employees.

Also, as a way of assuring the organizations that the information provided is only for academic purposes and will be kept confidential, I indicated my preparedness to sign an agreement of non-disclosure. In the agreement given to me by the companies, I indicate that their names and positions will not be traceable and would be kept confidential. The questionnaire did not also expose the names of the respondents. This gave the respondents some relief as to my willingness and ability to keep their identity, information and their organization's private information as confidential as possible and for them not to be linked

with any direct assertions. This gave them more assurance and they were then ready to conduct the interviews.

Moreover, another challenge encountered was the difficulty in finding respondents due to their shift systems and the difficulty of tracing questionnaires. It is important to state that the researcher had difficulties with targeting the workers in the various sites and this meant the quantitative data collection took a lot of time. Most of the employees had specific tasks and time to complete them and therefore had no time to respond to the questionnaire. In some instances, the researcher had to join them in their bus and then on the way they were assisted to respond to the questionnaire. The researcher took his time together with the other trained data collectors to explain the purpose of the research and the benefits it will bring to them in the long run. For respondents who did not understand the language of the questionnaire (English), the questions were translated and read to them by the research assistant and then they were able to answer.

Although the research data collection was done by some independent team, the researcher played a vital role in talking to some of the management members of the Ceramic tile manufacturing companies to grant permission for the distribution of questionnaire. In most of these places, there was a single point of contact to help in the data collection. Using this method, there was a high response rate of 80.66 per cent.

Considering the size of the manufacturing industry in Ghana, the sample size should have been larger than four hundred but, indeed financial and other logistical constraints did not permit the researcher to go beyond that sample size. The researcher believes this is a limitation that future researchers may work to overcome so this research can be replicated with a larger sample size. The manufacturing industry is huge, but focus on only the tile manufacturing companies did not permit the researcher to increase the scope of the research. It would be interesting to see how future research can categorize these organizations into blocks and have a reasonable representation of all of them in similar categories. Respondents to this research were all from the 3 tile manufacturing companies in Greater Accra and Western region which in itself was a limitation. However, this happened to be the case because there were only 3 ceramics tiles manufacturing companies in the country.

The major limitation of this study is the lack of full understanding of the role of the moderators. A qualitative approach could have been employed to address the hypotheses that were not supported. However, due to time limitation, the researcher could not do that. The researcher recommends future studies to explore the role of the moderators using a qualitative approach. The researcher recommends that the role of environmental fit also needs to be explored in other sectors.

### **5.6 Theoretical implications**

It is important to state that, the study focused on two main independent variables, namely, PJF and JTF. Although the stated objectives were achieved, to a large extent the scope of the independent variables was very limited considering the subject area. It is hoped that future researchers could delve deeper into some organizational predictors which could impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. Alternatively, future researchers could expand the scope of this research by focusing on each one of the independent variables and draw conclusions based on their respective findings. This is because, according to Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001), the PJF has two main dimensions, namely, skills and personality/temperament. Spreitzer (1995) in his research also identified that psychological empowerment has four dimensions, namely, meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. Future research could focus on each one of these dimensions to build a separate argument to have a deeper understanding of the issues.

With a lot of contextual and organizational factors impacting on employee work behaviour based on the review of literature, an extension of the study is paramount in considering other contingent factors or moderating factors which could affect the strength of the hypothesized relationship. In effect, future researchers should be concerned about establishing the internal and external moderating conditions under which PJF and JTF could impact on in-role and extra-role performance.

The construct used in measuring the dependent variables, extra-role should be re-looked by future studies. In the development of the scale, the researcher relied on Turney et al (2003) study which developed a unidimensional measure of OCB. Although this scale had

undergone previous validation, it was adopted and used in the current study. This scale, to a large extent, is not contextual to emerging or developing economies considering the differences that exist in their organizations and how things are done. Future researchers could therefore consider developing a contextual scale for measuring extra-role (OCB) for developing and emerging economies. This will help to give a clearer indication of the case of Ghana and respondents will understand and appreciate the questions posed to them.

The study, however, recommends replication of the current study to serve as a check and enhance the reliability and generalizability of the present findings and more particularly, evaluate more explanatory variables in terms of their effects on work performance. There is the need to conduct additional research by using other scales and more explanatory variables to find out if the results will be different theoretically. Nonetheless, despite these limitations, they did not affect the quality of the results and their validity and to a larger extent showed clearly the situation in Ghana in terms of the impact of fits on employee work behaviour.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 1: Sample questionnaire



#### **THE EFFECT OF PERSON-JOB FIT AND JOB-TRAINING FIT ON EMPLOYEE WORK BEHAVIOUR WITHIN THE GHANAIAN MANUFACTURING SECTOR**

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Dear sir/madam

I am a student of Nobel International Business School (NiBS), near Gulf House, Legon - Accra pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration. As part of the programme, I am required to conduct research on the above-given title and hereby seek your input in completing this questionnaire. Your input is regarded as highly valuable to this study as it will substantially help towards exploring and understanding the antecedents and the consequences of supply chain technology utilization and its effects on performance in the foreign trade sector of Ghana`s economy.

You have been identified as someone whose experience and knowledge will help provide useful insights into this study. The key objective of this PhD research is to **examine the effect of person-job fit and job training fit on employee work behaviour within the Ghanaian manufacturing sector**. I will therefore be grateful if you could spend some time to answer the following questions. All responses collected through this study will be treated with confidentiality. Please feel free to provide an approximate response if you are not sure about your answer. The results of this study will be used for scholarly purposes only. If you have any questions about the research study, please contact the principal researcher via Yevugah@gmail.com or the research supervisor Dr Theodora Asiamah via [theodora@nibs.edu.gh](mailto:theodora@nibs.edu.gh)

Sincerely,

David Yevugah

## SECTION A

Rate the following statements concerning person-job fit concerning your present job, using a scale of 1-5, where **1= strongly disagree**, **2 = disagree**, **3 = not sure**, **4 = agree** and **5 = strongly agree**

<b>PERSON-JOB FIT</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Not sure</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
<b>Skills</b>					
My abilities fit the demands of this job	1	2	3	4	5
I have the right skills and abilities for doing this job	1	2	3	4	5
There is a good match between the requirements of this job and my skills	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Personality/Temperament</b>					
My personality is a good match for this job	1	2	3	4	5
I am the right type of person for this type of work	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Source:</b> Lauver, K. J., & Kristof-Brown, A. (2001). Distinguishing between Employees' Perceptions of Person-Job and Person-Organisation Fit. <i>Journal of Vocational Behaviour</i> , 59(3), 454-470. doi:10.1006/jvbe.2001.1807					

Rate the following as statements relating to job training fit in your organisation, using a scale of 1-5, where **1= strongly disagree**, **2 = disagree**, **3 = not sure**, **4 = agree** and **5 = strongly agree**.

<b>JOB TRAINING</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Not sure</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
I try to learn as much as I can from training programmes	1	2	3	4	5
I tend to learn more from training programmes than most people	1	2	3	4	5
I am usually motivated to learn the skills emphasized in training programmes	1	2	3	4	5
I am willing to exert considerable effort in training programmes to improve my skills	1	2	3	4	5
I believe I can improve my skills by participating in training programmes	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Source:</b> Bulut, C., & Culha, O. (2010). The effects of organisational training on organisational commitment. <i>International Journal of Training and Development</i> , 14(4), 309-322.					

**SECTION B –****ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT**

Rate the following as statements relating to commitment in your organisation, using a scale of 1-5, where **1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not sure, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree.**

	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
I am quite proud to be able to tell people that I work for this organization	1	2	3	4	5
I feel myself to be a part of this company	1	2	3	4	5
I would not recommend a close friend to join our staff (RC)	1	2	3	4	5
To know that my work had contributed to the good of the organisation would please me	1	2	3	4	5
In my work, I like to feel that I am making some effort not just for myself, but for the organisation as well	1	2	3	4	5
I'm not willing to put myself out just to help the organisation (RC)	1	2	3	4	5
Even if (company name) were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer	1	2	3	4	5
The offer of a bit more money with another employer would not seriously make me think of changing my job	1	2	3	4	5
I sometimes feel like leaving this employment for good	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Source:</b> Mathews, B. P., & Shepherd, J. L. (2002). <i>The dimensionality of Cook and Wall's (1980) British Organisational Commitment Scale revisited. Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology, 75(3), 369–375. doi:10.1348/096317902320369767</i>					

**PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT**

Rate the following statements as psychological empowerment statements, using a scale of 1-5, where **1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not sure, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree.**

	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Meaning</b>					
The work I do is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5
My job activities are personally meaningful to me	1	2	3	4	5
The work I do is meaningful to me	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Competence</b>					
I am confident about my abilities to do my job	1	2	3	4	5

I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	1	2	3	4	5
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Self-Determination</b>					
I have significant autonomy In determining how I do my job	1	2	3	4	5
I, I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work	1	2	3	4	5
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Impact</b>					
My impact on what happens in my department is large	1	2	3	4	5
I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department	1	2	3	4	5
I have significant influence over what happens in my department	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Source:</b> Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 38(5), 1442-1465					

**ENVIRONMENTAL FIT**

Rate the following statements as psychological empowerment statements, using a scale of 1-5, where **1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not sure, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree.**

	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organisation values	1	2	3	4	5
My values match my organisation’s values and culture	1	2	3	4	5
My organisation’s values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Source:</b> Cable, D. M., & DeRue, D. S. (2002). The convergent and discriminant validity of subjective fit perceptions. <i>Journal of applied psychology</i> , 87(5), 875.					

**SECTION C – EMPLOYEE WORK BEHAVIOUR**

Rate the following statements as psychological empowerment statements, using a scale of 1-5, where **1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = not sure, 4 = agree and 5 = strongly agree.**

	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>IN-ROLE PERFORMANCE</b>					

I fulfil all the responsibilities specified in my job description	1	2	3	4	5
I adequately complete all of his/her assigned duties	1	2	3	4	5
I fulfil all the responsibilities specified in my job description	1	2	3	4	5
I consistently meet the formal requirement of my work	1	2	3	4	5
I always complete all my assigned duties	1	2	3	4	5
I consistently meet the formal performance requirements of the job	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Source:</b> Turnley, W. H., Bolino, M. C., Lester, S. W., & Bloodgood, J. M. (2003). The impact of psychological contract fulfilment on the performance of in-role and organisational citizenship behaviours. <i>Journal of Management</i> , 29(2), 187-206.					
<b>EXTRA-ROLE PERFORMANCE (OCB)</b>					
I conscientiously perform tasks that are expected of me	1	2	3	4	5
I sometimes fail to perform the essential duties of the job	1	2	3	4	5
I sometimes neglect aspects of the job that I am obligated to perform	1	2	3	4	5
This organisation inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance	1	2	3	4	5
I do a good job in terms of quantity and quality	1	2	3	4	5
I am ready to help new employees with their work	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Source:</b> Turnley, W. H., Bolino, M. C., Lester, S. W., & Bloodgood, J. M. (2003). The impact of psychological contract fulfilment on the performance of in-role and organisational citizenship behaviours. <i>Journal of Management</i> , 29(2), 187-206.					

#### SECTION D – CONTROL FACTORS

Rate the following statements on the control factors influencing organisational citizenship behaviour, using a scale of 1-5, where **1= strongly disagree**, **2 = disagree**, **3 = not sure**, **4 = agree** and **5 = strongly agree**.

<b>Job Complexity</b>	<b>Strongly disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Not sure</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly agree</b>
The job requires that I only do one task or activity at a time	1	2	3	4	5
The tasks on the job are simple and uncomplicated	1	2	3	4	5
The job comprises relatively uncomplicated tasks	1	2	3	4	5
The job involves performing relatively simple tasks	1	2	3	4	5

Source: Morgeson, F. P., & Humphrey, S. E. (2006). The Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ): Developing and validating a comprehensive measure for assessing job design and the nature of work. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 91, 1321-1339					
<b>Skill</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
The job requires a variety of skills.	1	2	3	4	5
The job requires me to utilize a variety of different skills to complete the work.	1	2	3	4	5
The job requires me to use several complex or high-level skills	1	2	3	4	5
The job requires the use of several skills.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Source:</b> Morgeson, F. P., & Humphrey, S. E. (2006). The Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ): Developing and validating a comprehensive measure for assessing job design and the nature of work. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 91, 1321-1339					
<b>Job Embeddedness</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
The organisation provides me with a way of life that suits me	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, I fit very well in the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
My closest friends are in the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, I have strong ties with people throughout the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
Source: Clinton, M., Knight, T., & Guest, D. E. (2012). Job embeddedness: A new attitudinal measure. <i>International Journal of Selection and Assessment</i> , 20(1), 111-117.					

**SECTION E – BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

1. **Gender**       Male                       Female
2. **Age**             Below 20years       21-25years     26-30years  
 31-35years                       36-40 years     40 and above years
3. **Marital status**  Single                       Cohabiting     Married  
 Separated                       Divorced       Widowed
4. **What is your position in the organisation?**  
 CEO                               Leader           Head of Department  
 Senior officer                   Junior Officer       Other.....

**5. How long have you been with the organisation?**

0-1 year     2-4 years     5-9 years     10-15 years     over 15 years

**6. What is your level of education?**

PhD             Masters             Bachelors     Diploma  
 Senior High School     Others.....

**7. Name of the organisation you work .....**

**8. How long has your organisation been in existence?**

0-1 year     2-4 years     5-9 years     10-15 years     over 15 years

**9. What is the total number of full-time employees in your organisation?**

1- 50             51-100             101-150             151-200             above 200

**Appendix 2: KMO and Bartlett’s test and Total Variance Extracted**

**KMO and Bartlett's Test**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.740
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4747.481
	Df	630
	Sig.	.000

**Total Variance Explained**

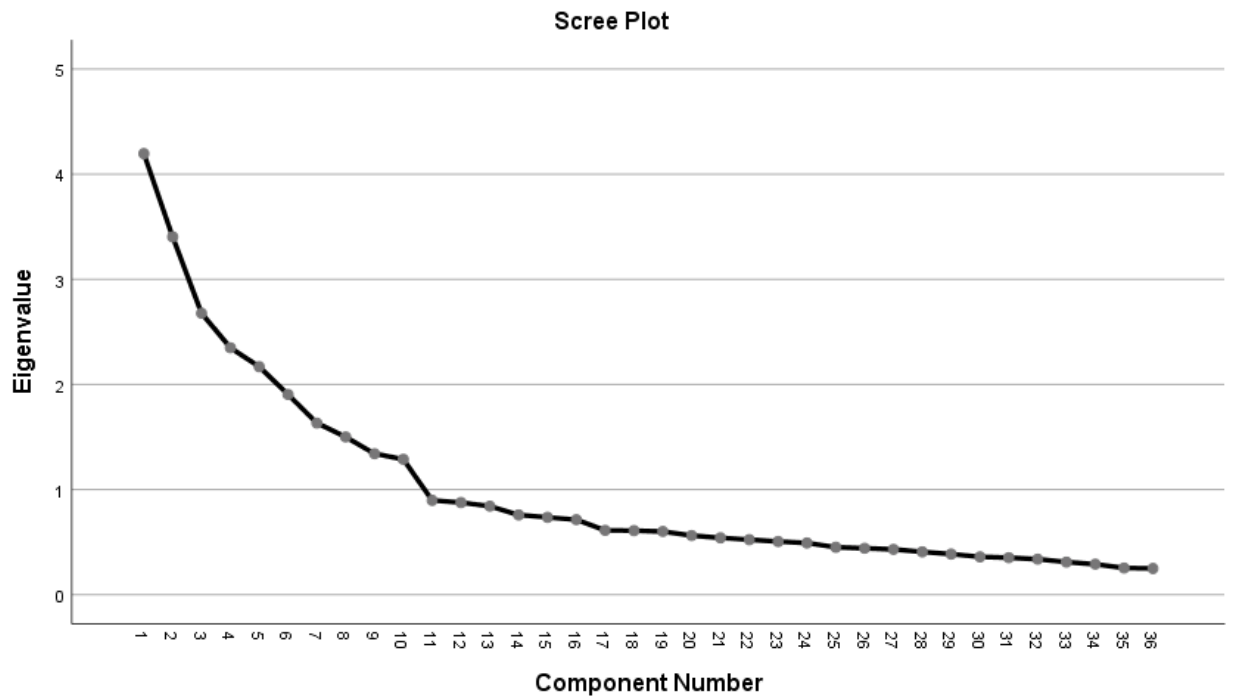
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.196	11.655	11.655	4.196	11.655	11.655	3.733	10.369	10.369
2	3.404	9.455	21.110	3.404	9.455	21.110	2.651	7.365	17.734
3	2.677	7.437	28.546	2.677	7.437	28.546	2.409	6.691	24.425
4	2.349	6.526	35.072	2.349	6.526	35.072	2.232	6.199	30.624
5	2.169	6.025	41.097	2.169	6.025	41.097	2.172	6.033	36.656
6	1.904	5.290	46.387	1.904	5.290	46.387	2.002	5.562	42.218
7	1.633	4.536	50.923	1.633	4.536	50.923	1.910	5.306	47.524
8	1.500	4.168	55.091	1.500	4.168	55.091	1.865	5.180	52.703
9	1.341	3.726	58.817	1.341	3.726	58.817	1.779	4.941	57.645
10	1.288	3.577	62.393	1.288	3.577	62.393	1.709	4.748	62.393
11	.897	2.492	64.885						
12	.876	2.434	67.319						
13	.842	2.339	69.658						
14	.758	2.107	71.765						
15	.736	2.044	73.808						
16	.713	1.981	75.789						
17	.612	1.700	77.489						
18	.609	1.693	79.182						
19	.601	1.669	80.851						
20	.562	1.562	82.413						
21	.541	1.502	83.915						
22	.523	1.453	85.368						
23	.505	1.404	86.772						
24	.491	1.365	88.137						

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25	.451	1.254	89.391						
26	.441	1.225	90.616						
27	.431	1.198	91.814						
28	.407	1.132	92.945						
29	.386	1.073	94.019						
30	.360	.999	95.018						
31	.352	.978	95.996						
32	.338	.939	96.935						
33	.310	.862	97.797						
34	.290	.806	98.603						
35	.254	.705	99.308						
36	.249	.692	100.000						

**Appendix 3: Screeplot**



## Appendix 4: Factor Analysis Results

**Rotated Component Matrix<sup>a</sup>**

	Component									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
JobFit1	.121	.021	.748	-.093	.109	.052	.002	.027	.082	-.004
JobFit2	.069	-.036	.745	.024	.030	.007	- .001	.033	.167	.072
JobFit3	-.007	-.290	.675	.065	.103	- .029	- .032	.016	.010	.079
JobFit4	.009	-.063	.768	-.035	-.046	.043	- .036	-.044	.113	.076
JobTraining1	.011	.039	.143	-.038	.075	- .122	.134	-.132	.757	-.162
JobTraining2	-.022	-.089	.058	.054	.014	.064	.040	.083	.765	.063
JobTraining3	.017	.002	.222	.037	.067	.085	- .115	.025	.690	.203
OrgCommit6	.187	.198	-.093	-.046	-.101	.043	.039	.715	- .052	.001
OrgCommit7	-.089	-.031	-.029	.001	-.052	- .075	.116	.768	- .065	.071
OrgCommit8	-.021	.062	.147	-.030	-.007	.073	- .055	.774	.114	-.049
Psycho7	.763	.021	-.027	.132	-.085	- .009	- .033	.009	.022	-.016
Psycho8	.722	.114	-.018	.023	-.082	- .041	.082	-.147	- .030	.175
Psycho9	.748	.165	.085	-.049	-.127	.028	.104	-.006	- .030	.149
Psycho10	.777	.039	.047	.074	-.095	- .026	.105	.050	- .056	-.045
Psycho11	.828	-.003	.051	-.004	.043	.020	- .083	.103	.068	-.024
Psycho12	.766	.090	.085	-.022	.077	.045	- .112	.032	.027	-.036
EnvFit1	-.019	.074	.074	.724	.055	.027	- .012	-.094	- .082	.011
EnvFit2	.075	.116	-.030	.629	-.117	.193	- .035	.094	.073	.040

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EnvFit3	.019	-.081	.025	.823	.020	-	.046	-.042	-	-.020
						.131			.012	
EnvFit4	.074	-.035	-.117	.726	.092	-	-	-.016	.086	-.002
						.032	.012			
INROLE3	-.034	.053	.173	.068	.591	-	.098	-.136	-	.072
						.005			.058	
INROLE4	-.047	-.057	-.014	.044	.729	.010	-	.007	.061	-.008
							.079			
INROLE5	-.088	-.041	-.031	.012	.726	.191	.058	.020	.007	.065
INROLE6	-.044	-.028	.064	-.060	.755	.022	.049	-.049	.126	.081
EXTRA3	.122	.755	-.018	.066	-.066	-	.064	-.005	.019	-.004
						.060				
EXTRA4	.177	.758	-.073	-.032	-.007	.014	-	.032	-	.020
							.008		.067	
EXTRA5	-.011	.801	-.077	.085	-.033	.102	-	.029	.022	.015
							.077			
EXTRA6	.064	.775	-.123	-.046	.034	.040	-	.157	-	-.029
							.021		.039	
JobComplex1	-.045	-.028	.025	.018	.080	.864	.065	.020	.025	.011
JobComplex2	-.020	.045	.102	.092	.125	.810	.061	-.023	-	.046
									.053	
JobComplex4	.092	.081	-.049	-.087	.004	.628	.256	.042	.074	-.131
Skill2	.155	.059	.015	-.073	-.026	.093	.736	.157	-	-.226
									.008	
Skill3	-.024	.019	.004	-.031	.006	.165	.817	-.027	.024	-.066
Skill4	-.080	-.125	-.085	.095	.149	.084	.696	-.005	.043	.176
JobEmbed2	.095	-.058	.098	-.015	.101	-	-	.054	.067	.833
						.003	.066			
JobEmbed3	.048	.062	.112	.033	.104	-	-	-.026	.027	.859
						.049	.026			

**Appendix 5:** Outliers and other tests in regression**Casewise Diagnostics<sup>a</sup>**

Case Number	Std. Residual	INROLE_PER F	Predicted Value	Residual
109	-4.453	1.25	3.7406	-2.49058
287	-3.113	2.25	3.9912	-1.74121

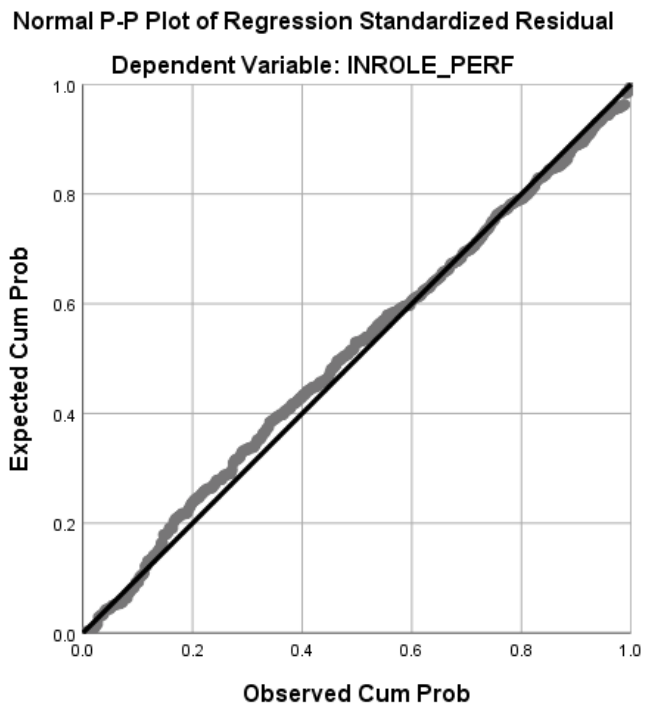
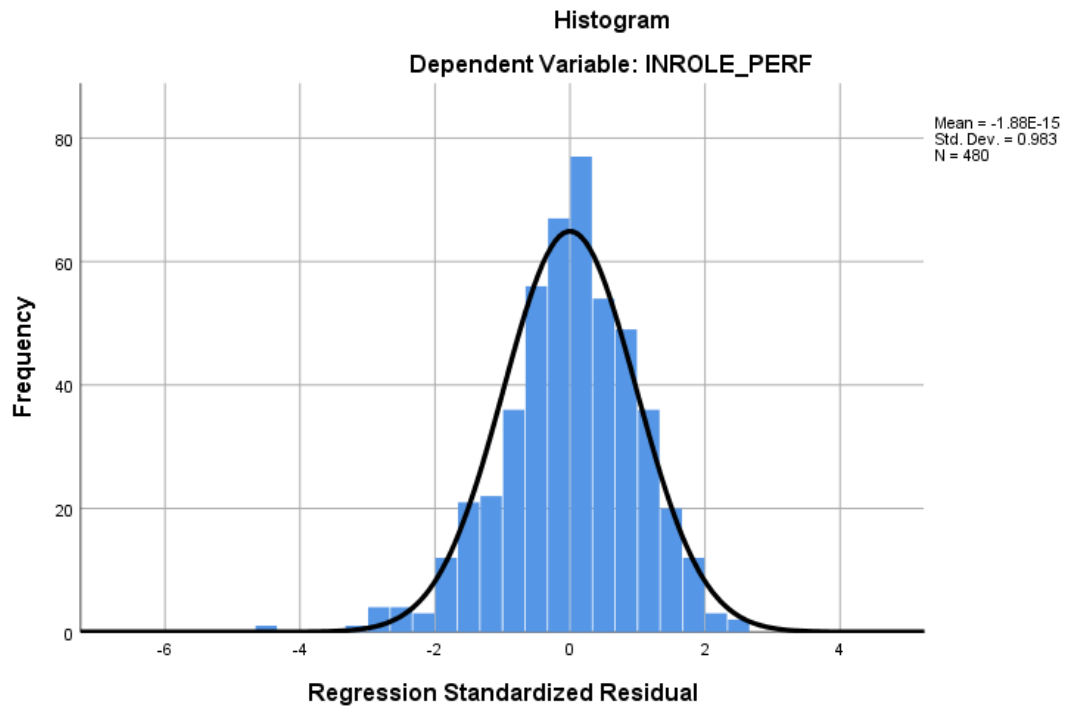
a. Dependent Variable: INROLE\_PERF

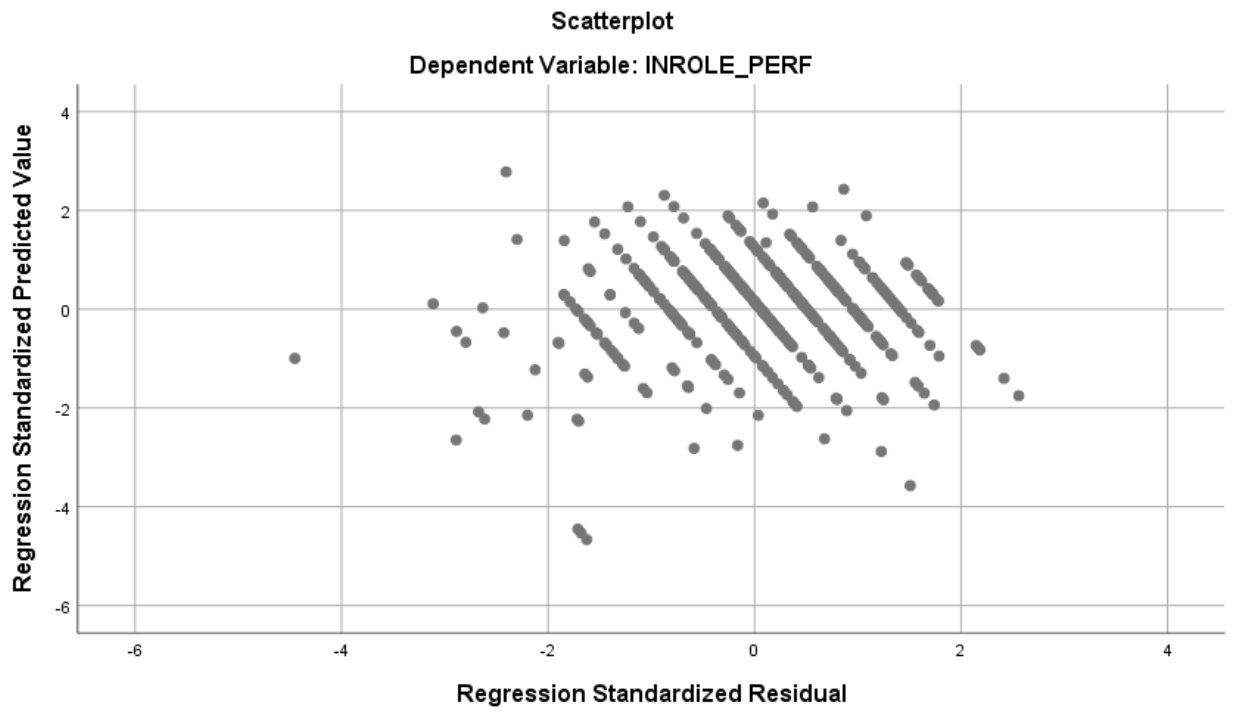
**Residuals Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	2.9097	4.5960	3.9663	.22654	480
Std. Predicted Value	-4.664	2.779	.000	1.000	480
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.039	.335	.095	.045	480
Adjusted Predicted Value	3.0218	4.9714	3.9674	.22868	480
Residual	-2.49058	1.43087	.00000	.54993	480
Std. Residual	-4.453	2.558	.000	.983	480
Stud. Residual	-4.579	2.630	-.001	1.007	480
Deleted Residual	-2.63418	1.51740	-.00112	.57841	480
Stud. Deleted Residual	-4.681	2.647	-.002	1.011	480
Mahal. Distance	1.353	170.855	15.967	19.549	480
Cook's Distance	.000	.122	.003	.010	480
Centered Leverage Value	.003	.357	.033	.041	480

a. Dependent Variable: INROLE\_PERF

**Appendix 6:** Normality tests





**Appendix 7: Outliers and other tests****Casewise Diagnostics<sup>a</sup>**

Case Number	Std. Residual	EXTRAROLE MAIN	Predicted Value	Residual
101	-3.053	-4.67	-2.1528	-2.51382
443	-3.046	-5.00	-2.4925	-2.50750
471	-3.100	-4.75	-2.1982	-2.55178

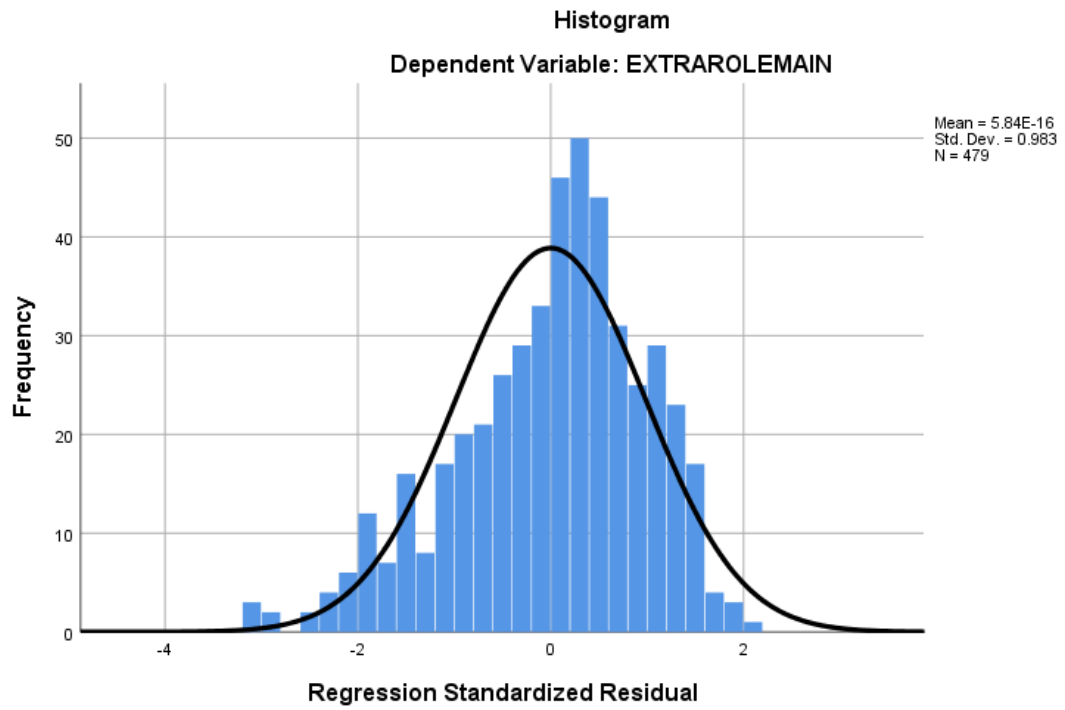
a. Dependent Variable: EXTRAROLEMAIN

**Residuals Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	-3.6231	-.6175	-2.2385	.37844	479
Std. Predicted Value	-3.659	4.283	.000	1.000	479
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.058	.493	.141	.066	479
Adjusted Predicted Value	-3.6461	-.4458	-2.2364	.38933	479
Residual	-2.55178	1.73041	.00000	.80937	479
Std. Residual	-3.100	2.102	.000	.983	479
Stud. Residual	-3.228	2.125	-.001	1.006	479
Deleted Residual	-2.90138	1.81031	-.00207	.84912	479
Stud. Deleted Residual	-3.262	2.134	-.002	1.009	479
Mahal. Distance	1.348	170.536	15.967	19.548	479
Cook's Distance	.000	.119	.003	.009	479
Centered Leverage Value	.003	.357	.033	.041	479

a. Dependent Variable: EXTRAROLEMAIN

**Appendix 8: Normality tests**



Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

