

**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY**



**THE INFLUENCE OF PERSONALITY TRAITS AND
ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON PROACTIVE BEHAVIOUR
AMONG AVIATION SECURITY PERSONNEL AT THE KOTOKA
INTERNATIONAL AIRPORT, ACCRA, GHANA**

BY

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DEGREE**

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DECLARATION

I, Osei Yaw Sarfo, hereby declare that this thesis has been conducted by me under the supervision of Dr. Benjamin Amponsah and Dr. Inusah Abdul-Nasiru. This thesis has never in its present form, or in any other form, been presented to any other examining body for the award of any degree. Where the views and ideas of others have been used, they have been duly acknowledged. I therefore take responsibility for any inaccuracies and shortcomings, which may be detected in this thesis.

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He has made everything beautiful in its time. He has also set eternity in the human heart; yet no one can fathom what God has done from beginning to end. I thank the Lord Almighty who has been the source of my strength.

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To my friends and colleagues your support, time and effort in the contributed will never be forgotten. May God reward you.

Finally to all the participants of this study and Ghana Airports Company Limited (GACL) that granted me access to conduct this research, for your warm and receptive nature may your resources never run short.

DEDICATION

This is dedicated to my late parents, family and friends whose continuous prayers, love and support have made this thesis a reality and to all Aviation Security staff of Ghana Airports Company Limited. I could not have done it without your input. God bless you all.

ABSTRACT

Threats to security at airports have become a serious global menace affecting various economies around the world. Ghana will be no exception if measures are not taken to avert such threats. This research assesses proactive behaviour among security personnel in the aviation industry in Ghana. The study also sought to assess the role personality traits and organisational culture play in predicting proactive behaviour among the study participants. Participants for this study were security personnel working under Ghana Airport Company Limited at the Kotoka International Airport in Accra. A cross-sectional survey was carried out. The study used a convenience sample of 120 participants, majority of whom were above age 30. Participants completed a questionnaire on the Big Five Inventory, Proactive Behaviour Scale and Organisational Culture Scale. A hierarchical multiple regression was used to analyse the data. Results show that personality trait and organisational culture predict proactive behaviour. The results further reveal that three domains of personality trait (extraversion, neuroticism and openness) predict proactive behaviour but agreeableness and conscientiousness do not. Also, it was observed from the results that all the domains of organisational culture except teamwork predicted proactive behaviour. Based on the research findings, theoretical and practical implications are discussed as well as limitations and suggestions for future research.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background of Study

1.0.1 Proactive Behaviour

The nature of work has undergone numerous transformations, which are evident in infrastructure, technology and work processes. It is therefore essential that organisations rely on the proactive contributions of their employees (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008). Thus, employee proactivity has developed into a general concern in today's unpredictable and interdependent work environments (Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). Traditional models of performance that require employees to follow laid down instructions, task descriptions, and orders are inadequate in our contemporary work environment. As a result, it is incumbent on organisations to encourage a corporate environment susceptible to proactive work behaviour. A number of organisations have been kicked out of business due to their lack of proactivity. These companies were kicked out of the race because they failed to move ahead. A notable example is a powerful mobile phone brand in the 90s and early 2000s, Nokia. Nokia has now been acquired by one of the top companies in the technology industry, Microsoft. During the press conference to announce Nokia being acquired by Microsoft, Nokia CEO ended his speech by saying that Nokia didn't do anything wrong, but somehow the company lost. Although Nokia may not have done anything wrong, but they were too comfortable. In the middle of abrupt changes and developments in the industry, Nokia was unable to keep up. This shows that Nokia, once a respected brand, missed out on learning and keeping up with the fast changes in the field of technology, hence they lost. This teaches us that, it is not enough to just follow the rules of the game but to anticipate, be forward looking and be ready to adapt to any changes or advancements that surface along the way.

Crant (2000) conceptualized proactive behaviour as taking an initiative to improve current situations or initiating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to current conditions. Grant and Ashford (2008) also referred to proactive behaviour as anticipatory action that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environments. Moreover, it is agreed among some researchers (e.g., Frese, 2006; Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996) that anticipating and looking forward are core dimensions of proactive behaviour as highlighted by some renowned organisational scholars. This is because the shift from production economies to knowledge economies has necessitated the need for employees to engage in proactive behaviour to promote creativity, innovation, and change (Crant, 2000; Parker, 2000; Unsworth, 2001; Frese & Fay, 2001; Rank et al., 2004; Shalley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004; Howell, 2005). Organisational research on the precursors and repercussions of proactive behaviour has surfaced in several different literatures and has taken different viewpoints toward defining, measuring, and comprehending proactivity. Many practitioner-oriented publications argue that managers should be more proactive on the job, and that proactive behaviour is an increasingly important component of job performance (Crant, 2000).

As such, researchers are proposing both individual differences and contextual factors as antecedents to proactive work behaviour (e.g. Crant, 2000; Parker, Bindl & Strauss, 2010). With regards to individual differences, there is the need to consider the personality traits of the individual. A considerable number of researches show consistent positive relationships between proactive personality and two of the components of the big five personality traits: conscientiousness and extraversion (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 1995; Crant & Bateman, 2000). On the other hand, contextual factors such as job control (Sonnetag & Spychala, 2012), work engagement (Caesens et al., 2016) and leadership (Unsworth & Parker, 2003) have been investigated and proven to have positive influence on proactive

behaviour. Proactivity is undoubtedly beneficial for organisations, as Kirkman and Rosen (1999) found that proactive teams experience higher levels of job satisfaction as compared to less proactive ones. Ashford and Black (1996) also found proactive work behaviour to be positively related to individual job satisfaction. Essentially, it has also been recorded to result in increased organisational effectiveness (Bateman & Crant, 1999). Proactivity appears to be related to a good number of desirable behaviour that encourage efficiency, effectiveness and safety in the work arena. Research also shows that, people who exhibit proactive behaviour are more successful over the course of their careers because they use initiative and acquire greater understanding of how politics works within companies (Seibert, 1999; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001).

1.0.2 Personality traits and proactive behaviour

According to Denham (2010), personality is conceptualized as the distinguishing qualities or characteristics that are the embodiment of an individual. They are one's habitual patterns of behaviour, temperament and emotion. The big five model has been used to explain personality and why people behave the way they do and why they react differently to various situations. The big five personality traits are: *Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism*. Openness refers to traits such as how disposed a person is to comply with societal or cultural norms, how concretely or abstractly someone thinks about things, and how open someone is to accept or be resistant to change. A person who is a creative thinker and is always looking for avenues to do things better would likely score high on measures of openness. Conscientiousness has to do with a person's degree of organisation, level of discipline, and how prone he or she is to taking risks. Extraversion is a personality characteristic that describes things like how social a person is or how warm, caring and loving they tend to be. Extraverts are people who would typically prefer to go out to parties and places of fun with lots of friends, contrary to staying in and watching a

movie with one or two friends at home. Agreeableness takes into account how kind, dependable, and cooperative a person is. People who score high on scales of agreeableness are typically more interested in doing things for the common or greater good, rather than fulfilling or satisfying their own self-interests or desires. Neuroticism is a personality characteristic that describes how nervous or anxious a person tends to be, as well as the degree of self-confidence and self-contentment that the individual possesses. Individuals who score high on levels of neuroticism will often be preoccupied with the 'what ifs' of life. They tend to be worrisome and preoccupied with things that might not be within their control or influence.

The notion of individual differences informs us that, two individuals carrying out the same functions will behave or react differently towards various situations. These individual differences we experience in our daily lives are as a result of personality traits.

1.0.3 Organisational Culture and Proactive behaviour

Organisational culture is an example of a contextual factor that influences the proactive behaviour of an individual in an organisation. This concept looks at the way of life of a group of people in an organisation. These are also referred to as the traditions of the people in an organisation after a long period of time; or a system of shared assumptions, values, and beliefs, which govern how people behave in organisations. These shared values have a strong and significant influence on the individuals in the organisation and dictate how they dress, act, and perform their jobs or various duties in the organisation. Every organisation develops and maintains a unique culture, which provides guidelines and boundaries for the behaviour of the members of the organisation. Corporate or organisational cultures are viewed as very powerful even though many organisations may not even realize that they have one because the management of the organisation may not have put it into thought. The

values were just formulated around the founders and core personalities in the organisation. In contrast, other companies pay much attention to it and take time to plan, strategize and develop their culture in order to promote certain values, attitudes and beliefs, such as having proactive workers. Feigenbaum (2017) argues that, a work or organisational culture where there is empowerment of workers to become the best and excel in every duty or activity, effective communication between managers and employees, support and reinforcement of employees upon excellent or outstanding performance and an ideal culture where employees are given the opportunity to think freely and think ahead, promotes proactivity of employees in the organisation.

With respect to the security sector, some scholars (Hints et al., 2009; Kean et al., 2004; Prenzler & Sarre, 2008) recommend that intelligence agencies be on the lookout and anticipate threats to annihilate them before they become detrimental. The Kean Commission, investigators assigned to the 9/11 attack, advised that security personnel should be proactive and aggressive (Kean et al., 2004) in its activities.

Earlier research on proactive behaviour described the construct as an extra role (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The key criterion for identifying proactive behaviour is not whether it is in-role or extra-role, but rather whether the employee anticipates, plans for, attempts to and is willing to create a future outcome that has an impact on the self or the environment (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007; Parker et al., 2006).

The focus is not always on what is done but how it is done. Routine jobs can also be executed in a proactive manner. In other words, proactive behaviour can also be an in-role phenomenon (Crant, 2000) as organisations today are providing higher levels of autonomy, larger spans of control, and expanded discretion (Parker, 2000). These organisations will therefore need individuals who are critical thinkers, problem-solvers, open to change, eager

to do what is required or expected and are willing to think outside the box. This study seeks to look at the concept of proactive behaviour through two (2) lenses namely; individual difference (big five personality traits) and context (organisational culture). The individual difference will be the innate and natural state of an individual's likelihood to portray proactive behaviour. Context on the other hand, will take into consideration, how the environment or work promotes or encourages proactive behaviour.

1.1 Statement of Problem

The aviation industry suffers from several terrors including smuggling, drug trafficking and money laundering (Norman et al., 2014; Amoore & De Goede, 2005). There has not been any major terrorist attack in Ghana, although Ghana has its fair share of drug trafficking, smuggling and money laundering. Unfortunately, there has been evidence of these attacks in other parts of Africa. Al-Shabaab's attack on the Westgate mall in Nairobi, Kenya (Patterson, 2014), Boko Haram's kidnapping of school girls in Chibok, Nigeria's North-Eastern Borno State (Zenn, 2014) have been two of the most devastating attacks in Africa. Attacks in other parts of the world include the 9/11 attack (Kean et al., 2004) in the United States of America, suicide bombings, hijacking as well as the shooting down of planes conveying innocent people to different destinations. It will be wise for Ghanaians to prepare for such likely disasters. In view of this, there is a need to ensure that the security personnel at the aviation sector are proactive. This calls for the need to assess proactive behaviour among security personnel in the aviation industry. A sizeable amount of research has been conducted on proactive behaviour in association with other variables including leadership (Crant & Bateman, 2000), careers (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998), entrepreneurship (Becherer & Maurer, 1999), work teams (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999), feedback (VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). However, very few have tried to understand how personality traits as well as the work place culture influence proactive behaviour. Studies on proactive behaviour

in Ghana have been done mainly on the manufacturing industry and have largely neglected the security personnel specifically those in the aviation sector.

1.2 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of this research is to assess proactive behaviour and determine how personality traits and domains of organisational culture predict proactive behaviour among aviation security personnel. Specifically, the objectives of this study are:

- To examine whether the big five personality traits predict proactive behaviour among the security personnel in the aviation industry in Ghana.
- To determine whether organisational culture predicts proactive behaviour among the security personnel in the aviation industry in Ghana.
- To establish whether the dimensions of personality trait and organisational culture will predict proactive behaviour among the security personnel in the aviation industry in Ghana.

1.3 Relevance of the Study

The contributions made by security officers who are specifically responsible for screening passengers before boarding air planes to visit other countries have received much attention and resources from various stakeholders to ensure effective delivery and performance. As a result, the researcher has identified certain individual characteristics and contextual factors which might provide strong evidence in strengthening the work of the security officers. This is because the airport serves as one of the main means of transportation into a country, and as such individuals can transmit either good or bad substances from one country to another. Based on this, the researcher sought to find out which of the big five personality traits would enhance security officers' tendency to be proactive at their work so that they would be able to anticipate challenges and problems to ensure prompt solutions are effected.

The researcher wants to find out if such people are indeed ready and willing to challenge cultures and practices which are not in conformity with aviation rules and norms, especially in the Ghanaian context.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The literature review presents two main sections which are the theoretical framework and review of related studies. Three relevant theories that provide the explanation to proactive behaviour were discussed under the theoretical framework. Choices of theories were advised by Unsworth and Parker (2003) who argue that proactive behaviour generally cover three sets of antecedents: individual differences, motivation, and context. The next section further reviews various studies that are related and relevant to the present study. It also presents the rationale for the study, statement of hypotheses, the hypothesized model of the relationships between the various variables and ends with operational definition of terms employed in the study.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

According to Abend (2013), a theory helps predict, understand and explain concepts, and in various instances, extend and challenge knowledge that exist, based on assumptions that are critically bound. These theories usually determine the problem of the study and the reasons behind its existence. As stated above, the theories used for the study are the Big 5 personality traits, organisational culture and proactive behaviour. Unsworth and Parker (2003) make clear the multidimensional nature of proactive behaviour as a concept of organisational behaviour, and hence the need for more than just a theory to explain the concept.

2.1.1 The Big 5 personality traits

Many theorists, the likes of Gordon Allport, Raymond Cattell and Hans Eysenck, have come up with various kinds of traits that tried to examine and explain human personality. However, psychologists have seen these theories as either complicated or limiting in scope.

For example, even though Cattell contributed a lot to personality research through the use of factor analysis, his theory is greatly criticised. The biggest criticism of his 16 Personality Factor Model is the fact that despite several attempts by researchers, his theory has never been replicated entirely. In 1971, Howarth and Brown's analysis of the model found 10 factors that failed to relate to items present in the model. They therefore concluded that the 16 Personality Factor Model does not measure the factors that it purports to measure at a primary level (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1987). Due to the limitations associated with Cattell's theory (and those of others), Cobb-Clark and Shurer (2012) have asserted that, many psychologists in recent times have come to the conclusion that personality has five main dimensions. The five factor model of personality is one of the most widely accepted and comprehensive models of personality. It has been widely used in various organisational researches (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Judge et al., 1999; Thoresen et al., 2004) mainly due to the fact that its description makes it less complicated when considering the innate potentials of the worker in an organisation or indicating how personality affects the goals and objectives of the organisation. The theory introduces five major factors which determine the personality of an individual. These are Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness (Goldberg, 1993).

According to Marsh, Nagengast and Morin (2013), the five broad factors have various underlining factors that come together to help consider someone as agreeable, open, an extravert, a neurotic or conscientious. An example is when someone is considered as agreeable, then the person is seen as having at least one of these underlining factors traits: assertiveness, gregariousness, warmth, activity or having positive emotions (Cobb-Clark & Shurer, 2012). The theory indicates that individuals score either low or high on one trait, making it very unlikely for a person to have none of a particular trait in him or her. Also, as individuals are ranked on a continuum on the various traits, observations are made on their

rank on the various traits. An example is that extraversion shows a continuum that exists between an extreme situation of extraversion and inhibition of emotions in introversion (Cobb-Clark & Shurer, 2012).

Extraversion (energetic/outgoing versus reserved/solitary)

Extraversion refers to the attitude to like people, the preference for being in large groups, and the desire for excitement and stimulation. Characteristically, extraverts are sociable, easily excited, assertive, talk a lot and are very emotionally expressive (Major et al., 2014). According to Marsh et al. (2013), extraverts are easygoing, tend to take over in social situations, and express a lot of energy in their conversations. Research shows that people who score high on extraversion are seen as always wanting to be at the centre of attention, easy to start new conversations, like meeting people, find it easy to make new friends, have a lot of energy when around people and have a lot of acquaintances and friends (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005). Poropat (2009) adds that people who are seen as extraverts seek a lot of attention in social contexts and are very domineering in such situations. Also, Marsh et al. (2013) opined that people who are extraverts gain a lot of energy when they are in the midst of people and when having intense conversations. This makes them work easily in team situations as they encourage team work in an organisation. This enhances the activities of the organisation.

That notwithstanding, people who are seen as having low levels of extraversion are likely to keep to themselves, become easily exhausted when they have to socialize, are not motivated to make small talk, do a lot of thinking before speaking and do not like being the centre of attention (Cobb-Clark & Shurer, 2012). O'Connor (2002) stated that people who are low on the scale of extraversion are likely to be self-absorbed and reflective before taking

a decision or making a comment, which confirms the views of Cobbs and Shurer (2012). Research has indicated that introverts easily get dull and want to keep to themselves; this is attributed to the fact that their energy is internally generated (Marsh et al., 2013). This makes it difficult for them to mingle with people or keep up with a conversation in a social context. Though, this keeps such people focused in an organisational setting, it makes it difficult for them to engage in teamwork; they mostly work as independent people at the work place.

Agreeableness (compassionate/friendly versus detached/challenging)

Agreeableness is the personality trait characterised by altruism, cooperativeness, and trust (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005; Cobb-Clark & Shurer, 2012). Research has shown that on a continuum, people who are high on agreeableness are very compassionate and friendly, while people who are low on agreeableness are detached and very difficult people (Marsh et al., 2013). Generally people who have high levels of agreeableness are more likely to have an interest in the lives of other people, have empathy, care about others and enjoy contributing and helping other people achieve happiness (Jeronimus, Riese, Sanderman & Ormel, 2014). It also helps measure how trusting someone is and how helpful they tend to be in all situations. According to Norris, Larsen and Cacioppo (2007), an agreeable person is mostly seen as submissive or naïve. People who tend to have a high level of this trait are more cooperative and friendly than others. It's easy for them to agree with the norms of a society or organisation, thus, they easily accept the status quo.

On the other hand, when someone has a low level of agreeableness, he or she is seen as less empathetic and ill-tempered (Jeronimus et al., 2014). These people take less or have little interest in others, are not empathetic and easily belittle others. As maintained by Norris et al. (2007) individuals who are antagonistic and suspicious towards others are mostly at the lower end of the continuum. Personalities that are low on agreeableness are mostly challenging and competitive, very argumentative and never trusting. Norris et al. (2007)

added that they tend to be distant and do not easily get involved in the activities of others. People who are low on agreeableness keep to themselves to make it easier for them to decline the perception and views of others. This helps them psychologically, making them deal with the issues that may arise as a result of not agreeing with the opinions of others. These individuals are at the tail end of the agreeableness continuum. In an organisational context, people on the tail end of agreeableness challenge the norms and practices of the organisation and always act against the status quo. It thereby creates the opportunity for them to come up with new ways and ideas of achieving set goals and objectives.

Conscientiousness (organised/efficient versus careless/easy-going).

Conscientiousness is seen as the tendency to be purposeful, organized, determined and ambitious. This personality model is considered to aid explanation into the natural disposition of an individual's engagement in proactive behaviour. According to Marsh et al. (2013), when an individual is said to be conscientious then the person possesses characteristics such as being very thoughtful, having good control of their impulse and being goal-oriented. These characteristics make these individuals detail-minded and very organised. McCrae and Terracciano (2005) added that having a sense of preparedness, completing vital tasks promptly, always scheduling activities and being detail-conscious are very important characteristics of conscientiousness. It should be noted that people who are high on the continuum of conscientiousness are said to possess the characteristics that have been outlined above. In certain situations, people who are seen as conscientious are seen as strong-hearted, obsessed and stubborn (Marsh et al., 2013). There is self-discipline, achievement orientation, engagement in planned activities and dutifulness associated with this trait and these help various organisations achieve their set goals and objectives. In addition, Jerominus et al. (2014) opined that, conscientious people are also seen to be thorough, methodical, organized and reliable. This makes them very resourceful and easy

to rely on. They always have the tendency to meet deadlines and targets. However, they are seen as having a strait jacket and do not easily compromise on situations. On the other hand, people who are low on the continuum are the direct opposite of characteristics outlined above. O'Connor (2002) maintained that people who are low on conscientiousness do not like schedules and structures, usually don't take good care of properties and make a mess of them. Poropat (2009) also, added that, tendency to procrastinate, failure to complete activities and ensure orderliness are all characteristics of conscientiousness on the lower end of the continuum. These individuals do not have the tendency to meet targets and goals that are set by themselves or given to them to achieve. When workers in an organisation possess such characteristics, there is little achievement. According to Lang et al. (1996), the unreliability and sloppiness that is exhibited by these people make it difficult to relate to them easily. However, McCrae and Terracciano (2005) argue that they are rather flexible and spontaneous, making them more cooperative than people high on conscientiousness; this is seen as one of the benefits that are associated with being low on conscientiousness.

Openness (Curious/Inventive Versus Cautious/Consistent)

Openness is the tendency to have an active imagination, empathy, intellectual curiosity, and be attentive to feelings. As maintained by Norris et al. (2007), being adventurous, emotional, curious and having unusual ideas and appreciating art makes one open to experience. The trait has characteristics like being insightful and imaginative, and having lots of interests makes one exposed to new experiences (Fiske et al., 2009). Research has shown that people who score high on the scale of openness are likely to try new concepts and things, poised to handle novel challenges, are abstract thinkers and reflect a lot on abstract ideas. Due to their ability to think and reflect on abstract issues, they are more likely to accept concepts that are not in line with their beliefs and opinions. This makes them easily accommodating and makes them have the ability to adapt to new situations and concepts. Openness makes people

less prone to conflicts and increases the bond that is created among employees. It also helps employees to be innovative and creative on the job; easily manipulating situations and circumstances to suit the goals and objectives of the organisation. It also puts the employees in a good position to easily handle new situations that require urgent decision-making about which they have not been given any prior instructions. On the contrary, people with low levels of openness are more likely to prevent change. This is due to the fact that they do not easily adapt to new situations (Cobb-Clark & Shurer, 2012). This prevents them from appreciating new situations and makes them resist novel ideas. McCrae and Terracciano (2005) opined that another tendency of people low on openness is that they hate abstract situations and hence are not imaginative. This makes them limited in their imaginative thinking and hence makes it difficult for them to be creative in helping the organisation meet its goals and objectives. This makes it difficult for the employee of an organisation to be innovative in challenging situations, mainly due to the fact that they are perceived to be close minded (Fiske et al., 2009).

Neuroticism (Nervous/Sensitive Versus Confident/Secure)

Neuroticism is the personality disposition characterised by negative emotions such as fear, sadness, anger, guilt, paranoia and disgust. Norris et al. (2007) asserted that moodiness, emotional instability, mood swings and worrying are characteristics of neuroticism. Individuals that are high on the continuum of neuroticism seem to be easily stressed due to worrying too much. This tends to affect the thinking and imaginative capacity of the individual who possesses this personality trait. Poropat (2009) maintained that feeling anxious and having dramatic mood shifts are all tendencies of being neurotic. This tends to affect businesses in a lot of ways: it promotes conflicts, unnecessary tension, lack of corporation and intense rivalry between members of the organisation. On the other side of the continuum however, exists an individual who is very stable emotionally, capable of

handling and dealing with stress and usually very relaxed (O'Connor, 2002). It is also characterised by the degree to which an individual controls negative emotions like anger, depression, anxiety and vulnerability. This tends to help ease the tension that is usually created in an organisation as a result of human interactions. It helps create an emotionally stable environment that supports business activities, as well as supports organisational citizenship behaviour (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005). People on the tail end of neuroticism promote productivity such that when employees and employers are interacting in an emotionally stable environment, there is less tension and more work gets done.

The big five personality trait theory however, like other theories is not without criticisms. One of the major criticism of this theory is the fact that, there is an inconsistency in the scores of an individual and the behaviour exhibited at large. Klimstra *et al.* (2012) for instance, argued that an individual may score high on assessments of a specific trait but may not always behave that way in every situation. Further, Klimstra *et al.* (2012) argued that trait theories do not necessarily address how or why individual differences in personality develop or emerge. Klimstra *et al.* (2012) also opined that the Big 5 traits do not quite cover all the characteristic traits of humanity. That is, the theory somehow neglects other domains of personality such as religiosity, honesty, manipulativeness, seductiveness, thriftiness, snobbishness, egotism, masculinity or femininity, sense of humour, risk-taking and thrill-seeking. Other researchers such as De Fruyt *et al.* (2004) and Harms (2012) also critiqued that the Big 5 is a 'psychology of the stranger' such that, only traits that are relatively easy to observe in a stranger are considered, excluding traits that are more privately held or more context-dependent.

2.1.2 Self-Efficacy Theory

Self-efficacy theory is one of the ways used in explaining human motivation. It helps give meaning to why some people put in a lot of effort in engaging in an activity while others on

the other hand are nonchalant and do not even try (Bandura, 1977). A basic principle of self-efficacy is that, the higher a person's self-efficacy is, the higher their belief in accomplishing a task; and the lower one's self-efficacy is, the less capable they will be in accomplishing a task (Ormrod, 2006). A person's self-efficacy is influenced by four factors: performance accomplishment, vicarious experience, social persuasions, and physiological reactions. This theory helps explain the motivation or drive towards one's participation or disengagement in proactive behaviour.

Performance Accomplishment

Performance accomplishment, which is sometimes referred to as mastery experience is the most influential factor of self-efficacy (Pajares, 2003). Performance accomplishment has to do with how well you performed on a task in the past. If you performed very well in the past, it is likely you will have the confidence and drive to engage in it again believing you will do well again. However, if you performed poorly on the task it is likely you will exert a negative attitude towards the task and your lack of effort will most likely result in a poor result. If one however puts in more effort regardless of the negative past experience, he/she is likely to have a high self-efficacy resulting in good results. According to Ormrod (2006), when an individual masters an activity it influences how they perceive their abilities. This is one of the most important factors that affect employees' performance at the work place, especially when it comes to new activities. When an employee performs well on the usual activities in an organisation and achieves mastery, it gives the employee the needed confidence to handle new situations for which no training has been rendered or where he/she has no expertise.

Vicarious Experience

Vicarious experience is when an individual is affected by another's reaction pertaining to the task. If a person exerts positive attitudes (excellence, confidence, success) towards a task, it is likely to be transferred to another and likewise when the person exerts a negative attitude (doubt, fear, failure) concerning the task (Waaktar & Torgersen, 2013). This is so because we sometimes judge our abilities on a task by other people we feel we can relate with, such as our peers and colleagues. Vicarious learning involves consistently observing a social model perform an activity or task and then imitating the person. Should the model succeed, you believe you can succeed too, especially when the task is not too difficult (Pajares, 2003). According to Gholson and Craig (2006), during such learning situations, the learner does not interact with the social model undertaking the activity. An example is when an employee observes another employee interacting with customers or undertaking an activity in the organisation. This means that learning takes place in an organisation through the actions and reactions of members of the organisation, as each observes the other in their day-to-day activities. This concept is facilitated by the fact that the observer/learner sees a similarity between him/herself and the social model (Bandura, 1977).

Social Persuasion

Social persuasion also affects one's self-efficacy. It is referred to the impact of others' actions and words on us concerning our ability on a task (Judge, Erez & Thoreser, 2002). According to Buzzanell (2011), individual actions and thoughts are greatly affected or influenced by others. The influence can be passive or active. Social persuasion is conceptualized as a type of social influence whereby an individual is deliberately motivated to embrace a course of action, an idea or attitude by a symbolic means (McGlone, Bortfield & Kobryniewicz, 2001). They can be in the form of pep talks, coaching etc. which normally boost morale. Negative words can also drop one's self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) indicated

that when an employee is verbally persuaded that they have the needed ability to gain mastery over given tasks, they are more likely to mobilize all the effort that is needed in achieving the set goals than when they are led to doubt their abilities. McGlone et al. (2001) further opined that social persuasion is so important to self-efficacy that it makes employees try harder when undertaking a task. This helps the employees in the undertaking of new tasks, creates a sense of personal efficacy and also leads to the development of new skills.

Psychological Reactions

Lastly is one's psychological state when presented with the opportunity to engage in an activity. Activities stimulating favourable psychological/emotional states (e.g. happiness) may affect one's self-efficacy to succeed on a task. On the hand if the emotional arousal related to the task is unfavourable (e.g. anxiety) then the individual's self-efficacy is lower leading to failure.

2.1.3 Social Learning theory

Social learning theory combines cognitive learning theory (which posits that learning is influenced by psychological factors) and behavioural learning theory, which assumes that learning is based on responses to environmental stimuli (Bandura, 1977). Albert Bandura integrated these two theories and came up with four requirements for learning: attention, retention, reproduction and motivation. This integrative approach to learning is called Social Learning Theory. The theory primarily explains how we get influenced by our surroundings mainly through observation which affects our behaviour and actions. Essentially, this theory helps to explain how the culture of the organisation endorses proactive behaviour. The theory examines how an organisation, as an environment, accepts and promotes proactive behaviour. As posited by Wang and Wu (2008), social learning theory examines the

behaviour of employees in relation to the interaction (which is reciprocal in nature) between environmental, cognitive and behavioural influences.

Attention

As maintained by Uddin, Lacoboni, Lange and Keenan (2007), for an observer to learn from a social model, he/she has to pay attention to what behaviour is being modelled. Consistently, research conducted in the area of social learning has found that, for learning outcomes to be boosted greatly, there is the need for the learner to be aware of what is being learned and also for reinforcements to be made available (Wang & Wu, 2008). Attention is affected by many variables that either decrease or increase the quality and quantity of attention that an individual pays when executing a task (Hermann, Call & Hernandez-Lloreda, 2007). These factors include prevalence, functional value, affective valence, distinctiveness and complexity. Also an individual's characteristics affect attention. Some of these characteristics are: level of arousal, capacities of the senses, past reinforcement and perceptual set. This means that, for employees to engage in proactive behaviour, they have to first observe or give attention to other individuals in the organisation engaging in an activity of that sort or undertaking various activities that promote proactive action. The organisation should provide the right setting that promotes proactive behaviour, ensure attention is given to such activities and also reward such activities, with the members of the organisation being aware of how the organisation encourages such behaviour.

Retention

Behaviour may be observed or attended to, but for retention to be ensured there is the need for the behaviour to be remembered. According to Furhrmann, Ravignani and Marshall-Pescini (2014), after behaviour is observed it is pertinent that the behaviour is retained and memory is formed about the behaviour to enable the observer engage in the same behaviour

at a later time. Social learning is mostly delayed so it is important that retention is enabled to ensure the behaviour can be reproduced at a latter point in time. Uddin et al. (2007) posited that, observers have to recall all the features of a behaviour before reproduction can take place. Retention is also affected by various characteristics of the employee, like how complex the activity is and also the cognitive capacity of the person (Wang & Wu, 2008). Visual and verbal cognitive processes underline ability to retain - which makes it completely a function of the individual's characteristics but not of the organisation. The ability of the employee to retain previous proactive behaviour that are conducted in an organisational setting is a very vital component that supports the continuous engagement of such activities. The reward structure that has also been put in place by the organisation and how it appreciates proactive behaviour should also be recalled by the employees. This will serve as a motivating factor that moves them towards undertaking such activities.

Reproduction

This is the phase where learner actually models the behaviour that was retained. The ability of the learner to exhibit a similar behaviour that was demonstrated by the model is referred to as reproduction (Hirschi et al. 2007). Though employees are always willing to demonstrate all the behaviour that they see or observe, it is difficult due to the limitation of their physical abilities. Uddin et al. (2007) indicated that, reproduction is the implementation of the behaviour - this can be immediate, but is mostly delayed. Reproduction is also limited by the cognitive skills of the learner. When the observed behaviour is outside the cognitive skills of the learner, it becomes difficult to reproduce (Wang & Wu, 2008). Various studies have supported the view that for reproduction to be effectively executed, there is the need for feedback (Wang & Wu, 2008; Fuhrmann et al., 2014). Feedback serves to correct the learner on mistakes made during the first attempt of the proactive behaviour and also suggest ways of effectively executing the behaviour.

Motivation

Motivation is a very important tool for increasing or decreasing the likelihood for a behaviour to be reproduced. Anticipated rewards or punishments serve as a drive or deterrent for an employee not to engage in proactive behaviour (Wang & Wu, 2008). According to Bandura, motivation is a function of the environment, which in this instance is the organisation. The punishment and reward structures put in place by the organisation can encourage or discourage proactive behaviour. Hirschi et al. (2007) suggest that, an employee assesses the differences between the perceived rewards and cost of engaging in proactive behaviour; and when the reward outweighs the cost then the learner engages in the behaviour. However, should the learner not value the vicarious reinforcement being made available, he/she may not be willing to reproduce the behaviour (Fuhrmann et al., 2014).

These three theories; Social Learning theory, Self-Efficacy Theory, and the Big 5 personality traits theory elaborated above, helped to understand the relevance of proactive behaviour at the workplace. These theories aided in acknowledging the various aspects of behaviour and how organisational culture helps employees to be proactive, motivated and counselled in exhibiting their talents and also executing their responsibilities with passion and without fear of being reprimanded.

2.2 Review of Related Studies

2.2.1 Personality factors and Proactive Behaviour

There have been some researches connecting the big five personality traits and proactive behaviour. The findings of these researches show that extraversion and conscientiousness have a strong relation with proactivity (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Major et al., 2006; Thomas et al., 2010). Fay and Frese (2001) also found negative correlation between proactive

behaviour and agreeableness. Proactive personality has also been proven to be positively correlated with openness and negatively correlated with neuroticism (Crant & Bateman, 2000). Also, Chan (2006) found that proactive personality positively predicts work perceptions and work outcomes (job satisfaction, job performance). It can be stated that, the big five personality traits are in one way or the other related to proactive behaviour in an organisation.

According to Grant and Ashford (2006), conscientiousness, which describes how an individual tends to be dependable, well organized, goal-oriented, persistent and disciplined tends to affect proactive behaviour. These researchers indicated that when people have high levels of conscientiousness, they tend to engage in more proactive behaviour. Moreover, Judge and Hies (2002), explained that when employees are conscientious, they are always able to plan, anticipate and engage more effort to help accomplish future objectives, usually in a wide range of circumstances. This supports Grant's (2008) claim that conscientious employees are likely to seek more information and hence engage in a wide range of proactive behaviour. However, individuals who have low level of conscientiousness are less likely to plan, anticipate and direct efforts towards future activities. Judge and Hies (2002) again argue that, less conscientious people tend to avoid responsibilities and live in the moment. In addition, Grant and Ashford (2006) stated that less conscientious people are only proactive under situational accountability, whereas highly conscientious people are proactive even without accountability.

Furthermore, Klein, Lim, Saltz and Mayer (2004) asserted that neurotics are mostly anxious, depressed and vulnerable to the extent that they tend not to engage in proactive behaviour. Due to their emotional instability, it is difficult for employees with high levels of neuroticism to engage in proactive behaviour. This view is supported by Gosling, Rentfrow

and Swan (2003), when they made the assertion that, highly neurotic employees tend to find it difficult to engage in emotional adjustment and self-regulation, which are necessary qualities for engaging in proactive behaviour. However, Morrossanova (2003) indicated that when ambiguity is present, highly neurotic employees are more likely to be proactive than employees with low levels of neuroticism. Therefore, in situations of ambiguity, neurotic people tend to be very worried and anxious. This makes them plan and anticipate such situations and hence exert effort in order to prevent such future occurrences, and this makes them very proactive. This supports the claim by Tamir (2005) that highly neurotic people tend to plan effectively in situations of ambiguity, to make up for the difficulties that they have in relation to self-regulation.

In addition, openness to experience is also a personality trait that is seen to affect proactive behaviour. As stated by Prenda and Lachman (2001), employees who are open to experience are more curious, flexible, imaginative and intelligent; and these factors allow for the individual to be proactive in the organisational setting. Individuals who are open to experience are more likely to try new ways of doing things by challenging the status quo, rather than sticking to the old patterns and rules for doing things. It should be noted that, open people are more likely to plan for future situations by putting their imaginations, intelligence and curiosity to work (Shalley, Zhou & Oldham, 2004).

According to Bateman and Crant (1999), an employee is seen as an extravert when the employee is gregarious and outgoing, and these characteristics enhance proactive behaviour. As stated by Major et al. (2014), extraverts are very active and assertive and hence very proactive in a business setting. Employees who have low levels of extraversion are less likely to be proactive because they are less active, assertive and prefer to be by themselves. Marsh et al. (2010) asserted that extraverts pose a lot of energy, which can be directed into

proactive behaviour in an organisation. Turban, Moake, Wu and Yu (2017) indicated that extraverts are more likely to engage in proactive behaviour due to the fact that they are more likely to monitor the organisational environment, seeking positive stimuli and have a positive interpretation of situations than introverts do. Moreover, extraverts are more goal-directed and motivated to accomplish tasks that have been set out; this makes them more prone to exhibiting proactive behaviour (Major et al., 2006).

Furthermore, Bjorkelo, Einarsen and Matthiesen (2010), found that agreeableness is negatively related to proactive behaviour. This means that a low level of agreeableness is linked to a high level of proactive behaviour. Turban et al. (2007) opined that, employees who are not agreeable always want to challenge the status quo. This characteristic of employees who have low levels of agreeableness makes them more proactive than those who have high levels of agreeableness. In creating the future of an organisation, there is the need for change agents and these agents should not want to accept the status quo or the laid down norms in an organisation but should want to make choices that are pre-planned before the moment of effective execution.

Bjorkelo, Einarsen and Matthiesen (2010) examined the role of the Big 5 personality traits in influencing proactive behaviour in relation to whistleblowing in an organisation. The study used the method of triangulation by using two different studies, as well as, two instruments for measuring personality. The study used 503 employees and the results showed that, agreeableness and extraversion were associated significantly, with proactive behaviour. The results showed that employees with high levels of extraversion and low levels of agreeableness are more likely to be proactive than people who have high levels of agreeableness and low levels of extraversion. This study focused on whistle-blowing, but

the present study considers the influence of personality traits and organisational culture on proactive behaviour among aviation security personnel.

Another study conducted by Bateman and Crant (1993) investigated proactive behaviour in an organisational setting. The study investigated how personal disposition affects proactive behaviour. The study used a sample size of 130 students who were undertaking their undergraduate studies. The study found out that there was a positive relationship between proactive behaviour and conscientiousness, openness to experience and extraversion. However, there was a negative relationship between agreeableness and neuroticism. The study showed that, high levels of openness to experience, extraversion and conscientiousness lead to a potentiality to engage in proactive behaviour.

In addition, a study conducted by Major et al. (2006) examined the relationship that exists among the motivation to learn, big five and proactive personality. The study was a web-based survey using 183 participants from a financial firm. The study found out that, proactive behaviour was only in part a composite of the Big 5 personality traits, and accounted for about twenty-six (26%) of the variance. Also, Chaiburu, Oh, Berry, Li and Gardner (2011) investigated how organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was affected by the Big 5 personality traits - the study used meta-analytic tests. The study found that extraversion, emotional stability and openness to experience have an increasing effect on the validity of OCB than agreeableness and conscientiousness. The study indicated that personality traits are a better determinant of OCB than task performance. Based on the findings of the study, the researchers recommended that further studies be conducted to examine the link between the Big 5 personality traits and specific types/forms of citizenship behaviour - which include proactive behaviour (Norris et al., 2007). This study is one of the

inspirations behind this present study being conducted: to examine the influence of the Big 5 personality traits on proactive behaviour as a form of citizenship behaviour.

2.1.2 Organisational culture

Organisational culture has been defined differently by different scholars, and it carries different meanings for different people (Schein, 2011). Pettigrew (1979) was the first to use the term “organisational culture” in the academic literature. Organisational culture is a complex concept to concretely define. “The way we do things around here” (Deal & Kennedy, 2002:13) is probably the most common sense and easy-to-understand definition of organisational culture. However, it oversimplifies the complexity of the concept and misses powerful underlying concepts and processes. It is better to conceptualise organisational culture as referring to the shared values, beliefs and assumptions, actions as well as artefacts and language patterns in an organisation. Schein (2011) argues that organisations are purposeful entities formed by the actions of the founders, who have strong assumptions about what to do and how to do things. He also has a strong view about the nature of the world, human nature, truth, relationships, time, and space. He believes these influence the way culture is formed and shared in the organisation. The important decisions made by people in an organisation are reflective of the values, beliefs and assumptions in organisational life.

Organisational Culture has been linked to job satisfaction and commitment (Silverthorne, 2004), and is perceived to be a central determinant of overall organisational efficacy (Haggard & Lapoint, 2005). Peters and Waterman (1982) found that excellent companies possessed distinctive cultures that were passed on through story, slogan and legend and served to motivate employees by giving meaning to their work. They suggested that, the dominance and coherence of culture proved to be an important characteristic of well-

performing companies. Therefore Peters and Waterman (1982) stated that poor-performing companies had either no detectable culture or a dysfunctional one.

Vanderpost et al. (1997) suggested organisational culture that constitutes aspects such as 1) conflict resolution, 2) culture management, 3) customer orientation, 4) disposition towards change, 5) employee participation, 6) goal clarity, 7) human resource orientation, 8) identification with the organisation, 9) locus of authority, 10) management style, 11) organisation focus, 12) organisation integration, 13) performance orientation, 14) reward orientation and 15) task structure. Park (2001) linked organisational culture to changes in an organisation. According to Park (2001), among the critical success and failure factors of organisational culture change are 1) communication, 2) leadership, 3) employee participation, 4) HRM training and development, 5) improvements in teamwork, 6) regular feedback, 7) continuous change, 8) organisation structure, 9) empowerment and 10) creativity

The present study will investigate how the following dimensions of organisational culture encourage proactive behaviour among security personnel at the Kotoka International Airport: teamwork, climate, information, involvement, supervision and meeting.

2.2.2 Organisational factors affecting Proactive Behaviour

Research on proactive behaviour has mostly focused on how proactive behaviour affects organisational performance (Li, Fay, Frese, Harms & Gao, 2014). However, there is also the need for focus to be placed on how the attributes of the work place affects proactive behaviour. According to Parker et al. (2006), there has always been a relationship that exists between proactive behaviour and job control, social support and job demands. Also, employees feel obligated to repay the positive treatment they received from their

organisation by displaying more proactive behaviour towards their organisation (Caesens et al., 2016). Research on proactivity has revealed strong correlations with supportive supervision (Parker et al., 2006), job control (Sonnentag & Spychala, 2012), work engagement (Caesens et al., 2016), leadership (Unsworth & Parker, 2003) the ability to relate well with colleagues and corporate teams through effective communication (Unsworth & Parker, 2003).

Research shows that, changes in job control have a positive relationship with proactive behaviour. Job control is linked to the level of autonomy that an employee has when making decisions at the work place (Sonnentag and Spychala, 2012) and it relates to the ability of the employee to make changes or manipulate his/her surroundings (Li et al., 2014). This is done through showing initiative, taking action, persevering and looking for opportunities until they are able to meet up with the necessary changes that they request for. This tends to increase the job control that an employee has in an organisation and this gives workers the opportunity to be proactive and seek to plan ahead for future activities or situations. This shows that the higher the job control, the higher the proactive behaviour.

Additionally, social support from the organisation enhances proactive behaviour (Parker et al., 2006). Specifically, social support in the form of assistance from co-workers and supervisors enhances proactive behaviour. Frese and Fay (2001) added that a supportive work relationship ensures that the needed resources are available for proactive behaviour to be exhibited. Parker et al. (2006) stated that, supervisors who are very supportive tend to provide feedback that helps the employee adopt a proactive skill and behaviour. However, when the supportive measures prevent the employee from exercising some control, it prevents proactive behaviour.

Grant and Ashford (2008) opined that, proactive behaviour is seen as a type of motivated behaviour in an organisation and hence to understand proactive behaviour is to understand motivation. As maintained by Locke and Latham (2002), workers are very passive when it comes to being reinforced and therefore they engage in behaviour based on the direct responses to the stimuli in the operating environment. This means that for an employee to engage in proactive behaviour they should have been reinforced for undertaking a particular behaviour of similar nature before. On the other hand, Colquitt et al. (2005) stated that, employees are mostly motivated by the values and beliefs in engaging in proactive behaviour and that, employees examine the utility value to be gained from engaging in certain behaviour at the work place and take the action that provides the value. The theory of equity states that, for an employee to be motivated in an organisation, he/she assesses how fair the compensation and reward they get from the management is, and based on that takes a decision to be more proactive or not (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Literature on proactive behaviour suggests that organisations have a part to play in ensuring that there is the right and conducive environment for proactive behaviour to occur.

In another study, Li et al. (2014) examined the reciprocal relationship that exists between work characteristics –job control, job demand, supervisory support, organisational constraints and co-worker support on one hand and proactive personality on the other hand. The study used a confirmatory factor analyses to look at how the factors related to each other. The result reflects a positive relationship between proactive behaviour and work characteristics. The result shows that work characteristics or the working environment has an effect on proactive behaviour and vice-versa.

2.3 Rationale of the Study

There is limited research on security providers pertaining to proactive behaviour. Studies conducted into proactive behaviour focused on industrial salespeople (Mallin et al., 2014), real estate agents (Crant, 1995) and MBA students (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Due to the increasing threat on the aviation industry, it's about time that investigating the proactive disposition of the security personnel and the organisation at large became a priority. Proactivity has proven itself useful in the corporate industries for preventive measures. Also, most of the studies conducted on proactive behaviour have consistently concentrated on only how proactive behaviour affects organisational goals but not how the organisation also affects the employee's proactive behaviour (Li et al., 2014). This study, therefore, expands the scope and analyses on how the organisational environment affects proactive behaviour. This study further seeks to advice on recruitment, placement and promotion procedures in the aviation security sector.

2.4 Statement of Hypotheses

1. Personality traits will significantly predict proactive behaviour
 - a) Neuroticism will negatively predict proactive behaviour
 - b) Openness will positively predict proactive behaviour
 - c) Conscientiousness will positively predict proactive behaviour
 - d) Extraversion will positively predict proactive behaviour
 - e) Agreeableness will positively predict proactive behaviour

2. Dimensions of organisational culture will significantly predict proactive behaviour
 - a) Teamwork will positively predict proactive human behaviour
 - b) Climate will positively predict proactive human behaviour

- c) Information will positively predict proactive human behaviour
- d) Involvement will positively predict proactive human behaviour
- e) Supervision will positively predict proactive human behaviour
- f) Meeting will positively predict proactive human behaviour

2.5: Conceptual Framework

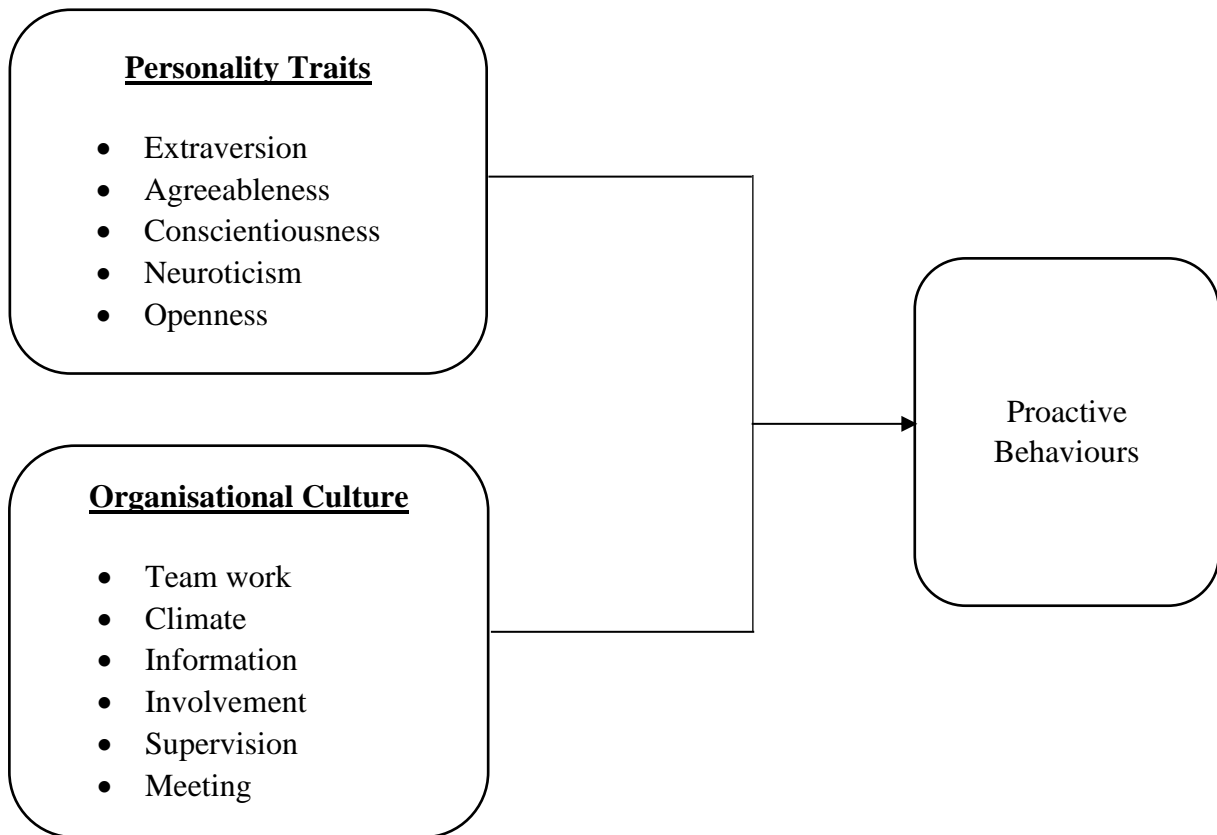


Figure 1: Summary of hypothesized relationship between study variables.

The proposed conceptual framework indicates personality traits and organisational culture as the predictor variables and proactive behaviour as criterion variable. The conceptual framework further indicates that, personality traits and organisational culture will significantly predict proactive behaviours.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology best for the study. In this chapter, the description of the population of study, sample, sampling techniques, and research design used in the study are discussed. The chapter also describes the instruments used for data collection and consequently, their scoring. That is how the questionnaires in the study were piloted and psychometric properties of the scales used reported. Finally, it describes the data collection procedures in the study as well as data analysis.

3.1 Research Setting

The study was carried out at the Kotoka International Airport (KIA) under the management of Ghana Airport Company Limited (GACL). This setting was chosen because it is the prime international airport in the country. It is the first international airport in the country and serves as the main point of entry into the country by air. The airport therefore, presents an environment where the variables under study are presented: proactive behaviour, organisational culture and personality traits. The KIA also makes available a heterogeneous population and a population that has all the characteristics needed for the study.

3.2 Population and Sample size

The target population for this study was aviation security personnel in Ghana. Participants for this study were selected from the security personnel at KIA under the management of GACL. According to Graziano and Raulin (2010) when a population is this heterogeneous, there is a need for a larger sample size to be drawn. Krejcie and Morgan (1970) also suggested that, when a population is above 170 at .05 confidence interval with power of .80, the representative sample size to be drawn, is 118. The researcher, therefore, drew a sample

size of 120 participants working with the security sector under GACL at the KIA in Accra.

Below is a summary, table 1 showing the distribution of respondents on the demographic variables.

Table 1: Summary of Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographics	Frequency	
Percentages		
Gender		
Male	84	70%
Female	36	30%
Age		
20 – 25 years	25	20.8%
26 - 30 years	14	11.7%
31 - 35 years	39	32.5%
36 – 40 years	29	24.2%
Above 40 years	13	10.8%
Tenure		
Less than 1 year	5	4.2%
2-5 years	49	40.8%
6-10 years	44	36.7%
Above 10 years	22	18.3%

From table 1, 120 respondents were used for the study. Of this number, 84 (70%) constituted males, whereas 36 (30%) comprised females. In terms of years of experience, 5 (4.2%) had worked for less than 1 year, 22 (18.3%) had worked for more than 10years, 44 (36.7%) had worked between 6-10 years and 49 (40.8%) of the respondents indicated that they had 2 to 5 years' work experience with the aviation security. With respect to age (measured in years), 25 (20.8%), 14 (11.7%) and 39 (32.5) of the respondents indicated that they were within the

ages of 20-25, 26-30 and 31-35 years respectively. Finally, 29 (24.2%) and 13 (10.8%) of the respondents indicated that they are within the ages of 36-40 years and 40 years and above respectively.

3.3 Study Design

The study used a cross-sectional survey. This was an appropriate design since the researcher collected data across a wide range in a relatively short time at a single point in time using standardized questionnaires. Moreover, this design has proven to be a less expensive, relatively easy to administer and an efficient way of collecting information from a large number of respondents (Rubin, 2005).

3.4 Sampling Technique

The non-probability sampling technique was used in selecting the participants for this study, specifically, convenience sampling technique. This is because it was a more practicable technique to use under the circumstance. Ideally, the simple randomization technique is more appropriate to use to give all employees an equal chance of being selected. However, not all employees were willing to participate in the study. Therefore, participants who were available and willing to partake in the study were included.

3.5 Instruments/Measures

Due to the nature of the study design, the researcher adopted self-report questionnaires in collecting data from the participants. The questionnaire had four major sections: demographic information, organisational culture, proactive behaviour and the Big five personality.

Section 'A': Demographic Information

The first part of the questionnaire captured the demographic characteristics of respondents: gender (male, female), age (measured in years) and years of experience. The demographic information was necessary since it enabled the researcher give some description of the sample used.

Section 'B': Organisational Culture Survey

Organisational Culture was measured using Glaser, Zamanou and Hacker's (1987) 31-item questionnaire which addresses six important factors in an organisation: teamwork, climate, information flow, involvement, supervision and meetings. Some of the items on the questionnaire include *'this organisation motivates me to put out my best efforts'*, *'Decisions made at meetings get put into action'*, *'the organisation respects its workers'*, *'people I work with function as a team'*, *'job requirements are made clear by my supervisor'*. Participants were required to indicate the degree to which they relate to the items asked in the questionnaires on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (to a very little extent) to 5 (to a very great extent) with a Cronbach alpha ranging from .82 to .91 (Glaser, Zamanou & Hacker, 1987). The Cronbach Alpha revealed for this study was .95. The scores were obtained by summing the scores for each of the 31 Items in the subscale measured on a 5- point Likert scale. Therefore, the lowest possible score on organisational culture was 31 and the highest possible score was 155.

Section 'C': Proactive Behaviour Scale

The 17-item questionnaire developed by Bateman and Crant (1993) was used for this study. The items of the scale included; *'if I see something I don't like I fix it'*, *'I love to challenge the status quo'*, *'if I see someone in trouble I help out in any way I can'*, *'I am great at turning problems into opportunities'*, *'I excel at identifying opportunities'*. Participants were

required to indicate the extent to which they rate their level of agreement or disagreement in their possession of proactive behaviour on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) with a Cronbach alpha of 0.87 (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The Cronbach alpha revealed for this study was .87. The score was obtained by summing the scores for each of the 17 items in the subscale measured on a 7-point Likert scale. Therefore, the lowest possible proactive behaviour score was 17 and the highest possible score was 119. High scores meant high disposition in proactivity while low scores meant low disposition in proactivity.

Section 'D': Big Five Inventory (BFI)

The Big Five Inventory (BFI) developed by John and Srivastava (1999) was used in gathering data for the study. The BFI has a recorded Cronbach's alpha of 0.72 (Zamorano et al., 2014). It is a 44-Item scale which is rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (disagree strongly) to 5 (agree strongly). Participants responded to the items on the Big Five Inventory with respect to their nature, likes and dislikes which make up their personality. Participants were made to tick one of five boxes provided per item, telling the degree to which they related to each item on the scale. The scale had five (5) main subscales: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness. Eight (8) items were used in measuring extraversion. One of the items is, "*I see myself as someone who is talkative*". Nine (9) items were used in measuring agreeableness. An example is "*I see myself as someone who tends to find fault with others*". Also, nine (9) items were used in measuring conscientiousness. An example is "*I see myself as someone who does a thorough job*". Further, eight (8) items were used in measuring neuroticism. An example is "*I see myself as someone who worries a lot*". Finally, openness was measured using 10 (ten) items. An example is "*I see myself as someone who has few artistic interests*".

Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement or disagreement on the extent to which they possessed these personality traits on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The Cronbach Alpha for the overall scale was 0.80. Cronbach alpha reliability of .90, .85, .88, .74 and .84 were obtained for the five dimensions of extraversion, agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism and Openness respectively (Goldberg, 1993). Item 2, 6, 8, 9, 12, 18, 21, 23, 24, 27, 31, 34, 35, 37, 41, and 43 were reversed before scoring. As a result, the lowest possible score was 44 and the highest possible score was 220.

3.6 Pilot Study

The instrument was piloted to ensure their validity and reliability on the sampled population. Therefore, a total of 20 questionnaires were administered to respondents in the pilot study. Three (3) main measures were tested. The Cronbach's alpha's reliability was calculated for all the scales using Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) version 22. See Table 4.0

3.7 Procedure

An introductory letter was requested from the Department of Psychology, University of Ghana, Legon before the commencement of the research. After the request was granted, the researcher submitted the letter to management of GACL asking for permission to conduct the research in their institution. A verbal permission was subsequently granted and a date for data collection was given by GACL to commence data collection with the promise of discussing with management to issue the researcher a permission letter.

Data collection began after the pilot study and dates were approved by heads of GACL. During the administration of the questionnaire, participants were given 20 to 25 minutes to complete the questionnaire after the researcher had explained the purpose of the survey to

them and they had filled consent forms. Some of them completed the questionnaires within the allotted time, others finished after 30 minutes, and others were allowed to take the questionnaires home to fill. These were recovered after a week. In all, the data collection process was completed in one week. Participants were not coerced or enticed in any way to partake in this study. Participation was strictly voluntary with regards to the population of interest (i.e. Aviation Security staff only) and participants were available at the time of questionnaire administration. Details were revealed to participants concerning what was required of them in the questionnaire (just enough information to prevent socially desirable responses). After the questionnaires were completed, the researcher collected the questionnaires and thanked the participants for their time and participation in the study.

After data was collected, it was scored and statistically analyzed with Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) version 22. Out of the one hundred and fifty (150) questionnaires administered, one hundred and twenty (120) were returned and properly filled, representing a response rate of 80%. In general, it has been reported that a very good response rate should be 70% and 75% (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, the current response rate of 80% was sufficient for proper analysis of data. Statistical analysis was then performed on the one hundred and twenty (120) questionnaires.

3.8 Ethical Consideration

The researcher followed strictly the American Psychological Association (APA) ethical guidelines throughout the study. The principle of informed consent, for instance, which is a standard feature for ethical consideration in all social research was strictly observed. The researcher ensured high sense of confidentiality and anonymity by making sure that the data collected was managed in such a way that the identities of the participants were protected at all times and that no information was directly associated with any individual participants.

Also, participation in the study was absolutely voluntary. No individual was forced to partake in the study. Finally, the researcher's contact details were communicated to all the participants, in case they had further questions or encountered any unexpected problems during their participation.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to examine the roles of the Big 5 personality traits and organisational culture on proactive behaviour among aviation security personnel. This chapter presents the results of the computation of means, standard deviation, reliability test and normality test, as well as the test of the hypotheses. The objective of the study is to understand the relationship between personality and organisational culture on one hand and proactive behaviour on the other hand. Pearson Product Moment co-efficient (Pearson r) and multiple regression analysis were employed in testing the hypotheses. The results obtained are presented in the preceding paragraphs using tables and figures.

4.1 Analysis

The analysis in this study was conducted in two forms: analysis of the pilot study and analysis of the main study. Analysis of the pilot study examined the reliability of the study instruments. Analysis of the main study examined the normal distribution of the variables, reliability analysis, descriptive analysis, and a correlation matrix using Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficient among the core variables of the study.

4.1.1 Analysis of pilot study

Findings from the analysis of the pilot study on the reliability of the study instruments is are described below.

Table 2: Summary of the Reliability Statistics Obtained for the Scales in Pilot Study

Scale	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Proactive Behaviour	17	.85
Organisational Culture	31	.95
<u>Organisational Culture Sub-scales</u>		
Team work	6	.86
Climate	5	.80
Information	4	.80
Involvement	4	.90
Supervision	7	.90
Meeting	5	.90
Personality Trait		
Extraversion	8	.67
Agreeableness	9	.64
Conscientiousness	9	.62
Neuroticism	8	.62
Openness	10	.74

From Table 2 above, the Proactive Behaviour Questionnaire had a Cronbach alpha value of .85.

The overall Organisational Culture Survey had a Cronbach alpha value of .95 and the Cronbach alpha of its subscales range from .80 to .90. The overall Big 5 factor Questionnaire has a Cronbach alpha value of .89 and the Cronbach alpha of its subscales range from .64 to .74.

According to Brewerton and Millward (2001), acceptable level of internal scale reliability has been varied among different researchers but it normally ranges between 0.6 and 0.7 as absolute minimum. As observed, all the scales used in this analysis yielded acceptable results of Cronbach's alpha coefficients, hence the scales are reliable.

4.1.2 Analysis of the Normal Distribution of Variables

A test of normality was conducted on the scores obtained from the participants in the study by assessing the skewness and kurtosis of the scores obtained for the variables under study. This involved ascertaining that the data for the study was normally distributed. This is because according to Garson (2012), it is essential that the dependent variable is normally distributed.

The skewness of the data ranges between -0.824 to -0.116 while the kurtosis for the same data ranges from -0.617 to 0.674 (See Table 4.0). According to Garson (2012), data is said to be normal when the skewness and kurtosis values fall within $+2$ and -2 . The result therefore shows that all the skewness and kurtosis values were within the $+2$ and -2 range hence the data is said to be normally distributed. Therefore, appropriate parametric statistical analysis could be utilised in the study.

4.1.3 Reliability Analysis of Scales

Reliability analysis allows you to study the properties of measurement scales and the items that compose the scales. The reliability analysis procedure calculates a number of commonly used measures of scale reliability and also provides information about the relationships between individual items in the scale. The researcher resorted to the use of Cronbach Alpha in determining the consistency of test scores among the sample, and the results are presented in table 2 below together with the means and standard deviations.

4.1.4 Pearson Correlations among Study Variables

The preliminary analysis had its concluding step by computing a correlation matrix using the Person Product Moment Correlation to establish the relationship between the variables.

The summary of the outcome is presented in Table 4.2 below.

Table 3: Summary of Pearson Correlation Matrix of the Relationships between Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Proactive Behaviour	-											
2 Extraversion	.03	-										
3 Agreeableness	.25**	.67*	-									
4 Conscientiousness	.28**	.48*	.41**	-								
5 Neuroticism	-.45**	.40*	.58**	.53**	-							
6 Openness	.46**	.60*	.58**	.65**	.60**	-						
7 Teamwork	.55**	.10	.27**	.37**	.39**	.63**	-					
8 Climate	.33**	.20*	.53**	.14	.40**	.40**	.40**	-				
9 Information	.30**	-.07	.41**	.06	.50**	.15	.47**	.69**	-			
10 Involvement	.49**	.03	.26**	.22*	.57**	.53**	.69**	.41**	.45**	-		
11 Supervision	.51**	.20*	.09	.11	-.22*	.17	.60**	.32**	.57**	.50**	-	
12 Meeting	.63**	.02	.28**	.11	.47**	.36**	.76**	.45**	.67**	.71**	.76**	-

** . P < 0.01 level (2-tailed), * . P < 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 3 above shows the results for exploring the relationship between the variables using Pearson Product-moment Correlation coefficient. Of the hypothesized predictors of change in PTG, there was a weak positive relationship between agreeableness ($r=.25$, $p<.01$), conscientiousness ($r=.28$, $p<.01$) and Proactive Behaviour. There was also a significant

moderate positive relationship between Openness and Proactive Behaviour ($r=.46, p<.01$). Also, there was a moderate significant negative relationship between Neuroticism and Proactive Behaviour ($r=-.45, p<.01$). For the domains of Organisational culture, Teamwork ($r=.55, p<.01$), Climate ($r=.33, p<.01$), Information ($r=.30, p<.01$), Involvement ($r=.49, p<.01$), Supervision ($r=.51, p<.01$) and Meeting ($r=.63, p<.01$) were positively related to Proactive behaviour. This correlation coefficient was adequate for a regression analysis since it is below the .7 threshold which is too high and hence considered to be violating the assumption of multicollinearity (Field, 2009).

4.3 Hypotheses Testing

In this study, based on the objectives that were generated, two main hypotheses were proposed and tested. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to test all the hypotheses in this study.

Hypothesis One

The Pearson Product moment (r) correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the dimensions of personality trait and proactive behaviour (see Table 4.2). Hypotheses 1, which stated that, personality trait dimensions (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) will significantly predict proactive behaviour was tested with the simultaneous multiple regression analysis. A 2-step hierarchical multiple regression was performed to test this hypothesis after controlling for the demographic variables (age, tenure and gender). Results are presented in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions of Personality Traits Predicting Proactive Behaviour.

Model	Predictors	B	SEB	Beta	t	Sig.
Step 1	Tenure	.247	.314	.071	.785	.434
	Gender	-4.703	2.981	-.144	-1.578	.117
	Age	5.380	2.917	.169	1.844	.068
Step 2	Tenure	-.629	.285	-.182	-2.205	.029
	Gender	3.306	2.646	.102	1.250	.214
	Age	3.592	2.876	.113	1.249	.214
	Personality Traits					
	Extraversion	-1.563	.433	-.444	-3.610	.000
	Agreeableness	.111	.385	.033	.288	.774
	Conscientiousness	-.147	.278	-.055	-.531	.597
	Neuroticism	-1.328	.369	-.420	-3.594	.000
	Openness	1.416	.352	.543	4.023	.000

For Step 1, $R^2 = .048$, $F = 1.958$; step 2, $R^2 = .405$, $\Delta R^2 = .357$, $F = 9.435$, $\Delta F = 13.298$

Demographic variables (age, tenure and gender) were entered at Step 1 and personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness) were added at Step 2. Age, tenure and gender when entered at Step 1, explained 4.8% of the variance in proactive behaviour [$F_{(1, 118)} = 1.958$, $\rho < .01$, $R^2 = .048$]. Personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness) entered in step 2 explained an additional 35.7% of the variance in proactive behaviour after controlling for age, tenure and gender [$F_{(2, 117)} = 13.298$, $\rho < .001$, $R^2 = .357$]. The result in Table 4 above indicates that, extraversion was a significant predictor of proactive behaviour ($\beta = -.444$, $p < .001$). This indicates that as extraversion increases by one unit, proactive behaviour also reduces by 1.56 units. Also, as extraversion increases by one standard deviation ($SD = 4.26$), proactive behaviour reduces by 0.44 standard deviations. The standard deviation of proactive behaviour is 14.99 and so this constitutes a change of -23.384 (-1.56×14.99) of proactive behaviour. Therefore, for every 4.26 increase in terms of extraversion exhibited by the security personnel at the airport, there is a corresponding reduction of 23.384 in terms of

their proactive behaviour. This means that extraversion as a personality trait is associated with decreased levels of proactive behaviour.

Also, neuroticism was a significant predictor of proactive behaviour ($\beta = -.42$, $p < .001$). This indicates that as neuroticism increases by one unit, proactive behaviour also reduces by 1.33 units. Further, as neuroticism increases by one standard deviation ($SD = 4.74$), proactive behaviour reduces by 0.42 standard deviations. The standard deviation of proactive behaviour is 14.99 and so this constitutes a change of -19.94 (-1.33×14.99) of proactive behaviour. Therefore, for every 4.74 increase in terms of neuroticism exhibited by the security personnel at the airport, there is a corresponding reduction of 19.94 in terms of their proactive behaviour. This means that neuroticism as a personality trait is associated with decreased levels of proactive behaviour.

In addition, openness was a significant predictor of proactive behaviour ($\beta = .54$, $p < .001$). This indicates that, as openness increases by one unit, proactive behaviour also increases by 1.42 units. Also, as openness increases by one standard deviation ($SD = 5.74$), proactive behaviour increases by 0.54 standard deviations. The standard deviation of proactive behaviour is 14.99 and so this constitutes a change of 21.29 (1.42×14.99) of proactive behaviour. Therefore, for every 5.74 increase in terms of openness exhibited by the security personnel at the airport, there is a corresponding increase of 21.29 in terms of their proactive behaviour. This means that openness as a personality trait is associated with higher levels of proactive behaviour. Therefore, the hypothesis that openness predicted proactive behaviour was supported.

In Table 4.3 again, the result showed that agreeableness ($\beta = .385$, $p > .001$) and conscientiousness ($\beta = .278$, $p > .001$) did not predict proactive behaviour.

Therefore, the hypothesis that the dimensions of personality trait will significantly predict proactive behaviour was partially supported.

Hypothesis Two

Again, Pearson Product moment (r) correlation analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between the dimensions of organisational culture and proactive behaviour (see Table 4.2). Hypotheses 4, which stated that, dimensions of organisational culture (teamwork, climate, information flow, involvement, supervision and meetings) will significantly predict proactive behaviour was tested with the simultaneous multiple regression analysis. A 2-step hierarchical multiple regression was performed to test this hypothesis after controlling for the demographic variables (age, tenure and gender). Results are presented in Table 4.4 below.

Table 5: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Organisational Culture Predicting Proactive Behaviour.

Model		B	SEB	Beta	T	Sig.
Step 1	Tenure	.247	.314	.071	.785	.434
	Gender	-4.703	2.981	-.144	-1.578	.117
	Age	5.380	2.917	.169	1.844	.068
Step 2	Tenure	.438	.260	.126	1.684	.095
	Gender	-15.647	2.390	-.480	-6.548	.000
	Age	4.097	1.951	.129	2.099	.038
Organisational Culture						
	Teamwork	.313	.261	.117	1.197	.234
	Climate	.800	.277	.251	2.893	.005
	Information Flow	-2.042	.362	-.603	-5.647	.000
	Involvement	-.748	.363	-.232	-2.060	.042
	Supervision	.994	.233	.459	4.273	.000
	Meetings	2.131	.433	.716	4.918	.000

For Step 1, $R^2 = .048$, $F = 1.958$; step 2, $R^2 = .626$, $\Delta R^2 = .578$, $F = 20.460$, $\Delta F = 28.327$

Demographic variables (age, tenure and gender) were entered at Step 1 and factors of organisational culture (teamwork, climate, information flow, involvement, supervision and meetings) were added at Step 2. Age, tenure and gender when entered at Step 1, explained 4.8% of the variance in proactive behaviour [$F_{(1, 118)} = 1.958$, $\rho < .01$, $R^2 = .048$]. Organisational culture (teamwork & conflict, climate & morale, information flow, involvement, supervision and meetings) entered in step 2 explained an additional 57.8% of the variance in proactive behaviour after controlling for age, tenure and gender [$F_{(2, 117)} = 28.327$, $\rho < .01$, $R^2 = .626$].

The result in table 5 above indicates that, climate was a significant predictor of proactive behaviour ($\beta = .25$, $p < .01$). This indicates that as climate increases by one unit, proactive behaviour also increases by 0.80 units. Also, as climate increases by one standard deviation ($sd = 4.70$), proactive behaviour increases by 0.25 standard deviations. The standard deviation of proactive behaviour is 14.99 and so this constitutes a change of 11.99 (0.80×14.99) of proactive behaviour. Therefore, for every 4.70 increase in terms of climate of

organisational culture experienced by the security personnel at the airport, there is a corresponding increase of 11.99 in terms of their proactive behaviour. This means that climate as a factor of organisational culture is associated with increased levels of proactive behaviour. Therefore, climate predicted proactive behaviour.

Also, information flow was a significant predictor of proactive behaviour ($\beta = -.60$, $p < .001$). This indicates that as information flow increases by one unit, proactive behaviour also reduces by 2.04 units. Again, as information flow increases by one standard deviation ($SD = 4.43$), proactive behaviour reduces by 0.60 standard deviations. The standard deviation of proactive behaviour is 14.99 and so this constitutes a change of $-30.58 (-2.04 \times 14.99)$ of proactive behaviour. Therefore, for every 4.43 increase in terms of information flow exhibited by the security personnel at the airport, there is a corresponding reduction of 30.58 in terms of their proactive behaviour. This means that information flow as a factor of organisational culture leads to a decreased level of proactive behaviour. Therefore, information flow predicted proactive behaviour.

Furthermore, involvement was a significant predictor of proactive behaviour ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .05$). This indicates that as involvement increases by one unit, proactive behaviour also reduces by 0.75 units. Also, as involvement increases by one standard deviation ($SD = 4.64$), proactive behaviour reduces by 0.23 standard deviations. The standard deviation of proactive behaviour is 14.99 and so this constitutes a change of $-11.24 (-.75 \times 14.99)$ of proactive behaviour. Therefore, for every 4.64 increase in terms of organisational involvement experienced by the security personnel at the airport, there is a corresponding reduction of 11.24 in terms of their proactive behaviour. This means that Involvement as a factor of organisational culture leads to a decreased level of proactive behaviour. Hence, involvement predicted proactive behaviour.

The results further show that, organisational supervision was a significant predictor of proactive behaviour ($\beta = .46$, $p < .001$). This indicates that as organisational supervision increases by one unit, proactive behaviour also increases by 0.99 units. Also, as organisational supervision increases by one standard deviation ($SD=6.93$), proactive behaviour increases by 0.46 standard deviations. The standard deviation of proactive behaviour is 14.99 and so this constitutes a change of 14.84 (0.99×14.99) of proactive behaviour. Therefore, for every 6.93 increase in terms of organisational supervision received by the security personnel at the airport, there is a corresponding increase of 14.84 in terms of their proactive behaviour. This means that supervision as a factor of organisational culture leads to an increased level of proactive behaviour. Hence, supervision predicted proactive behaviour.

The results in Table 4.4 above indicate that, organisational meetings was also a significant predictor of proactive behaviour ($\beta = .72$, $p < .001$). This indicates that as organisational meetings increase by one unit, proactive behaviour also increases by 2.13 units. Also, as organisational meetings increase by one standard deviation ($SD=5.03$), proactive behaviour increases by 0.72 standard deviations. The standard deviation of proactive behaviour is 14.99 and so this constitutes a change of 31.93 (2.13×14.99) of proactive behaviour. Therefore, for every 5.03 increase in terms of organisational meetings experienced by the security personnel at the airport, there is a corresponding increase of 31.93 in terms of their proactive behaviour. This means that organisational meetings as a factor of organisational culture leads to an increased level of proactive behaviour. Hence, organisational meetings predicted proactive behaviour.

Additionally, from Table 4.4, the result showed that teamwork ($\beta = .117$, $p > .01$) and did not predict proactive behaviour.

Overall, the hypothesis that the dimensions of organisational culture will significantly predict proactive behaviour was partially supported.

4.4 Summary of Results

Results from the data analysis shows that,

- Some personality traits significantly predicted proactive behaviour
- Personality trait dimensions, extraversion, neuroticism and openness predicted proactive behaviour but agreeableness and conscientiousness were not significant predictors of proactive behaviour.

Organisational culture significantly predicted proactive behaviour.

- Dimensions of organisational culture: climate, information flow, involvement, supervision and meetings significantly predicted proactive behaviour; but teamwork was not a significant predictor of proactive behaviour.

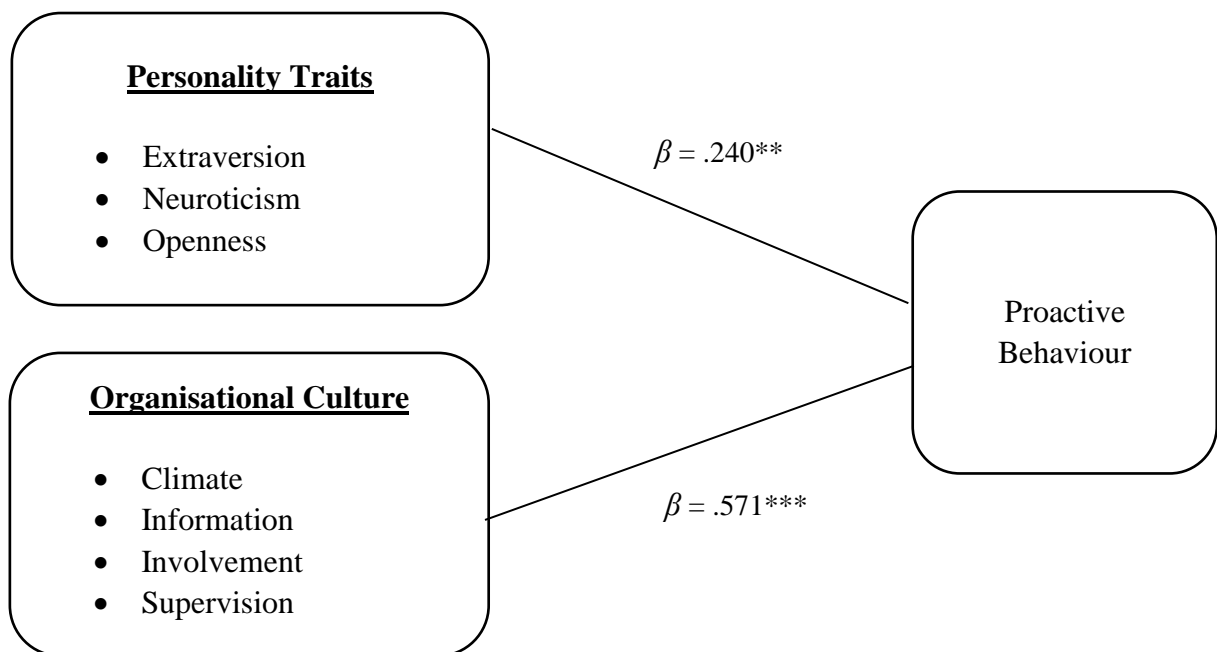


Figure 2: A summary of the observed relationships between study variables

Figure 2 is the final conceptual framework showing the significant relationships between the variables used in this study. Findings reveal that personality traits significantly predicted proactive behaviour ($\beta = .240^*$). The finding also revealed organisational culture is a significant predictor of proactive behaviour ($\beta = .571^*$). Further, it was observed that personality trait dimensions (extraversion, neuroticism and openness) predicted proactive behaviour, however agreeableness and conscientiousness were not significant predictors of proactive behaviour. Additionally, it was observed that organisational culture dimensions (climate, information flow, involvement, supervision and meetings) are significant predictors of proactive behaviour; however, teamwork did not significantly predict proactive behaviour.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

Aviation security has been a major source of concern in recent times due to the spate of terrorism in the world. Generally, proactive behaviour has gradually become a major source of concern for many in the corporate environment. Where proactive behaviour deals with how an individual employee introduces new ideas and goes beyond the norm to keep organisations alive. These characteristics are seen as a vital part or component that can enhance aviation security. However, various factors have been seen to influence proactive behaviour at the work place. Though these factors vary, this study concentrated on personality and organisational culture as the independent variables and observed how it affects proactive behaviour. This chapter presents the discussion of findings, recommendations and conclusions.

5.1 Discussions of Findings

The purpose of the study was to examine the influence of personality traits and organisational culture on proactive behaviour among aviation security personnel. After careful considerations and review of relevant scientific literature, four hypotheses were formulated and tested. The discussions of findings are presented below.

5.1.1 Relationship between Personality Traits and Proactive Behaviour

Personality traits significantly predicted proactive behaviour in this study. Observations from the findings support the proposed hypothesis that personality traits will be a significant predictor of proactive behaviour. The findings suggest that employees' personality types tend to account for their exhibition of proactive behaviours.

These findings are supported by a study conducted by Crant (2000). Crant (2000) established in his study that personality traits have a level of influence on the proactive behaviour exhibited by an individual. According to him, individuals who score high on their traits are more confident, actively work to control their environment, and seek out information rather than wait for information to arrive. Crant (2000) for instance stated that, extraversion and openness to experience are associated with a higher level of proactive socialisation behaviour.

Tidwell and Sias (2005) also found a direct relationship between personality traits and proactive behaviour. They further found and suggested a direct relationship between extraversion and covert relational information-seeking as an element of proactive behaviour.

In addition, this study finds ample support in a similar study conducted by Clarke and Robertson (2005) and Drew (2014) who demonstrated in their study that, the personality traits of employees influences their proactive behaviours, especially their safety behaviours. Drew (2014) therefore suggested that proactive behaviours can be enriched through analysing a person's personality traits and predisposition to commit for instance unsafe acts or behaviour.

The results of the present study underscore the fact that personality traits play a vital role in determining the proactive behaviour of employees, especially among aviation security personnel. This further explains that, even though the personality type may differ from one person to the other, aviation security employees' show of proactive behaviours is certainly related to the type of personality trait they possess which will in turn affect the smooth running of the organisation.

Given the establishment of a relationship between personality trait and proactive behaviour, the researcher further probed to find out how the individual dimensions of personality trait

affect proactive behaviour. This was to allow for a broadened discussion on how personality type affects proactive behaviour

5.1.2 Relationship between Dimensions of Personality Trait and Proactive Behaviour

It was hypothesised that the dimensions of personality trait will significantly predict proactive behaviour. However, this hypothesis was partially supported. That is, only extraversion, neuroticism and openness predicted proactive behaviour while agreeableness and conscientiousness did not significantly predict proactive behaviour.

Neuroticism and Proactive Behaviour

This finding indicates that neuroticism is a significant predictor of proactive behaviour. This is supported by the Big five personality theory. According to Norris et al. (2007), neuroticism is an individual's personal disposition to exhibit high negative emotions like sadness, anger, guilt, disgust, paranoia and fear. According to the theory, individuals who are high on the continuum of neuroticism are mostly moody, emotionally unstable and have mood swings (Poropat, 2009). This tends to affect the activities of various organisations as it leads to lack of cooperation, unnecessary tension and conflicts. However, people who are low on the continuum of neuroticism are more stable and handle issues better (O'Connor, 2002). These individuals usually have the clear mind to take pertinent decisions at the work place. Individuals who are low on neuroticism are able to control negative emotions like depression, anxiety and anger, which tend to cloud peoples' judgement on many occasions (McCrae & Terracciano, 2005). This is why most studies have consistently found a negative relationship between proactive behaviour and neuroticism (Crant & Bateman, 2000; Klein et al. 2004).

Klien et al. (2004) indicated that the anxiety, depression and vulnerability that is associated with neuroticism tend to hinder people from engaging in proactive behaviour. Employees

who are highly neurotic are very unstable emotionally and hence do not engage in proactive behaviour. This assertion is also supported by Gosling et al. (2003) when the researcher asserted that it is difficult for highly neurotic people to engage in emotional adjustment and self-regulation, which are essential for undertaking proactive decisions and behaviour.

Contrary to the findings of this study, Morrossanova (2003) indicated that when ambiguity is ensured, highly neurotic employees are more likely to engage in proactive behaviour than those with lower levels. This is because when there is ambiguity in an activity or an expected response, neurotic people tend to worry and be anxious and this helps them plan and exert more energy towards such situations; this therefore, makes them proactive. Also, Tamir (2005) added that neurotic people tend to plan effectively to prevent ambiguous situations and this makes for the difficulties they face in their ability to self-regulate.

The result of this study is also supported by a study conducted by Bateman and Crant (1993) which also investigated proactive behaviour in an organisational setting. The study found that there was a negative relationship between neuroticism and proactive behaviour. The researcher attributed the results to the emotional instability of the neurotic employees and their inability to rationally think through events and situations.

Openness and Proactive Behaviour

Also, this finding indicates that openness is a significant predictor of proactive behaviour. The finding indicates that openness as a trait of personality was found not to just be a predictor of proactive behaviour, but it played a more predictive role on proactive behaviour than the other dimensions.

Norris et al. (2007) stated that people who are very open are very emotional, curious, and attentive and mostly have unusual ideas and appreciate art. Individuals who are very open are likely to try out new ideas, concepts and always handle novel challenges with eager

resolve. These are characteristics that make one very proactive. This is due to the fact that they are more likely to take decisions in new situations and circumstances.

On the other hand, less open people are less likely to adapt to new situations and are more likely to prevent change in their environment (Cobb-Clark & Shurer, 2012). Employees who are less open tend not to enjoy novel situations and hence resist novel ideas. According to McCrae and Terracciano (2005), less open employees tend to be less abstract in their thinking, making it difficult for them to be proactive. From the above, it can be observed that employees who are highly open are more likely to be proactive and vice versa.

In support of the findings of the present study, Crant and Bateman (2000) indicated that there is a positive relationship between proactive behaviour and openness. According to Prenda and Lachman (2001), when employees are open they are more flexible, imaginative and intelligent and this supports proactive behaviour: to be proactive is to be flexible and creative in all situations. They are more likely to try new ideas and ways of doing things, mostly things that are very challenging; and always act against the status quo. They oppose the status quo rather than stick to the old patterns of doing things (Shalley et al. 2004).

Agreeableness and Proactive Behaviour

Furthermore, agreeableness was not found to predict proactive behavior. This finding was contrary to the big five personality theory. According to McCrae and Terracciano (2005), agreeableness is a trait that is characterised by cooperativeness, trust and altruism. Consistently, research has shown that people who are highly agreeable are likely to be friendly and compassionate. The theory further states that when people are less agreeable, they tend to be very difficult and detached (Marsh et al. 2010). Jeronimus et al. (2014) stated that when people are very agreeable, they tend to exhibit high levels of empathy, care about others and help others achieve happiness.

However, such people are seen as naïve or submissive. This makes them likely to easily accept the status quo (Norris et al. 2007). People who are low on agreeableness are always by themselves and hence are easily convinced to accept whatever is being provided. This makes these people more likely to accept the norms and practices of the organisation and are therefore not motivated to act against the status quo. From the above, it can be said that people with high levels of agreeableness are less likely to engage in proactive behaviour and vice versa.

Fay and Frese (2001) found a significantly negative correlation between proactive behaviour and agreeableness. Bjorkelo et al. (2010) also found a negative correlation between proactive behaviour and agreeableness. This shows that when an employee is agreeable he or she tends to be less proactive and unwilling to challenge the basic norms of the organisation. However, Turban and Lee (2007) indicated that when an employee is not agreeable, he or she tends to challenge the status quo and hence is more proactive than other colleagues.

Contrary to the findings in the literature, the present study did not find agreeableness as a significant predictor of proactive behaviour. The finding could be as a result of the nature of the working environment of the respondents used for the study. This is because for the aviation security service, though activities are structured, there is the flexibility for the staff to apply the structure based on their discretion. This is due to the dynamic nature of the activities that employees engage in. This takes out the element of challenging the status quo.

Extraversion and Proactive Behaviour

Contrary to the literature, this study found extraversion to be a negative predictor of proactive behaviour. That is, the higher the level of extraversion, the lower the tendency to

exhibit proactive behaviour and vice versa. According to the Big five personality traits, extraversion is seen as positively related to proactive behaviour (Major et al., 2014). Extraversion refers to the attitude of people to prefer being in large groups and desire excitement and stimulation. Employees with these characteristics tend to get easily excited, are assertive and they talk a lot. They tend to want to be the centre of attention and easily start new conversations. However, people who are seen as having low levels to extraversion are likely to keep to themselves, easily become exhausted when they socialize a lot, and are not motivated to make small talk. They think deeply before speaking and do not like being the centre of attraction (Cobb-Clark & Shurer, 2012).

Bateman and Crant (1999) found that, when an employee is an extravert he or she is gregarious and outgoing, and these characteristics enhance proactive behaviour. Major et al. (2014) stated that extraverts are very assertive and active and prefer to be in groups. They tend to exert a lot of energy which can be directed into proactive behaviour in an organisation. According to Turban et al. (2017), an assertive person refers to an individual who has the likelihood to take specific actions that influence the environment in which they exist. This was also supported by a study conducted by Bjorkelo et al. (2010). Major et al. (2006) also found that extraverts are goal-oriented and motivated to accomplish tasks, qualities which are more in line with proactive behaviour. Bateman and Crant (1993) also found a positive relationship between extraversion and proactive behaviour. However, the researchers in the present study found that extraversion is negatively associated with proactive behaviour.

Conscientiousness and Proactive Behaviour

Conscientiousness was not found to significantly predict proactive behaviour. This finding indicates that conscientiousness as a trait of personality has no influence on proactive behaviour. According to the theory of the Big Five personality traits, an individual is seen

as conscientious when he or she has the tendency to be organized, purposeful and determined. These individuals are more organised than easy-going. According to Marsh et al. (2013), these people are very thoughtful, goal-oriented and have good control over their impulses. McCrae and Terracciano (2005) added that they have a sense of preparedness and are always detailed and conscious about activities that they engage in. However, a less conscientious person is seen as very easy-going, less structured and does not usually take care of properties (O'Connor, 2002). Based on the theory, it can be seen that when a person is high on the continuum of conscientiousness, the person exhibits characteristics that support proactive behaviour. This is, however, contrary to the findings of this study; as no relationship was found between conscientiousness and proactive behaviour.

Also, the finding of Grant and Ashford (2008) was contrary to the findings of this study, as the researcher found a relationship between conscientiousness and proactive behaviour. Grant and Ashford (2008), further added that when a person is conscientious, he or she becomes goal-oriented, well-organized, persistent and disciplined and this tends to affect proactive behaviour positively. That is when an individual exhibits a high level of conscientiousness, he or she tends to engage in proactive behaviour. According to Judge and Hies (2002), when employees are conscientious they tend to always plan, anticipate and engage more effort to help accomplish future objectives. This applies in a wide range of circumstances and activities. From this assertion, this means that should the aviation security persons be able to effectively plan, anticipate and put in much effort towards ensuring the security of the airports, they are likely to be more proactive. This was however rejected by the findings of this research. Less conscientious people tend to avoid responsibility and also live in the moment (Grant, 2008), this tends to make them less proactive.

From the above it can be observed that the findings of this study are contrary to the literature and theory used for the study. The sampling technique used for the study could have in one way or the other affected the results of the study. The researcher used convenience sampling which is a non-probability sampling technique. This could have affected the results of the study as there was some bias in sampling. Also, the results could have been influenced by subject characteristics of the respondents as they were on duty and were not really willing to answer the questions or tried providing answers to questions without reading or understanding the questions.

5.1.3 Relationship between Organisational Culture and its Dimensions and Proactive Behaviour

The hypothesis sought to investigate whether organisational culture will significantly predict proactive behaviour. In view of this the hypothesis stated that organisational culture will significantly predict proactive behaviour. This hypothesis was supported.

The finding of the study was supported by Wu and Parker (2014), when they stated that proactive behaviour can be facilitated by leadership support and supervision. The researchers explained that with the right supervision exhibited through encouragement, non-interference and leadership availability, proactive behaviour is encouraged. Axtell et al. (2000) added that leaders play a vital role in ensuring an environment that is supportive enough to promote proactive behaviour. Ohly et al. (2006) added that, providing a secure-based supervision and support for employees enhances self-efficacy, which promotes the proactive behaviour of the employee. Rank (2006) added that adequate supervision helps direct the employee in how to become proactive. The consistent supervision and support is needed for progressive change of an employee from being retroactive to being proactive. Frese and Fay (2001) stated that a proactive supervision has the capacity to make an

employee more proactive by providing the experience and needed training to develop the employee. This supports the findings of this study, which suggest that supervision as an organisational behaviour can enhance the capacity of an employee to be proactive.

However, contrary to the findings of the study, Parker et al. (2006) stated that supervision hinders and prevents employees from being proactive. The researchers indicated that proactive behaviour is mostly enhanced when the employee is allowed to operate in a free environment. Wu and Parker (2012) stated that proactive behaviour can be ensured when there is no interference by management and this is not usually possible in a controlled environment. This hinders proactive behaviour in so many ways, as proactive behaviour relates to self-anticipatory initiatives. However, Axtell et al. (2000) stated that supervision is not the main problem, but the nature of supervision is. Wu and Parker (2012) added that if supervision becomes interference, then it would reduce proactive behaviour; but should it be non-interference, then it would enhance proactive behaviour.

Meetings and Proactive Behaviour

The study also found that, meetings as a dimension of organisational culture significantly predicted proactive behaviour. According to Rogelberg et al. (2006) holding meetings are a very vital part of an organisation in ensuring its capacity to meet set goals. Cohen-Powless, Rogelberg and Luong (2003) stated that, meeting allows workers and employees to discuss the plans, policies and strategies that have been put up by management as a way of achieving organisational goals. According to the researchers, meeting allows employees to understand the aims and objectives of the organisation from the management's point-of-view.

In support of the findings of the study, Rogelberg et al. (2006) stated that being proactive requires anticipation, self-initiation and change orientation. And the employee can only exhibit these when he/she is aware of the objectives of the organisation. In addition, meeting

helps both management and employees to interact, and this creates a conducive environment for both parties to work together to achieve organisational goals and objectives (Diefendorff et al., 2002). These interactions give the employees the opportunity to learn from their supervisors' new ways of engaging in their daily activities and taking decisions. This makes the employee more anticipatory and from experience, develops a self-initiative behaviour. This shows that holding meetings and informing employees about management decisions can ensure or enhance proactive behaviour. Rogelberg et al. (2006), stated that organisations that inform their employees are more proactive than organisations that do not provide employees with much information.

Information and Proactive Behaviour.

Additionally, the study established that information flow is a significant predictor of proactive behaviour. In support of the findings, Turkalj et al. (2014) stated that the flow of information allows an employee to be proactive. The researchers indicated that when employees are informed about the objectives of an organisation they can take more informed decisions that allow them to be proactive in decision making. Diefendorff et al. (2002) added that for an employee to anticipate potential challenges and consider possible solutions, the employee has to be briefed and informed. In addition, the researchers asserted that encouraging proactive behaviour in an organisation involves the management always assessing the decisions taken by employees whiles engaging in their daily activities. Turkalj et al. (2014) indicated that acknowledging the proactive behaviour exhibited by employees and constructively criticising their daily activities promotes proactive behaviour amongst them.

Climate and Proactive Behaviour The findings showed that climate significantly predicted proactive behaviour. According to Isaken and Ekvall (2007), organisational climate

involves the quantifying of the culture of an organisation. This usually involves determining various properties of the working environment based on the direct or indirect perception of employees. According to Bushell (2007), an organisational climate can also be referred to as corporate climate and is considered one of the most vital forces that influence the behaviour of employees in an organisational setting. According to Isaksen and Ekvall (2007), climate of an organisation predicts proactive behaviour because it determines the way an employee sees an organisation; if the employee sees the organisation as a place where proactive behaviour is rewarded, then he/she will engage in proactive behaviour.

According to Isaksen and Ekvall (2007), many researchers have found a relationship between organisational climate and various employee behaviour, these include proactive behaviour. In addition, Kantan and Ulker (2013) stated that organisational climate is a major determinant of employees' behaviour, motivation, potentials and attitudes. Al-Saudi (2012) added that the success or failure of an organisation relates to the climate in which the organisation operates. Bushell (2007) stated that an employee may be motivated or not to engage in proactive behaviour based on the climate of the organisation they belong to.

Involvement and Proactive Behaviour

From the findings of this study, involvement is a significant predictor of proactive behaviour. The concept of employee involvement or engagement is the buzz word in business and organisational circles in recent times (Ludwig & Frazier, 2012). This is important because the involvement of employees reflects their trust, loyalty and support for the business and indicates their intention to be a team player (Chughtai & Buckley, 2008). The researchers indicated that employee involvement shows commitment to work and an enhanced rate of responsibility. According to White (2008), employee involvement predicts proactive behaviour. This is because employee involvement determines how proactive an employee can get in relation to their activities and duties. Ludwig and Frazier (2012)

maintained that when employees are involved in decision making, it encourages an all-inclusive organisational behaviour that supports creativity and self-initiated efforts by the employee. Oyaro (2016) added that these characteristics support proactive behaviour and enhance organisational development.

The findings of this study were supported by the Self-Efficacy theory. The self-efficacy theory states that the higher an employee's self-efficacy is, the higher their belief that they can accomplish all their tasks (Ormrod, 2006). This looks at the environment in which the employee exists and how the working environment influences proactive behaviour. According to Waaktaar and Torgersen (2013), vicarious experience, a component of self-efficacy enhances proactive behaviour. When the working environment supports vicarious experiences encourages proactive behaviour in the employees. Vicarious learning involves consistently observing a social model perform an activity or task and then imitating the person. This means in the organisational environment, when the culture of the organisation supports the observing of social models perform proactive behaviour, it is likely for the employees to engage in proactive behaviour (Pajares, 2003). That is, in an organisation, when employees observe other employees (especially the management) perform proactive behaviour, they tend to also engage in similar behaviour. Social persuasion, on the other hand, is seen as the impact of others' actions and words on the activities of people (Buzzanell et al., 2011). This is seen as a means of supporting the proactive behaviour of employees in the working environment. The use of coaching, pep talks and others can boost the morale of workers and foster proactive behaviour in the organisation.

On the other hand, the social learning theory has also been noted to have an impact on proactive behaviour. According to Bandura (1971), social learning combines both cognitive learning and behaviour learning. The cognitive aspect looks at the individual aspects, which

include personality and the social learning aspect is related to the environment (Wang & Wu, 2008). This theory looks at how the surrounding environment of an individual affects his or her behaviour. Therefore, the theory brings into perspective how organisational culture affects proactive behaviour of the employee. The theory proposes four steps that the individual has to go through in order to learn within the social environment: attention, retention, reproduction and motivation (Furhrmann et al., 2014). However, from the organisational culture point-of-view, motivation is seen as an input of the organisation and not the individual. Motivation refers to anticipated rewards and punishments that accompany behaviour exhibited by an employee. This therefore means in an organisation, when the employees are motivated after performing a task the likelihood that they will repeat the task is high (Herrmann et al., 2007). It also means that the organisational culture affects proactive behaviour of the employees. This is in line with the findings of the present study. The result of the study can also be attributed to the scale used for the study. The scale was highly reliable and valid. Also, the results indicate that the organisational culture has been effective in supporting proactive behaviour in the organisation. This is because job control has been seen to be positively related with proactive behaviour, which is a component of organisational culture (Sonnetag and Spychala, 2012). The nature of the work at GACL allows the workers to manipulate their surroundings, which ensures job control. Also, there is a lot of social support in the organisation and this supports proactive behaviour (Parker et al., 2006). When there is support from the organisation in terms of the feedback and resources, it allows the employees to be proactive.

5.2 Limitation of the Study

The present study, like all previous studies conducted is not without limitations. First and foremost, the study only used quantitative methods of investigation. That is, the use of questionnaires. This method allowed the researcher to quantify the variable under study and

therefore the relationship between them. However, the limitation is that the researcher was unable to further probe the respondents to find out more about the relationship that exists and how it affects the respondents.

Also, the study was limited because the researcher used a non-probability method of sampling. This limits the ability of the researcher to generalize the results. Another limitation is that the researcher used non-experimental designs and therefore no cause-effect relationship could be drawn. Finally the research was limited based on the situational characteristics that were present during the study. The study was conducted during working hours and this affected the time the respondents allocated to answering the questionnaire.

5.3 Implications for Practice

First and foremost, the study contributes knowledge and information to Industrial and Organisational Psychology in Ghana, to help practitioners understand the concept of personality and organisational culture and how they affect proactive behaviour in Ghana. This contribution is most profound since this is the first time a study of this nature has been conducted in the aviation industry in Ghana. This will also serve as a basis for researchers to make reference when conducting further research in this area. Also, the study makes significant contributions through its findings. Most research reviewed showed the nature of the relationship that exists between the concepts, especially various aspects of personality and proactive behaviour. This study makes it known that agreeableness and conscientiousness are not significantly related to proactive behaviour. Also, that extraversion is negatively related to proactive behaviour. These contributions will serve future research and practice in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

5.4 Recommendations of the Study

The recommendations are based on literature and the findings of the study. The researcher divides the recommendations into two main categories; recommendations for future research and recommendations for practice. These two categories are present below.

5.4.1 Recommendation for Practice

Firstly, the study recommends that the management of GACL take into consideration the personality traits of the employees they employ to work for them. Based on the findings of the study, the management should make sure that the staff should have lower levels of neuroticism, high levels of openness and low levels of extraversion. This would ensure that the organisation has the right employees with the needed personality to engage in proactive behaviour. Secondly, the organisation can design programmes to train existing employees to exhibit personality traits that support proactive behaviour.

Secondly, the study recommends that the organisation creates the right environment for proactive behaviour to be encouraged. Based on the findings of study, the organisational culture plays a vital role in ensuring that staff engage in proactive behaviour. This means the organisations should provide means of promoting vicarious learning, social persuasion and motivation as a means of supporting the proactive behaviour of employees.

In addition, the employers should provide the employees with the needed resources, job control, motivation and social support. This ensures that the employees have the flexibility, resources and motivation to be proactive.

Finally, the study recommends that policies should not be put in a straitjacket, but that employees be given the opportunity to express their opinions and think independently. This makes the employees more proactive than when they are made to follow a strict set of rules and norms.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Future Research

First and foremost, the study recommends that future research should use a qualitative approach or mixed approach instead of concentrating on the quantitative aspect only. The qualitative aspect will help the researcher probe further and gain more information about the concept. This can be achieved through interviews and other methods. Secondly, the researcher recommends that future researchers should conduct the study at other departments or organisations. This would ensure that the study is easily generalized and can further be undertaken, since replication provides more evidence or data to back the concept. Also, future researchers should also look at how other variables like gender, age and tenure affect proactive behaviour. Furthermore, future research should consider supervisory and colleague appraisals to self-administered questionnaires so as to limit social desirable responses.

5.5 Conclusion

The results of the study suggest highly the pivotal roles of the big five personality traits and organisational culture on proactive behaviour. Results showed that openness to experience and agreeableness positively predicted proactive behaviour while extraversion and neuroticism negatively predicted proactive behaviour. This finding throws more light on the fact that in ensuring safety in aviation, there is the need for Industrial Psychologists to place much importance on personality profiling in order to employ the right people with the most appropriate skills to ensure the safety of Ghanaians. Moreover, there is the need for the culture within the organisation to be stimulating and serene enough to ensure that employees are encouraged to give their best by being proactive at their work place.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: CLEARANCE FORM



UNIVERSITY OF GHANA
ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR THE HUMANITIES (ECH)

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

My Ref. No.....

21st December, 2016

Mr. Osei Yaw Sarfo
Department of Psychology
University of Ghana
Legon

Dear Mr. Sarfo,

ECH 047/16-17: THE INFLUENCE OF PERSONALITY TRAITS AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON PROACTIVE BEHAVIOUR AMONG AVIATION SECURITY 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: 13/06/17
On Agenda for: Initial Submission
Date of Submission: 20/10/16
ECH Action: Approved
Reporting: Quarterly

Please accept my congratulations.

Yours Sincerely,

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



CC: Dr. Maxwell Asumeng, Department of Psychology

APPENDIX II
QUESTIONNAIRE

The Influence of Personality Traits and Organisational Culture on Proactive Behaviour among Aviation Security Personnel

Please read the instructions of each questionnaire carefully before responding.

Thank you for your participation in this study

Researcher: Osei Yaw Sarfo
Mobile number: +233 (0) 240264500
Email address: oseivawsarfo@gmail.com

Section A: Demographics.

Please be informed that the data collected is for research purposes only. To ensure anonymity please do not write your name on the sheet. Information provided will be treated with maximum respect and confidentiality. Your participation is voluntary and highly welcome. Thank you.

Please indicate your answer by ticking.

1. Sex: Male [] Female []

2. Age: 20-25 [] 26-30 [] 31-35 [] 36-40 [] 40 and over []

3. Number of years worked with Aviation Security

Section B: Proactive behaviour scale

Please rate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements, using the following rating scale:

- (1) Strongly disagree
- (2) Disagree
- (3) Not sure
- (5) Agree
- (7) Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
1. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.					
2. I feel driven to make a difference in my community, and maybe the world.					
3. I tend to let others take the initiative to start new projects.					
4. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.					
5. I enjoy facing and overcoming obstacles to my ideas.					
6. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.					
7. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.					

8. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.					
9. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.					
10. I excel at identifying opportunities.					
11. I am always looking for better ways to do things.					
12. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.					
13. I love to challenge the status quo.					
14. When I have a problem, I tackle it head-on.					
15. I am great at turning problems into opportunities.					
16. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.					
17. If I see someone in trouble, I help out anyway I can.					

Section C: Organisational Culture questionnaire

Please be as honest and accurate as you can throughout. Try not to let your response to one statement influence your responses to other statements. There are no "correct" or "incorrect" answers. Answer according to your own feelings, rather than how you think "most people" would answer.

- 1 = completely disagree
- 2 = disagree
- 3 = neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = agree
- 5 = completely agree

	1	2	3	4	5
1. GACL has welcomed the initiative and innovations.					
2. In GACL the management prefers to do things in a typical way without innovation.					
3. In GACL organisation's goals are clear for the staff.					
4. In GACL lack of clear goals and priorities are seen.					
5. In GACL each part works independently.					
6. In GACL different part work coordinately together.					
7. In GACL managers are working in coordination and agreement.					
8. In GACL if a problem occurs for me, I can count on my manager's support.					
9. My manager supports my activities and efforts in my company.					
10. In GACL there is a possibility of getting help from my manager when I make a mistake.					
11. My manager trusts me in my company.					

12. Employees have control over their work in my company.					
13. In my company the destiny and success of organisation is highly important to me.					
14. In GACL my goals are different from the organisation's.					
15. I do my best to organisation's success.					
16. My job doesn't satisfy me.					
17. In GACL rewards are based on performance.					
18. I feel my rewards are according to my performance.					
19. In GACL reward is based on relations and connections.					
20. In GACL managers pay attention to employee's opinions even if they disagree with them.					
21. Problems are solved without confrontation in an effective way.					
22. In GACL I can get help from others when I face a problem.					
23. In GACL it is difficult to contact managers when a problem occurs.					

Section D: Big Five Inventory

Please, circle the choice that best describes how much you agree with each statement. Circle only one answer for each statement. There is no right or wrong answer.

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = disagree
- 3 = neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = agree
- 5 = strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
<i>I See Myself as Someone who...</i>					
1. Is talkative.					
2. Tends to find fault with others.					
3. Does a thorough job.					
4. Is depressed, blue.					
5. Is original, comes up with new ideas.					
6. Is reserved					
7. Is helpful and unselfish with others.					
8. Can be somewhat careless.					

9. Is relaxed, handles stress well.					
10. Is curious about many different things.					
11. Is full of energy.					
12. Starts quarrels with others.					
13. Is a reliable worker.					
14. Can be tense.					
15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker.					
16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm..					
17. Has a forgiving nature.					
18. Tends to be disorganized.					
19. Worries a lot.					
20. Has an active imagination.					
21. Tends to be quiet.					
22. Is generally trusting.					
23. Tends to be lazy.					
24. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset.					
25. Is inventive.					
26. Has an assertive personality.					
27. Can be cold and aloof.					
28. Perseveres until the task is finished.					
29. Can be moody.					
30. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences.					
31. Is sometimes shy, inhibited.					
32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone.					
33. Does things efficiently.					
34. Remains calm in tense situations.					
35. Prefers work that is routine.					
36. Is outgoing, sociable.					
37. Is sometimes rude to others.					
38. Makes plans and follows through with them.					
39. Gets nervous easily.					
40. Likes to reflect, play with ideas.					
41. Has a few artistic interests.					
42. Likes to cooperate with others.					
43. Is easily distracted.					
44. Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature.					