

**SELF MONITORING, JOB CRAFTING AND CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE
AMONG CUSTOMER SERVICE PERSONNEL**

**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON IN
PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MPhil**

PSYCHOLOGY DEGREE

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DECLARATION

I, Linda Mantebea Akoto, author of this thesis do hereby declare that, this work has never been submitted in whole or part for the award of any degree or diploma in this university or elsewhere. To the best of my knowledge, this thesis contains no previously published or written materials by another apart from the references and quotations from articles and books that have been duly acknowledged, the entire book herein presented is a presentation of my objective research, conducted under the supervision of Dr. Benjamin Amponsah and Dr. Kingsley Nyarko, both of the Psychology Department of the University of Ghana, during the 2014/2015 academic year.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my parents, Mr. Daniel B. Akoto and Ms. Joana Obuobisah, my husband Mr. Ebenezer Nii Amoo Bonney, my mother in-law Theresah Dafliso and my children Benita Naa Dzormoh Bonney and Daniel Nii Akwa Bonney.



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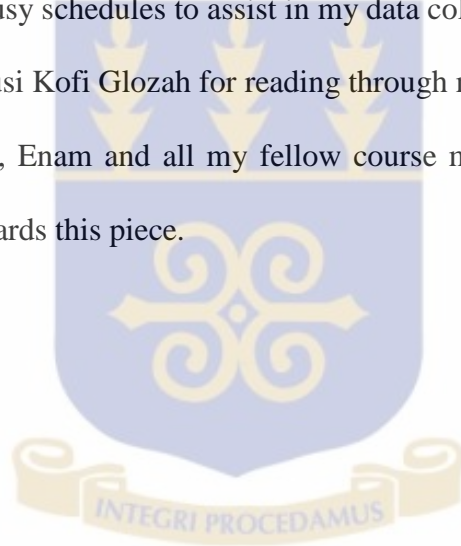
I am most grateful to God Almighty for His grace and mercies which has seen me through this project.

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ABSTRACT

Customer service delivery has become relevant in modern organizations due to global competition requiring a need for employees to be sensitive to the needs of clients. It is therefore necessary that psychological factors which influence customer services are investigated. This study aimed at exploring the relationships among self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance among customer service employees. Data for the study was collected from 254 customer service personnel, working in the service sector (utility, telecommunications and financial institutions) in Ghana. Respondents were made to answer questionnaires on self monitoring, job crafting, contextual performance and demographics. Five main hypotheses were tested using the independent t-test, correlation and regression analysis. The results indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between self monitoring and job crafting. Job crafting was also positively related to contextual performance. High self monitors performed better in contextual behavior than low self monitors. Further, job crafting mediated the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. The moderation effect of educational level, age and sex however was not supported by the data. The practical implications of the findings and recommendations for future research in the area of self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance are discussed.

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ABBREVIATIONS

SM: Self Monitoring

JC : Job Crafting

CP : Contextual Performance

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In recent years, one feature adopted by many organizations to survive competition is outwardly directed missions or quality customer service with emphasis on sensitivity on behalf of the customer (Gregory, 2000; Hales, 2005; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). In view of this, most organizations in Ghana are endeavoring to emphasize quality customer services in order to remain in the market (Yeboah & Ewur, 2014) by training their staff. Despite efforts made in enhancing customer services, observation and research in customer services in Ghana indicates that most customers do lodge complaints against service personnel regarding their attitudes and unwillingness to solve customer problems (e.g., Nimako, Azumah, Donkor, Adu-Brobbey, 2010; Ocloo & Dzisah, 2013; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). These behaviours as assessed by customers can be defined in terms of contextual behaviours or performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Contextual performance is necessary for the survival of organizations in this age of competition (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Dalal, 2007) since it defines the kind of behaviours customers expect employees to exhibit.

Customer service is anything done for the customer in order to enhance his/her experiences (Harris, 2000). The business dictionary defines a customer as a person or entity that receives or consumes goods or services and is able to choose between different products and suppliers. A statement issued in Accra, during a campaign for excellent customer service delivery in Ghana by the Organization for Customer Service Excellence (2013), indicated that nine (9) out of every ten (10) persons interviewed at random were frustrated on the state of customer service delivery in Ghana. Customers often judge the performance of service personnel by how they are treated. To most

customers, the kind of attitude and help they receive from personnel defines good or poor performance. For instance, according to Ocloo and Dzisah (2013), most customer complaints of poor performance bothered on discourtesy, hostility or unfriendliness by staff, unwillingness to help or go the extra mile to help and lack of cooperation. These behaviours can best be described in terms of contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Contextual behaviours / performance are relevant in assessing the performance of service personnel because most customers lookout for these behaviours in any organization they engage with (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). According to Haung and Ryan (2011), customer service jobs are contextual boundary jobs due to the fact that acceptability is governed by relevant social norms.

Contextual performance is one of two dimensions of overall job performance along task performance. It is behaviour which supports the organizational, social and psychological context of the work. They include behaviours such as helping, cooperating and demonstration of commitment or dedication towards others (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Contextual behaviours are normally not written in the formal job description unlike task performance which has to do with the transformation of raw materials into finished products and therefore form the core of the job specified in the job description. As such, contextual behaviours are voluntary and employees may not be rewarded or punished for these behaviours at their workplace (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996).

Contextual behaviours or performance are best explained by personality while task performances are explained by ability and experience (Bizzi & Soda, 2011; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Contextual performance is best defined by personality as against cognitive ability (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Yet studies have only found moderate relationships between contextual performance and personality (Day & Schleicher, 2006).

Customer service jobs require that the personnel have good attitudes towards customers (Harris, 2000). According to Furnham (2005), a person's attitude can be predicted by their personality characteristics. Personality study is therefore instrumental in understanding the nature of work related behaviours and performance (Burch & Anderson, 2008). Most studies on personality in organizational psychology however, have been limited to the Five Factor model (FFM) or 'big five' personality traits and given little or no attention to other personality constructs despite the fact that the FFM has received criticisms in the literature for low validities, poor choice in personality measurement and poor understanding of the link between personality and jobs (Burch & Anderson, 2008). Considering these problems associated with personality studies at work, a recent construct which has received attention is the self monitoring personality construct (Leone, 2006). Research has shown that self monitoring is valid in predicting work related outcomes such as performance (Day, Schleicher, Unckles, Perrin & Hiller, 2002).

Self monitoring according to Snyder (1987, p .4) refers to the degree to which individuals "monitor (observe, regulate, and control) the public appearance of self they display in social settings and in creating and managing their interpersonal relationships". High self monitors (social chameleons) consciously adjust their behavior to suit what the situation demands in order to enhance their status and maximize their self interest. Low self monitors on the other hand, behave in ways which are consistent with their own beliefs, attitudes and dispositions disregarding any situational demands (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000).

Self monitoring is important in understanding how and why relationships at work are formed and maintained (Day & Schleicher, 2006) because it has to do with individual differences in the ability to behave in social situations. Research suggests that the construct has become popular in

organizational settings due to its focus on interpersonal relationships (Day et al., 2002). Further, it is concerned with individuals managing their impressions in order to gain favour from others. In the study among customer service personnel therefore, self monitoring is the best personality construct to apply since studies have revealed that customer service involves the ability to manage impressions to suit customer's expectations (Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). Research has also shown that self monitoring can best be applied in boundary spanning jobs (Mehra & Schenkel, 2008) such as customer service jobs.

High self monitors are more interpersonally oriented and so are able to solve social conflicts, appear friendly and are collaborative (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). According to Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996), such interpersonal behaviours maintain the social context of the organization and hence an aspect of contextual performance. High self monitors are also associated with engaging in certain behaviours in order to make good impressions about themselves such as, helping others and obeying rules and regulations (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). These behaviours benefit the entire organization by supporting the organizational context in which jobs are performed (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Again, high self monitors have the ability to read social cues and behave as expected in any social situation. This enables them to recognize how to support and maintain the social context of the job (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) and consequently influences their contextual performance. The exhibition of behaviours such as friendliness, abiding by rules and regulations as well as identification of important social demands by high self monitors influences their contextual behaviours (Bizzi & Soda, 2011).

Age, sex and the educational level of employees have been found to moderate the relationship between certain job attitudes and job performance (e.g., Met & Ali, 2014; Nasir, Mohammedi, Shahrazad & Halim, 2001; Shirom, Gilboa, Yitzhak & Cooper, 2008). Day et al. (2002) revealed

that relatively, males have higher average scores on self monitoring than females. Their study additionally found that younger individuals scored high on the self monitoring scale and also that high self monitoring was positively associated with intellectual ability (or higher education). Therefore, the study suggests that there is age, sex (gender) and educational level differences in self monitoring such that males, younger individuals and individual with high intellectual ability are relatively higher on self monitoring compared to their counterparts. Similar to previous findings, these demographic characteristics may also moderate the personality (self monitoring) – contextual performance relationship though research on their effect on the relationship is limited.

Apart from putting up a good front and cooperating with customers, another way to please customers is the ability to solve customer problems. However, most personnel perceive this as unpleasant due to structural challenges (Harris, 2000; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). According to Bakker, Tims and Derks (2012), managers may not be readily available to provide the needed solutions (feedback) to both staff and customers. As such, there is the need for service personnel to initiate or find appropriate means of addressing certain issues in order that they may facilitate their work performance (Bakker et al., 2012). Recent studies have shown that employees can themselves shape the tasks, relational and cognitive boundaries of their jobs in ways that foster job satisfaction and engagement which ultimately impacts their performances. The changes made by the employee are not necessarily seen by supervisors, neither should they be in line with the goals of the organization and may not have a longer time focus or be rewarded (Berg, Dutton & Wrzesniewski, 2007; Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli & Hetland, 2012). This self-initiated job design has been termed as job crafting. By definition, job crafting is a self-initiated change behaviour that employees engage in with the aim to align their jobs with their own preferences, motives and passions (Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2012). Thus, even though there may be certain

structures which hinder how work should be carried out, employees can by their own means shape their jobs so they can work as they should.

There are three forms of job crafting; relational crafting, cognitive crafting and task crafting (Tims et al., 2012). Relational crafting involves changing or shaping relational boundaries at work such as deciding on who to interact with and the frequency of interacting with others. Cognitive crafting has to do with how individuals ascribe meaning and significance of their jobs in their mind. Task crafting involves changing or shaping the task boundaries or conditions of the job like shaping how work should be carried out. Certain job crafting behaviors can best be defined as contextual behaviours for example forming relationships with clients and doing extra work to move task ahead (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Job crafting according to Berg and Wrzesniewski (2010) depends on individual needs, goals etc. implying that there are individual (personality) differences in job crafting. Studies (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012; Bipp & Demerouti, 2014; Lyons 2008; Tims et al., 2012) have reported relationships between job crafting and individual difference variables (personality constructs). Since self monitoring which is a personality construct involves impression management and winning others approval, it may also be positively related to job crafting. Additionally, Van Scotter (2000) conceptualized contextual performance as organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Both self monitoring and job crafting are positively related to OCB (Vilela, Gonzalez & Ferrin, 2009; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). This implies that there may be a positive relationship between self monitoring and job crafting. Research suggests that employees' self monitoring behavior and job crafting abilities are important to customers (Yeboah & Ewur, 2014).

Job Crafting as a Mediator of the Self Monitoring –Contextual Performance Relationship

Job crafting behaviours such as taking on extra task responsibilities and associating with people at work to know them better (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013) can be described in terms of contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). High Self monitors have been found to better engage in these job crafting behaviours (taking on extra task responsibilities and associating with people at work to know them better) and hence perform better in contextual behaviours (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). Therefore, if high self monitors engage in job crafting and also perform contextually better, then the reason why high self monitors perform better in contextual behaviours may be because they engage in job crafting. Caliguiri and Day (2000) as well as Bizzi and Soda (2011) established a positive relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance and suggested that the mechanism or process through which high self monitors engage in contextual behaviours should be investigated. Job crafting can be a possible process by which high self monitors contextually perform better.

Furthur, the job crafting model, suggests that job crafting activities mediates the relationship between motivations to craft the job and outcomes of job crafting such as job performance and feeling of wellbeing (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). If personality serves as a substitute for motivations (Blickle, Muers, Zettler, Solga, Noethen, Kramar & Ferris, 2008), then the model suggests that, job crafting may mediate the relationship between personality and performance. There is however, a direct relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance (Bizzi & Soda, 2011; Caliguiri & Day, 2000) and therefore the third variable (job crafting) can only partially transfer effect of self monitoring on contextual performance (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). Therefore, job crafting may mediate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance partially.

This study will investigate the extent to which factors such as personality (self monitoring) and other related psychological factors such as job crafting could predict the contextual performance of customer service personnel so that the necessary steps are taken to ensure that these factors are encouraged at the work place. The relationships among the three variables would be explored by using the Self Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000), and the theory of individual difference in job performance (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmit, 1997).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

An industry report of the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) indicated that, U.S. institutions alone spend more than \$126 billion annually on employee training and development (Paradise, 2007). Yet, studies have shown that only 10% of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes acquired during training are applied on the job (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). The case is similar to what pertains in Ghana where several studies have shown that even though most companies train especially their customer service staff, there are still complaints of poor services from customers (Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). This implies that in addition to training, there are other factors which might influence the performance of staff. These factors may include the personality of the personnel. Customers define performance of service personnel by their contextual performance which is personality defined (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). As such, it is important to place personnel with personality which allows them exhibit contextual behaviours at customer service positions. This is because though service personnel may be trained, their inner dispositions takes over their behaviour few days after training (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmidt, 1997; O'Farrell & Nordstrom, 2013). If the right personnel are not placed at such

customer service positions, there is bound to be unsatisfactory services which can probably lead to losses as has been experienced by some industries in Ghana (Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). If placement into customer service positions are based on personality characteristics like high self monitoring, customer reports of dissatisfaction may be curtailed in the service industry. High self monitors are associated with better performance and leadership etc. (Day & Schleicher, 2006).

Job crafting abilities enable individuals adapt to their work characteristics and consequently perform better (Dutton & Wrzesniewski, 2001). The ability to solve customer problems depends on the individual's ability to job craft (Bakker et al., 2012). Studies by Ocloo and Dzisah (2013) among some Ghanaian customers confirmed that 25% of customers deem ability to solve problems (or ability to craft the job) as customer service hence contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). As such, job crafting also defines service personnel's contextual performance (Ocloo & Dzisah, 2013). Therefore, if job crafting behaviours are encouraged among customer service personnel their contextual performance will improve and affect the overall performance of the organization. However, if job crafting is not encouraged customers will be dissatisfied with services provided by the organization and hence look out for other organization to engage with.

Additionally, there are individual differences in job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). This implies that placing individuals with less ability to job craft at customer service positions will result in unsatisfactory customer service performance or contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). This can result in financial losses as the organization can lose its customers to competitors and consequently cause the organization to be out of business (Ocloo & Dzisah, 2013). However, individuals with the ability to job craft can perform better in contextual behaviours and hence boost the overall performance of the organization if they are placed at customer service positions.

Demographic characteristics such as age, level of education and the sex of an individual has been found to have a positive relationship with job performance as well as serve as moderators in job attitudes and job performance relationships (e.g., Feldman & Ng, 2009; Shirom, Gilboa, Yitzhak & Cooper, 2008) yet research on contextual performance is limited on the influence of such variables on contextual performance. The moderating roles of these demographic characteristics are important in placement decisions as studies show that they do influence performance in diverse ways (Feldman & Ng, 2009).

1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The aim of this research is to examine the relationship between certain psychological factors - self monitoring, job crafting and the contextual performance among customer service personnel in some service industries in Ghana.

The specific objectives are;

1. To find out if there is a difference in contextual performance of high self monitored and low self monitored customer service personnel.
2. To examine the relationship between job crafting and self monitoring among customer service personnel.
3. To determine the relationship between job crafting and contextual performance among customer service personnel.
4. To examine the moderating role of educational level, sex and age on the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance among customer service personnel.

5. To examine the mediating role of job crafting in the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance among customer service personnel.

1.4 RELEVANCE OF STUDY

The findings from this research will first of all address limitations in previous studies (e.g., Bizzi & Soda, 2011) such as sample size, kind of sample used etc. The research will also inform future research directions depending on the result of the present study and also complement literature on self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance and employee selection.

This study will help improve customer service performance in Ghana by educating employers on the role of personality characteristics and individual differences in personality and performance at the workplace. The knowledge in individual difference will ultimately influence personnel selection and placement decisions at the workplace because selection would be based on individuals whose personality allows them to perform better in customer service jobs.

Managers will be enlightened to consider contextual performance of customer service personnel. Most complaints made by customers have to do with the attitudes of personnel, therefore if contextual performance or behaviours are assessed during the appraisal process, employees will strive to serve customers better and thereby reduce complaints from customers.

The research will help employers understand that different people exhibit different behaviors in different situations. For instance, a high self monitor will cooperate with others so far as the situation demands so but a low self monitor would not unless it is consistent with what he/she believes. Employers' awareness of this important difference in behavior towards others can help

them tolerate and treat each employee differently and specially according to their unique dispositions.

The study will further add to studies on contextual performance. The relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance has been established but literatures on the relationship between the two constructs are limited. This study will add up to literature on the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. The mediating role of job crafting between self monitoring and contextual performance will be explored. This will add to literature by establishing a possible mechanism through which self monitoring predicts contextual behaviours.

Research on job crafting will be added on when the relationship between self monitoring and job crafting are established. This will contribute to literature of ongoing studies on the relationship between personality variables and job crafting by establishing self monitoring as a possible predictor of job crafting. Establishing contextual performance as an outcome of job crafting is also relevant for job crafting research.

Literature on self monitoring will also be enriched when both job crafting and contextual performance are established as possible outcomes of self monitoring. Self monitoring is an important workplace construct (Day et al., 2002) and it is important that its possible outcomes are investigated.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the theories that explain the relationship between the various variables employed in the study. Further, it also reviews various literature and studies that are related and relevant to the present study. It also presents the hypotheses, the hypothesized model of the

relationships between the various variables and ends with operational definitions as used in the study.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The major theories to be used in explaining the relationships between self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance are the self determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), the theory of individual difference in job performance (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmdit, 1997), and socioanalytic theory (Hogan, 1983; Hogan, 1991; Hogan & Shelton, 1998).

2.2.1 Self Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000)

The self determination theory postulates that, inherent in human nature is the propensity to be curious about one's environment and interested in learning and developing one's knowledge (Gagne & Deci, 2005). The theory concerns people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2002). The needs motivate the individual to initiate behaviour and specify resources that are relevant for the psychological growth of the individual.

The needs identified are seeking to control the outcome and experience mastery (Competence), a universal want to interact, be connected to and experience caring from others (Relatedness) and an urge to be causal agent or of one's own life and act in harmony with your integrated self or Autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2014) have established that these three needs as described by the SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) are related to the three motivational needs to job craft as described by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001). According to the researchers engaging in task crafting requires

a sense of control at work which can satisfy the need for autonomy. Secondly, crafting relationships at work will foster employees need for relatedness in the SDT model. Thirdly, cognitive crafting involves employees redefining the meaning of their work in a way which impacts the organization and community and their lives to enhance their self identity. This satisfies the need for competence. Job crafting predicts these three needs of autonomy, relatedness and competence, thus employees engage in job crafting to satisfy their needs as described by the SDT (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2014).

High self monitors are motivated to engage in impression management in order to fulfill their innate needs of competence, relatedness and autonomy. They achieve this by reading and learning about their boundaries at work (Dutton & Wrzesniewski, 2001; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000), act as the work situation demands by crafting their jobs and thus perform contextually better.

The import of the theory is that humans are innately motivated to behave in certain ways which differ from person to person. In the organizational setting, certain behaviours are seen to support the organization and hence contextual behaviours whereas behaviour of others may not enhance effectiveness of the organization. For instance, the inner motivations of high self monitors to make good impressions, makes them more friendly and helpful to customers and thus enhance their contextual performance.

Critique of Self Determination Theory

The cultural relevance of the SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) has been questioned by many cross cultural researchers (e.g., Murphy-Berman & Berman, 2003). According to the critics, collectivists cultures do not value and experience autonomy as individualistic cultures do but rather conformity, social harmony and family interdependence. However, Jang, Reeve, Ryan

and Kim (2009) in a study among Koreans explained that autonomy does not mean independence and that individuals in collectivist cultures do benefit from autonomy.

Secondly, the SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) has been criticized by the behaviorists who believe that careful use of rewards (reinforcements) is the most effective way of motivation (e.g., Carton, 1996). According to the behaviorist in order to encourage or improve a behaviour such as performance, rewards such as money are very important. To better explain their position, Deci, Koestner and Ryan (1999), conducted several experiments which proved that a person's inner motivation and drives are important and that incentives will rather undermine the inner drive.

Despite the cultural and behaviorist criticism of the theory, the theory is still potent in explaining how innate psychological needs drive behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

2.2.2 Theory of Individual Difference in Job Performance (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmit, 1997)

This theory posits that individual differences in personality and cognitive ability together with learning experiences leads to variability in *characteristic adaptation* which mediates effects of personality and cognitive ability on job performance. Characteristic adaptations are specific skills, habits, preferences, attitude and patterns of behaviour which people learn overtime as their basic tendencies interact with the environment. Cognitive ability is presumed to predict task performance and personality variables better predicts contextual performance. According to the theory, there are three intervening variables; characteristics adaptations in skills, knowledge and work habits. These variables are learned through experiences due to the fact that basic tendencies

in ability and personality interact with the environment. One set of adaptations to skills, knowledge and work habit (s.k.w) affects tasks while the other set of adaptations in skills, knowledge and work habits affects contextual performance.

Individual differences in personality enable people whose personality are in line with contextual skills, knowledge and work habit/attitude be more likely to notice that certain patterns of behaviour are more effective in such situations and thus master the adaptive skill, knowledge and work habits / attitudes and exhibit them (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmit, 1997). There are thus personality differences in contextual performance.

The theory of individual difference in job performance therefore suggests that, some individuals are able to act more appropriately under certain circumstances than others. Individual difference in self monitoring will therefore enable some employees be able to observe, read cues about the situation and to identify situations in which it is necessary to put up contextual behaviours. The skills, knowledge and work habits which they adapt to perform these contextual behaviour mediates the relationship between their personality and contextual performance.

2.2.3 Socioanalytic Theory (Hogan, 1983; Hogan, 1991; Hogan & Shelton, 1998).

Socioanalytic theory explains why people act as they do. The theory posits that there are three motives behind peoples' actions or behaviour. One is to get along and cooperate with others and the other is to get ahead and achieve status and power and then to make sense of the environment. However, the motive to get ahead, make sense and to get along differs from one person to the other in strength. This individual differences leads to individual differences in job performance. Thus individuals who want to get along will cooperate, comply and be friendly. Those who want to get ahead will volunteer, take initiative and ensure that their performance is seen (Hogan & Shelton,

1998). Individuals who want to make sense seek to control and be able to predict occurrence in their environment or at the workplace (Hogan & Warrenfeltz, 2003). Blickle, Fohlich, Ehlert, Pirner, Dietl & Hanes (2011), notes that although people have the need to get along, get ahead and make sense there are individual differences in the ability and success of doing it. Thus, according to the socioanalytic theory, individual difference in self monitoring allows high self monitors to be more successful in getting ahead, getting along with others and making sense than low self monitors (Day & Schleicher, 2006). These qualities will definitely enhance their contextual performance at work.

Critique of the Socio analytic theory

A major focus of the socio analytic theory is that people pursue acceptance, status, and meaning and control. They do this by interacting with others, using their social skills and building reputation. Acceptance, status and meaning and control are pursued at the workplace to improve wellbeing of the individual which consequently influences performance (Hogan & Blickle, 2013). The theorists emphasized social skill as important and that individuals with better social skill should be selected over those with task skill in recruitment. This assertion has received criticisms from individuals who claim that individuals can fake behaviour and that selection based on applicants' social skill is invalid. However, according to Johnson and Hogan (2006), people who fake consciously do so to deceive others in their self presentation in order to impress them. Such people have the social skill needed to control situations in their environment which requires impression management (Johnson & Hogan, 2006).

The findings by Johnson and Hogan (2006), makes the socio analytic theory valid in explaining individual differences in behaviour and performance at the workplace. Several other studies have supported the fact that individual differences in personality does influence work behaviour (e.g., Blickle et al., 2011; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994).

2.3 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND STUDIES

2.3.1 Customer Services in Ghana

Past research on customer services suggests that most customer complaints have to with personnel's inability to meet customers' expectations (e.g., Nimako et al., 2010; Ocloo & Dzisah, 2013; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014).

These studies are important since they investigated customer services in Ghana thereby laying a foundation for future research into customer services in Ghana.

However, the studies do not investigate in depth psychological factors which could affect customer service personnel and their performance. It is therefore important that certain psychological factors which may predict performance of personnel be investigated.

The studies were also limited to the telecommunication companies and so finding cannot be generalized to other organizations hence a wider population size as well as the inclusion of other institutions other than the telecommunication companies be also investigated.

2.3.2 Self Monitoring Personality

Personality is generally defined as a set of unique psychological qualities that influence an individual's behavior across different situations over time (Baron, 2004). Personality

characteristics are stable over time and thus make personality studies at work very important. The set of unique characteristics, values and interests influences people's behaviour in many settings including work setting over time. Personality study is therefore necessary in understanding the nature of work related behaviors and performance (Burch & Anderson, 2008). The relationships between work performance and personality however have been modest and some even yielding contradictory and negative results (Day & Schleicher, 2006).

Gellantly and Irving (2009), for instance, showed a negative personality–performance relationship that appears to contradict findings and theory that personality indeed predicted performance. Flaws in the study can be attributed to the fact that personality measures in the study reflected the higher order dimensions of extroversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. In view of the recommendations and limitation in their study, another personality dimension to be considered in relation to performance is self monitoring.

Self monitoring is defined as a personality construct that refers to the ability to regulate behaviour to accommodate social situations. According to Snyder (1987, p. 4), “it the difference in the extent to which people monitor (observe, regulate and control) the public appearance of self they display in social situations and interpersonal relationships”. Self monitoring has been described as an important social skill which can prevent many social missteps, hurt feelings and embarrassment. Those who closely monitor themselves are categorized as high self monitors and often behave in ways which are highly responsive to social cues and situational context. High self monitors are social pragmatist who project images or exhibit certain behaviours in attempt to impress others and receive positive feedback (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). Thus, high self monitors can be said to engage in impression management that will attract compliment and approval from others. Low self monitors on the other hand, do not exhibit the same degree in expressive controls and have

different concerns for situational appropriateness. Low self monitors tend to engage in expressive controls which are rather in line with their own beliefs, attitudes and dispositions regardless of social circumstances. Low self monitors are often less observant of social context and consider expressing a self presentation dissimilar from their internal states as falsehood and undesirable (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). Low self monitors therefore may not engage in impression management as high self monitors do since they seek to please themselves and not others. People who are unwilling to self monitor and adjust their behavior are accordingly, aggressive, uncompromising and insistent with others (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). Day and Schleicher (2006) explained in their narrative that high self monitors use their talent to progress up the ladder of success and achieve status within the organization while low self monitors are good at making sense in the business world (Leone, 2006).

Self monitoring conceptualization and related constructs

The self monitoring construct was originally made up of five concepts. They are concern for appropriateness, attention to social comparison, ability to control/ modify self presentation, use of ability in particular situation and cross situational variability in social behaviour (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Later a factor analyses by Briggs, Cheek and Buss (1980) on self monitoring scale developed by Snyder (1974) revealed that the scale measures acting ability, extraversion and other directedness. The construct was then reconceptualized by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) to be composed of two constructs; sensitivity to expressive behaviour of others and ability to modify self presentation (Leone, 2006).

High self monitors have been described to be more sensitive to others behaviour and so able to sense when others need help and subsequently adjust their behaviour towards helping others (Bizzi

& Soda, 2011). This characteristic is similar to altruism a concept used in conceptualizing organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Studies have indeed confirmed a positive relationship between self monitoring and OCB (e.g., Blakely, Andrews & Fuller, 2003; Vilela et al., 2010)

2.3.3 Job Crafting

Job Crafting is defined as the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task and relational boundaries of their work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Job crafting is a creative and improvised way employees locally adapt to jobs in ways which offer them a meaningful definition of their work and who they are. According to the model it is a psychological, social and physical act in which cues are read about the physical boundaries of the work and are interpreted by motivated crafters (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Motivation to craft a job arises from three individual needs. The first is need for personal control to avoid alienation from work. The second motivation arises from a need to create a positive sense of self in others and in their own eyes. A motive to job craft is therefore to change the task and relations that compose a job to enable a more positive sense of self. The third need is for human connection. Building relationships at work introduces meaning into employees' lives (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), notes that not all employees are motivated to fulfill needs for control, positive image and connection at work. Thus there are individual differences in motivation to fulfill these needs.

The forms of job crafting include changing task boundaries, changing relational boundaries and changing cognitive boundaries. Task crafting or changing task boundaries involves shaping or changing the way in which work is carried out. Relational crafting or changing relational

boundaries involves changing or shaping how often and with whom employees interact with at work. Cognitive crafting or changing cognitive boundaries involves shaping the meaning of work and its significance to the individual, organization and the community at large (Tims & Bakker, 2010). There are evidences that employees may engage in activities which involve one or more forms of job crafting. In one study where cashiers were observed, it was noticed that they often changed features of their job by defining their level and type of customer interactions. In order to maintain control over the service interaction with customers they ignored, rejected, reacted or engaged customers in the transaction (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Thus they changed the task and relational boundaries of their job. Selecting those to interact with is relational crafting and maintaining control over the interaction is task crafting. In another example cited in Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), cleaners in a hospital were happy with their job because to them their work is important in keeping a clean environment at work thus contributing to the overall health care services provided by the hospital. These cleaners can be said to engage in cognitive crafting since they ascribe meaning to their job and its significance to the wellbeing of others in the society.

Job crafting conceptualization and related constructs

Tims and Bakker (2010) proposed that employees engage in job redesign other than it been implemented by supervisors. Job redesign has been described as a process in which the supervisor decides to do something in the job tasks or roles of the individual. Job redesign also derives from job design which is a top down process whereby the organization create certain jobs and then recruit individuals with appropriate skills, knowledge and abilities to occupy (Tims & Bakker, 2010). The act of employees redesigning their own jobs is known as job redesign on the individual level which includes job crafting (Tims & Bakker, 2010).

Other forms of individual job redesign includes role innovation and individual innovation (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), role making (Graen & Scandura, 1987), task revision (Staw & Boettger, 1990), voice (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1988), idiosyncratic ideals, personal initiative (Frese et al., 1996, 1997) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Organ, 1988, 1997). The difference between these forms of job 'customization' and job crafting with the exception of OCB is that for job crafting, changes may not be seen by supervisors, it is not on a longer time focus and also may not be in line with the organizational goals (Tim & Bakker, 2010).

Job crafting is therefore conceptually related to the constructs Role and Individual Innovation (Van Maanen & Schlein, 1979) which involves employee and management intervention to address or improve a faulty work task, role making (Graen & Scandura, 1987), Personal Initiative (Frese et al., 1997), Task Revision (Staw & Boettger, 1990) and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB; Organ, 1988, 1997). OCB is targeted at helping others in the organization itself but job crafting focuses on changing the task and relational landscape to alter work meaning and identity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Some actions by job crafters can be identified as OCBs. For instance doing extra work to move projects along and forming relationship with clients. The major difference between Job Crafting and all the other related constructs mentioned above is that it can occur under any working condition (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Job crafting has certain outcomes such as job satisfaction, job engagement, positive work identity, and person job fit, all of these which leads to improved personal and organizational performance (Berg et al., 2007).

Though organizational citizenship behavior is distinct from job crafting, they share certain similarities such as taking on extra jobs and forming relationships at work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Job crafting is an individual based activity because it is the employee who decides how and when to shape job tasks and interactions. There is however little research on the construct and therefore Wrzesniewski and Dutton, (2001) gives a research suggestion that individual, tasks and organizational features which directly or indirectly affect this construct be investigated. Upon this direction therefore this study investigates the relationship between the construct and the individual difference variable - self monitoring personality.

2.3.4 Contextual Performance

In an article to distinguish between task and contextual performance and their implication for selection research, Borman and Motowildo (1997) described task performance as how effective employees perform activities that contribute to the technical core of the job by implementing part of the technical process or directly or indirectly providing materials and services. Task performances are activities which are normally prescribed in the formal job description. Contextual performance can also be described in terms of important activities which support the organizational, social and psychological contexts which are catalysts or which enhance task activities and processes. These behaviours include engaging in tasks which are not part of one's own job, helping others, cooperation and demonstration of commitment which enable work to be executed. Contextual behaviours are voluntary and employees engage in them at their own will. In an organization, employees who display a high sense of contextual performance behaviors are less likely to turnover compared than those who do not engage in contextual performance (Van Scotter, 2000).

Contextual performance conceptualization and related constructs

Contextual performance derives from three main concepts which are organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Organ, 1988), Prosocial Organizational Behavior (POB; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) and the Soldier effectiveness model (Borman, Motowidlo, Rose & Hunter, 1985).

Organizational citizenship behavior is described as an extra role behavior performed at will to help others in the organization and conscientiously to support the organization. The OCB instrument measures altruism or helping others and generalized confidence that is following the rules and procedures of the organization in which one works (Organ, 1988). Some have conceptualized contextual performance as Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) but others argue that they are different constructs (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). OCB is known to have originated in order to investigate how job satisfaction could influence behaviors that supervisors desire but cannot solicit from subordinates. Contextual performance on the other hand was developed to investigate which behaviors comprise overall performance, and therefore could be rewarded even though they may not be technical aspect of the job (Motowidlo, 2000).

Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined Pro-social organizational behavior as behaviour performed with a rationale to promote the wellbeing of individuals or group to whom the behavior is directed. POB can be role prescribed that is included in the job description or extra role. POB can be negative to the organization but positive to the individual.

The Soldier Effectiveness model assesses performance on three main dimensions which are allegiance, teamwork and determination.

Other concepts which were employed in contextual performance include Sportsmanship (Organ, 1988) or lack of complaining and organizational courtesy (Organ, 1988).

Contextual performance was then classified into five dimensions which are; persisting with enthusiasm and extra effort to complete tasks, volunteering to carry out extra task, helping and cooperating with others, following organizational rules and procedures and endorsing supporting and defending organizational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (2000) later revealed that contextual performance can be separated into two main facets; job dedication and interpersonal facilitation, and each of them contributes in an exclusive way to overall assessments of job performance. Self-disciplined behaviors such as persevering on the job, abiding by rules and regulations and taking the initiative to solve a problem at work (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) were termed job dedication. Behaviors such as cooperating with others and assisting in both the developing and sustaining of relationships, encouraging easiness among co-workers, showing concern towards other colleagues and increasing concern and thought about others, in order that colleagues performance are enhanced are interpersonal relationship / facilitation (Conway, 1999).

The concepts employed in the conceptualization of contextual performance clearly shows that it is distinct from task performance which is formally assessed during performance appraisals. Yet several researches (e.g., Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) have shown that globally overall performance is influenced in part by ratee contextual performance. This is consistent with customer service research in Ghana which suggests that customers assess an organization's performance by contextual behaviours of personnel (Nimako et al., 2010; Ocloo & Dzisah, 2013; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014).

Several findings (e.g., Camp & Hough, 1988; Campbell, 1990; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994) reveal that when contextual components of performance are measured differently from the task

component, personality predictor validities will be higher than when criterion is overall performance.

Contextual performance and job crafting, though distinct, are similar conceptually to organizational citizenship behaviour (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Van Scotter, 2000). Self monitoring has also been positively associated with contextual performance. In reviewing past studies on the relationships among the three constructs organizational citizenship may be referred to when necessary.

2.3.5 Self Monitoring and Contextual Performance

Research has shown that individual differences in personality are important predictors of contextual performance (e.g., Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Customers' assessments of customer service personnel's performance is also most often based on their contextual behaviours (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014).

Considering the self monitoring construct, it explains that people differ in the extent to which they can observe and control their expressive behavior and self presentation (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). High self monitors pay attention to social context of situations and act accordingly. Low self monitors on the other hand are not moved by what goes on around them. They behave consistently according to their personal beliefs across different situations (Day et al., 2002).

High self monitors are motivated by a need to perceive that they are well accepted by others. They therefore engage in impression management in order to win the approval of others (Toegel, Anand & Kilduff, 2007) by providing emotional help and being sought for help (Bizzi & Soda, 2011).

These acts of providing emotional help etc., which high self monitors engage in, can also be described in terms of contextual behaviours since it supports the work contexts. It is therefore argued that since they engage in interpersonal relationships than low self monitors, they engage in contextual behaviours more often and perform better in contextual behaviours (Bizzi & Soda, 2011).

Most studies have found a positive relationship between Self monitoring and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Organizational citizenship behaviour has been conceptualized as contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Van Scotter, 2000) and has been used as a performance dimension in several studies. For instance, Vilela, Gonzalez and Ferrin (2010), investigated the direct, indirect and moderating effects of sales persons self monitoring on their organizational citizenship behaviour. Among a sample of 122 supervisor – sales person dyads, self monitoring predicted organizational citizenship behaviour and moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviour.

In another similar study, Blakeley, Andrews and Fuller (2003) found that individuals who are high in self monitoring are more likely to perform OCBs. In their study titled ‘Are chameleons good citizens’, the authors examined the relationship between self monitoring and OCB in a longitudinal study among 172 participants in a federal government research laboratory. Their research can however not be generalized to other work settings because the sample consisted mainly of male educated professionals.

Naumann (2008) investigated the relationship between self monitoring perceptions and helping behaviour in a group. The result found a positive association between the variables. Their research aim was to investigate and examine influence of group level OCB on individual level constructs

such as self monitoring. The study was limited in the sense that it measured intentions to help and not helping behaviour or OCB and self monitoring perceptions instead of self monitoring. The study was experimental in nature and therefore cannot be generalized to real world situations. However, it gives an insight and provided literature on the relationship between self monitoring and group OCB.

Studies by Bizzi and Soda (2011) supported the preposition that self monitoring will positively correlate with contextual performance. The findings by Bizzi and Soda (2011) have strength of generalization because four different organizations were employed in the study. Their research also shed more light on the complex nature of self monitoring.

There were flaws in the research which include the fact that supervisory rating was used. Though the best performance assessment method it is a non objective measure and there are always biases. Another setback in their research is that employees occupied different job positions and hence the extent to which their job situation affected their job could not be accounted for. The researchers suggested that the mechanisms through which self monitors engage in contextual performance be explored.

Huang and Ryan (2011) did not find any moderating effect of self monitoring on the relationship between personality traits and job performance among customer service staff. Their study was to investigate questions raised by meta-analytic findings which seem to suggest that the Meta analytic estimate size that personality predicted performance was small. The researchers were able to prove that the kind of job in which personality performance relationship is studied is important as they found a significant relationship between the variables.

Age

In a study by Shirom, Gilboa, Fried and Cooper (2008) to investigate the extent to which gender, age and tenure moderate work attitudes and job performance. The results of the study suggested that age did moderate the relationship such that negative correlations of the relationship decreased with increasing age.

Another study by Met and Ali (2014) investigated the role of age, gender, educational level, tenure and job level on the relationship between monetary motivation and employees job performance found that age and educational level showed some moderating effects.

Similar to the above findings, age may moderate the relationship self monitoring and contextual performance. Day et al. (2002) revealed that there is a negative correlation between age and self monitoring. Thus as people grow older they tend towards low self monitoring and likely to reveal motives of self validation than status enhancement or high self monitoring. The reasons why age and self monitoring negatively correlated may be attributed to the fact that young individuals have a relatively weakly formulated sense of self, less crystallized social and political attitudes, and a stronger need for approval as such they regulate their behaviour based on social cues in order to fulfill their need of approval. Thus, they tend towards high self monitoring while low self-monitoring pattern of behaving in accordance with one's own attitudes are characteristics of older individuals (Reifman, Klein & Murphy, 1989) because according to the Eriksonian and humanistic perspectives at the end of life one is moved to find a sense of wholeness and a feeling that the life as it was lived made sense.

Individuals who fall within the age range of 19 – 40 years have been classified as young adults whose priority is in forming and maintaining relationships (Erikson, 1963) and hence are high on

self monitoring. These young adults may contextually perform better than their older counterparts who are forty one (41) years and above.

Sex

In a study by Nasir, Mohammedi, Shahrazad and Halim (2011) it was revealed that that sex and educational level moderated the relationship between job attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior and Task performance.

Similarly, sex may moderate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance since organizational citizenship behaviour is similar in construct as contextual performance. Further, in their meta-analytic study, Day et al. (2002) revealed that on the average, men score higher on the self monitoring scale than women. This suggests that sex may moderate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance such that males will perform better in contextual behaviour than females.

Educational level

In a study by Met and Ali (2014), educational level moderated the relationship between monetary motivation and employees' job performance such that those with higher education performed better than those with lower educational backgrounds.

Similarly, Nasir et al. (2011) found educational level to moderate the relationship between job attitudes and organizational citizenship behaviour. Employees with higher educational backgrounds performed better than employees with lower educational backgrounds.

Similarly, it is expected that educational level will moderate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. Educational level is known to affect job performance of

various aspects with individuals with higher education performing better than individuals with lower educational backgrounds (Ng & Feldman, 2009). Findings from previous studies suggest that individuals with higher educational backgrounds tend to be higher on self monitoring (Day et al., 2002; Day & Schleicher 2006). Therefore, the interaction between self monitoring and educational level should influence contextual performance such that individuals with higher educational level will perform better than individuals with lower educational backgrounds.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, previous studies have only investigated the moderating effects of age, sex and educational level on the relationship between job attitudes and job performance. Research on demographic moderators on contextual performance is limited. Therefore this research intends to find out if these demographic characteristics –age, sex, and educational level will moderate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance

2.3.6 Self Monitoring and Job Crafting

According to Dutton and Wrzesniewski (2001), job crafting is a psychological, social and physical act in which cues are read about physical boundaries of the work and are interpreted by motivated crafters. According to the job crafting model motivation to craft jobs arise from three needs; need for personal control to avoid alienation from work, need to create a positive sense of self in their own and others eyes that is creating a positive self image and need for human connection by building relationships at work to introduce meaning into their lives (Dutton & Wrzesniewski, 2001).

High self-monitors are noted to be motivated by the need to perceive that they are accepted by others, engage in socially desirable behaviours to obtain a favourable social image and recognition

and to win approval from others, (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). They are therefore likely to shape their jobs in order to suit their needs.

Further, job crafting depends on the individual needs, goals, skills, values and interest (Bipp & Demerouti, 2014) consequently, job crafting is shaped by personality. Several individual difference variables have been suggested to influence job crafting (Tims & Bakker, 2010). Yet there are a few studies on job crafting and personality.

Lyons (2008) identified small positive correlations between episodes of work modification and self image, perceived control and readiness to change. Based on the Job Design-Resources (JD-R) model, Bakker et al., (2012) and Tims et al., (2012) also reported moderate correlation between job crafting and some related individual difference variables.

Similarly, Bipp and Demerouti (2014) investigated individual difference in temperament in relation to job crafting using the JD-R model. Their study provided a quantitative evidence for the relationship between job crafting and basic dimensions of personality.

The studies based on the JD-R model are limited due to the fact that the JD-R model excludes cognitive crafting. The researchers recommend the use of other frameworks which will include cognitive crafting and also consider the role of other personality characteristics in job crafting behaviors (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012; Bipp & Demerouti, 2014; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). Self monitoring personality construct is therefore considered in this study under the framework of the Self determination theory.

High self monitors observe and read social cues and act accordingly in order to create positive impressions of themselves. Creating a positive sense of self is what motivates high self monitors to shape their behavior towards others in order to suit their expectations and also be accepted.

From the above, high self monitors are likely to shape their jobs despite rigid structures in order to create a positive sense of self. A high self monitor might therefore shape certain decisions on his/her own to avoid negative reactions from others (relations) in order to create a positive sense of self. Certain acts (tasks) which may be hindered by bureaucracy may also be shaped so that they may gain approval from others.

2.3.7 Job Crafting and Contextual performance

Contextual performance involves behaviors which affect the social, organizational and psychological context of work (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Certain job crafting behaviors can best be defined as contextual behaviors for example forming relationship with clients and doing extra work to move tasks ahead (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Wresniewski & Dutton, 2001). The concept of contextual performance is similar to organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and studies found a positive relationship between the two constructs (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Van Scotter, 2000). OCB will therefore be used in reviewing literature on job crafting and contextual performance.

In a study by Tims, Bakker and Derks (2014), 288 employees were used in a study to find out if job crafting influenced OCB, work engagement and task performance. Results of the study suggested that workers experienced engagement when they craft their job. Consequently their performance measures of in role task and organizational citizenship behaviour improved significantly. Using the JD-R model the researchers could not answer some of their research questions and so explained using the Self Determination Theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The present research will focus on using the SDT in exploring the relationship between the contextual performance dimensions instead of OCB or task performance.

Susha (2014) investigated the influence of job crafting on OCB among 396 employees. Multiple regression analysis of the data collected supported proposition that job crafting influences OCB. The influence of cognitive crafting on OCB could not be accessed because the JD-R model was employed as framework and so limited findings task and relational crafting. The current study will investigate all three kinds of job crafting using the SDT in relation to contextual performance.

The study by Susha (2014) however, provides grounds for a relationship between job crafting and contextual performance to be studied since OCB is similar to contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Van Scotter, 2000).

2.3.8 Job Crafting as mediator of the relationship between Self Monitoring and Contextual Performance

According to Bipp and Demerouti (2014), job crafting is shaped by personality since it depends on individual values, needs, goals and interests. Therefore self monitoring personality may influence job crafting behaviours. High self monitors have a need to be able to make good impressions (Day et al., 2002) of themselves and so are likely motivated to shape the boundaries of their job to perform better at work to impress others. The needs to impress enable them to break structural boundaries at work and are thus able to solve problems for customers. Solving customer problems can also be defined in terms of contextual performance (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

A study by Bakker et al. (2012) revealed that employees high on proactive personality were found to be more likely to craft their jobs in order to stay engaged and perform better. Job crafting thus, mediated the relationship between personality and performance. The study was limited because it employed the JD—R model and hence cognitive crafting could not be investigated. The researchers suggested that all aspects of job crafting be investigated. Similar to their study job

crafting may equally mediate the relationship between self monitoring which is a personality dimension and any performance dimension such as contextual performance.

Secondly, high self monitors are associated with the three kinds of need described the SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000). They have needs for making impact (competence), need to create a positive sense of self and need for human connection(relatedness) and need to be free and responsible for their actions in order words autonomy (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). If personality is used as a proxy for motivation (Blickle et al., 2011), then job crafting will mediate the relationship between personality (self monitoring) and performance (or contextual performance). This is in accordance with the job crafting model which suggests that job crafting mediates the relationship between motivation and job outcomes such as wellbeing and performance (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Further, according to the individual difference in job performance theory people adapt to certain skills, knowledge and work habits in line with their basic tendencies and experiences (characteristic adaptation) which enable them to perform contextual behaviours. These skills, knowledge and work habit mediate the relationship between their personality and contextual performance. These adaptations in skills, knowledge and work habits can be defined in terms of job crafting (Bakker et al., 2012; Tims & Bakker, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Therefore it can be said that job crafting (characteristic adaptation) could mediate the relationship between personality and contextual performance (Motowidlo et al., 1997).

Job crafting therefore, may mediate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance because the ability to shape a job influences contextual performance. The mediation of job crafting may be partial because there exist a direct relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance (Bizzi & Soda, 2011).

2.4 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Studies in the Ghanaian contexts (e.g., Yeboah & Ewur, 2014) have shown that despite efforts by organizations to improve their performance through excellent customer service, there is still more work to be done. This has necessitated that contextual performance and related variables such as job crafting and personality (self monitoring) be investigated since these may be good predictors of excellent performance among service personnel. This study will investigate the relationship between self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance among customer services personnel in Ghana.

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) divided job performance into two domains; contextual and task performance and proposed that personality variables predicts contextual performance while cognitive ability predicts task performance. Several studies have confirmed this proposition (e.g., Gellatly & Irving, 2009; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Studies on self monitoring and contextual performance are limited but those between self monitoring and OCB abound (e.g. Blakeley et al., 2003; Naumann, 2008; Vilela et al., 2003). The only literature found on self monitoring and contextual performance was a study by Bizzi and Soda (2011). Their study was correlational and did not show whether high self monitors performed better than low self monitors though theoretically, high self monitors are to do better. The present study will compare the contextual performance of high self monitors and low self monitors.

According to the job crafting model, the motivation to craft jobs arises from three individual needs (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). These needs are in line with the motivational needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness as described by the Self Determination Theory (SDT: Deci & Ryan, 2000; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2014). High self monitors on the hand engage in impression management in order to fulfill their needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). Hypothetically, self monitoring should positively relate to job crafting, yet, the

researcher has not found any research that tests the relationship between self monitoring and job crafting.

The concept of Job Crafting is recent and is being investigated in many studies. One research direction which has been suggested by the propounders is that, the construct should be investigated in relation to other variables such as individual differences in personality etc. (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). The construct is related to Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (Slemp & Vella-Brodick, 2013) while OCB is conceptualized as contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). The relationship between Job crafting and contextual performance has however not been established in the literature hence this study seeks to establish the relationship between the two constructs.

Bizzi and Soda (2011) as well as Caliguiri and Day (2000) have suggested that the mechanism through which self monitoring influences contextual performance should be investigated. Job crafting is a possible mediator of the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance because the job crafting model suggests that job crafting mediates the relationship between personality and work outcomes such as performance (Blickle et al., 2011; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). The study will investigate the mediation role of job crafting in the self monitoring – contextual performance relationship.

Literature on both self monitoring and job crafting mention customer service personnel as appropriate sample to study (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) yet the relationship has not been explored among customer service personnel. High self monitors do well in boundary spanning jobs like in customer service jobs whilst it has also been noted that customer

service personnel engage in job crafting in their tasks, relationships and cognitively (Berg et al., 2010; Tims & Bakker, 2010).

Most studies on job crafting have focused on Job Demand – Resources (JD-R) model which limit their study because it excludes cognitive crafting. The present research will investigate job crafting without limiting it to the JD-R model.

Job crafting is a recent construct which is under researched though it has important implications in I/O Psychology (Tims & Bakker, 2010). This research will investigate the relationship between job crafting, contextual performance and self monitoring.

Previous studies on self monitoring and contextual performance were limited in the kind of sample used, job contexts investigated and number of organizations used (e.g., Bizzi & Soda, 2011; Haung & Ryan, 2011). The present research will therefore address these limitations.

The present research will add to literature in several new ways. First of all, it will establish a relationship between self monitoring and job crafting. Secondly, it will establish a relationship between job crafting and contextual performance. Thirdly, it will establish job crafting as a mediator of the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. This study is also the first to the knowledge of the researcher to employ the use of the other theories other than the JD-R model in investigating job crafting.

2.5 STATEMENTS OF HYPOTHESES

From the theories and related studies reviewed it is hypothesized that;

1. High self monitors will perform better in contextual behaviors than low self monitors
2. There will be a significant positive relationship between Self Monitoring and Job Crafting.

3. There will be a significant positive relationship between Job Crafting and Contextual Performance
4. Educational level, age and sex will moderate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance.
5. The relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance will be partially mediated by job crafting.

2.6 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Self Monitoring – Individual difference in the ability to regulate/alter behavior and manage impressions to accommodate social demands/cues.

High Self Monitors - Employees who are sensitive to social cues and behave as the social situation demands (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000).

Low Self Monitors – Employees who are less sensitive to social cues and behave in accordance to their own beliefs and values (Snyder & Gangestad, 2000).

Contextual Performance/Behavior – Discretionary behaviors which supports the organizational, social and psychological context of the job like helping others and doing extra work (Borman & Motowidlo, 2000).

Job Crafting – Ability to shape the tasks, relational and cognitive boundaries of the job (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001)

Educational Level – An employees' educational status as having a degree or not

Age –the number of years a person has lived

Sex – Ones biological identity as male or female

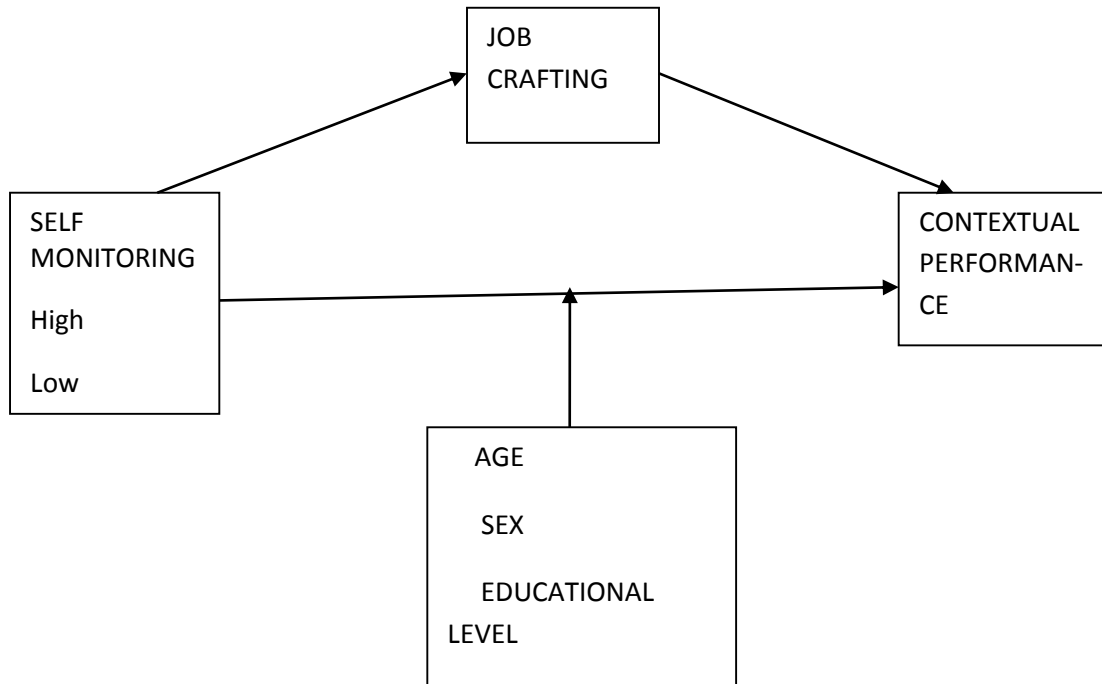


Fig 1: *This is a hypothesized model of the relationship among the self monitoring and contextual performance where age, sex and educational level moderate the relationship and job crafting mediates the relationship.*

2.7 DESCRIPTION OF THE HYPOTHESIZED MODEL

The proposed conceptual model illustrated one independent variable, self monitoring, a mediating variable, job crafting and moderating variables (educational level, age and sex). The dependent variable is contextual performance.

Self monitoring predicts contextual performance with high self monitors performing better than low self monitors.

Self monitoring is predicted to positively relate with job crafting while job crafting positively relates with contextual performance and at the same time partially mediates the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance.

Educational level, age and sex moderate this relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter presents a description of the research methodology that was used in ensuring that the findings on the relationship between self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance among customer service personnel are valid. The chapter further explains the research design, targeted population, sample and sampling technique, instrument for data collection, data collection procedure and ethical considerations that were used for data gathering including their psychometric properties.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design used was quantitative (descriptive correlational) because the research seeks to verify theory (Punch, 2005).

The design used for data collection is the cross sectional survey. A survey is a procedure for collecting information whereby some members of the population are asked a set of questions and the responses noted in writing. This method was preferred and employed because a large number of information was to be obtained from a cross section of the population once within a short period (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). The five-step process for conducting survey research in organizations proposed by Bartlett (2005) was adhered to in the study. This process consists of defining the purpose and objectives, deciding on the sample, creating and pre-testing the instrument, contacting

the respondents, and collecting and analyzing data. The cross sectional design is appropriate because it is quantifiable and generalizable to an entire population (Bartlett, 2005). This design is also cost effective and relatively easy to administer. A disadvantage of this design is that it does not demonstrate causal relationship between variables. It was however used since the study is not experimental in nature but correlational.

3.3 POPULATION

Previous research on customer service in Ghana were case studies and employed single organizations in their study (e. g., Nimako et al., 2010; Ocloo & Dzisah, 2013; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). The population for this study was chosen from the utility, telecommunication and financial institutions in Accra so that results can be generalized across these institutions. These institutions were chosen because most of their personnel serve external customers.

3.4 SAMPLING

Literature on contextual performance, self monitoring and job crafting constructs extensively refer to customer service staff suggesting they are an appropriate group to be considered in studying these constructs (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012; Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Motowidlo et al., 1997; Tims & Bakker, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In view of this, customer service personnel from the utility, telecommunication and financial institutions were employed in the study. This group of workers was also used because of the fact that most of the employees in these institutions serve external customers.

According to the occupational information network (O*NET), customer service personnel include those employees who normally serve as frontline staff and have job titles such as customer service representatives, bill and account collectors, sales agents, sales representatives, secretaries, administrative assistants, cashiers, office clerks etc. As such, personnel who occupied these positions in the institutions were employed in the study.

3.5 SAMPLE SIZE / TECHNIQUE

A sample size of three hundred (300) participants was used in the study. This is because the larger the sample size, the better it is to get a representation of the populations ideas on issues concerning the area of interest. Results can also be generalized (external validity) if the sample size is large. Participants were purposively selected because the research intends to study only customer service staff. Out of the 300 participants, only 254 responses from participants were used for the analyses. Participants were chosen based on the convenience sampling technique; where participants who were available and willing to fill the questionnaires were used. This sample size met Glenn's (1992) suggestion that in order to obtain a validity of a population estimated at 6000 at 95% confidence level, at least 253 participants are required. Bartlett, Kottrlik and Higgins, (2001) also suggest that an appropriate sample size for the use of multiple regression analysis requires a minimum returned sample size of 119 for a population of 6000 with a margin of error of .05 for a continuous data.

The target sample was customer service personnel from the various institutions. Due to the fact that a number of organizations were to be visited in order to obtain the required sample, the

probability sampling technique could not be used because employees or participants were dispersed making it difficult to obtain the sample frame. Participants for the study were therefore selected using the convenience non-probability sampling technique. Using the convenience sampling meant that only participants who showed interest and were willing to respond to questionnaires were employed. Table 3.1 describes the characteristics of the sample used in the study.

Table 3.1: Summary of demographic characteristics of the sample

Variables		N	Percentage
Sex	Male	104	40.94
	Female	150	59.06
Age	20 – 30 years	173	68.11
	31 – 40 years	58	22.83
	41- 50 years	17	6.69
	51+	6	2.36
Tenure	0 – 5 years	171	67.32
	6 – 10 years	46	18.11
	11+	37	14.57
Educational level	Degree	168	6.14
	Non degree	86	33.86
Sector/institution	Financial	95	37.40
	Utility	88	33.86
	Telecommunication	71	27.95

N=254

Inclusion / Exclusion criteria

The study included all employees who serve external customers. External customers are people or clients who do not work in the organization but patronize their services.

Managers and supervisors were excluded since the study is interested in employees and not management. All other employees who do not serve external customers were also excluded from the study.

3.6 MEASURES

All the constructs were measured using the multi-item standardized scales that have been developed for many researches. The measures were divided into four sections; A to D. Section A was used in gathering information on the demographic characteristics of the participants such as gender, age, type of institution (utility, telecommunication, and financial service), tenure and educational level of employees. The demographic information allowed description of sample to be used. Section B consisted of the job crafting, section C self monitoring scale and the last section that is D was the contextual performance scale.

3.6.1 Job Crafting

Job crafting was measured using the 15 item Job Crafting Questionnaire (JCQ) by Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013) which measures the extent to which employees craft their jobs. The scale was developed using a sample size of 334 employees who completed a battery questionnaire. Exploratory and confirmatory analysis both supported a three factor structure that reflects tasks, relational and cognitive crafting as has been presented by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001). Items on the scale include “I introduce new approaches to improve my work”. Participants were to respond to the questionnaire using a six point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

The scale measures the extent to which employees engage in all three forms of crafting including cognitive crafting. Cognitive crafting is important because it enables employees shape their approaches to work and also shape their work experiences. Each of the dimensions consists of five items. The reported reliabilities are as follows; Task Crafting, $\alpha = 0.87$, Cognitive crafting, $\alpha = 0.89$, Relational Crafting, $\alpha = 0.83$. General Job Crafting, $\alpha = 0.91$.

The highest possible score is 75 and the lowest is 0. High score indicate high crafting behaviors. The Cronbach's alpha reliability obtained after pilot study administration for the present study was 0.91

3.6.2 Self Monitoring

Self Monitoring was measured using the 13 item Wolfe and Lennox (1985) revised self monitoring scale. With a sample size of two hundred and one ($N = 201$), the scale was developed to measure two main dimensions; ability to modify self presentation and sensitivity to expressive behaviour. Items on the scale include 'I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations'. Respondents were to answer questions on a six point Likert scale. The highest possible score is 65 and the lowest is 0. Higher scores indicate higher self monitoring. Items 4 and 6 were reverse scored

The reported reliability of the scale is 0.75. The Cronbach's alpha reliability value obtained after the pilot study was 0.80.

3.6.3 Contextual Behaviour / Performance

The 15 item Dimension of contextual performance scale (Van Scotter, Motowidlo & Cross, 2000) was used in measuring contextual performance. The scale has two dimensions; Interpersonal facilitation and Job dedication.

Items on the scale include ‘he/she helps others without being asked’

Participants were paired and each participants after answering questions on the sections a, b and c gave the questionnaire to his/her peer partner to be rated on contextual behaviour – section D.

Participants responded to the questionnaire on both dimensions using a five point Likert scale ranging from strongly agrees to strongly disagree. Scores range from 0 to 60 with 60 being the highest and 0 being the lowest score. Higher scores indicate high level of contextual performance.

The reported reliability of the contextual performance scale ranges from 0.80-0.92. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability value obtained after pilot study administration was 0.88.

3.7 PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION

Data collection was done in two stages. The first procedure involved a pilot study while the second procedure involved data collection for the main study.

3.7.1 Pilot Study

The instruments used were existing ones with psychometric properties established in different countries other than Ghana. For this reason it was appropriate to find the psychometric properties in the Ghanaian context. A pilot study was therefore conducted in order to find the reliability and validity in Ghana since a Ghanaian sample was employed in the study.

The pilot study was necessary because it revealed whether the instruments chosen and the method to be applied are suitable or not. It also enabled the researcher identify possible difficulties she may encounter during the study (Van Teijlingen, Rennie, Hundley & Graham, 2001). The pilot study was conducted to check for clarity and transparency of items that are on the scale. This is because there is the possibility that some of the terminologies on the scales may not be conversant in our Ghanaian language as such making it problematic for participants to comprehend and interpret it as intended.

A sample size of twenty participants from the Bank of Africa Madina Branch and Ghana Urban Water Company, Legon Branch were used in the pilot study. The researcher's attention was drawn to certain errors on the questionnaire which needed to be addressed.

The reliabilities obtained from the pilot study were compared to the reliabilities established by the developers of the scale to ascertain whether they are appropriate for the study or not. The reliabilities were as follows; self monitoring, $\alpha = 0.80$, job crafting, $\alpha = 0.91$, contextual performance, $\alpha = 0.88$. Since the Cronbach's alpha values of the scales ranged from 0.80 to 0.91 it was deemed appropriate to be used for psychometric analysis of data (Wells & Wollack, 2003).

3.7.2 Main Data Collection

The data was collected in person (principal investigator). Permission letter to conduct the research was sought from the Department of Psychology and taken to the Ethics Committee for the Humanities together with the research proposal and other relevant documents for approval before data collection could begin. A copy of the certificate for ethical clearance, consent form and sample of questionnaire was then used to seek permission from the appropriate authorities to collect data. The human resources managers of the various organizations were the first point of

contact. For some organizations, permission to collect data was granted verbally. The Human Resources Officer then directed the investigator to the managers/supervisors who were responsible for customer service. Questionnaires were then sent to customer centers to be filled by personnel. Some were distributed among the personnel in various head offices of organizations visited.

The employees were briefed on the essence of the study and their consent to participate in the study was sought. They were also assured of confidentiality and asked to be sincere in answering in order to avoid socially desirable answers. Participants were then paired such that each respondent had a peer partner who would rate him/her on contextual performance. The questionnaires were then distributed by the principal investigator to the participants in addition to a consent form which was to be signed before filling the questionnaire. The participants were given time to complete the questionnaires and also allowed to ask questions and clarification. In some organizations however, the questionnaire had to be left over due to busy schedules of participants who were willing to fill the questionnaires. The entire data collection period took five weeks. Out of three hundred (300) questionnaires that were sent out, two hundred and seventy (270) of them were returned and two hundred and fifty four (254) were completely filled.

3.7.3 Rate of collection

Out of the three hundred (300) questionnaires that were distributed, a total of two hundred and fifty four (254) were properly filled. Thus 84.6% of the questionnaires sent out were responded to correctly. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001) a response rate of 50% is adequate for analysis but a response rate of 70% and above is very good for analysis. As such, a response rate of 84% was sufficient for proper analysis of data. Statistical analysis was then performed on the two hundred and fifty four (254) usable questionnaires.

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to the American Psychological Association (APA, 2002) Ethical Code, certain ethical considerations are deemed necessary and therefore are included in this study in accordance with the ethical principles governing the use of human participants for research purpose. In view of this, I ensured a high sense of confidentiality and anonymity by making sure the data collected is managed in such a way that the names and other traceable identities of the respondents are protected at all times so that no information can directly be traced or associated with any individual participant. Any information provided by participants was kept confidential from the general public except for the general information that was reported.

Moreover, no participant was forced to partake in the study especially since a convenience sampling technique was used to collect the data. I also ensured that the collection process did not cause any harm to participants. Informed consent was sought from participants. The purpose and implications of the study were explained to participants and they were also informed of their rights.

3.9 DATA ANALYSIS

After data was collected, it was scored and statistically analyzed with the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 22.

The first hypothesis was aimed at finding out if high self monitors will outperform low self monitors in contextual performance. Since this involved comparing the means of two individual samples that is high self monitors and low self monitors, the independent t-test was used. The total highest score on the self monitoring scale was 65 and the lowest was 0. Therefore the scores on the scale was divided into equal halves (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984) such that those who scored 33

and below were classified as low self monitors while those who scored above 33 were classified as high self monitors.

The second hypothesis sought to find out if there is a significant positive relationship between Self monitoring and job crafting. The Pearson's Product moment Correlation Coefficient test was used in analyzing the hypothesis because the hypothesis sought to find the relationship between a predictor variable (self monitoring) and a criterion (job crafting).

Hypothesis three sought to investigate whether there is a significant positive relationship between Job Crafting and Contextual Performance. To test this hypothesis, the Pearson's Product moment correlation coefficient test was employed. This is because the hypothesis involved a predictor (job crafting) and a criterion (contextual performance).

Hypothesis four was to find out if educational level, sex and age will moderate the relationship between Self monitoring and Contextual performance. According to Holmbeck (1997), a moderator is a variable that alters the direction or strength of the relationship between a predictor and a criterion/outcome.

The hypotheses were analyzed using the moderation analysis described by Baron and Kenny (1986). The test is carried out using hierarchical regression tests for the significance of the increment in criterion variance explained by the interaction term beyond the variance accounted for by the main effects variable. In moderation analysis the following steps are employed;

- Standardization of the variables which involves a transformational linear method that attempts to cleanse the data of the effect of multi-collinearity. This is performed by subtracting the mean value from each score of the same variable (Lingard & Francis, 2006).

- The standardized values are then used to calculate the interaction effect (predictor * moderator)
- A hierarchical regression is then carried out by first entering the predictor into the first model/block as step one (1). Then the predictor and moderator are entered into the second block as step two and finally the predictor, moderator and interaction effect is entered into the third block.
- The dependent variable is then regressed on the predictor, moderator and the interaction between the two. If the interaction is significant then a moderation effect exists. On the contrary, if the interaction turns out not to be significant, then there is no moderation effect.

Since the requirement that a relationship exist between the predictor and the criterion was met, a hierarchical multiple regression was employed to analyze the moderating effects of level of education, sex and age employing the steps described above.

Hypothesis five sought to find out if job crafting will mediate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. A mediator accounts for or explains the relationship between the predictor and the criterion.

Baron and Kenny (1986) proposed that to test a mediation analysis;

- Regression of the relationship between the predictor and criterion /outcome should be significant
- Relationship between the mediator and predictor should be significant.

- The relationship between the mediator and criterion should also be significant WHEN the predictor is controlled.
- Regression of the criterion on the predictor when the mediator is controlled should not be significant. However, if the relationship remains significant but the coefficient is reduced, then the model supports a partial mediation.

The steps proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) were applied resulting in TWO different simple regressions and a multiple regression at the last stage.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents summary of findings and results based on analysis of data collected using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. The results are presented in two sections. The first section is the preliminary analysis results and the second section presents results for the various hypotheses. The chapter ends with the summary of the findings.

4.2 PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS

Preliminary analysis was performed to test for normality of distribution of the variables, factor analysis, reliability, descriptive statistics and then correlations among the key variables of the study. This research employed the parametric tests for the analyses of the data. Parametric tests make assumptions about ratio or interval scale of measurement, normality of distribution, homogeneity of variances and independent errors.

Analysis of Normal Distribution of Variables

According to Tabacknick and Fidell (2001), a multivariate study involving regression test requires the assumption of multivariate normality. Normality of a distribution is checked by the values of the skewness and kurtosis. Normality of a variable is established when skewness and kurtosis values fall within the acceptable values of ± 1 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Summary of normal distribution is presented in Table 4.1 which indicates that all the values for skewness and kurtosis are acceptable since they fall within the acceptable range and confirm normality and homogeneity of the data collected.

Table 4.1: Summary of Descriptive Statistics, Reliability Analysis, Skewness and Kurtosis of the Variables in the Study

Variable	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Alpha
Self Monitoring	42.37	11.77	-0.34	-0.81	0.80
Job Crafting	50.82	11.92	-0.06	-0.20	0.91
Contextual Performance	43.84	8.35	-0.14	-0.18	0.88

Total number of responses, N=254

Factor Analysis

In order to ascertain the construct validity of the scales and the extent to which they are appropriate for the Ghanaian organizational context, a principal component analysis of the items of the various scales was performed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Factor analysis also reveals if the items that make up the scales would produce factor loadings that can be considered as part of a single construct (Field, 2005). According to Field (2005), factor loadings with significant contribution to the variable of study should be greater than 0.3.

Tables 4.2 a, 4.2 b and 4.2 c are summary of principal component analysis of the items of the various scales used.

Job Crafting Scale

Table 4. 2a: Principal Component Analysis for the Job crafting Scale

Item	Factor loading
I often introduce new approaches to improve my work	.555
I often change the types of tasks that I complete at work	.717
I often introduce new work tasks that suit my skill/interest	.758
I often choose to take on additional tasks at work	.588
I usually give preference to work tasks that suit my skills or interests	.659
I usually think about how my job gives my life purpose	.603
I often remind myself about the significance my work to the organization	.755

I usually remind myself of the importance of my work for the broader community	.726
I often think about the ways in which my work positively impacts my life	.861
I usually reflect on the role my job has for my overall well-being	.765
I often make an effort to get to know people well at work	.505
I organize special events in the workplace	.747
I often choose to mentor new employees	.753
I usually make friends with people at work who have similar skills or interests	.665
I usually attend work related social functions	.664

The job crafting scale was composed of 15 items. The first step in conducting factor analysis for the scale was to inspect the correlation coefficient and significance level among the item from the correlation matrix of the items. An inspection of the correlation matrix revealed that most of the relationships were significant ($p < .05$) and none of the coefficients was greater than 0.9. The determinant value of the correlation matrix was 0.003 which is greater than the recommended value of 0.00001 (Field, 2005). These preliminary findings suggest that the data does not have multicollinearity problems and that factor analysis could be conducted. The value for Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.854. KMO values above 0.5 are described as acceptable values for appropriate factor analysis to be carried out (Kaiser, 1974) therefore a KMO value of 0.854 is excellent for factor analysis (Field, 2005). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p = .000$) implying that some relationships exist among the items and so factor analysis is appropriate (Bartlett, 1954). The principal component analysis (PCA) revealed that there were eigenvalues which exceeded 1 and explained a cumulative variance of 56.376%. The Varimax rotation revealed that all the factors were satisfactorily loaded on the component. The factor loadings, referring to Table 4.2 a, ranged from 0.505 to 0.861. These factor analyses are similar to those of the scale developers (Slemp & Vella - Brodrick, 2013).

*Self Monitoring Scale**Table 4.2b: Principal Component Analysis for the Self monitoring Scale*

Item	Factor loading
Alter my behaviour if I feel that something else is called for	.483
Ability to control impression towards others	.581
Readily change image I am portraying if it isn't working	.578
Trouble changing behavior to suit different people and different situations	.741
Adjust my behavior to meet the requirement of any situation I find myself in	.570
Difficulty putting up a good front even when it might be to my advantage	.778
Easy to regulate my actions according what the situation calls for	.590
Able to read peoples true emotions correctly through their eyes	.672
Sensitive to slightest change in the facial expression during conversations	.734
Good intuitions in understanding others emotions and motives	.779
Can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in a bad taste	.838
Can tell when I have said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener eyes	.772
Can tell a lie from a person's manner of expression	.787

N=254

Table 4.2 b is a summary table of principal component factor analysis of the self monitoring scale. The self monitoring questionnaire used in this study is made up of 13 items. Before the actual factor analysis was conducted, an inspection was carried out using the correlation among the items on the scale matrix of the items to find out how they are related. The scan of the matrix revealed that all the relationships are significant with all significant values less than .05. An inspection of the coefficients also revealed that none of them was greater than 0.9. The determinant value of the correlation matrix was 0.002 which is greater than the recommended value of 0.00001(Field, 2005). These preliminary findings suggest that the data does not have multicollinearity problems and that factor analysis could be conducted. The value for Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure

of sampling adequacy was 0.902. KMO values above 0.5 are described as acceptable values for appropriate factor analysis to be carried out (Kaiser, 1974) therefore a KMO value of 0.902 is superb (Field, 2005). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p = .000$) implying that some relationships exist among the items and so factor analysis is appropriate (Bartlett, 1954). The principal component analysis (PCA) revealed that there were 2 eigenvalues which exceeded 1 and explained a commulative variance of 57.438%. The Varimax rotation revealed that all the factors were satisfactorily loaded on the component. The factor loadings ranged from 0.483 to 0.838. These factor analyses are similar to the findings made by the scale developers (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984).

Contextual Performance Scale

Table 4.2c: Principal Component Analysis for the Contextual Performance Scale

Item	Factor loading
Often praise coworkers when they are successful	.584
Usually support or encourage a co worker when he/she has a personal problem	.653
Often talk to others before taking actions that might affect them	.676
Usually say things that make people feel good about themselves or the work group	.745
Encourage others to overcome their differences and get along	.626
Often treat others as they deserve	.710
Often help others without being asked to	.374
Usually put in extra effort to get work done on time	.725

Often pay close attention to important details	.742	
Often work harder than necessary	.580	
Usually ask for challenging work assignments	.599	
Usually exercise personal discipline and self control	.542	
Often take the initiation to solve work problems		.613
Often persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task		.668
Usually tackle difficult work assignments enthusiastically	.835	

Table 4.2c is a summary table of principal component analysis of the contextual performance scale. The 15 item contextual performance scale was also subjected to principal component analysis. First of all, an inspection was carried verify the correlation coefficient and significance level among the item from the correlation matrix of the items. The scan of the matrix revealed that all the relationships were significant ($p < .05$). An inspection of the coefficients also revealed that none of them was greater than 0.9. The determinant value of the correlation matrix was 0.003 which is greater than the recommended value of 0.00001 (Field, 2005). These preliminary findings suggest that the data does not have multicollinearity problems and that factor analysis could be conducted. The value for Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.897. KMO values above 0.5 are described as acceptable values for appropriate factor analysis to be carried out (Kaiser, 1974) therefore a KMO value of 0.897 is excellent for factor analysis (Field, 2005). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p = .000$) implying that some relationships exist among the items and so factor analysis is appropriate (Bartlett, 1954). The principal component analysis (PCA) revealed that there were eigenvalues which exceeded 1 and explained a commulative variance of 56.563%. The Varimax rotation revealed that all the factors were satisfactorily loaded on the component. The factor loadings ranged from 0.542 to 0.835. These factor analyses are similar to those of the scale developers (Van Scotter, Motowidlo & Cross, 2000).

Reliability Analysis

Table 4.1 shows that internal reliability of the instruments used had acceptable values. Internal consistency values normally range from 0.6-0.7 as absolute minimum (Brewerton & Millward, 2001).

The internal reliability of the self monitoring scale during the pilot study was also found to be high (alpha = 0.80) and a bit higher than the reported reliability of 0.75. The internal reliability of the job crafting scale obtained after piloting the instruments was also high and the same as the reported reliability of Cronbach's alpha = 0.91. The Cronbach's alpha reliability value obtained after pilot study administration was 0.88 and within the range of the reported reliability of the scale which is 0.80-0.92. The values obtained from the pilot data were all higher than the absolute minimum suggested by Brewerton and Millward (2001) and thus, appropriate to be used.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1 reveals that self monitoring has a mean score of 42.37(SD=11.77). The highest possible score on the self monitoring scale is 65 and the lowest possible is 0 with an average score being 32.5. This implies that a mean score of 42.37 means that most of the respondents had high scores on the self monitoring scale. This implies that most of the employees in the organizations in the study are high self monitors. In other words, majority of the employees behave in accordance to situational demands.

The Job crafting scale had a composite score of 75 which implies an average score of 37.5. Table 4.1 reveals that the mean score obtained was 50.82(SD= 11.92) which means that most of the

respondents had high scores on the scale. This means that most employees in the organizations employed in the study to a greater extent engage in job crafting or are able to shape their jobs.

The overall score on the contextual performance scale was 60 therefore an average score of 30 could be obtained. The Table 4.1 above reveals that most respondents had high scores ($M=43.84$, $SD=8.35$) on the contextual performance scale. The implication is that most employees from the various organizations engage in discretionary behaviours which tend to support the context of their job.

Pearson Correlations among Study Variables

The next step in the preliminary analysis was to investigate the relationships among key continuous variables of study. This was done using the Pearson's product correlations moment coefficient (r). This was done to investigate linearity among the variables and also to fulfill assumptions behind conducting mediating and moderating analysis (Field, 2005). Results of the correlations are presented in Table 4.3 below.

According to Field (2005), correlations above 0.90 indicate multicollinearity. Correlations of .01 – 0.1 are described as very low, 0.2 – 0.3 are low 0.4 – 0.5 are moderate, correlations of 0.6-0.7 are substantial and 0.8 - 0.9 are high.

Table 4.3 Correlation Matrix for Continuous Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4
Tenure				
SM	-0.255**			
JC	-0.115	0.615**		
CP	-0.036	0.462**	0.424**	

Note *= $p < .05$, **= $p < .01$, $N=254$. SM=self monitoring, JC= job crafting, CP=contextual performance.

Correlations between self monitoring and tenure was low but significant ($r = -0.255$, $p < 0.01$).

However correlations between tenure and JC and CP were all not significant.

The correlation between Self monitoring and contextual performance was significant ($r = 0.462$, $p < 0.01$). Similarly the correlation between job crafting and contextual performance was also significant ($r=0.424$, $p < 0.01$). The relationship between self monitoring and job crafting was substantial and significant ($r=0.615$, $p < 0.01$). The sub constructs of self monitoring also correlated significantly with contextual performance. The findings that there is a significant relationship between Self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance satisfies assumptions for carrying out mediation and moderation analysis.

The demographic variables, tenure, however did not have any significant correlations with the criterion –contextual performance. Therefore its influence on the relationships was not controlled for in the analysis.

4.3 HYPOTHESES TESTING

The aim of the study was to examine the relationships between self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance among customers service personnel. Based on the objectives and literature review, five main hypotheses were proposed and tested.

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis was aimed at finding out if high self monitors will outperform low self monitors in contextual performance. Table 4.4 summarizes the findings from the analysis

Table 4.4 Summary of Independent t- test results, Means and Standard deviations for Contextual Performance classified by Low and High Self monitors

Self Monitors	N	Mean	SD	df	t	p
High Self Monitor	187	45.90	7.43	252	7.18	.000
Low Self Monitor	67	38.11	8.13			

Results from Table 4.4 above indicate that the t- test is significant ($t_{(252)}=7.18, p<0.05$). There is a significant difference in performance by high and low self monitors. At the 0.05 level of significance high self monitors ($M=45.90, SD=7.43$) were found to perform better than low self monitors ($M=38.11, SD=8.13$) in contextual behaviours. This implies that self monitoring does influence contextual performance among customer service personnel. Therefore the hypothesis that ‘high self monitors will perform better in contextual behaviours than low self monitors’ is supported by the data of the current study.

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis sought to find out if there is a significant positive relationship between Self Monitoring ($M =42.37$) and Job Crafting ($M =50.82$). The Pearson’s Product moment Correlation Coefficient test was used in analyzing the hypothesis. Referring to the correlation matrix in Table 4.3 above, the relationship was found to be significant. Self Monitoring had a significant positive relationship with Job Crafting [$r_{(254)}=0.615, p<0.01$]. This implies that most personnel who scored high on the self monitoring scale also scored high on the job crafting scale. In other word, most employees who behave in accordance with situational demands are also able to shape their jobs to

suit their skills and preferences. The hypothesis that there will be a significant positive relationship between self monitoring and job crafting was supported by the data.

Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis three was stated as ‘there will be a significant positive relationship between Job Crafting and Contextual Performance’. To test this hypothesis, the Pearson’s Product moment correlation coefficient test was employed. Referring to the correlation matrix in Table 4.3 above, the relationship was found to be significant. Job Crafting had a significant positive relationship with Contextual performance [$r(254) = 0.424, p < 0.01$]

This implies that those who engage in job crafting more often also engage in contextual behaviours more. Employees who shape the boundaries of their job also engage in voluntary behaviours which positively influence the contexts in which they work. Therefore the hypothesis that ‘there will be a significant positive relationship between job crafting and contextual performance’ is supported by the data.

Hypothesis Four

Hypothesis four sought to find out if the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance will be moderated by education, sex and age such that;

- a. The strength of the relationship will be stronger when education is included such that those with high education i.e. University degree holders will perform better in contextual behaviours than those without a University degree
- b. The strength of the relationship will be stronger if gender is introduced such that males will perform better on contextual behavior than females

c. The strength of the relationship will be weaker if age is introduced such that older individuals (41 years and above) will perform less in contextual behaviours compared to younger ones (20-40 years)

Table 4.5a, 4.5b and 4.5c below summarizes the findings.

Moderation by Educational Level

Table 4.5.a: Summary Table for the Moderation Effect of Educational Level on the Relationship between Self Monitoring and Contextual Performance

Model	B	Std error	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Step 1 Constant	27.93	1.262		17.203	.000
SM	.331	.040	.462	8.271	.000
Step 2 Constant	27.400	1.708		16.038	.000
SM	.328	.040	.459	8.203	.000
EDUCL	.982	.919	.060	1.069	.286
Step 3 Constant	30.14	2.708		11.30	.000
SM	.258	.068	.359	3.795	.000
EDUCL	-3.26	3.384	-.198	-0.962	.337
SM*EDUCL	.109	.084	.290	1.301	.194

Note for step1, $R^2 = .214$, $\Delta R^2 = .214$, Step 2, $R^2 = .217$, $\Delta R^2 = .004$, Step3, $R^2 = .222$, $\Delta R^2 = .005$

From Table 4.5 a, the model in step 1 was significant [$F_{(1,252)}=68.45$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .214$] accounting for 21% variance in contextual performance. Self monitoring significantly predicted contextual performance ($\beta = .462$, $p < .05$). In step 2, the model was not significant and accounted for 04% variance ($\Delta R^2 = .004$, $p = ns$). However, even though Self monitoring significantly predicted contextual performance ($\beta = .459$, $p < .05$), educational level did not predict Contextual performance ($\beta = .060$, $p = ns$). In step 3, the interaction between Self monitoring and educational level did not

predict contextual performance ($\beta=.290$, $p=ns$). The hypothesis that education will moderate the relationship between self monitoring and job crafting was not supported by the data of this study.

Moderation by Sex

Results from Table 4.5 b indicates that the model in step 1, was significant and accounted for 21% of variance in explaining contextual performance [$F(1,252) =68.42$, $p<.05$, $R^2= .214$]. In step 2, the model did not make any significant difference in contextual performance when sex was included ($\Delta R^2 =000$, $\beta=.000$, $p= ns$). In step 3, the interaction between Self monitoring and sex did not significantly predict contextual performance ($\Delta R^2=.009$, $\beta=0.166$, $p=ns$). Therefore, the hypothesis that ‘sex will moderate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance’ was not supported by the data.

Table 4.5.b: Summary table for the moderation effect of sex on the relationship between Self Monitoring and Contextual Performance

Model	B	Std error	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Step 1 Constant	27.96	1.626		17.203	.000
SM	.331	.040	.462	8.271	.000
Step 2 Constant	27.99	1.650		-.071	.000
SM	.332	.040	.462	8.244	.000
SEX	.087	.887	.006	.098	.922
Step 3 Constant	2.199	1.956		13.39	.000
SM	.378	.049	.527	7.775	.000
SEX	5.632	3.503	.356	1.608	.109
SM*SEX	-.145	.086	.383	-1.687	.093

Note for step 1, $R^2 = .214$, $\Delta R^2 = .214$, step 2, $R^2 = .214$, $\Delta R^2 = 000$, step 3, $R^2 = .222$, $\Delta R^2 = .009$

Moderation by Age

From Table 4.5.c, the model in step 1, accounted for 21% of variance, with self monitoring significantly predicting contextual performance ($R^2=.214$, $\beta=.462$, $p<.05$). In step 2, the model

accounted for no variance and age did not predict contextual performance when it was included in the model ($\Delta R^2 = .000, \beta = .008, p = ns$). The model in step 3 also did not account for any variance in contextual performance and the interaction between self monitoring and age did not significantly predict contextual performance ($\Delta R^2 = .000, \beta = -.112, p = ns$). The hypothesis that age will moderate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance was not supported by the data.

Table 4.5.c: Summary Table for the Moderation Effect of Age on the Relationship between Self Monitoring and Contextual Performance

Model	B	Std error	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Step 1 Constant	27.963	1.63		17.203	.000
SM	.331	.040	.462	8.27	.000
Step 2 Constant	27.792	2.051		13.55	.000
SM	.331	.040	.461	8.211	.000
AGE	.210	1.522	.008	.138	.891
Step 3 Constant	25.915	5.267		4.920	.000
SM	.383	.140	.461	2.728	.007
AGE	2.271	5.542	.040	.410	.682
SM*AGE	-.057	.147	-.112	.387	.697

Note: For step 1, $R^2 = .214, \Delta R^2 = .214$, step 2, $R^2 = .214, \Delta R^2 = .000$, step 3 $R^2 = .214, \Delta R^2 = .000$

Hypothesis Five

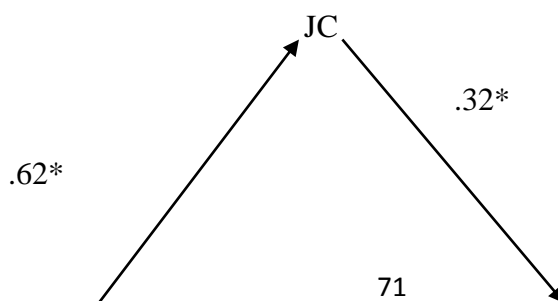
Hypothesis four sought to find out if job crafting will mediate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. Table 4.6 summarizes the results.

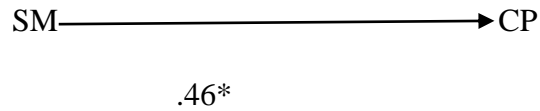
Table 4.6: Summary of Mediation Analysis of Job crafting on the Relationship between Self-monitoring and Contextual performance.

Model	B	Std error	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Step 1					
SM predicting CP	.328	.040	.462	8.27	.000

Step 2					
SM predicting JC	.620	.050	.615	12.37	.000
Step 3& 4 (multiple regression)					
JC	.158	.049	.324	4.66	.000
SM	.230	.049	.324	4.65	.001

Results from Table 4.6 indicates that at step 1, SM significantly predicted CP ($b=.328$, $p<.05$). In step 2, SM significantly predicted JC ($b=.62$, $p<.05$) and JC significantly predicted CP in step 3 ($b=.158$, $p<.05$) when SM was controlled. In step 4, when JC was controlled, SM predicted CP significantly though the B coefficient was reduced ($b=.230$, $p<.05$). This is an indication of a partial mediation meaning that job crafting mediated the relationship partially and that other factors also contribute to the explanation of contextual performance. To test for the significance of the mediation the Sobel test was employed. The calculation is done using the unstandardized coefficients of the association between the predictor and mediator and the association between the mediator and the criterion. The values used in the analysis; SM predicting JC ($B = 0.62$, Std error = 0.05), JC predicting CP ($B=0.158$, Std error = 0.049) were entered into an online calculator accessed from *easy calculations .com*. The Sobel test statistic obtained after the calculations was significant ($z = 3.12$, $p<.05$). Thus, the model supported that of a partial mediation. The hypothesis that ‘job crafting will partially mediate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance’ was thus supported by the data of the current study. Summary of the observed mediation model is presented in the path diagram in Figure 2.





Note: $*=p<.05$

Fig. 2: Path diagram showing Job Crafting (JC) as a partial mediator of the relationship between Self Monitoring (SM) and Contextual Performance (CP).

[Where, SM significantly predicted JC ($\beta = .62, p < .05$), JC significantly predicted CP ($\beta = .32, p < .05$), the relationship between SM and CP was partially mediated by JC ($\beta = .32, z = 3.12, p < .05$)].

4.4 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The section presented results of analyses of proposed hypotheses. Out of the five hypotheses, four were supported and one was not. Specifically hypotheses 1, 2, 3 and 5 were supported but hypothesis 4 was not.

The findings are;

1. High self monitors performed better in contextual behaviors than low self monitors
2. There was a significant positive relationship between self monitoring and job crafting.
3. There was a significant positive relationship between job crafting and contextual performance.
4. Educational level, age and sex did not moderate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance.
5. The relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance was partially mediated by job crafting.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The findings of the present study will be discussed in this chapter. The chapter also includes discussions of contributions of the current study to theory, limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, implications for practice and concluding remarks. Discussions are based on theories and past studies.

The study was aimed at examining the relationships between self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance among customer service personnel. More specifically, the objectives were to find out if high self monitors will perform better in contextual behaviours than low self monitors. Secondly, the study sought to find out if self monitoring could predict job crafting and if there was a relationship between job crafting and contextual performance. The study also explored the moderating role of certain demographic characteristics such as educational level, sex and age on the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. Finally, the mediating role

of job crafting on the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance was explored.

Results from the study found that high self monitors perform better contextually than low self monitors. Self monitoring also had a positive relationship with job crafting and significantly predicted job crafting. The relationship between job crafting and contextual performance was also positive with job crafting significantly predicting contextual performance. However, none of the demographic characteristics showed any significant moderation effect on the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. The mediation role of job crafting on the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance was significant. Consequently, the results from the study suggest a different model from the hypothesized one. This is presented in Figure 3 as the observed model.

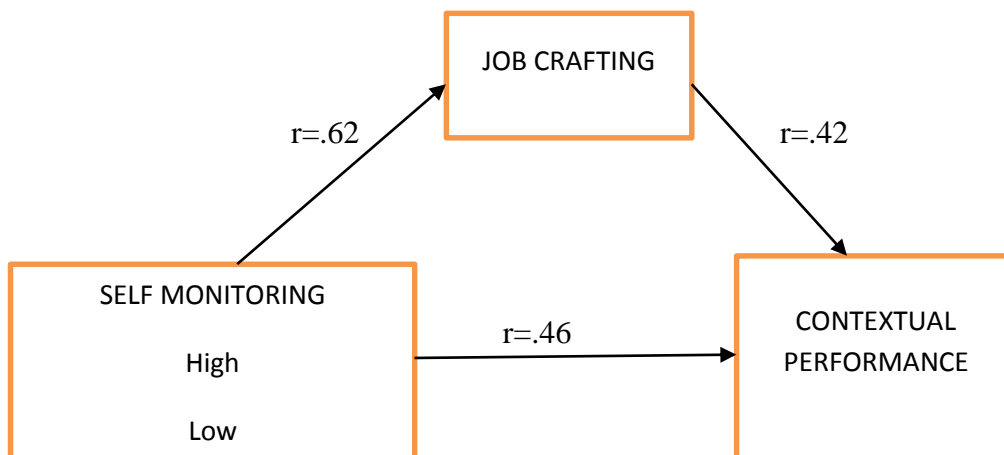


Figure 3: A revised model for the observed relationships between self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance.

Where, self monitoring significantly predicts job crafting and job crafting positively relates with contextual performance. Job crafting mediates the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.2.1 Self Monitoring and Contextual Performance

The first hypothesis that high self monitors would perform better in contextual behaviours than low self monitors was supported by the data of the current study. Previous studies investigated the relationship between self monitoring and performance dimensions such as organizational Citizenship behaviour (OCB) or task performance. Results of such studies normally suggested that people who score high on the self monitoring continuous scale also score high on the continuous performance scale, that is, a positive relationship between the two variables. The present study however, in order to distinguish between high and low self monitors defined individuals who scored 34 and above (high scores) on the self monitoring scale as high self monitors and those scoring below 34 (low scores) as low self monitors. This result is therefore consistent with studies which found a positive relationship between self monitoring and performance and inconsistent with those who find a negative relationship between the two variables.

Consistent with the present results, Vilela, Gonzalez and Ferrin (2010), investigated the direct, indirect and moderating effects of sales persons self monitoring on their organizational citizenship behaviour. Among a sample of 122 supervisors – sales person dyads, Self monitoring predicted organizational citizenship behaviour and moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Similarly, Blakeley, Andrews and Fuller (2003) and Naumann (2008) found positive relationships between self monitoring and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Bizzi and Soda (2011) also found a positive relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. Their result and findings are consistent with the results of the present study. High self monitoring has been associated with several positive organizational outcomes such as job performance and advancement, leadership and individual ability because they are able to ‘get along’ with others (Day & Schleicher, 2006). The success of high self monitors in these job outcomes may be attributed to first of all their inner motivations as well as their abilities, knowledge and interpersonal skills.

According to the Self determination theory, every human is motivated by certain needs. These needs drive individuals to exhibit certain behaviours, and actions in order that, they may achieve the innate psychological needs which enhance their psychological growth. The needs are seeking to control the outcome and experience mastery (Competence), a universal want to interact, be connected to and experience caring from others (Relatedness) and an urge to be causal agent of one’s own life and act in harmony with ones integrated self (Autonomy) (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

High self monitors are motivated by the need to perceive that they are well accepted by others and obtain positive self-affect from self presentation to others (in other words relatedness). They engage in socially desirable behaviours to obtain a favourable social image and recognition (competence) and to win approval from others. Further, high self monitors do not perceive limitations in their social environment but are keen in reading information from the social environment to identify opportunities to express their inner dispositions such as engaging in behaviour which will impress others (autonomy) (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). They tend to help colleagues at work, interact more with others and take on extra work roles in order to present themselves in a positive light towards their supervisors and work mates. Engaging in these actions consequently improves behaviours which support the organizational, social and psychological

contexts in which work is performed i.e. contextual performance (Motowidlo, 1999). High self monitors are therefore seen to perform better than low self monitors due to the contextual behaviours they engage in (Bizzi & Soda, 2011; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994).

According to the individual difference in job performance theory, individual differences in personality enable people whose personality are in line with contextual skills, knowledge and work habit/attitude be more likely to notice that certain patterns of behaviour are more effective in such situations and thus master the adaptive skill, knowledge and work habits/attitudes and exhibit them (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmidt, 1997). High self monitors have a strong sensitivity which enables them identify cues on the appropriate behaviour in the social situations they are involved in. This ability to identify relevant social cues for appropriate behaviour may be what influences their contextual performance. They also know it is important to understand the expectations of the social context in which one behaves in order to be able to contribute to its support and maintenance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; Snyder, 1974). High self monitors also possess the interpersonal skills required to maintain relationships at work and thus foster contextual performance (Day & Schleicher, 2006).

Caligiuri and Day (2000) found mixed results on the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. In a study to find the effects of self monitoring on technical, contextual and assignment specific performance, low self monitors had a better contextual performance when rated by supervisors of a different nationality. However, when rated by supervisors of the same nationality high self monitors had a better contextual performance. High self monitors study the environment for cues. Therefore, if they know what the supervisors' expectations are, then they

can fulfill it through impression management. This might have helped in gaining better performance ratings from supervisors they are familiar with. Since they could not read exactly the expectations of supervisors from other nationals, it was difficult to attract better performance ratings from them through impression management.

5.2.2 Self Monitoring and Job Crafting

The hypothesis there will be a significant positive relationship between self monitoring and job crafting was supported by the data of the present research. This implies that individuals who scored high on the self monitoring scale also scored high on the job crafting scale. The result of the present study is consistent with several other studies which found a positive relationship between certain personality / individual difference variables and job crafting (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012; Bipp & Demerouti, 2014; Tims et al., 2012).

Tims and Bakker (2010) proposed individual differences as antecedents of job crafting practices and cited individual variables such as proactive personality, self efficacy, regulatory focus etc. as examples. Bipp and Demerouti (2014) also explained later that job crafting is a function of individual needs, goals, skills, values, abilities and interests. In effect what Bipp and Demerouti, (2014) meant was that job crafting is shaped by personality.

According to Dutton and Wrzesniewski (2001), job crafting is only performed by individuals who are motivated to do so. The motivation to craft jobs is based on three individual needs which are

need for control over work and its meaning, need for meaningful interaction with others at work and need for fulfillment of passion for an occupation (Berg et al., 2007).

Thus, in line with the Self Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000), high self monitors engage in certain activities which suit their preferences thereby shaping their job. For instance, a customer service personnel may solve a customer's problem by consulting a supervisor other than his/her own supervisor due to the immediate supervisors unavailability in order to impress the customer so that he/she might gain some favours from the customer because of their position in the society. This form of job crafting is task crafting and it involves moving beyond task boundaries at work. Whereas another service personnel might just inform the customer of the supervisors unavailability and his / her inability to solve the problem, a high self monitor would perceive opportunity to impress and gain favour from others beyond any structural limitations. Thus, their need to impress and obtain favours makes them perceive autonomy in every situation. High self monitors also act to impress others so that they are seen in positive light as good people who contribute to the effectiveness of the organization (cognitive crafting) and this fulfill their need for competence. They also impress others to win their approval and be accepted as friends in order to enhance their social interactions (relational crafting) and this fulfill their need for relatedness (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2014).

The result suggests that low self monitors do not engage in job crafting to the same degree as high self monitors. This can be attributed to the fact that they always keep to their values and beliefs and hence are not so much sensitive to the social cues around them. Their motivation is to be who they truly are. They therefore do not engage in activities which impresses others to the same degree as high self monitors do.

Individual differences in personality therefore enable individual with higher scores on the self monitoring scale engage more in activities which fulfills their innate personal needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness by shaping their job boundaries to suit their skill, abilities and knowledge and therefore engage more in job crafting.

5.2.3 Job Crafting and Contextual Performance

The hypothesis that job crafting will positively relate with contextual performance was supported by the data of the present study. This study is consistent with other studies which sought to find the relationship between job crafting and performance dimensions such as organizational citizenship behaviours and task performance (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012; Sussha, 2014; Tims et al., 2013; Tims et al., 2014)

Sussha (2014) examined the impact of job crafting on organizational citizenship behaviour among 396 nurses working in nine Egyptian medical centers. Based on the job demands resources model, multiple regression analysis on the data collected, revealed that relational and task crafting significantly predicted organizational citizenship behaviour.

Tims et al. (2013) also found that team level job crafting related positively with team level job performance and also team level job crafting and individual level job performance. Data for their study was collected among 525 individuals working in 54 teams in an occupational health services firm.

In the study by Tims et al. (2014) employees' performance measure on role task and organizational citizenship behaviour was significantly predicted by their job crafting behaviours. The relationship was mediated by the experience of work engagement. This consequently improved their overall job performance.

The reason why there is a positive relationship between job crafting and contextual performance can be attributed to the fact that, job crafting practices give employees a feeling of wellbeing. They therefore engage in their job crafting because it provides a source of fulfillment making them engage in the job and consequently improves their performance (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012).

Secondly, according to Borman and Motowidlo (1993), contextual activities such as dedication, enthusiasm to complete assigned tasks, helping and supporting others depends to a large extent on individuals' motivation to engage in these activities. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) notes that, only motivated individuals are able to craft their jobs. When individuals are able to fulfill their inner drives through job crafting they feel comfortable in the environment they work in and thus perform better. This is in accordance with the SDT which suggests that humans have an inherent need to grow in the environment they find themselves in and so they learn about their environment and look out for resources in the environment which will enhance growth (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Gagne & Deci, 2005). These resources may be obtained by shaping the boundaries of their job in line with their own preferences, needs abilities etc. (Tims & Bakker, 2010). Once these resources are available they are able to excel in mastering skills and abilities for the job and thus perform well.

5.2.4 Moderation of the relationship between Self Monitoring and Contextual Performance by Educational level, Sex and Age

The hypothesis that educational level, sex and age moderate the relationship between Self monitoring and Contextual performance was not supported by the data of the study. This adds to studies which found no moderating effects of demographics on relationship between job attitudes and performance. There have been a number of mixed findings on the moderating role of educational level, sex and age on the relationship between the self monitoring and contextual performance.

Educational Level

The hypothesis that ‘educational level will moderate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance’ was not supported by the data. This is inconsistent with results of studies by Met and Ali (2014) who found a significant but weak moderating effect of educational level on the relationship between monetary motivation and employees’ job performance.

Educational level has been found to be significantly and positively related to performance dimensions such as task performance, creativity and organizational Citizenship behaviour (Ng & Feldman, 2009). This meant that educational level could be positively related to contextual performance as well. Besides, Day and Schleicher (2006) found self monitoring to be positively related to intellectual (cognitive) ability. According to Berry, Gruys and Sacket (2006), educational level is used as proxy or substitute for cognitive ability hence, it can be said that educational level is positively related to self monitoring.

Educational level can therefore be said to be positively related to both self monitoring and contextual performance and the interaction between self monitoring and educational level on contextual performance should be significant but this assertion was not supported by the study.

This inconsistency can be attributed to the fact that, participants regardless of their educational level occupied similar job positions and hence had similar behaviour patterns dictated by the nature of the work. Hence, educational level could not make any difference in moderating the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. The result notwithstanding its non significant moderating effect, is consistent with findings of other researchers (e.g., Sarmiento, Beale & Knowles, 2007).

Sex

Studies by Day et al. (2002), in a meta analytic investigations found that there were differences in self monitoring responses favouring males towards high self monitoring than females. They suggested that this could explain why there is a glass ceiling phenomena for women and that men are able to get to the top due to their ability to behave in social desirable ways. Since contextual performance has to do with behaviour in the social context, high self monitoring has been positively associated with it because it the ability to behave according the dictates of the social context (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). This implies that if the average self monitoring scores of males were higher than that of females then the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance should be stronger when participants are males than when they are females. This assertion was however not supported by data of the study. The result is however consistent with other related studies and yet contradictory to others (e.g., Nasir et al., 2001).

Shirom et al. (2008) in a related study investigated the moderating role of gender, age and tenure on the relationship between certain job attitudes and job performance. Results from their study revealed no moderating effect of gender.

Consistent with the results, Tiraieyari and Uli (2011) investigated the moderating effect of gender and organizational tenure on the relationship between competency and performance. Data was gathered from 210 Malaysian employees. Results of their study also showed no moderating effect of gender on the relationship.

Contextual performance has been conceptualized as Organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Borman & Motowidlo, 2009; Van Scotter, 2000). This implies that conceptually, they are similar. Van Scotter and Motowidlo (2009) separated contextual performance into two main facets; interpersonal facilitation which include behaviours such as helping others, showing concern for others, cooperation etc. and job dedication which involves taking initiative at work, perseverance on the job, abiding by rules and regulations etc. Similarly, OCB can be separated into altruism and civic virtue. Altruism has to do with helping others in the organization while civic virtue involves showing dedication, assertiveness and following rules and procedures in the organization (Organ, 1988; Uzonwanne, 2014). Heilman and Chen (2005) have associated altruism with female gender stereotypes prescriptions of helping and being socially oriented and civic virtue has been associated with male gender stereotype of assertiveness. This implies that males and females differ in the types of OCB they exhibit but do not differ in the general OCB they exhibit. Similarly, there may be differences in the types of contextual performance exhibited by both males and females but both sexes may not differ in the general contextual behaviour performed. This might have accounted for the non significant moderation effect of sex on the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance.

Age

Age has been found to predict self monitoring (Reifman, Klein & Murphy, 1989) with younger individuals scoring higher on the self monitoring scale. This has been attributed to the fact that as people grow, they become more stable and live by their values other than trying to please others. This reasoning therefore grants an understanding that if self monitoring is related with contextual performance and organizational citizenship behaviour, then the interaction between self monitoring and age should have either strengthen or weaken effects on performance. However, studies by Met and Ali (2014), showed only a moderate moderation effect on the relationship between monetary motivation and employees job performance.

Studies by Shirom et al. (2008), found the mean age of participants to moderate the relationship between role ambiguity and job performance.

The discrepancies between the present results and that of previous studies may be attributed to the fact that both the old and the young are trying to put up behaviours which will please their employers in order to secure their jobs due to the unavailability of employment opportunities in the job market.

Secondly, the discrepancy may be attributed to the fact that the number of older adults (41 years and above) sampled constituted only about 9% of the sample whereas the younger adults group (20 – 40 years) constituted about 91% of the total sample (refer to Table 3.1). The percentage of older adults who participated in the study was far lesser than the younger adults. To this effect, the differences in performance brought about by age could not be validated by the study.

5.2.5 Job Crafting as mediator of the relationship between Self Monitoring and Contextual Performance

The fifth and last hypothesis was to find out if job crafting partially mediate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. More specifically, it was to find out if individuals high on self monitoring contextually performed better than individuals low on self monitoring because they engage more in job crafting activities. The results show that job crafting significantly but partially mediated the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. This means that individuals high on self monitoring engage in job crafting which to some extent improves their contextual performance. The result is discussed within the framework of the Self determination theory and theory of individual difference in job performance.

According to Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) job crafting is a psychological, social and physical act in which cues are read about the boundaries of work and are interpreted by motivated crafters. Thus certain kinds of people are able to read the boundaries at work and thereby make changes in their job than others. Previous studies have supported the fact that there are individual differences in job crafting (e.g., Bakker et al., 2012; Bipp & Demerouti, 2014; Tims et al., 2012). High self monitors are deemed to be sensitive and receptive to social informational cues from the environment (Bizzi & Soda, 2011). Hence they are more able to observe physical boundaries of the job and interpret which areas could be shaped to their advantage to fulfill their inner psychological needs. In line with the Self Determination Theory, high self-monitors are motivated by the need to perceive that they are accepted by others, engage in socially desirable behaviours to obtain a favourable social image and recognition and to win approval from others and do not perceive structural boundaries as limitations and thus control their work situations (Bizzi & Soda,

2011; Gagne & Deci, 2005). These needs as described by the Self Determination theory are similar to the motivations to engage in job crafting motivations (Slomp & Vella-Brodrick, 2014). Once individuals are able to shape the boundaries of their job they obtain a feeling of wellbeing which is associated with improved job performance (Slomp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013, 2014).

According to the Self Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000) and results obtained in the present study, therefore, job crafting does not entirely explain the effect of self monitoring on contextual performance. It is not only the feeling of wellbeing obtained through job crafting which enables high self monitors to engage in contextual performance. The social motivation of high self monitors (need to engage in impression management) in itself enables them to engage in contextual behaviors such as helping others thereby influencing their contextual performance. Thus, job crafting can only partially, mediate the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance.

The theory of individual difference in job performance suggests that, individual differences in personality enable people whose personality are in line with contextual skills, knowledge and work habit/attitude be more likely to notice that certain patterns of behaviour are more effective in such situations and thus master the adaptive skill, knowledge and work habits/attitudes and exhibit them (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmidt, 1997). High self monitors have been noted to possess an ability to sense important contextual cues from the environment and the interpersonal skill of behaving appropriately (example being pleasurable and collaborative) in accordance to the social cues observed (Bizzi & Soda, 2011).

The theory further explains that individual differences allow some people adapt to these skills, knowledge and work habits in line with their basic tendencies and experiences (characteristic

adaptation) which enable them to engage in contextual behaviours. Thus, these skills, knowledge and work habit mediate the relationship between their personality and contextual performance (Motowidlo, Borman & Schmidt, 1997). These adaptations in skills, knowledge and work habits can be defined in terms of job crafting (Bakker et al., 2012; Tims & Bakker, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Therefore, it can be said that job crafting (characteristic adaptation) could mediate the relationship between personality and contextual performance (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Since individual differences in self monitoring allow some individual (high self monitors) to sense contextual cues and act accordingly by adapting to contextual dictates of the job (job crafting), it can be said that job crafting mediates the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance.

5.3 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS / RECOMMENDATIONS

Result of the study indicates that the self monitoring personality variable, as well as, job crafting are important in predicting performance of personnel at work and that personality and job crafting studies should not be undermined in industrial and organizational psychological research and practice.

The findings indicate that individuals who are high on self monitoring are able to engage more in contextual behaviours. This implies that, due to individual difference, some employees may not be able to fit into job positions which requires sensitivity to others need as not everyone is able to sense the needs of others and act accordingly to the situational demands. Some people are able to relate with others better than others and so in customer service jobs people with the 'right personality' such as high self monitors who are able to act in order to fulfill contextual demands should be placed at such positions as customers often judge performance by personnel's contextual

behaviours (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Nimako et al., 2010; Ocloo & Dzisah, 2013; Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). Secondly, according to Motowidlo et al. (1997), training may enhance contextual behaviours few days after the training session but personnel will only revert to their old ways of doing things based on their personality. Additionally, O'Farrell and Nordstrom (2013), argues that personality characteristics are very stable and as such it is difficult to change a persons' personality via short term training. Contextual performance is a function of personality (Motowidlo et al., 1997) as such, institutions which aim at improving their contextual performance must do so by placing individuals with the appropriate personality characteristics at the right job positions.

The study also revealed that employees sometimes take certain initiatives on their own by shaping their jobs to suit their interests and goals. The extent to which employees engage in these activities (shaping their jobs) is also dependent on their personality (Bipp & Demerouti, 2014; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). An additional advantage of recruiting customer service personnel based on their ability to act according to contextual demands is that, as the study found, such individuals are also able to engage in job crafting and hence able to move beyond structural boundaries at work to solve problems for customers and thereby perform better contextually.

Another implication of the study is that job crafting behaviours directly predicts contextual behaviours and so apart from recruiting personnel with the appropriate personality characteristics who can exhibit contextual behaviour over longer periods, supervisors can indirectly encourage particular goals for personnel in order to influence their job crafting behaviours (Bipp & Demerouti, 2014) by giving them assignments which requires the need to alter their jobs over short periods. This also implies that a certain amount of autonomy may be given to personnel in order

to improve their job crafting behaviours (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). When job crafting behaviours are encouraged in this manner, personnel will consequently be able to help customers by solving their problems in the absence of their supervisors and thereby improve their contextual performance.

In summary, employees do differ in their values, preferences, skills abilities and knowledge and therefore should not be treated the same way when it comes to placement at job positions or with regards to their job characteristics (Bipp, 2010; Bipp & Demerouti, 2014). Hence, placement decisions based on personality characteristics as well as goal setting by employees are important in enhancing human resource performance (Bakker et al., 2012).

5.4 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

Theoretically, the study made use of the Self Determination theory to explore the relationships among self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance. By using this theory the cognitive aspect of job crafting was included in the investigations. Researchers who explore the relationship between personality, job crafting and performance have done so using the Job demands characteristics model which limited their studies because the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model does not allow the inclusion of cognitive crafting.

The study has also contributed and extended research on personality and job crafting. The study, by using the SDT has been able to establish a relationship between self monitoring and job crafting. Even though several personality constructs have been investigated and established as antecedents of job crafting, this study corroborated earlier findings and thus established self monitoring personality as an antecedent to job crafting.

Again, this research adds to literature and theory on contextual performance by establishing that a possible mechanism through which self monitoring predicts contextual performance is through job crafting. Several studies have been carried out to investigate the relationship between personality variables and contextual performance (Day & Schleicher, 2006). These studies have only yielded modest and even negative personality-performance relationship results (e.g., Gellantly & Irving, 2009) even though Motowildo et al. (1997) has established that personality is an important predictor of contextual performance. There was therefore a need to investigate the possible mechanism through which personality could predict contextual performance. This was successfully attained using the Self Determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Furthermore, the research has established a relationship between job crafting and contextual performance. This contributes to literature on both job crafting and contextual performance by establishing job crafting as an antecedent of contextual performance and contextual performance as an outcome of job crafting. Previous studies only established relationships between job crafting and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) (e.g., Sussha, 2014).

5.5 STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study employed six organizations from three different kinds of institutions namely, telecommunications, utility and financial institutions. This makes it possible for findings to be generalized across these institutions as previous studies on related constructs focused on using single organizations.

As with other studies, there are a few limitations of this study. First and foremost has to do with culture and the use of instruments standardized on western samples. Most of the scales employed in this study were scales which have been developed and used in western countries. As such, a pilot study was conducted to check for clarity of items which yielded positive results (Polit, Beck & Hungler, 2001). The reliabilities obtained for the scales all had coefficient scores above 0.78 which was deemed appropriate (Wells & Wollack, 2003). However, participants might have interpreted items based on their cultural beliefs and values.

The second limitation has to do with the use of self report in obtaining data for the self monitoring and job crafting scales. Participants of survey studies normally try to answer questions based on social desirability. That is they answer questions based on what they think is socially acceptable especially when they think their responses may be seen by their managers or employers (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). This is especially true where the coordination of the data collection process in the various organizations employed were done by the human resource department. This might have affected the results of the study in one way or the other.

The study employed the use of a cross sectional research design. The use of the cross sectional design only allows for association or relationships to be established among the study variables. This design does not establish a cause – effect relationship and so limits the generalizability of the study to the real world experience.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Theoretically the job crafting construct is made of three different sub constructs; task crafting, relational crafting and cognitive crafting. These three dimensions according to Tims and Bakker

(2010) may be predicted by different antecedent and the sub constructs in turn may predict different outcomes. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) in presenting the job crafting model did not specify the assertion made by Tims and Bakker (2010) as such most studies on job crafting including the present research combined the sub dimensions of job crafting as a single construct. Future studies can investigate the different dimensions separately.

Secondly, the study as with several other studies focused on high self monitoring and its positive relationship with contextual performance. Future studies can focus on low self monitoring and their positive relationships with job performance in non boundary spanning jobs as these jobs require that personnel have established values and stable behaviours (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Mehra & Schenkel, 2008).

The study established relationships between self monitoring and job crafting as well as job crafting and contextual performance. Future research can investigate possible intervening variables between these relationships. According to Berg & Dutton (2010), the ability to craft a job may be moderated by the economic status of employees, their job position, and structure of the job etc... Therefore, the moderating influence of the structure of the job, job position of employees as well as pay of the employees can be explored between self monitoring and job crafting as well as between job crafting and contextual performance.

With regards to the methodology, the cross sectional survey used due to time constraints might have affected the results in one way or the other. This is because the research involved a personality construct and as noted by O'Farrell and Nordstrom (2013), studies associated with personality within short time periods are ineffective. As such the study can be replicated using longitudinal studies.

The present study used participants from both the public and private sectors which could confound results of the study. As such future studies should aim at comparing these relationships in a comparative study between the public and private sectors. Future research should also improve on the sample size used by employing larger sample size. Further, to avoid socially desirable answers from participants and ensuring confidentiality, future studies could employ the use of online surveys. This way there is certainty that answers provided by participants are devoid of conformity and expectations of others. Another benefit of the online survey is that it saves time and resources used in moving from one organization to the other.

5.7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study was aimed at exploring the relationships between self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance. The moderating role of educational level, age and sex was also investigated. Using a sample size of two hundred and fifty four (254), from three institutions, the correlational survey design was used in collecting data. Results obtained using the independent t-test and the hierarchical multiple regressions and revealed that a significant positive relationship existed self monitoring and job crafting, job crafting and contextual performance while job crafting mediated the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance. High self monitors were also found to perform contextually better than low self monitors. Level of education, age and sex however, did not show any significant moderating effects on the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance.

The implication of the study is that self monitoring, job crafting and contextual performance are important factors which cannot be undermined at the workplace. As such, recruitment and job

placement decisions may be based on applicant's self monitoring personality which may predict their job crafting abilities and consequently their contextual behaviours if employers expect their employees to perform well in especially jobs which require the exhibition of contextual behaviours such as customer service jobs (Huang & Ryan, 2011). As contributions to literature, the study established relationships between self monitoring and job crafting as well as job crafting and contextual performance. It also established job crafting as a partial mediator of the relationship between self monitoring and contextual performance.

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UNIVERSITY OF GHANA

ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR THE HUMANITIES (ECH)

P. O. Box LG 74, Legon, Accra, Ghana

My Ref. No.....

17th March, 2015

Ms. Linda Akoto
Department of Psychology
University of Ghana
Legon

Dear Ms. Akoto,

ECH 046/14-15: SELF MONITORING, JOB CRAFTING AND CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE AMONG CUSTOMER SERVICE PERSONNEL

This is to advise you that the above reference study has been presented to the Ethics Committee for the Humanities for a full board review and the following actions taken subject to the conditions and explanation provided below:

Expiry Date: 3/09/15
On Agenda for: Initial Submission
Date of Submission:: 17/02/15
ECH Action: Approved
Reporting: Quarterly



Please accept my congratulations.

Yours Sincerely,

Rev. Prof. J. O. Y. Mante
ECH Chair

CC: Prof. C. C Mate- Kole, Dept of Psychology

Tel: +233-303933866

Email: ech@isser.edu.gh

Appendix II

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

This survey concerns activities you engage in daily as you interact with clients, customers, co worker and other business partners. The questionnaire is in four main sections, A – D. *You are kindly requested to answer sections A - C. Section D may be answered by any of your work colleagues.* It will take less than 15 minutes to fill. Your name is not required and the information you give will be treated as strictly confidential and used for academic analysis only.

To answer kindly tick or write in the appropriate space provided. All answers will be treated with high importance.

Section A: DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Age (years): Below 18 (), 18 – 25 (), 26 – 30 (), 31- 40 () 41- 50 (), 50 and above ()
2. Sex: Male (), Female ()
3. Type of Organization; Utility (), Telecommunication(), Financial institution()
4. Educational Level: J.H.S (), S.H.S (), Polytechnic (), University ()
5. Number of years/months worked in the organization.....

Section C: JOB CRAFTING QUESTIONNAIRE

Please indicate the extent to which the following behaviors correspond to your own behavior at work using the following scale: 1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Moderately Disagree 4. Moderately Agree 5. Agree 6. Strongly Agree

NO.	Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	I often introduce new approaches to improve my work						
2	I often change the types of tasks that I complete at work						
3	I often introduce new work tasks that suit my skill/interest.						
4	I often choose to take on additional tasks at work						
5	I usually give preference to work tasks that suit my skills or interests						
6	I usually think about how my job gives my life purpose						
7	I often remind myself about the significance my work has for the success of the organization						
8	I usually remind myself of the importance of my work for the broader community						
9	I often think about the ways in which my work positively impacts my life						
10	I usually reflect on the role my job has for my overall well-being						
11	I often make an effort to get to know people well at work						
12	I organize special events in the workplace (e.g., celebrating a co-worker's birthday						
13	I often choose to mentor new employees (officially or unofficially						
14	I usually make friends with people at work who have similar skills or interests						
15	I usually attend work related social functions						

Section B: SELF MONITORING QUESTIONNAIRE

Kindly answer the following questions using the scale below

1. Always False 2. Generally False 3. Somehow False 4. Somehow True 5. Generally True 6. Always True

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	In social situations I have the ability to alter my behaviour if I feel that something else is called for						
2	I have the ability to control the way I come across to people, depending on the kind of impression I want to give them						
3	When I feel that the image I am portraying isn't working, I can readily change it to something else						
4	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations						
5	I have found that I can adjust my behavior to meet the requirement of any situation I find myself in.						
6	I have difficulty putting up a good front even when it might be to my advantage,						
7	Once I know what the situation calls for it is easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly						
8	I am often able to read peoples true emotions correctly through their eyes						
9	In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person I'm conversing with						
10	My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding others emotions and motives						
11	I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in a bad taste even though they may laugh convincingly						
12	I can usually tell when I have said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener eyes						

13	If someone is lying to me, I usually know it at once from that person's manner of expression.						
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Section D: CONTEXTUAL BEHAVIOUR

This section is to be answered by a colleague. Answers will be treated with confidentiality.

Please indicate the extent to which the following behaviors correspond to your *colleague's* behavior at work using the following scale

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Neutral 4. Agree 5. Strongly Agree

No.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1	Often praise coworkers when they are successful					
2	Usually support or encourage a co worker when he/she has a personal problem					
3	Often talk to others before taking actions that might affect them					
4	Usually say things that make people feel good about themselves or the work group					
5	Encourage others to overcome their differences and get along					
6	Often treat others as they deserve					
7	Often help others without being asked to					
8	Usually put in extra effort to get work done on time					
9	Often pay close attention to important details					
10	Often work harder than necessary					
11	Usually ask for challenging work assignments					
12	Usually exercise personal discipline and self control					
13	Often take the initiation to solve work problems					
14	Often persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task					
15	Usually tackle difficult work assignments enthusiastically					

Appendix: III – SPSS OUTPUT FOR THE VARIOUS TABLES**Reliability Output for Self monitoring****Case Processing Summary**

		N	%
Cases	Valid	20	90.9
	Excluded ^a	2	9.1
	Total	22	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.806	13

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 1	3.9500	1.05006	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 2	4.0000	1.07606	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 3	3.5500	1.27630	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 4	3.0000	1.33771	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 5	4.0500	1.05006	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 6	3.6000	1.23117	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 7	4.2000	.69585	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 8	2.8500	1.13671	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 9	3.5000	1.43270	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 10	3.4000	1.39170	20

SELF MONITORING QUESTION 11	3.7000	1.26074	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 12	3.8000	1.10501	20
SELF MONITORING QUESTION 13	3.6500	1.18210	20

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	20	90.9
	Excluded ^a	2	9.1
	Total	22	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.914	15

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 1	3.5500	1.31689	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 2	2.5500	1.73129	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 3	3.2000	1.43637	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 4	3.6500	1.30888	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 5	2.9000	1.74416	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 6	3.9500	1.35627	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 7	4.3500	.93330	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 8	4.2000	1.00525	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 9	4.2000	1.00525	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 10	3.9500	1.19097	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 11	3.9500	1.05006	20

JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 12	2.0500	1.53811	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 13	2.9500	1.46808	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 14	3.5000	1.31789	20
JOB CRAFTING QUESTION 15	3.7000	1.08094	20

Reliability output for Contextual Performance

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	20	90.9
	Excluded ^a	2	9.1
	Total	22	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.880	15

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 1	3.2000	.69585	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 2	3.3000	.57124	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 3	3.0500	.60481	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 4	3.1000	.64072	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 5	3.0500	.68633	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 6	2.7000	.92338	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 7	2.6000	1.09545	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 8	3.2500	.44426	20

CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 9	3.2000	.89443	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 10	3.1500	.87509	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 11	3.1500	.81273	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 12	3.0500	.82558	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 13	2.9500	.60481	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 14	2.9000	.64072	20
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE QUESTION 15	2.9000	.96791	20

Descriptive Statistics Output

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
SELF MONITORING	254	10.00	65.00	42.3661	11.77069	-.337	.153	-.806	.304
JOB CRAFTING	254	14.00	83.00	50.8189	11.91897	-.061	.153	-.195	.304
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE	254	19.00	63.00	43.8425	8.34666	-.136	.153	-.182	.304
Valid N (listwise)	254								

Output for correlations –Hypothesis three and four**Correlations**

		TENURE	SELF MONITORING	JOB CRAFTING	CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANC E
TENURE	Pearson Correlation	1	-.255**	-.115	-.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.066	.564
	N	254	254	254	254
SELF MONITORING	Pearson Correlation	-.255**	1	.615**	.462**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	254	254	254	254
JOB CRAFTING	Pearson Correlation	-.115	.615**	1	.424**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.066	.000		.000
	N	254	254	254	254
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE	Pearson Correlation	-.036	.462**	.424**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.564	.000	.000	
	N	254	254	254	254

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

Output for hypothesis one – t-test –hypothesis one**Group Statistics**

	SELFMONITOR	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CONTEXTUAL	HIGH SELF MONITOR	187	45.8984	7.42818	.54320
PERFORMANCE	LOW SELF MONITOR	67	38.1045	8.13361	.99368

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper	
		CP	Equal variances assumed	.313	.576	7.184	252	.000	7.79392	1.08485	5.65739
	Equal variances not assumed			6.882	107.920	.000	7.79392	1.13246	5.54917	10.038677	

Output for hypothesis four – Dichotomous Age moderation

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.462 ^a	.214	.210	6.92235	.214	68.415	1	252	.000
2	.462 ^b	.214	.207	6.93586	.000	.019	1	251	.891
3	.463 ^c	.214	.205	6.94764	.000	.150	1	250	.699

a. Predictors: (Constant), CSM

b. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, YADULT

c. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, YADULT, SMYADULT

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3278.384	1	3278.384	68.415	.000 ^b
	Residual	12075.560	252	47.919		
	Total	15353.944	253			
2	Regression	3279.297	2	1639.649	34.084	.000 ^c
	Residual	12074.646	251	48.106		
	Total	15353.944	253			
3	Regression	3286.526	3	1095.509	22.696	.000 ^d
	Residual	12067.418	250	48.270		
	Total	15353.944	253			

a. Dependent Variable: CCP

b. Predictors: (Constant), CSM

c. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, YADULT

d. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, YADULT, SMYADULT

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	27.963	1.626		17.203	.000
	CSM	.331	.040	.462	8.271	.000
2	(Constant)	27.792	2.051		13.553	.000
	CSM	.331	.040	.461	8.211	.000
	YADULT	.210	1.522	.008	.138	.891
3	(Constant)	25.915	5.267		4.920	.000
	CSM	.383	.140	.534	2.728	.007
	YADULT	2.271	5.542	.084	.410	.682
	SMYADULT	-.057	.147	-.112	-.387	.699

a. Dependent Variable: CCP

Output for hypothesis four – dichotomous educational level moderation

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.462 ^a	.214	.210	6.92235	.214	68.415	1	252	.000
2	.466 ^b	.217	.211	6.92039	.004	1.143	1	251	.286
3	.472 ^c	.222	.213	6.91084	.005	1.694	1	250	.194

a. Predictors: (Constant), CSM

b. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, DEGREE

c. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, DEGREE, SMDEGREE

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3278.384	1	3278.384	68.415	.000 ^b
	Residual	12075.560	252	47.919		
	Total	15353.944	253			
2	Regression	3333.119	2	1666.559	34.798	.000 ^c
	Residual	12020.825	251	47.892		
	Total	15353.944	253			
3	Regression	3414.014	3	1138.005	23.828	.000 ^d
	Residual	11939.930	250	47.760		
	Total	15353.944	253			

a. Dependent Variable: CCP

b. Predictors: (Constant), CSM

c. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, DEGREE

d. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, DEGREE, SMDEGREE

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	27.963	1.626		17.203	.000
	CSM	.331	.040	.462	8.271	.000
2	(Constant)	27.400	1.708		16.038	.000
	CSM	.329	.040	.459	8.208	.000
	DEGREE	.982	.919	.060	1.069	.286
3	(Constant)	30.136	2.708		11.130	.000
	CSM	.258	.068	.359	3.795	.000
	DEGREE	-3.257	3.384	-.198	-.962	.337
	SMDEGREE	.109	.084	.290	1.301	.194

a. Dependent Variable: CCP

Output for hypothesis four – dichotomous sex moderation**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.462 ^a	.214	.210	6.92235	.214	68.415	1	252	.000
2	.462 ^b	.214	.207	6.93599	.000	.010	1	251	.922
3	.472 ^c	.222	.213	6.91062	.009	2.846	1	250	.093

a. Predictors: (Constant), CSM

b. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, MALE

c. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, MALE, SMMALE

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3278.384	1	3278.384	68.415	.000 ^b
	Residual	12075.560	252	47.919		
	Total	15353.944	253			
2	Regression	3278.851	2	1639.425	34.078	.000 ^c
	Residual	12075.093	251	48.108		
	Total	15353.944	253			
3	Regression	3414.787	3	1138.262	23.835	.000 ^d
	Residual	11939.157	250	47.757		
	Total	15353.944	253			

a. Dependent Variable: CCP

b. Predictors: (Constant), CSM

c. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, MALE

d. Predictors: (Constant), CSM, MALE, SMMALE

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	27.963	1.626		17.203	.000
	CSM	.331	.040	.462	8.271	.000
2	(Constant)	27.989	1.650		16.967	.000
	CSM	.332	.040	.462	8.244	.000
	MALE	-.087	.887	-.006	-.098	.922
3	(Constant)	26.199	1.956		13.392	.000
	CSM	.378	.049	.527	7.775	.000
	MALE	5.632	3.503	.356	1.608	.109
	SMMALE	-.145	.086	-.383	-1.687	.093

a. Dependent Variable: CCP

Output for hypothesis five – mediation analysis

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	29.961	1.742		17.203	.000
	SELF MONITORING	.328	.040	.462	8.271	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	24.444	2.212		11.052	.000
	SELF MONITORING	.623	.050	.615	12.374	.000

a. Dependent Variable: JOB CRAFTING

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	28.752	2.085		13.789	.000
	JOB CRAFTING	.297	.040	.424	7.433	.000

a. Dependent Variable: CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	26.109	2.083		12.532	.000
	SELF MONITORING	.230	.049	.324	4.656	.000
	JOB CRAFTING	.158	.049	.225	3.235	.001

a. Dependent Variable: CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE