

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature review is an integral part of conducting any research work; it provides the researcher with information about previous works in her/his working area and thereby helps identify the study's theoretical framework. It also provides a proper direction for the researcher to conduct the study and enables him/her to arrive at meaningful findings. This Chapter discusses the literature on the existing work designs and job performance of the SAAOs with relevant research findings directly or/and indirectly related to the present study. Recent reviews from the various studies conducted at home and abroad have been included here as far as doable. The first section of this Chapter deals with the literature review on the concepts, definitions, different models, and aspects relating to work design and job performance. Moreover, the reviews regarding previous studies and the relationships among different variables have been presented in the second section. Finally, the study's conceptual framework has been shown in the third section of this Chapter for ease of comprehension of the topics dealt with here.

2.1 Detail Review of the Concepts of the Important Issues

Work design and job performance are the two vital terms in this study. The impacts and interconnections between these two terms also call for the clarification of the concepts and understanding. Thus, a thorough review of the concepts regarding the various aspects of work design and job performance has been presented in this section.

2.1.1 Concept of the work design

The work design has played a central role in the history of research in the applied psychology and organizational behavior, and also continues to be a key topic for several reasons. In recent decades, the work design has been one of only a handful of organizational theories rated as simultaneously high in validity, importance, and usefulness, too (Miner, 2003).

The work design has been described in terms of work characteristics or features affecting people's feelings about their works. Research has identified many positive work characteristics; that result in work being more motivational or less stressful. The work design is concerned with the contents of the work which an individual or a group undertakes, i.e., the roles and tasks they fulfill, as well as the methods they use to complete their work (Holman et

al., 2002). However, nowadays, work design is defined more broadly as encapsulating the processes and outcomes of how works are structured, organized, experienced, and finally enacted (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008).

Whether work is beneficial or detrimental is mainly dependent upon how that is designed. The work design is defined as the contents, structure, and organization of one's tasks and activities (Parker, 2014). It is primarily studied in terms of work characteristics, e.g., work autonomy and workload, which are like the building blocks of a working design. Meta-analytical results show that these work characteristics predict employees' health and well-being, their cognitions and learning, and attitudes and behavior (Humphrey et al., 2007; Nahrgang et al., 2011).

The work design is receiving a resurgence of attention as dramatic changes in domestic and international landscapes of work have created new types of works, particularly in service and knowledge/creative sectors (Elsbach & Hargadon, 2006; Grant & Parker, 2009; Parker et al., 2001; Rousseau & Fried, 2001). These changes have spawned rapid increases in autonomy, professionalization, and service customization, providing employees with growing latitude and discretion to alter their work designs. As organizations flatten, employees have opportunities to craft their works (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), expand their roles (Parker et al., 1997), revise their tasks (Staw & Boettger, 1990), and negotiate new roles and idiosyncratic deals (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991; Rousseau et al., 2006). Moreover, technological advances have increasingly made information available that is conducive to autonomy and empowerment (Sinha & Van de Ven, 2005). Integration of these final two points suggests that the work design is essential in theory and practice as well because unlike more uncontrollable factors, e.g., culture and structure, both authorities and employees have the opportunity to change work design regularly (Faux, 2009).

2.1.2 Overview of different work design models

An overview of important work design models that have dominated the work design literature around the globe has been presented in this section. Several competing models which researchers have widely used to predict the impact of work design on psychological well-being and organizational outcomes encompass this section.

2.1.2.1 Hackman and Oldham's model of job characteristics

The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) has been widely used in work design research. This was initially formulated as a model of work redesign by Hackman & Lawler (1971), who are considered to be the fathers of job characteristics theory (Boonzaier et al., 2001). In 1974 and 1980, Hackman and Oldham developed and then revised the job characteristics theory and termed their refinement the Job Characteristic Model (JCM) (Figure 2.1). The model is considered the most influential in guiding research on the nature or characteristics of jobs (Boonzaier et al., 2001; Johns et al., 1992).

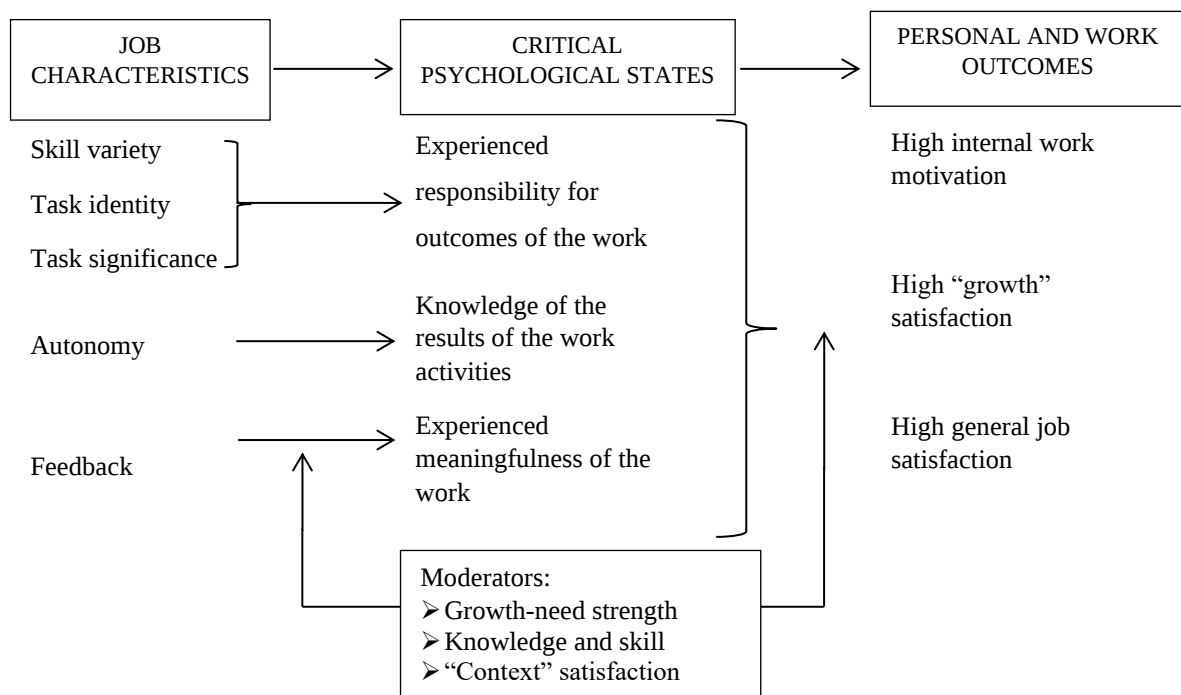


Figure 2.1 Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model

Source: Hackman & Oldham (1980)

In the JCM, Hackman & Oldham (1980) incorporate five core job dimensions that contribute to certain critical psychological states, leading to many beneficial personal and work outcomes. The links between the job dimensions and psychological states and between the psychological states and the outcomes are moderated by three individual variables of individual differences: knowledge and skill, growth need strength, and context satisfaction. The core job characteristics are summarized here:

- i. **Skill variety:** It refers to the extent to which the job requires the use of various skills and talents of an employee.

- ii. Task identity:** This means the degree to which the job involves completing a whole, identifiable piece of work rather than simply a part.
- iii. Task significance:** This involves the importance of the task: both internal significance (e.g., how important the task is to the organization) and external significance (e.g., how proud employees are to tell their relatives, friends, and neighbors what they do and where they work).
- iv. Autonomy:** This indicates whether the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in carrying out the work; how much freedom and control employees have to perform their job.
- v. Feedback:** It refers to objective information about progress and performance that can come from the job itself, from supervisors, or from other sources.

The JCM also posits that an individual must experience the three critical psychological states if desired outcomes are to emerge, which are:

- (a) Meaningfulness:** This cognitive state involves the degree to which employees perceive their work as making a valued contribution as important and worthwhile.
- (b) Knowledge of results:** The degree to which the employees know and understand how effectively they perform their jobs.
- (c) Responsibility:** The degree to which employees feel personally accountable for their work results.

As shown in Figure 2.1, skill variety, task identity, and task significance lead to the psychological state of meaningfulness; task autonomy leads to the psychological state of professional responsibility; and task feedback leads to the psychological state of knowledge of the actual results of work activities.

2.1.2.2 Karasek's model of the job demand-control

Karasek (1979) built the criticisms of the JCM. In his job demand-control model (Figure 2.2), he synthesized the traditions on detrimental aspects of work design (i.e., demands, including workload and role stressors) and the beneficial elements (i.e., job control, including autonomy and skill variety) mentioned in the literature following the development of the Michigan Model (Caplan et al., 1975) and the JCM, respectively. Rather than considering both aspects separately, observing all aspects of structural work as a demand, Karasek argued that job demands and job control have to be examined in combination, as the effects of each may be fundamentally different depending on the level of the other one.

Karasek's model spurred research on work stress and health-related outcomes, e.g., mortality and cardiovascular diseases (Van der Doef & Maes, 1998). The additive effects of job demands and job control are often found, but more cross-sectionally than over time, which suggests that reciprocal or reversed effects may also occur, with well-being, motivation, and learning predicting the work design (Hausser et al., 2010). Results for the interaction between job demands and job control are limited (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999), even among high-quality studies (de Lange et al., 2003).

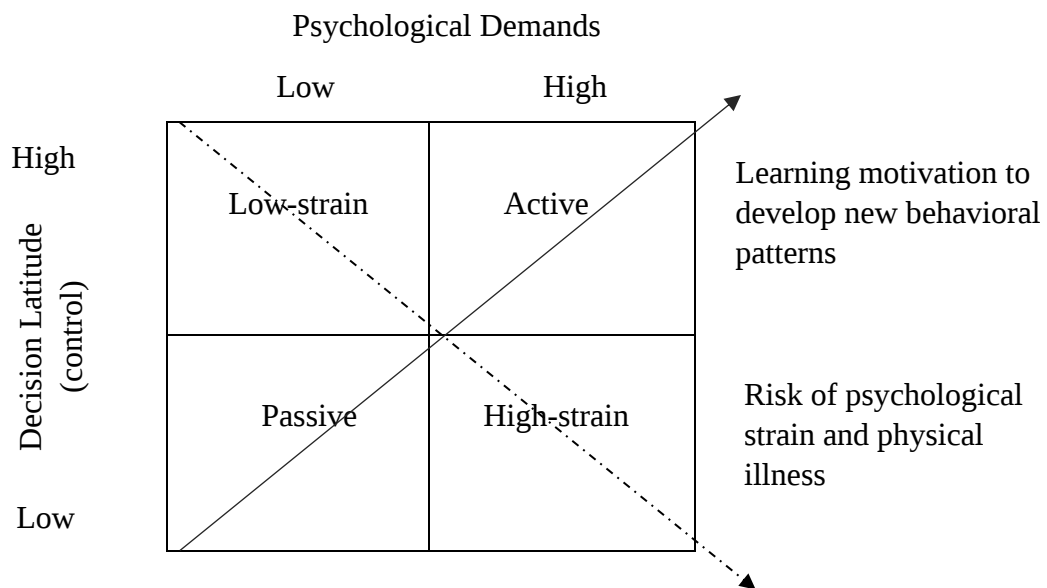


Figure 2.2 Job Demand-Control Model

Source: Karasek (1979)

Many researchers in the management and psychology literature have tested Karasek's theory. However, there has been wide variation in the specific outcome variables measured. Van der Doef & Maes (1999) reviewed 63 empirical studies published from 1979-1997 that employed Karasek's model. They identified two broad categories of outcome variables studied:

- (a) Job-related well-being, e.g., job satisfaction (Chay, 1993), job-related psychological well-being (Mullarkey et al., 1997), and burnout (Landsbergis, 1988; Melamed et al., 1991);
- (b) General psychological well-being, e.g., psychological distress (Barnett & Brennan, 1997), depression (Baker et al., 1996; Carayon, 1993), and anxiety (Fletcher & Jones, 1993; Kushnir & Melamed, 1991).

In their meta-analysis, Van der Doef & Maes (1999) noted that Karasek's (1979) initial study allowed for only a moderating effect of control. But in a subsequent study, Karasek (1989) also specified a direct effect for control on the criterion variables. The moderating effect of

control is labeled as “the buffering hypothesis”, while “the strain hypothesis” refers to the alternate model which specifies a direct effect of control (Shen & Gallivan, 2004). To conclude, the JDC model implies that the strain is caused by a combination of the level of psychological job demands and the amount of decision latitude (control). Much research has investigated the demand-control model, and both dimensions have been shown to affect the strain (Parker & Wall, 1998).

2.1.2.3 Model of job demands-control-support

The job Demands-Control-Support model is commonly used to address work-stress to overcome to construct an efficient work design (Johnson & Hall, 1988; Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990). According to that model, work stress would occur when job demands exceed the ability to overcome those demands either through job control or job support (organization support/colleagues’ support). When the work-stress, which the model does not directly measure, is more of a latent variable thought to occur through the combination of the job demands with job control and support and persists over a while, workers will experience the negative outcomes associated with stress, e.g., anxiety and decreased physical health. Before going into more of the specifics of the Job Demands-Control-Support model, the main variables in the model [i.e., job demands, job control, and job support (both organization and colleagues)] need to go through first which will explain how those are thought to relate to the stress outcomes.

Johnson and Hall (1998) investigated in their JDCS model that, in addition to job control, job support is also a critical factor associated with the impact of job demands. In line with that research, it is hypothesized that “iso-strain” jobs which are categorized by low levels of support, or high levels of isolation, low levels of job control, and high levels of demands are associated with the most negative work outcomes (Johnson and Hall, 1988; Karasek and Theorell, 1990). Like job control, job support is another factor that provides workers with resources that help to cope with work stressors. A modified version of Karasek’s work strain model which includes the new dimension of job support is presented in Figure 2.3.

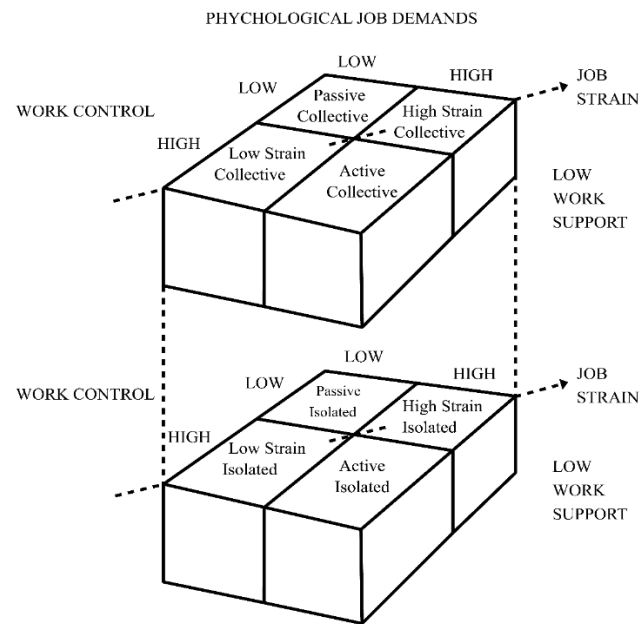


Figure 2.3 Job Demands-Control-Support Model

Source: Johnson & Hall (1988)

Since the inception of the JDCS model, several studies have clarified that high levels of job demands, low levels of job control, and low levels of job support are associated with various negative employee outcomes (Baker et al., 1996; Chay, 1993; de Croon et al., 2004; McLaney & Hurrell, 1988; Mullarkey et al., 1997; Theorell & Karasek, 1996; Tummers et al., 2002). These outcomes can be grouped as work-related, general, and physical health (van der Doef & Maes, 1998; 1999). In summary, the JDCS model aims to improve employees' health and well-being by reducing work stress and creating the right conditions under which motivation and personal growth in work can be achieved.

2.1.2.4 Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli's model of job demands-resources

The job demands-resources model (JD-R model) (Bakker et al., 2014; Demerouti et al., 2001) aimed to provide an integrative view of job characteristics (Figure 2.4). At the core of the model, there lie the various job characteristics that may impact employees, and those can be meaningfully classified as job demands and job resources. Job demands are defined as those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job requiring sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are, therefore, associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). These are not necessarily negative but turn into job stressors when exceed workers' capacities, making it hard for them to recover.

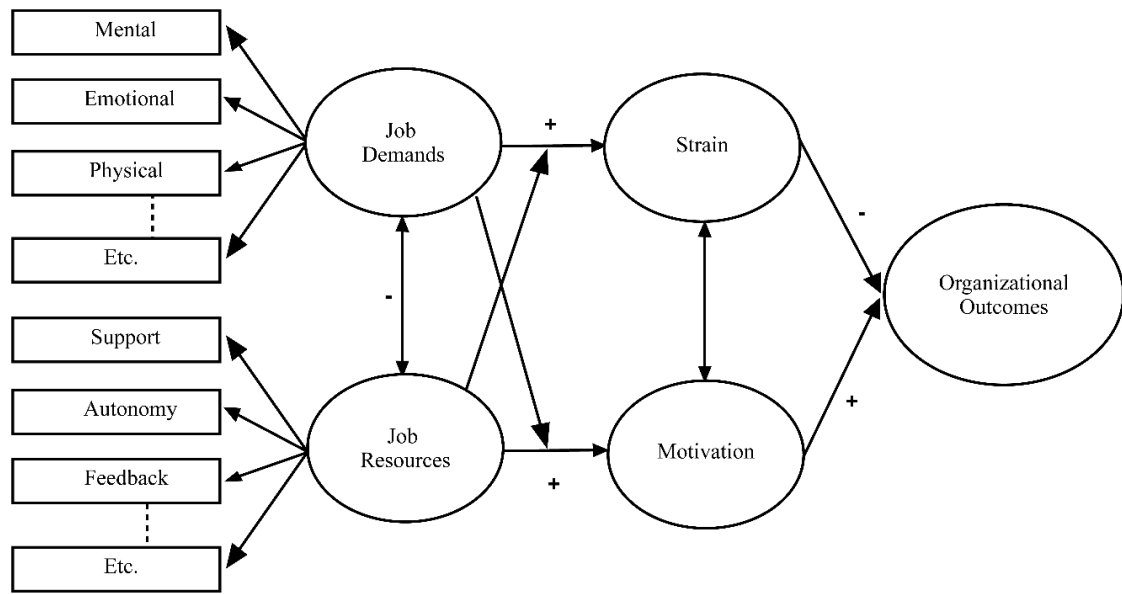


Figure 2.4 Job Demands-Resources Model

Source: Bakker & Demerouti (2007)

The JD-R model focuses on the well-being of employees as the crucial outcome. Following the positive psychological movement advocating the balanced study of the bright side of employees' functioning (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) along with the dark side, both negative (i.e., burnout) and positive (i.e., work engagement) aspects of well-being are considered as the crucial pathways through which job demands and job resources relate to a host of other outcomes, including employees' physical health and well-being, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and different types of behaviors, including in-role and extra-role performance, as well as the counterproductive behavior (Van den Broeck et al., 2013).

2.1.2.5 Contemporary models of work design

Over the years, various other models have been developed. These models may range from slightly different perspectives on job characteristics and their roles in predicting employees' functioning to fundamental changes in how someone could perceive work design. For example, some scholars suggested that not all job demands are equal but must be differentiated into challenging and hindering job demands. However, challenges are obstacles that can be overcome and hold the learning potential, hindrances are threatening barriers that drain people's energy and prevent goal achievement (Lepine et al., 2005). Some authors suggested that the job demands can be either challenging, hindering, or both, depending on the appraisal of the individual employee (Rodríguez et al., 2013; Webster et al., 2010). Others, in contrast, argued that employees generally categorized particular job demands as challenging (e.g., workload and time pressure) or hindering (e.g., red tape and role conflict), in relatively clear-cut categorizations (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; Van den Broeck et al., 2010).

New developments in the work design literature also focused on the relations between the two variables: job characteristics and outcomes. For example, the Demand-Induced Strain Compensation model (DISC model) (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003) further refined the work design theory by qualifying the interaction between job demands and job resources. Specifically, the DISC model assumes that the job resources have more potential to buffer the negative effects of job demands on the employees' well-being when the demands, resources, and outcomes are all physical, cognitive, or emotional. The emotional resources, such as, social support may best buffer the impacts of the emotional demands on the emotional stability (Van de Ven et al., 2014).

The relational perspective of Grant and his colleagues is also a novel extension (Grant, 2007). In this approach, a powerful way to design any work is to ensure that employees are connected with issues that benefit from the work. Such an approach enhances task significance, promoting greater pro-social motivation amongst employees, which benefits employees' performance (Grant & Parker, 2009).

Another development has been to recognize the role of work design in promoting learning. As Parker (2014) argued 'Motivational theories of work design have dominated the psychological approaches to work design. However, that needs to expand the criterion-space beyond motivation, not just by adding extra dependent variables to empirical studies, but by exploring when, why, and how a working design can help to achieve different purposes.' Parker outlined the existing theory and research that suggests that any work design might be a powerful-yet currently rather neglected-intervention for promoting learning outcomes, e.g., the accelerated acquisition of expert knowledge, as well as for fostering developmental outcomes over the lifespan (e.g., the development of cognitive complexity, or even moral development). Nevertheless, the current work design literature can be fragmented, with different work design models offering insights into various parts of the puzzle but not necessarily the whole one.

2.1.3 Significant outcomes of the work design

Within the literature on work design, diverse outcomes of the work design have been put to the fore whereas some of those focused mostly on the performance, and most of the motivational and health-oriented models of work design focused on the aspects of employees' well-being and attitudes. But none of the existing models of work design fulfills the justice to the rich number of consequences that have been empirically studied. The following are some outcomes of a successful work design:

i. Health and Well-being

Employees' health and well-being have arguably been the most studied outcomes of the work design. Meta-analytic results convincingly pinpointed that job characteristics like autonomy, feedback, and social support increase employees' engagement and prevent them from feeling anxious, stressed, or burned out (Humphrey et al., 2007; Nahrgang et al., 2011). In line with these results, many countries developed policies that urge employers to take care of the psychosocial risk factors including mainly quantitative and qualitative demands, job control, and opportunities for skill development to prevent these outcomes (Formazin et al., 2014). A policy-oriented focus on improving the work design also has the potential to prevent more injuries and somatic health problems related to work design. For example, job characteristics are also crucial precursors of accidents, injuries, and unsafe behavior (Nahrgang et al., 2011) as high job demands and low job resources might cause employees to routinely violate safety rules (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). Peoples working in jobs of low quality also have a higher risk of stroke and the development of heart diseases (Backé et al., 2012; Eller et al., 2009).

ii. Attitude

A considerable body of research established the implications of work design for employees' attitudes toward work, e.g., organizational commitments, job involvement, and job satisfaction (Humphrey et al., 2007). Meta-analytic results also highlighted that job demands explain 28% of the variances in the work design, while job resources can explain not less than 62 to 85% (Humphrey et al., 2007; Nahrgang et al., 2011). Results are inconclusive whether high levels of job satisfaction should be attributed primarily to good social relations at work or to the motivational characteristics as defined by Hackman & Oldham (1980).

iii. Cognitions and Learning

Much attention has been devoted to health and well-being. Nonetheless, research interest in cognitions as work design outcomes has only been emerging recently and is getting attention as a promising avenue for the future (Parker, 2014). Although more complex jobs may be challenging (Van Veldhoven et al., 2016), Then et al. (2014) demonstrated that that might also have positive consequences, as high work complexity together with high job control have a protective effect against the decline of cognitive functions later in life and dementia. Increasing cognitive demands may thus start a process in which cognitive processes are maintained, if not increased. Similarly, work pressure may reduce intuitive daytime decision-making but enhances analytical thinking (Gordon et al., 2015).

iv. Behavior

In the work context, different behaviors are valued, ranging from performance and adaptivity to proactivity (Griffin et al., 2007). His primary aim was to design jobs to increase job performance according to the scientific standards he established. Although performance have received less attention throughout the classic work design models, they are still considered crucial in any work design research. Nonetheless, the results are somewhat mixed. While

meta-analyses show that a range of job resources e.g., autonomy, skill or task variety, task significance, and feedback - all relate positively to self-rated performance, only autonomy seems to relate to objective performance (Humphrey et al., 2007). Motivational and social factors like autonomy, task identity, feedback from the job, and social support are also crucial predictors of behaviors like absenteeism, while social aspects of work design, e.g., social support, feedback from others, and interdependence, prove to be most important for turnover intentions (Humphrey et al., 2007). Job resources like feedback and intrinsically motivating tasks also predict extra-role behaviors, e.g., altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. But job demands like role ambiguity, role conflict, and task routinization are negatively related to these behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

v. Personal Characteristics

Several of the models of job characteristics have considered the role of personal characteristics within the work design. Rightly so, employees functioning is likely to be a function of both situations (i.e., to be job-related) and personal factors. Most attention concerning the role of personal factors has been paid to personal resources, defined as highly valued aspects, relating to resilience and contributing to individuals' potential to successfully control and influence the environment (Hobfoll et al., 2003). Several personal characteristics have been considered personal resources. Within the JCM, for example, growth-need strength can be recognized as a personal resource, as are the critical psychological states of meaning, knowledge of results, and responsibility. Employees' values are considered essential to how employees respond to certain contexts. At the same time, a host of personal resources have been studied in the realm of the JD-R model, ranging from hope and optimism to the core self-evaluations of self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, emotional stability, and locus of control (Van den Broeck et al., 2013).

2.1.4 Job performance (definitions and concept)

“When employees fail in their jobs, part of the organization also fails” (Cappelli, 2008). Employee job performance is of utmost importance to all organizations and is strongly linked to organizational strategic goals, customer satisfaction, and stakeholders' economic contributions (Bernardin et al., 1995). In an organizational context, performance is commonly viewed as a unidimensional construct, i.e., overall performance concerned with completing role-specific tasks (Campbell et al., 1993). However, in the last forty years, the construct has broadened from focusing narrowly on only accomplishments of tasks mentioned in the job description to encompassing a wider span of roles and behaviors that are needed for organizational efficiency and productivity (Griffin et al., 2007) and has become multi-dimensional (Bates & Holton, 1995), with studies like Campbell et al. (1990) and Campbell et al. (1993) trying to dig into the underlying components of the construct.

The job performance is considered as the results, outcomes, and achievements of employees toward organizational and sectional goals. However, the performance can be strong or weak that needs improvement. Boakye (2015) defined job performance as achieving tasks to have accurate and cost-efficient results. Other researchers claimed that productivity is the main indicator of employees' performance depending on scientific management, which concentrates on the number of units produced by employees within a timeframe. (Malkanthi & Ali, 2016; Inuwa & Idris, 2017).

According to Matkanthi & Ali (2016), job performance is defined as it focuses directly on employees' productivity by assessing the number of units of acceptable quality produced by an employee in a manufacturing environment, within a specific period. According to Inuwa & Idris (2017), job performance can be defined as workers' complete ability and productiveness in attaining a projected value realization of everyday jobs in line with the prescribed procedure and timeline of the concerned organization.

Hirlak et al. (2018) have a different view from the above-mentioned scholars. They defined job performance as the effects of efficiency and effectiveness of an individual's effort towards specific tasks. Other researchers referred the job performance as the quality and quantity of work accomplished by employees based on the job description. (Darma & Supriyanto, 2017; Setiawan et al., 2018).

According to Darma & Supriyanto (2017), 'job performance' is the work of quality and quantity achieved by an employee in performing his/her duties per the responsibilities vested. Setiawan et al. (2018) defined job performance as a result of work in quality and quantity that an employee achieves in carrying out tasks by the responsibilities assigned to him.

Putterill & Rohrer (1995) defines job performance as focusing directly on an employee's productivity by assessing the number of units of acceptable quality produced by an employee in a manufacturing environment, within a specific time. Hence, the researcher has developed the working definition for the study purposes: achieving targets of the tasks assigned to employees within a particular period of time. The success of an organization depends on employees' performance. One of the most effective ways to increase organizational performance and profit is to increase employees' performance, from the organization's lowest levels to senior management. Performance improvement is not only a result of a well-functioning system but also depends on effective human resource strategies that successfully recruit and maintain a committed and motivated workforce (Al-Ahmadi, 2009).

According to Jamal (2007), job performance is an individual's ability to successfully perform tasks by using resources available at work. On the other hand, Borman & Motowidlo (1993) proposed that job performance is a concept that includes both task and contextual performance.

According to Viswesvaran & Ones (2000), job performance refers to “scalable actions, behaviors and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that is linked with and contribute to organizational goals”. Some studies narrowly defined job performance based on actual sales or other objective productivity measures (Christen et al., 2006).

It is generally recognized that organizations need and evaluate employees who perform well and consider these high performers a valuable asset for them (Yun et al., 2007). Accordingly, the volume of literature devoted to job performance and the fact that many leading researchers have opined about it, reflects the importance of assessing individual job performance (Viswesvaran, 2001).

Campbell (1990) defined performance as those actions or behaviors under the individual's control, that contribute to the organization's goals, and that can also be measured according to the individual's level of proficiency. This definition is consistent with the others. Rotundo and Sackett (2002) echoed Campbell (1990) to define performance as the controllable and measurable actions and behaviors aligned with superordinate goals. Smith (1976) defined performance as the combination of actions and behaviors, and not only results obtained from actions. Murphy (1989) defined performance as behaviors contributing to organizational goals, stating that focusing solely on results might encourage employees to resort to unfair methods of maximizing results, which will be detrimental to the organization.

Emphasizing the behavioral dimension of performance, Brumback (1988) stated, “Success is not always positive nor failure always negative”. He defined performance as: “Performance means both behaviors and results. Behaviors emanate from the performer and transform performance from abstraction to action. Not just the instruments for results, behaviors are also outcomes in their own right– the product of mental and physical efforts applied to tasks– and can be judged apart from results”.

2.1.5 Overview of different models regarding the job performance

An overview of important models of job performance is presented in this section. Several competing models describing the concepts and various aspects of job performance are presented here along with appropriate diagrams and references too.

2.1.5.1 Campbell's multifactor model of the job performance

Campbell (1990) defined eight behavioral dimensions of performance that he claimed “Are sufficient to describe the top of the latent hierarchy in all jobs. However, the eight factors are not of the same form. They have different patterns of sub-general factors, and their contents vary differentially across jobs. Furthermore, any particular job might not incorporate all the eight components.” (Campbell, 1990) (Figure 2.5). The components are:

1. **Job-specific task proficiency:** How well someone can do tasks make up the core technical requirements of a job, and differentiate one job from another one.
2. **Non-job-specific task proficiency:** How well someone can perform tasks that are not unique to the job but are required by most or all jobs in an organization.
3. **Written and oral communications:** How well someone can write or speak to an audience of any size.
4. **Demonstrating effort:** How much someone commits to job tasks and how persistently and intensely someone works at job tasks.
5. **Maintaining personal discipline:** How much someone avoids negative behavior, e.g., alcohol abuse, rule-breaking, and absenteeism.
6. **Facilitating team and peer performance:** How well someone supports, helps, and develops peers and helps the group function as an effective unit.
7. **Supervision:** How well someone influences subordinates through face-to-face interaction.
8. **Management and administration:** How well someone performs other, non-supervisory functions of management.

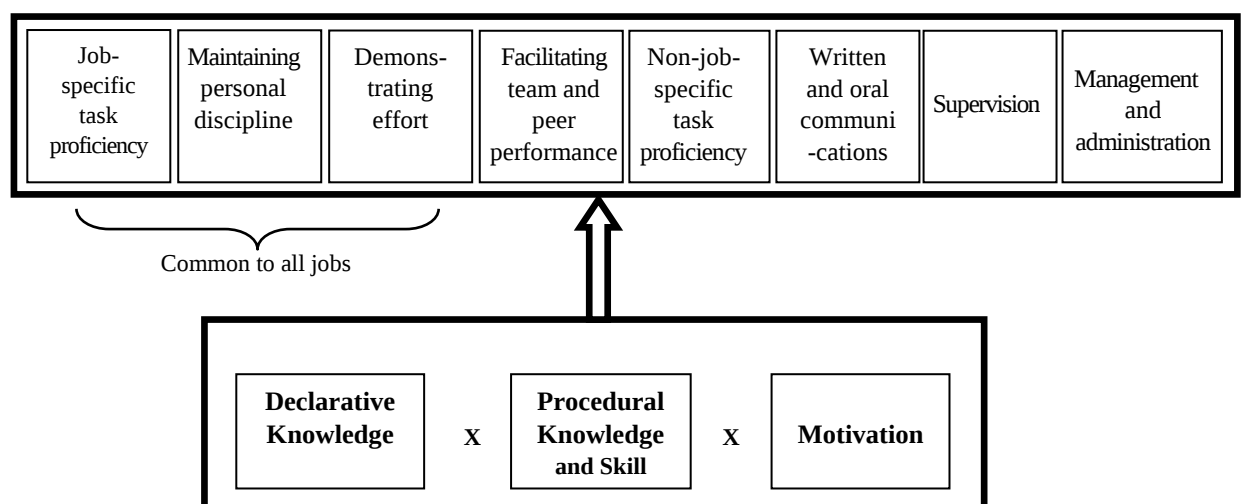


Figure 2.5 Campbell's Multifactor Model of Job Performance

Source: Campbell (1990)

2.1.5.2 Tett and Burnett's trait-based model of job performance

Tett and Burnett's Trait-Based Model, presented in Figure 2.6, is perhaps the most recent major personality trait-based interactionist model of job performance (Tett & Burnett, 2003). The behavioral dimensions of this model are the behavioral expressions of personality traits themselves. When these trait expressions have an evaluative property, these constitute performance behaviors. At the model's core are situation trait relevance and trait activation concepts. Situation trait relevance stipulates that a personality trait will only be behaviorally expressed when cues relevant to that trait are present (Kenrick & Funder, 1988; Tett & Guterman, 2000). A trait is activated when the environment provides the appropriate cues and opportunities to influence any behavior.

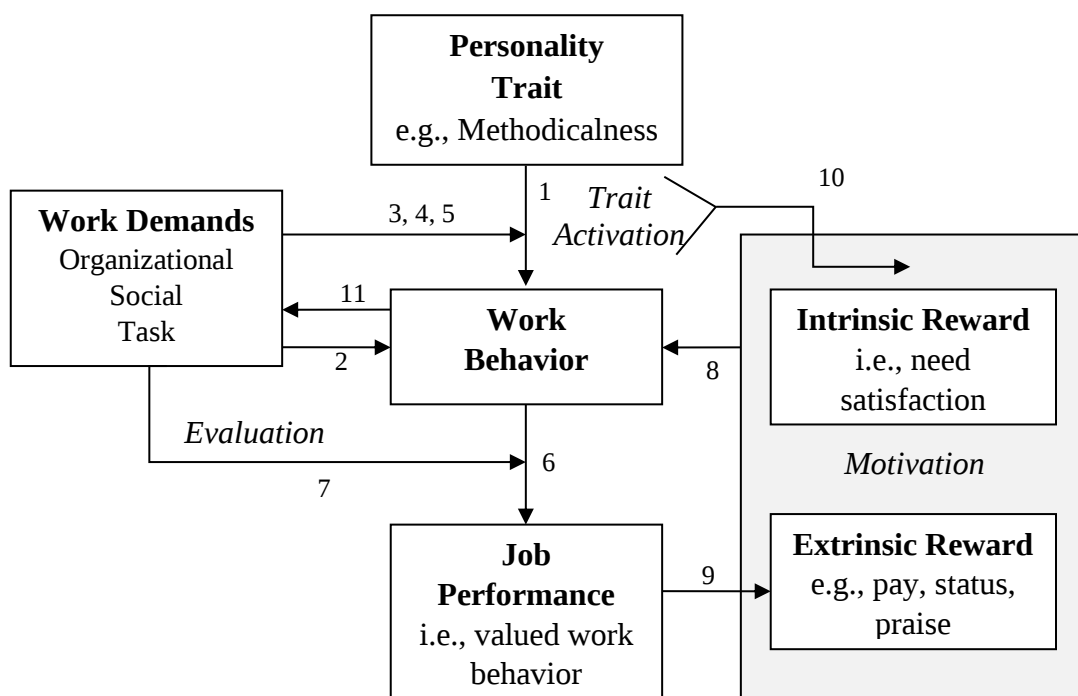


Figure 2.6 Tett and Burnett's Personality Trait-Based Model of Job Performance

Source: Tett & Burnett (2003)

Trait-activating cues also stem from an organization's culture and climate. The activating cue of attending a board meeting could trigger very different responses due to different cultures across organizations. In a hierarchical organization that favors age and experience, a junior associate might experience anxiety and exhibit introverted behaviors during a meeting with senior partners. In another organization that eschews hierarchy and encourages the open exchange of ideas, during a board meeting, a junior associate might act gregariously and openly share new ideas with those present in the meeting. Empirical evidence supports the trait activation theory. Assessment center exercises have been rated for the extent to which

they provide the opportunity for the behavioral expression of the ‘Big Five Traits’ (Haaland & Christiansen, 2002; Lievens et al., 2006). Across exercises that had been rated as giving participants the opportunity to express certain traits, the correlations of judges’ ratings of participants’ personality traits were larger than across exercises that had been rated as giving participants the little opportunity to express certain traits.

2.1.6 Factors affecting the job performance

Several theoretical and empirical reports published over the past 20 years presented causal models of performance that explain relations between basic traits, e.g., cognitive ability, personality, and job performance in terms of intervening variables, e.g., knowledge, skill, and sometimes other variables which are also presumed to mediate effects of basic traits on job performance.

Borman et al. (1991) added two personality variables, dependability and achievement orientation, and two related outcome variables, the number of awards and the number of disciplinary actions, to the set of variables that Hunter (1983) analyzed. Correlations between these variables clarified that mental ability affected knowledge, knowledge affected skill, and finally skill affected job performance. Neither ability nor knowledge had direct or other indirect effects on job performance. In addition, dependability directly affected knowledge, number of disciplinary actions, and job performance. Achievement orientation had direct effects on the number of awards and job performance.

Campbell (1990) and his associates (Campbell et al., 1993; Campbell et al., 1996) presented a theory of performance that formalized relations found by Hunter (1983) and Borman et al. (1991) between mental ability, job knowledge, skill, and job performance. They argued that there are three direct determinants of job performance: declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skill, and motivation. Declarative knowledge is the knowledge of facts, principles, and procedures: the knowledge that paper-and-pencil tests might measure, for example, procedural knowledge and skill are facilities for actually doing what should be done; it is the combination of knowing what to do and being able to do that. It includes skills, e.g., cognitive, psychomotor, physical, self-management, and interpersonal skills, and might be measured by simulations and job sample tests. Motivation is the combination of choice to exert effort, choice of how much effort to exert, and choice of how long to continue to exert effort. Individual differences in personality, ability, and interests are presumed to combine

and interact with education, training, and experience to shape declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skill, and motivation. Thus, individual differences in cognitive ability and personality should have only indirect effects on performance mediated by knowledge, skill, and motivation.

Motowidlo et al. (1997) presented a theory of individual differences in job performance that also incorporates this idea. The theory divides job performance into task performance and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) and predicts that cognitive ability is a better predictor of task performance, whereas personality variables, e.g., extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness are better predictors of the contextual performance.

Schmidt & Hunter (1998) summarized research in this area by concluding that mental ability is related to job performance as more intelligent people learn job knowledge more quickly. More thoroughly, experience is related to job performance as more experienced people have had more opportunities to learn job-relevant knowledge and skill. Conscientiousness is related to job performance as more conscientious people “exert greater efforts and spend more time ‘on task’.”

Oppositely, according to some scholars, personality plays an important role in how an individual behaves in the workplace. Judge & Zapata (2015) along with Zeigler-Hill et al. (2015) are among those who have given prime thrust to personality vis-à-vis job performance. From the trait-based conceptualization, Guay et al. (2013) studied the impact of conscientiousness on task performance; Aarde et al. (2017) later confirmed that through the meta-analysis. From an integrative approach to personality, the value of core self-evaluations (O’Neill et al., 2016) has been established multiple times in extant literature. Examples include the works of Ferris et al. (2015), who experienced the impact of self-esteem on job performance, and Lin et al. (2014), who studied the impact of positive affectivity aiding job performance.

An individual’s experience has also been an invaluable resource for positive job performance. Individual experience is split into two categories: (1) generic experience as propounded both by Alessandri et al. (2015) and Uppal et al. (2014), and (2) specific prior work-related experience (Uppal et al., 2014) coupled with organizational tenure (Loveland et al., 2016). In addition, an individual’s orientation towards work is also a key resource in affecting job

performance positively, including positive orientation (Alessandri et al., 2015) and hope (Combs et al., 2010). Dynamic work environments today, have sown the seeds of learning orientation (Aryee & Chu, 2012) enhancing both curiosity (Mussel, 2013) and adaptability (Sony & Mekoth, 2016). Emotional stability is also positively associated with job performance (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2015).

Along with personal resources, job resources are notable predictors of job performance (Kroon et al., 2015). Glaser et al. (2016) indicated the importance of work-related resources in predicting job performance. From the perspective of work attitudes, job commitment (Siders, 2001; Yu et al., 2014) and behavior of organizational citizenship (Ozer, 2011) are important predictors. According to some scholars, e.g., Häusser et al. (2014), the repetitiveness of jobs also acts as a vital resource in aiding job performance. Lin et al. (2014) emphasized on the fitment of a person to a job, while Lorente et al. (2014) opined that job control leads to increased job performance. Other scholars like Lee et al. (2004) have emphasized the “On-the-job embeddedness”, which shares several characteristics with job engagement and has thereby been observed to act as an enhancer of the job performance.

Workplace communication (Zhang & Venkatesh, 2013) and knowledge sharing (Kim & Yun, 2015) also have impacts on job performance. In terms of organizational climates, psychological safety climate, which aids in psychological health and safety in the workplace, has been found to be a facilitator assisting job performance (Idris et al., 2015). Looking at an organization holistically, its ethical climate is a crucial variable; extant literature has validated and established the role of psychological and perceptual evaluation of ethical climate impacting job performance (Briggs et al., 2012; Schwepker, 2013). Organizational support (Randall et al., 2015), i.e., resource availability, training, and psychological empowerment (D’Innocenzo et al., 2016; Frayne & Geringer, 2000; Latham & Kinne, 1974; Maynard et al., 2014; Ölçer, 2015), is also known to enhance job performance. Organizational justice through process fairness perception also impacts job performance (Collins et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015). Organizational rewards including compensation (Dustin & Belasen, 2013), pay for performance (Maltarich et al., 2017), and rewards in terms of profit sharing and/or bonus dictate employees’ performance (Tilcsik, 2014), thereby aiding in job performance enhancement (Han et al., 2015; Nyberg, 2010).

2.2 Review of Previous Studies regarding the Impact of Work Design on the Job Performance

There are various pieces of evidence for the relationship between work design and employee performance. Aroosiya & Ali (2014) found empirical evidence to support the hypothesis of perceived systematic uses of work design on employees' performance. It is significantly and positively related to each other. This finding empirically confirms the theoretical arguments of Al-Ahmadi (2009), Ivancevich (1998), Kahya (2007), Garg & Rastogi (2006), Aswathappa (2006), Mathis & Jackson (2003), Campion et al. (2005), and Perry et al. (2006); they found that strong and positive relationship exists between the extent of an organization's adoption of high valued management strategies on the work design and employees' performance. The implication of the finding is that an organization should adopt a more systematic design of jobs in order to improve its employees' performance. To enhance the quality of work design, it is essential to work on 5 dimensions, i.e., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback.

Shantz et al. (2013) examined a potential work-design–performance relationship mediator, viz. employees' engagement. Sawang (2012) found the possibility of an inverted U-shaped relationship between job demands and performance, and whether social support moderates this relationship. However, Ali & Zia-ur-Rehman (2014) measured the effect of work design on employees' performance with the mediation effect of job satisfaction; they found that work design has a sufficient role in employees' satisfaction and performance. They added that local organizations must adapt to the host countries' cultural patterns. Similarly, multinational organizations operating in any country must also modify their organizational norms and processes. Peoples prefer jobs with significance and autonomy, which is self-determination in accomplishing tasks.

Al-Ahmadi (2009) investigated the impact of work design on employees' performance in the school of Kalmunai Zone in Sri Lanka. He also tried to find out the factors of work design that highly influenced employees' performance in the studied organization. He indicated that the nature and design of the job itself were positively correlated with performance, which indicates that satisfaction with the amount of variety and challenge in one's job actually influences his/her performance. The sense of job significance, feeling important in eyes of others, realizing one's competence, and freedom to make decisions are positively related to performance. Moreover, work must possess some inherent purposes or provide values to its incumbent; a salary or reward, a feeling of achievement or prestige, or perhaps something more meaningful.

According to Garg & Rastogi (2006), well-designed jobs can positively impact both employees' satisfaction and quality of performance. The perceived work demands, job control, and social support through work design led to high productivity. In contrast, Campion et al. (2005) suggested that the nature of work substantially impacts an employee's performance and attitude. These findings proved that there is a strong relationship between work design and employees' performance.

Aswathappa (2006) tried to identify how a work design affects employees' performance and how motivation helps influence the employees to perform tasks actively, proving whether the work design maximizes performance. He concluded that employees are important assets of any organization, so the organization should ensure that its employees are satisfied with their roles. Moreover, any work design should be aligned with the employees' capabilities or desires. The work design according to one's choice brings employee involvement and satisfaction. It is the foremost responsibility of an organization to understand the significance of the work design as any improved work design leads to employees' satisfaction and results in better performance.

Bhuiyan et al. (2003) found in their study that any properly designed job is not only helpful for increasing the motivation of the employees in the job, rather it is inevitable to execute the employees towards the expected performance and best satisfaction. They also experienced that, executives of the insurance sector in Bangladesh are motivated in their job in terms of task variety, job identity, clearly defined authority and responsibility, accountability, information processing, internal coordination, and job security. Meanwhile, they are demotivated and dissatisfied with most of the work design factors. These are job autonomy, participation in related decisions, recognition, and acknowledgment of the job, opportunities for promotion and training, the status of payment, non-financial incentives, feedback of the job, and environment for achievement feeling as well.

2.3 Reviews of the Relationships between Different Independent Variables and Job Performance

The available literature regarding the relationships between different independent variables and job performance is presented in the following sub-sections.

2.3.1 Age and job performance

Out of the 12 studies reviewed by the researcher, eight had significant positive relationships, three exerted significant negative relationships while only one showed no significant relationship between age and job performance. The summary of the reviews is given in the Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between age and job performance

Author and Publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Bose et al. (2014)	Age	Job performance of SAAOs	**		
Ahmed (2011)	Age	SAAOs' job performance	**		
Raihan (2011)	Age	Job performance of SAAOs	*		
Okereke & Onu (2007)	Age	Job performance of field extension workers		**	
Salim (2006)	Age	Job performance of SAAOs	*		
Azad (2000)	Age	Job performance of female SAAOs			√
Saks & Waldman (1998)	Age	Job performance of professionals		√	
Islam (1997)	Age	Job performance of Block Supervisors	*		
Karim (1990)	Age	Job performance of SMOs	*		
Rahman (1990)	Age	Job performance of Block Supervisors		*	
McEvoy & Cascio (1989)	Age	Job performance of employees	√		
Islam (1981)	Age	Job performance and job satisfaction of Barangay Council's officials of Laguna Province, Philippines	*		

*Significant at the 0.05 level, **Significant at the 0.01 level, NS: Not Significant.

2.3.2 Additional education and job performance

Out of the 12 studies reviewed by the researcher, seven had significant positive relations, one gave a significant negative, and the rest four showed no significant relationship between additional education and job performance. The summary of the reviews is given in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between additional education and job performance

Author and Publication year	Selected variable	Focus issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Kasika (2022)	Educational qualification	Job performance of employees, Social Security Commission, Namibia	√		
OO & VA (2019)	Education	Field Extension Workers' job performance	**		
Bose et al. (2014)	Level of education	Performance of SAAOs			√
Raihan (2011)	Academic achievement	Job performance of SAAOs			√
Okereke & Onu (2007)	Level of education	Job performance of field extension workers		√	
Salim (2006)	Level of education	Job performance of SAAOs			√
Azad (2000)	Academic achievement	Job performance of female SAAOs	**		
Truxillo et al. (1998)	College Education	Job performance of Police			√
Islam (1997)	Academic achievement	Job performance of Block Supervisors	*		
Smith & Aamodt (1997)	Level of education	Job performance of Police	**		
Karim (1990)	Academic achievement	Job performance of SMOs	*		
Rahman (1990)	General education	Job performance of Block Supervisors	*		

* Significant at the 0.05 level, ** Significant at the 0.01 level, NS: Not Significant.

2.3.3 Family size and job performance

Out of the three studies reviewed by the researcher, one showed significant positivity, one had significant negative and the last one gave no significant relationship between family size and job performance. The summary of the reviews is given in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between family size and job performance

Author and publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Bose et al. (2014)	Family size	Performance of SAAOs		*	
Ahmed (2011)	Family size	SAAOs' job performance			√
Okereke & Onu (2007)	Family size	Job performance of field extension workers	*		

* Significant at the 0.05 level, NS: Not Significant.

2.3.4 Annual family income and job performance

Four of the five studies reviewed by the researcher showed a significant positive relationship but only one had no significant relationship between annual family income and job performance. The summary of the reviews is given in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between annual family income and job performance

Author and publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Nguyen et al. (2015)	Earning	Employees' performance in state and other sectors	√		
Park & Sturman (2012)	Pay level	Effectiveness of merit pay bonuses and long-term incentives on future job performance	√		
Ahmed (2011)	Family income	SAAO's job performance	**		
Gardner et al. (2004)	Pay level	Organization-based self-esteem and performance			√
Islam (1981)	Family income	Job performance and job satisfaction, Barangay Council officials, Laguna Province, Philippines	*		

* Significant at the 0.05 level, ** Significant at the 0.01 level, NS: Not Significant.

2.3.5 Service tenure and job performance

Out of the eight studies reviewed by the researcher, five exhibited a significant positive relationship, two showed a significant negative relationship but only one had no significant relationship between service tenure and job performance. The summary of the reviews is given in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between service tenure and job performance

Author and publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
OO & VA (2019)	Work experience	Field extension workers' job performance	*		
Bose et al. (2014)	Service length	Performance of SAAOs	*		
Ahmed (2011)	Length of service	SAAOs' job performance			√
Raihan (2011)	Service length	Job performance of SAAOs	*		
Okereke & Onu (2007)	Work experience	Job performance of field extension workers		√	
Salim (2006)	Service length	Job performance of SAAOs	*		
Karim (1990)	Service length	Job performance of SMOs	*		
Rahman (1990)	Service experience	Job performance of Block Supervisors		*	

* Significant at the 0.05 level, NS: Not Significant.

2.3.6 Job facilities and job performance

Out of the seven studies reviewed by the researcher, six showed a significant positive relationship but only one had no significant relationship between job facilities and job performance. The summary of the reviews is given in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between job facilities and job performance

Author and publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Afifah et al. (2022)	Work facilities	Employees' performance	**		
Wahet et al. (2020)	Work facilities	Employees' performance at the DPRD secretariat Bondowoso Regency	**		
Pratiwi et al. (2019)	Work facilities	Employees' Performance at the Regional Financial Management Agency	*		
Bose et al. (2014)	Job facilities	Performance of SAAOs	*		
Raihan (2011)	Job facilities	Job performance of SAAOs	**		
Salim (2006)	Job facilities	Job performance of SAAOs			√
Rahman (1990)	Working facilities	Job performance of Block Supervisors	**		

* Significant at the 0.05 level, ** Significant at the 0.01 level, NS: Not Significant.

2.3.7 Professional training need and job performance

Out of the four studies reviewed by the researcher, three had a significant negative relationship but only one showed no significant relationship between professional training needs and job performance. The summary of the reviews is given in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between professional training need and job performance

Author and publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Bose et al. (2014)	Training need	Performance of SAAOs			√
Chahardoli et al. (2014)	Training need	Effects of perceived job characteristics and job satisfaction and performance		√	
Amin et al. (2013)	Training need	Job performance in education sector		√	
Niazi (2011)	Training need	Training and development strategy and its role in performance		√	

NS: Not Significant.

2.3.8 Managerial orientation and job performance

The researcher reviewed the four studies, and all showed a significant positive relationship between managerial orientation and job performance. The summary of the reviews is given in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between managerial orientation and job performance

Author and publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Mori (2015)	Managerial orientation	Performance of youth-owned enterprises	*		
Sahin et al. (2015)	Managerial resourcefulness	Job performance of managers	√		
Vera & Huckle (2009)	Managerial orientation	Job performance of physicians	√		
Parker (2007)	Managerial orientation	Job performance of employees	*		

* Significant at the 0.05 level, NS: Not Significant.

2.3.9 Psychological strain and job performance

Out of the eight studies reviewed by the researcher, six showed a significant negative relationship but only one had no significant relationship between psychological strain and job performance. The summary of the reviews is presented in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between psychological strain and job performance

Author and Publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Abbas & Nasir (2021)	Psychological strain	Effect of job stress (job, role management) work overload, work family conflict, job embeddedness and job satisfaction on job performance		√	
Soomro (2020)	Psychological strain	Effect of workplace politics on employees' job performance		√	
Darvishmotevali et al. (2017)	Psychological strain	Effect of job insecurity on frontline employees' performance		√	
Ahmad et al. (2016)	Psychological stress	Effect of psychological stress resulting from organizational politics on job performance		√	
Rizwan et al. (2014)	Psychological stress	Antecedents of job stress and its impact on job performance			√
Singh et al. (1994)	Psychological strain	Effect of psychological consequences on work performance of customer service representatives		√	
Fletcher (1988)	Psychological stress	Causes, coping mechanism and consequences of stress at work		√	
Jamal (1984)	Psychological stress	Impact of job stress on job performance		√	

NS: Not Significant.

2.3.10 Affective commitment and job performance

The researcher reviewed seven studies, all with significant positive relationships between affective commitment and job performance. The summary of the reviews is given in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between affective commitment and job performance

Author and publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Sharma & Dhar (2016)	Affective commitment	Affective commitment of nursing staff and its subsequent impact on their job performance.	√		
Tolentino (2013)	Affective commitment	Organizational commitment and job performance of the academic and administrative personnel	**		
Jamal (2011)	Affective commitment	Impact of organizational commitment on job performance in a multinational company	√		
Lee et al. (2010)	Affective commitment	Organizational commitment in relation to employees' job attitudes and performance in a hospital.	√		
Meyer & Allen (2007)	Affective commitment	Organizational commitment and its effect on job performance	√		
Jaramillo et al. (2005)	Affective commitment	Organizational commitment and salespersons' job performance	√		
Meyer et al. (1989)	Affective commitment	Affective commitment of first-level managers in a large food service company and their performance	√		

** Significant at the 0.01 level, NS: Not Significant.

2.3.11 Self-efficacy and job performance

The researcher reviewed seven studies, all showing significant positive relationships between self-efficacy and job performance. The summary of the reviews is set in Table 2.11.

Table 2.11 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between self-efficacy and job performance

Author and publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Hur et al. (2021)	Self-efficacy	Effect of self-efficacy on job performance through creativity	√		
Fattah (2017)	Self-efficacy	Effect of self-efficacy on job performance of employees	√		
Lai & Chen (2012)	Self-efficacy	Effect of self-efficacy on job performance of salespersons	√		
Karatepe et al. (2007)	Self-efficacy	Effect of self-efficacy on job performance, job satisfaction, and affective organizational commitment	√		
Potosky & Ramakrishna (2002)	Self-efficacy	Effect of goal orientation, self-efficacy, and job performance	√		
Wang & Netemever (2002)	Self-efficacy	Effect of self-efficacy on job performance of salespersons	√		
McDonald & Siegall (1992)	Self-efficacy	Effects of technological self-efficacy on the job performance of telecommunications field service technicians	√		

NS: Not Significant.

2.3.12 Job satisfaction and job performance

Out of the eleven studies reviewed by the researcher, eight had significant positive relationships but only three showed no significant relationships between job satisfaction and job performance. The summary of the reviews is cited in Table 2.12.

Table 2.12 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance

Author and publication year	Selected variable	Focused issue	Relationship		
			+ ve	-ve	NS
Gul et al. (2018)	Job satisfaction	Effect of power distance moderating the relation between person environment fit and job satisfaction leading to job performance	√		
Sugiarto (2018)	Job satisfaction	Impact of organizational climate, organizational commitment, job satisfaction on employee performance.	**		
Adigun et al. (2017)	Job satisfaction	Influence of job Satisfaction on employees' performance	√		
Fattah (2017)	Job satisfaction	Effect of job satisfaction on job performance of employees	√		
Siengthai & Pila-Ngarm (2016)	Job satisfaction	The interaction effect of job redesign and job satisfaction on employee performance	√		
Bose et al. (2014)	Job satisfaction	Performance of Sub-Assistant Agricultural Officer	**		
Ahmed (2011)	Job satisfaction	Sub Assistant Agricultural Officer's job performance	**		
Raihan (2011)	Job satisfaction	Job performance of Sub Assistant Agricultural Officers	**		
Salim (2006)	Job satisfaction	Job performance of Sub Assistant Agricultural Officers			√
Rahman (1990)	Job satisfaction	Job performance of Block Supervisors			√
Islam (1981)	Job satisfaction	Job performance and job satisfaction of the Barangay council officials of Laguna Province, Philippines.			√

** Significant at the 0.01 level, NS: Not Significant.

2.3.13 Work design and job performance

The researchers reviewed the relationships between the overall work design as well as the dimension-wise work design (job demand, job control, perceived organizational support, and perceived colleagues' support) and job performance. The summary of the reviews is given in Table 2.13.

Table 2.13 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between work design and job performance

Author and publication year	Focused issue	Relationship		
		+ ve	-ve	NS
Selected variable: Work design				
Chiekezie et al. (2015)	Employee performance in selected manufacturing companies of Nigeria	√		
Ali & Zia-ur-Rehman (2014)	Impact of job design on employee performance	√		
Aroosiya & Ali (2014)	Impact of job design on employees’ performance	**		
Chahardoli et al. (2014)	Impact of perceived job characteristics and job satisfaction on performance among bank employees	*		
Shantz et al. (2013)	The role of job design on task performance	√		
Al-Ahmadi (2009)	Factors affecting performance of hospital nurses	√		
Aswathappa (2006)	Effect of work design on employees’ performance	√		
Perry et al. (2006)	Effect of job design on performance paradigm	√		
Campion et al. (2005)	Impact of job design on job performance	√		
Garg & Rastogi (2005)	Job design motivating employee’s performance	√		
Bhuiyan et al. (2003)	Impact of job design and motivation on employee performance in insurance sector	√		
Selected variable: Job Demand				
Nagami et al. (2010)	Impact of job demand on employee job performance			√
Selected variable: Job Control				
Du et al. (2018)	Job strains, job control, and POS on employee performance	√		
Nagami et al. (2010)	Impact of job control on employee job performance	**		

Table 2.13 Summary of the reviews regarding the relationship between work design and job performance (continued)

Author and publication year	Focused issue	Relationship		
		+ ve	-ve	NS
Selected variable: Perceived Organizational Support				
Karaalioğlu & Karabulut (2019)	Impact of perceived organizational support on job performance	*		
Du et al. (2018)	Job strains, job control, and perceived organizational support on employee performance	√		
Kurtessis et al. (2017)	Impact of organizational support on work performance	√		
Afzali et al. (2014)	Influence of perceived organizational support on job performance	√		
Arshadi, N & Hayavi (2013)	Effect of perceived organizational support on affective commitment and job performance	√		
Deconinck (2010)	Effect of organizational justice, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support on employee performance	√		
Riggle et al. (2009)	Impact of perceived organizational support on job outcomes	√		
Bai (1996)	Impact of perceived organizational support on job performance	√		
Selected variable: Perceived Colleagues' Support				
Pelin & Osoian (2021)	Co-workers support on job performance			√
Aydin & Tüzün (2019)	Organizational support sources and job performance relations	√		
Talebzadeh & Karatepe (2019)	Work social support, work engagement and their impacts on multiple performance outcomes			√
Tran et al. (2018)	Impacts of the high-quality workplace relationships on job performance			√
Amarneh et al. (2010)	Impact of co-workers' support on job performance among nurses	√		
Nagami et al. (2010)	Impact of coworker support on employee job performance	***		
Chiaburu & Harrison (2008)	Coworker effects on perceptions, attitudes, OCBs, and performance	√		
Park et al. (2004)	Effects of social support at work on depression and organizational productivity	√		

* Significant at the 0.05 level, ** Significant at the 0.01 level, *** Significant at the 0.001 level, NS: Not Significant.

2.4 Conceptual Framework of the Study

The study aims to investigate the effect of work design on the job performance of the SAAOs. With this target, some variables relating to the objectives were selected and differentiated as dependent and independent variables. The job performance of SAAOs serves as the dependent variable of the study. Job performance was measured in terms of SAAOs' efficiency in several phenomena i.e., punctuality and determination, cognitive and analytical competence in problem identification and solving, efficiency in using different materials and methods, ability to provide different support and services, etc.

The independent variables consist of several personality traits and demographics i.e., age, additional education, family size, annual family income, and service tenure. Moreover, variables related to the job atmosphere i.e., job facilities, need for professional training, managerial orientation, psychological strain, affective commitment, self-efficacy, and job satisfaction were also considered independent variables.

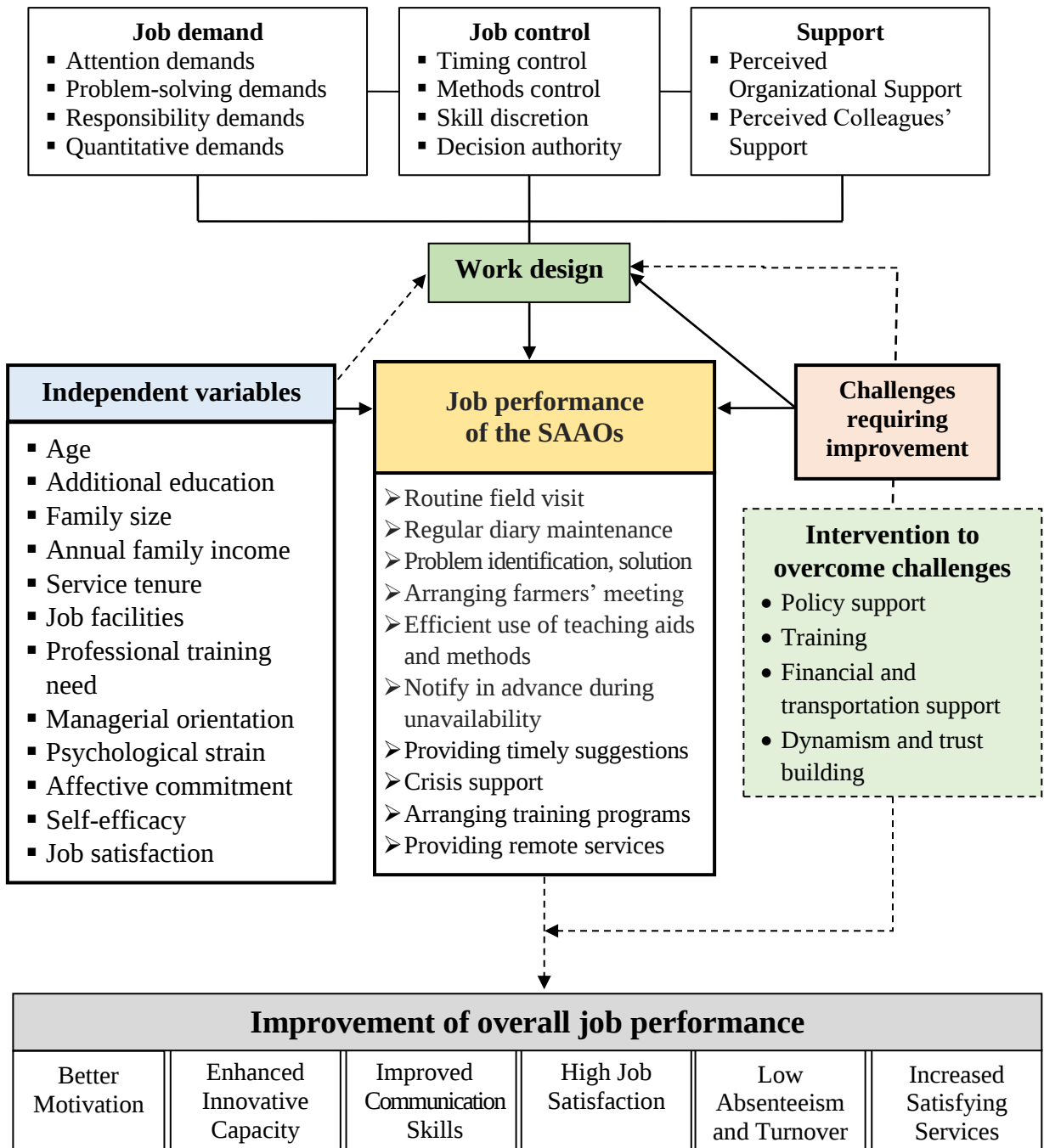
As the work design served as the major component in this research, it has been given the utmost priority. Four dimensions of the work design, i.e., job demand, job control, perceived organizational support, and perceived colleagues' support, were formulated to assess the present condition of the existing work design and its impact on the performance of the SAAOs. In the present study, job demands reflect the amount of work required from the employee, such as the extent to which he or she has to work under time pressure. Job demands were further categorized into four sections: attention demands, problem-solving demands, responsibility demands, and quantitative demands. Moreover, job control consists of four constructs: timing control, methods control, skill discretion, and decision authority.

Social supports are likely to impact various work outcomes, e.g., employees' well-being, particularly for stressful jobs or lack many motivational work characteristics (Morgeson and Humphrey, 2008). It is expected that social support has both the main effect on psychological strain and a moderating effect on the relationship between job demands and psychological strains. Thus, perceived organizational support and perceived colleagues' support are considered as the mediating dimensions of the work design in this study. It is expected that the whole work design phenomenon is deemed to have direct and/or indirect relation with not only the dependent variable of this study but also the personal and professional traits (independent variables) of the SAAOs (as indicated by the broken arrow in Figure 2.7).

In order to thrive the optimum performance from the SAAOs in their jobs, certain challenges exist in terms of their work design and performance, which awaits identification and overcoming, and are also considered in this study. Certain interventions are expected to be taken in order to overcome these challenges. Formulation and provision of policy support, training on comprehensive issues, financial and transportation support, dynamism, and trust building can go a long way in tackling these particular obstacles.

Finally, this research focused upon the possible outcomes with the SAAOs having their motivation aroused and increased, enhanced innovative and problem-solving capacity, improvised communication skills which will assist them in communicating with farmers as well as other extension personnel, lowered absenteeism and turnover, enhancement of their satisfaction in their respective jobs and finally providing satisfying services to their ultimate consumers, i.e., the farmers. All of these together are expected to have implications in amplifying the SAAOs' overall job performance.

In the represented framework, the solid one-way arrows denote a direct cause-effect relationship which has been investigated in the study. In contrast, the broken arrows stand for the facts that have not been investigated but are related to this present research. For a clearer understanding of the issue, the conceptual framework of the present research work has been presented in Figure 2.7.



Note:

—→ Considered in the Study

----→ Not considered in the Study

Figure 2.7. Conceptual Framework of the Study