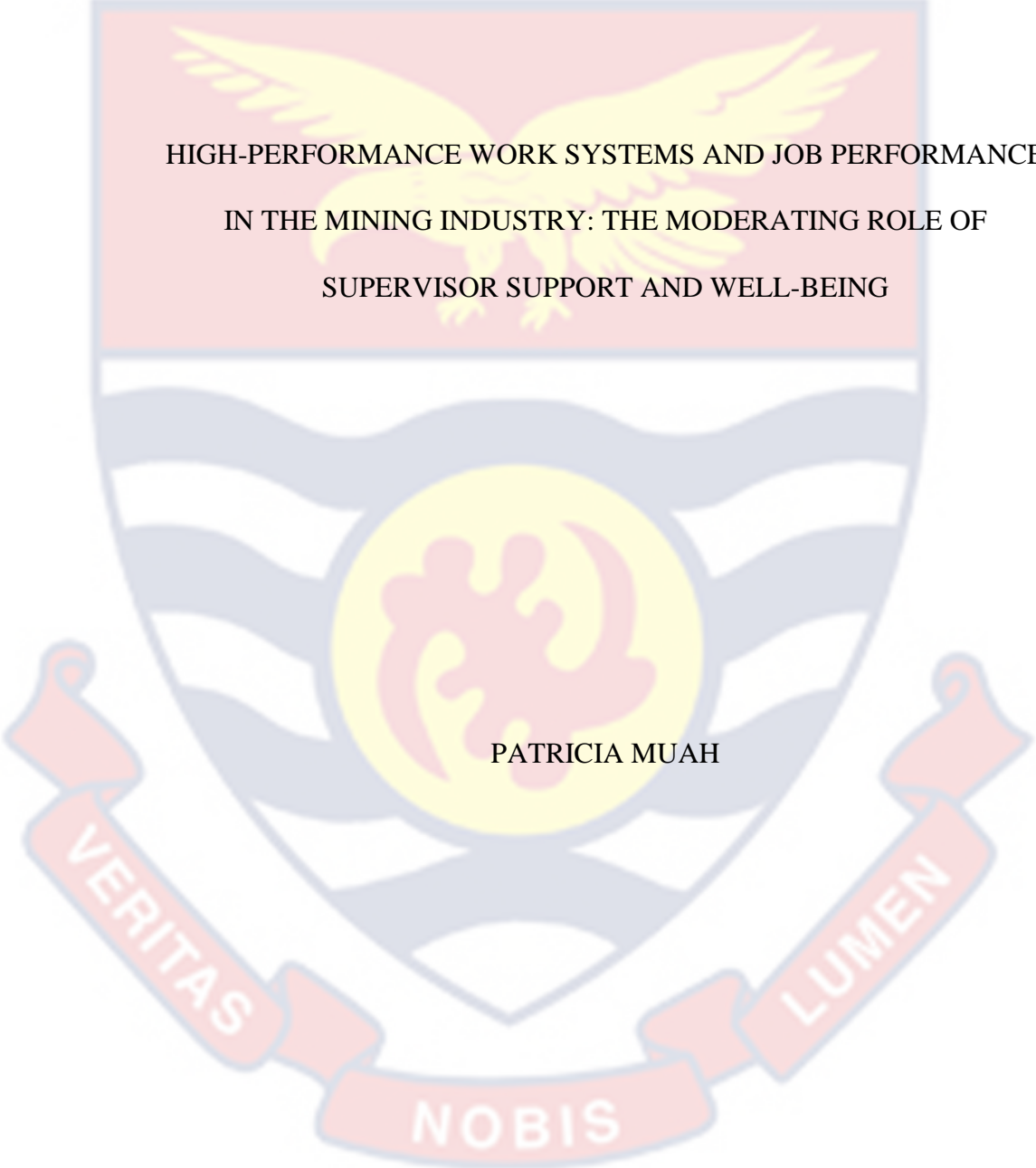


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST



HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK SYSTEMS AND JOB PERFORMANCE
IN THE MINING INDUSTRY: THE MODERATING ROLE OF
SUPERVISOR SUPPORT AND WELL-BEING

PATRICIA MUAH

2023

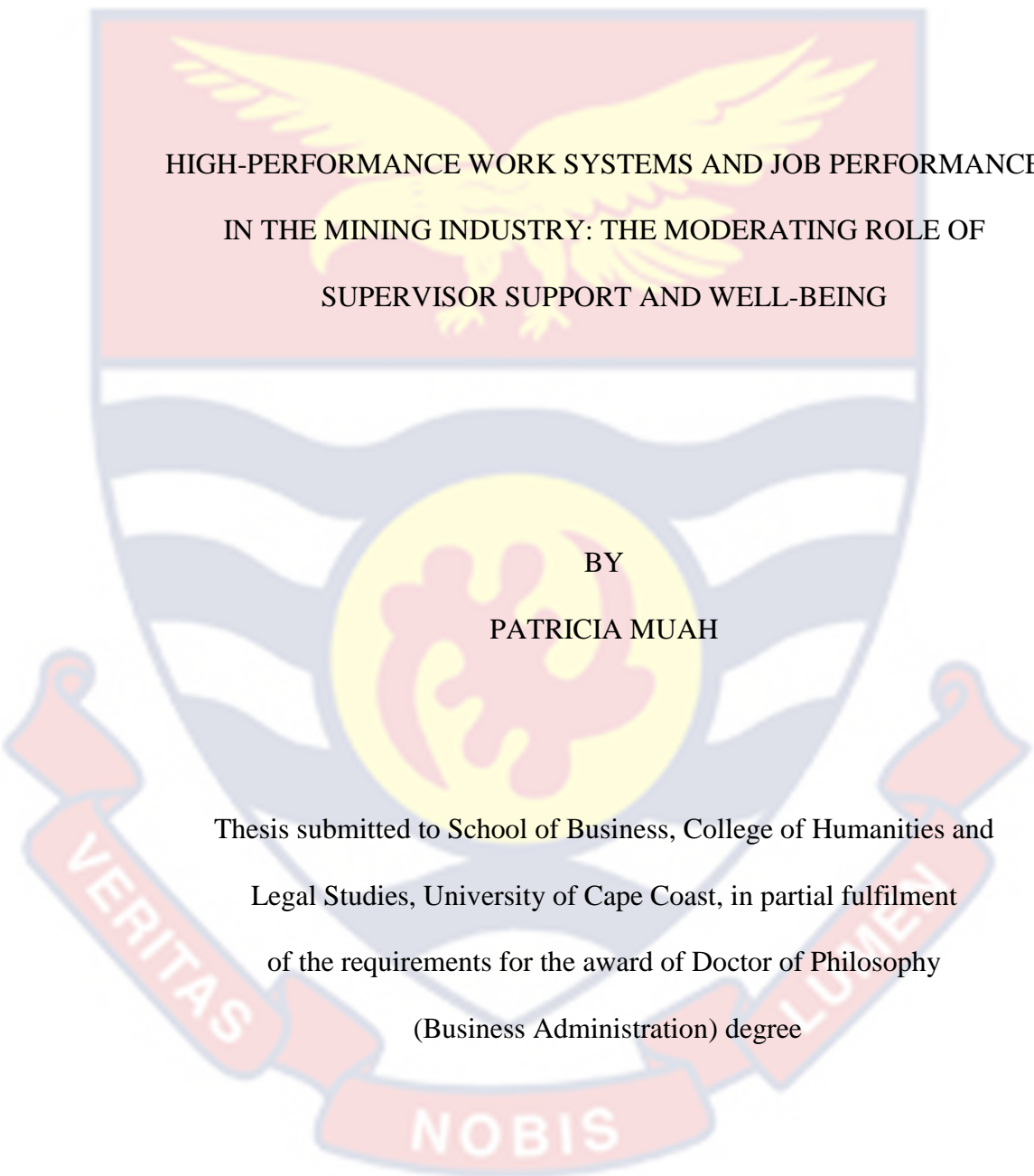


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HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK SYSTEMS AND JOB PERFORMANCE
IN THE MINING INDUSTRY: THE MODERATING ROLE OF
SUPERVISOR SUPPORT AND WELL-BEING

BY
PATRICIA MUAH

Thesis submitted to School of Business, College of Humanities and
Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy
(Business Administration) degree

JULY 2023

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: Date:

Name: Patricia Muah

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name: Prof. Kwabena Barimah Antwi

Co-Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name: Prof. Felix Kwame Opoku

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to examine HPWS and job performance, the moderating role of supervisor support and well-being among employees in the Ghanaian mining industry. The study was conceptualised on the premise that mining companies in Ghana continue to face challenges with their employees regarding job performance issues, such as utilising poor work methods which yield errors causing injuries, leading to lost time. These ineffective working practices and errors negatively influenced the performance of employees. The study followed the quantitative approach and explanatory research design. It involved a survey of a stratified random sample of 428 employees from three mining companies in Ghana. The data were analysed using partial least square-based structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). The analysis revealed that HR practices that enhance abilities, motivation, and opportunities boost task and contextual performance. The study demonstrated that supervisor support could provide social support amid the HPWS to act as a buffer and improve contextual performance. Additionally, it was indicated that well-being moderated the HPWS and contextual performance. It was recommended that HR professionals ensure that HPWS provide employees with KSA and motivation to complete tasks to eliminate errors. It was also suggested that HR managers implement several initiatives to encourage supervisors' participation in formulating and implementing HR practices. In addition, it is recommended that HR managers ensure that organisations invest significantly in a conducive work environment to improve their employees' well-being.

KEYWORDS

High-Performance Work Systems

Job Performance

Supervisor Support

Well-being



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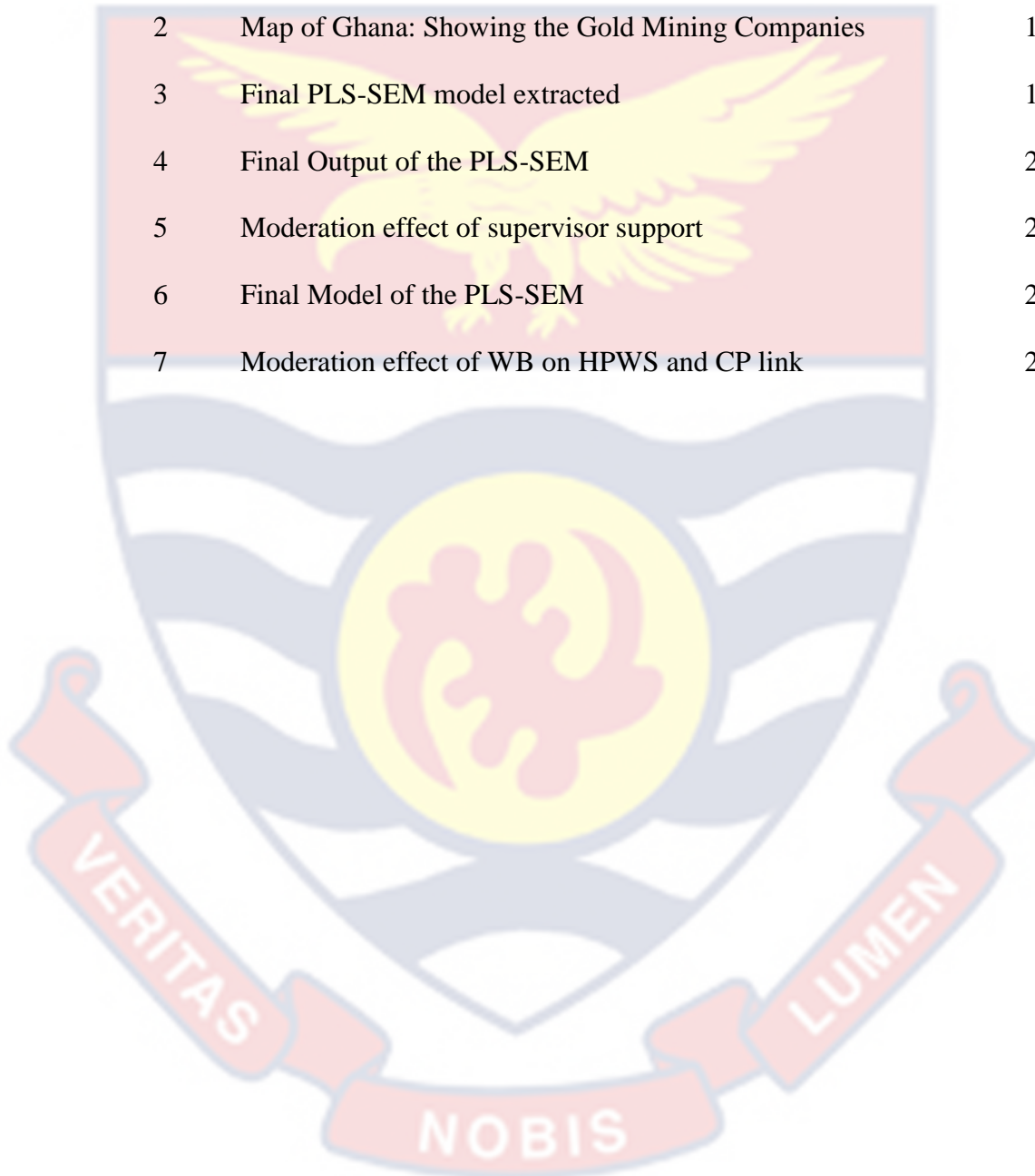
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LIST OF ACRONYMSThe background of the page features a large, semi-transparent watermark of the University of Cape Coast crest. The crest is a shield-shaped emblem with a yellow eagle with outstretched wings in the center. Below the eagle is a circular emblem with a red and yellow design. The shield is flanked by two red banners with white text: 'VERITAS' on the left and 'LUMEN' on the right. At the bottom of the shield is a red banner with the word 'NOBIS' in white. The entire crest is set against a light blue and white background.

| | |
|---------|---|
| AMO | Ability-motivation-opportunity |
| AEHRP | Ability-enhancing HR practices |
| COM | Compensation |
| CR | Construct Reliability |
| CP | Contextual Performance |
| EM | Employee Voice |
| GST | General System Theory |
| HOC | High-order Components |
| HPWS | High-Performance Work Systems |
| HR | Human Resource |
| HRM | Human Resource Management |
| ILO | International Labour Organisation |
| JD | Job design |
| JD-R | Job demand-resource |
| JP | Job Performance |
| KSA | Knowledge, Skills and Ability |
| LOC | Low-order Components |
| PA | Performance Appraisal |
| PLS-SEM | Partial Least Square- Structural Equation Modelling |
| WB | Well-being |
| RS | Recruitment and Selection |
| SEM | Structural Equation Modelling |
| TP | Task Performance |
| TR | Training |

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The study of high-performance work systems (HPWS) and job performance, the moderating role of supervisor support and well-being in the mining industry of Ghana, was necessitated by the fact that employees in the mining industry utilise ineffective work methods to carry out their activities which leads to low performance (Joe-Asare et al., 2023; Stemn, 2019). However, researchers have indicated that investment in the right HPWS could give employees the skills, knowledge, experiences and motivation to enhance their job performance (Ali et al., 2024; Jalali et al., 2021; Yu Zhou et al., 2024). Drawing on the ability-motivation-opportunity (AMO) theory, integrating HR practices to form systems will provide employees with abilities, motivation and opportunities to improve performance (Bartram et al., 2021; Edgar et al., 2021).

This thesis draws on the ability-motivation-opportunity (AMO) theory, the general system theory, social exchange, and the job demand-resource theory to explain that effective and efficient implementation of HPWS dictates the pace for increased job performance. This chapter sets the foundation for the study, beginning with an introduction and background. It then outlines the problem statement, details the study's objectives, formulates the research questions, and presents the hypotheses. Furthermore, the chapter highlights the study's significance and delineates its delimitations and limitations of the study. The final section describes the organisation of the study and defines key terms.

Background to the Study

HPWS is a group of HR practices that work together to improve the performance of an organisation by improving employee skills and motivation and making it easier for employees to get involved (Boxall et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2012; Lepak et al., 2006). HPWS constitutes various approaches for managing employees by intentionally establishing a highly devoted and competent workforce via the use of a diverse variety of cultural and people practices (Beltrán-Martín et al., 2017; Cascio & Boudreau, 2016). Accordingly, Ashiru et al. (2021) suggest that HPWS is a set of standard HR practices aimed at optimising performance by making the most of workers' skills, knowledge and abilities (KSAs). Thus, HPWS is a comprehensive blend of human resource strategies, organisational structures, and procedures that enhance employee understanding, capability, accountability, and flexibility (Pahos et al., 2021).

The value of HPWS is found in its ability to serve as a conduit for organisations to find a talented workforce (Jiang et al., 2017; Jyoti et al., 2017). HPWS can assist organisations in obtaining high-quality human capital through rigorous staffing methods (Boxall & Purcell, 2000; Lepak & Gowan, 2016). Additionally, HPWS stimulates development, learning, and the worth and uniqueness of employees' knowledge and abilities, leading to enhanced performance in the workplace (Karadas & Karatepe, 2019; Zhang & Morris, 2014). Similarly, HPWS stimulates workers by ensuring that reward systems comprised of monetary and non-monetary incentives are regarded as impartial (Applebaum et al., 2000) since employees' views of equality influence their choices to join, stay, and contribute to an organisation (Takeuchi et al., 2017).

Another distinguishing feature of HPWS is its endeavour to remove the negative features of routine labour and replace them with intrinsically fulfilling activities. It empowers employees by offering them the opportunity to utilise accumulated motivation and capabilities. Per the views of Zacharatos et al. (2005), HPWS stresses employee empowerment via enhanced information flow and decentralised decision-making, which are associated with higher staff efficiency. Thus, it fosters a pleasant working environment in which employees are inspired to go the extra mile to achieve the organisation's goals (Kellner et al., 2016). Moreover, it increases employee engagement at work by distributing responsibility inside an organisation to those who can make competent or confidential decisions (Gurbuz, 2009). Hence, Whitener (2001) argues that HPWS aims to foster an environment where employees are more likely to buy into the organisation's goals and dedicate themselves fully to achieving them.

Lepak et al. (2006) claim that since elements related to the organisation environment influence HR practices that drive performance, there are no agreed-upon HR practices that constitute HPWS (Blumentritt, 2006; Guthrie et al., 2009; Kloutsiniotis & Mihail, 2020; Shin, 2014). So typically, HPWS comprises rigorous staffing, merit-based evaluation, job design, extensive training, competitive compensation, and extensive benefits (Lepak & Snell, 2002; Takeuchi et al., 2007). Given this, the ability-motivation-opportunity (AMO) theory contends that these practices must function in concert to offer employees the abilities, inspiration, and opportunity needed to accomplish their jobs well (Applebaum et al., 2000).

Therefore, HR policies and practices need to be sorted into three broad categories: practices that provide employees' actual abilities, motivation and opportunities. Therefore, it is advanced in this thesis that HPWS ensures that organisations invest appropriately in their personnel, developing their knowledge, skills, experiences, and talents is essential for better work to increase performance. Nevertheless, the effectiveness of HPWS depends on several factors explicated by AMO theory, the general systems theory, the social exchange theory and the job demand-resource theory.

Job performance management is crucial for implementing organisational strategy and demonstrating that the organisation is capable of achieving its objectives. Research suggests that the effective and efficient management of individual employees' core activities translates into organisational performance (Aboul-Ela, 2017). Job performance is the sum of the organisation's value of discrete behavioural episodes carried out by workers over a typical time frame in the workplace (Motowildo et al., 2009). Also, it is an anticipated action of the organisational value of what people do (Cook et al., 2013). Further, it denotes the behaviour under an individual's control and contributes to or detracts from achieving organisational goals (McCloy et al., 1994). Thus, through job performance, employees create value for their organisations.

The value produced through job performance comes from a specific quality of a task, job, service, or product identified by end-users as the ability to meet their needs (Lepak et al., 2007). Alternatively, value exchange in monetary terms is derived from the new job, service, goods, and products. Organisations and society benefit from the value created by employees by

performing their jobs. To organisations, the value created through job performance influences competitive advantage (Lepak et al., 2007; Motowidlo & Kell, 2013; Sengupta et al., 2013), financial performance, innovation implementation, increased profitability, product or service quality, and maximised returns on shareholder investment (Yee et al., 2008). At the societal level, problems are solved in unemployment by creating jobs from new products and services and further contributing to government revenue in the form of tax support (Lepak et al., 2007).

HPWS has been proven to correlate positively with job performance in the literature. For instance, according to the findings of research done by Zhang et al. (2019), employees regarded HPWS as an advantage received from the organisation and responded by delivering more outstanding performance. In addition, Abugre and Nasere's (2020) study also showed that HPWS substantially influenced job performance. Similarly, Edgar et al. (2021) assessed the role HPWS plays in job performance. Their results revealed that the ability and opportunity dimensions of HPWS are strong determinants of job performance. The link between HPWS and job performance is akin to the social exchange theory, which says that workers see HPWS as a benefit from the organisation and, in return, help improve job performance (Homans & Blau, 2017; Takeuchi et al., 2007).

Hitherto, the subject of obtaining outstanding work performance remains a formidable issue for most organisations, notwithstanding the critical role that individual job performance plays in attaining sustained organisational success and addressing social challenges (Ramawickrama & PushpaKumari, 2017). These challenges are usually reflected in the annual contribution of

individual performance appraisals. The low job performance of employees has been attributed by some researchers to high job demands and inadequate supervisor support offered to employees, both of which tend to affect the well-being of employees (Demerouti et al., 2001). According to the job demand-resource (JD-R) theory, a job with high work demand and pressure with limited resources causes fatigue and stress that drain employees' efforts to enhance performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Nevertheless, scholars and theories underpinning HPWS indicate that the HPWS and job performance link is more complex (Chung & Pak, 2021; Hobfoll et al., 2015; Riaz, 2016) and, therefore, recommend that researchers in the area assess how HPWS influences job performance. By implication, researchers are now tasked to concentrate their efforts on determining the exact interactions by which HR practices are transformed into HPWS, resulting in individual performance outcomes (Hauff et al., 2017; Ismail et al., 2020). There have been several attempts to explain the effects of HPWS on job performance (e.g., Alatailat et al., 2019; Ismail et al., 2020; Schreuder et al., 2020). There is a correlation between HPWS and performance on the job, yet, it is not known whether or not this is due to a single or several causes.

The results of many studies that investigated certain HPWS indicate that the influence of HPWS on performance, as measured by the outcomes of work, differs depending on the HPWS techniques that were investigated (Abugre & Nasere, 2020; Karadas & Karatepe, 2019). Other scholars examined HPWS in its entirety and discovered that while some individual outcomes (e.g., discretionary effort, satisfaction, and commitment) moderate the HPWS-job performance link, there is a weak or no interaction effect

(Fragoso et al., 2019; Mahmood et al., 2019; Swalhi et al., 2017; Wood, 2020). This suggests that while describing interaction processes, researchers should examine alternative moderation variables. Consistent with job demand-resource theory (JD-R), various moderators might account for the HPWS–performance link (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Thus, prior research reveals that the HPWS–performance linkage still has certain omitted variables that limit explanatory information.

Researchers have attributed the effective implementation of HPWS to supervisors (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Straub et al., 2018). The way supervisors understand and interpret HR policies and practices influences employees' behaviour as they perform their jobs, as employees see them as support received from their supervisor. Supervisor support (SS) is the degree to which an employee feels that their supervisor is invested in and cares about them and their work (Eisenberger et al., 2002). It is the interaction between employees and their supervisors, including written and non-written expectations (tangibles and intangibles), to be fulfilled by both parties (Tarcan et al., 2021). The role supervisors play in the HPWS-performance link continues to be investigated by researchers and practitioners (Gilbert et al., 2011; Kuvaas et al., 2014; Vermeeren, 2014).

According to Kuvaas et al. (2014), supervisors operate as intermediaries between institutional and operational levels of organisations, implementing organisational policies and procedures. Purcell and Hutchinson (2007) hold the view that supervisors' proximity to the operational level employees can bring HR policies and practices to life. Supervisors' implementation of HR practices has been connected with increased employee

efficiency and the resolution of HR challenges at lower organisational levels (Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007). HR devolution study indicates that supervisors are primarily responsible for operational HR tasks across several domains (e.g., performance appraisal, training, and development) (Gilbert et al., 2011).

According to Nishii and Wright (2008), it is essential to understand how employees interpret the HR system in addition to the planned HR system that is produced by the HR department. This is because real HR systems (i.e., HR policies enforced by supervisors) and supposed HR systems (i.e., workers' interpretation of HR systems) are both important factors in understanding how HR systems affect performance. Employee perspectives on HPWS are, thus, created within the framework of supervisors' interpretations of HPWS (Wang et al., 2019). Consequently, supervisors' ability to function as an intermediary between employees and the organisation and their actions about HPWS can significantly impact how employees view the organisation's policies (Talukder & Galang, 2021) on the employment relationship. As a result, supervisors are critical in establishing effective social exchange relationships in an organisation (Gilbert et al., 2011).

Similarly, another variable that research (e.g., Khoreva & Wechtler, 2018) and theory (JD-R theory) (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007) have shown to play a crucial role in enhancing job performance is well-being. It has been documented that individual well-being is determined partly by the HPWS instituted by the organisation (Boxall & Macky, 2010; Ho & Kuvaas, 2020; Islam & Amin, 2021; Marescaux et al., 2019). In addition, studies examining the triad of connections between HR practices, employee well-being, and job performance have found that HR policies and programmes have a positive

effect on performance by increasing employee satisfaction, decreasing burnout and stress, and fostering greater motivation and engagement (Khoreva & Wechtler, 2018). Well-being is defined as the full quality of an employee's capacity to fulfil their tasks in an appropriate manner (Huang et al., 2016).

The mutual gain perspective advocates that HPWS shows employees that their contributions, well-being, and growth are recognised and cared for, therefore, boosting employee well-being. The message that is sent to workers by HPWS is an encouragement for them to increase their level of performance, which ultimately results in a scenario in which both employees and employers benefit (Guest, 2017). By contrast, proponents of the conflicting outcomes approach to HPWS criticise this hopeful outlook, arguing that HPWS has an intrinsic dark side. They believe that although HPWS will surely increase performance, it will do so at the price of increasing job intensity and employee strain (Kloutsiniotis et al., 2021).

They are applied at the expense of employee well-being, creating an unwinnable scenario for both the workers and the organisation (Marescaux et al., 2019). However, according to the JD-R theory, persons who have more resources are less affected by strain, while those who have fewer resources are more likely to experience strain (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Additionally, the JD-R theory highlights the need for enough resources to avoid burnout overall and weariness in particular (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). This study argues that HPWS and supervisors' support are resources employees can leverage to enhance their well-being to improve their job performance.

This study has become necessary following the Decent Work Agenda (2030), aiming to drastically reduce unemployment and poverty through

decent policy-making at the national, regional, and country levels (Ryder, 2017) through increased job performance. This initiative is crucial since unemployment is heightened globally and nationally. The ILO estimates that approximately 600 million additional jobs must be produced by 2030 to keep up with the expansion of the increased population (ILO, 2020). Hence, achieving a decent work agenda is critical to improving the working conditions of the 780 million people who are employed but do not earn enough to lift themselves and their families out of poverty on less than US\$2 a day (ILO, 2020).

According to the ILO, more than 470 million people worldwide do not have appropriate access to paid work (ILO, 2020). In Africa, one-third of the nearly 420 million youth are unemployed (Asare & Essah, 2021). For example, the total youth unemployment rate stood at 26% per cent of the total labour workforce in Ghana (Romero, 2021). Africa, which has the highest poverty rate globally, urgently needs to increase jobs and combat the plague of hunger, malnutrition, and generally low living conditions (ILO, 2020).

According to Liao et al. (2009), HPWS, which comprises developmental performance appraisal, compensation, and training, shows organisations' investment in people to have creative talents that contribute to the long-term overall performance of the organisation. This observation is consistent with the view postulated by Global Human Capital Index that how countries and organisations develop their human capital is more critical in determining their long-term performance more than almost any other resource (World Economic Forum, 2017).

Therefore, integrating HPWS, supervisor support, well-being, and performance in the mining industry has become necessary because the industry contributes enormously to government revenue (Ghana Mineral Commission, 2020) and employment (Baah-Boateng, 2018). According to Ghana Minerals Commission's annual report (2020), the mining industry contributed 12.12% to Ghana Government Revenue in domestic tax and employed 31,571 people in the large-scale mining sub-sector in 2019. However, despite these contributions, the industry is noted to have job performance challenges (Ghana Mineral Commission, 2020), and attention must be given to addressing some of these concerns.

Statement of the Problem

Boon et al. (2019) describe high-performance work systems (HPWS) as essential for attaining enhanced job performance in organisations worldwide, including the mining industry. Since it ensures organisations invest in the right HR practices to offer employees a conducive work environment and activate employees to become high performers. Consequently, Ghana's mining industry has implemented several HR practices to assist in providing employees with a safe workplace and sound mind to perform effectively (Arthur et al., 2017). For instance, the Ghana Chamber of Mines noted that the various mining companies had instituted HR practices such as training and development, performance management systems and industrial relations (The Ghana Chamber of Mines, 2021). The HPWS initiatives at AngloGold Ashanti Company Limited include but are not limited to diversity and inclusion, talent and succession planning, training and development, employee relations and performance management (AGA, 2020).

Notwithstanding these HR practices, Aidoo and Eshun (2012), Amponsah-Tawiah et al. (2013), and Kuranchie-Mensah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2016) assert that mining companies continue to have challenges with their employees regarding job performance where employees are noted to utilise poor work methods which yield errors causing injuries, leading to lost time. In fact, a study conducted on employees in the mining industry on lost time due to errors during tasks being performed established that 85% could be traced to poor work methods leading to an accident which causes injuries (Joe-Asare et al., 2023; Stemn, 2019). Even though the studies used 701 and 202 investigation reports, respectively, the findings cause concern as workers' job performance in the mining industry translates to the mining company's performance.

The apparent hike in these poor performance issues in the mining industry of Ghana could be traced to several factors explicated in this thesis using AMO theory, the social exchange theory and the JD-R theory. First, based on the AMO theory, Jiang et al. (2017), the HR practices of the organisation will provide employees with skills, motivations and the organisational structure to have control over their roles to create value, thereby improving their job performance. Nonetheless, Wang et al. (2020) found that how employees understand and are able to interpret these HR practices well can enhance their job performance.

Therefore, in order for human resource practices to effectively promote enhanced job performance, Kurdi-Nakra et al. (2022) suggest that HR practices should be properly interpreted to compel the job performance of individuals, such as in the mining industry, as advocated by the social

exchange theory. Yet, the JD-R theory further postulates that HR practices can function effectively if additional resources are added to create a conducive environment for employees to access these HR practices to elicit high performance from employees (Tummers & Bakker, 2021). Consequently, Intindola et al. (2017) and Blayney et al. (2020) suggest that when organisations provide extra job resources such as supervisors to lead the implementation of HR practices, it helps to generate favourable performance from employees.

Despite its potential to address employee performance challenges and related concerns, research on supervisor support in the HPW-performance link is scant in the literature (Schreuder et al., 2020; Talukder & Galang, 2021) and, more specifically, in Ghana (Annor & Burchell, 2018; Odai et al., 2021). This is partly because existing research has focused on supervisors' roles in the successful performance of employee tasks (Intindola et al., 2017). With the development of JD-R theory, which focuses on strengths in providing additional resources to act as a buffer to assist workers in addition to other resources, Williams (2019) argues that the world at large is exposed to new methods of nurturing human resources along the HR practices.

Also, in spite of our knowledge of utilising well-being to achieve improved job performance, Ho and Kuvaas (2020) contend that there is much we do not understand about the integration of well-being with HR practices and job performance. According to the existing literature on job performance, the right alignment of HR practices and well-being should ensure mutually beneficial experiences at work (Salas-Vallina et al., 2021). Yet, according to the resource caravan principle of the JD-R theory, HR practices can boost an

individual's perception of positive mental health, which in turn improves their quality of life and well-being (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). This study concludes that optimal collaboration for improving job performance can be achieved when there is well-being.

Finally, many studies have considered job performance as a single construct (Gahlawat & Kundu, 2019; Jyoti & Dev, 2016; Shin & Konrad, 2017; Zhang et al., 2019). However, emerging studies (Borman & Motowidlo, 2009; Khoreva & Wechtler, 2018; Motowidlo et al., 2009; Scotter et al., 2016) suggest that job performance may be a multidimensional construct operationalised as a task and contextual performance. Therefore, the influence of HPWS on the various components of work performance is likely to differ. Thus, the influence of HPWS on the multiple dimensions of job performance is still empirically unclear. As a result, additional research is required to illustrate how HPWS explains the various dimensions of job performance.

Objectives of the Study

The study's main objective is to examine the effect of HPWS on job performance, the moderating role of supervisor support and well-being.

Precisely, the study sought to:

1. Ascertain the influence of HPWS on job performance;
2. Examine the effect of supervisor support on job performance
3. Evaluate the interacting effect of supervisor support on HPWS and job performance;
4. Analyse the effect of well-being on job performance
5. Analyse the interacting influence of well-being on HPWS and employees' performance;

Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed according to the outlined research objectives.

1. What is the effect of HPWS on job performance?
2. What is the influence of supervisor support on job performance?
3. What interacting effect does supervisor support have on HPWS and job performance?
4. What is the effect of well-being on job performance?
5. What interacting effect does well-being have on HPWS and job performance?

Research Hypotheses

To accomplish the study's objectives, the research relied on quantitative analysis. To attain these objectives, the research established hypotheses that corresponded with the objectives. These are as follows:

Hypotheses of Objective One

H_{1a}: Ability-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on task performance

H_{1b}: Ability-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on contextual performance

H_{1d}: There is a significant positive effect of motivation-enhancing HR practices on task performance

H_{1e}: There is a significant effect of motivation-enhancing HR practices on contextual performance

H_{1f}: opportunity-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on task performance

H_{1g}: opportunity-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on contextual performance

Hypotheses of Objective Two

H_{1a}: supervisor support has a significant positive effect on task performance

H_{1b}: supervisor support has a significant positive influence on contextual performance

Hypotheses of Objective Three

H_{1c}: supervisor support has a positive significant interacting effect on HPWS and task performance

H_{1b}: supervisor support has a positive significant interacting effect on HPWS and contextual performance

Hypotheses of Objective Four

H_{1a}: Well-being has a significant positive effect on task performance

H_{1b}: Well-being has a significant positive influence on contextual performance

Hypotheses of Objective Five

H_{1a}: well-being has a positive significant interacting influence on HPWS and task performance

H_{1b}: well-being has a positive significant interacting influence on HPWS and contextual performance

Significance of the Study

The importance of the study stems from its potential contribution to knowledge, policy-making, and HPWS practices. This study is the first in-depth examination of HPWS, job performance, supervisor support, and well-

being in Ghana's mining industry. Thus, in terms of theory, this study adds to our knowledge and understanding of how supervisor support and well-being work together to explain the HPWS-performance relationship. As a result, knowledge created from the findings of this study can help create or revise HPWS programmes and courses.

Furthermore, the research has important practical implications. First, the results may give insight into the function of the role of supervisors in the implementation of HPWS. The study's conclusions should help HR professionals formulate realistic and far-reaching policies that give supervisors a role to revitalise Ghana's mining industry. Again, the outcomes of this study may help HR managers identify, utilise, and combine supervisors' abilities, knowledge, and experiences to assist employees in achieving maximum well-being. Additionally, the study may offer employers vital information to evaluate their HR professionals implementing various HPWS to improve job performance. Finally, a sound model can serve as a foundation for future study and practice and provide useful information for policy design and implementation. Therefore, the outcomes of this study will provide policymakers with current HPWS models and recommendations for their use in Ghana.

Delimitations

The study focuses on HPWS, supervisor support, well-being and job performance in the mining industry. The study investigates the interacting role of supervisor support and well-being in the relationship between HPWS and job performance. The study conceptualises HPWS from the lens of the AMO framework using Opportunity-enhancing HR practices, motivation-enhancing

HR practices and ability-enhancing HR practices. Further, the study operationalises performance from two fundamental constructs: task and contextual performance. The literature and other evidence reviewed in this study mainly focus on HPWS, job performance, supervisor support, and well-being.

The review's scope is also determined by the study themes, emphasising inferential analysis. The study design is limited to questionnaire administration to support the data collection. A positivist research paradigm coupled with quantitative analytical procedures was followed in this study. The study focuses primarily on numerical data, which are relevant for measuring the variables of interest and establishing relationships. The unit of analysis for this study is the employees in the mining industry, explicitly focusing on gold mining companies, because of their stability.

Limitation of the Study

The study investigated six HR practices—recruitment, compensation, performance appraisal, training, employee voice, and job design—in Ghana's mining companies. However, it did not include a comparative analysis across different organizational types or disaggregate data, which limits the ability to evaluate changes over time.

Definition of Key Terms

The research used a wide range of concepts and terminology. Some of the most important words and variables utilised in the research are defined below.

1. *High-Performance Work Systems* were operationalised as the combination of distinct HR practices that mutually reinforce one another to generate a synergy that enhances employees' expertise, provides them with access to new opportunities, and paves the way for them to contribute value through their work.
2. *Job Performance* was explained as value people create for an organisation by utilising the knowledge, skills, experience and ability accumulated over time through the exertion of their effort.
3. *Task performance* deals with how employees execute actions stipulated in their job description for which they contribute to accomplishing the organisation's technical core.
4. *Contextual performance* assesses employees' discretionary efforts, going beyond their duties and responsibility by assisting in any form to achieve organisational goals.
5. *Ability-enhancing HR Practices* were operationalised as skill-enhancing practices whose aim is to ensure employees possess the needed skills for a particular strategic goal.
6. *Motivation-enhancing HR practices* are practices configured to stimulate employees to achieve more.
7. *Opportunity-enhancing HR practices* are practices that aim to empower and provide a platform for employees to utilise their skills to contribute to organisational goals.
8. *Supervisor support* was defined as the assistance supervisors offer employees through guidance, mentoring and interpretation of the organisation's policies.

9. *Well-being* was operationalised as an element of working life, from the quality and safety of the physical environment to how people feel about their job and workplace.

Organisation of the Study

The study is organised into eight chapters. Chapter One provides background information on the concepts used in the study, which elucidates the relevance of the topic. The research problem, the research gaps, purpose, objectives, questions, and the significance of the study are also outlined in chapter one. Chapter two offers a review of the theoretical underpinnings of the study and the concepts for the study. Primarily, the review evaluates AMO theory, social exchange theory, the general system theory and job demand-resource theory (JD-R theory), HPWS, job performance, supervisor support, and well-being.

Chapter three assesses the empirical works to make an argument and support the study's hypotheses. It further presents the ideas of the study into a conceptual model that shows the predicted nexus among the variables (HPWS, job performance, supervisor support, and well-being) for this research. Chapter four offers the methodology and methods utilised in this research. It explains the research strategy, encompassing the research paradigm and design, the population, the sample, and the sampling methods employed. Also, the chapter provides techniques that were used in data collection, operationalisation, and design of the questionnaire, procedures followed in data collection, pre-testing of the questionnaire to ensure validity, and the ethics considered in the research.

Chapter five presents the analysis, results and discussions for objective one. The analysis, findings and discussions of objective two of this research were presented in chapter six. Chapter seven of this study presents the analysis, results and the discussions of objective three of the study. Lastly, chapter eight outlines the theoretical and practical contribution of this research to HPWS. The strength and weaknesses of the study are shown in chapter eight and provide suggestions for future research that address these limitations.



CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Introduction

The study focuses on high-performance work systems (HPWS), supervisor support, well-being and job performance. This chapter discusses relevant literature within the frame of the study. A literature review establishes the foundation by recognising previous research efforts and their contributions, providing direction for the present investigation. It allows for the examination of current contributions and emphasises important gaps that need to be addressed (Paul & Criado, 2020; Snyder, 2019). Consequently, the chapter is two-fold. Part one focuses on the theories underpinning the study. The second section reviews the HPWS and six HPWS practices, supervisor support, well-being and job performance and ends with some lessons drawn from the conceptual and theoretical review.

Theoretical Review

Numerous researchers have investigated the effects of High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS) on performance, using different theoretical frameworks. The theories utilised include equity theory (Adams, 1965), psychological contract theory (Rousseau, 1977), human capital theory (Schultz, 1981), resource-based perspective (Barney, 1991) and conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989). In addition, studies have also employed the AMO theory (Applebaum et al., 2000), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), job demand-resource theory (Demerouti et al., 2001) and the general system theory (Von Bertalanffy, 1967). These frameworks provide a clear understanding of how High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS), as a

resource, may be conceptualised, used, and effectively managed to improve employee performance. Nevertheless, the many theoretical viewpoints about High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS) and job performance underscore the absence of a cohesive theoretical framework for HPWS.

The theoretical review of the study commences with the Ability-Motivation-Opportunity (AMO) theory (Applebaum et al., 2000), which explains that an organisation's HR practices must work as a system to ensure employees obtain ability, motivation and opportunity to elicit superior performance. The general system theory, which is the next theory, illustrates that to know the full performance of a system, the system must take into account the feedback loop, in that, as an open system, certain factors from the environment can influence the system's performance (Von Bertalanffy, 1967).

The social exchange theory (Blau, 2017; Eisenberger et al., 1986) and job demand-resource (JD-R) theory (Demerouti et al., 2001) are introduced to explain psychological processes and exchanges that occur in the employment relationship between employees and their employers. This research aims to analyse the implications of HR practices working as a system and the interacting effects of supervisor support and well-being in enhancing job performance.

The Ability-Motivation-Opportunity (AMO) Theory

Applebaum et al. (2000) were the pioneers in developing the AMO theory, which elucidates the processes through which HR policies and practices impact performance. According to this view, performance in the workplace is determined by a combination of individual talent, intrinsic drive, and the opportunities they have (Applebaum et al., 2000; Jiang et al., 2012;

Lepak et al., 2006; Miao et al., 2020). The theory assumes that there should be a meritocracy in the various HR practices, where these practices are free from biases. Thus, various HR systems must attract and retain employees based on their capabilities and merits (Kim & Choi, 2017). The idea of this theory originated from industrial and social psychology, which holds that performance is determined by motivation, training and selection (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). These views consider only personal factors to influence performance.

In contrast to this viewpoint, Blumberg and Pringle (1982) offered a new framework that included not only the ideas of talent and motivation but also the idea of opportunity as a third component. Performance was conceptualised in this direction as a function of capability, willingness, and opportunity to execute a task (Blumberg & Pringle, 1982). In support of this development, Bailey (1993) proposed that ensuring the discretionary effort of workers required three components: people need necessary capabilities, suitable incentives, and employers required to provide them with the chance to participate.

Culminating on these concepts and applying the assumptions of HPWS, opportunity, motivation and ability are the three components that were brought together in the AMO theory that was established by Applebaum and colleagues in the year 2000. This theory proposes that employee output is a combination of these factors. Ability is explained as the skills, proficiency, knowledge and experience to carry out an activity (Elbaz et al., 2018; Han et al., 2020). Accordingly, Jiang et al. (2012) and Lepak et al. (2006) explain that examples of practices noted to enhance the ability component of the model are

rigorous recruitment, selective hiring and formal training. On the other hand, motivation is explained as the enthusiasm and the willingness employees possess to perform a job (Boxall & Purcell, 2000; Elbaz et al., 2018), which can be improved by intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This can be achieved through performance appraisal, incentives, performance-related pay, career management and others (Karadas & Karatepe, 2019; Pfeffer, 1998; Takeuchi et al., 2007).

From the perspective of job design models and empowerment literature, the opportunity dimension was added to the model (Gerhart, 2005; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Kroon et al., 2013). This refers to the climate of the organisation that supports employee voice and participation. It places emphasis on the organisational culture and external conditions that foster action and provides the resources and channels through which that action may be expressed (Lepak et al., 2006). Thus, opportunity assesses the platform made available by the organisation to employees to utilise their ability and motivation to participate in decision-making and create value. Practices such as quality circles, job design, employee voice, collaboration, and others are examples of those that contribute to the opportunity component of the framework (Boxall et al., 2019; Boxall & Winterton, 2018; Lepak et al., 2006).

Application of the Ability-Motivation-Opportunity (AMO) Theory

Applebaum and colleagues in the year (2000), held the view that HR practices affect workers' output in the sense that they affect workers' skills, enthusiasm, and then offer them opportunities to participate. AMO theory is premised on the philosophy that HR policies influence the proficiency,

experience, skills and knowledge of employees, and they make a significant contribution to the opportunities given to these employees for them to exhibit their potential effectively (Armstrong et al., 2010). Comparatively, the framework is made up of critical mental ideas that are linked to three different systems that are responsible for moulding employee traits (Kroon et al., 2013). According to Harney and Jordan (2008), the framework must guarantee that workers possess the requisite talents, inspire employees to participate in more discretionary behaviour and empower workers to assist with achieving the organisation's targets.

Two schools of thought explain the process through which these three factors influence performance (Wang & Xu, 2017), hypothesising complementarity and additive among the opportunity (O), motivation (M) and ability (A) (Delery, 1998; Lepak et al., 2006). Bos-Nehles et al. (2013) are of the view that emerging from a complementarity perspective, the three factors, opportunity, motivation and ability, must all be available to some extent to enable employees to perform their job effectively. This suggests performance will decrease if the value of any of the factors diminishes.

In line with this logic, ability, motivation, and opportunity interact, and their ability to influence relies on the three factors employees have (Lepak et al., 2006). The implication here is that none of the factors can guarantee superior performance on their own (Bos-Nehles et al., 2013). Siemsen et al. (2007) hold such a view that, with the absence of one or more of the factors, employee performance becomes impossible. Therefore, the model that reflects this interaction is expressed as $P = f(A \times M \times O)$ (Bos-Nehles et al., 2013). The complementary approach to AMO contends that to attain strong

performance, all three components must be present, namely, ability, motivation, and opportunity, and that lack of one component will result in performance failure (Wang & Xu, 2017).

The additive approach holds that each antecedent of performance—ability, desire, and opportunity—contributes directly and independently, regardless of the other two (Boxall & Purcell, 2003). According to Lepak et al. (2006) as a consequence of this additive effect, improving any one element should lead to even greater gains in performance. As such, each component has the potential to independently and directly influence overall performance. However, increasing one component can improve overall task performance (Lepak et al., 2006). The additive model of AMO is presented by the equation $P = f(A + M + O)$.

Further, following the lens of the configurational perspective, AMO theory helps to categorise HR practices into systems. Taking this into consideration, it will be useful to classify HR processes into three primary categories (Lepak et al., 2006; Jiang et al., 2012): opportunity-improving, motivation-improving and ability-improving HR practices. It proposes that specific HR practices need to collaborate with one another to provide workers with the proper skills, the motivation they need, and the chance to produce value. The decision to use a three-dimensional framework for HR systems rather than unidimensional or two components is based on research that examined the unique impact that different kinds of HR outcomes had on each of the three dimensions of HR systems (Chung & Pak, 2021; Jiang, Lepak, Hu, et al., 2012).

Criticisms of the AMO Theory

Although AMO theory has made many valuable contributions to the field of HRM-performance literature, it has also been subject to many critiques. Some studies believe the influence of AMO on performance is more subtle than previously considered since it depends on both the availability of HRM practices and workers' subjective evaluations of them (Ehrnrooth & Björkman, 2012; Jiang et al., 2015; Nishii et al., 2008; Paposá & Kumar, 2019). The idea also does not emphasise line managers' responsibility in implementing HR regulations and how these practices affect employee performance (Bainbridge, 2015; Jalali et al., 2021; Ozcelik & Uyargil, 2015; Wang & Xu, 2017). Some critics contend that the AMO theory fails to consider the contextual factors influencing employee behaviour and performance (Van Waeyenberg & Decramer, 2018; Wang & Xu, 2017). It assumes that the same mix of abilities, motives, and opportunities will always result in comparable outcomes across individuals and organisational situations. However, depending on the cultural, organisational, and situational conditions, the impact of these characteristics may differ.

Furthermore, owing to the wide range of HR practices and performance measures used in many studies, it is difficult to draw definitive conclusions about which HR practices are most important for success (Marin-Garcia & Tomas, 2016). Also, according to Shin and Konrad (2017), HR practices have been seen as closed systems in AMO theory, with most studies focusing on the linear methods that link HPWS to performance. Thus, it focuses on a one-way connection between HPWS and performance (Shin & Konrad, 2017). Also, The AMO theory fails to account for individual

characteristics among employees. It is based on the assumption of a reasonably homogeneous workforce regarding abilities, motivations, and opportunities. Conversely, individuals have distinct qualities, experiences, and demands that may necessitate personalised ways to optimise their performance (Kremmydas & Austen, 2020).

With all the limitations indicated in this theory, it has a profound usage in explaining HRM and performance linkage. Consequently, writers from the varied school of thought on HRM have recommended that researchers test the theory's assumptions in different contexts and introduce moderating variables to understand better HRM-performance literature (Boon & Kalshoven, 2014; Boon et al., 2019; Boxall et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2020). Following these recommendations, this study adopts the assumptions of the theory and extends it by arguing that to use HR practices to enhance performance, the practices must be viewed as an open system working together and that factors within the business environment can influence the performance of adopted HR practices.

In such circumstances introducing variables such as supervisor support can assist the system's performance in achieving its goal. The effective implementation may depend on line managers' ability to use these HR policies, enthusiasm to implement them, and the organisational support offered to make the required modifications rather than on the quality of the HR package itself (Bainbridge, 2015).

The General System Theory (GST)

The general systems theory (GST) was pioneered by Ludwig Von Bertalanffy in 1940 (Montuori, 2011). The theory stipulates that to understand a system's behaviour, it is essential to study the entire system as a whole

rather than looking at each component in isolation (Lai & Lin, 2017; Von Bertalanffy, 1967). In other words, the whole system creates synergy because it is worth more than the sum of its parts (Thompson et al., 1998). In that manner, system elements are arranged in a hierarchical order, and these elements depend on each other in the system to the point that one element becomes defective without the support of the other elements (Lai & Lin, 2017). The theory assumes that all expectations of each part of the system must be met to achieve the system's goal.

A system's components may be strongly bonded and rigorously interdependent or softly coupled and loosely connected. This theory focuses on three primary aspects of phenomena: the external setting, the phenomenon itself as a system, and the human actors involved (Barile & Saviano, 2018). Von Bertalanffy, in his work, needed to understand the behaviour of living systems and how each part influences the entire system (Von Bertalanffy, 1972). This was necessitated in the quest to refute the argument advanced by reductionists, who held that to understand a system, it must be broken into parts, and each component must be studied in isolation (Mele et al., 2010).

Reductionism assumes that complex systems are to be studied in components, assuming simplicity and the independence of each system element (Düzgün & Leveson, 2018; Montuori, 2011). Consequently, this made it difficult to comprehend the analysis of the complex phenomenon and each moving component's influence on the systems (Checkland, 1997; Weinberg, 2001) therefore ignoring the feedback loop. This criticism propels the creation of the general systems theory, calling for interconnection and interdependence

among systems and the avenue to explain systems as open systems that take resources from their environment to survive (Heil, 2018; Montuori, 2011).

The system perspective is the shifting of ideas from a part to a holistic approach (Checkland, 1994; Weinberg, 2001). This perspective hinges on the dialogue between reductionism and holism (Mele et al., 2010). The relationship between parts and the events they cause via interaction is considerably more significant, so system components are logically tied to attaining the same goal (Golinelli, 2010). The system perspective reasons that we cannot wholly understand a phenomenon merely by dividing it into dimensions, studying these parts individually, and then reforming them; instead, we apply a broad vision to emphasise its functioning (Mele et al., 2010).

Using the systems theory in comprehending system behaviour provides the avenue to analyse components and dynamics of a phenomenon, ensures proper interpretation of problems, and develops well-adjusted solutions to balance individuals and their environment (Friedman & Allen, 2014). Von Bertalanffy (1967) defines a system as an interdependent component in interaction, with these interactions in an arranged manner. Some system characteristics can only be dealt with properly when all social and technological factors are considered (Delany, 1975; Friedman & Allen, 2014). Thus, the attention is on the collaborations and links between components to help comprehend an entity's arrangement, operations and results.

Von Bertalanffy (1967) builds a comprehensive approach to analysing a problem and introduces concepts such as closed and open systems, homeostasis, entropy, input, output and throughput, boundary, feedback, and

equifinality. As an underlying assumption, the open system explains how a system functions within its environment and looks at the resource exchange between the system and its environment and the adaptation of the systems. On the other hand, the closed system operates in isolation from its environment.

Homeostasis describes the system's ability to self-regulate to maintain stability whilst adjusting to optimal conditions for survival. Input and output are the reciprocal interactions of the system, taking resources from its environment and giving them back to the environment. The system works together to convert the resources received into finished products and transport them back to the environment (throughput).

The system further gets feedback during the throughput process, where negative feedback is received to correct errors to maintain the current state of the system and the positive feedback is to change the system through improvement or growth (Lai & Lin, 2017). Entropy is the degree of randomness in the system that can distort achieving system purpose. The boundary of a system is the conditions that separate it from its environment. Finally, the equifinality of a system means that the interdependent nature of the components of the system ensures that the system's purpose can be achieved through multiple conditions and paths (Lai & Lin, 2017; Montuori, 2011).

Application of the GST

According to Shin (2016), taking a systemic perspective of human resource practices aids in explaining these practices as an integrative model. This approach describes how HR practices are implemented and integrated over time. Moreover, it describes how HRM choices are affected by the

external environment, how HRM practices contribute to organisational growth, and how HRM practice results affect future decisions on introducing HRM practices. Therefore, applying the system view to HR practices combines the content approach as well as the process approach (Shin, 2016).

For instance, the content approach looks at the different practices that should be included in the HR configuration, vital stakeholders who shape the HRM context and the organisational results that are affected by HR practices (Way & Johnson, 2005).

This suggests that the various processes and aspects of the system are not loosely connected but rather closely tied (Luhmann, 2003). Focusing on the sub-functional view of HR practices prevents synergy across the practices (Boon et al., 2019; Story & Castanheira, 2020; Wright & Snell, 1991). Consequently, viewing HR practices as a system is essential since the internally consistent set of practices sends a validating message to employees concerning the HRM philosophy, which maximises employees' commitment if they know that HPWS is implemented. Consequently, the importance of maximising employee dedication via the knowledge that HPWS is applied is crucial to see HR practices as a system. This is because an internally consistent set of practices delivers a validating message to workers about the HRM philosophy (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004; Hu et al., 2020; Latorre et al., 2016; Schopman et al., 2017). The holistic philosophy lies at the centre of the bundling perspective, which is the core assumption of the general system theory (Delery & Doty, 1996; Marler, 2012).

Human resource practices as a system starts with internal and external consistency, evolution versus diffusion, and system elements versus system

process (Shin, 2016). The principle of internal consistency across HR practices states that a collection of HR practices that are distinct from one another but are connected to one another is purposefully put together to equip workers with skills and effort (Takeuchi et al., 2007). Hence, three different HR policy domains impact employees' knowledge, skills and abilities, motivation and effort, and the creation of platforms allowing employees to contribute (Lepak et al., 2006). The HR system comprises a set of HR practices, including recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, compensation and design (Lepak & Snell, 2002).

Additionally, the HR system can play a better part in achieving specific organisational goals compared to individual practices because of the synergic effect produced by each practice in a bundle (Shin, 2016). On the other hand, according to the external consistency school of thought, efficient HR systems should be aligned with business strategies and other organisational factors (Bhatti et al., 2020; Do & Shipton, 2019; Huselid & Becker, 1997; Miles et al., 1978). Thus, organisations achieving various strategic goals will depend on the configuration of HR practices in line with their strategic choices.

From the diffusionist perspective, organisations scout out for best HR practices across the external market to adopt new performing practices. Here HR practices proliferate from one organisation to another (Karami et al., 2015; Xie & Cooke, 2019). In this fashion, managers are encouraged to be innovative by always seeking alternative practices (Shin, 2016). Conversely, the evolutionist model defines how HR practices can be unique resources having the ability to achieve competitive advantage (Collins, 2020; Shin, 2016).

Further, the general system theory explains that the HR system components and HR system methods are not disjointed nonetheless are different dimensions of an integrated system. They are prerequisites to one another. In that system, process creates the structures, and the structure leads to processes (Shin, 2016). For instance, formally defined policies such as recruitment, selection, training, performance appraisals, and compensation provide a structural context in which a specific employee or group of employees are recruited, chosen, trained, assessed, and rewarded. Practices are determined by the ideas and understandings of process actors at a particular moment, leading to variances in processes despite structural uniformity (Shin, 2016).

Because of this, GST considers the introduction of HR practices to be an iterative and comprehensive cycle of input, output, throughput, and re-input. As such, the supposition of GST is that HR systems are open systems that are influenced by their environment in their ability to attain organisational outcomes. For instance, Schuler et al. (2010), in their work on human resources in context identified multiple stakeholders that influence organisation HR practices – shareholders, unions, customers, society and suppliers. In this view, researchers explicate that HR practices must be aligned with business strategy, institutional context, structures, and people to assist in achieving organisational goals (Schuler et al., 2010).

HRM as an open system means that there are social forces on management such as pressures to ensure people are secured on the job, minimum wages are given, no discrimination in employment (equal employment opportunities), and offer workplace learning and development.

Also, other contingency factors influencing HRM are industry (Martínez-Jurado et al., 2014), firm sizes (Gilley et al., 2004), technological innovation (Podmetina et al., 2013), downsizing (Armstrong-Stassen & Cattaneo, 2010), business life cycle (Aldrich & Langton, 1997) and others. Datta et al. (2005), for example, discovered that in settings with significant product diversification, rapid industrial development, and low capital intensity, the correlation between HPWS and labour productivity was strongest.

HRM operating as a closed system focuses on the internal environment to adopt HR practices. The attention is on internal organisational factors such as business strategies, organisational structure and internal human resources. The GST also looks at the feedback loop stressing that output determines the needed input to sustain the system (Katz & Kahn, 1996). This suggests that analysing the feedback loop between practices that affect performance and the activities that produce HPWS is essential to comprehend the connection between HPWS and performance (Shin & Konrad, 2017).

The final concept proposed by the general system theory is equifinality. According to Lai and Lin (2017), equifinality in a system shows that the interrelatedness between elements makes it possible for a system to attain the system goal via multiple conditions and paths. Within the sphere of HPWS, equifinality shows how the patterns of individual practices are associated with performance—indicating that where certain adopted practices do not yield expected results, alternative practices will be sought after.

Criticisms of the GST

In spite of the benefits of the GST, critics see some weaknesses in its approach to solving problems. The disadvantage of the theory is that it assumes that all variables are relevant in a given situation, which is not the case. In a given case, some variables may be more critical and have some control over others (Kihlström, 2012). The general systems theory offers a descriptive framework for understanding systems but does not always give clear explanations of the underlying processes that drive system behaviour. Critics assert that the theory does not go deep enough into causation and may not adequately address the precise processes and mechanisms that contribute to observable patterns or outcomes within systems (Sinnott & Rabin, 2012). Further, in its application to HRM, GST also does not explain the psychological processes that occur in the employment relationship as employees are exposed to the various forms of HR practices. The next theory is introduced to explain the psychological processes that take place as people are exposed to various HR practices.

Social Exchange Theory (SET)

The origin of social exchange theory (SET) can be traced to theorists such as Homan (1958), Blau (1964), Emerson (1962), Thibaut and Kelly (1959) (Bignoux, 2006; Lambe et al., 2001). It is one of the widely used conceptual paradigms utilised by researchers to explain the understanding and processes of workplace behaviour. Homans (1958) produced the first systematic explanation of social behaviour that was based on the concept of exchange (Blau, 1968), and (Blau, 1964) conceptualised the nature of social interaction as an exchange process (Chadwick-Jones, 1976). The primary

proposition of SET is that people establish and sustain relationships hoping that doing so will be beneficial (Blau, 1968; Homans, 1958).

It explicates how two or more people interact with one another and how their interactions reinforce each other's behaviour (Zoller & Muldoon, 2019)—suggesting that social interactions are built on the belief that benevolent gestures will be repaid (Blau, 1964). Thus human behaviour is an exchange of rewards between actors, and these efforts generate obligations. SET grew out of fields such as anthropology, psychology, sociology, and economics (Lee et al., 2010) and has advanced the theory significantly, making it an interdisciplinary theory. Since each field made a relevant contribution based on its issues and context, this has led to the introduction of factors such as trust (Molm et al., 2000), reciprocity (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), reward (Blau, 1964), social ties (Homans, 1958), loyalty (Thibaut & Harold, 1959), power and dependence (Emerson, 1976) in the exchange relationship.

These have led to the modification of the theory, and researchers till now have not accepted common basic assumptions of the theory. However, social exchange theory views social life as a sequence of consecutive transactions involving two or more people (Mitchell et al., 2012). According to Zoller and Muldoon (2019), social interactions comprise two blocks of exchange – content, and process. The content of the exchange considers all kinds of resources that can be exchanged between parties, whereas the process explains the various forms partners can obtain benefits from one another.

Blau (1964) defines social exchange as an engagement between two or more people in which partners exchange tangible and intangible goods and

services with the broad expectation of some future benefit, albeit the particular form of that benefit is never specified in advance. As such, SET operates on the following assumptions - exchange relationships yield social and economic results; to determine the necessity of the exchange relationship, these results are compared over time to various trading options; positive outcomes generated over time increase the confidence and commitment among people in the exchange relationship; finally, over time, consistent, positive exchange encounters build interpersonal interaction standards that direct the exchange dynamic (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Lambe et al., 2001; Zoller & Muldoon, 2019).

The Application of the SET

Extending assumptions of SET to HPWS and employees' performance, the social exchange perspective could be a useful lens for examining the effect of HR practices on employee performance. According to this perspective, when organisations invest in their employees by implementing appropriate HR practices, employees are more likely to return these organisational efforts in good ways by enhancing their job performance (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Thus when organisations make investments in various aspects of HR practices, which are likely to be perceived by employees as evidence that their employer values them, employees may respond in ways beneficial to the organisation (Khoreva & Wechtler, 2018). SET assumes that employers must ensure that every activity they undertake concerning employees must instigate them to achieve the organisation's goal.

Further, viewing HPWS through the lens of social exchange theory, HPWS provides long-term relationships by eliciting employees' commitment.

Using HPWS, organisations can foster employee commitment by nurturing reciprocal employee interactions (Ananthram et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019). HPWS are the integration of HR practices that recognise and value employees and develop a relational environment that gets employees dedicated to the organisation (Y. Zhou et al., 2013). HPWS improve organisational performance by creating psychological links between employees and their employers, resulting in work settings where individuals are motivated to work more to improve the organisation's overall performance (Boon & Kalshoven, 2014; Chen et al., 2018).

The greater the degree to which employees believe they are being supported, the more likely they will repay that support with dedication and commitment to the organisation. This helps to form a long-term relationship between employees and their employers. Furthermore, because work is a means through which employees might obtain economic and social resources and earn prestige and a sense of personal success, the employment connection may have additional significance for them (Liu et al., 2013). This may encourage employees to form a long-lasting relationship with their employer if the HPWS of the organisation assist employees. Ricketta (2002) believes that employees who are committed and identify themselves with their organisation work hard to achieve superior performance that translates to overall organisational performance.

In addition, HPWSs are seen as ways organisations can fulfil psychological contract obligations towards employees, which employees also reciprocate by generating superior performance (Zafirovski, 2005). Accordingly, Rousseau and Greller (1994) opine that HR practices signal the

content of the psychological contract, and these practices assist in the communication of the content of the psychological contract (Guest & Conway, 2002). Akin to social exchange theory, the psychological contract involves satisfying agreed promises and responsibilities in the employment relationship, and a litany of literature have unfailingly demonstrated that where organisation retain their promises through the implementation of HPWS, there is higher trust and increased employees' job performance (Latorre et al., 2016; Rubel et al., 2018; Yan et al., 2019).

Criticisms of SET

One significant critique of social exchange theory is that it lacks adequate theoretical accuracy and hence has limited value (Cropanzano et al., 2017). The process of operationalising starting actions and target reactions makes use of a large number of constructs that are analogous to one another and overlap in certain ways. Further, the primary emphasis of social exchange theory is on the logical computation of costs and benefits, and it frequently ignores the part that feelings play in interpersonal relationships (Cook et al., 2013). The theory does not entirely account for the influence of emotions on decision-making and behaviour, despite the fact that emotions play a substantial part in forming social relationships (Cook et al., 2013). The premise of social exchange theory is that people can make rational decisions after carefully weighing the potential benefits and drawbacks of their activities. Nevertheless, human behaviour is often more complicated than it first seems, and a variety of variables may impact it in addition to a straightforward cost-benefit analysis. These influences include cultural standards, societal pressures, and personal ideals.

Job Demand-Resource Theory (JD-R)

Job demand-resource (JD-R) theory was propounded by Demerouti et al. (2001, 2006). The JD-R theory was developed with the help of a meta-analysis that was carried out by Lee and Ashforth (1996). In their research, the authors determined that burnout may be caused by a combination of eight work demands and thirteen job resources (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Taking inspiration from this analysis, Demerouti et al. (2001) built on the job-demand control (JD-C) model (Karasek, 1979) and the effort-reward imbalance (ERI) model (Siegrist, 1996). Initially, the JD-R model was designed to comprehend the antecedents of burnout. The authors later enhanced this by explaining that JD-C and ERI failed to leave room for incorporating other vital work-related variables that can promote employees' well-being (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). For instance, the JD-C model limited job demands to two variables (work overload and time pressure) to have a damaging effect on stress reactions such as burnout, anxiety, and job-related depression (Karasek, 1979).

However, JD-R supposes that high job expectations and low job resources lead to burnout regardless of the profession since they deplete workers' energy and demotivate them. Thus JD-R proposes that every work environment comprises two characteristics comprising demands and resources that shape the job carried out by employees (Tummers & Bakker, 2021). The JD-R model assumes that when work demands are high, more energy is needed to achieve goals and leads to performance degradation (Hockey, 1997). Clearly, this has physical and psychological consequences, such as weariness and irritation (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

Workers can recoup the costs associated with mobilising this additional energy by switching tasks, carrying out less challenging activities or taking a break (Knardahl & Ursin, 1985). Thus, the JD-R model is an occupational stress model that proposes that strain is a response to a disproportion between the demands imposed on an individual and the resources available to him or her to deal with those demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). The theory, therefore, assumes that employee well-being is the outcome of a balance between positive (resources) and negative demands associated with a certain work description (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

The theory is developed from the assumption that enhancing employees' well-being implies that employers must offer enough job resources to curtail or eliminate any job stress. Hence employers must promote enough job resources to offset job demands. At the core of the JD-R model is that while every occupation has unique risk factors for job stress, these elements may be grouped into two fundamental categories (i.e. job demand and job resource) that are applicable to a wide range of occupational situations (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) define job demands as those components of the job that involve persistent physical and/or psychological (emotional and cognitive) effort or abilities and may have psychological and/or physiological consequences.

According to Meijman and Mulder (1998), job demands are not always unpleasant, but they might become job stresses when achieving those needs necessitates a significant amount of effort from which the employee has not yet fully recovered. On the other hand, job resources encompass those facets of a job that are connected to the organisation, psychology, physical fitness,

and social aspects of the job, such as the ability to meet work objectives, minimise job demands and the associated psychological and physiological costs, and inspire personal learning, development, and growth (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This is a way of saying that resources are not only essential to meet job needs, but they are also valuable in and of themselves. Because resources are means through which people are able to accrue and safeguard other resources valuable to them.

The JD-R model provided two psychological processes for burnout development — health impairment and motivational process. According to the health impairment process, continual activation and overstraining from high work demands that employees cannot recover from may lead to exhaustion (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Lack of resources makes it challenging to fulfil job requirements and accomplish work goals, which leads to withdrawing behaviour. Reduced disconnection which is the inspiring component of burnout - may be employed to protect one's energy reserves from further depletion (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Thus high job demands, which necessitate continued effort, may drain employees' resources, resulting in energy diminution and health difficulties (Caplan et al., 1975).

As such, job demands such as emotional demands and work overloads cause exhaustion (Bakker et al., 2005). Consequently, job strain may result in the health impairment process when poorly designed tasks deplete employees' mental and physical resources, causing them to feel exhausted and suffer from health issues (Demerouti et al., 2001). The second phase provided by the JD-R model is motivational in nature, in which it is supposed that job resources have the capacity to motivate and so result in high levels of work engagement, low

levels of cynicism, and superior performance (Bakker, 2015). Thus job resources may play an intrinsic motivating role by fostering employees' growth, learning, and development, or they may play an extrinsic motivational function by assisting employees in accomplishing work objectives (Albrecht et al., 2015).

The JD-R theory has been enhanced as a result of further study by the inclusion of mediating variables such as work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) and personal resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), in their work, included both work engagement and burnout as mediators in the link between job demands and health issues and job resources and turnover intentions. The revised model also assessed the positive aspect of work engagement. They defined work engagement as a good, rewarding state of mind associated with work that is characterised by vigour (that is, maintaining high levels of energy and mental fortitude while at work), dedication (relating to a feeling of importance, excitement, and challenge in one's life) and absorption (being wholly captivated and immersed in one's task) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The updated JD-R model strongly emphasises the intrinsically motivating characteristics of work resources. Therefore, the new model holds the view that work settings that provide enough resources encourage employees to devote their efforts and talents to the assigned job (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Hence job resources contribute to extrinsic motivation by eliciting the desire to expend compensating effort, so decreasing job demands and promoting goal accomplishment (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). That is, employment resources are critical to fulfilling work objectives. They do,

however, provide an inherent motivating function, as they meet fundamental human desires for autonomy, connectedness, and competence (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Following the core assumption of conservation of resource (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) also introduced personal resources in the JD-R model. According to the authors, the COR theory defines resources as those items that either have fundamentally valued purposes in and of themselves or operate as means to accomplish essential, valued ends. COR theory distinguishes four sorts of resources: objects, conditions, personal traits and energy (Hobfoll, 2002). To include personal resources in the JD-R model, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) applied the two main assumptions of COR theory. Firstly, people put their energies towards dealing with potentially threatening situations and preventing themselves from suffering negative consequences. Secondly, people not only attempt to conserve these resources but also to accrue them (Hobfoll, 1989).

Instituting these assumptions, resources tend to create other resources, resulting in resource caravans, resulting in beneficial effects such as increased resilience and well-being. Providing enough job resources leads to amassing more resources, consequently yielding more positive outcomes (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). With this reasoning from COR theory, the authors added three personal resources, namely, optimism, organisational-based self-esteem, and self-efficacy, to expand the model.

JD-R theory opines that job demands may put strain and exhaustion on employees over time, and available job resources can serve as a buffer against the pressure caused by job demands. In the context of performance on the job,

work resources may have a beneficial effect on performance on the job. HPWS is noted to offer employees enough resources to enhance their job performance (Úbeda-García et al., 2018). However, according to the critical viewpoint, HPWS may be seen as a management technique used to exert control over people in order to improve performance (Kroon et al., 2009). As a consequence, this viewpoint asserts that high levels of HPWS subject workers to higher job demands (Jensen et al., 2013), like maximised strain and anxiety (Wood & de Menezes, 2011), as well as work intensification (Ramsay et al., 2000), which result in emotional tiredness (Maslach et al., 2001).

Application of the JD-R Theory

In general, implementation of enough HPWS has the propensity to signal to employees that they are required to exert more effort, resulting in more significant impairment to their psychological and physical well-being (Van De Voorde et al., 2016). Legge (1995) holds the view that while workers may enjoy the incentives provided by HPWSs, the system's message to employees is one of improved performance and that the firm eventually benefits from the employees' additional effort. According to Yates et al. (2001), employers attempt to reclaim control over how hard, how long, and under what circumstances people work via HPWS practices such as engagement and empowerment. With this, there is a possibility that HPWSs may produce a high-pressure work atmosphere, and researchers have observed that job strain levels rise as the extent of HPWS deployment increases (Godard, 2004).

However, according to JD-R theory, job resources such as supervisor support can serve as a buffer to reduce employees' job strain since the

supervisor aids with the implementation of HPWS. Karatepe (2013) espoused that employees who get socioemotional resources at work often feel bound to repay the organisation in numerous means. As such, the JD-R theory can be used to explain supervisor support, well-being and employee performance.

According to JD-R, providing socioemotional resources in the form of supervisor support ignites the feeling of motivation and enhances employees' well-being. The philosophy of JD-R theory hinges on the premise that to increase employee work effort, there is the need to meet the social and emotional needs of employees, which in the long run gives them the perception that their organisations care and value their contributions (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008; Pattnaik et al., 2020; Reynolds & Helfers, 2018).

Employees see supervisors as agents acting on behalf of their employer. As such, supervisors' roles in the working lives of employees extend organisational support to another level. According to Shanock and Eisenberger (2006) in as much as employees develop a global view regarding the organisation they work for, they also form a general opinion about the extent to which supervisors value employees' contributions and show great attention to their socio-emotional needs. Supervisors serve as mediators for the organisation and play a critical role in HPWS implementation by operationalising them.

According to Carvalho and José (2014), in an HPWS, supervisors set clear goals and expectations for all employees, emphasising quality, focusing on customers' demands and requirements, and rewarding learning and skill growth. Therefore, the interpretation of the different HPWS practices by supervisors may be a wonderful support that workers can utilise to buffer the

effects of the job demands and pressure that they are experiencing. Hence, employees will interpret commending attitudes and hostile behaviour of supervisors as asymptomatic (Nahum-Shani et al., 2014; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006a).

According to Eisenberger et al. (2002), employees' perceptions of their supervisors' support and the organisation's support are strengthened because employees believe that their supervisors' evaluations of them are communicated to and impact top management's opinion of them. In this regard, when supervisors demonstrate care for employees' well-being and promote quality, being helpful and building a trusting relationship, they show the support employees expect from the whole organisation (Leupold et al., 2020). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) believe that people's management of stressful situations they anticipated experiencing depends significantly on the resources accessible to them and the restriction they encounter.

These resources serve as adaptive coping strategies. As such, in the face of highly demanding tasks, supervisor support can serve as an essential resource that can assist employees in coping well with the physical and emotional stress of a job (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Employees perceive their employment as a give and take that reflects relative dependence on the organisation and extends beyond a formal contract (Pattnaik et al., 2020). So as part of the psychological contract in the employment relationship, employees expect that performing under a high-pressure role, their employer will provide them with some level of support. Consequently, no available support decreases employees' global perception of their organisation (Haar & Brougham, 2020).

Hence in organisations, employees' would consider themselves part of the social exchange relationship where the organisation stress practices that provide the resource to support employees in difficult times of their career will create a feeling of support (Paauwe et al., 2013). Therefore, employees within an organisation with effective supervisor support are more likely to perceive their organisation as supportive (Tang et al., 2017). According to Kurtessis et al. (2017), perceived supervisor support relies on employees' strong acknowledgement of the organisation's purpose for providing them with favourable or unfavourable treatment, which resonates with reciprocity outcome on the part of the employees by providing the best aid with the organisation to achieve its goals and this will maximise reward.

Eisenberger et al. (2002) are of the view that employees who exhibit a considerable amount of high level of perceived supervisor support demonstrate favourable employee work-related outcomes such as positive moods, job satisfaction, less stress, identifying themselves with their organisation and increased performance. Therefore, supervisor support assesses the exchanges where employees trade effort and dedication for both tangibles (pay, incentives, benefits, etc.) and intangibles (caring and approval) with their employer (Baran et al., 2011). It is an interaction between parties in which one party is happy to exchange effort and loyalty for socioemotional perks (Zheng et al., 2016).

Criticism of the JD-R Theory

A major criticism levelled against the JD-R theory is that it is a descriptive model that defines variables rather than offering any specific psychological explanation. It establishes relations between classes of variables

rather than offering an explanation of those interactions from a psychological standpoint (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The JD-R hypothesis is susceptible to the objection that it does not satisfactorily show a clear causal relationship between employee outcomes, work demands, and job resources. The idea argues that work resources may mitigate the detrimental consequences of job demands, but it does not give conclusive proof that this is, in fact, the case. Some individuals have the opinion that the observed connections might be explained by using alternate explanations or third factors (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

The JD-R hypothesis has the propensity to place emphasis on the aggregate impact that job variables have on the outcomes of employee performance without taking into account individual variations (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Some people believe that the effect of employment demands and resources on an employee's well-being and performance may be mitigated by individual characteristics such as personality qualities or coping methods. The application and explanation power of the theory is both hindered when these individual distinctions are ignored. One other critique of the JD-R theory is that it focuses less attention on the larger organisational environment and the role that context plays in determining job requirements and available resources (Tummers & Bakker, 2021). The manner in which job requirements and available resources present themselves in the workplace may be greatly influenced by a variety of factors, including organisational culture, leadership style, and structural features. A thorough grasp of employee outcomes cannot be achieved without, according to these critics, an accurate comprehension of the relevant contextual circumstances.

The JD-R theory places its primary emphasis on the unchanging connection that exists between work requirements, available resources, and desired results (Broeck et al., 2013). Nevertheless, working environments and the requirements of jobs might alter over time owing to a variety of causes, such as developments in technology, movements in industries, or organisational reorganisation. In order to give a more true depiction of the work environment, some people believe that the theory needs to take into consideration the fluidity of the relationships between job demands and resources. The JD-R theory offers a comprehensive framework that divides the aspects of a job into two distinct categories: demands and resources (Huang et al., 2016). Some researchers think that this too simplified category ignores the richness and multidimensionality of work qualities, and they suggest that this is a mistake (Hakanen et al., 2005). It is difficult to capture the whole complexity of work experiences since different jobs may have overlapping needs and resources, and individual perceptions of these features may vary. This makes it difficult to compare jobs.

Review of Related Concepts

The following concepts were essential to this study from the above review of the theories explaining high-performance work systems and job performance. These concepts are high-performance work systems, employee performance, supervisor support, and well-being.

Definitions of High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS)

According to the core concepts of strategic human resource management (HRM) research, it is preferable to understand the influence of HR practices on people and organisations by looking at the whole system of

HR practices in place (Lepak et al., 2006). With this notion, the fundamental premise is that each practice's efficacy depends on the success of the other practices already in place (Delery, 1998). With the hope that if all of the practices are integrated into a cohesive system, the overall impact of that system on performance should be larger than the sum of the individual benefits of each practice taken individually (Jiang et al., 2017). This core idea presents three main HR systems with varied objectives – a high-commitment work system (HCWS) (Latorre et al., 2016; Schopman et al., 2017), a high-involvement work system (HIWS) (Boxall et al., 2019), and high-performance work systems (HPWS) (Boon et al., 2019).

High-involvement work systems are centred on employee voice within an organisation. This definition was pioneered by Walton (1985) and Lawler (1986) as a correction from the past, dominated by Taylorist methods. The Taylorist approach to work proposed constricted division of labour, emphasis on the job description and viewed employees as the economic man in that pay is the only motivational tool associated with low employee involvement (Wood, 2020). Changing this working method led to adopting best work practices for which employee involvement was one of such practices, premised on empowerment at both individual and organisational levels (Wood, 2020).

High-involvement work practices aim to give employees access to decision-making in the conduct of their work, which is believed to gain their commitment and, for that matter, they would go the extra mile to find a creative method to work to enhance organisational performance (BinBakr & Ahmed, 2019). Therefore, high-involvement management requires a set of

principles to which management is committed that guides the design of practices, reactions to key events, and everyday leadership behaviours (Wood, 2020). According to Boxall and Winterton (2018), high-involvement work systems serve as the conduit that leads to high-level experiences where employees have total control of their work.

Such an avenue empowers them to improve their skills and knowledge and share ideas on new ways of enhancing their work processes and meeting targets. Promoting such working methods in an organisation leads to the quality of tasks performed (Boxall et al., 2019) by individuals and groups. As such, the model advocated for the bundling of work practices that enhance work autonomy. Work autonomy is the degree to which employees have the room to adopt the methods they utilise in doing their jobs and how to go about it (Garmendia et al., 2020) to achieve continuous creativity and innovation in the organisation.

The next concept, a high-commitment HR system, focuses on causing employees to identify with the organisation and perform to surpass the minimum job requirement (Boon & Kalshoven, 2014). According to Kim (2019), organisations with a high-commitment human resource management philosophy have an economic effect on the organisation by positively changing the employees' attitude towards the organisation and allowing them to engage in their work. As Arthur (1994) noted, commitment HR systems influence desirable employee behaviours and attitudes by establishing psychological connections between corporate and employee objectives. Consequently, employee management centred on breeding high-commitment employees emphasises integrating work practices that develop employees who

can be trusted to use their discretion in performing duties consistent with organisational objectives (Lepak et al., 2006).

According to Huselid (1995), HPWS is an HR system that enhances the knowledge, skills and ability of the organisation's present and future employees, maximises their motivational level, decreases their complacency regarding work, retains highly qualified employees, and improves the skills of non-performers. This definition can be interpreted in three areas; influencing employees' knowledge, skills and ability, employee enthusiasm and effort, and further giving employees opportunities to demonstrate their value to the organisation (Boon et al., 2019; Lepak et al., 2006).

Another definition of HPWS was provided by Ichniowski et al. (1997). They defined HPWS as an HR strategy designated to ensure the active participation of employees in the organisation, which continually increases employees' knowledge, ability, and motivation and provides the platform to exhibit their value. The focus of this definition of HPWS lies in its capacity to equip employees with the resources that organisations value the most to generate employees' interest in creating value. A further definition given by Lepak et al. (2006) is that HPWS is the blending of HR practices adopted to ensure internal congruence and strengthen one another to attain overarching outcomes. This definition assesses the synergy produced by each individual practice in a specific HR system.

Takeuchi et al. (2007) explain HPWSs as a group of isolated but interdependent HR practices designed to improve employees' efforts and skills. This definition assumes that employees are constantly exposed to multiple HR practices concurrently, with each practice not influencing

employees independently. This means that each practice in a system is meant to help reach the system's overall goal. Therefore, HR systems are based on the idea that the success of a single practice is contingent upon the success of the others (Delery, 1998). This suggests that distinct practices within a system might have different kinds of relationships with one another. An additive connection, for instance, holds that HR practices individually have their own impacts that simply build up without any other factors contributing (Boon et al., 2019). Convergently, the success of a practice in an interaction connection is dependent on the existence or degree of other practices (Delery & Doty, 1996).

Following the definitions discussed above, all three HR systems are pivoted to enhance employees' knowledge, skills, and ability to improve organisational performance. These have made the definition of HPWS difficult, confusing, and vague because some authors classified these concepts as the same with different labels (Huselid & Becker, 1998; Murphy et al., 2018; Schuler & Jackson, 2000). Some authors argue that these systems have the same purpose with different labels (Huselid & Becker, 1998; Murphy et al., 2018; Schuler & Jackson, 2000). Despite the lack of consensus on the definition, three main characteristics can be seen among the three concepts; work practices, systemic effects and performance (Boxall & Macky, 2009).

Several criticisms have been made about HPWS and its definitions. According to Lepak et al. (2006), it is difficult to appreciate their structure properly and function inside businesses due to the lack of standardisation around these systems. Because there is limited consensus among current conceptualisations on the underlying policies that compose these systems and

the behaviours that should be assessed to capture these policies and systems. Without a firm grasp of their conceptual logic, it will be impossible to evaluate prospective HR systems regarding their potential deficiency in missing fundamental HR policies and practices that underlie the system. They, therefore, suggested that to know the benefits of any HR system discussed above, each should be viewed in three different HR policy domains geared towards impacting the employees' KSA, motivation and offering the platform for employees to create value.

Despite the lack of a generally acceptable definition of HPWS, this study adopts the definition of Snell and Bohlander (2010). They defined HPWS as the specific blending of HR practices, work design, and procedures assimilated into complete systems to enhance employee participation and job performance. In line with these definitions, this research defines HPWS as the combination of distinct HR practices that mutually reinforce one another to generate a synergy that enhances employees' expertise, provides them with access to new opportunities, and paves the way for them to contribute value through their work.

HR policy Domains in HPWS

HPWS can be categorised into three main components (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Lepak et al., 2006). These are skill-enhancing HR practices, motivation-enhancing HR practices and opportunity-enhancing HR practices (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Lepak et al., 2006). Skill-enhancing systems aim to ensure employees possess the needed skills for a particular strategic goal, consisting of extensive and intensive recruitment, rigorous selection and extensive training. Motivation-enhancing HR practices are configured to

stimulate employees to achieve more; such design is done using practices such as developmental performance management, competitive compensation, incentives and reward, extensive benefits, promotion and career development, and job security. Opportunity-enhancing HR practices aim to empower and provide a platform for them to utilise the skills to contribute to organisational goals; they comprise practices such as information sharing, work teams, flexibility, employee involvement, and job design. The use of these dimensions of HR systems rather than one dimension or two dimensions results in the distinct effect of the three on HR outcomes (Jiang et al., 2012).

The designing of HR practices into these systems is (1) to aid organisations in achieving their strategic goal by producing rare, valuable, and inimitable human resources to assist firms in obtaining high performance (Huselid & Becker, 1998). (2) Build employee commitment through skill development, providing the platform and incentivising employees to use the skills acquired (Batt, 2000). (3) Helps organisations to adapt to changes by facilitating innovation through HR practices (Agarwala, 2003). (4) Finally, to maximise efficiency by making sure employees conform to determine the regulation and reduce labour costs (Arthur, 1994). According to Lepak et al. (2006), the integration of these three domains can be understood as employee performance as the function of knowledge-skill-ability, motivation-effort and opportunity to contribute HR domain. When practices are integrated into a logical manner (horizontal fit), they augment one another and generate a combined effect. So it is essential for HR practices to be studied together rather than individually because where practices do not fit, there will be a diminishing effect from one another (Delery, 1998).

Also, practices in a system connect with each other in differing ways (Boon et al., 2019; Jian et al., 2012). HR practices can acquire an additive association where each practice operates independently and add up without influencing the other (Delery, 1998). This means each practice achieves its individual purpose for which it was intended. It is essential to note that, in the context of an additive connection, the use of two HR techniques together rather than individually may have a higher impact on the result (Jian et al., 2012). Accordingly, Delery (1998) holds the view that the analytical implication is that a scale score must be summed or averaged to get the HR system score. This notion implies that HR practices are most effectively evaluated as coherent systems when all activities give consistent signals about the organisation's goals (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). The essence of summing up HR practices is that it gives room for divergent approaches to combining practices to achieve high system outcomes (Boon et al., 2019).

Further, substitutive association prevails when two practices perform the same function in that one can replace the other to achieve the intended purpose (Jian et al., 2012). This shows that instituting both practices does not have a bigger effect than individual practices, in that implementing both practices only maximises operational cost (Jian et al., 2012). In one study, Harp et al. (1998) compared the efficacy of three distinct approaches to teaching software: traditional classroom instruction, online video tutorials, and hands-on practice on actual computers. The findings indicated that video tutorials were not as effective as either conventional classroom education or computer-based training, but that the latter may serve as a viable, cost-saving

alternative to the former. Finally, practices may generate a synergistic effect when used together (Boon et al., 2019; Jian et al., 2012).

The association among HR practices produces synergy when practices in the system operate interdependently. The success of a single practice is contingent on the presence of additional practices. Lastly, distinct levels can be found in HPWSs – HR policies and HR practices (Boon et al., 2019). HR policy is the stipulated intent of an organisation regarding the type of HR practices to pursue. Thus, HR policy is an employee-focused programme that influences the selection of HR practices (Jian et al., 2012). Wright and Boswell (2002) refer to HR policies as a company's or business unit's expressed aim regarding HR programmes, processes, and techniques implemented in the organisation.

Schular (1992) explains that a firm's HR policies offer strategies for employee-related business issues and programmes. HR practices are the actual practices implemented to achieve the intended goal (Wright & Boswell, 2002). Techniques are methods employed in a specific practice, such as methods (Boon et al., 2019) used in behaviour interviews. In investigating HPWSs, three main perspectives can be adopted: universalistic (best practices), contingency, and configuration (Delery & Doty, 1998). The universalistic perspective holds that there are certain HR practices that are better than other practices and may exert a positive effect on employees or organisational performance, for that matter, must be adopted by all firms (Delery & Doty, 1996; Jiang & Liu, 2015).

As such, Pfeffer (1998) suggested these practices to be universal – promotion from within, training and skill development, results in higher

productivity, participation and empowerment, employment security, incentive pay and profit across an organisation. The contingency perspective conversely holds that for organisations to be effective, the adoption of HR practices must pay attention to other aspects of the organisation, such as strategic position and choices, size of the firm, industry and others (Delery & Doty, 1998). Finally, the configurational perspective looks at the different paths at which HR practices implemented can be used to achieve organisational goals. Here, the concentration is on how patterns of many independent variables are connected with dependent variables.

High-Performance Work Systems Practices

In order to build a strong theoretical foundation and acquire a better contextual knowledge of the study's findings, it was thought necessary to look at the most relevant HPWS practices that support the successful and resourceful use of an organisation's resources. The study of HPWS cannot be conducted without focusing on significant aspects of HPWS practice, such as job design, rigorous recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisals, compensation (Lepak & Snell, 2002), and Employee Voice. These practices are reviewed in the next section.

Job Design Practices

Job design is an important part of HRM activities because it helps an organisation create jobs. A job can be defined as a group of linked roles that are similar in their work or the organisational goals they serve (Brannick et al., 2007). Job design determines the real job structure. It determines which jobs and activities are most important, divides them among workers to allow the organisation to maximise the benefits of employee specialisation, and finally,

groups together job responsibilities in a way that considers the potential for task-related tasks synergies (Foss et al., 2009). For employees to meet these expectations, job design has been indicated to be unavoidable because they determine the organisational behaviour of employees. As a consequence of this, organisations make a concerted effort to organise operations and adopt choices about the manner in which duties and tasks should be carried out (Fraccaroli et al., 2017).

A good job design may provide organisations with a strategic competitive edge (Grant et al., 2010). As a result, while developing a task, organisations must take into account how work is set up, organised, skilled, and carried out (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008). Job design evaluates the duties and activities that employees conduct on a daily basis. Thus it studies, creates and modifies jobs and roles' composition, content, structure, and environment. Therefore, it is concerned with the people doing the work, the work itself, the links between the different aspects of the job, and the interplay between the enactment of a job or position and the larger task, physical, social, and organisational environment (Brannick et al., 2007). Appropriately designing a job enables one to comprehend what individuals like and dislike about the job they performed and what might be done to increase their interest (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008).

Jobs may be designed using job characteristics models, job enrichment, social information processing (SIP), and socio-technical systems (Garg & Rastogi, 2006). When considering work design, the job enrichment strategy involves a greater variety of materials, requiring a higher level of skill and expertise. In addition, this provides workers with the opportunity to learn and

grow as they take charge of their work and performance (Garg & Rastogi, 2006; Grant et al., 2010). Socio-technical system approach to job design assumes that a production system requires both a technology, a method for changing inputs into outputs, and a social structure connecting human operators to the technology and one another (Rousseau, 1977).

The SIP approach to work design proposes that human demands, perceptions of tasks, and emotions are socially created realities and thus affect job incumbent behaviour (Garg & Rastogi, 2006). Finally, jobs can be designed by taking into account their characteristics. Job design must entail skills variety, task variety, task significance, autonomy, and feedback for employees to attain a high psychological state and strengthen growth needs (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Skill variety is the degree to which the individual is required to draw on a diverse set of skills, talents, and knowledge bases to do the work successfully (Garg & Rastogi, 2006; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008).

Task significance is the degree to which an individual is allowed to make a positive contribution to the health and happiness of other people through the job one performs (Fraccaroli et al., 2017). Task identity indicates the degree to which a job enables workers to accomplish an entire, discernible, and visible piece of work from beginning to end (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Kilduff & Brass, 2010). Autonomy assesses how a job gives its employees independence and control about how and when the work should be done. Lastly, feedback shows the degree to which the work environment offers detailed and straightforward information on performance quality (Grant et al., 2010).

Job design inculcating these features provides employees with three main psychological states – meaningfulness, responsibility and knowledge of results (Garg & Rastogi, 2006; Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Meaningfulness of work is the extent to which workers perceive that the job they do is making a valuable contribution, that it is significant and desirable. Responsibility is how the worker believes that they are personally responsible for the job's outcomes. Knowledge of results is the extent to which the worker is aware of and comprehends, on an ongoing basis, the degree to which they are successful in doing their job duties.

Recruitment and Selection Practices

The capacity of an organisation to attract and retain the right talent is the foundation of its success. As such, recruiting and selecting is an essential aspect of HRM due to the rising cost of employee turnover and consequent recruitment expenses (Ayentimi et al., 2018). The goal of recruiting and selecting is to connect potential candidates' talents and interests with the duties and responsibilities of a particular job. To this end, organisations expect that their HR managers will play a vital role as gatekeepers by recruiting and choosing those individuals who can be led, manage, develop and help achieve organisational goals (Proença & de Oliveira, 2009). Phillips and Gully (2015) advanced that recruitment and selection is a vital management activity that helps an organisation maintain its competitive edge and must thus be connected with other HRM tasks.

Sourcing talents into the organisation may take the form of internal and external methods. Internal recruiting uses employee referrals, job bidding, job posting, succession planning, nomination and skill inventory. Internal

recruiting practices help organisations reduce costs in advertising, training, and onboarding processes (Hamza et al., 2021). Further, internal recruiting enhances employees' morale and creates career paths. To reduce inbreeding and have access to wide skills variety, organisations also resort to external recruitment practices such as advertising through print media, education institutions, employment agencies, executive recruiting, employer websites, social media and former employees.

As organisations successfully encourage competent applicants to apply for vacancies, the following is to choose the most qualified candidates to fill the available vacancy. According to Smith and Robertson (1993), the quality of applications an organisation receives is directly proportional to its recruitment strategy, therefore that strategy ultimately influences the success of the selection process. This involves employing effective methods of identifying the most suitable person with the required skills and ability to meet the organisation's needs (Phillips & Gully, 2015). According to Abrokwah et al. (2018), obtaining the right candidates for organisations could serve as a source of achieving sustained organisational performance. Opoku (2016) noted that poor selection choices impair the organisation's performance, lead to inaccurate incentive and development programs, and may be unpleasant for managers who are forced to work with people who are not a good fit for the position.

Halifah et al. (2020) opined that organisations are now recognising the need to implement concrete selection methods to increase the likelihood of selecting based on the compatibility of the criteria and specifications of the workforce required by the organisation with the skills possessed by applicants.

In support of this, organisation now utilised methods such as curricula vitae and résumés, application forms, tests, interviews, background investigations and reference checks.

Training and Development Practices

Organisations are expected to offer training and development programmes to the workforce to update and enhance their KSA to fit into the demands of the turbulent business environment as the present-day business is characterised by changes in work structure, competitiveness, continual technological advancement, and market globalisation (Aragón-Sánchez et al., 2003). Consequently, the pursuit of sustainable competitive advantages is necessary for a firm's continued existence, and this will depend on organisations that invest in training to have a well-equipped workforce to meet these demands (Kraiger et al., 2015). Training and development are becoming more vital to the proper functioning of businesses as they have become a way of life in organisations. They enable businesses to increase their competitiveness, their levels of efficiency and productivity, and their capacity for adaptation and innovation.

According to Stone et al. (2009), training and development activities help the organisation nurture the competence and skills needed. Training may be able to satiate the demand for relatedness in workers since it sends the message that the firm values them and that the organisation is prepared to invest in a long-term connection with them (Marescaux et al., 2012). It may further increase employability since it offers employees the opportunity to acquire both generic and specific knowledge and skills of the industry.

Training activities increase employees' autonomy and, as such, enhance the feeling of internal control (Gellatly et al., 2009).

The impasse made by Goldstein and Ford (2002) is that training is deliberate and undertaken to satisfy a specific need to better the individual, the team, or the organisation's effectiveness. To this end, Salas and Lazzara (2008) explained that for organisations to equip employees with the right skills, an important phase of organising training is to always start with a training needs assessment. This allows skill gaps to be recognised, and the environment necessary for learning and the transfer of knowledge and skills inside the organisation is constructed and established (Salas & Lazzara, 2008). Training needs can be identified at organisational, task and individual levels.

The organisation's training requirements may be determined by looking forward to the skills, abilities, and knowledge that workers will need. Training needs identified using tasks are done by comparing job requirements to employees' knowledge and skills to find areas that demand improvements. Individual-level training needs are focused on employees and how they perform their jobs. Identifying the right skills deficiency will influence the training approaches to adopt. According to these authors (Lynch, 1991; Martin et al., 2014), there are two main types of training techniques- off-site training and on-site training.

On-site training techniques offer employees the opportunity to acquire skills and knowledge by incorporating training into real work (Lynch, 1991). Here, trainees will learn on the job by observing more seasoned workers and practicing with real equipment and supplies (Martin et al., 2014). According to Jacobs and Jones (2003), on-site training refers to a method in which a more

seasoned worker teaches a less seasoned worker how to do a certain task in a situation that is as close as possible to the real thing. This was further affirmed by Obisi (2011) that this form of training is often administered by seasoned co-workers, supervisors, managers, or mentors tasked with increasing their employees' unique knowledge or skill. On-site training employs training methods such as job shadowing, job rotation, internship, demonstration, coaching and mentoring (Martin et al., 2014).

Employees may also be required to participate in external training in order to improve, keep existing skills current, or acquire new ones. Off-site training techniques are formal training performed outside the context of the work itself in particular training rooms or off-site facilities where courses may be offered by the company's training department or external vendors (Lynch, 1991). The advantage of using this approach is that it affords trainees the opportunity to learn without distraction from work (Martin et al., 2014). Off-site training techniques may include simulations, case studies, lectures, role play and audiovisuals (Martin et al., 2014; Obisi, 2011). According to Opoku (2016), one of the most significant challenges employers face today is their incapacity to develop training programs that encourage the transfer of learning because most training programmes are created inefficiently.

Performance Appraisal Practices

Employees are said to be linchpins to an organisation's performance. Therefore, managing their performance is pivotal to organisations' sustained growth and productivity. For this reason, it is relevant that employees' performance is periodically monitored and evaluated (Abu-Doleh & Weir, 2007). According to Selvarajan and Cloninger (2012), performance appraisals

are intended to exert authority over workers while inspiring them to take responsibility for their work and strive for greater success in the future. The outcomes of the performance appraisal process are considered for a wide variety of decisions, including upcoming promotions, salary hikes, and career development steps (Kampkötter, 2017). Vasset et al. (2012) asserted that PA provides employees with official feedback on their performance.

Employees' performance may be measured at the organisational, team and individual levels using both objective and subjective measures such as originality, adaptability, reliability, job knowledge and customer satisfaction, and initiatives (Frye & Bauer, 1996). An effective PA system ensures that employees are assessed continuously on a quarter, biannual or annual basis, depending on the organisation's policies on the assessment of performance. PA may be utilised within person choices to define competence profiles and strengths and weaknesses, offer performance feedback and uncover training requirements (Grund & Sliwka, 2009).

Performance appraisals may be steered through the critical incident, management by objective, paired comparison, graphic rating scale, forced-choice, work standard and 360-degree appraisal methods (Tziner et al., 2000). The PA process starts with establishing performance standards, communicating performance expectations to employees, measuring actual performance, comparing actual performance with standards, discussing the appraisal with the employees and initiating corrective action when necessary.

Compensation management Practices

Compensation is a human resource management (HRM) tool used to manage employees effectively. As such, compensation management is critical

to an organisation's overall management (Adeoye & Fields, 2014). It is a generic term comprising wage and salary, pay and reward, and is intended to reimburse employees' services in an organisation (Shahrestani et al., 2020). Thus, it is the method through which workers are compensated for their contributions at work (Khan et al., 2011). This indicates that employees get various financial benefits, both direct and indirect, in exchange for the services they render to an organisation. According to Larkin et al. (2012), compensation is a vital component of organisational strategy since it influences business performance by encouraging employee effort. It helps to attract and maintain talented and stable personnel, which in turn allows organisations to effectively execute their objectives and acquire a competitive edge over other organisations in the same industry (Larkin et al., 2012; Nisar, 2010).

Compensation can be classified into two main types – financial and non-financial compensation (Adeoye & Fields, 2014). Financial compensation encompasses the concepts of monetary rewards and incentives. Armstrong (2014) holds the view that employees are awarded money prizes as a kind of acknowledgement for the successes they have accomplished, such as meeting or surpassing their performance goals or achieving certain levels of competence or skill. While financial inducements attempt to motivate individuals to achieve their goals, improve their performance, or develop their competence or abilities by concentrating on certain targets and priorities (Armstrong, 2014). Non-financial remuneration, on the other hand, is often tied to the job itself and consists of accomplishment, autonomy, acknowledgement, and the breadth of the activity (Adeoye & Fields, 2014).

The design of employees' compensation is very important and one of the delicate issues in people management. To most employees' their social status and standard of living are directly linked to the financial benefits they get from their employment. Further, it serves as a source of feedback on performance and the value their employers place on their contribution to the survival of the organisation. Therefore, a high level of compensation or benefit compared to that offered by rivals helps guarantee that a firm recruits and keeps people of high quality (Opoku, 2016). Nevertheless, employees will have a positive attitude about their compensation if they believe that it is commensurate with the amount of time, energy, and effort they provide compared to what other employees get (Opoku, 2016). Employees may be dissatisfied if they believe their contributions surpass the money they get from the organisation and their work.

Designing a compensation system requires creating and executing plans and policies that attempt to fairly, equitably, and consistently compensate individuals in line with their contribution to the organisation's strategic objectives. Consequently, choices about employee pay should not be made arbitrarily. As such, three reward systems can be adopted: lead, lag and match policies (Lepak & Gowan, 2016). Organisations with a lead policy offer superior compensation than the market average. Firms that select a lag policy provide salaries lower than the average salary, but employers who choose a match policy tend to offer pay comparable to the market rate (Lepak & Gowan, 2016).

Employee Voice

Union recognition and representation have historically been the primary means through which employees' voices were heard (Pyman et al., 2006). According to Bryson (2004), there has been a significant drop in both union membership and the amount of attention given to collective bargaining, which has led to a need for an alternate kind of representation which is employee voice. Employee voice is defined as the ways in which workers communicate their opinions and suggestions, advocate for their interests, collaborate on workplace projects, and actively shape workplace policies and procedures (Pyman et al., 2006). For this purpose, researchers argue that voice in the sense of open, two-way communication between management and staff was beneficial for all parties involved.

Therefore, to ensure that workers have a chance to enhance their knowledge and abilities as well as participate in the decision-making process, effective employee voice requires that employers provide such opportunities (Constantin & Baias, 2015). Dundon et al. (2004) observed that employee voice could be broken down into many different categories, such as the expression of individual dissatisfaction, interaction and communication, collective representation and organisation, upward problem-solving, employee engagement and contribution to management decision-making, and the demonstration of mutuality and cooperative relations.

According to the author, the goal of employee voice as an expression of individual displeasure is to address a particular problem or issue with management, as expressed via a grievance process or a speak-up programme. A second thread is the manifestation of collective organisation, namely via

unionization and collective bargaining, in which the voice of the workforce serves as a source of power that may balance out the authority held by management. Third, participation in management decision-making via the use of voice focuses on enhancing overall work organization and efficiency, which may be achieved through methods such as quality circles and teamwork (Dundon et al., 2004).

Job Performance

According to Motowildo et al. (2009), job performance is the expected organisational value of what people do. Campbell et al. (1996) explain job performance as the extent to which individual members of an organisation put in the effort to assist the organisational goals. Viswesvaran and Ones (2000), on the other hand, hold that job performance is actions carried out, and behaviour exhibited demonstrating contribution to organisational objectives. In evaluating employees' jobs from the authors above, three main things must be prevalent — action, effort and value creation that is estimated to influence the realisation of organisational goals.

Conversely, Motowidlo (2003) explains job performance as the sum of predicted worth generated for an organisation through separated behavioural occurrences that employees carry out over a specified time. In this author's definition, job performance looks at behaviour and time, suggesting that job performance occurs when individuals can sustain certain acceptable behaviours over time. From the definition offered by these authors, individuals' abilities have not been considered. As such, job performance can be explained as value people create for an organisation by utilising the

knowledge, skills, experience and ability accumulated over time through the exertion of their effort.

According to these authors (e.g. Motowidlo et al., 1997; Motowidlo & Scotter, 1994), job performance can be either task or contextual. Task performance is the completion of an organisation's technical core activities (Motowidlo et al., 1997). According to Borman and Motowidlo (1993), task performance deals with how employees execute actions stipulated in their job description as part of their jobs for which they contribute to accomplishing the organisation's technical core by using the organisation's technological process or offering the required materials or services. This definition suggests that by quantifying the performance of individuals, the organisation has specific tasks that must be carried out and that define the organisation's performance. Without these specific tasks, the organisation can go out of business.

For instance, performing tasks demand converting unprocessed resources into finished products, which is the organisation's product; comprising activities such as drilling of ore from the earth, cashing checks in a bank, carrying out surgery in a hospital, selling commodities in a retail shop, training people in a school, a worker operating production machine in a manufacturing plant etc. Also the second category of task performance are the activities that provide routine checks to sustain the technical core activities by restoring them by supplying raw materials; distributing its finished products; offering essential planning, coordinating, supervising or staff functions that permit them to work proficiently and commendably (Motowidlo et al., 1997).

Aside from performing the technical core, certain activities, such as contextual performance, are also essential to the organisation. Contextual

performance assesses employees' discretionary efforts, going beyond their duties and responsibility by assisting in any form to achieve organisational goals. This points to the fact that contextual performance looks at the broader environment in which the organisation's technical core must function. For example, it encompasses activities including lending help to others and working jointly to the same end, performing tasks that are officially not part of the job, abiding by organisational regulations and procedures, supporting organisational goals and carrying out activities that are personally inconvenient (Johnson, 2001; Motowidlo et al., 1997). Thus it focuses on the social and organisational network and further promotes a psychological climate in which the technical core is rooted (Johnson, 2001; Motowidlo et al., 1997).

However, Borman et al. (2001) conceptualised contextual performance into three main forms — personal support, organisational support and conscientious initiative. These authors are of the view that in the process of individuals carrying out their officially designated task, they provide personal support by offering help to others through providing suggestions, performing some part of other colleagues' tasks, teaching essential skills or knowledge, providing emotional support for others personal problems, cooperating with others by taking recommendations, being considerate, prioritising team objectives before their personal interest, well-mannered, motivating and showing confidence in others.

Also, contextual performance comes in the form of providing organisation support, including being loyal to the organisation in terms of hardship, being a good ambassador, defending and promoting it, embracing

the organisation's goals and objectives, conforming to organisations regulations and procedures and being creative and innovative to improve on the organisation (Borman et al., 2001). Lastly, contextual performance reflects in conscientious initiative comprising enhancing knowledge and skills by taking advantage of opportunities within and outside the organisation, utilising one's resources and time, searching for supplementary productive tasks to carry out when finished with one's duties, looking for a way to do all that is necessary to attain objectives and persevere with extra effort notwithstanding challenging conditions (Borman et al., 2001).

Campbell et al. (1996) further argue that job performance has three main determinants. These are procedural knowledge and skills, declarative knowledge and motivation. Procedural knowledge and skill assess doing exactly what is expected to be done. Declarative knowledge is knowing the facts, procedure and principles of a task. It is the integration of knowing how to do something and being able to execute it exactly how it is wanted. It comprises skills such as interpersonal skills, psychomotor skills, cognitive skills, self-management skills and physical skills. Motivation is the enthusiasm and effort invested in task performance and the decision to sustain that for a specified time. This suggests that these three factors must be prevalent for individuals to perform successfully.

Campbell (1990) also proposed eight behavioural dimensions of job performance – leadership, controlling, team and peer performance, discipline, communication, effort, and task proficiency. It suggests that these behaviours are essential to determine performance. Job-specific task proficiency assesses the ability to carry the core technical demands of a task that distinguishes one

job from another. None-job-specific task proficiency looks at performing a task that is not technical to the job, for that matter, may not be unique to the job; however, it is a requirement that must be met. Written and oral communication describe the skill of writing well and speaking eloquently to people irrespective of the number.

Demonstrating effort is the skill of devoting one time to a task and the ability to be persistent with that behaviour. Maintaining personal discipline describes not indulging in negative behaviour such as absenteeism, alcohol abuse, not following rules etc. Facilitating peers and groups can be viewed as assisting, supporting and nurturing peers and helping the team function effectively. Supervision is the ability to significantly affect people during face-to-face interaction. Lastly, management and administration judge the ability of one to carry out non-supervisory and management functions such as organising resources and people, drawing up organisational goals, keeping progress track and managing expenses.

Supervisor support

Supervisory support offers an essential basis from which employees can obtain energy and social resources (Bacharach & Bamberger, 2007) and thus forms part of social support made available to employees at the workplace (Tang & Tsaur, 2016). Supervisor support is how happy workers are with the supervisor's assistance (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). According to Eisenberger et al. (2002), perceptions of employees of their managers' appreciation of their work may signal organisational support and a conducive workplace for employees (Erdeji et al., 2016). This support offers a psychological, tangible and social resource that impacts employees.

From this viewpoint, social resources such as supervisor support energise and stimulate workers to excel (Swanberg et al., 2011) because employees interpret their supervisor's favourable or unfavourable orientation toward them as indicative of the organisation's support since supervisors act as agents of the organisation, with responsibility for directing and evaluating subordinates' performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Further, employees form broad opinions about how much their supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Employees also believe that supervisors' evaluations of subordinates are often sent to upper management and affect upper management's opinion, contributing to employees' association with supervisor support. Supervisors provide their subordinates with valuable direction, help, and feedback while carrying out their tasks (Nahum-Shani et al., 2014).

Employee well-being

A rising amount of research demonstrates that the mental health and happiness of employees at work have a significant bearing on the performance of an organisation. According to Keeman et al. (2017), an employee's well-being is enhanced when they experience positive emotions and exhibit high levels of performance on the job, insinuating that well-being is how a person feels about his or her work and how satisfied they are with it (Keeman et al., 2017). Employees who report high levels of well-being are shown to be more engaged in their job and to think creatively about their tasks (Day & Randell, 2014). According to Ho and Kuvaas (2020), well-being is an elastic concept which means different things to people. Generally, employees' well-being is an assessment of one's life and things valuable to people and how they think

about and experience life (Rath & Harter, 2010). Employee well-being is usually viewed from a unidimensional perspective – job satisfaction (Grant et al., 2007), indicating happiness at work.

The earlier conceptualisation of well-being was from two main perspectives: hedonic and eudaimonic. The former explains well-being as happiness (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Wright & Huang, 2012) and highlights three important components of well-being - the presence of positive moods, life satisfaction and the absence of negative moods (Diener & Seligman, 2002). The latter describes well-being in terms of self-actualisation, suggesting that exercising virtue brings true happiness (Dewe & Cooper, 2012). According to the eudaimonic view, being happy means taking part in activities that help people grow, such as having control over one's work, development, self-acceptance, having a sense of purpose in life, being in charge of one's own life, and having positive relationships (Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

Aside from these views on employee well-being, other conceptualisations have emerged. For instance, in psychology, positive emotional experiences are emphasised as a necessary characteristic of well-being (psychological or subjective well-being) (Wright et al., 2007; Diener, 1994). Given this, subjective well-being is explained as the regular experience of pleasant feelings, such as happiness and joy and the rare experience of negative feelings, such as despair and anger (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011). As research progressed on the subject, dimensions such as health (Danna & Griffin, 1999), self-validation (Warr, 2011) and social relations (Larson, 1996) have been included.

Voorde et al. (2012) define employee well-being by emphasising three main dimensions – health, happiness and social relationships. In this regard, employee well-being is described as the general level of satisfaction and effectiveness of an employee's work experience and performance (Grant et al., 2007). Health is studied from two perspectives. That is physical health (diseases and injuries) and mental health (exhaustion, burnout, stress and work-related anxiety) (Grant et al., 2007). Grant et al. (2007) postulate that happiness measures how satisfied workers are with their jobs and how well they perform. Voorde et al. (2012) make a distinction between stresses and strains in terms of mental health.

The authors link stressors (e.g. job insecurity, intensification and workload) to circumstances that provide the basis for stress and strain (e.g. burnout and stress) as reactions to stressors. Lastly, social interactions at work are concerned with the quality of relationships that exist between co-workers (e.g. sharing of ideas, co-operations) or between employees and their supervisors or with the employer organisation in general (e.g. supervisor support and trust) (Guest, 2017). According to Ford et al. (2011), poor psychological health symptoms, including depression, worry, and weariness, reduce cognitive resources and increase concentration on unpleasant or irrelevant information, both of which reduce performance.

Chapter Summary

This chapter offered pertinent research on HPWS, supervisor support, well-being, and work performance. It shows solid theoretical foundations supporting HPWS, supervisor support, well-being, and job performance. The AMO theory, the general system theory, the social exchange theory, and the

job demand-resource theory are some fundamental theories discussed in this chapter. The underlying assumptions of these theories have been appropriated to demonstrate the connection among the variables under study conceptually. Further, the most important conceptual issues, as well as their contextual significance and features, were covered in this chapter.



CHAPTER THREE

EMPIRICAL REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter consists of a review of related empirical studies on the five objectives that underpinned the study, lessons learnt from the literature review and an illustration of the study's conceptual framework. The review commences with an empirical review of the nexus between HPWS and job performance, followed by the interaction effect of supervisor support and well-being in the HPWS-performance relationship. Finally, the chapter presents the study's conceptual framework, which illustrates key concepts and relationships among the concepts.

Empirical Review of High-performance Work Systems (HPWS) and Job Performance (JP)

This section focuses mainly on the review of empirical papers relevant to HPWS and job performance. This theme area of the literature echoes one of the objectives of the research. The purpose of reviewing these empirical studies is to understand the effect of HPWS on job performance. As a result, the literature evaluation is premised on preceding research efforts related to this objective, the hypothesis arising from theoretical and empirical discussions, and a review of fundamental ideas. Nine studies were analysed. These studies were selected based on their currency in the literature. The studies were published in 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, and 2021 and are reviewed chronologically.

In their study, Latorre et al. (2016) argued that HPWS is an essential resource for all organisations. Furthermore, the authors intimated that adopting

and implementing the HPWS is a critical issue for organisations that intend to elicit superior performance from their employees. They, however, observed that HPWS-performance relationship research had focused on the organisational level data. Moreover, most research ignored the process whereby the HPWS may influence both organisational and individual outcomes. They realised that those considering the process approach also failed to assess how HPWS influences employees' behaviour. The authors were also motivated by the assertion of Wright and Gardner (2003), which offered that to better understand the HPWS-performance link, it is necessary to incorporate the role of employees' perceptions and attitudes. The study was underpinned by the social exchange and signalling theory.

Therefore, Latorre et al. (2016) evaluated the relationship between HPWS and job performance. The study's objective was to explore the black box by introducing the HPWS-performance link with employees' perceptions and attitudes. The study was premised on the proposition that within the employment relationship if the organisation offers something that employees value, it will signal them to reciprocate by offering in return something the organisation value in the form of enhanced job performance. The study sampled 835 employees from three industries: food, retail, and education. The survey questionnaire was used to gather data from the participants for the study, and the data obtained were analysed using LISREL 8.80, including control variables, to perform structural equation modelling. The authors argued that the method suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) was not used because Baron and Kenny's method was not suitable for the mediation

analysis to be conducted in their study. Further, Baron and Kenny's approach to mediation does not permit multiple mediating variables.

The findings showed that HPWS was significantly and positively associated with perceived organisational support (POS), fulfilled the psychological contract, greater job security, and job satisfaction. In addition, POS, psychological contracts, job security, and job satisfaction had a positive and significant relationship with job performance. They further mediated the relationship between HPWS and job performance with POS, psychological contracts, job security, and job satisfaction. Generally, the study's results support the argument that a high-commitment approach to human resource management based on a pleasant employment relationship and a strong social exchange might explain considerable variances in employee performance.

Latorre et al. (2016) concluded that HR practices are viewed as a signal of an organisation's intentions, and it is proposed that how employees perceive these practices is reflected in key features of the employment relationship such as job satisfaction, a fulfilled psychological contract, and a sense of job security. The study further revealed that these issues were recognised as strategically crucial in developing a long-term, high-trust work relationship that will likely persuade employees to reciprocate by improving their job performance.

The current study also investigates how HPWS can influence job performance in the mining industry of Ghana. The results from Latorre et al. (2016) study become essential evidence for empirical discussions and comparative analysis. The authors operationalised job performance as a single construct and measured it on five Likert scales. However, emerging evidence

suggests that job performance is a multi-dimensional construct operationalised as a task and contextual performance (Khoreva & Wechtler, 2018; Motowidlo & Kell, 2013; Ramawickrama & PushpaKumari, 2017; Scotter et al., 2016). The implication here is that the dynamics of HPWS and each dimension of job performance are likely to differ. However, the empirical evidence to verify such claims is largely limited.

In China, Wang and Xu (2017) conducted a study on HPWS and employees' service performance. The study was conceived because it is recommended that research should shift from generic HRM practices to specific HRM practices, such as one geared towards service-oriented HPWS. Furthermore, the authors argued that despite the comprehensive studies and valuable insight offered on how service-oriented HPWS translate into quality service performance, there is a need to thoroughly understand both the intermediate mechanism and boundary condition for this relationship. The authors believe that notwithstanding several mediators that have been evaluated, the understanding of the mechanisms behind the service-oriented HPWS-service performance link is still fragmented. Therefore, the relationship between the variables under study was explained using the assumptions of AMO theory.

The study sampled 568 front-desk clerks from 92 sub-branches of banks in China. The survey questionnaire was used to collect data and analysed using the MPLUS structural equation modelling. The analysis followed the hypotheses developed from the AMO theory. Wang and Xu (2017) operationalised performance as a single construct. Three major findings emerged from the analysis. First, the findings found that service-oriented

HPWS had a positive and significant effect on frontline employees' service performance when gender, education and age are controlled. Second, the outcome of the analysis revealed that the indirect effects of service-oriented HPWS on service performance via customer orientation, service climate and serviceability were significant, respectively. Third, the results revealed that the association between service-oriented HPWS and service performance was moderated by service climate, customer orientation, and serviceability.

Given these findings, the authors recommended that organisations invest in all service-oriented HPWS that improve skills, motivation, and opportunities. In the process, importance should be placed on the content and implementation of HR practices. Also, a strong level of agreement among employees over their perceptions of the content of HRM practices must be attained before service-oriented HPWS can begin to have its desired effects. There must be agreement among the primary HRM decision-makers and fairness in the HRM system to reach such a consensus. Despite the sound contribution of this study, nine items were used to measure HPWS comprising training, performance appraisal, compensation and caring, staffing, and involvement and participation.

Using multiple data sources, Hauff et al. (2017) investigated the link between HPWS and firm performance, building on extant literature using firm-level data in Germany. The authors used a comprehensive data set from 1099 firms. Hauff et al. (2017) followed the argument that research on how HPWS influences firm performance has remained a work in progress. As academics have concentrated on human capital and motivation-related variables, there is insufficient integration of numerous factors. Focusing on

these variables has always made researchers disregard crucial operational outcomes such as innovation capability, quality and productivity. The authors believed that neglecting these variables may lead to biased results. The authors also held that context plays a vital role in the HPWS and performance relationship. The hypotheses of the study were built on the assumptions of AMO theory.

The data for the study were collected through highly structured computer-aided telephone interviews with HR managers and chief executives of firms in Germany. The data were gathered in 2012 from organisations that have more than 20 employees in the following industries: professional services (business consultants, accounting, and legal services), chemicals and pharmaceuticals, mechanical engineering, banks, and insurance. Out of a total population of 5388 firms, 1099 firms participated in the study. The obtained data were analysed using PLS structural equation modelling. The analysis yielded the following results: the ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing, and opportunity-enhancing HPWS positively related to human capital. Also, the strongest link between HPWS and human capital is HPWS which boosts motivation, followed by HPWS, which improves opportunities and HPWS, which enhances skills.

Similarly, the analysis showed that motivation-strengthening and opportunity-improving HPWS related positively to employees' attitudes but not ability-enhancing HPWS. In addition, the results from the analysis revealed that HPWS had a positive impact on financial performance through employee attitude, employee performance, and human capital. The findings also revealed that HPWS had a much stronger relationship with employee

performance. Furthermore, the findings demonstrated some anomalies in the German environment, as the intensity of the association between opportunity-enhancing, ability-strengthening, motivation-improving HPWS, and human capital deviated from what is predicted from the literature.

The authors attributed the differences to the employment systems of the various countries in which these studies have been conducted. Hauff et al. (2017) argued that the employment systems in Germany are characterised by strong dual vocational systems leading to standardised qualifications and more firm-specific skills, which have led to a less formalised method for selection. Therefore, they concluded that in Germany, opportunity-enhancing and motivation-strengthening HPWS are more crucial to employees. This study showed that not all HPWS relate to firm performance. Nevertheless, with the sound contribution of the study to HPWS and performance literature, employee performance was operationalised as a single construct.

Shin and Konrad (2017) investigated the inverse link between HPWS and organisations' performance. The major purpose of this research was to use a large longitudinal dataset to investigate the association between HPWS and performance. A secondary objective was to assess the feedback loop of organisational performance on the adoption of HPWS. The study was based on the assumption that the HPWS-performance relationship is reversed. Thus HPWS will lead to enhanced organisational performance, which will influence HPWS adoption based on the availability of slack resources and the adaptive implementation of HR practices. The study was underpinned by the general system theory.

The authors sampled 6000 employers across Canada to participate in the study. The data gathered was longitudinal and national in scope, collecting data on Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3 within two years. The people who took part in the study were top managers at companies with more than twenty workers. In addition, the study adopted the Workplace and Employee Survey to collect data on HPWS comprising the following practices compensation, employee empowerment, work design, and benefits. In measuring organisational performance, productivity was used to measure financial performance and calculated as the logarithm of the gross operating revenue divided by the number of employees.

The data of the study were analysed using a cross-lagged panel model through SEM using AMOS. First, all the HR practices were used as a composite variable to assess the effect on performance. The analysis revealed that all the data collected from the different periods had a positive and significant relationship with productivity. Further, the authors also investigated the reverse effect of performance on HPWS systems and had similar results. That is, the performance had a positive and significant effect on the adoption of HPWS. Finally, in the second analysis, individual practices were also used to ascertain their effect on performance. Again, the findings showed a positive and significant effect of HPWS on performance. The overall findings suggest that the ability of HPWS to enhance organisational performance will determine further investment in HPWS in the future. The authors, therefore, concluded that HR researchers and practitioners must use a systemic approach to assessing the influence of HR practices.

In the United Kingdom, Ogbonnaya and Valizade (2018) examined the influence of HPWS on organisational performance through employees outcome. The study's objective was to fill a research gap in methodology. The study was conceived from the idea suggested by Croon et al. (2015) that a significant methodological shortcoming in this study area is the sparse utilisation of multilevel mediation methods and procedures. The authors assert that most studies on HPWS and performance analysed it from a single-level mediation approach and neglected the probability that HPWS and performance may operate differently from several employees' outcomes. The study employed secondary data from the British National Health Service (NHS). The data was gathered in 2003 via a questionnaire. A total of 101,169 questionnaires were filled out by workers in 250 NHS in the UK.

The study sampled 398 employees from the returned questionnaire. The data obtained were analysed using separate 2-1-2 mediation models with the robust maximum likelihood (MLR) estimator. A direct positive relationship was found between HPWs and employee outcomes (job satisfaction and employee engagement). Job satisfaction and staff engagement mediated a negative association between HPWS and organisational performance, but job satisfaction mediated the association between HPWS and patient satisfaction. The study concluded that innovative HPWS promote better employment relationships since it can enhance employees' job satisfaction and work engagement. Nonetheless, organisational performance was measured using staff absenteeism.

Zhang et al. (2019) examined HPWS and employee performance among employees in China. The study's goal was to look at the function of

workers' personal resources in effectively managing and affecting their surroundings. The study was premised on the assumptions that integrated psychological experiences of vitality and learning at work influence employees' behaviour. The study was supported by theories: human capital, social exchange, and the conservation of resource theory. The authors sampled 391 employees and 84 supervisors from three industries: software development, electric power generation, and manufacturing. The authors used primary data collected through questionnaires and analysed using Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HML) 3.

The analysis found that HPWS relates positively to task performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Further, HPWS was found to have a significant and positive relationship with social exchange and thriving. The authors assessed the association between social exchange and thriving with task performance. The results yielded a positive relationship between social exchange and thriving with task performance. Also, evidence was found that social exchange and thriving mediate the link between HPWS and task performance. Lastly, the study found proactive personality moderates the relationship between HPWS and task performance. The authors concluded that investment in HPWS pays off, and managers must pay attention to the introduction and implementation of HPWS into an organisation.

Dastmalchian et al. (2020) examined HPWS and organisational performance across different cultures. The study evaluates societal cultures as a moderator between HPWS and organisational performance. The theory that guided this study was the AMO framework. The HR practices used as HPWS in this study were conceptualised as ability-enhancing (selective recruitment,

induction, and training), motivation-enhancing (internal labour market, performance appraisal, incentive compensation, flexible work arrangement, benefits, equal opportunity, and employment security), and opportunity-enhancing (quality circles, team briefing, employee attitude survey, grievance procedures, labour-management participation) HR practices.

The authors utilised the mixed method, using a multi-case-study approach from three industries (financial services, healthcare, and manufacturing) in 14 countries. The convenience sampling technique was used to select organisations to participate in the study. Three hundred eighty-seven organisations were selected from 14 countries, spread across three industries: finance (125), healthcare (112), and manufacturing (150). Employee survey data consisted of 7187 respondents from these organisations. The data collection tools used for gathering data were structured interviews and questionnaires.

The data were analysed using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. Descriptive statistics such as the mean, standard deviation, and correlations were used to report the results. The findings revealed that HPWS had a significant positive relationship with organisational performance. In addition, the study revealed that opportunity-enhancing HR strategies, such as decision-making and work design that promotes involvement, are less successful in cultures with a large power distance culture. Therefore, the researchers suggested that rather than trying to tailor individual HR practices to fit specific cultures, organisations would be better served by adopting a more holistic approach.

In a related study, Abugre and Nasere (2020) used Ghana as a proxy for other developing nations to examine the connection between HPWS and employee performance in multinational organisations. The authors proclaimed that multinational companies to succeed in new markets require that they undertake innovative HR practices that propel them to achieve competitive advantage. As such, their study's purpose was threefold. First, to assess the influence of employees' involvement as an HPWS on HR practices and employees' performance to build and extend knowledge in the management of employees in work organisations. Second, study the contingent influence of training and development of employees on their performance as HR practices continue to grow in multinational organisations and demonstrate its proficiency or otherwise in people management in work organisations. Third, investigate remuneration and rewards on employee performance to establish their relationship. The study was underpinned by human capital theory.

A total of 317 employees were sampled for the study. The survey questionnaire was used to gather data, and the data obtained were analysed using structural equation modelling, bootstrapping, and multiple regression. The evidence indicated that job involvement used as a proxy of HPWS served as an intervening variable between HR practices and employee performance. In addition, training and development and compensation and reward had a significant and positive relationship with employees' performance. In relation to the evidence established in this study, the authors concluded that organisations should institute HPWS that can influence both corporate and employee performance. Despite the splendid contribution of the study to

HPWS and performance literature, job performance was operationalised as a single construct and job involvement was used as HPWS.

In New Zealand, Edgar et al. (2021) analysed the role of HPWS between gender and job performance. The study used context to explain the HPWS and job performance relationship and further assess the relationship at the micro-level. The study was guided by the AMO theory and social role theory. The purposive sampling technique was used to select 14 organisations from the service sector. The survey questionnaire was used to obtain data from 244 participants for the study. Multiple regression and t-tests were used to analyse the data for the study. The findings showed no significant interaction between gender and opportunity on job performance and a marginally significant interaction between gender and ability on job performance.

Further, the mediation analysis indicated that males' job performance is enhanced through ability rather than opportunity and motivation. Conversely, females' job performance was improved through opportunity rather than ability and motivation. These results indicated that there is a major distinction between male and female employees concerning their AMO behaviour and job performance. Therefore, the authors recommended that HR practitioners understand that culture plays a crucial role in people management and that the cultural psychic of employees is changing, impacting their attitude, which translates to HR practices. As such it is hypothesised that:

H_{1a}: Ability-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on task performance

H_{1b}: Ability-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on contextual performance

H_{1c}: There is a significant positive effect of motivation-enhancing HR practices on task performance

H_{1d}: There is a significant effect of motivation-enhancing HR practices on contextual performance

H_{1e}: opportunity-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on task performance

H_{1f}: opportunity-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on contextual performance

Lessons Learnt

The lessons learnt from the literature is that the extent and direction of the HPWS-job performance nexus may be characterised by the operationalisation of the constructs and the players involved in the interaction. While several studies have shown a correlation between HPWS and increased job performance, the literature has frequently overlooked the nature of HPWS with the multidimensionality of job performance (Abugre & Nasere, 2020; Edgar et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2019). Moreover, the empirical literature reveals that most previous research has focused on analysing performance at the organisational level (Hauff et al., 2017; Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2018). The current understanding is that there are multiple dimensions to job performance and that HPWS can influence all of these dimensions (Motowildo et al., 2009; Na-Nan et al., 2018; Ramawickrama & PushpaKumari, 2017). This research follows the theoretical lessons and current knowledge of the empirical literature and suggests three links between these phenomena.

Supervisor Support, HPWS and Job Performance

This section focuses on the second objective of the study. It explores the theoretical lessons from the theoretical review which underpin this purpose and develops appropriate hypotheses. This section will also analyse earlier research efforts to discover the gaps and operationalise essential topics.

Empirical review on supervisor support of HPWS and Job Performance

Even though solid theoretical supports exist to examine the effect of supervisor support on job performance in the mining sector, the empirical data is still in its early stages. Most earlier research attempts have focused on supervisor support and job performance outside the Ghanaian context. A substantial amount of studies have investigated the relationship between supervisor support and job performance (Darvishmotevali et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2017; Sekhar & Patwardhan, 2021; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Talukder et al., 2018; Talukder & Galang, 2021). However, there is scanty research done in the mining industry on how support from supervisors affects job performance.

Therefore, the empirical review under this subject focuses primarily on research outside the Ghanaian context to uncover gaps and extend the implications of the findings. One of the main contributors to supervisor support and job performance is Kim et al. (2017). Kim et al. (2017) conducted a study on supervisor support and job performance in Australia. The authors specifically examined the moderating role of work-based resources in the link between emotional labour and job performance. The study's objective was to assess supervisors' support, co-worker support, and organisational support as a

moderator between emotional labour and job performance. The study's second objective was to examine the distinction between work-based resources.

Data were collected through questionnaires from 150 flight attendants in South Korea. The hypotheses of the study were tested using hierarchical regression. The analysis showed that supervisors' support determines job performance. Therefore, the authors recommended that airlines consider providing more work support to employees, especially supervisor support since employees use their emotions through acting to make customers more comfortable. This study has demonstrated a possible link between supervisor support and job performance. These results reinforce the theoretical supposition that supervisor support may influence job performance. This serves as a foundation for expanding the scope of supervisor support literature to encompass a variety of job performance-related thematic issues. Job performance was operationalised as a single construct, and measures were taken from employees' performance appraisals.

Another study was conducted by Talukder et al. (2018). The authors focused on supervisor support and work-life balance (WLB) in job performance. The work was conceived from the fact that people in Australia are not satisfied with their work-life balance. The study was conducted within the financial sector of Australia. The authors argued that in the finance industry, the supervisor's function is crucial in maintaining a transparent, fair, and lawful decision-making process that typically has financial ramifications for clients and other stakeholders. Moreover, in such a closely supervised setting, the immediate supervisor's attitudes and behaviour directly influence employees' capacity to sustain a WLB. As a result, a supervisor's abilities in

this field are even more critical in assisting an individual with non-work concerns that may affect workers' working methods. Their study sought to investigate the supervisor's role in ensuring WLB and the effect on job performance. The theory that guided the study was the conservation of resources.

Using the quantitative survey design, the authors sampled 305 participants, and an online survey was used to collect data from employees. The data solicited were analysed using structural equation modelling with maximum likelihood to test hypotheses. The findings supported the hypothesis that supervisors' support influences WLB and impacts employees' performance. The authors offered that an empathetic supervisor who is flexible listens to employees, and is sympathetic to employees' family and personal commitments might significantly impact employees' ability to attain a WLB. Such support from supervisors gives employees a sound mind to enhance their job performance. Nevertheless, the study also operationalised job performance as a single construct. Further, supervisor support in this study focused on the assistance offered and care shown to employees without assessing supervisors' involvement in implementing the organisation's policies for employees.

In the Pakistanis context, Afzal et al. (2019) also examined supervisor support's role in shaping employees' intentions to quit and job performance. According to the authors, most research on supervisor support and employee performance has focused on extra-role performance, neglecting task performance. Further, they lamented that such researchers tested their hypotheses using organisational support theory. As a gap to fill, they used the

social learning theory to assess the indirect effect of supervisor support on employees' performance. The goal of the study was to look at how self-efficacy affects the relationship between plans to leave a job and job performance.

Using teaching staff of private universities in Pakistan, the authors administered 350 questionnaires to respondents; 304 answered questionnaires were received from respondents. SEM was used to analyse the data received, and 5000 bootstrap samples were employed to do a mediation analysis. The analysis outcomes showed that supervisor support directly affects task performance. The mediation analysis further demonstrated that supervisor support through self-efficacy positively influences task performance. In addition, the supervisor's support negatively influences turnover intentions via self-efficacy. The study concluded that employees constantly need assistance from supervisors to improve task performance, significantly, where a feeling of unwillingness and disinterest set in to hinder employees from attaining goals. Nonetheless, items measuring supervisor support focused on employee assistance and care, neglecting their role in implementing the organisation's policies for employees.

McLarty et al. (2019) investigated the supervisor role in employee performance in family-owned businesses in the United States of America (USA). McLarty et al. (2019) argued that supervisor-employee interactions had been ignored in family-owned business research, as most research had paid much attention to organisational-level issues. The research was conceived from the fact that family firms vary in terms of the degree of ownership and control, family involvement, influence, and family essence. According to the

authors, these factors influence employee behaviour at work. They further opined that a dual prominence on economic and socioemotional wealth goals (SEW) in a family business might send mixed messages to employees because family firms and managers place different values on SEW, causing disagreement over how much effort SEW goals require. Overcoming this issue may affect employee performance.

The study's main objective was to evaluate the consistency between the supervisor's family position and the significance supervisors put on socioemotional wealth and the influence on employee performance. The study took insight from social exchange theory. The authors sampled 354 employees and supervisors from family-owned businesses. The data were gathered online at different periods to decrease the issue of common method bias. The data solicited were analysed using multiple regression. Descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and Pearson Correlation Coefficient were employed to analyse the correlation matrix between the various variables in the study.

In addition, hierarchical regression was used to ascertain the effect of supervisor support on employee task performance. The results showed that loyal employees working for consistent supervisors with more concern for socioemotional wealth for employees experience high task performance and citizenship performance. Given the findings, the authors concluded that supervisor genuineness is significant to employee performance. However, supervisor support was measured with a focus on care and assistance for employees, ignoring the supervisor's role in implementing employee organisational policies.

Tarcan et al. (2020) assessed mushroom management style and supervisor support on job performance. The study was born from the fact that a new management style has emerged, where supervisors who consider knowledge to be power prefer not to share information with subordinates. On the other hand, supervisors believe in conveying information, sharing experiences, and assisting subordinates to succeed. Tarcan et al. (2020) argue that these two behavioural patterns have the tendency to affect employees' performance in different ways. The study's objective was to assess different behavioural patterns of supervisors on job performance.

The study sampled 349 healthcare professionals, and the questionnaire was the primary data collection instrument. To verify the hypothesis behind this research, multivariate linear regression analyses were carried out. Insufficient information sharing, fear of losing control, poor communication, and a lack of participatory management were shown not to have a major effect on job performance with the adoption of a mushroom management style at work. Further, it was shown that support from a supervisor had a positive and significant effect on job performance. Given these results, it was recommended that supervisors should display a friendly attitude towards their subordinates, consider their opinions in decision-making, respect their values, and show considerable concern for their welfare.

In India, Sekhar and Patwardhan (2021) looked at how support offered by supervisors affects the relationship between flexible working arrangements (FWA) and job performance. The authors' motivation for their study was that employees are exposed to work intensification and stress after an organisational change, leading to high turnover. They argued that flexible

working hours are an essential source that organisations can use to enhance job performance. They believe that for this working arrangement to be successful, the critical role of supervisors cannot be overemphasised. The study's objective was to ascertain the influence of flexible working arrangements on job performance. The second objective was to determine the role supervisors can play in achieving superior performance from employees. The study employed a quantitative approach and sampled 214 managers from the Indian service sector. AMOS software was used to analyse data gained through structural equation modelling. The analysis outcomes showed that FWA had a positive and significant relationship with job performance. Also, supervisor support was found to have a positive and significant relationship with job performance. Finally, supervisor support was found to serve as an intervening variable between FWA and job performance. The authors then recommended that the supervisor's role in enhancing job performance in flexible working arrangements is essential in every organisation. It is therefore predicted that:

H_{1a}: supervisor support has a significant positive effect on task performance

H_{1b}: supervisor support has a significant positive influence on contextual performance

Lessons Learnt

The preceding examination of relevant literature offers some valuable insights for methodological lessons for the study in this area. The issues encompass the operationalisation of the term job performance and data analysis. It was learnt from the review of relevant literature that job

performance was operationalized as a single construct. Yet emerging research has indicated that job performance has several dimensions that researchers must account for when measuring the construct (Griffin & Parker, 2007; J. W. Johnson, 2001; Ramawickrama & PushpaKumari, 2017). Ignoring the multiple dimensions of job performance with supervisor support limits the application of research findings.

In measuring supervisor support most questionnaire development had focused on employee assistance and care, ignoring the role supervisors play in the implementation of HR practices. It is therefore important to include items to supervisor support instruments to highlight their roles in bringing HR practices to life for employees. Further, the lesson learnt from the literature suggests that employing explanatory design and using structural equation modelling for the analysis seem appropriate for studies that aim to predict and explain outcomes.

Empirical Review of Moderating Role of Supervisor Support of HPWS and Job Performance

The previous sections have thoroughly reviewed the empirical literature on the subjects of supervisor support and job performance. The earlier empirical reviews have presented a discussion of prior research efforts about HPWS and job performance (Abugre & Nasere, 2020; Edgar et al., 2021; Hauff et al., 2017; Latorre et al., 2016; Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2018; Wang & Xu, 2017; Zhang et al., 2019) and supervisor support and job performance (Afzal et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2017; McLarty et al., 2019; Sekhar & Patwardhan, 2021; Talukder et al., 2018; Yorgancioglu Tarcan et al., 2020). Outside of Ghanaian literature, the debates indicated a scarcity of empirical

research that analyses the moderating role of supervisor support in the link between HPWS and work performance. As a result, although there are solid theoretical foundations for investigating the direct and interacting role of supervisor support of the effect of HPWS on job performance, empirical evidence of the interaction influence is still in its early stages.

Most existing studies have either focused on supervisor support and job performance or supervisor support on HPWS. Several studies have examined the relationship between HPWS and supervisor support (Bayo-Moriones & Bello-Pindado, 2021; Pak & Kim, 2018; Schreuder et al., 2020; Sekhar & Patwardhan, 2021; Tang et al., 2017). However, evidence about the moderating role of supervisor support of HPWS is still limited. Considering the interacting role of supervisor support in the HPWS and job performance nexus is crucial as employees' job performance can be amplified or repressed by the supervisors' role in implementing HPWS (Bos-Nehles et al., 2013; Gilbert et al., 2011; Kuvaas et al., 2014; Trullen et al., 2016; Vermeeren, 2014).

So, the present research adds to the literature by including supervisors' support in understanding the application of HPWS and the job performance framework. Furthermore, even if the goal of improved performance is reached, problems with work performance will continue to exist. To minimise the occurrence of diminished employee performance and the severity of the effect on the organisation's bottom line, a multipronged strategy, including pertinent moderating variables, such as supervisor support, is essential to success. This essential empirical issue is included in the current investigation to contribute to the cure of the shortcomings.

In the study of Pak and Kim (2018), which centred on HPWS and performance among teams, the authors echoed how supervisor support could amplify job performance. Furthermore, Pak and Kim (2018) hypothesised that different HPWS implementation patterns are likely to develop at the team level since ongoing contact between team members might result in common knowledge of their human resource experiences. In addition, the authors proposed that a visible supervisor who strictly implements policies on HPWS fosters a strong psychological climate among team members towards the work environment. In another study by Schreuder et al. (2020), the authors assessed the moderating role of supervisor support in the relationship between HPWS and job performance. Yet the supervisor's support was investigated at the team level.

According to SET, HWPS provide enough resources to employees, and such investment requires that employees put in extra effort to pay back their employers. This may breed high job expectations from employees and may cause exhaustion and stress (Kloutsiniotis et al., 2021). This inference is congruent with the assumptions of the JD-R theory. The extended argument from the JD-R theory suggests that when there is excessive pressure at work, it takes a greater effort to complete job goals, which has physical and psychological repercussions, including feelings of exhaustion and irritation. However, the JD-R theory proposes that job resources such as supervisor assistance may act as a buffer to lessen the work strain employees experience since supervisor support serves as extra resources given to employees, and they can rely on such resources to deal with work pressures (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

The possibility that assistance from supervisors might act as a buffer between HPWS and its impact on job performance has been theorised. Surprisingly, the empirical literature has not yet verified this theoretical postulation even though it has been proposed. One of this investigation's fundamental concerns is determining whether or not this theoretical assumption can be supported by empirical evidence. Based on the theoretical insights and the dearth of empirical data, this research tests the following hypothesis about the function of supervisor support in the link between HPWS and job performance.

H_{1a}: supervisor support has a positive significant interacting effect on HPWS and task performance

H_{1b}: supervisor support has a positive significant interacting effect on HPWS and contextual performance

Lessons Learnt

This aspect of the study focuses on the interacting role of supervisor support on the effect of HPWS on job performance among workers in the mining industry. The foundation of this research is built on the insights gained from both the theoretical and empirical insights presented in the earlier parts of this chapter. Several important theoretical takeaways are derived from the SET and the JD-R. It has been discovered that SET is indicative of a natural reaction and results in satisfactorily completing a social contract. Therefore, it recognises and acknowledges the reality that the responses or reactions of workers to the different HR practices are impacted by other elements, such as

the support of their supervisors. The assumptions of HPWS do not take these things into account as such, giving way to add to the HPWS tenets.

It is also learnt from the review of the assumption of JD-R that as employees strive to fulfil their part of the contract because their employees take exceptionally good care of them through investment in the various HR practices, more energy is required from them to achieve superior job performance, which leads to exhaustion and stress. The primary point is that these high-performing HR systems, which aim at enhancing job performance and assuring the organisation's efficacy, may lead to work intensification, making work more demanding (Jensen et al., 2013). Consequently, by including supervisor assistance in the HPWS-job performance nexus, the results might expand the theoretical implications of SET and JD-R.

Although several studies have focused on the influence of supervisor support on job performance, research on the moderating role that supervisor support plays in the HPWS-job performance nexus is either scarce or nonexistent.

Empirical Review on Well-being and Job Performance Literature

Even though some studies have considered the effect of well-being on job performance, examining the moderating role of well-being is limited. While some studies on well-being and job performance may predict the possible moderating role of well-being, well-being role in the relationship between HPWS and job performance remains a theoretical assumption. This is surprising as a theoretical assumption exists for conducting such an investigation.

In Malaysia, Johari et al. (2019) explored how well-being determined employees' performance in the public sector and discussed the possible explanations in the context of the literature. The authors' motivation for their work was that earlier studies have heavily assessed public sector employees' motivation and neglected the job's motivational value. The second reason for carrying out their research was that changes occurring in the workplace affect policies and define the job's characteristics. They argued that if an organisation changes, it is vital to assess employees' performance since a change at the workplace determines employees' well-being and can influence job performance.

Using a quantitative survey design, data were gathered employing a survey questionnaire. A total of 208 salary workers were sampled from public agencies and departments for the study. The partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) technique was used to test the relationship between well-being and job performance. The analysis indicated a significant positive relationship between well-being and job performance. They further explained that employee well-being accounted for 41.8 per cent of job performance. The authors recommended that considerable feedback and attention be given to employees' well-being since it influences job performance.

The study of Magnier-Watanabe et al. (2020) and its findings have also shown an empirical connection between well-being and job performance. This lends credence to the proposition that factors external to the workplace, such as well-being, may impact workers' job performance. This thus becomes one of the bases for expanding the scope of the nature of the literature on well-

being to include a wider variety of topics related to work performance. The scope of Magnier-Watanabe et al. (2020)'s study was limited to subjective well-being and consequences on job performance. The objective of the study was two folds.

First, the authors considered this research because of inadequate studies on culture and culture differences in organisational virtuousness, well-being and job performance. Second, the globalisation of the global economy has increased the number of corporate linkages and cross-shareholdings between these two nations, requiring businesses to assess and compare the antecedents of their nationally varied staff to achieve sustainable success. The authors gathered data from two different cultures – Japan (208) and France (273). The data for the study were analysed using SEM. The findings showed a positive relationship between subjective well-being and job performance. The authors concluded that subjective well-being is laudable in enhancing job performance.

Another study was carried out by Kundi et al. (2020), who assessed well-being and job performance in Pakistan. The study's objective was to ascertain the mediating role of affective commitment between psychological well-being and job performance. The study sampled 280 respondents from five telecommunications companies in Pakistan. The hypotheses for the study were analysed through confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 22.0. The findings showed direct and indirect positive relationships between psychological well-being and job performance. The authors, therefore, concluded that employees' psychological well-being must be improved by implementing various interventions by organisations. These include the

selection and placement of workers into positions that are suitable for them, the maintenance of a pleasant working environment, and the provision of training that improves workers' mental health and assists them in positively managing their perceptions.

Gutiérrez et al. (2020) also examined how well-being influences job performance. The researchers conducted a desktop literature review using five scientific research databases. The study's objective was to assess the influence of the various dimensions of well-being on job performance. Forty-three peer-reviewed journal articles were gathered from the five databases. A random-effects meta-analysis was used to determine the average associations between well-being and job performance. The study further used Fisher's z-transformation to estimate the sampling error of individual correlations. The VOS software was used to map the relationship between well-being and job performance. The evidence indicated twenty-three forms of relationships between well-being and job performance. All the studies analysed found significant relationships between well-being and job performance.

Obrenovic et al. (2020) analysed the influence of work-family conflict on psychological safety, well-being and job performance in Bahrain. The study was conducted to address limitations in psychological well-being literature, as most studies neglect the influence of non-organisational factors on job performance. To fill this gap in the literature, the authors introduced family and how it influences psychological safety, well-being and job performance. The survey strategy was employed, and a questionnaire was distributed to 359 respondents in the manufacturing and service companies. The data solicited from respondents were analysed using SEM software

AMOS version 23. The analysis revealed that employee well-being significantly influences job performance. The study, therefore, concluded that organisations should offer a working environment typified by psychological well-being for employees to feel comfortable and, therefore, capable of sharing ideas and being creative at work.

In their study, Parent-Lamarche et al. (2021) contended that workers who report higher levels of happiness are more productive than workers who report lower levels of happiness. The authors intimated that to boost employees' productivity, organisations need to identify variables that can offer stable mental states for employees in order to reap the benefits of well-being. However, the researchers observed a lack of agreement regarding the dimensions and definition of well-being, which they indicated is worrisome and might lead to a wrong explanation of the concept. Further, they realised that most of the studies on well-being neglected psychological distress. Well-being in this study was measured using interest, mood and energy.

Parent-Lamarche et al. (2021) sampled over 63 companies comprising over 500 workplaces in Canada to investigate how organisation conditions affect job performance and mediate it with well-being. As such, the study was cross-sectional, and the total of employees who participated in the study was 1957. The study employed MPlus software to analyse the data. The results revealed that well-being has a positive relationship with job performance. The researchers suggested minimising psychological pressures by ensuring adequate staffing levels and preventing understaffing to reduce the impact of job demands on employee well-being. From the empirical review, most of the research measuring well-being and job performance measured job

performance as a single construct, following recommendations from job performance literature that researchers should assess the multidimensionality of job performance to propose the following hypotheses:

H_{1a}: Well-being has a significant positive effect on task performance

H_{1b}: Well-being has a significant positive influence on contextual performance

Lessons Learnt

This section of the study focuses on how well-being influences employees' job performance. It examines the effect of well-being on job performance among workers in the mining industry in Ghana. Specifically, addressing this goal calls for a connection test grounded in theory and empirical evidence. It is learnt from the JD-R theory that the demands of work may start off a process that drains one's energy, which may lead to job strain and health problems; on the other hand, the resources provided by a job may fundamentally motivate personal development and achievement and kick off a process of motivation.

From the theory, when employees have enough resources, they will be able to cope with the demands of their jobs and lower the likelihood of any adverse health effects occurring due to their increased degrees of control over their situations through available resources.

Empirical Review on the Moderating Role of Well-being in HPWS and Job Performance

Although several studies have focused on the association between well-being and job performance, there has been little research into the moderating effect of well-being on HPWS and job performance. While some empirical studies on well-being and job performance may be used to project the possible moderating role of well-being, well-being role in the relationship between HPWS and job performance remains a theoretical issue. This comes as a surprise, given that there are theoretical foundations for carrying out research of this kind.

Khoreva and Wechtler (2018) conducted research in Finland to determine whether or not well-being mediated the connection between HR policies and performance. The authors' motivation for the study was influenced by the evidence offered in the literature, projecting that HR practices may trigger high levels of burnout, stress, exhaustion and intensification (Pawar, 2016; Van De Voorde et al., 2012). They argue that there may be trade-offs between HR practices and different dimensions of well-being, stating that well-being may benefit employee job performance and, at the same time, damage employees' health.

Following the assumptions of social exchange theory, the study aimed to investigate how the different dimensions of HR practices are associated with the different dimensions of job performance. Further, it explored the moderating role of different components of well-being in the relationship between HR practices and job performance. Using a sample size of 302, the study employs SAS 9.3 to perform structural equation modelling with the data

obtained from service companies in Finland. The findings yielded the following results. First, opportunity and skill-enhancing HR practices positively affected in-role performance, while motivation HR practices positively affected innovative job performance.

Second, motivation-enhancing HR practices are positively associated with psychological well-being, whereas skill and opportunity-enhancing HR practices are associated negatively with physical well-being. Finally, well-being mediated between skill and opportunity, enhancing HR practices and in-role job performance. Khoreva and Wechtler (2018) explained that the significant effect of well-being on job performance means that HR practices help reduce employees' stress and work intensification. Nevertheless, in this study, the authors refuse to assess how HR practices can affect the contextual performance of employees.

Another study conducted by Marescaux et al. (2019) investigated how developmental HRM and employees' well-being affect performance in Belgium. The authors were encouraged by different views presented by the different schools of thought- mutual gains and conflicting outcomes. The mutual gains viewpoint asserts that HRM conveys to workers that their contribution, health, and growth are appreciated and cared for, which fosters the employees' well-being and creates a win-win situation for both organisation and employees. Conversely, the conflicting demands advance that HRM may boost productivity but may achieve that at the expense of piling on more work and putting more pressure on workers. As a result, they are implemented at the price of people's well-being and produce a scenario in which neither the workers nor the organisations involved can be affected.

The authors argue that these contrasting views can be attributed to the multidimensionality of employee well-being, hence stating that relying on the different dimensions of well-being, both views do not hold. As such, following the recommendations of Van De Voorde et al. (2012), which suggested researchers should strike a balance by incorporating both views, Marescaux et al. (2019) took the balanced approach to health (affective organisational commitment) and health well-being (exhaustion). Marescaux et al. (2019) used a survey design and a questionnaire for data collection. The researchers used a sample of 426 respondents and performed structural equation modelling using MPlus.

The findings revealed that affective organisational commitment (AOC) correlates positively to task performance, and exhaustion correlates negatively to performance. They extended their analysis by introducing AOC as a mediator and investigated how it influences the relationship between the development HRM and task performance. This analysis revealed that well-being is a significant mediator between HPWS and job performance. Even though this present study is similar to Marescaux et al. (2019) study, they measured well-being using affective commitment and exhaustion. Further, performance was measured using only one component of job performance.

Further, Huettermann and Bruch (2019) conducted a comprehensive analysis. In the study of Huettermann and Bruch (2019), the researchers sought to ascertain collective well-being, HRM and organisational performance. The study was situated among small and medium-sized companies in Germany. The researchers used health-related HRM, employee stress mindset, collective emotional exhaustion, engagement, and

organisational performance. The sample used was 336 respondents. The respondents were chosen using random sampling. The study used a survey questionnaire as the primary data collection instrument. The study utilised multiple linear regression for data analysis.

The study revealed that health-related HRM had a positive correlation with employees' positive stress mindset. Employees' positive stress mindset correlates negatively to collective emotional exhaustion and is positively linked with collective engagement, significantly influencing organisational performance. The study further extended the analysis by conducting mediation using the Hayes processing method. Using 1,000 bootstrapping samples, they found that collective well-being and engagement significantly influenced organisational performance. The analysis also showed that employees' positive stress mindset and collective engagement mediated the relationship between health-related HRM and organisational performance. Huettermann and Bruch's (2019) study presents relevant evidence about the role of well-being and HPWS on job performance. However, well-being was measured using employees' positive stress mindset, engagement and exhaustion.

In Britain, Ho and Kuvaas (2020) also investigated the relationship between the well-being of HRM and firm performance. The research aimed to investigate happiness as a possible contributor to the success of firms in Norway. The study was conceived from the fact that most HRM researchers have concentrated on the correlation between HRM and performance; the health and happiness of workers have not emerged as a primary concern in the HRM study community. Ho and Kuvaas (2020) also realised that the present empirical data does not allow for a precise demarcation of the nature of the

link that exists between HRM systems and well-being. Such studies have not conclusively supported or disproved either the critical viewpoint or the perspective of mutual gains.

The researchers attributed these disparities to the fact that earlier studies have measured well-being as a single factor, ignoring the scientific proof that well-being is a multi-dimensional phenomenon and, as such, there is always a compromise among the various components of well-being as one aspect increases the other declines. They further argued that previous studies assessed a linear relationship between HRM, well-being and performance, resulting in misleading inferences. Guided by the AMO theory, the study's aims were twofold. First, they aimed to measure different dimensions of well-being through the lens of social relationships, health and happiness. Job satisfaction and organisational commitment were used as proxies for measuring happiness and work intensification, and anxiety measured mental health. The study's second objective was to examine the interactive, additive and nonlinear association between HRM, well-being and performance.

Performance in this study was measured using firm-level data, including financial performance, labour productivity and quality of product service. Utilising a survey questionnaire, the researchers gathered data from 14,384 nested within 1,347 private firms. Data were analysed using confirmatory factor analysis and correlations. The data revealed that HRM practices had a positive connection with firm performance, with HRM practices accounting for 17% of the variation in firm performance. In addition, HRM is significantly associated with all the components of well-being measured except work intensification.

The analysis further showed that the linear effect of HRM systems was positive and significant concerning firm performance, but quadric and cubic terms were nonsignificant. With regards to well-being, the analysis revealed a nonlinear relation with management relations, job satisfaction and anxiety but not with work intensification and organisational commitment. These results indicate that job satisfaction increases and decreases as HRM practices increase. The analysis also indicates that anxiety increased as HR practices implementation moved from lower to higher levels. The researchers recommended that managers be mindful of combining HR practices as they may enhance well-being at the initial implementation. However, as employees are pressured through more investment in HR practices, their well-being may deteriorate, which may decline firms' performance because it may lead to an increase in labour costs, and the needed results will not be achieved. The present study, therefore, takes lessons from Ho and Kuvaas (2020) to argue that well-being moderates the HPWS-performance link.

In the Spanish context, the study of Salas-Vallina et al. (2021) is one of the comprehensive research offering evidence of the role of well-being in the HPWS-performance link. The researchers sought to provide light on hitherto unexamined aspects of the processes and conditions that underlie the beneficial effects of well-being-oriented HRM on both well-being and performance. The paper focused on assessing how HR practices influence the three components of well-being, thus psychological, social and physical well-being. Salas-Vallina et al. (2021), therefore, attempt to obtain insight into the perception of supervisors and employees of how HR practices can be translated into enhancing well-being and performance in Spanish companies.

A questionnaire was utilised in conjunction with a survey design to obtain the necessary data for the study. A sample of 2,914 was used, and questionnaires were distributed to heterogeneous companies, including ceramic tiles, finance, health care, car assembly, technology, footwear and tourism. Structural equation modelling was performed using MPLUS software. The result revealed that the indirect path from a well-being-oriented HRM (WBHRM) and individual performance through happiness at work was significant. Similarly, the path from WBHRM to task performance through the trust was significant, and the indirect path from WBHRM to individual performance through exhaustion was also significant. The study recommended that organisations establish a set of HR practices that when combined, help workers feel more trusted and happy in their work environment, which is one of the best ways for companies to boost employee productivity. Therefore, this study offers the following empirical hypothesis about the function of well-being on HPWS and job performance on the job:

H_{1a}: well-being has a positive significant interacting influence on HPWS and task performance

H_{1b}: well-being has a positive significant interacting influence on HPWS and contextual performance

Lessons Learnt

The function of well-being as a moderator is the fifth theme of this research, and it examines the degree to which well-being might moderate the HPWS and job performance. The literature review guides the empirical and hypotheses framework of this moderating effect model with significant insights. Lessons learned from the JD-R theory give the theoretical foundation

for the interacting role of well-being on HPWS and the performance of employees. Drawing from the theoretical arguments, workers' morale is boosted by HPWS because it fosters an atmosphere that encourages optimism, perseverance, strength, and confidence in employees.

Further, no exhaustive investigation empirically integrates these theoretical dynamics and complexity into HPWS and job performance nexus in and across the current study setting. Several studies have investigated the connection between well-being and the effect on job performance (Gutiérrez et al., 2020; Johari et al., 2019; Kundi et al., 2020; Magnier-Watanabe et al., 2020; Obrenovic et al., 2020; Parent-Lamarche et al., 2021). However, there is currently limited evidence about the moderating role of well-being in the link between HPWS and job performance in Ghana.

Conceptual Framework of High-Performance Work Systems and Job Performance in the Mining Industry: The Moderating Role of Supervisor Support and Well-Being

Based on previous studies, particularly that of Lepak et al. (2006), Takeuchi et al. (2007) and Jiang et al. (2012), HPWS was operationalised as a collection of distinct but integrated HR practices that are intended to improve the abilities and efforts of employees. The importance of HPWS is to enhance employees' performance as demonstrated by the AMO theory (Applebaum et al., 2000) and the system theory developed by Von Bertalanffy (1967). These theories demonstrate that HR practices must work as a system to provide employees with the knowledge, skills and ability, motivation and offer employees the opportunity to apply their proficiency to create value through the performance of their jobs.

This line of reasoning is based on the fact that HR practices do not operate independently but rather in tandem, and that employees are exposed to several practices simultaneously (Jiang et al., 2012). In this way, the HR system will be an evolving set of HR practices tailored to the needs of the organisation, rather than a static collection of HR practices (Lado & Wilson, 1994). Consequently, the conceptual framework on high-performance work systems and job performance in the mining industry: the moderating role of supervisor support and well-being seeks to communicate three key issues.

First, consistent with AMO theory (Applebaum et al., 2000), it is proposed that internally aligned HR practices operate to influence employee abilities, motivation, and opportunities (AMO) in a potentially harmonious manner (Guest, 1997) to improve job performance as illustrated in the conceptual framework of the study (Figure 1). According to Applebaum and colleagues (Cui & Yu, 2021; Rayner & Morgan, 2018), employees will perform well when HR practices work as a system to ensure that they possess the required skills, experience and motivation. Conducting research on HPWSs and their consequences is crucial for making informed decisions and designing and implementing effective interventions to improve work performance.

Secondly, per the Social Exchange Theory (SET), when firms make investments in their workers via the implementation of suitable HR practices, employees are more inclined to reciprocate these efforts by improving their job performance (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Therefore, when organisations engage in different areas of HR practices that workers see as proof of their employer's appreciation, employees are likely to react in ways

that benefit the company (Khoreva & Wechtler, 2018). Therefore, the practices implemented must instigate employees to enhance on their performance.

Thirdly, the conceptual framework (Figure 1) proposes that other factors may contribute to the effect of HPWS on job performance. Following the assumptions of the GST and JD-R theory, the HPWS may not operate in isolation, as other external factors may influence its effectiveness in achieving specific objectives. As a result, Gilbert et al. (2015) are of the view that most of the studies on HPWS have focused on the content rather than the process. Thus, studies have looked at how HR practices are integrated to form HPWS. They recommend that to know system efficiency and effectiveness it is appropriate to examine other variables that contribute to its performance. For instance, a study by Jiang and Liu (2015) postulated that most research on HPWS has focused exclusively on the direct relationship between HPWS and job performance, with little attention given to factors moderating the link between the constructs. As a result, the literature recommends that factors moderating the effect of HPWS on job performance be investigated.

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) contains variables and their effects. The conceptual framework provides a graphical presentation of how organisations, through their HR practices, can increase employees' performance in a highly demanding working environment. The model offers five fundamental associations among the concepts. The first link is the effect of HPWS on job performance, representing objective one of this study. In the model, HPWS is demonstrated to have three isolated dimensions — ability-enhancing HR practices, motivation-enhancing HR practices and opportunity-

enhancing HR practices. Indicating that these three dimensions come together to offer the resources to improve employees' performance. In the study, employees' performance is conceptualised as task and contextual performance. The conceptual model, therefore, shows a positive influence of HPWS on task and contextual performance.

The model further demonstrates two interacting variables that can influence the link between HPWS and job performance. It is explained that supervisor support (SS) has a positive significant effect on task and contextual performance. Also, well-being is predicted to have a positive significant effect on task and contextual performance. In the conceptual model, it is hypothesised that SS will act as a moderator of the effect of HPWS on job performance, which is the fourth hypothesis being tested in this research.

This hypothesis suggests that for HPWS to elicit the needed behaviour from employees, supervisors support in terms of their interpretation of the various HPWS to employees, and viewing this as support could influence employees' job performance. The purpose is to ascertain whether supervisors' role in implementing the appropriate HR practices can make employees feel supported to garner morale to increase performance. Finally, the model displays the second moderator, which is employee well-being. The model further indicated the potential influence of employee well-being on the effect of HPWS on job performance. The purpose of testing this hypothesis is to determine perceived well-being of employees in a highly demanding work environment can influence job performance.

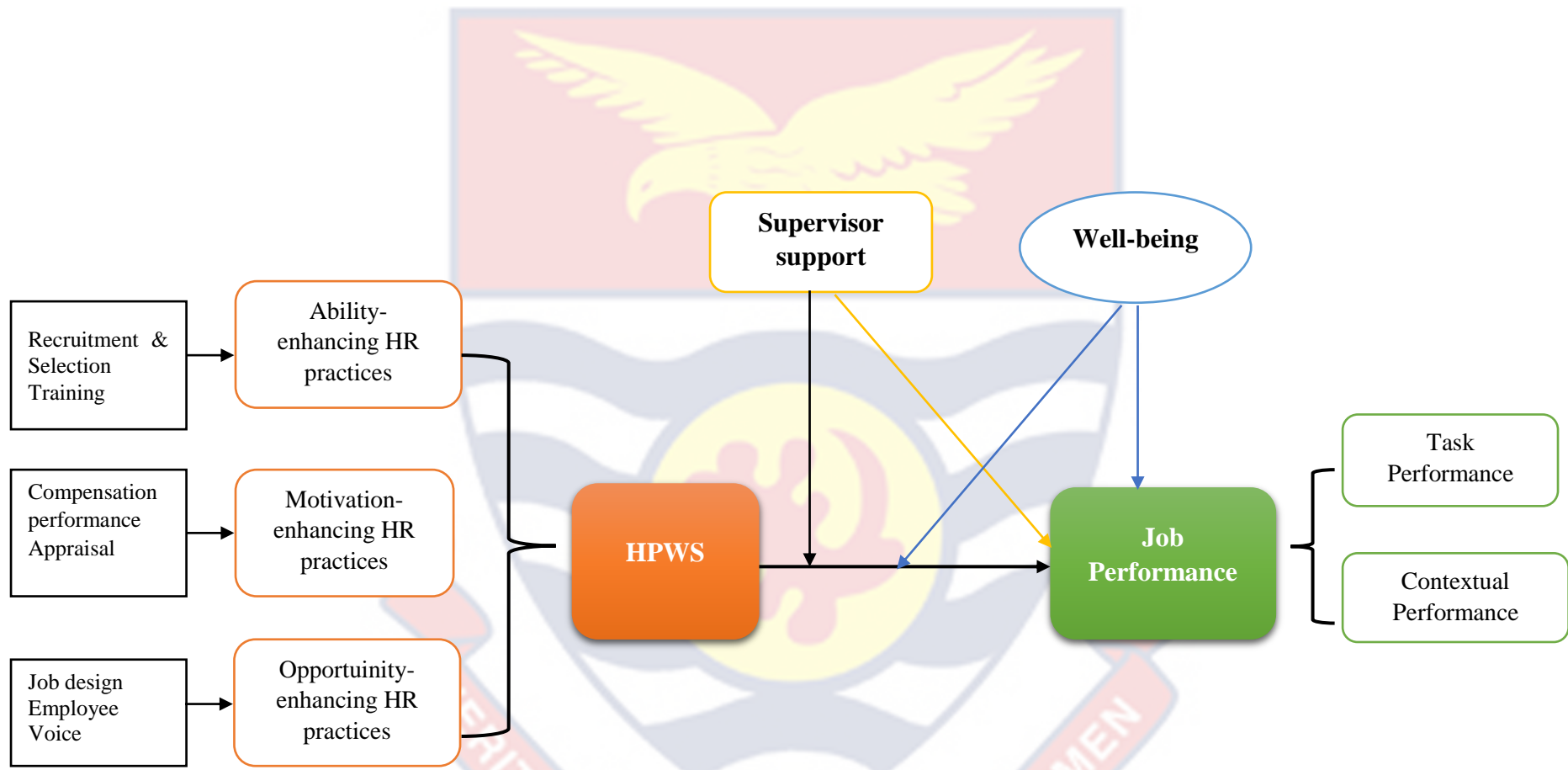


Figure 1: Model for Linking HPWS, Supervisor Support, Well-being and Job Performance: A Direct and Moderated Analysis
 Source: Author's Construct (2023)

Chapter Summary

This chapter focuses on making arguments to support the objectives of this current study. Drawing from extant empirical studies and high work demand in Ghana's mining industry, it is argued that HPWS can assist organisations in eliciting superior performance from employees. In developing these arguments, the study relied on theories such as AMO theory, the general system theory (GST), social exchange theory, and job demand-resource theory to explain how HPWS can work to elicit superior performance from employees in a highly demanding work environment such as the mining industry. As such, providing the necessary support to assist employees as they perform their jobs will offer them the well-being to continue to provide superior performance. This is illustrated through the potential influence of moderators on the proposed relationship between HPWS and employee performance among workers in the mining industry of Ghana.

Following the explanation of these propositions, a conceptual framework was presented, which comprises the proposed relationships in the study. From the model, it is conceptualised that there is a relationship between HPWS and employee performance. It is also conceptualised that there are two moderators that have the potential to influence the relationship between HPWS and job performance relationship.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

This chapter presents the methodological approaches used to acquire and analyse data for the study. The chapter is divided into the following sub-headings, which are research paradigm, study area, methodological approach to the study, research design, study population, sampling procedures, sources of data, data collection instruments, pre-testing of data collection instruments, fieldwork, data processing and analysis, and ethical considerations.

Research Philosophy

A research philosophy or paradigm is a set of principles, values, and procedures accepted by a group of researchers and defines the boundaries that specific problems can be addressed and the type of acceptable interpretations (Kuhn, 1970). Paradigms encompass the collection of opinions that guide researchers in choosing the study of being (Scotland, 2012), forms and nature of knowledge (Cohen et al., 2007), and specific approaches utilised in data collection (Bibi et al., 2022; Crotty, 1989). Thus, research philosophy determines how humans construct the world they want to live in and sets principles to govern each activity. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) hold that paradigms are human creations that set chains of reasoning, showing researchers' backgrounds to define the explanation hidden in a given data. As such, research paradigms significantly influence the type of research people must undertake.

Different types of research philosophies exist in social science research. However, according to Creswell (2009), research philosophy can be

grouped into four forms of worldviews: positivism, constructivism, advocacy or participatory, and pragmatism. These paradigms have beliefs about how facts on a phenomenon should be obtained, analysed, and applied to the phenomenon in question (Bryman, 2003). According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010), the nature of these paradigms and their underlying ontological and epistemological perspectives have been an essential topic of discussion in social science for many years.

Positivism assumes that there are probable causes that lead to outcomes (Kankam, 2019; Scotland, 2012). Therefore, a positivist researcher investigating a problem would identify and assess the root causes of specific outcomes. Researchers of this philosophy believe in providing objective results without biases from the researcher and other sources (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). Discoverable reality exists independently from the researcher (Ugwu et al., 2021). Positivists consider social science research to be essentially similar to natural science research in that it is predicated on the assumption that social reality is composed of objective facts that researchers can accurately measure, and those causal linkages can be tested using statistics (Opoku, 2016). Positivism places a premium on replication and the ultimate examination of knowledge.

They are convinced that when various observers look at the same facts, they assume that the observers will arrive at the same conclusions if they adequately describe their thoughts, correctly measure the data, and adhere to the rules of objective research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Neuman, 2004). The ideal process for positivists is first to construct a general causal rule or principle, after which they may employ logical deduction to define how the

law or principle acts in specific cases. As a result, the positivist paradigm has been dubbed “nomothetic,” as it bases its research on laws or law-like ideas (Neuman, 2004).

Despite the robust principles of positivist philosophy and its ability to manoeuvre successfully in the natural and social sciences, its ontological and epistemological underpinnings have been fervently challenged. The positivist philosophy has been criticised for being mechanical and reductionist in character and, as such, defines life in quantifiable terms while rejecting conceptions of choice, freedom, individuality, and moral responsibility (Alam, 1978). According to Creswell (2009), positivists are more aligned with quantitative research because they involve testing theories in the relationship among variables.

From these criticisms, another paradigm emerged from positivism called post-positivism (McGregor & Murnane, 2010; Scotland, 2012). Post-positivism is seen as a viable alternative to the conventional positivist method in doing rigorous research (Kankam, 2019). It is a modified version of positivism that acknowledges and tackles the objections of a quantitative approach while still prioritising the use of quantitative tools (W. Wang et al., 2007). Eun (2017) argued that the emergence of post-positivism originated from the rejection and discontentment with positivist epistemological and methodological assumptions.

This suggests that post-positivism is a new school of thought that expands the scope of positivism to include a wider range of issues in the actual world (Henderson, 2011). Scotland (2012) argues that although positivism and post-positivism share certain ontological and epistemological views, the two

schools diverge in important respects. Even though post-positivism acknowledges positivism's centrality to modernism, it argues that knowledge is not objective and that it is always the product of social construction. This suggests that studying human conduct is best accomplished through the lens of the post-positivism paradigm (Creswell, 2009).

The next prominent research philosophy discussed by Creswell (2009) is constructivism. The constructivist philosophy contends that individuals build their understanding and knowledge of the world through experiences and reflecting on those experiences (Honebein, 1996; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). In the context of constructivist philosophy, a researcher investigating a problem constructs meaning from their experiences, and for that matter, subjective interpretation governs their findings. The aim of the research, according to constructivist philosophy, is to get into the minds of the knower to find out what they think about the phenomenon being studied (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017) because of their lived experiences with it. Consequently, the researcher investigating a problem construct meaning from their experiences, and for that matter, subjective interpretation governs their findings.

In this way, reality is personally created, and for each truth, a variety of explanations can allude to it. They indicate that an individual engaging with an object or a thing cannot separate personal biases from it. Unlike positivist philosophy, constructivist philosophy believes that reality exists in the knower's mind, and based on their appreciation, they construct that reality (Hussain et al., 2013; Jonassen, 1991). Consequently, because this reality is subjective to individuals, meanings created out of reality are varied—this influences the researcher to seek the complexity of views rather than

narrowing the meanings of ideas (Creswell, 2009). Constructivists follow the interpretive epistemology and are oriented toward a qualitative approach, and the focus is on quality rather than quantity (Creswell, 2009; Levers, 2013; Scotland, 2012). The constructivist paradigm has been criticised on the grounds that the ability of the researcher to obtain an accurate picture of social reality is contingent upon his or her ability to demonstrate that the research captured the inner world and imitated the worldview and personal perspective of those studied (Cohen et al., 2007).

In addition to the above-discussed paradigms, another prominent worldview is advocacy or participatory philosophy. This paradigm was advanced to treat and meet the needs of marginalised people within a society or address some social issues that have been ignored. Participatory philosophy argues that the phenomenon being studied must bring solutions or reforms that change participants' lives, the organisation the person works, and the society within which the person lives. As such, researchers with a participatory worldview usually investigate issues regarding alienation, suppression, empowerment, oppression, inequality, and domination among participants. For researchers whose orientation is rooted in this paradigm, research design consist of more qualifications for the research phenomenon (Creswell, 2009; Rahi, 2017).

The three paradigms discussed confined their studies to either qualitative or quantitative orientations. Adopting one of these orientations was described as a mono-method regime (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010), and it was noted that none of each orientation could answer most of the research questions (Bryman, 2003). This ushered in the pragmatic paradigm,

which used “what works well” strategies to positivist and constructivist paradigms by associating paradigms with specific research questions depending on their nature or orientation in a given study (Creswell, 2009). The underlying assumption of the pragmatic paradigm is that research should adopt the combination of methods that, in conjunction, could shed light on the actual behaviour of participants, the beliefs that stand behind those behaviours and the consequences that are likely to follow from different behaviours.

Thus various research questions need different research methodologies, which means that the match between research questions and research methods is a critical factor in determining the validity of a research study (Babbie, 2007). Following this thought, pragmatism focuses on investigating research problems instead of methods and adopts all available approaches to provide solutions to the problem (Creswell, 2009; Patton, 1990). According to Leavy (2017), pragmatists do not hold any allegiance to any particular methods or theories, and they support the utilisation of both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010), giving rise to mixed methods (Creswell, 2009).

Following the prior review, this study adopts post-positivism. A post-positivist perspective is more relevant given the study’s focus on the effect of HPWS on job performance since post-positivists tend to isolate and evaluate the factors that ultimately determine results (Creswell, 2009). The current investigation is founded on five objectives, and quantitative information for the study’s analyses was gathered by employing a pre-designed questionnaire. Post-positivists also promote links between the variables and achieve outcomes through testing theories (Creswell, 2009). However, they maintain

that there is no such thing as the truth since all information is only conjectural. As a result, research hypotheses are not proven; rather, they are either verified or rejected (Kankam, 2019; Scotland, 2012).

Study Area

This study focuses on the mining industry of Ghana, which has the features of implementing innovative human resource practices to solicit high performance from employees. Since the sector is noted for highly intensive capital investment (Dickie & Dwyer, 2011). Ghana, as a developing country, is endowed with numerous mineral resources ranging from those fully exploited (oil and gas, diamonds, manganese, bauxite, iron ore and gold) (Aryee, 2001) to those less exploited minerals (kaolin, limestone, salt, feldspar and mica) (Aubynn, 2013). The most exploited minerals contribute significantly to economic and social development. Minerals provide these advantages to Ghana in employment, corporate tax earnings, increased government revenue, and direct foreign investment. The mining companies of interest are Newmont Ghana Limited, AngloGold Ashanti Company Limited, and Golden Star Resource Limited.

Newmont Mining Corporation is one of the leading gold producers in the world. Its portfolio of investments spreads from the Americas to Australia and Africa. Through innovation in mining, Newmont is creating wealth for its shareholders and providing livelihood to the local communities it operates. Its value creation is centred on five pillars that govern its business strategy. These are people, health and safety, growth, operational excellence, sustainability and external relations. The commencement of Newmont operations in Ghana is dated 2002 by the acquisition of Franco-Nevada of Canada and Normandy

Mining of Australia. This transaction prepared the grounds for Newmont to have absolute control of two mining concessions in Ghana – one located at Akyem (Birim North District) and one at Ahafo (Borno and Ahafo District).

These two mining projects are in commercial operation, with the Akyem project producing 1.5 million ounces of gold since 2013 through surface mining and Ahafo producing approximately 5 million ounces of gold from 2006 through surface mining. With these two projects, Newmont is the leading gold producer in Ghana. Its yearly gold output accounts for around 29 per cent of Ghana's total annual gold production. The company now employs 5,900 employees and generates \$765.60 million in sales (USD). Newmont Gold Company Limited is impacting the country's people and development through job creation, payment of royalties to the government, and education and training of the locals to acquire technical skills.

AngloGold Ashanti Limited is the third leading gold mining company in the world. The company has two concessions in Ghana – Obuasi in the Ashanti Region and Iduapriem in the Western Region. AngloGold Ashanti Obuasi mine was incorporated in 2004 as the outcome of the acquisition from Ashanti Goldfields Limited. Iduapriem operations, on the other hand, commenced in 2007. AngloGold Ashanti has 700 permanent employees after the restructuring in 2014 for maintenance, and Iduapriem Satellite has 1,445 employees. AngloGold Ashanti is now the third leading gold mining company globally, producing 3.3Moz (3.3 million ounces). The company's activities comprised exploration and extraction. Its operations in the western region include the Iduapriem and Teberebie properties in a 110km concession.

Golden Star Resources (GSR) Limited is a Canadian-incorporated international gold mining and exploration company whose principal properties are located in Ghana. Previously, it was known as Bogoso Gold Limited, and it possessed a 90% stake in the Bogoso/Prestea property. This property consisted of the contiguous Bogoso and Prestea surface mining leases for gold exploration and production. Golden Star Resources operating mines properties are mainly in Ghana. All other locations are exploration properties. GSR was established under the federal laws of Canada on May 15, 1992, due to the amalgamation of South American Goldfields Inc. and Golden Star Resources. However, the head office is in Littleton, Colorado, USA and maintains a regional corporate office in Accra, Ghana, and Exploration Offices in Takoradi (Ghana) and Cayenne (French Guyana).

Since 1999 Golden Star has successfully transitioned from a focused gold exploration company into an emerging mid-tier gold producer while maintaining its emphasis on exploration. The company expects to grow its gold business with a continuing focus on organic growth from exploring and developing existing assets. Recognising that consolidation can lead to improved fundamentals and increased competitive strength, Golden Star is open to transactions that bring producing and exploration assets that have synergy with the company's existing activities and improve shareholder value. The company's main goal is to grow its business in Ghana and regionally in West Africa through organic growth and appropriate acquisitions and has about 653 employees.

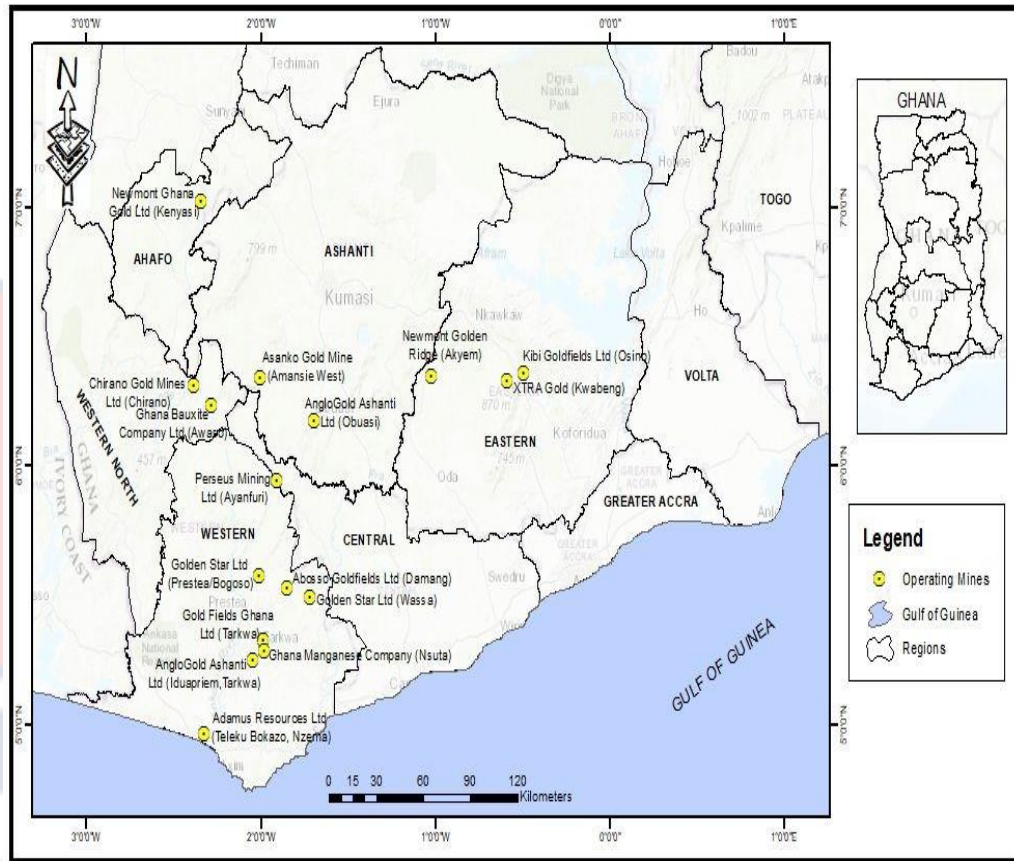


Figure 2: Map of Ghana: Showing the Gold Mining Companies
Source: Ohene et al. (2021)

Methodological Approach to the Study

According to Opoku (2016), there has been a bone of contention regarding the methods and their suitability in a particular study. However, social research may adopt a qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approach (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Leavy, 2017). Bryman (2012) defines the quantitative approach as a research agenda that highlights converting research data into numbers and employing mathematical models in data analysis to explain the phenomenon. Thus, quantitative research follows a systematic process employing numerical values to ascertain answers to the phenomena being studied (Lazaraton, 2005). Quantitative researchers believe that reality exists separately from the researcher and that knowledge can be

acquired objectively without biases. A deductive approach is usually undertaken to begin with theories to establish an association between measurable variables to predict, control, and explain a phenomenon being studied (Leedy, 1993).

Since quantitative research aims to formulate laws, facts are sought through observations and direct experiences using random samples and empirical testing, providing the grounds for predicting and generalising findings (Scotland, 2012). They use independents, dependent, mediators, moderators and control variables (Creswell, 2014). Another relevant feature of the quantitative approach is that voluminous data is required to aid with the hypothesis testing, therefore, following the confirmatory scientific methods (Johnson & Christensen, 2019). Engaging in quantitative research is the probability of generalising the finding to the entire population or sub-population since it involves randomly selecting a large sample (Carr, 1994; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). As a result, it makes the findings of the quantitative research more truth-worthy (Powers & Powers, 2015). Further, data gathering and analysis in quantitative research are cost-effective and less time-consuming (Connolly, 2007).

In contrast to these advantages, the quantitative research approach is noted for its inability for researchers to probe further to investigate deeper meanings and explanations of issues (Rahman, 2017), excluding common social phenomena (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). This type of research cannot explain how social reality is developed, shaped and maintained over time and individual interpretations of issues and their actions towards such issues and others (Blaikie, 2007). The theories used by researchers for a study may not

represent the understanding of the participants, and the information gained may be too abstract for applicability in a particular setting, local problems, and individuals (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Equally, the qualitative research approach focuses on the subjective nature of the phenomenon, unearthing individuals' lived experiences, emotions, behaviour, feelings, and lives. Qualitative research is usually pivoted on the principle that reality is self-constructed (Mensah, 2016). Rahman (2017) opines that the qualitative research approach goes beyond studying individuals but concentrates on other matters such as social movements, organisational functioning, interactions among nations, and cultural differences and emphasises incorporating multiple realities. Therefore, Flick (2014) explains that qualitative research is interested in quality rather than quantity and stresses the analysis of underlying meanings and production of social issues, practices, or events by soliciting non-quantifiable data and evaluating texts and images.

Moreover, Denzin and Lincoln (1994) affirm that qualitative research is multifaceted in terms of methods containing interpretation and a naturalistic approach to its subject matter. It takes into account multiple perspectives. Likewise, Van Maanen (1979) indicates that it is an approach consisting of different kinds of interpretive procedures to translate, decode, and describe to gain meaning rather than the frequency of something occurring. However, Silverman (2010) advances that qualitative studies most often pay less attention to contextual sensitivities and dwell more on participants' experiences (Cumming, 2001) and the meanings they assign to issues. Furthermore, qualitative data analysis is time-consuming (Flick, 2014), and

the utilisation of a smaller sample makes the generalisation of its findings to the larger population very problematic (Harry & Lipsky, 2014; Thomson, 2011).

To minimise the limitations of quantitative and qualitative research approaches and capitalise on their robustness, the two approaches are utilised by researchers, leading to the mixed-method research approach or methodological triangulation. Since pragmatists employ several approaches, the main focus is usually centred on the problems rather than the methods (Creswell, 2009; Patton, 1990). According to Fetters et al. (2013), mixed-method research approaches leverage the strength of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches, utilising innovative ways of gathering and analysing data on a phenomenon being investigated. Thus, mixed-methods research approaches encourage the combination of both inductive and deductive research reasoning (Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011). Regarding the inductive-deductive dichotomy, researchers can equally generate theories and test for hypotheses in a single study without compromising on each (Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011). The deductive-inductive cycle makes better inferences regarding the phenomenon under investigation.

Fetters et al. (2013) identified three basic designs of the mixed-method research approach. These are explanatory sequential, exploratory sequential and convergent designs. For explanatory mixed-method design, quantitative data is gathered, which leads to collecting further qualitative data to elaborate the explanation of the quantitative data (Creswell, 2003; Fetters et al., 2013). Conversely, in exploratory mixed-method design, qualitative data collection precedes quantitative data collection. Thus, the investigators gather and

analyse qualitative data, and the findings inform the quantitative data collected (Byrne & Humble, 2007; Creswell, 2003; Fetters et al., 2013). The concurrent design, also known as convergent design, gathers both qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously within the same timeframe (Fetters et al., 2013; Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011).

While the mixed-method research approach offers important advantages, it also poses several challenges, including being time-consuming and costly. In that, the analytic procedure of integrating qualitative and quantitative data by converting qualitative data into numbers can be cumbersome leading investigators working under pressure and tight budgetary constraints to minimise sample size or reduce the time frame allocated for interviews (Driscoll et al., 2007; McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). However, Bryman (2006) argues that the amalgamation of numbers and words improves the worth of the mixed-method research approach.

Triangulation is assured when researchers blend and match several data sources, analyses, and processes (Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011). Triangulation strengthens results (Jack & Raturi, 2006) and inferences made since this approach allows for different data sources to be consulted (Jogulu & Pansiri, 2011). Thus researchers can return to the qualitative data to reread quotes from the context of documents, and statistical analyses run multiple times until evidence is confirmed to be true (Malina et al., 2011). Therefore, it can offer a more comprehensive and complete array of research questions since the investigator is not limited to one approach. Also, a researcher can use one method's strength to override the limitation of another method in a single study, making the mixed-method approach with no weakness (Jogulu &

Pansiri, 2011; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Further, it provides more robust evidence for conclusions through convergence and corroborative results.

The current study is underpinned by positivist assumptions and plans to employ a quantitative approach to provide a holistic view of the investigated issues. The quantitative methodology is deemed acceptable for this investigation for the following reasons: Firstly, this research is set to quantify the relevant variables (HPWS, job performance, supervisor support, and well-being) and determine the statistical links that exist among them. In addition to that, the purpose of the research is to develop hypotheses that can be tested with the possible links that should exist among the variables.

According to Saunders et al. (2016), the quantitative approach is ideal for research in which the goal is to assess and forecast relationships between endogenous and exogenous variables of interest. Secondly, since the research tries to establish statistical generalisations about the populations of interest, the quantitative method is regarded as acceptable. Furthermore, the positivist research paradigm used in this study, together with the deductive method, implies that the quantitative technique is appropriate for tackling the research problem at hand.

Research Design

The research design provides the structure detailing the procedures through which data needed for a particular study are to be collected. Accordingly, Saunders et al. (2016) define research design as the framework guiding researchers on how to solicit data that answers a study's research objectives. It spells out the standards to follow to gather and analyse data,

taking into account the relevance of the research purpose with cost in the processes (Salltiz et al., 1965). Kumar (2018) explains that research design assists with obtaining valid, reliable and objective data that answers research questions accurately. Consequently, a well-planned research design should aid researchers in collecting quality data with minimum cost, time and interventions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). According to Creswell (2003), the worldview, or perspective regulating a specific study, is critical in the selection of research design. Therefore, the research design usually emanates from the orientation that underpins the study.

Babbie (2007) and Creswell (2009) highlighted three major designs that have traditionally distinguished social science research. These are descriptive, exploratory and explanatory designs. In descriptive design, the researcher offers a detailed account of what has been observed about a particular phenomenon (Creswell, 2009). A common characteristic of descriptive designs is that they assist researchers in finding similarities, differences, and transformations among phenomena to help us learn more about social realities (Babbie, 2007). Studies that are descriptive in nature provide answers to inquiries such as “What?” “Where?” “When?” and “How?”

The exploratory research design is utilised when a researcher is investigating a new area of interest or when the topic of the study itself is still in its infancy. The formulation of problems, the clarification of ideas, and the formation of hypotheses are the goals of exploratory research (Babbie, 2007). The explanatory study design sought to determine the reasons behind the occurrence of particular phenomena and to make an effort to predict the

occurrence of events with similar characteristics in the future. In this category of research, hypotheses are used to characterise the nature and direction of the association between or among the variables that are studied (Babbie, 2007).

Following the preceding discussions, the researcher adopted the explanatory survey design in light of the previous reasons and the methodological criteria addressed in the study. Taylor et al. (2006) explain survey designs as a way of seeking comprehension of specific characteristics of a population by studying those features on representative samples chosen from the population. The study adopted the explanatory survey design because the review of literature on high-performance work systems suggests that the phenomenon is still in its development state, with more to be done to improve it. Besides, findings from extant literature revealed that most of the works are primarily conducted from the advanced countries' experiences. Therefore, the reason to study the variation of high-performance work systems from the developing country's point of view.

The explanatory survey design in this study focused on the analysis of high-performance work systems with the framework of AMO theory and the evaluation of how the dimension of high-performance work systems, as informed by the general systems theory, complement each other to solicit the behaviour of the organisation wants to be exhibited at the workplace. Furthermore, based on the social exchange theory, the explanatory design comprised an exploration of the use of high-performance work systems findings in getting superior performance from employees.

In addition, based on the time span, the study is cross-sectional in nature (Blusk, 2014) since the aim is to study the synergistic and

complementary effect of high-performance work systems on units across different sections of the population being investigated at the same time without assessing the changes over time. Hence, a cross-sectional design is a type of research in which data are sought from a representative sample of the population at a single time (Leavy, 2017), and the findings are generalised to the entire population. Whereas with a longitudinal design, data are gathered over a longer period of time in order to analyse the changes that occur over time (Leavy, 2017).

The Study Population

A study population can be defined as the total objects or individuals of a study upon which data are collected and analysed to draw a conclusion (Kothari, 2004; Marczyk et al., 2005). Thus, a population is a total entity in an area that a researcher investigates to comprehend its characteristics to understand, explore and predict behaviour. The population of interest for this is the workers in the mining industry of Ghana. This population was chosen because of its buoyant contribution to the social and economic development of the country (Asuboteng, 2019). Specifically, the study used three mining companies, namely AngloGold Ashanti Company Limited, Newmont Ghana Limited, and Golden Star Resource Limited.

The study specifically selected gold mining companies due to gold production being the predominant mining activity in Ghana, as documented by the Ghana Mineral Commission in 2020 (Ghana Mineral Commission, 2020). Among the 15 major mining companies listed by the Commission, 13 were engaged in gold production, while one was involved in bauxite mining and another in manganese mining. The total population comprised all employees

in the three mining companies selected for the study. This study chose to investigate the phenomenon of interest in this sector because mining requires huge capital investment (Ernst & Young, 2019), and the work culture is performance-oriented. Furthermore, the fundamental objective of this research is to draw a framework for HR practices that determines performance and fits precisely in a developing country context.

According to Durrant-Whyte et al. (2015), mining companies worldwide are under pressure due to unpredictable commodity pricing squeezing cash flows. In addition, most of these mining concessions have matured, leading to the extraction of less quality ore grades and longer haul distance from the mine face. They further asserted that productivity levels in this industry have reduced by 28 per cent compared to a decade ago. The attention, therefore, has been shifted to ways to improve their productivity. One of the strategies is innovation mining which requires digital innovation. This means that both tacit knowledge and skills of mine workers are required (Bolton et al., 2009).

As technology is heavily employed in the mining sector, the risk involved in mining activities is reduced to a minimum. However, the complexity of work persists as 80 per cent of the workforce will work in overwhelming conditions (Bolton et al., 2009), including long working hours, dangerous plants, machines and work processes, which with a little mistake, could be more detrimental to one life (Pule, 2011). In the face of all these, workers are expected to perform up to standard. Because digital innovation is capital intensive, employees' performance is needed for the organisation

employing them to reap back their investment. Consequently, examining high-performance work systems in this sector is very important.

The study population includes all workers in the chosen mining companies. Operations within this sector can be categorised into production, engineering support services, administrative support services and safety, health and environmental. The production focuses on mine planning and processing of ores. The engineering support services look at the mine and infrastructure maintenance. The administrative support services focus on administrative work covering human resource management, accounting and finance, procurement and sustainability development. Safety, health and environment focus on the maintenance of workers and the ecosystems in which the mining companies operate. Each division is made up of departments. This arrangement is similar to all the mining companies selected for the study. Newmont Ghana Limited has a total of 5,900 employees. AngloGold Ashanti Limited, with both satellites, has employees of 2,145, and Golden Star Limited has a total employee of 653, giving a total population of 8,698 employees.

Sampling Procedure

Sampling is the act employed to select representatives of objects or individuals from a population being studied to study their characteristics to apply the results to the total population. According to Martínez-Mesa et al. (2016), sampling is the method of choosing a sample unit from a population to obtain the correct representatives. On the other hand, samples are the units or individuals whose characteristics are being studied so that the findings can be generalised to the entire population. Thus, the sample requires partial coverage

instead of a complete assessment of every element in a population (Mensah, 2016). Becker (1998) explains that since a total population is usually impossible to manage, selecting the right amount of representatives from a population is paramount so that meaningful cases are used and justification provided. Accordingly, sampling has two main types – probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Etikan & Bala, 2017).

Probability sampling uses a systematic method to ensure that every unit within a target population has an equal opportunity to be selected (Saunders et al., 2016). Using probability sampling means that there should be a condition that each sampling unit has a known probability of being chosen. For instance, probability sampling comes in the form of cluster sampling, stratified sampling, systematic sampling and simple random sampling (Daniel, 2012; Saunders et al., 2016). Probability sampling techniques are usually employed in surveys and experimental research (Saunders et al., 2016). Probability sampling is used when inferences about the representative sample are to be generalised to the study population to answer research questions and meet research objectives (Saunders et al., 2016). Three main approaches are used to select a sample from the population to reduce selection bias – the lottery method, the computer method and the random numbers method (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

While in non-probability sampling, the researcher conducts arbitrary sample selection where elements in the population are included with a known chance. According to Saunders et al. (2016), in non-probability sampling, all elements chosen from the population are based on subjective judgment. Thus, the process of picking units from a population with no systematic way of

making sure that everyone in the population will have an equal opportunity to take part in the research. Examples of non-probability sampling methods are convenience sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling and quota sampling (Saunders et al., 2016).

Accordingly, Yin (2003) believes that non-probability sampling is used when the researcher tends to look at a small sample size to study the real-life phenomenon with less interest in making inferences with the larger population. In this situation, the element selected need not be representative. Instead, an apparent reason for including cases must be provided (Taherdoost, 2016). This study adopted probability sampling techniques to investigate the research problem. Because the study tends to predict and interpret the synergistic effects on employees' performance through explanatory design.

As a result, a sample size of 428 employees was determined and selected through stratified random sampling. The stratified random sampling method starts with grouping heterogeneous populations into more homogenous groups, usually called strata, based on certain characteristics that properly make the distinction clearer to obtain a good representative sample that truly represents the population (Etikan & Bala, 2017). Within each stratum, the elements are similar to each other concerning unique characteristics of importance to the survey, and this increases the efficiency of a sample design regarding cost and estimator precision (Parsons, 2017). Then members to partake in the study are randomly selected from each stratum.

Hence, employees were divided up into departments using the stratified sampling approach. This strategy was employed because it aids in the division of the population into homogeneous units or groups based on shared features

(Twumasi, 2001). Each department was therefore represented in the overall population of the organisation. Twumasi (2001) claims that stratification improves sampling efficiency by minimising variance. Finally, the simple random sampling method was utilised to choose individuals at random from all departments within the organisations under investigation using the random number method. The RAND function in Microsoft Excel was used to create random numbers for personnel in each department within the three mining companies that were selected for the research. The list for each department was computed in Microsoft Excel and the RAND function chose the names to administer the questionnaire to.

With regard to the selection of the sample for the quantitative data, Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample table for ascertaining the appropriate sample size was used and is expressed in Equation (1) as;

$$S = \frac{X^2 NP (1 - P)}{d^2 (N - 1) + X^2 P (1 - P)}$$

Where,

S = required sample size.

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

N = the population size (8,698)

P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

Thus using the sample table, the sample size for the study is **367**. See Appendix D for the sample table. However, the study factored in a non-

response rate of 15% which gave a sample of 428 (Groves & Peytcheva, 2008).

Data Needs

According to Saunders et al. (2016), data are a presentation of raw facts, ideas, concepts, figures, and instructions that emanate from one's mind in a formalised manner appropriate for processing, interpreting, and communicating. Thus, data are a collection of facts, symbols, and text with no meaning and may require manipulation depending on the context. The data needed were informed by the conceptual framework and objectives of the study. Data were required to ascertain the relationship between HPWS and employees' job performance. Further, assess the interaction effect of supervisor support between HPWS and job performance. Also, examine the interaction effects of well-being between HPWS and job performance.

Primary data were the foundational data required to address all the objectives and answer all the research questions compared to secondary data. Primary data are raw data collected first-hand from holders of such relevant resources to answer research questions and recommend solutions to a particular research problem (Hox & Boeije, 2005). In contrast, secondary data are manipulated data that have gone through all the relevant processes and are subject to the producer's interpretation. Therefore, the study made use of solely primary data because it has the benefit of ensuring coherence since the data collected is tailored to the research objectives and help answer research questions, and information obtained from the data provides a solution to the research problems (Hox & Boeije, 2005).

Consequently, in the explanatory survey design of the study (Byrne & Humble, 2007), only quantitative data were needed. Quantitative data are concepts that have been set into numbers in a systematic and relevant manner with unique mathematical values connected with them. Thus, such data types can be measured or counted, and numerical values given to them. In this study, all objectives needed purely quantitative data. Primary quantitative data can be grouped into two main parts: categorical and numerical. Categorical data comes in text, usually giving characteristics of a person, events or concepts. Examples are sex, gender, eye colour etc. Conversely, numerical data are a form of data expressed in values that represent quantities. Numerical data can also be divided into two main types –discrete and continuous data. Discrete data are the type of data that can be counted and usually expressed as whole numbers. Continuous data are measured characteristics. The study used categorical data in the biographical section to know the basic information of respondents of the study. This helped to understand their appreciation of the phenomenon being studied.

Primary quantitative data were solicited from the employees of the three mining companies selected for the study. The questionnaire data collection method was used to obtain the primary quantitative data. The questionnaire data collection method obtains data from respondents by typing or writing a series of questions with instructions directing participants on how to fill in and provide the information needed (Marshall, 2005). Thus, the respondents are limited to the questions provided. The questionnaire method was selected because they afford the researcher to obtain the data needed to meet the research objectives. Thus, the questionnaires helped to obtain the

quantitative data. Even though the data collected through a questionnaire can provide biased data and the response rate can be slow and low questionnaire returns, they permit the researcher to gather data from a larger sample size with little cost (Demetriou et al., 2015). Further, provided respondents with sufficient time to answer questions at their convenience. Since participants are usually experts in the study area, they can provide truthful and accurate data (Baker, 2003).

Data Collection Instruments

The primary quantitative data needed for the study were obtained through a questionnaire. According to Kothari (2004), a questionnaire is a document that is made up of several questions or statements typed and printed in certain arrangements and prompts to obtain statistically relevant data on a given issue or concept. The questionnaire is given face to face or mailed to a respondent, which is expected that the participant will read to understand and offer responses in writing at a space provided on the document. Conversely, an interview guide, also known as an aide memoir, is a document that contains a number of questions on topics, concepts, themes or areas to be discussed and arranged systematically to aid with in-depth questioning to gain the required data in an interview (Abawi, 2013; Lewis-Beck et al., 2003).

The difference between questionnaires and interview guide is that questionnaires are structured with fixed, solid and pre-established and agreed questions in the same wording and arrangements for all respondents (Kothari, 2004, p 104). In other words, answers to questions on the questionnaire are held minimum. An interview guide, on the other hand, is a general guide containing a number of connected questions on topics and concepts, leading a

researcher to the type of data to acquire. This guide gives the researcher the flexibility to formulate additional probing questions based on the words of the respondent (Kothari, 2004, p 104). The questionnaire was used as a data collection instrument to gather primary quantitative data since the study adopted the questionnaire method of data collection. The questionnaire also has the potential to gather data from a larger sample at a dispersed geographical location (Kothari, 2004) that is valid and reliable (Mensah, 2016) and allows generalisation to the entire study population.

Despite the advantages of a questionnaire and interview guide in data collection, they both have some limitations. One main risk of a questionnaire used for data collection is the ability to obtain incomplete and wrong data, especially if respondents are unable to comprehend the questions on the form (Kothari, 2004). Further acquiring data through the questionnaire method can be very slow since some respondents can be remarkably unperturbed upon several reminders to return their responses (Kothari, 2004). Lastly, some respondents can be biased, therefore, gearing their responses towards one direction, which leads to common method bias. This was addressed by mixing the questions in such a way that they had no option but to take their time to read and answer.

Design and Operationalisation of the Questionnaires

As explained above, this study adopted the quantitative approach. The quantitative method employed a questionnaire for the data collection. The questionnaire comprised five sections. One weakness of using a questionnaire is encountering the problem of common method bias (CMB). CMB was minimised in this research by ensuring that respondents' information is

unidentifiable, implying that there are no correct or incorrect response alternatives for respondents to choose from (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Additionally, to decrease CMB, items were worded in such a manner as to remove ambiguity (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Measurement Instruments

As Nurani (2009) points out, that the data collection instrument used determines the reliability and accuracy of the data obtained. In research, the design of tools for data gathering is critical to obtaining valid and acceptable outcomes. As such, elaborating on the relevance of instruments for data gathering, Fraenkel et al. (2012) indicated that the quality of the instruments used in research is crucial since the conclusions researchers draw are based on the information they obtain from these instruments. Kielhofner and Coster (2006) posit that data collection instruments are the various processes used by researchers to obtain raw data from the field of study to solve the research problem. Consequently, they must be designed to maximise the likelihood of obtaining objective, valid and reliable data (Kielhofner & Coster, 2006).

The study employed a questionnaire to collect data for the study. The questionnaire comprised a list of statements that have been developed according to the study objectives and hypotheses that are intended to be answered by the participants (Mawusi & Kwadwo, 2020). A questionnaire is appropriate for responding to confidential, sensitive, and less expensive research questions (Sarantakos, 2005). The questionnaire designed for the study is guided by extant literature to obtain relevant standard questions. The questionnaire items are closed-ended and require respondents to choose among alternatives (Kasunic, 2005). Such inquiries are exhaustive, provide

accurate results, are one-dimensional, and require mutually exclusive solutions (Sharma, 2010). Furthermore, the respondents' time was saved because they were not required to spend much time and thought responding to the questions. Again, it is straightforward to code and analyse responses to closed-ended questions.

The questionnaire is designed into six sections, A to E. Information on respondents is structured in section A. Section B gathers data on HPWS. Questions soliciting data on job performance are presented in section C. Questions on supervisor support are captured in section D, whereas section E deals with questions on well-being. The measurement instruments for all constructs are quantified on a Likert scale. A Likert scale is a psychometric scale with numerous categories from which respondents can express their ideas, attitudes, or feelings about a given topic (Nemoto & Beglar, 2014). It is a collection of statements (items) presented in response to a real or hypothetical scenario under investigation. Participants are asked to indicate their level of agreement with the supplied statement (items), with the range being least agreement to strong agreement.

The general score for each variable is calculated by adding the responses for each item on the scale. The study employs Shakespeare-Finch and Obst's (2011) recommendation for scoring items on a Likert scale. This scoring ensures that high-scoring and low-scoring participants' responses to each index's components are distinguished. The assessment and measurement in this study are conducted using a 5-point Likert scale where participants can express their level of agreement by choosing from 1 to 5 enlisted on the questionnaire. One (1) indicates the least agreement, whereas five (5) indicates

a strong agreement. The five constructs under investigation are measured using the five-point Likert scale. These constructs are high-performance work systems, job performance, supervisor support and well-being.

High-performance work systems

High-performance work systems are measured using a standard instrument developed by Lepak and Snell (2002) and have 51 items. The instrument measured the following human resource management practices – compensation and reward, job design, recruitment and selection, training and performance appraisal. Later, Takeuchi et al. (2007) created and validated a short-form version of the Lepak and Snell scale based on the original scale (2002). The short-form version has a 21-item scale. Takeuchi et al. (2007) discovered a significant association ($r = .89$), similar to the long-form version of Lepak and Snell (2002). The 21 items was evaluated on a five-point Likert scale where 1= least agreement, 2= slight agreement, 3= moderate agreement, 4= agree, and 5= strong agreement. Excerpts from the scale are “Jobs are designed around individual skills”, “My job empowers me to make decisions”, and “Jobs performed are standardised throughout the industry”, and three items were adapted from Kim et al. (2016) to measure employee’s voice. Excerpts from the scale include “I speak up and encourage others in my work unit to get involved in issues that affect our work”.

Job Performance

Job performance in this study was operationalised using the two variables developed by Borman and Motowildo (1997) – task and contextual performance. This construct was measured using 11 items. The responses from this scale are measured on a 5-point Likert scale with ranges from 1 to 5,

where 1= least agreement, 2= slight agreement, 3= moderate agreement, 4= agree, and 5= strong agreement. Sample items from the scale are “I adequately complete assigned duties”, “I fulfil responsibilities specified in my job description”, and “I create new ideas for improvement”.

Supervisor Support

House’s (1981) scale for measuring supervisor support was adapted to assess supervisor support. The scale contains 9-items, and the items are measured on a 5-point Likert scale with ranges from 1 to 5, where 1= least agreement, 2= slight agreement, 3= moderate agreement, 4= agree, and 5= strong agreement. Example items from the scale are “My supervisor is willing to listen to my work-related problems”, “Help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem”, “My supervisor really cares about my well-being”, and “My supervisor shows much concern for me”. Further, four additional items were added since the items adopted focused mainly on supervisor support and ignored their role in communicating and interpreting the organisation’s policies, such as HR policies and practices, to employees. These items were also adapted from Intindola et al. (2017).

Employee well-being

In this study, the measurement of well-being was assessed using a scale developed by Pradhan and Hati (2019). Four items were adapted from the scale to measure employees’ well-being. The items in the scale are measured on a 5-point Likert scale with ranges from 1 to 5, where 1= least agreement, 2= slight agreement, 3= moderate agreement, 4= agree, and 5= strong agreement. The variable measuring well-being has the following Cronbach alphas 0.95. Excerpt questions from the scale are “I am quite

satisfied with my job”, “I enjoy meaningful work”, and “My workplace is very conducive”.

Questionnaire Pre-testing

Pre-testing a questionnaire is administering the designed measuring instrument to a small sample of the population to test the integrity of items. Thus assessing if respondents understand items in the measuring instrument and if the items are soliciting the correct responses. According to Reynolds et al. (2017), pre-testing is an aspect of questionnaire design that is carried out to examine the potential effectiveness of items in a questionnaire. Carrying out this activity aid with fine-tuning a measuring instrument by detecting mistakes and ambiguity in the items and offering insight into the items’ strengths and weaknesses measuring instruments (Babonea & Voicu, 2011). Pre-testing measuring instruments enable researchers to detect inappropriate terms in question wording, inappropriate order, errors in questionnaires related to their layout and instructions, and problems caused by the respondents’ inability or refusal to answer certain questions (Babonea & Voicu, 2011).

According to Babonea and Voicu (2011), measurement instrument testing involves participating (declared) and undeclared pre-test. In participating pre-test method of measuring instrument testing, respondents are informed of the exercise and that their input is required to explain their reaction to the question format, wording, and order (Babonea & Voicu, 2011). This pre-testing method aims to bring out respondents’ “immediate” thoughts and reactions to a survey question or problem to establish whether the items in the measuring instrument are understood.

On the contrary, the undeclared pre-testing method does not inform participants. The questionnaire is administered for a participant to respond to them, just like administering surveys, after that, a post-interview is carried out to ascertain the responses that the participants supplied (Babonea & Voicu, 2011). The goal is to find out how well the questions flow, what quantity of time is needed to answer the questions, and so on. The study adopted both methods of pre-testing the measuring instrument and further gave the questions to an expert in the field to evaluate.

The pre-testing of the questionnaire took place at AngloGold Ashanti (AGA) Limited from January 2022 to February 2022. This company was enlisted to support the field research team in getting acquainted with the study environment and gathering pertinent information that closely aligns with what's anticipated in the primary study, facilitating subsequent necessary actions (Mensah, 2016). Pre-testing of the questionnaire requires a small sample to respond to the items stated to solicit the thoughts of respondents. As such, a sample of 30 people were employed to respond to the questionnaire (Perneger et al., 2015). With 15 departments ranging from capital project, engineering, environment, finance and commercial to shared services, two employees were randomly selected from each department to respond to the questionnaire.

Upon responding to the questionnaires, the number of items included was reduced and some statements were reconstructed to make them clearer for future respondents. For instance, the study wanted to measure health and safety as an HPWS practice. After the pre-test, that practice was removed. Also, some items were added to supervisor support in order to make room for

the role of supervisor play in the implementation of the HR practices. After, pre-testing, the reliability of the scale in the questionnaire were examined. The scale comprised HPWS, supervisor support, well-being and job performance. Conducting reliability tests was crucial to verify that the items comprising each scale effectively assessed the same underlying construct. The test outcomes (Table 11, 15, 19) indicated that all scales demonstrated reliability, with Cronbach's Alpha coefficients above .70 (Bonett & Wright, 2014; Taber, 2018).

Recruitment and training of field assistant

The study gathered data from three mining companies. This study employed six research assistants to help with the data collection. The research assistants were recruited from where the companies were located to reduce the cost involved in accommodation, commuting and collecting data. Research allowance, including transportation, was given to the researcher assistants for their involvement in the research. In instances where these assistants would need accommodation, monies were provided to seek decent accommodation. These assistants were assigned based on the sample size allocated to each company. The minimum qualification required to be part of the research was an HND and a first degree with prior data-gathering experience to minimise the time for training.

From the table below, the research assistants were allocated based on the sample size for each company. The allocation of the sample was determined by calculating the percentages, achieved by dividing each company's population by the total population and then multiplying the result by 100. The percentages ascertained are multiplied by the determined sample

for the study. Two research assistants were assigned to AngloGold Ashanti Company Limited, three research assistants were assigned to Newmont Ghana Gold Limited, and one research assistant was assigned to Golden Star Resource.

Table 1: Allocation of Research Assistants

| Companies | Population | Sample allocated | Allocation | No. of Research Assistants |
|--|------------|------------------|--|----------------------------|
| 1 AngloGold Ashanti Company Limited, | 2145 | 105 | $\frac{2145}{8698} * 100$ = 24% * 428 | 2 |
| 2 Newmont Ghana Gold Limited | 5900 | 290 | $\frac{5900}{8698} * 100$ = 67% * 428 | 3 |
| 3 Golden Star Resource Prestea/Bogoso | 653 | 34 | $\frac{653}{8698} * 100$ = 8% * 428 | 1 |

Source: Author's Estimation (2023)

Upon recruiting these research assistants, they were trained in data gathering for seven days. The training's focus and methodology helped to shape what was learned and the obstacles encountered during the pre-test study. The training content comprised understanding the purpose of the study, ethical principles and practices of data collection, managing research respondents, questionnaire administration and questionnaire retrieval from respondents, managing of questionnaire upon retrieval and management of the entire data collection exercise. The training on ethical principles emphasised how to approach and seek consent from respondents in the process of questionnaire administration to understand the purpose of the study and what the data sought would be used for. The training also shows the assistants how

to let people know that taking part in the data process is optional and that they can leave the process at any time.

An essential component of ethical training also included the issues of confidentiality and anonymity. The research assistants were trained in data protection to prevent data from falling into the hands of unauthorised people. The University of Cape Coast's ethical principles were utilised as the main training resource for the research assistants. During the training period, the field research assistants were instructed on record keeping in preparation for the data collection. In order to ensure accurate and uniform reporting, the research assistants were also given a template for the field data collecting record. The form includes specifics like the date of the first contact, the date of the rescheduling, and the appointment for retrieval of the questionnaire, as well as general notes. The table below contains a representation of the record's sample.

Table 2: Sample Record Keeping for Data Collection

| Region: | Sample Size: | | *FRA No: | | |
|----------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|----------------|
| No | 1st Contact: | Reschedule: | Collection | Collected? | Remarks |
| | Date/Time | Date/Time | Date | | |
| 1 | | | | | |
| 2 | | | | | |
| 3 | | | | | |
| 4 | | | | | |

***FRA denotes: Field Research Assistant Number**

Source: Authors Record Keeping for Data Collection (2023).

Data Collection Procedure

The study employed a self-administering method in giving the questionnaires to respondents of the study. The study used six weeks to gather data from the respective companies. The data collection started on June 14 to

July 31 2022. The data gathering started after approval from the Institutional Review Board of the University of Cape Coast. The questionnaires were given to the field research assistants based on the sample size allocated to a company and the number of extras needed to make up for damaged questionnaires. The questionnaires were delivered to the research assistants by the researcher.

After the consent letters were received from the companies, they were given to the research assistants to help them access the company and the respondents. The researcher went with the research assistants to ensure they could access the company and introduce them to the one leading them for the data collection. The data for the study were collected from all companies' employees, and these employees were randomly picked from all the departments till the required number was reached. The assistants were advised to leave the questionnaires with employees who were busy to respond immediately. As such, a questionnaire was left with an employee for a day to take their time to complete the data.

Data Entry

To obtain accurate data for analysis depend on how the data gathered from the field is captured. To achieve this, the data gathered from the field were captured into the software for analysis by the researcher. The researcher ensured that the data entered into the software was the same as recorded on the hardcopy questionnaire. The information on the questionnaire was used to code into the software to be used. The questionnaires were numbered to aid with tracing mistakes likely to occur during the data entry. The completed questionnaires were organised and entered chronologically by the allocated

numbers. When a questionnaire is inputted into the programme, it is marked with 'Blue ink'.

Data Management

Data management involves subjecting data gathered for analysis to proper scrutiny to ensure all provided data is not contaminated and contains the needed information. According to Zozus (2017), data management entails the collecting, processing, storage, sharing, and archiving of data. Thus, it encompasses data management from its inception through its final archiving or disposal. Since the accuracy and validity of data directly affect the conclusions drawn from them, it is essential to validate data gathered from the field of study. Data management in this study included questionnaire screening. This was achieved by maintaining the quality of the data. Data quality assurance is the process of finding and screening anomalies through the use of data profiling, the elimination of old information, and data cleaning.

Regarding the questionnaire, responses obtained from the field was screened to eradicate any anomalies and irrelevant data to ensure the integrity of data and to provide reliable outcomes. The data was properly stored to prevent unauthorised people from having access to the data. As such, the data was stored on both external drives and cloud storage such as Dropbox and Google Storage with a password. The researcher was the only person who had access to the password to the data. The hard copy data was kept in a locked drawer for two years after the submission of the thesis. After two years, the hardcopy will be discarded to prevent unauthorised people from having access to the data to protect the information provided by respondents of the study.

Since the questionnaire was printed on A4 sheets and administered upon their entry into the software, it will be shredded using an office shredder to prevent the chance of data recovery after two years. Statistical computations such as Cronbach's Alpha were employed to determine the reliability of items in the questionnaire. This was done to ensure the internal consistency of items (Bland & Altman, 1997). That is, to assess if the items are measuring the same thing. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure missing values were dealt with and identify outliers, and parametric analysis was conducted to check for normality and multicollinearity.

Data Analysis

For the quantitative data analysis, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test hypotheses. Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a multivariate technique that examines interactions between independent and dependent variables (Hairs et al., 2010; Ullman & Bentler, 2012). SEM was used to test hypotheses because it allows researchers to incorporate unobservable variables measured indirectly by indicator variables (Hair et al., 2010) and account for measurement error in observed variables (Chin, 1998). According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), SEM contains measurement and structural models. The measurement model discusses the links between observable variables and the constructions that those variables are meant to evaluate, while the structural model addresses the interconnections between constructs (Weston & Gore, 2006).

To assess whether the indicators of a construct accurately represent that construct, the measurement and structural models are independently tested, with the measurement model tested first (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993).

SEM was used to test hypotheses for the study because it allows the measurement of multiple independent and dependent variables. As such, the study analysed the data gathered using two mathematical software programmes-Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS; version 25) and Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM).

Ethical Procedure

Stakeholders of research output expect that the right and appropriate procedures are followed to generate data for research findings. Particularly research respondents anticipate that as they offer their support to any research, their dignity, rights, and safety will be protected (Akaranga & Makau, 2016). As such, researchers are expected to meet ethical principles such as informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity, as well as ensure undiluted data gathered from the field (Govil, 2013). In terms of the questionnaire, proper care was taken to ensure the wording used did not violate the rights of respondents. This was achieved by adopting already verified measuring instruments used by other researchers over time.

The measuring instruments were submitted to the University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board to be vetted, and letters were taken from the Review Board to the selected institutions selected for the study. Permission was sought from respondents before the questionnaire was administered to them. This was done through the various heads of the department and supervisors to speak to respondents. A meeting was held with the respondents to assure them that the information provided was for purely academic purposes, so it is voluntary, and no one is mandated to participate if they feel uncomfortable about being part of the study.

Further, a letter was attached to the questionnaire to explain the purpose and significance of the study to the participants. The questionnaire items were constructed in a straightforward way to understand and reduce ambiguity. To ensure confidentiality, anonymity and privacy, respondents for the study were asked not to indicate anything (e.g. names, telephone numbers and addresses) on the questionnaire that might reveal their identity. According to Govil (2013), confidentiality exists when only the researcher is aware of the participants' identities and promises not to reveal those identities to anyone.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the appropriate methodologies that align with the study's focus, research objectives, and hypotheses. The chosen philosophical orientation, rooted in post-positivism, was selected for its ability to support thorough investigations that produce objective results. Adhering to the principles of this research paradigm, a quantitative approach was chosen and thoroughly explained using an explanatory design. The sample selection process, along with the reasoning behind it, was explained using a multistage sampling framework. This chapter provides a detailed explanation of the implementation of structural equation modelling (SEM) through path analysis. The data entry and analysis were done using the Smart PLS statistical software. In the following chapter, these methodologies will be used to conduct empirical tests on the formulated hypotheses.

CHAPTER FIVE

LINKING HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK SYSTEMS TO JOB PERFORMANCE

Introduction

This research examines HPWS, supervisor support, well-being, and job performance in the mining sector. This chapter contains the first objective of the study's data analysis and a discussion of the findings. The objective one of this research was to investigate the influence of HPWS on job performance in the mining companies in Ghana. Within the context of the AMO theory (Applebaum et al., 2000), the GST (Von Bertalanffy, 1967), and with SET (Blau, 1964) serving as a supporting pillar, the aim and the hypotheses related to it were investigated. The AMO theory (Applebaum et al., 2000) illustrates that employees' job performance is dependent on three factors: their abilities, their level of motivation, and the opportunities they are given. This indicates that the different HR systems have a responsibility to recruit and retain workers by emphasising their skills, capabilities, and motivation and creating a climate to create value.

Hence, using GST, practices in a system must complement each other to create the synergy to yield the needed objective. From this, the SET explains that employers have a responsibility to ensure that every action they take about their employees is directed at motivating those workers to advance the mission of the organisation. The implication is that with the help of HPWS, organisations can encourage employee engagement by fostering connections between staff members and the organisation that are mutually beneficial. Consequently, PLS-SEM was used to test these hypotheses with

this objective. To address the objective, six major hypotheses were developed.

These are;

H1_a: Ability-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on task performance

H1_b: Ability-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on contextual performance

H1_c: There is a significant positive effect of motivation-enhancing HR practices on task performance

H1_d: There is a significant effect of motivation-enhancing HR practices on contextual performance

H1_e: opportunity-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on task performance

H1_f: opportunity-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on contextual performance

With this said, the partial least square structural equation modelling through its two-step approach of measurement and structural models was deployed to test the hypotheses. Before evaluating these models along with the corresponding discussions, the respondents' bio-data and descriptives of the variables were tabulated to offer an overview of the background of the study's participants and constructs. These were the respondents' gender, age category, marital status, educational qualification and experience or the number of years the employees have worked in their respective companies.

Based on the information in Table 3, the majority of the respondents in the companies were males, who constituted 60.7 percent of the employees in

the sampled companies, while the remaining 39.3 percent were made up of females. Concerning the age distribution of the respondents, the captured information revealed that a lot of the respondents (i.e., 59.1%) were within the age range of 31 and 40 years. This was followed by the age range between 20 and 30, a percentage point of 28.3. The rest of the age groups were between 41 and 60 years. Thus, 11.4 per cent for 41 to 50 and 1.2 percent for 51 to 60.

Table 3: Background of Respondents

| Variable | Option | Frequency | Percent |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Gender | Male | 260 | 60.7 |
| | Female | 168 | 39.3 |
| Age | between 20 and 30 | 121 | 28.3 |
| | between 31 and 40 | 253 | 59.1 |
| | between 41 and 50 | 49 | 11.4 |
| | between 51 and 60 | 5 | 1.2 |
| Marital status | Single | 214 | 50.0 |
| | Married | 204 | 47.7 |
| | Separated | 2 | .5 |
| | Divorced | 7 | 1.6 |
| | Widow | 1 | .2 |
| Education | SHS | 36 | 8.4 |
| | Diploma/HND | 71 | 16.6 |
| | First Degree | 179 | 41.8 |
| | Masters | 71 | 16.6 |
| | Professional Certificate | 71 | 16.6 |
| Experience | Below 5 Yrs | 135 | 31.5 |
| | 5-10 Yrs | 154 | 36.0 |
| | 11-15 Yrs | 58 | 13.6 |
| | 16-20 Yrs | 41 | 9.6 |
| | Above 20 Yrs | 40 | 9.3 |
| Total | | 428 | 100.0 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

For the marital status of the employees, it was discovered that half (50%) of them reported they were single, while the next highest group of employees indicated they were married (47.7%). Those who were divorced, as per Table 3, comprised 1.6 percentage points. Finally, the least of the respondents were widowed, with a percentage of (0.2%). In assessing the educational qualification of the respondents, the information gathered included those who had completed SHS, Diploma/HND, First Degree, Masters and Professional Certificate. The majority of the employees who dominated the companies were those who obtained first degree (41.8%) qualifications. Furthermore, the information revealed that the Diploma/HND, Masters and professional certificate holders were with same numbers (16.6%), respectively. The least respondent employees had SHS qualifications (8.4%).

Finally, the experience or the number of years the employees have worked in their respective companies was gathered. Per the report presented in Table 3, it is discovered that the majority of the employees have worked for the companies between 5 to 10 years (36%). Over 31 per cent of the employees are in their fifth year of work in the companies; 13.6 per cent worked within 11 to 15 years; 9.6 per cent of them have worked 16 to 20 years, and 9.3 per cent worked above 20 years.

Descriptives Statistics of the Variables

The current section displayed the descriptive statistics of the constructs and sub-constructs used in the study. The descriptive results served two purposes: 1) an assessment of the performance of the variables in terms of levels of measurement and 2) an assessment of the normality of the data collected from the respondents. While means and standard deviations were

used for the levels of the constructs, skewness and kurtosis tests were deployed to assess the data normality. By using the means and standard deviations in a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 means least agreement and 5 strong agreement, the convention is that mean values of up to the midpoint, i.e., 3, are considered low for a construct, whereas values above 3 are tagged high or excellent for the construct (Dess et al., 2005).

Furthermore, Pallant (2016) prescribed standard values for Skewness and Kurtosis of plus or minus 1.5, which is not a good indication of data normality. Above that point means the data is abnormal and cannot be relied upon for parametric analysis. In such circumstances, researchers would have to rely on non-parametric statistics for further analysis. However, in PLS-SEM analysis, it is often not a requirement for scholars to meet these criteria before proceeding with further examination of the results. The reason is that PLS-SEM adopts the nonparametric approach for estimating the path coefficients and significance of the study results (Hair et al., 2019). Thus, assessing normality in the current study was not based on a specific assumption on the use of PLS-SEM but borne out of the researcher's discretion, primarily to understand the data movement and concentration (Wong, 2019).

The following Tables were used to report on the results. The constructs of interest in this analysis include opportunity-enhancing HR practices, ability-enhancing HR practices and motivation-enhancing HR practices, job performance, supervisor support and employee wellbeing. First, Table 4 displayed results on the opportunity-enhancing HR practices construct.

Table 4: Descriptives for Opportunity-Enhancing HR Practices

| Items | Mean | Std. Dev | Skewness | Kurtosis | | |
|---|------|----------|----------|------------|------|------------|
| | Stat | Stat | Stat | Std. Error | Stat | Std. Error |
| Employees perform jobs that allow them to routinely make changes in the way they perform their task | 4.13 | .84 | -.98 | .118 | 1.29 | .235 |
| Jobs are designed around individual skills | 4.03 | .87 | -.55 | .118 | -.27 | .235 |
| Job performed are standardised throughout the industry | 4.24 | .772 | -.96 | .118 | 1.30 | .235 |
| My job empowers me to make decisions | 3.94 | .88 | -.39 | .118 | -.67 | .235 |
| My job includes a wide variety of tasks | 4.51 | .69 | -1.58 | .118 | 3.50 | .235 |
| My job is well-defined | 4.57 | .68 | -1.70 | .118 | 3.02 | .235 |
| My job requires participating in cross-function teams and networks | 4.62 | .66 | .26 | .118 | 7.32 | .235 |
| My job involves rotation | 4.45 | .78 | -1.30 | .118 | .85 | .235 |
| I speak up and encourage others in my work unit to get involved in issues that affect our work | 3.99 | 1.00 | .90 | .118 | .43 | .235 |
| I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in my works unit, even if their opinions are different and they disagree with me. | 3.98 | 1.02 | -.83 | .118 | .12 | .235 |
| I get involved in issues that affect the quality of life in my department | 4.38 | .76 | -1.29 | .118 | 2.01 | .235 |
| I am encouraged to and do speak up to my supervisors with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures at work | 3.61 | 1.18 | -.43 | .118 | -.80 | .235 |
| Mean of means | 4.20 | .52 | .70 | .118 | .71 | .235 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Table 4 shows that overall, the opportunity-enhancing HR practices were high. This was reflected in the mean score of the mean of means ($M = 4.20$; $SD = .52$) for the construct. Again, the information indicated in the table

shows that all the items or factors of the construct were above the 3.0 “low” mean score. Hence, the results suggest that the respondents indicated that their organisations exhibit opportunity-enhancing HR practices. Also, the results from Table 3 suggest that the data was not contaminated by normality issues.

The scores of the Skewness and Kurtosis indicated that the data were normally distributed for the opportunity-enhancing HR practices scale. Thus, the values of the Skewness and Kurtosis all fell below ± 1.5 (Kim, 2013; Seijas-Macias et al., 2023). The next table, Table 5, assessed the descriptives for the ability-enhancing HR practices. The items for the construct emanated from recruitment and selection, and training. In all, the items for the construct were 17.

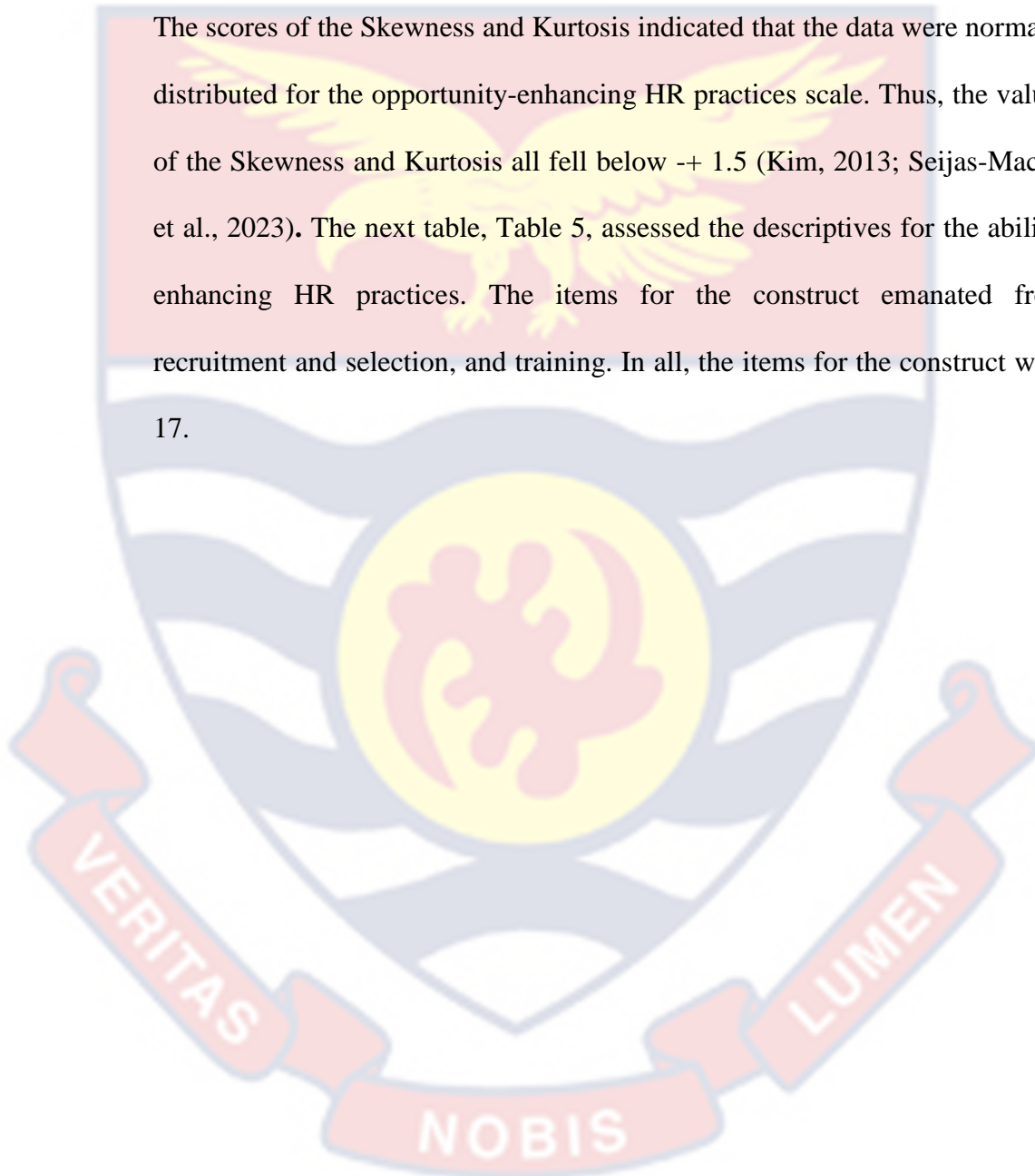


Table 5: Descriptives for Ability-Enhancing HR Practices

| Items | Mean | Std. | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|--|------|----------|----------|------------|----------|------------|
| | Stat | Dev Stat | Stat | Std. Error | Stat | Std. Error |
| Recruitment/selection uses many different recruiting sources (graphic, social media) | 4.38 | .72 | -.91 | .118 | .12 | .235 |
| Selection is comprehensive (uses interviews, tests, etc.) | 4.30 | .74 | -.61 | .118 | -.74 | .235 |
| The recruitment/selection process for employees assesses industry knowledge and experience | 4.43 | .68 | -.86 | .118 | -.08 | .235 |
| The recruitment/selection process emphasises promotion from within | 4.08 | .94 | -.80 | .118 | -.01 | .235 |
| The selection focuses on selecting the best all-around candidate, regardless of the specific job | 4.15 | .82 | -.88 | .118 | .89 | .235 |
| The recruitment and selection process focuses on the ability to contribute to strategic objectives | 4.35 | .70 | -.86 | .118 | .58 | .235 |
| Training is continuous | 3.86 | 1.03 | -.59 | .118 | -.43 | .235 |
| Training programmes are comprehensive | 4.33 | .85 | -1.35 | .118 | 1.06 | .235 |
| Training programs strive to develop firm-specific skills and knowledge | 4.72 | .56 | 1.29 | .118 | .89 | .235 |
| The training programs emphasise on-the-job experiences | 4.12 | .93 | -1.22 | .118 | 1.00 | .235 |
| Training emphasises improving current job performance | 4.25 | .92 | -1.35 | .118 | 1.34 | .235 |
| Training focuses on team building and interpersonal relations | 4.40 | .76 | -1.37 | .118 | 1.33 | .235 |
| Training focuses on compliance with rules, regulations, and procedures | 4.44 | .76 | -1.40 | .118 | 1.17 | .235 |
| My organisation offer training that seeks to increase short-term productivity | 4.52 | .77 | -.220 | .118 | .23 | .235 |
| My organisation provides continuous training that is relevant to my career | 4.20 | .90 | -1.13 | .118 | 1.11 | .235 |
| Training provides skills and knowledge geared towards my immediate role | 4.35 | .79 | -1.22 | .118 | 1.47 | .235 |
| Training is informed by theory and emphasizes hands on demonstrations | 4.43 | .76 | -1.31 | .118 | 1.53 | .235 |
| Mean of means | 4.31 | .51 | -.80 | .118 | .52 | .235 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

In Table 5, given that the mean and standard deviation of the ability-enhancing HR practices ($M = 4.31$, $SD = .51$) construct was high, it can be said that the respondents perceived their various organisations as offering ability-enhancing HR practices. Furthermore, by relying on the established criteria for normality, the results in Table 5 show that the parameters for the normality of data were upheld. Observing the scores of Skewness and Kurtosis has cleared doubts about the existence of abnormal data distribution in the items and the construct at large. In the next table, Table 6, the descriptive and normality assessment for the motivation-enhancing HR practices construct was analysed. The items for the construct also were made up of appraisals and compensation practices.

Table 6: Descriptives for Motivation-Enhancing HR Practices

| Items | Mean n | Std. Dev Stat | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|--|-----------|---------------------|----------|---------------|----------|---------------|
| | | | Stat | Std. Error | Stat | Std. Error |
| Incentives are based on team performance. | 3.86 | .91 | -.47 | .118 | -.15 | .235 |
| Compensation packages include an extensive benefits package | 3.87 | .89 | -.38 | .118 | -.37 | .235 |
| Our compensations include high wages | 3.92 | .85 | -.34 | .118 | -.54 | .235 |
| The incentive system is tied to skill-based pay | 3.93 | .81 | -.20 | .118 | -.49 | .235 |
| Performance is based on objective, quantifiable results | 4.07 | .77 | -.63 | .118 | .63 | .235 |
| Performance appraisals for employees are based on input from multiple sources (peers, subordinates, supervisors etc. | 4.07 | .82 | -.53 | .118 | -.16 | .235 |
| Performance appraisal assesses compliance with preset behaviour and organisational values | 4.01 | .93 | -.61 | .118 | -.30 | .235 |
| Mean of means | 3.96 | .63 | -.01 | .118 | -.88 | .235 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Table 6 demonstrated that the data gathered for the motivation-enhancing HR practices construct was not contaminated with normality issues. The scores of the Skewness and Kurtosis indicated that the data were normally distributed for the scale. This is because the values for both tests were below the plus or minus 1.5 thresholds (Kim, 2013; Seijas-Macias et al., 2023). For descriptive, the results reveal that overall, the motivation-enhancing HR practices construct was high, suggesting that the respondents have appraised their organisations with fostering motivation-enhancing HR practices. This was reflected in the mean score of the mean of means ($M = 3.96$; $SD = .63$). The assessment of the employee's job performance is done in Table 7. The construct was divided into two sub-constructs comprising task performance and contextual performance. The items from the two put together were 8 and computed into one mean value for job performance. See the summary in Table 7.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics for Job Performance

| Items | Mean | Std. Dev | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|---|-------------|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | | | Stat | Std. Error | Stat | Std. Error |
| I adequately complete assigned duties | 3.90 | .87 | -.43 | .118 | -.13 | .235 |
| I fulfil the responsibilities specified in my job description | 3.98 | .88 | -.57 | .118 | .09 | .235 |
| I perform tasks that are expected of me | 3.99 | .87 | -.54 | .118 | -.15 | .235 |
| I meet the formal performance requirements of the job | 3.96 | .88 | -.51 | .118 | -.07 | .235 |
| I help others who have been absent | 4.16 | .76 | -.52 | .118 | -.35 | .235 |
| I help others who have heavy workloads | 4.18 | .78 | -.58 | .118 | -.36 | .235 |
| I assist my supervisor with his/her work when not asked | 4.20 | .73 | -.54 | .118 | -.03 | .235 |
| I go out of my own way to help new employees | 4.20 | .75 | -.38 | .118 | -1.03 | .235 |
| Mean of means | 4.07 | .63 | -.20 | .118 | -.76 | .235 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Again, by relying on the established criteria for normality and the descriptive statistics, the results in Table 7 show that the parameters for the normality of data for job performance were upheld. Observing the scores of Skewness and Kurtosis has cleared doubts about the existence of abnormal data distribution. In the same vein, because the mean of means of the construct ($M=4.307$; $SD=.63$) construct was high, it can be said that the respondents perceived their job performance as high. The researcher assessed the level of supervisor support in Table 8.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics for Supervisor Support

| | Mea | Std. | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|--|------|------|----------|-------|----------|-------|
| | n | Dev | Stat | Std. | Stat | Std. |
| | Stat | Stat | Stat | Error | Stat | Error |
| My supervisor is willing to listen to my work-related problems | 3.89 | .90 | -.42 | .118 | -.37 | .235 |
| My supervisor really cares about my well-being | 3.66 | .95 | -.30 | .118 | -.33 | .235 |
| My supervisor shows much concern for my personal life | 3.83 | .89 | -.23 | .118 | -.71 | .235 |
| My supervisor appreciates the extra effort from me | 3.87 | .89 | -.41 | .118 | -.58 | .235 |
| My supervisor explains the HR policies of the organisation to me | 3.74 | .96 | -.47 | .118 | -.29 | .235 |
| My supervisor keeps me abreast with information on vacant positions and encourages me to apply | 3.78 | .97 | -.40 | .118 | -.41 | .235 |
| Mean of means | 3.79 | .72 | -.20 | .118 | -.55 | .235 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Table 8 was deployed to assess the level of supervisor support and its corresponding normality statistics. After collecting the data, the means and standard deviations of each item were determined to establish surety of the

existence of high levels of supervisor support in the organisations. Also, the responses were subjected to a normality test to check whether there were extreme values that may contaminate the results. A cursory look at the values of means and standard deviation as well as the Skewness and Kurtosis, suggests that the accepted parameters were not violated. The final assessment done in the section was to examine the descriptives for the employee well-being construct. Table 9 captured the summary of the items and mean of well-being construct.

Table 9: Descriptive Statistics for Well-being

| | Mean | Std. Dev | Skewness | | Kurtosis | |
|------------------------------------|------|----------|----------|------------|----------|------------|
| | Stat | Stat | Stat | Std. Error | Stat | Std. Error |
| I am quite satisfied with my job. | 3.57 | 1.10 | -.35 | .118 | -.71 | .235 |
| I enjoy meaningful work | 3.63 | 1.08 | .46 | .118 | .51 | .235 |
| I attach lots of value to my work. | 3.72 | .97 | .43 | .118 | .26 | .235 |
| My workplace is very conducive | 3.57 | 1.06 | .22 | .118 | .78 | .235 |
| Mean of means | 3.62 | .92 | -.23 | .118 | .69 | .235 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Concerning the employee well-being construct, four questions were asked of the respondents to assess general well-being levels. After collecting the data, the responses were subjected to a normality test to check whether there were extreme values that may contaminate the results. A cursory look at the values of the Skewness and Kurtosis in Table 9 suggests that the accepted parameters were not violated. Also, the means and standard deviations of each

item were determined to establish surety of the existence of well-being or otherwise. From Table 9, the well-being level was acceptable.

The next section covered the presentation of the results and the discussion of objective one. Firstly, the assessment of the PLS-SEM models was reported. PLS-SEM covers two approaches to analysing data; thus, the measurement model and the structural model. Whereas the measurement model evaluates the quality criteria of the instrument and its accompanying constructs in the study, the structural model basically focuses on establishing relationships among the variables in the path (Hair et al., 2019).

Measurement Model

The key parameters for evaluating the measurement model are factor loading, internal consistency, constructs' convergent validity (CV) and discriminant validity (DV). The factor loadings assess the extent to which the items measuring each of the constructs in the research instrument actually measure the construct. The indicator or factor reliability is assessed through Cronbach's Alpha (CA) value of not less than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2019). Values less than 0.7 up to 0.4 may be retained when they do not interfere with overall model reliability. On the other hand, internal consistency explains the degree to which various constructs that measure a particular phenomenon are held suitable to the phenomenon. It is checked using Cronbach's Alpha (CA) or rho_A or composite reliability (CR) scores generated by running the PLS Algorithms in the SMARTPLS software.

Concerning convergent validity, Cheah et al. (2018) explained that it is used to assess the degree to which the constructs deployed in a model share a mutual relationship or converge. Hair et al. (2019) assert that the constructs

must make over 50 per cent of the variance in the correlation matrix among the constructs to pass the convergent validity test. The test for CV is done through the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) statistic. Thus, the criteria for establishing convergent validity are $AVE \geq 0.50$. Finally, the DV is the last test to ascertain the overall quality criteria for constructs used in a study. The DV measures the ability of the constructs to discriminate or be distinct from one another in a single PLS-SEM model.

To evaluate the DV, two major criteria are established; the Fornell-Larcker (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) criterion and the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations (Henseler et al., 2016) criterion. Fornell-Larcker's criterion suggests that DV issues are absent when the square root of a construct's AVE is higher than the correlation of the construct against other constructs (Hair et al., 2019). For the HTMT ratio, it is upheld that its values should be less than or equal to 0.90 ($HTMT \geq 0.90$). Though the two are appropriate for checking DV, the HTMT ratio criterion is more laborious and widely accepted by scholars due to the sensitivity of the former to factors (Hair et al., 2019; Henseler et al., 2016).

Common Method Bias

The common method bias (CMB) is another test measure for checking the self-reported biases of the respondents to the questionnaires. The common method bias (CMB) of the responses for each model was checked together with the measurement model when using the outer loading and with the structural model when reporting the inner VIF models. This technique is usually conducted to establish or otherwise the non-existence of self-reported biases that may contaminate the validity of the results (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

In PLS-SEM, the CMB is ascertained by relying on the collinearity statistics (i.e., Variance Inflation Factor, VIF) scores. It is recommended that the scores of VIF of the indicators should range from 0 to 5.0 (Becker et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2022).

Higher-Order Constructs

A Higher-order construct is a hierarchical components model that combines observable lower-order components (LOCs) and unobservable higher-order components (HOCs) to minimise model complexity and increase theoretical simplicity (Wong, 2019). This study utilised a hierarchical components model in the variable named high-performance work systems (HPWS) and job performance. The HPWS has opportunity-enhancing HR practices, ability-enhancing HR practices and motivation-enhancing HR practices as LOCs, while job performance has a task and contextual performance as its LOCs. Furthermore, the opportunity-enhancing HR practices construct has job designs (JD) and employee voice (EV) as sub-constructs or elements; ability-enhancing HR practices have recruitment and selection (RS), and training (TR) as sub-dimensions, and motivation-enhancing HR practices are made up of performance appraisals (PA) and compensation (COM).

Structural Model

The structural model helps with testing the hypotheses set in the study. Like the measurement model, the structural model also operates on certain parameters. These are the paths coefficients (R), coefficient of determination (R^2), effect size (f^2) and predictive capacity (Q^2). Also, the t-statistics and the P-values emphasise the significance of the paths established under the

structural model. The path coefficients generally are correlation coefficients, which define the direction and the strength of the relationship between two variables. Based on Cohen's (1992) rule of thumb, correlation values between ± 0.29 are described as weak, ± 0.49 are described as moderate, whereas ± 0.50 and above signify strong or large correlation values.

The R^2 explains the variation in the scores of the dependent or endogenous constructs as accounted for by the independent or exogenous variables in the PLS-SEM model. According to Hair et al. (2019), any reminders of the changes after the determination of the R^2 are attributed to other or erroneous variables not captured in the given model. The established criteria are that “ R^2 of 0.25, 0.5 and 0.75 are considered as weak, moderate and high respectively.” In addition to the R^2 , the f^2 statistics are used to explain how meaningful the significance of the relationship is in respect of its practical implications. Usually, effect size (f^2) of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 is seen as small, medium and large, respectively.” Whiles, a predictive relevance (Q^2) of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 is considered as small, medium and large, respectively.” In sum, a significant level of 5% or less or a t- statistic of 1.96 or higher is appropriate for a structural model. Following the laid down foundations on the use of PLS-SEM, the ensuing tables present the results of the various criteria. Table 10 captured the results of the common method bias, and indicator loadings test statistics.

Table 10: Outer Loadings and Collinearity Statistics

| Constructs/indicators | VIF | Loadings | t | ρ |
|----------------------------------|-------|----------|--------|--------|
| Compensation | | | | |
| COM1 <- Compensation | 2.495 | 0.854 | 54.768 | 0.000 |
| COM2 <- Compensation | 3.613 | 0.916 | 89.238 | 0.000 |
| COM3 <- Compensation | 3.105 | 0.902 | 86.111 | 0.000 |
| COM4 <- Compensation | 2.089 | 0.841 | 49.119 | 0.000 |
| Performance appraisal | | | | |
| PA1 <- Performance appraisal | 1.554 | 0.768 | 27.905 | 0.000 |
| PA2 <- Performance appraisal | 2.127 | 0.851 | 54.716 | 0.000 |
| PA3 <- Performance appraisal | 1.739 | 0.804 | 31.307 | 0.000 |
| PA4 <- Performance appraisal | 1.418 | 0.722 | 25.013 | 0.000 |
| Motivation-enhancing HR | | | | |
| COM1 <- Motivation-enhancing HR | 2.444 | 0.740 | 30.151 | 0.000 |
| COM2 <- Motivation-enhancing HR | 3.631 | 0.804 | 39.097 | 0.000 |
| COM3 <- Motivation-enhancing HR | 3.134 | 0.807 | 47.848 | 0.000 |
| COM4 <- Motivation-enhancing HR | 2.325 | 0.803 | 40.099 | 0.000 |
| PA1 <- Motivation-enhancing HR | 1.583 | 0.613 | 16.566 | 0.000 |
| PA2 <- Motivation-enhancing HR | 2.035 | 0.672 | 21.268 | 0.000 |
| PA3 <- Motivation-enhancing HR | 1.823 | 0.666 | 18.772 | 0.000 |
| PA4 <- Motivation-enhancing HR | 1.383 | 0.592 | 16.621 | 0.000 |
| Job design | | | | |
| JD1 <- Job design | 1.555 | 0.784 | 30.103 | 0.000 |
| JD2 <- Job design | 1.909 | 0.821 | 38.977 | 0.000 |
| JD3 <- Job design | 1.561 | 0.837 | 47.223 | 0.000 |
| Employee voice | | | | |
| EV1 <- Employee voice | 2.104 | 0.689 | 24.703 | 0.000 |
| EV2 <- Employee voice | 2.057 | 0.847 | 39.597 | 0.000 |
| EV3 <- Employee voice | 1.590 | 0.760 | 22.258 | 0.000 |
| EV4 <- Employee voice | 1.761 | 0.772 | 18.766 | 0.000 |
| Opportunity-enhancing HR | | | | |
| EV1 <- Opportunity-enhancing HR | 1.238 | 0.753 | 32.786 | 0.000 |
| EV2 <- Opportunity-enhancing HR | 2.024 | 0.755 | 22.879 | 0.000 |
| EV3 <- Opportunity-enhancing HR | 1.523 | 0.684 | 17.347 | 0.000 |
| EV4 <- Opportunity-enhancing HR | 1.680 | 0.689 | 13.497 | 0.000 |
| JD1 <- Opportunity-enhancing HR | 1.398 | 0.709 | 21.539 | 0.000 |
| JD2 <- Opportunity-enhancing HR | 1.543 | 0.730 | 27.467 | 0.000 |
| JD3 <- Opportunity-enhancing HR | 1.930 | 0.776 | 29.079 | 0.000 |
| Recruitment and selection | | | | |
| RS1 <- Recruitment and selection | 1.774 | 0.728 | 26.222 | 0.000 |
| RS2 <- Recruitment and selection | 2.078 | 0.800 | 39.184 | 0.000 |
| RS3 <- Recruitment and selection | 2.256 | 0.823 | 42.519 | 0.000 |
| RS4 <- Recruitment and selection | 1.732 | 0.748 | 24.210 | 0.000 |
| RS5 <- Recruitment and selection | 1.755 | 0.727 | 24.573 | 0.000 |
| RS6 <- Recruitment and selection | 1.558 | 0.717 | 23.419 | 0.000 |

Training

| | | | | |
|------------------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| TR1 <- Training | 1.477 | 0.546 | 12.718 | 0.000 |
| TR10 <- Training | 2.824 | 0.821 | 33.864 | 0.000 |
| TR11 <- Training | 2.846 | 0.830 | 32.993 | 0.000 |
| TR2 <- Training | 2.150 | 0.727 | 23.035 | 0.000 |
| TR3 <- Training | 1.756 | 0.676 | 15.886 | 0.000 |
| TR4 <- Training | 1.379 | 0.541 | 10.556 | 0.000 |
| TR5 <- Training | 1.939 | 0.739 | 24.777 | 0.000 |
| TR6 <- Training | 2.922 | 0.810 | 37.692 | 0.000 |
| TR7 <- Training | 3.574 | 0.850 | 43.929 | 0.000 |
| TR8 <- Training | 2.542 | 0.787 | 21.461 | 0.000 |
| TR9 <- Training | 2.123 | 0.747 | 25.032 | 0.000 |

Ability-enhancing HR

| | | | | |
|------------------------------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| RS1 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 1.696 | 0.530 | 12.700 | 0.000 |
| RS2 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 2.133 | 0.538 | 13.068 | 0.000 |
| RS3 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 2.322 | 0.543 | 12.915 | 0.000 |
| RS4 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 1.836 | 0.530 | 11.851 | 0.000 |
| RS5 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 1.624 | 0.523 | 12.534 | 0.000 |
| RS6 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 1.625 | 0.526 | 12.528 | 0.000 |
| TR1 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 1.536 | 0.554 | 13.537 | 0.000 |
| TR10 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 2.979 | 0.802 | 36.734 | 0.000 |
| TR11 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 2.877 | 0.793 | 33.851 | 0.000 |
| TR2 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 2.044 | 0.707 | 22.233 | 0.000 |
| TR3 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 1.725 | 0.648 | 15.828 | 0.000 |
| TR4 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 1.420 | 0.520 | 10.674 | 0.000 |
| TR5 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 1.913 | 0.693 | 21.468 | 0.000 |
| TR6 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 2.985 | 0.739 | 29.185 | 0.000 |
| TR7 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 3.642 | 0.804 | 33.784 | 0.000 |
| TR8 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 2.518 | 0.725 | 18.308 | 0.000 |
| TR9 <- Ability-enhancing HR | 2.153 | 0.694 | 21.917 | 0.000 |

Task performance

| | | | | |
|-------------------------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| TP1 <- Task performance | 2.555 | 0.881 | 61.232 | 0.000 |
| TP2 <- Task performance | 3.141 | 0.898 | 50.898 | 0.000 |
| TP3 <- Task performance | 3.531 | 0.911 | 87.198 | 0.000 |
| TP4 <- Task performance | 2.802 | 0.887 | 49.524 | 0.000 |

Contextual performance

| | | | | |
|-------------------------------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| CP1 <- Contextual performance | 2.801 | 0.882 | 63.253 | 0.000 |
| CP2 <- Contextual performance | 3.716 | 0.921 | 10.891 | 0.000 |
| CP3 <- Contextual performance | 3.094 | 0.899 | 70.315 | 0.000 |
| CP4 <- Contextual performance | 2.577 | 0.877 | 52.789 | 0.000 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

The results displayed in Table 10 show that the data gathered from the respondents were not contaminated with self-reported bias issues. By observing the scores of the VIF, it can be said that the required threshold has

been met. The various indicators scored well below the 5.0 cut-off point proposed by Becker et al. (2015). Concerning the indicator reliability, Table 10 revealed that loadings for the constructs and their respective sub-constructs and dimensions had intersected the requirements. By extension, the t and ρ values for the corresponding indicators also show significant and meet all logic to be retained in the model. Despite some indicators loaded below the 0.70 thresholds, they nonetheless violated the reliability conditions (Hair et al., 2019).

Specifically, Table 10 revealed that factor loadings for compensation were between 0.841 - 0.916; performance appraisal ranged from 0.722 - 0.851; motivation-enhancing HR had loading from 0.592 - 0.807; job design, 0.784 - 0.837; employee voice, 0.689 - 0.847; opportunity-enhancing HR, 0.684 - 0.776; recruitment and selection, 0.717 - 0.823; training, 0.546 - 0.850; ability-enhancing HR, 0.520 - 0.804; task performance, 0.881 - 0.911; and for contextual performance, the factor loadings were acceptably ranging from 0.877 - 0.921. Hence, the rest of the indicators that were deleted did not meet the loading criteria. The next table, Table 11, reported on the internal consistency or reliability of the constructs as well as convergent validity.

Table 11: Constructs Reliability and Validity

| Constructs | CA | rho_A | CR | AVE |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Ability-enhancing HR | 0.910 | 0.920 | 0.923 | 0.542 |
| Compensation | 0.901 | 0.903 | 0.931 | 0.772 |
| Contextual performance | 0.917 | 0.918 | 0.942 | 0.801 |
| Employee voice | 0.767 | 0.768 | 0.852 | 0.591 |
| Job design | 0.746 | 0.748 | 0.855 | 0.663 |
| Motivation-enhancing HR | 0.862 | 0.870 | 0.893 | 0.514 |
| Opportunity-enhancing HR | 0.852 | 0.854 | 0.888 | 0.531 |
| Performance appraisal | 0.794 | 0.799 | 0.867 | 0.620 |
| Recruitment and selection | 0.851 | 0.852 | 0.890 | 0.575 |
| Task performance | 0.917 | 0.918 | 0.941 | 0.800 |
| Training | 0.915 | 0.923 | 0.929 | 0.549 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

For the internal consistency of the constructs, the values of the CR usually are considered superior to CA and rho_A. However, a cursory look at the scores of all the measures proved that the internal consistency of the constructs was achieved. In addition to the internal consistency checks, the AVE was used to assess the convergent validity of the constructs. Pursuant to the established criteria ($AVE \geq 0.50$), the results in Table 11 demonstrated that the constructs have achieved an appropriate mutual relationship. The following table, Table 12, was used to report on the DV.

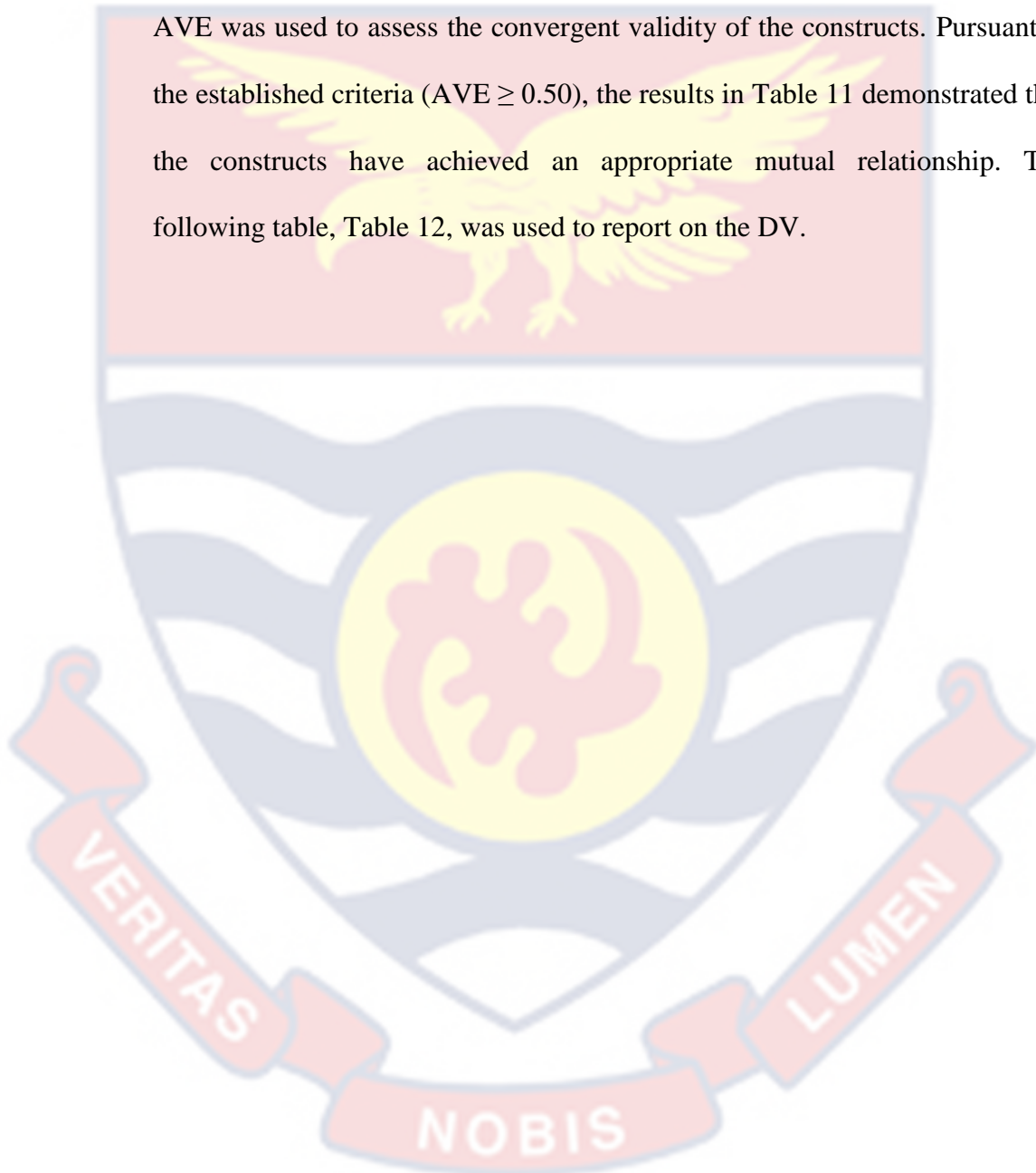


Table 12: Discriminant Validity-HTMT

| Constructs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|----|
| 1. Ability-enhancing HR | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Compensation | 0.440 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Contextual performance | 0.691 | 0.463 | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Employee voice | 0.630 | 0.426 | 0.571 | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Job design | 0.594 | 0.436 | 0.489 | 0.359 | | | | | | | |
| 6. Motivation-enhancing HR | 0.581 | 0.799 | 0.712 | 0.481 | 0.483 | | | | | | |
| 7. Opportunity-enhancing HR | 0.626 | 0.439 | 0.545 | 0.164 | 0.135 | 0.491 | | | | | |
| 8. Performance appraisal | 0.576 | 0.552 | 0.795 | 0.402 | 0.394 | 0.138 | 0.406 | | | | |
| 9. Recruitment and selection | 0.850 | 0.520 | 0.474 | 0.588 | 0.592 | 0.552 | 0.601 | 0.425 | | | |
| 10. Task performance | 0.473 | 0.795 | 0.540 | 0.399 | 0.391 | 0.787 | 0.403 | 0.542 | 0.465 | | |
| 11. Training | 0.167 | 0.309 | 0.672 | 0.529 | 0.478 | 0.483 | 0.516 | 0.544 | 0.506 | 0.385 | |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

The DV of the model was checked using the HTMT ratio criterion due to its efficacy in assessing the distinctiveness of constructs to the study. According to the values in Table 12, the study asserts that discriminant validity issues were not detected. This is because the values loaded below the 0.90 cut-off point for concluding the non-existence of DV problems. Therefore, the variables were retained to analyse the phenomenon under investigation. Upon the successful assessment of the measurement model, the structural model was followed.

The evaluation of the model was captured in Table 13 and interpreted accordingly. The table comprised results of the correlations of the established links between the constructs, the coefficient of determination (R^2), effect size (f^2) and the predictive relevance (Q^2). Firstly, the study reported on the LOCs which formed the HOCs that were deployed to explain the phenomenon being investigated. The purpose was to assess how well the respective LOCs have performed on their HOCs. According to the table, the LOCs had significant positive relationships with the various HOCs. For instance, Table 6 confirmed that employee voice and job design were valid elements or sub-constructs of the opportunity-enhancing HR construct. This is why the R squares and Q squares of the exogenous variables – HOCs were equal to 1. Once these were settled, the study went further to evaluate the hypotheses they set.

Table 13: Hypotheses Testing from Structural Model

| Paths | R | t | ρ | R ² | f ² | Q ² |
|--------------------------------|-------|--------|--------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| TP | | | | 0.517 | | 0.507 |
| CP | | | | 0.536 | | 0.527 |
| OE_HR | | | | 1.000 | | 1.000 |
| AE_HR | | | | 1.000 | | 1.000 |
| ME_HR | | | | 1.000 | | 1.000 |
| <i>Lower Order Constructs</i> | | | | | | |
| EV -> OE_HR | 0.599 | 38.464 | 0.000 | | 0.535 | |
| JD -> OE_HR | 0.038 | 2.375 | 0.000 | | 0.723 | |
| RS -> AE_HR | 0.075 | 3.409 | 0.000 | | 0.864 | |
| TR -> AE_HR | 0.795 | 36.139 | 0.000 | | 0.627 | |
| COM-> ME_HR | 0.666 | 31.279 | 0.000 | | 0.480 | |
| PA -> ME_HR | 0.497 | 27.113 | 0.000 | | 0.421 | |
| <i>Higher Order Constructs</i> | | | | | | |
| H1 _a : supported | | | | | | |
| OE_HR -> TP | 0.481 | 11.448 | 0.000 | | 0.002 | |
| AE_HR -> TP | 0.349 | 7.756 | 0.005 | | 0.007 | |
| ME_HR -> TP | 0.661 | 18.393 | 0.000 | | 0.020 | |
| H2 _b : supported | | | | | | |
| OE_HR -> CP | 0.116 | 3.287 | 0.001 | | 0.647 | |
| AE_HR -> CP | 0.387 | 8.486 | 0.000 | | 0.200 | |
| ME_HR -> CP | 0.376 | 8.309 | 0.000 | | 0.217 | |

Notes: OE_HR = opportunity-enhancing HR; AE_HR = Ability-enhancing HR; ME_HR = Motivation-enhance HR

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Based on the results emanating from Table 13, and also readings under the column, higher order constructs, it is revealed that HPWS through its dimensions - OE_HR (R = 0.481, Figure 2; t = 11.448; $\rho < 0.001$), AE_HR (R = 0.349, Figure 2; t = 7.756; $\rho < 0.001$) and ME_HR (R = 0.661, Figure 2; t = 18.393; $\rho < 0.001$) respectively had a significant positive relationship with TP. Therefore, the first hypothesis was supported. Consistent with the study's

expectations, the results in Table 13 further indicated that HPWS in the reflections of OE_HR ($R = 0.116$, Figure 3; $t = 3.287$; $\rho = 0.001$), AE_HR ($R = 0.387$, Figure 3; $t = 8.486$; $\rho < 0.001$) and ME_HR ($R = 0.376$, Figure 3; $t = 8.309$; $\rho < 0.001$) yielded significant positive relationship with CP.

Similarly, the results revealed that HPWS (OE_HR, AE_HR and ME_HR) explained 51.7 per cent and 53.6 per cent of the variation in the scores of the TP and CP, respectively. This inference is drawn from the value of R^2 , which explains the amount of changes in the dimensions of job performance that take place as a result of changes in the activities of HPWS in the mining sector. On the other hand, the study asserts that the remaining 48.4 per cent of TP and 46.2 per cent of CP were accounted for by erroneous variables not captured in the study. Concerning the effect size of the relationships among the constructs, the study found that there were a weak effect of the OE_HR, AE_HR and ME_HR on TP and a strong effect of the OE_HR and moderate effect of AE_HR and ME_HR on CP. Finally, the results portrayed variously large predictive relevance of the TP ($Q^2 = 0.507$) and CP ($Q^2 = 0.527$) in the PLS-SEM model. Figure 3 illustrates the established path and values of the R^2 . See Appendix E for details of Figure 3.

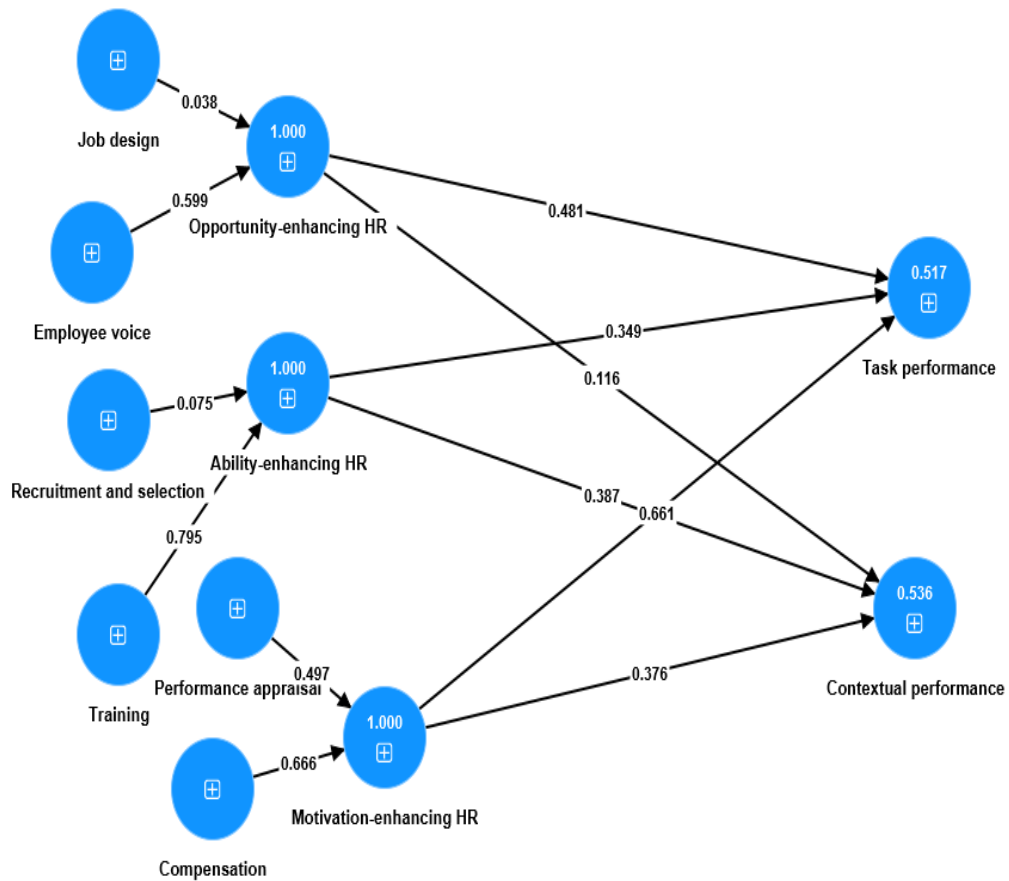


Figure 3: Final PLS-SEM model extracted
Source: Field Survey 2023

Discussions of Findings for Objective One - High-Performance Work Systems and Job Performance

The results of this study established a positive and significant effect of ability-enhancing HR practices on task and contextual performance. The findings also showed that motivation-enhancing HR practices have a positive and significant influence on task and contextual performance. Further, the results discovered that opportunity-enhancing HR practices had a positive and significant effect on task and contextual performance. All the hypotheses that stated that ability-enhancing HR practices, motivation-enhancing HR practices

and opportunity-enhancing HR practices would have a positive and significant effect on task and contextual performance were all supported.

According to the findings, an employee's performance on the job is dependent on various HR practices that are implemented. In other words, the enhanced task performance of employees is explained by HR practices that provide them with the knowledge, skill, motivation, and the opportunity to create value. Furthermore, the results indicate that the HPWS of the organisation has the proclivity to heighten the extra role behaviour of employees. Thus the HPWS of the firm has the propensity to have a great influence on the discretionary effort of employees. The implication here is that the right knowledge and skills will ensure that employees are utilising the correct work methods to carry out their work activities. That is with the ability and the motivation, employees can perform their core technical duties effectively and efficiently and also provide assistant those co-workers that may need support. Therefore, these findings support the traditional assumptions of AMO theory, which stipulate that an organisation's HPWS should offer employees three main things. These are ability, knowledge, skills, motivation and opportunity to add value (Cui & Yu, 2021).

These outcomes are not unexpected due to the following factors: firstly, utilising ability-enhancing HR practices such as extensive and intensive recruitment strategies would help get the right pool of applicants to choose from. Selection strategies can assist the organisation in making the best decision of choosing the right people that can fit the aspirations and values of the organisation. Selecting the right fit of employees ensures that those who can easily learn and acquire new skills are chosen, which translates into the

type of training programmes to design and implement. Training equips employees by updating and providing new competencies and knowledge of performing tasks. Likewise, ability-enhancing HR initiatives like training, for example, provided employees with the knowledge, skills, and resources needed to perform their jobs effectively and safely, reducing reducing job errors. This line of thinking indicates that workers will utilise their talents and competencies to do their jobs better and use them to help their co-workers and offer new ways of making the organisation run more efficiently (Li-Yun et al., 2007).

Further, motivating-enhancing HR practices such as compensation and benefits have been demonstrated to enhance task performance. According to Lepak et al. (2006), HR systems, such as recognition and reward, have a direct and indirect effect on employees' motivation and effort to perform their jobs efficiently. Likewise, setting specific performance objectives and goals for workers and consistently communicating them to maintain clarity and alignment helps them understand what is expected of them and what is used to measure performance. Performance reviews, check-ins, and coaching sessions help employees identify areas for improvement and receive support and guidance from managers, reducing job errors and safety. Lastly, Linking performance management criteria to the type and level of compensation can serve as a catalyst for encouraging employees to exert discretionary effort at work (Lepak et al., 2006). Especially where employees will be rewarded for going the extra mile to help colleagues and supervisors perform certain activities.

Thirdly, opportunity-enhancing HR practices such as employee voice and participation provide the stage for competencies accumulated through ability-enhancing HR practices to be utilised to create value. According to Jian et al. (2012), opportunity-enhancing HR practises can inspire employees to use their knowledge, skills, and enthusiasm to help the organisation achieve its goals encourage employees to share knowledge and acquire new skills, and seek out work-related challenges. This line of reasoning advocates that providing employees with opportunities to contribute enables them to have a greater share of responsibility for goal planning, task completion, and interpersonal process management (Mathieu et al., 2006).

Further, providing employees with the chance to create value propels them to find creative solutions to problems (Belias et al., 2015; Winch & Addis, 2021), enhance job processes (Agasisti & Shibanova, 2021; Golubova, 2011) and display varying skills in supporting their colleagues and supervisors (Bardon & Borzillo, 2016). In addition, Malik and Lenka (2019) argued that opportunity-enhancing HR practices ensure a fit between job requirements and skills by maximising job performance. Conway et al. (2016) indicated that employing opportunity-enhancing HR practices such as employee voice service as a job resource alleviates employee exhaustion which counterbalances demands from the job. The outcomes of this current study are concordant with previous studies that HPWS is significantly and positively related to job performance (e.g. Imran & Atiya, 2020; Ma et al., 2020; Pahos et al., 2021). In addition, the work outcomes are consistent with prior research that ability-enhance HR practices, motivation-enhancing HR practices and

opportunity-enhancing HR practices are positively related to Job performance (Edgar et al., 2021; Khoreva & Wechtler, 2018).

These observations also have theoretical implications as well. One potential explanation for the high positive and significant effect of HPWS (ability-enhancing HR practises, motivation-enhancing HR practices, and opportunity-enhancing HR practices) on job performance (task and contextual) is connected to social exchange theory (SET). SET indicates that when organisations invest in their employees by putting in place effective HR policies and procedures, those staff members are more likely to repay the organisation's efforts in a positive manner by improving the quality of work they do (Zhang et al., 2019). This suggests that when organisations make sure that the different HR activities they carry out involving workers encourage those employees to feel appreciated, they send good signals to those employees, encouraging them to perform to the best of their abilities. Thus this study's findings showing a favourable relationship between HPWS and work performance support the premise of SET.

Another potential explanation for the favourable association between HPWS and job performance is that HPWS fosters a relational atmosphere in which employees become committed to the organisation. Employees that think they are being supported reward that supports with devotion and commitment to the organisation by improving their work performance. These employees get devoted to and identify with their organisation and strive hard to attain excellent performance, which leads to overall organisational success. Employees see HPWS as a form of meeting psychological contracts in the employment relationship. Consequently, the favourable reaction of employees

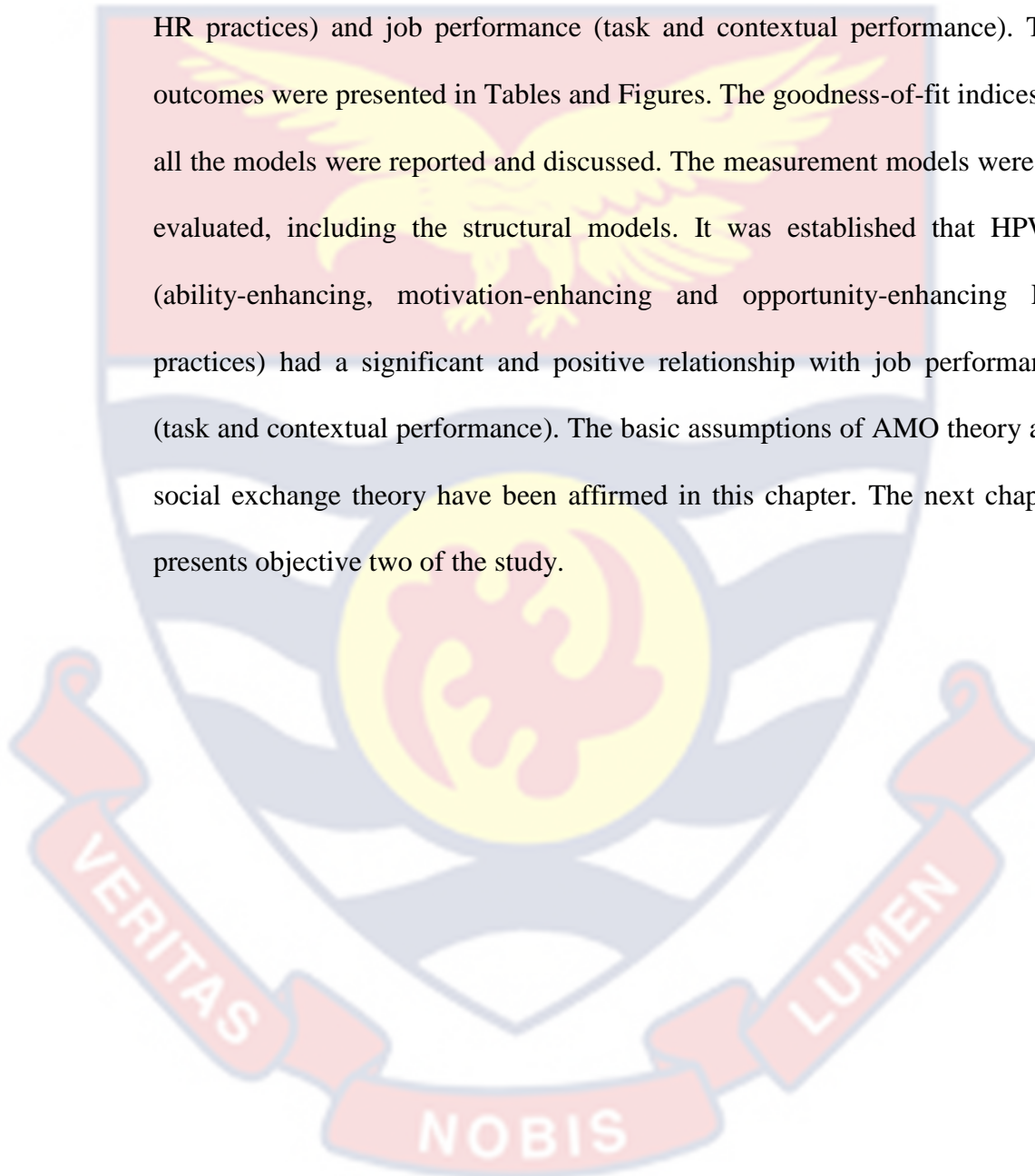
to job performance reported in this research represents the thoughts that HR practices instil in employees' minds.

Most prior research has employed micro-level data with no segmentation of job performance, which may not reveal how HPWS impact the various components of job performance (Abugre & Nasere, 2020; Dastmalchian et al., 2020; Hauff et al., 2017; Latorre et al., 2016; Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2018; Shin & Konrad, 2017; Wang & Xu, 2017; Zhang et al., 2018). Emerging data, on the other hand, points to the possibility that work performance is a multi-dimensional concept that may be operationalised as task and contextual performance (Aboul-Ela, 2017; Imhangbe et al., 2019; Nan et al., 2018; Ramawickrama & PushpaKumari, 2017). The outcomes of this study have shown that the different components of HPWS have positive implications for the different dimensions of job performance (task and contextual performance).

Thus the differences in the evidence about the positive effect of ability-enhancing HR practices, motivation-enhancing HR practices and opportunity-enhancing HR practices on task and contextual performance deepen the understanding of the relationship between HPWS and job performance. The distinctive addition of this study, which synthesises the findings on the HPWS and job performance (task and contextual performance), is that employee responses to favourable HR practices may result in the maximisation of employee performance. This research supports the premise of the theory of social exchange, which holds that favourable conditions spark reciprocal responses.

Chapter Summary

The chapter presented and discussed the models of objective one of the study. The chapter discussed the results of the first objectives of the study: HPWS (ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing and opportunity-enhancing HR practices) and job performance (task and contextual performance). The outcomes were presented in Tables and Figures. The goodness-of-fit indices of all the models were reported and discussed. The measurement models were all evaluated, including the structural models. It was established that HPWS (ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing and opportunity-enhancing HR practices) had a significant and positive relationship with job performance (task and contextual performance). The basic assumptions of AMO theory and social exchange theory have been affirmed in this chapter. The next chapter presents objective two of the study.



CHAPTER SIX

HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK SYSTEMS, SUPERVISOR SUPPORT AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Introduction

The primary aim of this chapter was to help the researcher analyse the second and the third objectives of the study. The second objective sought to analyse the effect of supervisor support on job performance. The third objective examined the moderating role of supervisor support on high-performance works systems (HPWS) and the job performance of employees in the mining sector of Ghana. Following this aim, four main hypotheses were developed and tested through the partial least square structural equation modelling. These were:

Hypotheses of Objective Two

H1_a: supervisor support has a significant positive effect on task performance

H1_b: supervisor support has a significant positive influence on contextual performance

Hypotheses of Objective Three

H1_a: supervisor support has a positive significant interacting effect on HPWS and task performance

H1_b: supervisor support has a positive significant interacting effect on HPWS and contextual performance

The results were presented and discussed in the sections that follow;

Measurement Model Assessment

This section evaluated the measurement model of the objective, including the common method biases in the respondents' responses. Concisely, the elements assessed were indicator loadings, internal consistency test, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Table 14 displayed the summaries of common method biases and indicator loadings, internal consistency results were presented in Table 11, while Table 12 was used to report on the checks for incidences of discriminant validity.

Table 14: Outer Loadings and Common Method Biases

| Constructs/indicators | VIF | Loadings | t | ρ |
|---------------------------------------|-------|----------|--------|--------|
| High-performance Work | | | | |
| COM1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.819 | 0.534 | 13.240 | 0.000 |
| COM2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 4.388 | 0.630 | 18.781 | 0.000 |
| COM3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 3.454 | 0.608 | 20.035 | 0.000 |
| COM4 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.788 | 0.571 | 15.577 | 0.000 |
| EV1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.603 | 0.589 | 15.773 | 0.000 |
| EV2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.245 | 0.523 | 12.822 | 0.000 |
| EV3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.911 | 0.459 | 10.126 | 0.000 |
| EV4 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.240 | 0.500 | 11.400 | 0.000 |
| JD1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.781 | 0.487 | 13.629 | 0.000 |
| JD2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.262 | 0.546 | 14.211 | 0.000 |
| JD3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.147 | 0.538 | 14.186 | 0.000 |
| PA1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.003 | 0.620 | 17.459 | 0.000 |
| PA2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.427 | 0.563 | 14.739 | 0.000 |
| PA3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.997 | 0.509 | 12.056 | 0.000 |
| PA4 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.652 | 0.486 | 12.857 | 0.000 |
| RS1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.158 | 0.543 | 14.492 | 0.000 |
| RS2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.408 | 0.565 | 15.272 | 0.000 |
| RS3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.583 | 0.575 | 16.938 | 0.000 |
| RS4 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.940 | 0.522 | 11.922 | 0.000 |
| RS5 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.026 | 0.549 | 13.318 | 0.000 |
| RS6 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.721 | 0.519 | 12.599 | 0.000 |
| TR1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.685 | 0.469 | 10.665 | 0.000 |
| TR10 <- High-performance Work Systems | 3.267 | 0.714 | 28.549 | 0.000 |
| TR11 <- High-performance Work Systems | 3.168 | 0.679 | 24.732 | 0.000 |
| TR2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.412 | 0.597 | 14.259 | 0.000 |
| TR3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.113 | 0.591 | 16.907 | 0.000 |
| TR4 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.507 | 0.430 | 8.755 | 0.000 |
| TR5 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.076 | 0.611 | 17.946 | 0.000 |

| | | | | |
|--|-------|-------|---------|-------|
| TR6 <- High-performance Work Systems | 3.320 | 0.640 | 21.810 | 0.000 |
| TR7 <- High-performance Work Systems | 3.999 | 0.674 | 22.451 | 0.000 |
| TR8 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.713 | 0.601 | 15.963 | 0.000 |
| TR9 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.247 | 0.577 | 15.659 | 0.000 |
| Supervisor support | | | | |
| SS1 <- Supervisor support | 2.072 | 0.770 | 28.546 | 0.000 |
| SS2 <- Supervisor support | 1.582 | 0.695 | 18.752 | 0.000 |
| SS3 <- Supervisor support | 2.790 | 0.864 | 54.008 | 0.000 |
| SS4 <- Supervisor support | 2.291 | 0.831 | 49.975 | 0.000 |
| SS5 <- Supervisor support | 2.099 | 0.784 | 29.796 | 0.000 |
| SS6 <- Supervisor support | 1.634 | 0.736 | 26.369 | 0.000 |
| Contextual performance | | | | |
| CP1 <- Contextual performance | 2.555 | 0.882 | 65.885 | 0.000 |
| CP2 <- Contextual performance | 3.141 | 0.900 | 50.355 | 0.000 |
| CP3 <- Contextual performance | 3.531 | 0.910 | 83.590 | 0.000 |
| CP4 <- Contextual performance | 2.802 | 0.887 | 47.308 | 0.000 |
| Task performance | | | | |
| TP1 <- Task performance | 2.801 | 0.882 | 62.919 | 0.000 |
| TP2 <- Task performance | 3.716 | 0.921 | 101.210 | 0.000 |
| TP3 <- Task performance | 3.094 | 0.898 | 69.961 | 0.000 |
| TP4 <- Task performance | 2.577 | 0.877 | 53.142 | 0.000 |
| Supervisor support x High-performance Work Systems | | | | |
| Supervisor support x High-performance Work Systems -> Supervisor support x High-performance Work Systems | 1.000 | 1.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

From Table 14, the reliability criteria for the indicators of constructs were achieved. Thus, the loadings for HPWS, supervisor support, contextual performance, and task performance were well within the acceptable threshold. Concisely, loading for the HPWS constructs ranged from 0.430 to 0.921; those of supervisor support was between the interval of 0.695 to 0.864; contextual performance loading was in the category range from 0.882 to 0.910; while the loading for task performance was from 0.877 to 0.921. Based on this evidence, the study upheld that all indicators that have been retained were suitable for the model.

Similarly, Table 14 portrayed that there were no traces of common method bias issues in the data collected. The data collected can be regarded as pure and excellent for further analysis purposes. This is because the VIFs of the HPWS, supervisor support, contextual performance, and task performance were all less than 5.0 (Becker et al., 2015). The next table accommodates the results pertaining to the internal consistency and validity of the constructs.

Table 15: Internal Consistency and Convergent Validity

| Constructs | CA | rho_A | CR | AVE |
|-------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Contextual performance | 0.917 | 0.918 | 0.941 | 0.800 |
| High-performance Work Systems | 0.931 | 0.934 | 0.937 | 0.532 |
| Supervisor support | 0.872 | 0.880 | 0.904 | 0.611 |
| Task performance | 0.917 | 0.918 | 0.942 | 0.801 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

The results as reported in Table 15, suggest that the constructs' internal consistency was ascertained. Reading the scores of the CA, rho_A, and CR revealed that these values were higher than the 0.70 needed to establish constructs' reliability in a study context. In addition, the results show that the convergent validity of the constructs was satisfactory, given that the various AVEs were higher than the minimum 50 percent. Table 16, as seen, covers the results of the discriminant validity.

Table 16: Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio for Discriminant Validity

| Constructs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|---|
| 1. Contextual performance | | | | | |
| 2. High-performance Work Systems | 0.630 | | | | |
| 3. Supervisor support | 0.453 | 0.486 | | | |
| 4. Task performance | 0.540 | 0.775 | 0.396 | | |
| 5. Supervisor support x High-performance Work Systems | 0.095 | 0.123 | 0.038 | 0.025 | |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

From Table 16, it can be viewed that the HTMT ratios were less than the 0.90 thresholds established in the extant literature (Hair et al., 2019; Henseler et al., 2016). To this end, the present study asserts that each of the constructs was unique and distinct from another in the single model. These achievements led the researcher to the assessment of the structural model as well as test hypotheses developed for the study. The next table, therefore, Table 17, evaluated the structural model results.

Table 17: Structural Model Results and Hypotheses

| Paths | R | t | ρ | R ² | f ² | Q ² |
|--------------------------------------|-------|--------|--------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| TP | | | | 0.534 | | 0.523 |
| CP | | | | 0.404 | | 0.390 |
| <i>Simple path</i> | | | | | | |
| HPWS -> TP | 0.717 | 22.370 | 0.000 | | 0.868 | |
| HPWS -> CP | 0.542 | 14.883 | 0.000 | | 0.387 | |
| <i>Moderator path</i> | | | | | | |
| SS -> TP | 0.028 | 0.690 | 0.490 | | 0.001 | |
| SS -> CP | 0.156 | 4.006 | 0.000 | | 0.032 | |
| <i>Interaction path (hypotheses)</i> | | | | | | |
| H2 _a : SS x HPWS -> TP | 0.007 | 0.271 | 0.786 | | 0.000 | |
| H2 _b : SS x HPWS -> CP | 0.079 | 2.422 | 0.015 | | 0.011 | |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

From Table 17, the results were placed into three sub-columns bearing the names simple path, moderator paths and interaction paths. For the purpose of addressing the objective, emphasis is placed on the direct links between the constructs and moderators and the interaction or moderation paths. First and foremost, the study assessed the effect of the HPWS (simple path) and moderator (supervisor support, i.e., moderator path) on employee performance (task and contextual) before proceeding to look at the interaction effect of the SS (Interaction path) in the link between HPWS and job performance (TP and CP). This will help compare and ascertain the changes in the strength and

direction of the independent and dependent variables when a moderator is interacting in the model.

Hence, from the simple column, the study established that HPWS has a significant positive relationship with TP ($R = 0.717$, Figure 4; $t = 22.370$; $P < 0.001$) and CP ($R = 0.542$, Figure 3; $t = 14.883$; $P < 0.000$). Again, in the moderator column, the results showed that the moderator (SS) has a significant positive relationship with CP ($R = 0.156$, Figure 4; $t = 4.006$; $P < 0.000$) but not with TP ($R = 0.028$, Figure 4; $t = 0.690$; $P = 0.490$). Moreover, the results in the interaction column reveal that while there is a significant positive relationship between the interaction of SS and HPWS (SS x HPWS) with CP ($R = 0.079$; $t = 2.422$; $P = 0.015$), a non-significant relationship was established with TP ($R = 0.007$; $t = 0.271$; $P = 0.786$). This means that SS moderates the relationship between HPWS and CP but not in the link between HPWS and TP. See Appendix F for details of Figure 4.

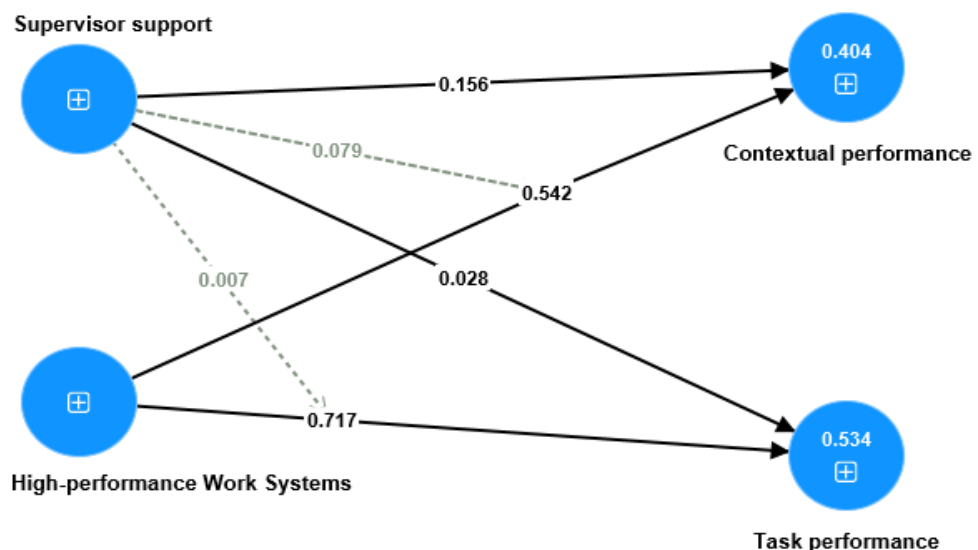


Figure 4: Final Output of the PLS-SEM

Source: Field Survey 2023

Regarding the R^2 , the study upheld that 53.4 per cent and 40.4 per cent (see also Figure 4) of changes in the scores of TP and CP, respectively, were

accounted for by the joint effect of HPWS, SS and SS x HPWS. Again, the f^2 , on the other hand, revealed in terms of the interaction effect that SS x HPWS had a small effect on CP but no effect on TP. Supervisor support not moderating the effect of HPWS on TP may be attributed to the level of competency and experience of employees. As employees gain mastery over the activities they perform the level of autonomy increases. The descriptive statistics of the respondents, clearly indicate that the majority of the respondents have work experience of more than five years. Q^2 shows the predictive relevance within the exogenous-exogeneous constructs relationship. It is worth noting from Table 14 that TP and CP made variously large predictive relevance in the model.

According to Hair et al. (2019), anytime significant links are established in moderation analysis, the graph on the effect of the changes in the direction and strength of the relationship should be presented. Since SS only moderated the path between HPWS and CP, Figure 4 was deployed to help explain the moderation effect in detail. From Figure 4 (see also Table 17), the R of SS x HPWS was 0.079 indicating a weak relationship, while the simple effect of HPWS on CP was 0.542. Therefore, jointly, the results suggest that the relationship between HPWS and CP was 0.542 for an average level of SS (i.e., blue middle line in Figure 4).

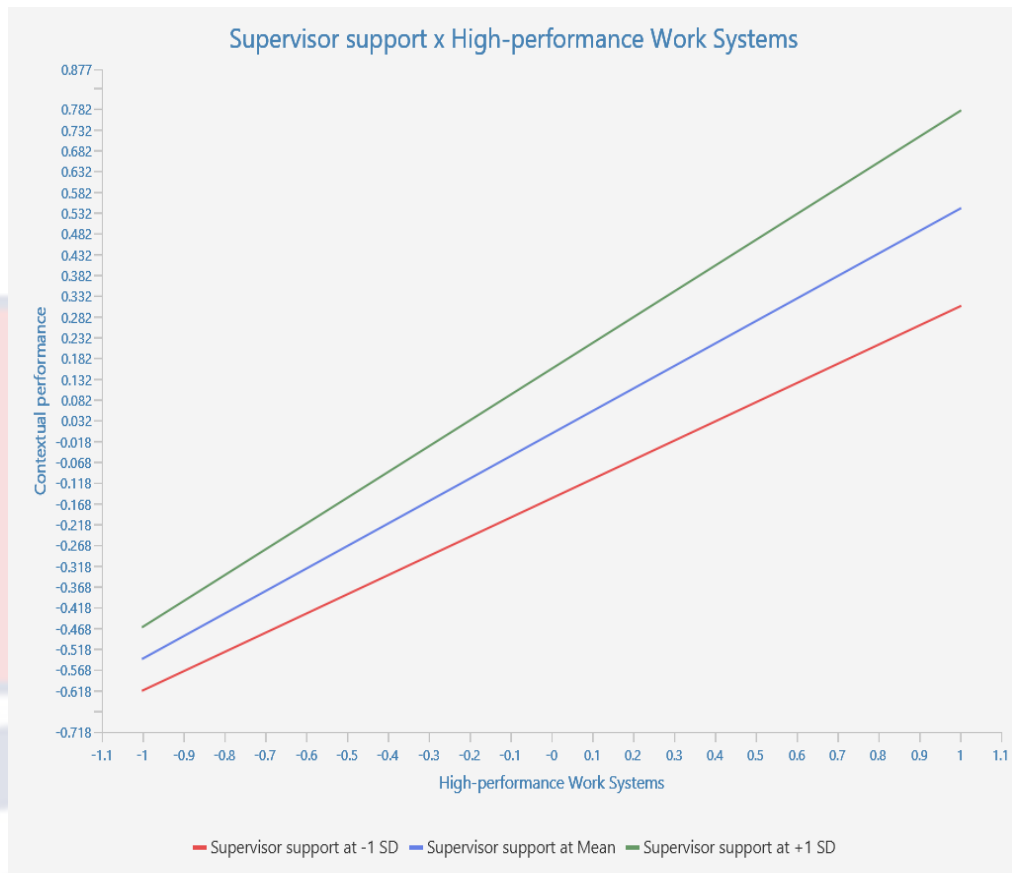


Figure 5: Moderation effect of supervisor support
Source: Field Survey (2023)

Consequently, when the level of SS was increased by a 1-unit standard deviation, the relationship between HPWS and CP was increased by the size of the interaction term (i.e., $0.542 + 0.079 = 0.621$) and caused the green line to move upward. However, decreasing the level of SS by 1-unit standard deviation will cause the relationship between HPWS and CP to be reduced by the size of the interaction term (i.e., $0.542 - 0.079 = 0.463$) and cause the red line to move downward.

Discussions of findings of Objective Two - Supervisor Support and job performance

From Table 17, the results showed that the moderator (SS) has a significant positive relationship with CP but not with TP. This indicates that supervisor support has a significant effect on contextual performance.

However, does not have a significant effect on task performance. These outcomes are presumably a consequence of the significant autonomy that workers have in executing tasks. Employees are probably granted autonomy and authority to choose the methods of job execution, set objectives, and prioritise activities within a specified structure. Contrary to contextual performance is a voluntary action on the part of employees to go the extra mile for the organisation. For this reason, supervisors may play a key role in making them understand to exhibit these discretionary behaviours.

These findings corroborated with Talukder and Galang (2021) who found a positive relationship between supervisors' support and employee job performance. Further, a study conducted by Tarcan et al. (2021) also provided evidence that supervisors' support correlated positively with job performance. Talukder et al. (2018) assessed supervisor support on employee performance in the Australian financial sector. Their results showed a similar outcome that supervisors' support is associated positively with employees' performance.

Discussions of findings of Objective Three - Supervisor Support on the HPWS and job performance

The objective three of the study tested two main hypotheses for the study. Objective three of the study was to evaluate the moderating effect of supervisor support (SS) on HPWS and job performance (Task and contextual performance). For this objective, the study predicted two outcomes that SS would moderate the HPWS-TP nexus, and SS would moderate the HPWS-CP link. The analysis showed that supervisor support does not interact with the with the effect of HPWS on TP. Thus supervisor support does not have any influence on the HPWS-TP relationship.

The reason behind this finding could be explained by the possibility that employees may have reached a point where they have acquired a level of independence and low monitoring requirements. This could occur after they have mastered their jobs, comprehend the aims and principles of the organisation, and are able to make decisions that support those goals. This reason can be affirmed by the work experience of the respondents of the study. The majority of respondents have more than five years of professional experience.

Employees often need less direct supervision from supervisors as they get more used to their activities, are proficient in them, and have a greater awareness of the policies and expectations of the organisation. Employees with more experience often have more self-confidence, which may result in more autonomy and less dependence on managers for direction. Employees become more adept at solving problems and managing difficulties on their own over time, which lessens the need for supervisor assistance. At this point they may do activities more effectively and independently without continual supervision as they acquire experience since they are more used to processes, procedures, and best practices.

In the HPWS literature, the results are surprising as the general conclusion does not support the positive effect of supervisor support of HPWS on task performance (Pak & Kim, 2018; Schreuder et al., 2020). The general belief is that an increase in task performance is often said to be possible with more supervisor interventions if HPWS is encouraged by superiors. The results of this research provide unique evidence that the kind and direction of

the impact of supervisor support for HPWS on task performance may vary depending on the type of performance desired.

These novel contributions of the study have significant theoretical implications. The results extend the JD-R theory to the relationship between supervisor support and job performance. One of the most fundamental criticisms of the standard assumptions of JD-R theory is that the JD-R model is a descriptive model that identifies relationships between classes of variables without offering a specific psychological explanation. This is in part owing to the restricted approach that often focuses on outlining specific job requirements and job resources and explaining that these two entities must be in equilibrium to provide the desired outcomes.

In theory, less consideration is given to the possibility that the described job resources (supervisor support) would not operate in a particular work scenario and the outcomes needed to be achieved. The results have broadened the theoretical relevance of JD-R theory by proposing that having sufficient resources may not affect task performance, depending on the context and what workers stand to gain in such instances. When employees have mastery over their jobs, they would need less supervision.

Meanwhile, the study further found that supervisor support significantly interacts with the relationship between HPWS and CP. This indicates that supervisor support strengthens the positive relationship between HPWS and CP. That is, supervisor support moderates HPWS-CP relationships such that the more support employees receive from their supervisors in the form of explicating the HR policies and practices to employees, the more

employees go all out to help their colleagues and carry out extra activities that are not specified in their contract of employment.

Thus as supervisors assist with the implementation of certain HR practices that would influence how employees perceive their supervisors to care about them and the effect such support has on discretionary effort. For instance, some organisations consider contextual performance as community service that may have a bearing on employees' promotions and having supervisors explain this HR policy to employees and encourage them to take part in such activities will motivate them to enhance their discretionary efforts. The implication is that supervisors' ability to function as a link between the organisation and its employees, and their actions can significantly impact how employees view the organisation's policies and the value placed on pro bono activities for the organisation.

This means that ability-enhancing HR practices which describe workers' capabilities, which are often increased through recruitment, selection and training programmes (Lepak & Snell, 2002), can influence contextual performance. This view corroborates Cunningham and Hyman's (1995) belief that supervisors' role in ability-enhancing HR practices has changed over the past three decades. This is reflected in the roles they play in the various HR practices. For instance, during recruiting processes, supervisors are usually consulted in designing comprehensive and up-to-date job descriptions and job specifications. In the selection process, supervisors are required to sit in the panel to ask technical and relevant questions to identify talents with prerequisite skills and knowledge that can perform the job better.

Further, supervisors are also noted to play a key role in the training of their subordinates. Supervisors play a key role in identifying specific training needs of employees in the process of supervising employees to do their work. As such, some supervisors train their subordinates through coaching and mentoring. Such roles played by supervisors help their subordinates acquire skills and knowledge and, for that matter, assist in the advancement of their careers. These actions demonstrate to employees that their supervisors care for them. HPWS, which provides the platform for supervisors to act on behalf of the organisation through ability-enhancing HR practices, creates in the minds of employees that their supervisors care for them and support the efforts of the organisation by enhancing their contextual performance.

In addition, motivation-enhancing HR practices relate to employees' willingness to put up the extra effort, and it is expected to improve due to compensation and performance management approaches. The findings, therefore, reflect Shanock and Eisenberger's (2006) research outcomes that supervisors are usually involved in personalised treatments such as informal feedback on performance and the establishment of the amount of merit pay due to subordinates that works under them. Malmrud et al. (2020) argued that supervisors play an essential role in individualised pay-setting systems where the quality of work done serve as the basis for performance assessment. According to Malmrud et al. (2020), the pay-setting system involves performance assessment, recurrent feedback, discussions of pay and the agreed pay which are done by supervisors. As such, employees' perceptions of how successfully their supervisors recognised and rewarded their achievement during the pay-setting process influence their willingness to continue to

improve their performance (Malmrud et al., 2020) and increase their discretionary efforts.

Similarly, opportunity-enhancing HR practices which refer to offering employees the opportunity to participate in decision-making, and this entails providing them with the appropriate atmosphere (Bayo-Moriones & Bello-Pindado, 2021). This is achieved through practices such as job design (Takeuchi et al., 2007) and employee voice (Kim et al., 2016). The relevance of supervisors' information sharing with subordinates and taking their thoughts has been long recognised as important to employees as they view it as a way of giving them a voice. Supervisory information sharing refers to the pre-emptive sharing of thoughts on a variety of topics with subordinates (Ashford & Black, 1996) about the job and the organisation.

This critical role of a supervisor concerning information sharing is seen as an activity in that subordinates are offered job instructions and their input taken. Sharing information with a subordinate is very critical in enhancing employees' perceived supervisor support because supervisors spend most of their time communicating with those below them (Nifadkar et al., 2019) and a platform for employees' voices to be heard. Further, the right information shared by supervisors takes away anxiety and nervousness experienced by employees in the performance of their jobs (Kramer, 2017).

In addition, job design that ensures job autonomy increases the degree to which a job offers freedom, independence, discretion to work schedule, make decisions, and choosing the method to perform a task (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2013) is seen as critical to providing a platform for employees to contribute to organisational success (Boxall & Winterton, 2018; Tremblay,

2019). Job autonomy is noted to increase responsibility, internal motivation and reduce role ambiguity and stress (Gillet et al., 2013). According to Dysvik and Kuvaas (2013), supervisors assist the HR in bringing to life policies on work design, such as job autonomy. This is achieved through supervisors offering job knowledge, minimising role ambiguity and job demand for employees. Such employees feel empowered to contribute to the job. Further, supervisors appreciating their subordinates' contributions on the job and paying attention to and feeling appreciated will make them experience they are invaluable in their role and the organisation. These actions demonstrated by supervisors lead to an increase perceived supervisor support.

Similar to this finding in this research, Schreuder et al. (2020) found that supervisor support plays a significant role in enhancing discretionary effort at the team level. The results also lend credence to the prior findings and inferences made by Straub et al. (2018), which is one of the research that is most comparable to the present investigation. Straub et al. (2018) introduced line managers in the implementation of HR policies on work-life policy. According to the findings of their research, HR policies seem to be dependent on the active engagement of line managers in the process of implementation.

The findings have strong theoretical implications. The results extend the consequence of general systems theory to supervisor support and contextual performance relationship. From the suppositions of the GST, HR practices must work as a system to tell their effect on specific performance since employees are exposed to several HR practices. Also, the theory holds the assumption that these HR practices working as systems operate as open systems as they interact with other resources, such as supervisor support, to

bring their full effectiveness into achieving performance. This shows that supervisor support moderating affirms the position of the GST that HR practices working as systems still require supervisors to ensure their efficiency.

The results likewise extend the implication of JD-R theory to supervisor support and contextual performance nexus. Following the assumptions of the JD-R theory, the prevalence of SS may be viewed as extra resources that serve as a buffer to reduce job pressures placed on employees from the contract of employment (Bakker et al., 2003). The supervisors' further explanation of the HPWS in the implementation process provides employees with socio-emotional needs, which sends a signal to employees to reciprocate this support by increasing their contextual performance. This suggests that SS may be relevant depending on the desired outcome that needs to be achieved with HPWS.

Chapter Summary

The chapter presented and discussed the interacting models in this study. This model is discussed within the structures of the second objective of the study. The results were presented in Tables and Figures. It was established in this chapter that supervisor support had a significant positive influence on the connection between HPWS and contextual performance. The chapter moreover found that supervisor support did not have a significant effect on the relationship between HPWS and task performance. Some basic assumptions of the JD-R theory and the GST were affirmed, and the findings also extended the JD-R theory and GST. The next chapter presents the third objective of the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

HIGH-PERFORMANCE WORK SYSTEMS, EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING AND JOB PERFORMANCE

Introduction

This seventh chapter presented the research findings relating to objectives four and five of the study. The objective four of the study focused on the influence of well-being on job performance. The objective five of the study examined the moderating role of well-being on high-performance works systems (HPWS) and the job performance of employees in the mining industry of Ghana. Based on these objectives, these hypotheses were derived. These are;

Hypotheses of Objective Four

H1_a: Well-being has a significant positive effect on task performance

H1_b: Well-being has a significant positive influence on contextual performance

Hypotheses of Objective Five

H1_a: well-being has a positive significant interacting influence on HPWS and task performance

H1_b: well-being has a positive significant interacting influence on HPWS and contextual performance

The PLS-SEM technique was deployed to respond to the hypotheses. Thus, the measurement model of the PLS-SEM output through indicator loadings, internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity was assessed before proceeding to discuss findings using the structural model results.

Measurement Model Assessment

The measurement model of the objective was first checked for common method biases and factor loadings. This was followed by checks on the internal consistency of the constructs and their shared relationship, convergent validity. The final assessment under this section was the discriminant validity which technically looks at the extent to which each construct in the PLS-SEM model is unique. Table 18 captured the results of the factor reliability.

Table 18: Loadings and Common Method Biases of the Items

| Construct/indicators | VIF | Loadings | t | P |
|---------------------------------------|-------|----------|--------|-------|
| High-performance Work Systems | | | | |
| COM1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.819 | 0.534 | 13.240 | 0.000 |
| COM2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 4.388 | 0.630 | 18.780 | 0.000 |
| COM3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 3.454 | 0.608 | 20.034 | 0.000 |
| COM4 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.788 | 0.571 | 15.576 | 0.000 |
| EV1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.603 | 0.589 | 15.772 | 0.000 |
| EV2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.245 | 0.523 | 12.820 | 0.000 |
| EV3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.911 | 0.459 | 10.126 | 0.000 |
| EV4 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.240 | 0.500 | 11.398 | 0.000 |
| JD1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.781 | 0.487 | 13.627 | 0.000 |
| JD2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.262 | 0.546 | 14.210 | 0.000 |
| JD3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.147 | 0.538 | 14.184 | 0.000 |
| PA1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.003 | 0.620 | 17.460 | 0.000 |
| PA2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.427 | 0.563 | 14.740 | 0.000 |
| PA3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.997 | 0.509 | 12.057 | 0.000 |
| PA4 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.652 | 0.487 | 12.858 | 0.000 |
| RS1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.158 | 0.543 | 14.491 | 0.000 |
| RS2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.408 | 0.565 | 15.272 | 0.000 |
| RS3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.583 | 0.575 | 16.938 | 0.000 |
| RS4 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.940 | 0.522 | 11.921 | 0.000 |
| RS5 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.026 | 0.549 | 13.318 | 0.000 |
| RS6 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.721 | 0.519 | 12.599 | 0.000 |
| TR1 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.685 | 0.469 | 10.665 | 0.000 |
| TR10 <- High-performance Work Systems | 3.267 | 0.714 | 28.547 | 0.000 |
| TR11 <- High-performance Work Systems | 3.168 | 0.679 | 24.731 | 0.000 |
| TR2 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.412 | 0.597 | 14.259 | 0.000 |
| TR3 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.113 | 0.591 | 16.906 | 0.000 |
| TR4 <- High-performance Work Systems | 1.507 | 0.430 | 8.755 | 0.000 |
| TR5 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.076 | 0.611 | 17.946 | 0.000 |

| | | | | |
|--|-------|-------|---------|-------|
| TR6 <- High-performance Work Systems | 3.320 | 0.640 | 21.807 | 0.000 |
| TR7 <- High-performance Work Systems | 3.999 | 0.674 | 22.449 | 0.000 |
| TR8 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.713 | 0.601 | 15.962 | 0.000 |
| TR9 <- High-performance Work Systems | 2.247 | 0.577 | 15.659 | 0.000 |
| Task performance | | | | |
| TP1 <- Task performance | 2.801 | 0.882 | 63.011 | 0.000 |
| TP2 <- Task performance | 3.716 | 0.922 | 101.592 | 0.000 |
| TP3 <- Task performance | 3.094 | 0.899 | 70.251 | 0.000 |
| TP4 <- Task performance | 2.577 | 0.877 | 52.751 | 0.000 |
| Contextual performance | | | | |
| CP1 <- Contextual performance | 2.555 | 0.882 | 66.575 | 0.000 |
| CP2 <- Contextual performance | 3.141 | 0.900 | 50.379 | 0.000 |
| CP3 <- Contextual performance | 3.531 | 0.910 | 83.208 | 0.000 |
| CP4 <- Contextual performance | 2.802 | 0.887 | 47.102 | 0.000 |
| Well-being | | | | |
| WB1 <- Well-being | 2.000 | 0.841 | 41.435 | 0.000 |
| WB2 <- Well-being | 2.267 | 0.868 | 66.169 | 0.000 |
| WB3 <- Well-being | 2.050 | 0.823 | 33.018 | 0.000 |
| WB4 <- Well-being | 1.621 | 0.781 | 30.265 | 0.000 |
| Well-being x High-performance Work Systems | | | | |
| Well-being x High-performance Work Systems -> Well-being x High-performance Work Systems | 1.000 | 1.000 | 0.000 | 0.000 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Observation of the values under each construct in Table 18 against relevant thresholds shows that quality criteria were met. In respect of CMB, the VIF scores of each item for the various latent variables were well below the 5.0 cut-off. Likewise, the loadings for the items of the latent variables retained were appropriate to be maintained in the model. This is because all the items, including those below 0.70, collectively contributed to the overall reliability of the model. The next table, Table 19, evaluated the results of the internal consistency and validity of the constructs.

Table 19: Constructs' Internal Consistency and Validity

| Constructs | CA | rho_A | CR | AVE |
|-------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Contextual performance | 0.917 | 0.919 | 0.941 | 0.800 |
| High-performance Work Systems | 0.931 | 0.934 | 0.937 | 0.621 |
| Task performance | 0.917 | 0.918 | 0.942 | 0.801 |
| Well-being | 0.848 | 0.856 | 0.898 | 0.687 |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

In Table 19, the scores of constructs' Cronbach's Alphas, rho_A and composite reliability, which are used as measures of internal consistency, have met the Hair et al.'s (2019) threshold. For instance, the information in Table 19 shows the CAs of CP, HPWS, TP and WB to be 0.917, 0.931, 0.917 and 0.848, respectively. These values are consistent with the acceptable rule of thumb that the CA of constructs should be 0.70 or more. Finally, the AVEs of the construct were also above the minimum score of 50% to explain the variances in the relationship among constructs. Table 20 was used to check for discriminant validity.

Table 20: Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratio for Discriminant Validity

| Constructs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|---|
| 1. Contextual performance | | | | | |
| 2. High-performance Work Systems | 0.630 | | | | |
| 3. Task performance | 0.540 | 0.775 | | | |
| 4. Well-being | 0.441 | 0.466 | 0.416 | | |
| 5. Well-being x High-performance Work Systems | 0.101 | 0.108 | 0.029 | 0.049 | |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

Table 20 was deployed to assess the presence of discriminant validity among the main constructs of the study. As Henseler et al. (2016) claimed, constructs used in a study should be able to discriminate among each other so as not to seem to describe the same phenomenon. Observing the results of the HTMT ratios displayed in the table suggests that the path model had no discriminant validity problems. Table 21 evaluated the structural model results.

Table 21: Structural Model Results and Hypotheses

| Paths | R | T | p | R ² | f ² | Q ² |
|---------------------------|-------|--------|-------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| TP | | | | 0.536 | | 0.525 |
| CP | | | | 0.403 | | 0.388 |
| <i>Simple/normal path</i> | | | | | | |
| HPWS -> TP | 0.705 | 21.887 | 0.000 | | 0.860 | |
| HPWS -> CP | 0.547 | 15.540 | 0.000 | | 0.402 | |
| <i>Moderator path</i> | | | | | | |
| WB -> TP | 0.058 | 1.445 | 0.148 | | 0.006 | |
| WB -> CP | 0.149 | 3.451 | 0.001 | | 0.030 | |
| <i>Interaction path</i> | | | | | | |
| WB x HPWS -> TP | 0.014 | 0.498 | 0.618 | | 0.000 | |
| WB x HPWS -> CP | 0.080 | 2.290 | 0.022 | | 0.011 | |

Source: Field Survey (2023)

From Table 21, the results show that first, HPWS (simple path) has a significant positive relationship with TP ($R = 0.705$, Figure 5; $t = 21.887$; $P < 0.001$) and CP ($R = 0.547$, Figure 5; $t = 15.540$; $P < 0.001$). Furthermore, the results in the moderation column revealed that (WB) made a statistically significant positive relationship with CP ($R = 0.149$, Figure 5; $t = 3.451$; $P = 0.001$) but could not establish a significant relationship with TP ($R = 0.058$, Figure 5; $t = 1.445$; $P = 0.148$). Concerning the results in the interaction path, it is revealed that while there exists a significant positive relationship between WB x HPWS with CP ($R = 0.080$; $t = 2.290$; $P = 0.022$), the link between WB x HPWS and TP ($R = 0.014$; $t = 0.498$; $P = 0.618$) was not significant at a 5% 2-tailed confidence interval.

Based on the descriptions above, the study concludes that WB moderates the relationship between HPWS and CP but fails to moderate the link between HPWS and TP. Therefore, the interaction graph (see Figure 6) was drawn to further explain the moderation role of WB in the link between HPWS and CP. See Appendix G for details of Figure 6

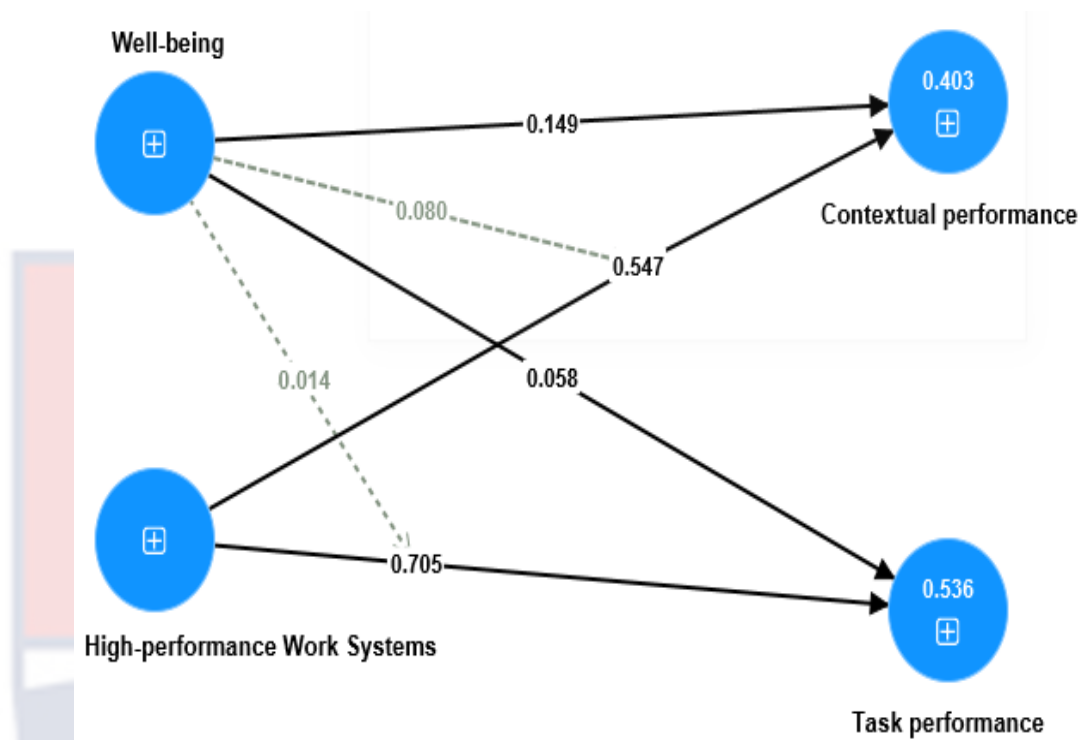


Figure 6: Final Model of the PLS-SEM
Source: Field Survey (2023)

With regards to the coefficient of determination, the study discovered that 53.6 per cent and 40.3 per cent (see also Figure 6) of variation in TP and CP, respectively, were accounted for by the joint contribution of HPWS, WB and WB x HPWS. Also, the f^2 , on the other hand, revealed in terms of the interaction effect that WB x HPWS had a small effect on CP ($f^2 = 0.011$) but no effect on TP. Finally, the Q^2 of TP and CP made, respectively, substantial predictive relevance in the model.

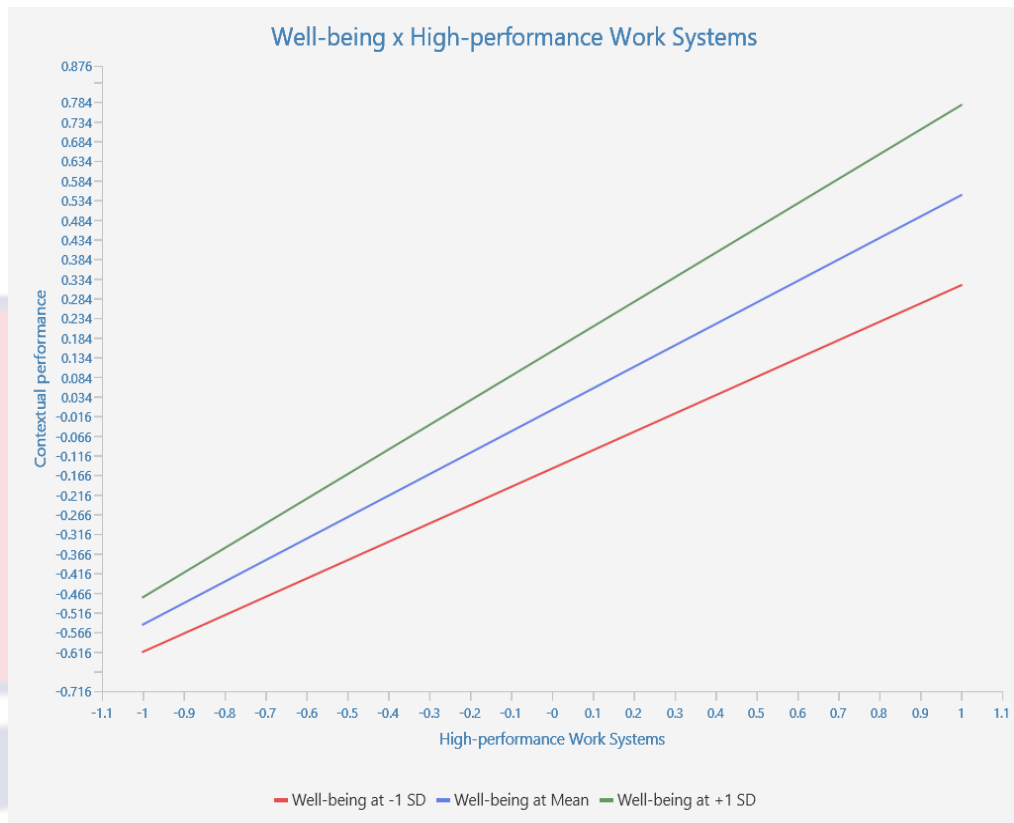


Figure 7: Moderation effect of WB on HPWS and CP link
Source: Field Survey (2023)

From Figure 7, the blue line is the average level WB without the HPWS in the established path. Thus, when there is a one-unit standard deviation in the level of WB, the link between HPWS and CP will be improved by 0.080 (i.e., $0.547 + 0.080 = 0.627$) based on the green line and vice versa (i.e., $0.547 - 0.080 = 0.467$) based on the red line.

Discussion of findings of Objective Four of the study - Well-being and the job performance

The objective four of the study also set out to examine the influence of well-being on job performance. From Table 21, the findings show that well-being has a positive significant effect on contextual performance. Contrary to this result, well-being did not influence task performance. These findings suggest that employees must have sound minds and a conducive work environment to enable them to perform the core activities stipulated in their

job descriptions and carry out other activities outside their main duties. This implies that happier and healthier employees put in more effort, contribute more, and are more productive (Parent-Lamarche et al., 2021).

The findings are consistent with the outcomes of these authors (Gutiérrez et al., 2020; Johari et al., 2019; Kundi et al., 2020; Magnier-Watanabe et al., 2020; Obrenovic et al., 2020), who found that well-being has a significant and positive effect on employees' performance. This can be explained that well-being affects job performance by influencing an individual's cognitive capacities, enabling more creativity and more effective and rapid problem-solving, as a result of the mind being free of stress and negative thinking (Ogbonnaya & Messersmith, 2019). In addition, employees will have more favourable attitudes toward their jobs, which makes them more likely to take on more responsibilities in cooperative and collaborative work environments (Peter Boxall & Macky, 2010).

Discussion of findings of Objective Five of the study - Well-being on the HPWS and job performance

After determining both the measurement and structural models fulfilling the criterion threshold, the research presented the findings for the hypotheses stated under this objective. The objective was to ascertain the moderating role of well-being on the effect of HPWS on job performance. This objective led to the testing of two hypotheses-which stated that well-being will have a positive and significant influence of HPWS on task and contextual performance. From Table 21, the findings showed that well-being did not moderate the effect of HPWS on TP. This led to the rejection of this hypothesis of the study. This outcome may be attributed to the potential

compromise of employees' well-being, stemming from stress, pressure, and burnout commonly associated with mining jobs. This could contribute to employees resorting to less effective work methods. While organisations may have established standards and procedures for job execution, the presence of stress, pressure, and burnout can lead to errors and accidents (Lemonaki et al., 2021).

Such findings support the concerns of those opposed to HPWS, suggesting that while organisations invest in these systems to optimise performance, they may inadvertently increase pressure on employees to exceed limits, thereby compromising well-being (Behravesch et al., 2020). HPWS demands certain expectations from employees, which is enhanced task performance. For an employee to continue to work for an organisation such duties needed to be fulfilled. Further, employees view organisations' investment in the appropriate HPWS as valuing them. This gesture demonstrated by their employers encourages them to fulfil the responsibilities stated in their job description. These findings are very surprising as they disaffirm some evidence in the existing literature about the interconnectedness among HPWS, well-being and TP. Studies on HPWS have shown that well-being on HPWS can increase the task performance of employees (Marescaux et al., 2019), contrary to the no interacting effect of well-being in the HPWS-TP nexus found in this study.

The findings, however, suggest that employees are more sensitive to the various systems in the HPWS. This evidence is not only unique and novel but also brings a new dimension to the JD-R theory. The findings of no interacting role of the well-being of HWPS on TP seem to question the

assumption of the rigid notion of more resources enhancing employees' performance. The findings suggest that employees seem to evaluate the nature of the resources and the consequences of not meeting certain obligations with the contractual agreement rather than focusing on their well-being when executing their task performance. Thus, the theory ignores the fact that employees may consider other factors before trading their source of livelihood for well-being, especially when they find themselves in a country going through economic challenges with constant price increases in goods and services. When unemployment is very high, employees may not focus so much on well-being if they think they can manage.

Further, the findings from Table 21 showed that employees' well-being moderated the the effect of HPWS on CP. These results indicate that as HPWS ensure the proper functioning of employees at work, they also go beyond the duties outlined in the contractual agreement in relation to the employment contract. Employee well-being is explained as mental and physical wellness and a joy-filled working atmosphere provided by the environment employees operate. HPWS that provides these things for employees may strengthen their well-being, and they may view these things as their employer care and value them. Consequently, the study expected that well-being would serve as a boundary condition to enhance their contextual performance. This means that as employees feel safe, have a sound mind and feel happy on the job, they increase their contextual performance. The findings meet the expectation of the study, and therefore, hypothesis 3b of the study is accepted.

Empirically, the significant interacting role of well-being found in this study supports the findings of Khoreva and Wechtler (2018). Khoreva and Wechtler (2018) considered well-being not only a direct precursor to performance but also played a moderating role. Once more, the results seem to corroborate with other related prior research in extant literature (Ho & Kuvaas, 2020; Huettermann & Bruch, 2019; Salas-Vallina et al., 2021). An essential implication of the considerable interactive role of employee well-being in enhancing contextual performance under HPWS is that employee well-being can inhibit increasing contextual performance. Hence, employees not having a conducive environment to perform on the job is a barrier to boosting contextual performance.

These results are similar to Guest's (2017) findings, indicating that investment in HPWS provides employees with the needed skills to obtain the mastery to succeed at work. Hence, skill-enhancing human resource strategies are intended to offer varying forms of knowledge and abilities to employees, as well as aid employees in career growth and promotion opportunities. The skill-enhancing HR practices that foster employee development may aid employees in developing organisation-specific skills and abilities while also obtaining task-related skills and procedural knowledge, thereby equipping them with the socialisation tools necessary for organisational integration. This helps to promote employees' citizenship behaviour demonstrated through their contextual performance.

The findings also support Chen (2017) views that skill-enhancing HR practices like training and development ensure personal-job fit where the required skills and knowledge required to perform a specific job are provided.

Also, it further ensures employees are flexible to adapt to work situations that may confront them. Since multiple skills are acquired through exposure to varying experiences and skill sets. It is argued here that investment in employees to acquire the right competencies to have power over their jobs (required skills and knowledge) will affect their well-being which will make them happy to improve their contextual performance.

Motivational-enhancing HR practices are intended to stimulate employees to work towards the attainment of organisational objectives. Following the views of Kinnie et al. (2006), motivation-enhancing HR practices guide employees' efforts toward the achievement of work objectives and offer employees the stimulus essential to engage in enhanced performance. In applying these HR practices, certain specific objectives are expected to attain by employees with their work, get feedback on specific work outcomes such as tasks or behaviour and receive rewards for contribution to performance (Subramony, 2009). This suggests that motivational-enhancing HR practices project employees of their value to their organisation. This helps employees develop or maintain the required behaviour by communicating organisational expectations about the exact behaviour recommended through an evaluation system, reinforcing the behaviour through a compensation system, and providing feedback to help them develop or maintain the required behaviour (Khoreva & Wechtler, 2018).

As such, empirical evidence established by Franco-Santos and Doherty (2017) showed a positive association between performance appraisal and employee well-being. Following their findings, the authors concluded that performance appraisal enabling practices such as consultation and

communication, adequate resources to complete work, promotion and recognition for outstanding performance, and opportunities to learn all seem to help increase well-being while increasing perceived vitality. Further, Mugizi et al. (2021) also found that compensation management that followed distributive and procedural justices impacted employee well-being.

This indicates that the processes used to reward employees for their contribution at work affect their well-being. Thus sound mind encourages employees to enhance their discretionary efforts for the organisation. Brown et al. (2008) also found that wage levels influenced well-being. They concluded that to understand employees' contentment with remuneration, the distribution process mattered since employees based on their contribution to the organisation and comparison to those who engaged in the same or similar activities around them. This influences their decision to stick to the contractual agreement or go beyond it.

Opportunity-enhancing HR practices provide the stage for competencies accumulated through ability-enhancing HR practices to be utilised to create value. In line with the findings of Jian et al. (2012), opportunity-enhancing HR practices can inspire employees to use their knowledge, skills, and enthusiasm to help the organisation achieve its goals and encourage employees to share knowledge, acquire new skills, and seek out work-related challenges. This advocates that providing employees with opportunities to contribute enables them to have a greater share of responsibility for goal planning, completion of tasks, interpersonal process management (Mathieu et al., 2006) and plans for extra activities. Thus they

factor extra-role activities into their main responsibilities as the HPWS offer proper mental health and ensures their satisfaction on the job.

Further, providing employees with the chance to create value propels them to find creative solutions to problems (Belias et al., 2015; Winch & Addis, 2021), enhance job processes (Agasisti & Shibanova, 2021) and display varying skills in supporting co-workers (Bardon & Borzillo, 2016). In addition, these findings also reflect Malik and Lenka's (2019) research outcomes that opportunity-enhancing HR practices ensure a fit between job requirements and skills by maximising work engagement and empowerment. Conway et al. (2016) indicated that employing opportunity-enhancing HR practices such as employee voice service as a job resource alleviates employee exhaustion which counterbalances demands from the job.

This study's results also confirm that a study conducted by Daniels et al. (2017) who found that job design correlated positively to employee well-being. They indicated that job designs that incorporate interventions that take care of employees' welfare and maximise life satisfaction at work help with subjective well-being, and this type of well-being influence other types of employee well-being. Hence, opportunity-enhancing HR practices that ensure employees' life satisfaction will lead to enhanced employees well-being which sets the pace for indulging in extra-role activities.

The findings extend the traditional assumptions of the JD-R theory. The JD-R theory states that extra-role activities such as contextual performance will increase job demands which may affect employees' well-being (Meijman & Mulder, 1998; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Thus, JD-R assumes that when work demands are high more energy is needed to meet goals and thus need

more resources. The findings from this study have established HPWS enable employees to have the well-being they would need to sustain their contextual performance. The findings imply that if contextual performance puts extra pressure on employees, investment in the proper HPWS will provide enough resources for employees and that will motivate them to invest time in carrying out extra duties to help the organisation to be successful.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presents and discusses the frameworks, the preceding diagnostics, and the findings. The chapter discussed the results of the third objective of the study: HPWS, well-being and task and contextual performance. The outcomes were presented in Tables and Figures. The goodness-of-fit indices of all the models were reported and discussed. The measurement models were all evaluated, including the structural models. The study revealed that well-being had a positive and significant interaction between HPWS and contextual performance. However, well-being did not moderate the relationship between HPWS and task performance. In this chapter, the theoretical implications of all of the findings were discussed, as well as how they fit within the empirical research. The next chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter contains the final part of the thesis. The study assessed the effect of HPWS on job performance in the mining industry in Ghana and moderated with supervisor support and well-being. The chapter consists of a summary of the key findings, conclusion and recommendations stemming from the study. This chapter also presents a significant contribution to knowledge, limitations, and suggestions for further research.

Summary of the Study

The study examined the effect of HPWS on job performance and the moderating role of supervisor support and well-being. The HPWS was measured using rigorous recruitment and selection, training, performance appraisal, compensation, job design and employee voice. These practices were categorised into ability-enhancing HR practices, motivation-enhancing HR practices and opportunity-enhancing HR practices. The ability-enhancing HR practices in this study were measured by employing rigorous recruitment selection and training. The motivation-enhancing HR practices were measured by utilising performance appraisal and compensation. The opportunity-enhancing HR practices were measured using job design and employee voice.

The assumption here is that when these HR practices are brought together, they form systems with synergy to elicit superior performance. Since employees are not exposed to single practices, however, they interact with several HR practices at the workplace. The study used mine workers as the unit of analysis. The study was conceived on the premise that notwithstanding the vital role of HR practices in eliciting superior job performance, achieving

superior job performance is a challenge for these mining companies. These challenges are reflected in employees utilising poor work methods yielding errors causing injuries and leading to lost time. Even though the standard may be available when people are under pressure to deliver errors are likely to be committed. The thesis was structured through five objectives.

The study analysed the influence of HPWS on job performance, examined the effect of supervisor support on job performance, determined the effect of well-being on job performance, evaluated the interacting effect of supervisor support on HPWS and job performance and analysed the interacting influence of well-being on HPWS and employees' performance. This study used quantitative analytic tools and a survey design. This study adheres to the post-positivist research paradigm and philosophy. The study population was the employees in the mining industry of Ghana. Primary data was the main data source used for the study. The data were collected through a self-administered questionnaire. The data were gathered within a period of six weeks which commenced on June 14 to July 31 2022.

A multi-stage sampling technique using stratified random sampling to put the sample into a homogeneous unit, and 428 were selected. Four hundred and twenty-eight questionnaires were administered and received and coded. The investigation was conducted using partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). The entire dataset was coded into SPSS and transported into PL-SEM for analysis. The data were subjected to diagnostic analysis, including descriptive statistics and frequency distributions, evaluation of measurement models, evaluation of structural models, and multiple regression. Using the Likert scale, important observed factors were

measured. The observed variables corresponded precisely to their corresponding latent variables. These hypotheses guided the study.

Hypotheses of Objective One

H1_a: Ability-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on task performance

H1_b: Ability-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on contextual performance

H1_c: There is a significant positive effect of motivation-enhancing HR practices on task performance

H1_d: There is a significant effect of motivation-enhancing HR practices on contextual performance

H1_e: opportunity-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on task performance

H1_f: opportunity-enhancing HR practices have a significant positive effect on contextual performance

Hypotheses of Objective Two

H1_a: supervisor support has a significant positive effect on task performance

H1_c: supervisor support has a significant positive influence on contextual performance

Hypotheses of Objective Three

H1_a: supervisor support has a positive significant interacting effect on HPWS and task performance

H1_b: supervisor support has a positive significant interacting effect on HPWS and contextual performance

Hypotheses of Objective Four

H1_a: Well-being has a significant positive effect on task performance

H1_b: Well-being has a significant positive influence on contextual performance

Hypotheses of Objective Five

H1_a: well-being has a positive significant interacting influence on HPWS and task performance

H1_b: well-being has a positive significant interacting influence on HPWS and contextual performance

Summary of Key Findings

The key findings of this research are as follows.

- The findings of the study showed that HPWS had a positive and significant influence on task and contextual performance.
- It also revealed that ability-enhancing HR practices had a positive and significant effect on task and contextual performance.
- The results indicated that motivation-enhancing HR practices had a positive and significant effect on task and contextual performance.
- In addition, opportunity-enhancing HR practices had a positive and significant influence on task and contextual performance.
- The findings of objective two of the study showed that supervisor support had a positive and significant effect on contextual performance.
- However, supervisor support did not have a significant effect on task performance.

- The results from objective three of the study also established that the effect of HPWS on contextual performance was moderated by supervisor support.
- Conversely, supervisor support did not moderate HPWS and task performance.
- The findings of objective four revealed that well-being has a significant and positive influence on contextual performance.
- On the other hand, well-being had no significant influence on task performance.
- The findings from objective five of the study showed that well-being interacted with the influence of HPWS on contextual performance.
- On the other hand, well-being did not interact with the effect of HPWS on task performance.

Conclusions

The research draws conclusions from each of the objectives based on its major results. As such, the conclusions are outlined based on the specific objectives of this study. The study adds to the body of HRM literature by showing that HPWS can have different effects depending on the specific aspects of employee performance.

- The findings from the first objective indicated that ability-enhancing HR practices have a positive and significant effect on task performance. It was further found that ability-enhancing HR practices have a positive and significant effect on contextual performance. It was also established that motivation-enhancing HR practices had a positive and significant influence on task performance. Moreover, motivation-enhancing HR

practices have a positive and significant influence on contextual performance.

- Finally, it revealed that opportunity-enhancing HR practices have a positive and significant effect on task performance. Opportunity-enhancing HR practices were found to have a positive influence on contextual performance. It is, therefore, concluded that all the dimensions of HPWS have a positive effect on job performance (i.e. both task and contextual performance). The current understanding from the results of this study offers that the dimensions of HPWS can elicit different performance responses from employees.
- The second objective concentrated on the effect of supervisor support on task and contextual performance. The findings show that supervisor support has a positive and significant effect on contextual performance and not task performance. The understanding here is that supervisors have the power to determine employees' discretionary behaviour. Thus with the right support and care employees will go the extra mile for their employers.
- Concerning the third objective of the study, the focus was to assess the moderating role of supervisor support in the relationship between HPWS and job performance. The outcomes established that supervisor support interacted with HPWS and contextual performance nexus. On the other hand, supervisor support did not interact with HPWS and task performance. It is, therefore, concluded that employees are likely to exercise discretionary efforts if supervisors are more deliberate with the HR practices of the organisation.

- Thus, supervisors must be made to take centre stage in the implementation of the various HR practices. That is, supervisors should be made to understand HR practices through direct involvement in formulating these HR practices since they work directly with employees. This will aid in projecting employees' views to management and assist with framing HR practices that instigate the full buy-ins of employees to not only focus on just the job description but rather pay attention to other activities that will require their assistance to be completed.
- Lessons can be drawn from the results of objective four that well-being has a positive and significant effect on task and contextual performance. With well-being having a positive and significant effect on contextual performance not on task performance, it can be concluded that peace of mind and a positive environment emanating from the workplace can influence employees to do more than what is agreed in the contract of employment.
- It can be concluded from the findings of the fifth objective that HPWS and contextual performance moderated by well-being will promote more discretionary efforts at the workplace. It can be said that employees who have a sound mind offered by the various HR practices are likely to spend less time on the job description and have some time for other organisational activities. This is because a sound mind increases one's concentration on the job and can deliver within a short time than a wandering mind. A further conclusion is that the well-being of employees ensures happiness that propels going the extra mile for the organisation.

Implication and Contribution to Knowledge

This study contributes to theory by adopting an integrated theory perspective in the study of HPWS and job performance relationship, thus, the researcher developed a conceptual model that integrates four relevant theories, namely, AMO theory, systems theory, social exchange and job demand-resource theory. This is in response to calls in the literature for the need to adopt a new integrated approach to explain the process through which HPWS translate into enhancing job performance (Bowen & Ostrof, 2004; Lopez-Cotarelo, 2018). Also, the results of this research have provided the present knowledge that HPWS and job performance have several dimensions, and each dimension is likely to evoke distinct reactions and display diverse effects.

This research has contributed to the AMO theory. The strong positive relationship between the dimensions of HPWS (ability-enhancing, motivation-enhancing and opportunity-enhancing HR practices) and the components of job performance (contextual and task performance) covers the consequences of AMO theory to HPWS-performance dynamics. The AMO theory suggests that HR practices offer employees skills, motivation and opportunities to enhance performance. Thus, the evidence of the positive HPWS-job performance nexus found in this study affirms the assumptions of AMO theory. HPWS could be considered a potential resource in the employment contract and consequently influence employees' performance.

The study further confirms the assumptions of the social exchange theory as indicated by the strong positive relationship between HWPS systems and job performance. The theory suggests that as HR practices instigate employees' motivation, they work toward achieving organisational objectives,

which are realised through job performance. The evidence indicates that as organisation meet their part of the bargain, employees also reciprocate by enhancing their job performance by increasing both task and contextual performance. That is meeting the actual responsibilities agreed on in the employment contract and performing extra activities for the organisation.

The results of the study, in addition, contribute to the JD-R theory. The positive interacting effect of supervisor support and well-being on HPWS and contextual performance indicates that supervisor support and well-being serve us with additional resources that can enhance performance congruent with JD-R theory which advocates more resources to influence performance. Therefore, the corroboration from the analysis indicates that supervisor support and well-being define the extent employees contribute to other performance, such as discretionary activities other than the agreed responsibilities outlined in the employment contract. The findings imply that supervisor support and well-being improve discretionary behaviour.

Similarly, the findings also contribute to the general systems theory. The moderating role of the supervisor's support and well-being on HPWS and contextual performance shows that the HPWS of the firm operates as an open system that is influenced by other resources to achieve its maximum efficiency in achieving some specific employee outcomes such as contextual performance. The evidence, therefore, suggests that supervisor support and employees' well-being significantly define employees' responses to some particular workplace performance. The results indicate that supervisors' involvement in formulating and implementing HPWS complements its

effectiveness by increasing employees' level of understanding of the HR practices and responding to them to achieve high performance.

The outcomes of this research provide preliminary evidence to support the function of supervisor assistance as an increasing component in building a high-performance culture. The findings imply that even if HPWS is reported as different systems such as ability-enhancing HR practices, motivation-enhancing HR practices and opportunity-enhancing HR practices, policymakers and HR practitioners are still likely to achieve enhanced job performance if HR policy intervention integrates the role of supervisor support. Supervisors acting as intermediaries by explaining the organisation's HR policies to employees and implementing these HR practices tend to demonstrate to employees that their employer cares for them. This gesture creates a positive perception of the employer to employees, which propels them to reciprocate by enhancing their contextual performance.

However, supervisor support was found not to moderate the HPWS-task performance relationship. The implication is that regarding the task performance of employees, employees who have more experience often have higher levels of self-confidence, which may lead to increased levels of autonomy and a reduced reliance on supervisors for guidance. As such, the idea that more resources can aid with enhancing performance may not work in certain performance outcomes. The findings further support the concept that job performance should be seen as a multidimensional construct (task and contextual) rather than a single construct as a result of the variations in the interactive function of supervisor assistance in task and contextual performance. Since each dimension may need a distinct policy structure and

administration, as well as eliciting a different employee reaction as to what they stand to earn, particularly if contextual performance is rewarded independently from task performance. Consequently, the insignificance of the interacting role of supervisor support and task performance provides additional evidence that the operationalisation of job performance and its components should be regarded as crucial drivers of performance research and policy.

Evidence on job performance determinants is provided by this research's results, which show how HPWS, supervisor support, and well-being are linked to task and contextual performance in a systematic way that reverberates in the analytical attention. The research results may serve as the foundation for a policy shift prioritising employee happiness and health at work. This research may give the evidence needed to consider contextual performance in the design of employee performance policies. The results of the study also lend credence to the idea that HPWS policies might benefit from formalised supervisor assistance in formulating and implementing these policies. Based on the results of this research, it is clear that including well-being in empirical analyses can help us better understand the connection between employee health, happiness and a conducive environment and performance and provide a solid foundation for incorporating health, happiness and a conducive environment into performance to inspire higher levels of contextual performance. That is bettering workers' voluntary efforts.

Recommendations

This research investigated the interrelationships between HPWS, supervisor support, well-being, and job performance to add to the literature on the dynamics of job performance antecedents. This research provides several

recommendations for management practice in the mining industry that senior managers may adopt to improve employees' job performance and, as a result, maximise organisational performance. The results imply that each of the HR dimensions' practices has the potential to influence employees' ability to do their jobs. After presenting the essential results and pertinent conclusions, it is appropriate to give suggestions for addressing the difficulties identified. The study made the following recommendations:

The findings of the analysis indicate that ability-enhancing HR practices help people perform better in both task and contextual performance. Therefore, it is recommended that HR practitioners must ensure that the organisation's ability-enhancing HR practices include recruitment, selection training and development. HR practitioners must ensure that recruitment strategies attract suitable job candidates and that potential employees are chosen based on merit, as espoused by the AMO theory. As such, several avenues must be employed when seeking potential people who can work for the organisation. This indicates that HR managers in mining companies should be very deliberate about recruiting to attract potential candidates in the right number to make selection easy.

The recruitment process must ensure that people have an equal opportunity to apply for a position. Concerning rigorous recruitment practices, HR managers must attract candidates from internal and external labour markets. The internal labour market must utilise progressive internal career development, succession planning, nominations based on performance, skill banks and skill tracking systems, job posting and inside moonlighting. The external labour market can utilise sources such as internships, former

employees, employer websites, educational institutions, advertising, etc. These mining companies can employ recruitment and management software to provide competency profiles to screen and help identify potential candidates.

The HR practitioners must ensure that the selection of candidates to occupy positions must comprise all techniques that enable suitable candidates to be chosen. The HR managers can use electronic pre-employment screening systems to provide an automated way to manage the entire recruiting process, from receiving applications to hiring employees. The applicant tracking system (ATS) scans the candidate documents for keywords, aligning candidate qualifications with the job requirements, saving time and improving screening efficiency. Rigorous and careful selection ensures that candidates selected share similar characteristics with the organisation's goals and fit the job. Selection practices such as different interview methods (structure, unstructured, behavioural, stress, group, competency-based), assessment methods (aptitude test, personality test, abilities test, honesty test, motivation test, cultural fit test, Psychomotor test, assessment centres and more) and background and reference checks to choose the best candidates.

HR managers should provide employees with high-quality training programmes designed to increase their knowledge, experience, skills and practical expertise in the workplace since workers in the mining will need to keep their skills up to date as technological progress continues. The training should be continuous, providing experiences that make employees more efficient in operating on the task given and getting the time to perform extra activities for the organisation. The learning offered to employees in the mining industry must constitute three clusters of experience: challenging assignments,

developmental relationships, course work and training. Mining companies can institute training practices such as case studies, role play, structured exercises, simulations, fishbowl activities, sensitivity training and others to enhance employees' KSA. Another area of training that HR managers in this industry must organise for employees is in the area of technology. For the mining industry to remain competitive requires modernising the workplace through mechanisation (Gumede, 2018). This requires substituting manual tasks performed by people with machines. As such, training in technology should be offered to employees to be more effective on the job and be able to use these advanced technologies. This will assist them in becoming more technologically experienced.

The study revealed that motivation-enhancing HR practices have a significant and positive relationship with task and contextual performance. This suggests that motivation-enhancing HR practices induce employees to maximise job performance. It is, therefore, recommended that the HR managers of the mining industry ensure that motivation-enhancing HR practices are comprised of performance appraisals and compensation. The performance appraisal practices of these mining companies should include objective results, quantity and quality output, emphasise employee learning, focus on the contribution of strategic objectives, developmental feedback and take input from multiple sources (360-degree method). The HR managers should ensure that compensation practices provide salaries that have equity with peers, pay is linked to performance, individual incentives, extensive benefits packages, employee stock ownership programme, and premium on industry experience are included in the whole compensation plan.

The study revealed that opportunity-enhancing HR practices positively and significantly affected task and contextual performance. It is therefore suggested that HR managers must ensure that practices that empower employees are essential in improving employees' performance are instituted. For that matter, opportunity-enhancing HR practices should include job design and employee voice. HR managers in the mining industry should be intentional about how jobs are designed. The changing world of work requires that people be faster, smarter, better and cheaper, which is defined by technology. The job design must ensure flexibility, up-skill workers (job enrichment, lowering supervision, job enlargement etc.) and provide emotional intelligence (emotional management, emotional demands and emotional skills). Issues concerning employees' voice, HR managers must institute systems that allow employees to participate in decisions regarding the improvement of jobs in their department and organisation as a whole, quality and productivity. This can be achieved through practices such as suggestion schemes, quality circles, self-managed teams, upward problem-solving groups and attitude surveys (Dundon et al., 2004).

It was evident from the investigation that supervisor support enhances the contextual performance of employees. It is recommended that HR managers should develop and actively give supervisors the upper hand in implementing HR practices. This study suggests that HR managers can implement several initiatives to foster supervisors' involvement in effectively formulating and implementing HR practices. HR managers can offer HR training on HR practices and supporting materials to guide them in implementing these practices. HR managers should encourage an environment

that is conducive to implementation, one in which supervisors are given the authority to implement HR practices activities. Some potential routes include having supervisors help frame HR practices in appealing ways before rollout, having them help create, refine, and pre-test practices, and publicly applauding supervisors for successful implementation (Trullen et al., 2016).

It was also evident from the findings that well-being plays a significant role in enhancing performance. Therefore, this study suggests that organisations can reap significant but disparate benefits from investing in various aspects of HR practices that enhance employees' well-being. Accordingly, it is advocated that HR managers must ensure that organisations invest heavily in accurate and fair compensation and the provision of meaningful and stimulating tasks to enhance the mental health of their staff and encourage them to stay on the job. Therefore, organisations should prioritise practices like training and development and give employees a say in decision-making by encouraging them to share their perspectives and improve the working environment through employee participation.

Limitation of the Study

1. This study focused on six HR practices (Recruitment and selection, compensation, performance appraisal, training, employee voice and job design) to form HPWS. A systematic review conducted by Boon et al. (2019) revealed over 500 HR practices.
2. The study gathered samples from three mining companies in Ghana, however, comparative analysis across the data from the organisation types was not undertaken.

3. The data was not disaggregated to reflect the dynamics in the study population.
4. The research design was cross-sectional, capturing a snapshot of data at a specific time, which limits the ability to assess changes over time.

Suggestions for Future Research

The following suggestions may be useful for future studies on research HPWS and job performance in Ghana.

1. Future studies should use other HR practices such as employment security, self-managed teams, information sharing, reduced status distinctions, job enrichment, participation and others and test them in the mining industry in relation to job performance.
2. Future studies should gather samples from the other mining companies and do a comparative analysis across the data in the mining organisations.
3. Future studies can consider disaggregating the data to reflect the varied departments that are found within the departments of the selected mining companies
4. Future studies should employ longitudinal designs to assess changes over time

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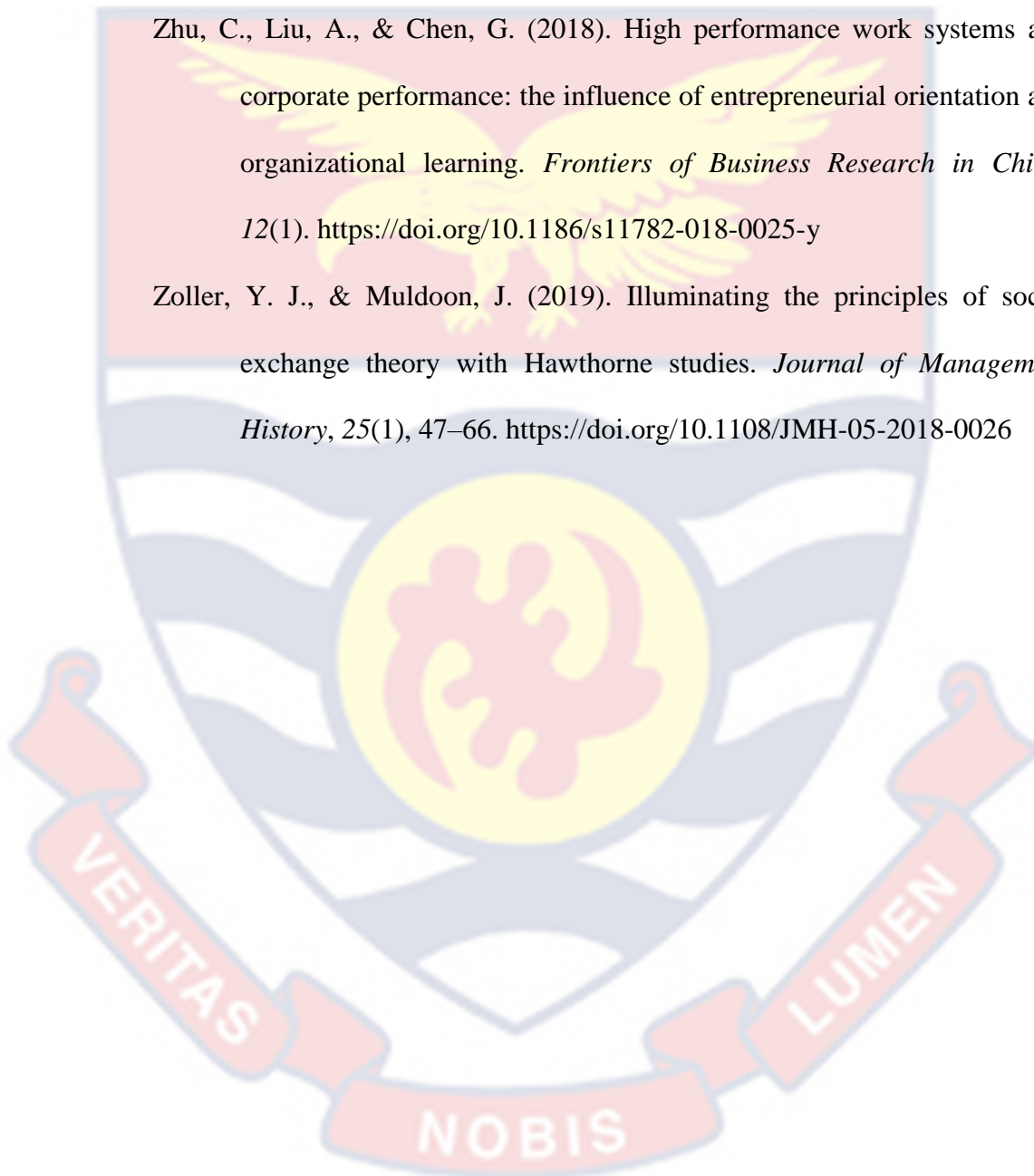
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

**Research Instrument****Questionnaire on high-performance work systems and job performance:
The Moderating Role of Supervisor Support and Well-being in the mining
industry**

Dear Sir/Madam,

This research seeks to gather data on human resource practices in your organisation and how these practices impact your job performance. Please, you are invited to participate in this study because your company considers you a key employee that can help gather the data needed. Participation in this study is voluntary, meaning you can withdraw at any time. Please remember that your responses will be kept confidential, so do not include your name or address on the questionnaire. The study findings will be used for academic objectives and guide practice. Thank you.

I have read and understood the aim of the survey, and I participated in this study of my free will. Please tick either yes or no.

Yes No

Contact: Patricia Muah

0249404759

Section A: Personal Information

This section of the questionnaire gathers some demographic information about you:

1. What is your age group?

Under 30 30-40 41-50 51-60 60+

2. What is your gender?

Male Female

3. What is your marital status? Single Married Divorced

Separated Living with a partner

4. How long have you been employed in this organisation?

Less than 2 years 2-7 years 8-13 years 14-19 years

More than 19 years

5. What is the highest level of education you have attained? Senior High

Diploma Bachelor's degree Masters Professional certificate

Section B

Human Resource Management Policies and Practices

These questions ask for information on the human resource practices in your organisation. Please indicate your level of agreement by circling the following statements, where: *1= least agreement, 2= slight agreement, 3= moderate agreement, 4= agree, and 5= strong agreement.*

| | Statements | Strong agreement | | | | Least agreement |
|-----|---|------------------|---|---|---|-----------------|
| 1. | Employees perform jobs that allow them to routinely make changes in the way they perform their task | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. | Jobs are designed around individual skills | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. | Jobs performed are standardised throughout the industry | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. | My job empowers me to make decisions | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5. | My job includes a wide variety of tasks | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6. | Recruitment/selection uses many different recruiting sources (graphic, social media,) | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. | Selection is comprehensive (uses interviews, tests, etc.) | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. | The recruitment/selection process for employees assesses industry knowledge and experience | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. | The recruitment/selection process emphasises promotion from within | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. | The selection focuses on selecting the best all-around candidate, regardless of the specific job | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 11. | Training is continuous | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 12. | Training programmes are comprehensive | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

| | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13. | Training programs strive to develop firm-specific skills and knowledge | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 14. | The training programs emphasise on-the-job experiences | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 15. | Performance is based on objective, quantifiable results | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 16. | Performance appraisals for employees are based on input from multiple sources (peers, subordinates, supervisors etc. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 17. | Performance appraisal assesses compliance with preset behaviour and organisational values | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 18. | Incentives are based on team performance. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 19. | Compensation packages include an extensive benefits package | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 20. | Our compensations include high wages | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 21. | The incentive system is tied to skill-based pay | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 22. | I speak up and encourage others in my work unit to get involved in issues that affect our work | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 23. | I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in my works unit, even if their opinions are different and they disagree with me. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 24. | I get involved in issues that affect the quality of life in my department | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 25. | I am encouraged to and do speak up to my supervisors with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures at work | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Section C: Job Performance

These questions ask for information about your job. Please indicate your level of agreement to the following statements by circling the appropriate number where: *1= least agreement, 2= slight agreement, 3= moderate agreement, 4= agree, and 5= strong agreement.*

| | Statement | Strong agreement | | | | Least agreement |
|-----|--|------------------|---|---|---|-----------------|
| | Job performance | | | | | |
| 1. | I adequately complete assigned duties | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. | I fulfil the responsibilities specified in my job description | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. | I perform tasks that are expected of me | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. | I meet the formal performance requirements of the job | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5. | I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6. | I help others who have been absent | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. | I help others who have heavy workloads | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. | I assist my supervisor with his/her work when not asked | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 10. | I take time to listen to my co-workers' problems and worries | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 11. | I go out of my own way to help new employees | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Section D

Supervisor Support

These questions inquire about information on the support you receive from your supervisor. Please read the statements carefully and indicate your level of agreement, where: *1= least agreement, 2= slight agreement, 3= moderate agreement, 4= agree, and 5= strong agreement.*

| | Statement | Strong agreement | | | | Least agreement |
|----|--|------------------|---|---|---|-----------------|
| 1. | My supervisor is willing to listen to my work-related problems | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. | Help is available from my supervisor when I have a problem | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. | My supervisor really cares about my well-being | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. | My supervisor shows a lot of concern for my personal life | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 5. | My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 6. | My supervisor appreciates the extra effort from me | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 7. | My supervisor explains the HR policies of the organisation to me | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 8. | My supervisor coaches me in the areas of my job where I lack the skill | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 9. | My supervisor keeps me abreast with information on vacant positions and encourages me to apply | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Section E

Employee well-being

These questions ask about your well-being at work. Please indicate your level of agreement by circling the suitable number where: *1= least agreement, 2= slight agreement, 3= moderate agreement, 4= agree, and 5= strong agreement.*

| | Statement | Strong agreement | | | | Least agreement |
|----|-----------------------------------|------------------|---|---|---|-----------------|
| 1. | I am quite satisfied with my job. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 2. | I enjoy meaningful work | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 3. | I attach high value to my work. | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| 4. | My workplace is very conducive | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |





APPENDIX C

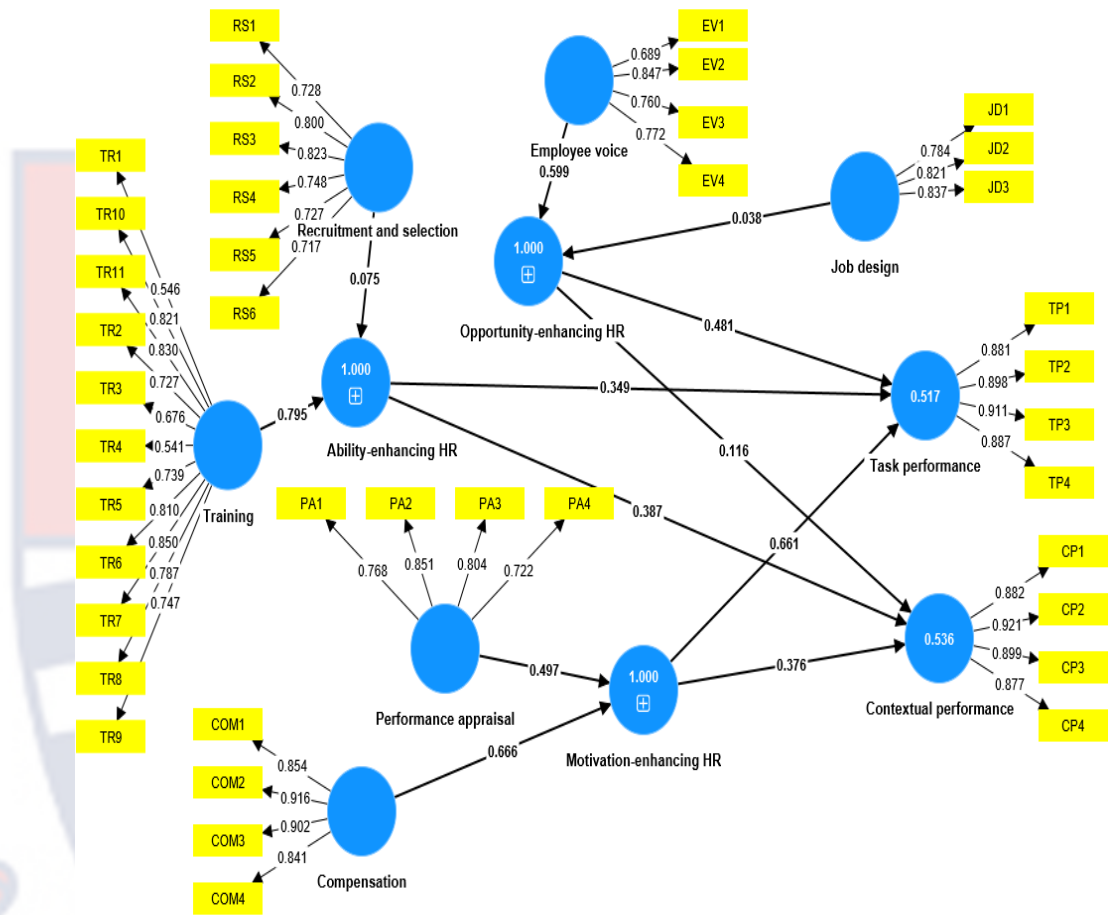
KREJCIE AND MORGAN SAMPLE SIZE DETERMINATION TABLE

| <i>N</i> | <i>S</i> | <i>N</i> | <i>S</i> | <i>N</i> | <i>S</i> |
|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 10 | 10 | 220 | 140 | 1200 | 291 |
| 15 | 14 | 230 | 144 | 1300 | 297 |
| 20 | 19 | 240 | 148 | 1400 | 302 |
| 25 | 24 | 250 | 152 | 1500 | 306 |
| 30 | 28 | 260 | 155 | 1600 | 310 |
| 35 | 32 | 270 | 159 | 1700 | 313 |
| 40 | 36 | 280 | 162 | 1800 | 317 |
| 45 | 40 | 290 | 165 | 1900 | 320 |
| 50 | 44 | 300 | 169 | 2000 | 322 |
| 55 | 48 | 320 | 175 | 2200 | 327 |
| 60 | 52 | 340 | 181 | 2400 | 331 |
| 65 | 56 | 360 | 186 | 2600 | 335 |
| 70 | 59 | 380 | 191 | 2800 | 338 |
| 75 | 63 | 400 | 196 | 3000 | 341 |
| 80 | 66 | 420 | 201 | 3500 | 346 |
| 85 | 70 | 440 | 205 | 4000 | 351 |
| 90 | 73 | 460 | 210 | 4500 | 354 |
| 95 | 76 | 480 | 214 | 5000 | 357 |
| 100 | 80 | 500 | 217 | 6000 | 361 |
| 110 | 86 | 550 | 226 | 7000 | 364 |
| 120 | 92 | 600 | 234 | 8000 | 367 |
| 130 | 97 | 650 | 242 | 9000 | 368 |
| 140 | 103 | 700 | 248 | 10000 | 370 |
| 150 | 108 | 750 | 254 | 15000 | 375 |
| 160 | 113 | 800 | 260 | 20000 | 377 |
| 170 | 118 | 850 | 265 | 30000 | 379 |
| 180 | 123 | 900 | 269 | 40000 | 380 |
| 190 | 127 | 950 | 274 | 50000 | 381 |
| 200 | 132 | 1000 | 278 | 75000 | 382 |
| 210 | 136 | 1100 | 285 | 100000 | 384 |

Note.—*N* is population size.
S is sample size.

APPENDIX D

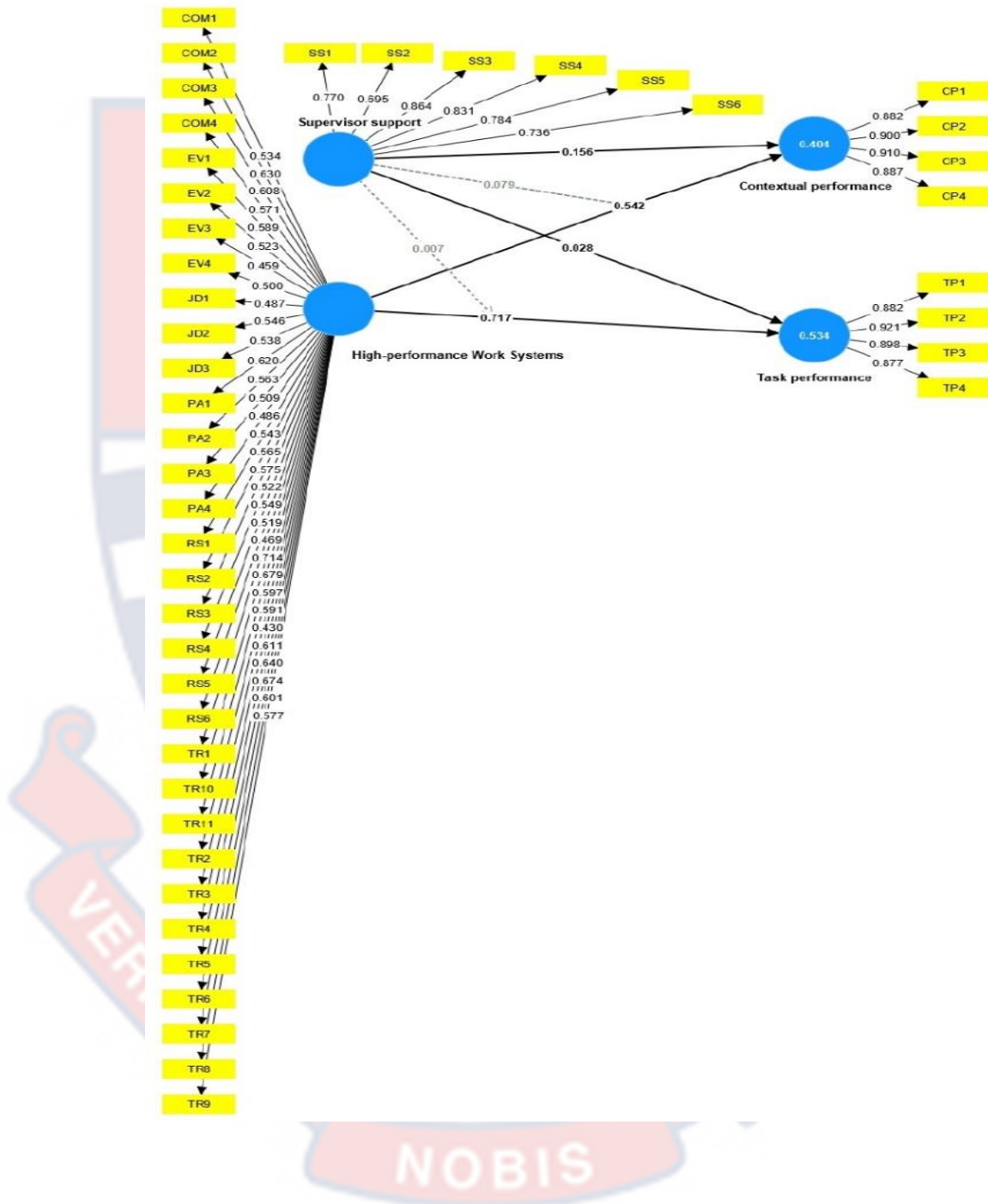
MODEL 1 -OBJECTIVE ONE



Detailed Figure 2: Final PLS-SEM model extracted

APPENDIX E

MODEL 2- OBJECTIVE TWO



APPENDIX F

MODEL 3 – OBJECTIVE THREE

