CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Chapter Overview

This chapter provides a chronological review of job performance, organizational commitment, self-efficacy, job characteristics, work engagement and organizational citizenship behavior literatures which contributed to current theoretical framework. Literature about the definition, dimensions and importance of each variable as well as the relationship between independent and dependent variable also presented in this chapter.

2.1 Job Performance

There is a general understanding among researchers that performance is an important variable in work organization (Suliman, 2001) and has become a significant indicators in measuring organizational performance in many studies (Wall et al., 2004). Employee performance can also be measured through the combination of expected behavior and task-related aspects (Motowidlo, 2003), even though performance is often determined by financial figures. In reality, performance that is based on an absolute value or relative judgment may reflect overall organizational performance (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin and Cardy, 2007; Wall et al., 2004). However Wiedower (2001) asserted that performance measure that is based on the performance appraisal items offers higher reliability in evaluating performance.

High performance employees pursue higher level of individual and organizational performance which involve quality, productive, innovation rate and cycle time of
performance (Bharadwaj, 2005) and therefore they will be able to assist organisation to achieve its strategic aims and sustaining the organisation competitive advantage (Dessler, 2011). Thus, in order to attract and sustain higher employee satisfaction and performance, employer need to treat their workers as the most important internal resources and gratify them (Jin, 2007) because committed and satisfied employees are normally high performers that contribute towards organizational productivity (Samad, 2007).

2.1.1 Definition of Job Performance

In general, job performance is defined as actions or behaviours relevant to organizational goals (Campbell, 1990), which includes both productive and counterproductive employee behaviours that contribute to or detract from organizational goals (Hunt, 1996). Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) introduced a more recent definition of job performance as behaviour and outcomes that employees undertake that are contribute to organizational goals. This means job performance refers to the effectiveness of individual behaviours that contribute to organisational objectives and should consist of task performance and contextual performance (Motowidlo, 2003). Both constructs are influenced by different factors, for instance job-related experience determines task performance while individual’s personality type determines contextual performance (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994).

Organ (1998) argues that term “job performance” may need to redefine to essentially broaden this construct to include non-productivity or extra-role dimensions such as cooperation, helping co-workers and superiors and generalized tendencies toward compliance. Organ further proposed that job performance should be measured to the
extent to which employee engage in organizational citizenship behaviours. Sarmiento and Beale (2007) refer job performance as the result of two elements, which consist of the abilities and skills (natural or acquired) that an employee possesses, and his/her motivation to use them in order to perform a better job. According to Jex and Britt (2008), performance is oftentimes assessed in term of financial figures as well as through the combination of expected behaviour and task related aspects.

In this study, the meaning of job performance refers to task performance or in-role job performance as defined by Motowidlo (2003) as the organization’s total expected value on task related proficiency of an employee, or fulfilment of tasks that are required by the formal job description. In other words, task performance is the behaviors related specifically to performing job-related matters. In human resource management studies, task performance has been measured using a range of criterion measures, including supervisory ratings, productivity indexes, promotability ratings, sales total, and turnover rate.

Although these indicators might be presumed to reflect performance at various degrees, Gomez-Mejia et al., (2007) stated that task performance should be distinguished into quality of work done, quantity of work performed, and interpersonal effectiveness. Therefore, from the above definitions it is clear that job performance is related to the extent to which an employee is able to accomplish the task assigned to him or her and how the accomplished task contributes to the realization of the organizational goal. (Mawoli and Babandako, 2011)
2.1.2 Types of Job Performance

According to Porter and Lawler (1968), there are three types of performance. One is the measure of output rates, amount of sales over a period of time, the production of a group of employees reporting to manager, and so on. The second type of measure of performance involves ratings of individuals by someone other than the person whose performance is being considered. The third type of performance measure is self-appraisal and self-ratings. As a result, the adoption of self-appraisal and self-rating techniques are useful in encouraging employees to take an active role in setting his or her own goals. Thus, job performance measures the level of achievement of business and social objectives and responsibilities from the perspective of the judging party (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993). This study adopts the second type of measure by using peer rating in evaluating job performance item among employees in MCC. Peer rating is chosen over self-rating to avoid problems associated with common method bias and social desirability.

2.1.3 The Importance of Job Performance to the Public Sector

Job performance has been identified as the significant key for organizations to gain competitive advantage and superior productivity. Although competitive advantage is more relevant to private sector, it can be extended to public sector by including ‘serving the public’ because it is the ultimate objective of the public sector. Study by Vermeeren et al., (2009) has proved that work performance could help public organization to improve service delivery. Realizing its importance, public organizations seem to pay attention on work performance in relation to formulating policies and enhance service delivery (Leeuw, 1996). This is because individual public employee’s level of
performance acts as a mirror for overall public performance at large. Hence, public employees must possess relevant knowledge, skills, and abilities to execute task-related responsibilities. Public service employees also must be willing to “walk the extra miles” in striving to perform at a level beyond expectations (Caron and Giauque, 2006; Arawati, Barker and Kandampully, 2007) With respect to public service delivery, individual employee’s performance is closely related to customer satisfaction (Fountain, 2001) because the service delivery take place during the contact moments between employee and customer. Therefore, employee’s work performance is crucial to government services and high work performance among employees is a significant management challenge for providing excellent services to the public at all levels.

2.2 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is seen as one of the key factor in achieving competitive performance (Sahnawaz and Juyal, 2006). According to Morrow (1993) “organisational commitment is a multidimensional construct that has the potential to predict outcomes such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure and organisational goals.” Thus, organizational commitment has appeared as an important construct in organizational research because it’s proven relationship with work-related constructs such as absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction, job-involvement and leader-subordinate relations (Arnolds and Boshoff, 2004; Bagraim, 2003; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Tett and Meyer, 1993). Research suggested that when employees expected that they can grow and learn with their current employers, their level of commitment to stay with that particular organization is higher (Opkara, 2004). In addition, committed and satisfied employees are normally high performers that contribute towards organizational productivity (Samad, 2007).
2.2.1 Definition of Organizational Commitment

Buchanan (1974) viewed “commitment” as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one’s role in relation to goals and values, and to organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth. The commitment consists of three components which are:

(i) Identification – adoption as one’s own goals and values of the organization;
(ii) Involvement – psychological immersion or absorption in the activities of one’s work role; and
(iii) Loyalty – a feeling of affection for and attachment to the organization.

The concept of organizational commitment has been defined in many ways. Steers (1977) is among the first to view organizational commitment as an employee attitude and as a set of behavioural intentions; the willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a strong desire to maintain membership of the organization. Then, Mowday, Steers and Porter (1982) refined that the concept of organization commitment can be characterized by at least three factors:

(a) a strong belief in, and acceptance of, the organization’s goals and values;
(b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and
(c) a strong desire to remain in the organization.

This is supported by O’Reilly (2001) who then defines organizational commitment as an individual’s psychological bond to the organization, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty and belief in the values of the organization. In other words, organizational commitment is defined as the strength of an individual’s identification with the goals of an organization’s multiple constituencies, which involved positive
involvement which is integral to developing shared goals and objectives in a particular organization. Thus, organizational commitment can be considered to be affective responses or attitudes which attach an employee to the organization, which involved three stages of compliance, identification and internalization and indicate that the person accepts the influence of others to obtain something from others to maintain a satisfying and self-defining relationship and individual finds the values of the organization to be intrinsically rewarding and congruent with personal values respectively.

According to Chin and Sheehan (2004), organizational commitment is indeed a multidimensional construct and is generalizable to Malaysian managers as their study of 500 managers in Malaysia provides evidence that support the three component model of commitment in Malaysian context as conceptualized by Allen and Meyer (1991) and also supported by Malaysian Academic Librarians (Abdul Karim and Mohammad Noor, 2006).

2.2.2 Dimensions of Organizational Commitment

During the last decade, it has become apparent that organizational commitment is a multi-dimensional construct that involves three dimensions: affective, continuance and normative. Meyer and Allen (1991) determine Allen and Meyer’s three-component model of Organizational Commitment and discover three general themes of organizational commitment, which involve affective, continuance and normative commitment.
• Affective commitment refers to the employee’s emotional attachment to the organization. Employees with strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to do so. This state of attachment reflects the strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization. (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

• Continuance commitment refers to the extent to which the employee perceives that leaving the organization will be costly. Employees with strong continuance commitment remain because they have to do so. (Meyer and Allen, 1991)

• Finally, normative commitment refers to the employee’s feelings of obligation to the organization and the belief that staying is the ‘right thing’ to do. Employees with strong normative commitment remain because they feel that they ought to do so (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

In summary, the three component model attempt to explain the cumulative strength of individual connected to an organization because they want to (affective), they need to (continuance) and they ought to (normative) remain in an organization. Each types of commitment ties the individual in the organization in different ways and will differently affect the manner in which the employee conduct himself in the workplace. (Meyer et al., 2002). However, the most desirable profile of organizational commitment amongst employees, especially those involved in the services industry which demands continuous good service, is affective commitment which is the most established theme in the Meyer and Allen (1991) model. Thus, realizing the importance of having employees with strong affective commitment in organization, this study focuses on the influence of affective organizational commitment as one of attitudinal construct that link to employees’ job performance in organization.
2.2.3 Importance of Affective Organizational Commitment

It has documented by many studies that the concept of organizational commitment lead to beneficial organizational and desirable outcomes such as increased effectiveness, reducing absenteeism and turnover (Steers, 1977; Porter et al., 1974; Tett and Meyer, 1993). Steyrer et al., (2008) affirmed that organizational commitment not only lead employees to continue their membership with organizations, but positively affects employees’ behaviors at workplace. Literature strongly depicts the significant impact of organizational commitment on individuals’ performance (Meyer and Allen, 1996; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Samad, 2007; Muhammad et.al., 2010) and job satisfaction (Mannheim et al., 1997; Samad, 2007; Azeem, 2010). These positive linkages between organizational commitment and desirable organizational outcomes is the result of an individual-organization relationship, where individuals attach themselves to the organization in return for certain valued rewards or payments from the organization. (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Angle and Perry, 1983). As compared to other dimensions of commitment, affective commitment was found to correlate most strongly with job performance by previous research (Shore, Barksdale and Shore, 1995; Muhammad et.al, 2010). According to Boles et al., (2007), increased affective organizational commitment has been positively associated with valuable organizational outcome, including job performance ratings, decreased intent to search for a new jobs and reduced turnover (Bergmann et al., 2000).

According to Organ and Ryan (1995), employee commitment is highly correlated with OCB. Meyer and Allen (1991) in their Three-component Conceptualization of Organisational Commitment asserted employees who are highly committed towards their organizations are willing to go beyond their prescribed job roles and are more desired by
organizations than others. Employee commitment and OCB are actually two constructs in which employees go beyond their prescribed job roles. This was then proven in the meta-analysis of Meyer et al., (2002) which stated OCB correlated positively with affective and normative commitment.

However, there are also some contradictory views on relationship between employee commitment and organizational citizenship. Although Meyer and Allen (1993) revealed that employee commitment leads towards OCB but Ang et al., (2003) opposed Meyer’s view that there is no relation between the two constructs. Shore and Wayne (1993) states, that employee commitment decreases OCB among employees. According to them it is not employee commitment which leads to OCB but indeed its employee’s feelings of obligation towards the organization and other fellow workers which leads to OCB.

This means that the relation between employee commitment and OCB largely depends upon the type of commitment being studied. Past literature suggested a positive relation between employee commitment and OCB but there can be chances of weak as well as strong relation between these two. Meyer and Allen (1993) suggests, that affective commitment of employees leads to such outcomes which are desired by most of the organizations such as employee retention, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) self analysis of performance and contribution towards improving the operational cost and sales of the organization. Affective commitment also found as a significant predictor of OCB (Rifai, 2005, Feather and Rauter, 2004). Therefore, increasing level of affective commitment among employees will help in raising the extra role behaviour at workplace.
2.3 Job Self-Efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy was developed by Albert Bandura (1977) in an effort to interpret and predict human behavior. As for self-efficacy, it contains a motivational component that may affect the effort intended to produce outcomes. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacious individuals set higher goals, are more persevering towards achieving these goals, and, in turn, perform better than individuals with low self-efficacy. Self-efficacy has influence on how individuals feel about themselves, motivation, task persistence, affective thought, and action (Everett, 2010). For individuals who possess a strong sense of self-efficacy, difficult tasks are perceived as challenges, and they do their best to overcome all obstacles in their way to perform the tasks. Individuals with low sense of self-efficacy tend to set easier goals, suffer from job stress, and avoid facing the challenges.

2.3.1 Definition of Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to a belief in one’s ability to successfully perform a task (Kurbanoglu, 2003). Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as the extent to which people believe they can perform behaviour to produce a desired outcome. Bandura (1997) believed that a sense of self-efficacy is a universally important component of individual and group functioning. Self-efficacy beliefs provide the foundation for human motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment (Kurbanoglu, 2003) and influence the totality of human behaviour (Siu et al., 2005). Self-efficacy can be seen as a personal resource, acting as a buffer in the stressor–strain relationship (e.g., Grau, Salanove and Peiró, 2001; Jerusalem and Schwarzer, 1992). The concept of occupational self-efficacy addresses self-efficacy as a domain-specific assessment. It refers to the competence that a
person feels concerning the ability to successfully fulfil the tasks involved in his or her job.

2.3.2 Dimensions of Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1997) stated that there are three dimensions of self-efficacy beliefs:

- Magnitude, which refers to the level a person believes him/herself capable of performing a particular behaviour.
- Generality, which refers to the extent to which self-efficacy beliefs extend to other behaviours and situations.
- Strength, which refers to the resoluteness of people’s convictions that they can perform the behaviour in question.

2.3.3 Sources of Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is based on the individual’s self-concept and it depends on how the individual presents himself to organization and society, which is colored by experiences with self and with others. According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy beliefs are acquired from four sources: First source, self-efficacy beliefs is acquired through mastery experiences, wherein through repeated achievements the individual gains confidence in his or her ability. Second source is from vicarious learning or the information obtained through observing others when performing their duties and interpreting these observations. Third, there is symbolic experience through social persuasion by others. The fourth source is emotional arousal, wherein the case of individual experiences anger or stress or anxiety it may affect the development of that individual’s self-efficacy.
2.3.4 Importance of Self-Efficacy

The construct of self-efficacy represents one core aspect of social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997). In his theory of behaviour change, Bandura hypothesised that expectations of self-efficacy determine what instrumental actions to be initiate, how much effort will be expended and how long it will be persistent in the face of obstacles and failures. Efficacy beliefs influence how people think, feel, motivate themselves and act (Bandura, 1997). In terms of feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is linked with depression, anxiety, and helplessness. Persons with low self-efficacy will demonstrate low self-esteem and pessimistic thoughts about their personal development. Thus, it is important for organization to retain employees who possess a strong sense of self-efficacy because they will perceive difficult tasks as challenges, and they do their best to overcome all obstacles in performing their tasks. In terms of cognition, a strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes and performance in a variety of settings, including quality of decision-making.

According to Hobfoll, (1989) self-efficacy can be considered an important personal resource aiding stress resistance. Self-efficacy can affect how people act when they feel any of their resources are in danger, when they encounter resource loss or a lack of resource gain. Self-efficacy reflects the employees confidence in their ability to carry out their job tasks (Bandura, 1997). Hence, people with high self-efficacy may not be hampered in their performance to the same extent as people with low self-efficacy when faced with job insecurity.

In addition, past research established relationships between self-efficacy and contextual performance (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000). Past research found that self-efficacy
beliefs provide the basis for human well-being, motivation and personal accomplishment, because when people believe their actions lead to their desired outcomes, they will keep trying in the face of difficulties (Pajares, 2002). In addition, employee participation in decision making enhanced their self-efficacy (Cassar, 1999; Lunjew 1994), creates a feeling of self-worth (Keller and Dansereau, 1995) as employees feel that management consider them as part of operation and important in decision making. Higher levels of self-efficacy also enable employees to have greater job satisfaction, commitment and proactive behaviors, and lower intent to quit (Gruman et al., 2006). This feeling would bring positive outlook towards supervisor and organisation, thus they would willing to perform extra-role behaviours, as a result increasing the likelihood of organisational citizenship behaviours (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Miles et al., 2002).

2.4 Job Characteristics

Work design has come forward as a topic of central importance in the management discipline. Interest was prompted by concerns that work design produced work quality effects on employee well-being and performance (Humprey et al., 2007; Holman et al., 2009; Indartono, 2010). In many studies, job characteristics play a major role in organizational theory (Buys, Olckers and Schaap, 2007) and job characteristics has been considered as crucial aspects of “job experience” that need to be further evaluated in understanding its role in predicting job performance (Daniels, 2006; Grant, 2008).

Job characteristics are dominant variables that shape work environment and determine how employees perceive their work. The main concern of job characteristics are the nature of tasks associated with that work and how the work is done. As an example, enriched jobs are believed to lead to higher levels of self-esteem since they are less
structured, and allow employees to exercise self-control in their assigned jobs. Consequently it would lead to positive cognitive and psychological condition of the incumbent. With high levels of autonomy in one’s job, employees are more likely to see themselves as self-efficacious and competent within the duties and assignments of their work.

2.4.1 Definition of Job Characteristics

Job characteristics has been defined as the job design that results in three psychological states namely meaningfulness of the work performed, responsibility for work outcomes and knowledge of the results of work performed that bring about positive work outcomes (Hackman and Oldham, 1975). The core job characteristics that influence the first critical psychological state, meaningfulness of the work performed, are skill variety, task identity, and task significance. The core job characteristic that influences the second critical psychological state, responsibility for work outcomes is autonomy. The third core job characteristic, influencing the final critical psychological state, knowledge of the results of work performed, is job feedback (Kulik et al., 1987).

2.4.2 Dimensions of Job Characteristics

According to Job Characteristics Model, Job characteristics comprise five dimensions as defined below:

(1) Skill variety: Skill variety is the degree to which the job requires incumbents to perform a wide range of activities using various skills and talents. The employee
who is open to change is likely to be motivated when having a job variety. (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

(2) Task Identity: Task identity is “the degree to which a job requires completion of a “whole” and identifiable piece of work that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome” (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

(3) Task Autonomy: Autonomy involves freedom to make decisions and present solutions to all problems in relation to the job with limited control from supervisors. It is the degree of freedom the job provides to the incumbent in scheduling and conducting the work. (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

(4) Task Significance: Task significance is “the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives of other people, whether those people are in the immediate organization or in the world at large” (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

(5) Feedback: Supervisor or others feedback relates to the degree to which performing the work activities results in the employee obtaining direct and clear information about the performance effectiveness. (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

2.4.3 Job Characteristics Model and Importance of Job Characteristics

Job Characteristics Model was developed by Hackman and Oldham (Hackman and Oldham, 1975), asserts that a job will have influence on an employee’s performance when the person performing the job experiences the three psychological states. The three principal psychological states are experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility and experienced knowledge of his or her performance. Collectively, these elements are seen to predict importance of work outcomes such as motivation, performance, job satisfaction, turnover and absence among employees which expected to provide meaningfulness of the work. The Job Characteristics Model asserted that
individual performance can be enhanced when employees perceive that their job entails the abovementioned five main characteristics.

The design and characteristics of job is important for organization because it provide significant influence on employees’ intrinsic motivation and would lead to higher level of job performance among employees (George and Zhou, 2001; Tierney and Farmer, 2002; Demerouti, 2006). Whereas, past researchers has proposed other dimensions of job characteristics such as autonomy, feedback, skill variety, task significance and task identity as dimensions of job factors that significantly affect employee performance (Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Tierney and Farmer, 2002).

Past research has proven that there is a link between job design and employees’ performance. Jobs that are designed with high complexity characterized by high levels of autonomy, skill variety, identity, significance and feedback can have positive impact on employees’ performance (Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Morgeson et al., 2006). This is because when jobs are complex, individuals performing the job are likely to be excited and more interested to engage in and complete the work activities. As a result, employees are more likely to concentrate all of their attention and effort on their job making them more open and willing to try out new ideas and consider different alternatives. This will later lead to a better job performance (Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Shalley and Gilson, 2004). Hence successful job design innovation had positive implications on employee’s behavior and attitudes such as job satisfaction, commitment, involvement, motivation, perception of outcomes, anxiety and stress (Humphrey et al., 2007) and job performance (Morgeson et al., 2006).
Job characteristic was found to have a direct relationship with OCB, whereas task variables directly impact OCB’s two dimensions altruism and compliance (Farh, Posdakoff and Organ, 1990), showing that in organizational interest intrinsic motivation among employees is important to perform the job better. Additionally, task characteristic also produces significant impact on OCB’s dimensions: altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy and civic virtue (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994). Job feedback and tasks which satisfy employees intrinsically are positively related to OCB. In other hand, task routinization of work has been negatively related with OCB.

These results are quite consistent with findings of Podsakoff and Mackenzie (1993) in the survey of organizational citizenship behavior on evaluation of sales person performance. Job autonomy leads to OCB especially its two dimensions altruism and conscientiousness. According to Krishnan et al., (2010), three job characteristic (task autonomy, task variety, and task significance) of Job Characteristic Model leads towards OCB. However, even though autonomy gives freedom to employees to perform the task in their way of performing task, which directly creates positive motivation to perform the task and increases employee’s conscientiousness, but the fact cannot be ignored that job autonomy could also result in resource abuse (Jinyue, 2007).

2.5 Work Engagement

Employee engagement has emerged as the most recent “business driver” of organizational success (Lockwood, 2007). Engaged employees, on the other hand, work harder, are more committed, and are more likely to go “above and beyond” the requirements and expectations of their work (Lockwood, 2007). Luthans’s (2002) recent statements regarding positive psychological states is “the study of positively oriented
human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace” (p. 698). Engaged employees have a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work activities, and they see themselves as able to deal well with the demands of their jobs. Furthermore, engaged employees tend to feel that their work actually positively affects their physical health and their psychological well-being (Crabtree, 2005).

2.5.1 Definition of Work Engagement

Engagement has been defined as “the extent to which employees commit to something or someone in their organization, (and)/ how hard they work and how long they stay as a result of that commitment” (Corporate Leadership Council, 2004). Kahn (1990) was the first to coin the term engagement as he described how people can “use varying degrees of their selves, physically, cognitively, and emotionally in work role performances”. Other researchers with a job-involvement focus described engagement as how people employ and expend themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally, during role performance. (Rothbard, 2001; May et.al, 2004; Avery et al., 2007;)

Schaufeli et al., (2002) define work engagement as the, “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption.” Engaged employees therefore, have high levels of energy and are enthusiastic about their work. Saks (2006) however, refines this definition to include employees’ engagement to their jobs and organizations, with the explanations that engagement is not an attitude but the extent to which individuals are conscientiously absorbed in their jobs and in their roles as members of organizations.
2.5.2 Dimensions of Work Engagement

Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state. This means that engagement is not focused on any particular object, event, individual or behavior. According to Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001, there are three dimensions of work engagement as follows:

(i) Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

(ii) Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one’s work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

(iii) Finally, absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work. Accordingly, vigor and dedication are considered direct opposites of the core burnout dimensions of exhaustion and cynicism, respectively (Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, 2001).

2.5.3 Importance of Work Engagement

It is crucial for employers to retain engaged employees for few reasons. First, engaged employees often experience positive emotions, including happiness, joy, interest, and enthusiasm (Schaufeli and Van Rhenen, 2006). According to Fredrickson’s (2001) broaden-and-build theory, these positive emotions have the capacity to broaden people’s momentary thought-action repertoires and to build their personal resources (e.g. social
relationships, self-efficacy) through widening the array of thoughts and actions that come to mind (Fredrickson and Branigan, 2005; Isen, 2000; Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001). In their study among managers, Fredrickson and Losada (2005) showed that high performers expressed the highest ratio of positive emotions during business meetings, and were most flexible in terms of asking questions to others (inquiry) and presenting their own views (advocacy).

Second, the emotions experienced by highly engaged employees are high in arousal or activation (Langelaan, Bakker, Schaufeli, and Van Doornen, 2006). Researchers have conceptualized affect and emotions as a function of two orthogonal axes, pleasure, and activation (Russell and Carroll, 1999). The pleasure axis summarizes at the level of subjective experience how well one is feeling, whereas the orthogonal activation axis refers to a sense of mobilization of energy. Negative affect and positive affect can be described using these two axes whereby negative affect is characterized by feelings like anger, fear, nervousness, and subjective stress (Watson, 2000). On the other hand, positive affect is characterized by feelings like enthusiasm, energy, and happiness. Engaged employees are characterized by high in positive affect and to a somewhat lesser degree by low in negative affect (Schaufeli et al., 2001).

These finding was in line with research by Blessing-White, Inc. (2006), which found that engaged employees were proud to work in their organizations and trusted their immediate managers with positive emotional connections. Emotionally based commitment to the work and the organization results in higher levels of engagement and commitment based on developmental, financial, or professional rewards (Corporate Leadership Council, 2004).
Work engagement also linked to OCB as Bakker et al., (2004) revealed that engaged employees scored higher in extra-role performance ratings than those who were not engaged. This means that employee engagement leads to organizational citizenship behavior as it focuses on employee involvement and secures their commitment which definitely lies outside the prescribed parameters of any organization. Research by Rich, Lepine, and Crawford (2009) found a positive relationship between job engagement and organizational citizenship behavior. Other research stated that engagement lead employees to engage in discretionary behaviors beyond what they are supposed to do in their roles. (Macey and Schneider, 2008; Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke, 2004)

2.6 Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

The concept of Organizational Citizenship behavior was initially introduced by Denis Organ in mid 1980’s which focuses on extra-role behavior. Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) perceive OCB as an individual’s extra personal behaviour, when employees performed behaviour in helping a specific co-worker, a customer or a supervisor. This behaviour is not required by employment contract and not normally expected of the employee since it comes without reward or pay.

In simple context Organizational Citizenship (OCB) can be understand as providing voluntary help to fellow workers and going for extra-mile for the organizational development. OCB is characterized by the intention to make a positive contribution to the functioning of the firm (Bowling, 2010; Feather and Rauter, 2004; Organ 1997) and worker is not explicitly asked to exhibit OCB (Feather and Rauter, 2004). Usually OCB occur in the form of a helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, or self-development
(Podsakoff et al., 2000). However, it cannot be excluded that OCB will indirectly be rewarded (Organ, 1997). OCB incorporated extra role behaviors such as co-operation with workers, coming earlier and leaving late at workplace, helping others, using organizational resources with care, spreading positivity in organization (Turnispeed and Rassuli, 2005).

2.6.1 Definition of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OCB or extra-role performance can be defined as behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation and goes beyond formal job requirements (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). OCB represents “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organisation” (Organ, 1988, p.4).

In other words, OCB refers to the informal expectations regarding the employees behaviors in a professional context and it is defined as sum of extra-role behaviors which contribute to the organizational performance, but which are not formally requested by a certain job description, nor controlled or imposed (e.g.: helping the colleagues, being on time, promoting the organization in a personal or informal context, developing self), and which are complementary to the job formal requirements.

2.6.2 Dimensions of OCB

There are five dimensions of OCB that have been identified which are: Altruism, Civic virtue, Conscientiousness, Courtesy and Sportsmanship (Organ, 1988; Moorman, 1993) which explain the concept purposefully.
(i) **Altruism**: Helping the fellow worker on assigned task or problem (Organ, 1988; Werner, 2007) in terms of providing relevant information, assisting fellow employees in solving problems or helping in use of new machinery or equipment.

(ii) **Civic Virtue**: Participating in organizations events, decision making or in other words contributing in organizational governance (Organ, 1988). When organizational members attend as well as participate in organizational events that reflect a unity and bonding between members and create a good will and positive image in front of public this is referred as civic virtue (Allison et al., 2001).

(iii) **Conscientiousness**: When employees start performing their duties and job above the minimum level of requirement (Organ, 1988). Behaviors such as arriving early and leaving the work place late, not wasting time in chit chat, gossips or breaks and giving sincere suggestions whenever needed by someone (Tayyab, 2005).

(iv) **Courtesy**: Informing or alerting others from threat which might affect them or their work (Organ, 1988). It is a thoughtful behavior that can prevent or at least alert others from some kind of harm that might affect them (Werner, 2007). For instance, notifying an employee who reports late to work before taking any disciplinary action.

(v) **Sportsmanship**: Abstain to complain about minor issues faced at workplace (Organ, 1988). Tolerating unpleasant situations or inconveniences at workplace without complaining (Allison et al., 2001).
2.6.3 Categories of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Williams and Anderson (1991) suggested that OCB can be divided in two broad categories which are OCB towards the organization (OCBO) and OCB towards individuals (OCBI). OCBI behaviors mainly involved with kinds of helping behavior, like altruism and courtesy (Podsakoff et al., 2000), which indeed can be interpreted as one dimension (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994). However, OCBO seems to consist of multiple dimensions, since there is strong empirical evidence for the distinction of organizational compliance, sportsmanship, and civic virtue as separate dimensions (Organ et al., 2006).

2.6.4 Factors Influence Organizational Citizenship Behavior

As stated by Podsakoff et al., (2000), there were four distinct categories of antecedents of OCB. The first category was individual characteristics which included demographic variables, role perceptions, dispositional factors, indifference to rewards, and “morale” factors. “Morale” factors include commitment, satisfaction, perceptions of fairness, and leader supportiveness. A second category of antecedents was task characteristics (Meyer et al., 2002). Task characteristics were described as task feedback, task routinization, and intrinsically satisfying tasks Podsakoff et al., (2000). The final two categories were organizational characteristics and leadership behaviors. Organizational characteristics included group cohesiveness, organizational formalization, organizational inflexibility and staff support. Lastly, Transformational and transactional leadership behaviors were used to test leadership behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000).
As noted earlier, in context of job attitudinal behaviour, past research confirmed that there is a relationship between affective commitment, job self-efficacy, job characteristics and work engagement with OCB (Organ and Ryan 1995; Somech and Zahavy, 2000; Tierney and Farmer, 2002; Krishnan et al., 2010; Bakker, 2004). Since OCB also have direct link with job performance as proven by most of the past studies (MacKenzie et al., 1991; Nikolaou and Robertson, 2001; Tutu, 2012), OCB is believed to mediate the relationship between independent variable (affective commitment, self-efficacy, job characteristics and work engagement) and job performance.

2.6.5 Importance of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

One reason behind OCB’s popularity is the fact that in today’s dynamic time, innovation and being spontaneous is hour’s need and organizations which totally rely on written roles and behaviors are actually weak and cannot survive, thus business organizations have realized the importance of extra-role behaviour (Wyss, 2006). Even though OCB is not account for formal performance measures of employees, it is important in measuring employees’ behaviour towards individual and their organization. This is because contextual activities are essential since they contribute to organizational effectiveness and shape the organisational, social, and psychological context that serves as the catalyst for task activities and processes (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997).

In addition, OCB has positive impact on employees as well as organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000). OCB dimensions such as civic virtue and sportsmanship seems to produce positive impacts but negative results had been associated with altruism (Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1994). Organizational citizenship behaviour can help organizations to improve employee’s job performance and help management scoring behaviour for global
performance, thus leads to organizational efficacy as it motivates employees to perform beyond the formal job requirement (MacKinzie et al., 1991; Nikolaou and Robertson, 2001; Tutu and Constantin, 2011). This is consistent with Podsakoff et al., (2000) who proposed that OCBs influence the stability of organizational performance because “conscientious employees are more likely to maintain a consistently high level of output, thus reducing variability in a work unit’s performance” (p. 545)

As a form of job behaviour that goes beyond task performance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is also expected to be affected by employees’ effort. The significance of OCB was successfully established, highlighting the important role they have in relationship with job performance (Tutu, 2012). Employees who demonstrate high levels of effort exert themselves to the fullest, work as hard as they can, and work with intensity and energy (Brown and Leigh, 1996). These employees are expected to exert effort toward all behaviors that affect their job performance, including organizational citizenship behaviors. In addition, supervisors often include OCB in their assessment of job performance (Organ, 1977; Rotundo and Sackett, 2002). Indeed, organizational citizenship behavior, as discretionary behavior, requires additional levels of effort beyond what is needed for task performance.

2.7 Research Framework

The theoretical framework or research model is a conceptual model on the theory which shows the relationship among independent variables, mediating variable and dependent variables. The framework for this study is shown in the Figure 2.1 below:
2.7.1 Independent variable

The independent variable is the variable that influences the dependent variable in either positive or negative way (Sekaran, 2003). The independent variables in this research are affective organizational commitment, job self-efficacy, job characteristics and work engagement.

2.7.2 Dependent Variable

Dependent variable is the key factor or primary interest to the researcher that has been looked into to explain or predict if they are affected by some other factors. Through the analysis of dependent variable, it is possible to find answer or solution for the problem (Sekaran, 2003). The dependent variable for this study is job performance.
2.7.3 Mediating Variable

According to Sekaran (2003), mediating variable surface as a function of the independent variables operating in any situation, and help to conceptualized and explain the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable. Mediating variable surface between the time the independent variables starts operating to influence the dependent variable and the time their impact is felt on it. In this study, the mediating variable is organizational citizenship behaviour.

In general, this framework focuses on attitudinal factors such as affective organizational commitment, job self-efficacy, job characteristics, work engagement which is closely related to job performance. Since past research shows inconclusive findings about attitudinal work behaviour towards job performance, this study would like to investigate the relationship between the above mentioned attitudinal factors towards outcome of job performance. As mention earlier, previous studies were conducted in western settings and this study would like to provide empirical evidence that western management and organizational theories could be valid in non-western setting.

Besides, previous studies focus largely on direct relationship among attitudinal job behaviours such as organizational commitment and job performance. However the influence and effect of organizational citizenship behavior on job performance relationship has not been explored extensively. Given the gap, this study will contribute and investigate the mediating effect of organizational citizenship behaviour on the above mentioned relationship.
2.8 Hypotheses development

2.8.1 The relationship between Affective Commitment and Job Performance

Even though there are many studies conducted in the context of organizational commitment in Malaysia (Rajendran and Raduan, 2005; Kamarul Zaman and Raida, 2003; Razali, 1999), little attention is given to the study of organizational commitment and job performance relationship in Malaysian public sector. (Malek, 2008; Md. Isa, 2009; Panatik, 2010). In public sector setting, studies have found mixed results of relationship between organizational commitment and job performance. A study among administrative staff in University Utara Malaysia found that there is a significant weak relationship between employee commitment and job performance (Md. Isa, 2009). In a study among knowledge worker in JPS Kelantan, researcher found there is positive relationship between affective commitment and job performance (Malek, 2008). However, study among managerial level of Telecom Malaysia found that there is a low to moderate positive correlation between organizational commitment and job performance (Samad, 2005).

However, in private sector setting, studies have shown a positive correlation between employee commitment and job performance (Hunter and Thatcher, 2007; Pool and Pool, 2007). For instance, employee’s commitment had found to affect job performance (Jaramilloa, Mulki and Marshal, 2005; Al Ahmadi, 2009). Of all the forms of commitment, affective commitment has been found to have the strongest positive relationship with desirable outcomes (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa, 1986). Organizations that want to foster affective commitment must in turn show their commitment to the employees by providing supportive work environments.
Therefore, this study aims to examine this relationship and as such has included the following hypothesis:

**H1:** There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and employees’ job performance.

### 2.8.2 The relationship between Job Self-Efficacy and Job Performance

Most of study on self-efficacy is conducted in private sector setting. Due to limited study on relationship between self-efficacy and job performance in public sector, this hypothesis is based on the finding in private sector setting. In organizational research, job performance was found to be positively influenced by employee self-efficacy (Karatepea, Uludagb, Menevisc, Hadzimehmedagic and Baddar, 2006; D’Amato and Zijlstra, 2008) and role ambiguity (Knight, Kim and Crutsinger, 2007). This is aligned with Bandura’s view that individuals who perceive themselves with high self-efficacy are likely to increase their efforts and exceed in their task, which could result in high performance (Bandura, 1997). Considering the facts that self-efficacy would results in high performance, it would be interesting to investigate the relationship between both variables in public sector setting. Thus, this study aims to examine the following hypothesis:

**H2:** There is a relationship between job self-efficacy and employees’ job performance.

### 2.8.3 The relationship between Job Characteristics and Job Performance

There are considerable researches in public sector setting in regards of job characteristics whereas job characteristics was found to be significantly related to job performance
among public employees (Panatik, 2010; Johari, 2010; Johari et al., 2010; Johari et al., 2012). This is also in line with research by Morgeson et al., (2006) concluded that overall these five task characteristics have effect on job performance. Autonomy has been link to both objective and subjective performance ratings. Skill variety does have the expected effect on keeping workers motivated, involved and satisfied which in turn supports achievement of higher performance. Task identity can be useful information to start and finish the work it is related to performance evaluation. Task significance is positively related to subjective performance. Whereas feedback from the job is able to timely provide reliable information and direct accurate feedback from the job performed. This study aims to investigate if the same results will occur in public sector in Malaysia, the hypothesis indicating:

\[ H3: \text{There is a positive relationship between job characteristics and employees’ job performance.} \]

2.8.4 The relationship between Work Engagement and Job Performance

There are limited research studies on relationship between work engagement and job performance in public sector, thus this hypothesis is based on the finding in private sector setting. Bakker and Demerouti (2008) explain that engaged employees perform better than those who are not because they are emotionally more positive (happy, joyful and enthusiastic) and enjoy better health. Besides, engaged employees have the personal and job resources to motivate them to perform. Schaufeli et al., (2006) report the link between work engagement and the in-role performance of employees. Therefore, this study aims to examine the following hypothesis and expect to obtain the same results in public sector setting:
2.8.5 The relationship between OCB and Job Performance

Studies have showed that OCB influence the job performance (MacKinzie et al., 1991; Nikolaou and Robertson, 2002; Tutu, 2011). Prior research (MacKenzie et al., 1991; Nikolaou and Robertson, 1999; Tutu, 2011) has provided evidence that OCB influence the supervisors ratings when evaluating employees’ job performance. This research also in line with study by Podsakoff and McKenzie (1997) which indicated that helping behaviour had significant impact on performance quality.

Even though all of these studies were conducted in private sector setting, we believed that OCB is also important in public sector setting as it motivates employees to perform beyond the formal job requirement and help to improve public employees’ performance thus leads to organizational efficiency.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

**H5: There is a positive relationship between relationship between Organizational Citizenship Behavior and employees’ job performance.**

2.8.6 Mediating effect of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OCB is seen as a desired behaviour and is therefore included in this study as mediating variable. In the earliest research by Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith, Organ and Near, (1983), OCB was defined by two criteria: (1) behaviour above and beyond role
requirements that is (2) organizationally functional. The practical importance of OCB is that it improves organizational efficiency and effectiveness by contributing to resource transformations, innovativeness and adaptability (Organ, 1988).

OCB is believed to mediate the relationship between independent variable which is affective commitment, self-efficacy, job characteristics and work engagement on job performance. As an example, being working as public sector employees, workers are expected to accomplish one piece of work with the involvement of other person, either their subordinate or superior. In this case, beside highly committed, high in self-efficacy and work engagement, OCB is seeing as additional effort that can help the job done faster, thus contribute to higher performance because this kind of job need employee’s willingness to go extra miles to get it done by facing the respective parties in completing one particular job. Thus, OCB act as mediator between these job variables and help in getting job’s done in positive way.

Citizenship behaviours are presumably valued by supervisors because they make their own jobs easier and free their own time and energy for more substantive tasks. (Bateman and Organ, 1983). Moreover, when employees exhibit high levels of effort, they actively engage themselves in broader work roles (Khan, 1990), including organizational citizenship behavior. Saks (2006), for example, found that when employees exhibited high levels of concentration and were engrossed in their work, they were more likely to engage in OCB. Thus, this study aims to examine the following hypothesis:

\[ H6: \text{Organizational Citizenship Behavior mediates the relationship between independent variable (affective commitment, job self-efficacy, job characteristics and work engagement) and dependent variable (job performance)}. \]
2.9 Summary

This chapter also provides a review of the previous literature on the variables incorporated in this study. It discusses the concept of job performance, affective commitment, job self-efficacy, job characteristics, work engagement as well as organizational citizenship behaviour. Theoretical framework and hypothesis development also discussed in this chapter based on the findings of previous studies.