



**DIVERSITY-ORIENTED HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
PRACTICES AND ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR
OF STAFF OF TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA: A JUSTICE
AND HAPPINESS PERSPECTIVE**

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DECLARATION

I, EDEM KODZO HONU, student number #####, declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for the degree of PhD in Management Sciences (Business Management) is my independent work. It complies with all relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State. It has not been previously submitted to any institution, by me or any other person, in fulfilment or partial fulfilment of the requirements for attaining any qualification.

Signature

24/05/2024

Date

ABSTRACT

Though organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and diversity-oriented human resource management practices (DOHRMP) have received some scholarly attention, there is still a consensus that the outcomes of the studies on diversity management are inconclusive. This is due to mixed research results and an unsettled empirical link between diversity, diversity management and employee and other organisational outcomes. Therefore, the objective of this research is to empirically examine how DOHRMP affect employee attitudes such as OCB, organisational justice perception (OJP) and employee happiness within the tertiary educational sector in Ghana. Based on the social exchange and organisational justice perception theories, a model was developed linking these variables. The study made use of a data set of three hundred and ninety-four (394) respondents from twenty-seven (27) Universities. The data were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Version 23 (IBM-SPSS) and later exported into Amos Version 21 of Structural Equation Modelling software. Using the Andrews-Hayes Process model for mediation and moderation analysis, the hypothesised relationships were tested for confirmation or otherwise using estimates from the analyses. The first objective revealed that DOHRMP significantly influenced OCB. The second and third objectives showed that DOHRMP significantly influenced OJP and that DOHRMP significantly positively affects employee happiness at work respectively. While the fourth objective revealed that OJP significantly influenced OCB, the fifth and sixth objectives indicated that OJP significantly influenced employee happiness at work and employee happiness significantly influenced OCB respectively. The study further examined the mediating role of employee happiness at work and found that happiness at work partially mediates the relationship between DOHRMP and OCB on the one hand and the relationship between DOHRMP and OJP on the other hand. It was however found that happiness at work fully mediates the relationship between OJP and OCB. This study contributes to enriching the literature by enhancing understanding of the essential mechanisms through which DOHRMP, OJP and employee happiness influence OCB of employees in tertiary educational institutions in Ghana.

Keywords: Diversity-oriented human resource management practices, diversity



management, organisational justice perception, organisational citizenship
behaviour, social exchange theory, organisational justice perception



DEDICATION

To my wife and children, my mother and friends who supported, assisted and encouraged me during my PhD studies.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Generally, the concern of this study is the effective management of organisations so that organisational work can be done effectively and efficiently. In today's globalised and interconnected world, diversity in the workplace has gained critical attention (Coe & Yeung, 2015; Kirton & Greene, 2015). Tertiary institutions, especially those in Ghana, are no exception to the importance of embracing diversity in their human resource management practices (Andoh et al., 2019). The pursuit of diversity in the academic sector is driven by the recognition that diverse perspectives, backgrounds and experiences contribute to improved problem-solving, creativity and innovation which are crucial for the effectiveness and growth of educational institutions (Swartz et al., 2019; Andoh et al., 2019). In the context of tertiary institutions in Ghana, this study aims to investigate the relationship between diversity-oriented human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviour among staff within the perspectives of organisational justice and happiness.

This Chapter provides detailed information on the problem background and statement, research hypotheses and objectives, summary of the research process and methodology and how the thesis was organised.

1.2 PROBLEM BACKGROUND

While the concept of OCB and how to bring it about remains a lingering question for quite a while, a more contemporary issue that managers must also grapple with simultaneously is workforce diversity. Diversity management is a managerially launched programme and human resource management (HRM) practice which seeks to empower a varied workforce by integrating various social groups (Fujimoto, Hartel, & Azmat, 2013). However, according to research, workplace diversity has benefits and drawbacks for businesses (Davis, Frolova, & Callahan, 2016; Choi & Rainey, 2014; Dike, 2013). This emphasises the necessity of efficient diversity management to profit from it.

For the experts, workforce diversity is thought to have a variety of advantages, such as (i) increased competitive advantage, greater corporate success, and increased employee loyalty and happiness (Davis, Frolova & Callahan, 2016; Ali, Chua & Lim, 2015; Yilmaz, 2015); (ii) increased creativity and openness at the workplace (Dike, 2013); (iii) employee satisfaction (Choi & Rainey, 2014); and (iv) employees performing their duties excellently (Kundu, Kumar & Gahlawat, 2018; Ahmad, Farrukh & Nazir, 2015). Therefore, managing employee diversity effectively is believed to be essential to achieving organisational goals (De Waal & Oudshoorn, 2015). Due to this factor, organisations now prioritise managing diversity in the workforce as a strategic priority and increasing their spending in both areas (Kundu & Mor, 2016).

Despite the seemingly overwhelming promise, Choi and Rainey (2014) suggest a lack of consensus in the literature. They indicated that “despite the hopeful views, there is still little agreement among researchers studying diversity management regarding the benefits it might have in different organisational contexts” (Choi & Rainey, 2014:310). The challenge, therefore, becomes how to manage a diverse workforce efficiently in various circumstances to achieve organisational goals (Dike, 2013). To accomplish this, Choi and Rainey (2014) cite Kellough and Naff’s (2004) work and propose that effective ways of managing diversity include executive accountability, equal numbers of diverse employees, instruction, guidance, and mutual ideals amongst staff, clients, and groups can all be efficient methods of managing diversity.

However, some studies indicated that the same workplace diversity has adverse employee behavioural effects, such as lower employee commitment and retention (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Choi & Rainey, 2014). Some of these divergent opinions on how diversity affects employee behaviour include Sabharwal (2014), who stated that policies, practices, and initiatives of diversity management that promote employee performance could have negative impacts when not managed appropriately, contrary to the belief of some (Patrick & Kumar, 2012) that diversity enhances employee behaviour. Therefore, organisations must establish/ensure workplaces where fairness and justice-based diversity management techniques are

the norms to fully realise the potential of workforce diversity (Fujimoto et al., 2013). However, this claim of the connection between organisational justice and diversity management has not been tested, except for a few research (Choi & Rainey, 2014).

Since diversity management is a people or human resource management activity (Fujimoto et al., 2013), this study focuses on diversity-oriented human resource management practices (DOHRMP). Accordingly, in line with Dzansi and Dzansi (2010), this work asserts that employees' perception of organisational fairness is based on the available diversity-focused practices in human resource management. According to Dzansi and Dzansi (2010), justice and fairness are essential values in HRM. Therefore, unfair HRM practices may make workers develop unfavourable impressions of their organisation with detrimental consequences for OCB. Therefore, following Dzansi and Dzansi (2010), it is postulated in this study that any unfairness (whether real or perceived) in DOHRMP of staff of universities could lead to the formation of negative organisational justice perception (OJP) with detrimental consequences to the university concerned.

One significant consequence of OJP is employee happiness (EHAP). Recently, academics have focused on the effects of employee happiness on productivity and organisational success (Zavvareh & Samangooei, 2013; Pillay, 2012). For instance, it has been discovered that happiness promotes pro-social and acceptable behaviours, OCB, high performance, loyalty, and lower rates of turnover (Zavvareh & Samangooei, 2013; Cui, Davis & Huang, 2016); good social skills secure consensus in inter-conflict situations, and OCB (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Guerrero, 2018). Salas-Vallina et al. (2018) stated unequivocally that there is proof that EHAP has a major impact on the emergence of positive OCB. This viewpoint supports Pillay's (2012) assertion that contented workers go above and beyond the call of duty. EHAP encourages OCB (Yu et al., 2018; Ribeiro, Duarte, & Filipe, 2018).

Based on the brief discussion so far, there is strong evidence that diversity management is a managerially-initiated human resource management intervention that aims to make every single worker among the diverse workers more fulfilled and accepted by integrating different classes of groups or demographics with the

understanding that there would be fairness in every DOHRMP that seek to empower everyone, unhindered by group demographics (Fujimoto et al., 2013). It is also evident that OCB remains influential research agenda (Dharma, 2018; Yilmaz, 2015; Frederick, 2014); and DOHRMP is an imperative concept, and how to effectively manage it remains elusive (Kundu, Kumar & Gahlawat, 2018; Ahmad, Farrukh & Nazir, 2015; D'Netto et al., 2014; Dike, 2013).

Now, since OJP is important in DOHRMP (Fujimoto et al., 2013) because OJP impacts on employee OCB (Dzansi & Dzansi, 2010) and EHAP and OCB are positively linked (Zavvareh & Samangooei, 2013; Pillay, 2012), any perceived or real unfairness in DOHRMP could therefore make employees form negative OJP with detrimental consequences for EHAP (Zavvareh & Samangooei, 2013; Pillay, 2012) and OCB (Cui, Davis & Huang, 2016, Zavvareh & Samangooei, 2013; Pillay, 2012; Dzansi & Dzansi, 2010). Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest relationships between DOHRMP, OJP, EHAP and OCB.

Ghana is a nation in West Africa. Other nations that share boundaries with it are Burkina Faso, Togo and Cote d'Ivoire. As of 2018, the population was almost 29.6 million. Ghana has a very stable democracy and peace, an independent judiciary, and is highly rated for freedom of speech and press freedom (World Bank, 2018). Ghana's political stability, high level of safety, positive image throughout the world, and prevalence of English make it attractive to expatriates and tourists (InterNations, 2018). It is also noted for wide-ranging ethnic backgrounds, values and belief systems (Joshua & Taylor-Abdulai, 2014). These conditions account for workforce diversity in many organisations in Ghana (Joshua & Taylor-Abdulai, 2014).

The governments enacted several laws to promote diversity in Ghana, including the Constitution of Ghana (1992) and the Cultural Policy of Ghana (2004). The government also entered into some international treaties and conventions. These include (i) Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) 1979; (ii) African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR) 2004; (iii) International Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD) 1969; and (iv) the International Convention on the Protection

of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (MWC) 1990. Despite these government initiatives, unfair labour practices are widespread in some Ghanaian organisations (Ayelazuno, 2015; Agyapong & Appiah, 2015; Appiah, 2014). The tertiary education environment in Ghana consists of Universities and Colleges of Education. In Ghana, tertiary educational institutions take great interest in the diversity of their workforce. For instance, it is couched in the Technical Universities Act that Technical Universities (TUs) should take issues of workforce diversity very seriously (Technical Universities Act, 2016 (Act, 922)). Thus, some of the TUs identified some tenets of diversity with which they are very much associated. For instance, Ho Technical University stated that some of its tenets of diversity are social inclusiveness, gender equity, people-centredness, and fair opportunity for all (Ho Technical University, 2018). A similar situation exists in all other technical universities. The question, however, is to what extent are universities socially inclusive in Ghana? Are the universities implementing fair and best interventions for diverse workers? How do interventions that are aimed at diverse workers impact them? This study seeks to provide some answers to these lingering questions.

Although OCB and diversity management as distinct concepts have undoubtedly been extensively studied, there has been limited empirical research on how these ideals impact workers and organisational outcomes (Groeneveld, 2015). For instance, nothing is known about how diversity management is connected to the attitudes and behaviours of workers (Kim, Lee & Kim, 2015). Moreover, due to conflicting findings, it has been suggested that diversity study findings are inconclusive (Mor Barak et al., 2016; Sabharwal, 2014). For instance, analysis of the connections between diversity management and workers' work outcomes has found beneficial connections (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Celik, Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2013; De Ruijter & Groeneveld, 2011; Groeneveld, 2011). Nonetheless, conflicting results from other studies have been found (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015). Due to these inconsistencies, Mazibuko and Govender (2017) posited that firm conclusions have not been reached regarding the empirical relationship between diversity, diversity management, and employee and organisational outcomes.

Furthermore, applying diversity management research to third-world countries is

difficult because most of it has been done in Western nations (Kim, Lee & Kim, 2015). Also, it has been claimed that nations develop and implement various diversity management methods and employ various approaches to implementing diversity and diversity management (Davis, Frolova & Callahan, 2016a; Kim, Lee & Kim, 2015). Thus, a diverse practice in one country may not apply to another. This indicates that context is essential when it comes to diversity management. For example, in the case of workplaces in Ghana, there is a significant amount of diverse demographics, including ethnocentric tendencies, stereotyping, unjust standards and practices, and injustices (Joshua & Taylor- Abdulai, 2014).

Furthermore, assessing the influences and mechanisms of diversity management and OCB of employees in higher educational institutions has received little to no attention. Also, a common feature of diversity management and organisational justice concepts in higher educational institutions is the emphasis on racism and fostering more inclusive learning environments (House, 2017). Hence, Huisman et al. (2015) correctly noted that quantifying and conceptualising diversity in higher education has not been adequately investigated. Additionally, although there is a significant body of research on the linkages between diversity management and OCB (Huong, Zheng & Fujimoto, 2016; Farndale et al., 2015; Downey et al., 2015; Martin, 2014; Dike, 2013), very few studies, if any, have examined the concept holistically from a multi-dimensional perspective by including psychological factors like organisational justice, and employee happiness more specifically within the setting of academic institutions. This study fills the gap that is left by it.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Despite its seemingly overwhelming promise, in the literature, there is no agreement over the outcomes of handling diversity and what it can bring in diverse organisational contexts (Choi & Rainey 2014). Given the diversified nature of the workforce of Ghana's Universities, one cannot afford to allow the attitudes and behaviours of its workforce not to be researched since a lack of empirical evidence can compromise the quality of diversity management practices, which could ultimately negatively affect the sustainability of these important institutions.

While Universities in Ghana need to implement employee diversity programmes, accepting such interventions and packages does not guarantee that they will be carried out effectively (Choi & Rainey, 2014). Moreover, they must be mindful of the ramifications of ineffective implementation. Implementing these practices and strategies could influence the employees' justice perceptions (Choi & Rainey, 2014) and happiness (Zavvareh & Samangooei, 2013; Pillay, 2012), which may impact employee attitudes such as organisational citizenship behaviour.

Consequently, this study investigates how diversity-focused interventions in human resource management affect organisational citizenship behaviour from organisational justice and happiness perspectives. More specifically, it is proposed in this study that effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices (DOHRMP) will lead to positive organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and this effect will be mediated by employee organisational justice perception (OJP) and happiness (EHAP). Information was gathered from some personnel of selected Universities in Ghana to test these propositions.

1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

This section covers the research hypotheses, further discussed under the main and subsidiary hypotheses.

1.4.1 Main hypothesis

H₀: There is a significant relationship among OCB, EHAP, OJP and DOHRMP.

H_a: There is no significant relationship exists among OCB, EHAP, OJP and DOHRMP.

1.4.2 Subsidiary hypotheses

H1_o: Effectiveness of DOHRMP will be positively related to OCB.

H1_a: Effectiveness of DOHRMP will not be positively related to OCB.

H2_o: Effectiveness of DOHRMP will be positively linked to OJP.

H2_a: Effectiveness of DOHRMP will not be positively linked to OJP.

H3_o: Effectiveness of DOHRMP will be positively linked to EHAP.

H3_a: Effectiveness of DOHRMP will not be positively linked to EHAP.

H4_o: OCB will be positively connected to OJP.

H4_a: OCB will not be positively connected to OJP.

H5_o: OJP will be positively linked to EHAP.

H5_a: OJP will not be positively linked to EHAP.

H6_o: EHAP will be positively related to their OCB.

H6_a: EHAP will not be positively related to their OCB.

H7_o: EHAP will mediate the connection between DOHRMP and OCB.

H7_a: EHAP will not mediate the connection between DOHRMP and OCB.

H8_o: EHAP will mediate the linkage between DOHRMP and OJP.

H8_a: EHAP will not mediate the linkage between DOHRMP and OJP.

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objective is categorised into main objectives and subsidiary objectives.

1.5.1 Main objective

The study's primary goal is to ascertain if there are significant relationships in the interactions between OCB, EHAP, OJP and DOHRMP among the staff of Universities in Ghana and, if so, determine the nature of such relationships.

1.5.2 Subsidiary objectives

The subsidiary objectives are, using data collected from the staff of Public and Private Universities in Ghana to determine whether:

1. Effectiveness of DOHRMP is positively related to OCB.
2. Effectiveness of DOHRMP is positively related to OJP.
3. Effectiveness of DOHRMP is positively related to EHAP.
4. OCB is positively related to OJP.
5. OJP is positively related to EHAP.
6. EHAP is positively related to their OCB.
7. EHAP mediates the relationship between DOHRMP and OCB.
8. EHAP mediates the relationship between DOHRMP and OJP.

1.6 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The research aims to enhance understanding of the interface between diversity-oriented human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviours by developing a unique model, especially related to higher educational institutions in Ghana. Practically, it is intended to create awareness tools for managers of higher educational institutions in Ghana in managing workforce diversity. The tools should also be relevant to other organisations.

1.7 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

One of the key indicators of the importance of research is its contribution to knowledge (Gray, 2011). This study's relevance to knowledge is examined regarding its contributions to theory, practice, and policy. In conducting this study, thorough literature reviews covered the main variables: diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational citizenship behaviour and employee happiness. Furthermore, extensive reviews were done on the social exchange and organisational justice theories that created a framework indicating how diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perception, employee happiness and organisational citizenship behaviour are linked. Critical

examination of the diversity-oriented HRM practices, OJP, OCB and happiness at work and how these variables interplay within the higher education environment in Ghana to enhance human resource management indicated that this study is the first of its kind in Ghana, especially among higher educational institutions, as far as the researcher is aware. These reviews provided the basis for the researcher to draw some conclusions, including the fact that there are literature gaps concerning these relationships, including the role of mediation of happiness at work in the linkage between diversity-oriented interventions in HRM and OJP as well as OCB, and between OJP and OCB.

1.7.1 Contribution to practice

Regarding practical contributions, this study has beneficial outcomes for organisations and practitioners, especially within the tertiary education space. Firstly, by establishing that diversity-oriented human resource management practices, OJP, and employee happiness significantly impact OCB, the Management of tertiary educational institutions and other practitioners are enlightened to develop and implement appropriate diversity-oriented interventions in human resource strategies, plans and activities, enhancing workers' OCB. Secondly, the study established that a fair working environment is imperative to employees exhibiting extra-role behaviours. This would make Management of tertiary educational institutions ensure that employees have positive perceptions of the organisation by enshrining fair policies, processes and procedures. Lastly, this study suggests that happiness at work fully mediates the link between OJP and OCB. This means that employees' happiness at the workplace cannot be risked and that any organisation that risks its employees' happiness endangers the organisation's success and productivity. Further details of the practical contributions are discussed in Chapter 8.

1.7.2 Contribution to policy

Concerning policy, this study's findings are useful for formulating policies by managing tertiary educational institutions and the government (regulators of tertiary educational institutions). Firstly, the study's finding that diversity-oriented human

resource management practices significantly influence OJP and OCB of employees suggests that the Management of tertiary educational institutions should develop appropriate policies that entrench diversity orientation into HRM policies. When this is done, it will boost the effectiveness and efficiency of the Universities since the policy will influence the adoption and implementation of interventions and procedures in human resource management that are diversity-focused in the Universities. Additional details of policy contributions are discussed in Chapter 8.

1.7.3 Contribution to theory

Thus, theoretically, this study adds to the existing literature as follows: One, the theoretical perspectives which serve as the foundation of this study are expanded and extended by unearthing the mechanisms through which diversity-oriented human resource management practices affect OJP, OCB and happiness at work.

This fulfils scholars' demand for additional theoretical studies to comprehend the linkages better (Jiang et al., 2012). This research uniquely examined the effect of diversity-oriented HRM practices on OJP and OCB, with employee happiness as the mediator at the personal level of work outcomes. The individual-level analysis is significant compared to the organisational level because the experiences of individuals have implications on their behaviours and attitudes which influence their behaviour within the organisation (Poortinga et al., 2019). This study extended the existing literature by researching these variables within a less-studied sector, the higher education sector in Ghana. Refer to Chapter 8 for additional contributions to theory.

1.8 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study's ontological and epistemological assumptions were based on objectivism and positivism. The researcher believed that social phenomenon exists separately from social actors and, therefore, should be objectively studied and that methods of natural science could be used to investigate a social phenomenon to determine truth and reality, which will be free and independent of the researcher's perspectives.

Therefore, the researcher used a cross-sectional correlation methodology and a quantitative approach. The cross-sectional design enabled the researcher to gather information simultaneously and solicit views from a single group (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2012). This design is inexpensive, takes little time to conduct, and is useful for estimating the prevalence of a population's behaviour or situation (Hemed & Tanzania, 2015; Sedgwick, 2014).

A multi-stage probability sampling technique comprising stratified and simple random sampling techniques was used to select three hundred and ninety-four (394) respondents from twenty-seven (27) Universities. The data was solicited through the application of a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into several sections. Section One aimed to gather respondents' demographic profile information such as gender, age, educational level, length of service, religious and employment status, nature of work and rank/job position. Section Two focused on diversity-oriented HRM practices, including procedural, distributional, and interactional dimensions. Section Three of the questionnaire concentrated on organisational justice perception, including procedural, distributional and interactional justice perceptions. Section Four of the questionnaire dealt with questions regarding happiness at work, a unidimensional construct. Finally, section Five of the questionnaire asked questions on the OCB of employees regarding their altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue behaviours.

Descriptive and inferential statistics were engaged in analysing the data through the use of IBM-SPSS version 23. These included frequencies and percentages, means and standard deviations. In addition, inferential statistics involving regression and structural equation modelling analyses were used to investigate the effects of diversity-oriented HRM practices on OCB and OJP with the mediating role of happiness at work. Structural equation modelling and Andrews Hayes process model were utilised to examine the mediating role of happiness at work. Initially, a bivariate correlation was adopted to explore the association between variables, thus independent variables (diversity-oriented HRM practices, OJP), mediator variable (happiness at work) and dependent variable (OCB).

1.9 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

This research commenced with identifying the topic of interest specified in the general introduction to the study in Chapter One. It started with a vague idea about workforce diversity management and its problems, and the idea was slowly refined into a concise statement. Then, a preliminary review of relevant literature was conducted to identify gaps and better understand the problem. Through the review, the problem statement was written, the hypotheses were formulated, and the research aims and objectives were stated. That gave a focus to this research.

According to the goals and hypotheses, a thorough literature review covered diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational citizenship behaviour, employee happiness and organisational justice perception. In addition, the literature review explored what is already known and identified relationships and gaps for determination by this study as its contribution to knowledge.

The literature review was followed by the study's methodology, which comprised where the research was conducted, the population, research design, sampling methods and sample size, data gathering and analysis methods. Also expressed in the methodology were the ethical considerations that were made. The study area comprised all universities in Ghana. A sample size of three hundred and ninety- four (394) employees was drawn from nine (9) public universities and eighteen (18) private universities for the study. This research used the cross-sectional research methodology and adopted a questionnaire to elicit information from sampled respondents. The data were entered into the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) Version 23 and later exported into Amos Version 21 of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) software for analysis. The analysis included descriptive statistics, regression estimates, factor analysis, structural equation modelling and the Andrews-Hayes Process model for the mediation analysis.

Finally, the results were discussed and interpreted in the context of previous studies, conclusions were drawn, and recommendations were made covering professional practice, policy, and areas to be considered for further investigation. This research

has contributed to enhancing the literature since exploring the topic within Ghana's tertiary education sector has not been the focus of previous studies.

1.10 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

This research is structured into eight (8) different but interconnected chapters. Chapter one (1) covered the general introduction. The problem background and problem statement were outlined, and the hypotheses were formulated. Further, the objectives and aims of the research were stated. The study's theory, practice and policy contributions were also outlined. A summary of the methodology and the research process was also covered.

In Chapter Two (2), issues concerning diversity-oriented human resource management practices were reviewed and discussed. It focused on dimensions of diversity, defining workforce diversity management, diversity management versus affirmative action and how to manage diversity and inclusiveness. Additionally, the chapter conceptualised diversity-oriented human resource management practices and workforce diversity in the Ghana education sector.

The available literature on organisational citizenship behaviour was reviewed and discussed in Chapter Three (3). The Chapter covered the origin of OCB in the management literature, types of OCB, consequences, and its antecedents. The Chapter also discussed how to measure OCB and OCB within the Ghanaian context and link OCB and diversity-oriented human resource management practices.

In Chapter Four (4), issues regarding employee happiness at work are reviewed and discussed. The review touched on dimensions of employee happiness, antecedents of employee happiness, the relationship between employee happiness and diversity-oriented human resource management practices, OCB and OJP.

Further, Chapter Five (5) presented the theoretical background of the research, an overview of the model and the developed hypotheses. The theoretical perspectives, namely Social Exchange and Organisational Justice Theories, were discussed in

detail. The Chapter also provided an overview of the conceptual framework and the formulated hypotheses.

Chapter six (6) contained the methodology used in this study. It presented discussions on perspectives of research philosophies, the research approach and design, the population and sampling techniques. In addition, the Chapter discussed in detail how data was collected and analysed.

The results and discussions were presented in the 7th Chapter. The demographic profile of the respondents was first discussed, followed by the results of the exploratory factor analysis, structural equation modelling and mediation analysis.

The final chapter, Chapter Eight (8), comprised the conclusions and recommendations. The recommendations were split into three areas thus for professional practice, policy, and future research. Finally, the Chapter ended with the limitations of the study.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the general introduction to the study. First, a detailed background to the problem was presented, followed by the problem statement. In addition, the chapter established and presented the research hypotheses, objectives and aims. The contributions to theory, practice and policy, as well as a summary of the research methodology, were also introduced in this chapter. Finally, the chapter ended with a summary of the research process and how the thesis was organised. The next chapter reviews the empirical literature on diversity-oriented human resource management practices.

CHAPTER 2: DIVERSITY-ORIENTED HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In organisations, diversity management is nothing new. Public organisations have long adopted diversity policies (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015:757). Many organisations have used diversity management policies to enhance employee morale and performance, creativity, organisational efficiency and effectiveness. This study investigates the effects of diversity-oriented human resource management practices on the organisational citizenship behaviour of employees in the higher education sector of Ghana. This Chapter is a component of the literature review focusing on the general idea of diversity management and the specific aspects of diversity-oriented human resource management practices.

2.2 PERSPECTIVE ON DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT AND ITS OUTCOMES

This aspect of the literature study focuses on what constitutes workforce diversity management, the consequences of workforce diversity management on the organisation, employees' attitudes and behaviours, and how to build an inclusive workforce.

2.2.1 Conceptualising diversity management

Conceptualising diversity management involves discussing its definition and dimensions. This entails understanding and valuing the various dimensions of diversity management and embracing it as a strategic organisational initiative.

2.2.1.1 Defining workforce diversity

The management of corporate activities must always consider workforce diversity, according to academics in the management literature (Loukik & Namratha, 2021; Klarsfeld et al., 2016a; Olsen & Martins, 2012; Raymond et al., 2015). Workforce

diversity is typically understood to mean valuing and recognising unique differences regarding age, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, gender, physical and mental ability, race, sexual orientation, religious convictions, and eligibility for public aid (Loukik & Namratha, 2021). According to Klarsfeld et al. (2016a), it is the amalgamation of individual differences or the diversity of social and cultural identities. According to Raymond et al. (2015), diversity refers to all individual distinctions. It generally entails actions that exacerbate and strengthen personnel differences regarding accomplishing organisational objectives (Olsen & Martins, 2012). Mulkeen (2008) noted that diversity refers to all variations among individuals regarding their ages, genders, sexual orientations, educational levels, cultural origins, religious convictions and career histories. The variances that exist among employees are the crucial component in these definitions. These interpersonal, societal, and cultural differences are crucial to completing work or classroom-related activities (Loukik & Namratha, 2021). Therefore, workforce diversity is used to describe all the conspicuous and inconspicuous features of employees which differentiate one employee from the other. These features and experiences influence the attributes and dispositions of employees at the workplace.

The definition provided by Akinnusi, Sonubi, and Oyewunmi (2017) is closely related to the abovementioned definitions. It defines workforce diversity as the vast array of individual variances and similarities that distinguish each employee. Furthermore, workforce diversity encompasses the similarity and variety of the workforce in terms of age, cultural origin, physical traits and impairment, social status, religion, gender and sexual preferences (Saxena, 2014). According to Otike, Messah, and Mwaleka (2010), workforce diversity brings together a range of experiences, viewpoints, values, advantages, and employee contrasts and similarities.

These individuals, with their differences, are regarded as assets to the organisations. Patrick and Kumar (2012) provide a comprehensive definition of workforce diversity by stating that “diversity is a set of conscious practices that involve understanding and appreciating interdependence of humanity, cultures, and the natural environment; practising mutual respect for qualities and experiences that are different from our own” (Patrick & Kumar, 2012:1). Again, this definition connotes that everyone

is unique and as such should be accepted, respected and celebrated for individual differences since these differences are harnessed for the good of organisations. Effective people management, which can increase workplace efficiency, is based on valuing variety (Daubner-Siva, Vinkenbunrg, & Jansen, 2017). According to Dessler (2011), diversity is the range or multiplicity of demographic characteristics, notably race, sex, culture, national origin, disability, age, and religion, that define a company's workforce. Every human being is different. People vary not only in terms of their social and psychological characteristics, gender, culture, race, and preconceptions but also in their worldviews. As a result, society has discriminated against these traits for generations.

Heterogeneity in the workforce is caused by diversity. Employing a diverse workforce is necessary for every organisation, yet managing such a diverse staff presents significant management challenges. Therefore, Ghana's educational sector, especially the tertiary level, engages various stakeholders, including students, teachers, administrators, and other workers from diverse socio-cultural backgrounds who benefit from diversity management.

From the ongoing discussion and given the Ghanaian tertiary educational context, workforce diversity is defined in this study as all the distinguishable characteristics such as age, gender, work experience and cultural background of each employee that are nurtured and harnessed for the common good of educational institutions.

2.2.1.2 Dimensions of diversity

Diversity is multi-dimensional and hence can be measured in diverse ways. In addition to age, ethnicity, ancestry, gender, physical characteristics, social status, sexual preference, level of education, place of residence, income, marital status, military experience, religious affiliations, parenting status, and career history, scholars have assigned various dimensions to workforce diversity (Loden & Rosener 1991:18). The Society for Human Resource Management's (2014) position that diversity comprises individual and organisational qualities, attitudes, beliefs, experiences, backgrounds, preferences, and behaviours was supported by

Kalargyrou and Costen (2017;69). Other aspects of diversity are experience, education, practical expertise, civil position, colour, language, dialect, geographic origin, abilities, religion, culture, or age (Klarsfeld et al., 2016a). It has also been described by Saxena (2014) to comprise age, cultural background, physical capabilities and disabilities, race, religion, gender, and sexual orientation.

Some scholars categorised dimensions of diversity into two main kinds: observable and non-observable (Girish, 2015; Fujimoto, Hartel & Azmat, 2013). For example, Girish (2015) categorised the observable dimensions as surface-level diversity and the non-observable dimensions as deep-level diversity. Similar to how some academics label the observable dimensions primary and non-observable dimensions secondary, Akinnusi, Sonubi, and Oyewunmi (2017) expressed their opinion. The observable dimensions, which include race/ethnicity, age, gender, people with disabilities, visible stigmas like disfigurement and weight problems, and physical abilities/qualities, are characteristics that are visible and easily perceived by individuals and which make up the self-image of the person, his/her perceptions and viewpoints which are most prevalent at work (Akinnusi, Sonubi, & Oyewunmi, 2017; Girish, 2015; Choi & Rainey, 2014; Fujimoto, Hartel & Azmat, 2013). The deep-level diversity, on the other hand, consists of subtle characteristics that cannot be seen clearly or quickly, such as values, knowledge, viewpoints, functional background, level of education, sexual orientation, and religious beliefs (Girish, 2015; Choi & Rainey, 2014; Fujimoto, Hartel & Azmat, 2013).

Scholars refer to surface-level diversity as demographic diversity and further suggest that in most cases, the stereotypical views and assumptions of employees are based on demographic diversity (Golubovskaya, Solnet & Robinson, 2019; Hatipoglu & Inelmen, 2018; Guillaume et al., 2017; Girish, 2015, Bell et al., 2011). For instance, Golubovskaya et al. (2019) noted that demographic variables, namely age, work experience and level of education, play important roles in organisational workforce composition in talent management. Golubovskaya et al. (2019) underscored the need to develop an all-inclusive diversity management approach. Bell et al. (2011) also noted that surface-level diversity dimensions such as functional background, work experience and position held in the organisation are positively associated with team

creativity and innovation.

Generally, studies contend that progressively the perceptions of surface-level diversity give way to deep-level diversity when employees associate with each other and stay together because they see themselves as sharing important characteristics (Hatipoglu & Inelmen, 2018; Guillaume et al., 2017; Girish, 2015; Bell et al., 2011). Deep-level diversity refers to the deep-seated differences among workers, such as personality type, personal values, cultural values, attitudes and beliefs (Bell et al., 2011). Bell et al. (2011) observed that deep-level diversity represents broad categories such as high or low job-related. Moreover, Martin (2014) identified another dimension of diversity: cultural diversity. A diverse culture describes the scenario where racial differences, ethnicity, linguistics, nationality, religion and sexual preferences are all represented in an organisation (Amadeo, 2013). A diverse culture might have various positive or negative effects on the workplace. However, its impact can also be favourable and unfavourable. Some negative and unfavourable aspects of cultural diversity include dysfunctional disputes, diminished productivity and challenges in achieving harmony in teams' performance. In contrast, cultural diversity's positive and favourable aspects include a strong knowledge base through cultural encounters, internal cultural trainers and a stronger propensity to expand to other cultures. With good management in tertiary schools in Ghana, the positive aspects of cultural diversity can be enhanced while reducing the negative effects of cultural diversity in educational institutions.

From the above categorisations of dimensions of diversity, it has been observed that workforce diversity has been integrated into the educational curriculum, policies and practices of educational institutions in Ghana (Poku, Aawaar, & Worae, 2013). The educational sector also presents a clear picture of all the dimensions of diversity because tertiary institutions in Ghana bring together students and workers from different nationalities, cultures, experiences, sexual orientations and religious backgrounds to a common place (Poku, Aawaar & Worae, 2013). This makes it more relevant to understand how diversity at the tertiary level of education in Ghana is managed.

2.2.1.3 Defining workforce diversity management

Diversity management refers to the various actions taken by organisations that are aimed at promoting greater inclusion of employees from different socio-cultural and religious backgrounds in an organisation's structure through specific policies and programmes (Grissom, Kern & Rodriguez, 2015). Diversity management in the educational sector has received a growing trend due to the increasing variety of the workforce globally. "Diversity management refers to organisational actions that strive to promote better inclusion of individuals from different backgrounds into an organisation's structure through specialised policies and programmes," according to a short explanation provided by Corporate Finance Institute (2020:2). Patrick and Kumar (2012:1) offer a different definition, stating that "diversity management is a process meant to develop and sustain a healthy work environment where the similarities and differences of persons are valued." These definitions mean that diversity management is well-planned actions organisations take to ensure that all employees feel accepted and belong to the organisation.

Though scholars tried to explain diversity management differently, their meanings are not dissimilar (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015, Joshua & Taylor-Abdulai, 2014, Choi & Rainey, 2014, Patrick & Kumar, 2012). For instance, Choi and Rainey (2014) characterised diversity management as creating an environment where each person is encouraged to reach their full potential to promote corporate goals, regardless of whether they are a member of a majority or minority group. The importance of worker equality and how it can be leveraged to ensure organisational effectiveness is strongly emphasised in this definition. In addition, it has also been defined as the application and blending of all managerial duties inside the organisation to successfully harness the contrasts and similarities among all diverse people for an organisation's competitive advantage (Dike, 2013). Patrick and Kumar (2012) contrasted this by stating that diversity management aims to create and maintain a positive, encouraging workplace where each employee's distinctive qualities are valued and fostered to support them in realising their full potential and making the most of their contributions to the organisation to meet its strategic goals and objectives. This definition emphasises creating a valuable and conducive environment where workers

can contribute to the ultimate realisation of educational institutions' strategic goals.

Most educational institutions, like those in Ghana, embrace these definitions by allowing for hiring and managing employees from different parts of the world with different values, life experiences, perceptions, and perspectives on issues. Therefore, educational institutions are designed to have specific policies that enhance employee inclusion regarding employment, promotion, and equal opportunities for people from different backgrounds and cultures. In addition, these designs should create an open and welcoming learning environment for teams, group work, and individuals (both workers and students) who perceive that they are denied access to certain opportunities based on their differences.

2.2.1.4 Evolution of the diversity management concept

The idea of diversity management was first introduced around the mid-1980s in North America and has extended worldwide (Yang & Konrad, 2011). The concept originated from seeking employee equality and affirmative action, underscoring the need for diversity management. It should be seen as a competitive advantage instead of a constraint. Hence researchers started investigating diversity and its relevance or benefits to organisations. For instance, Yang and Konrad (2011) noted that the notion of managing diversity spread globally due to the spread of multinational corporations that treat diversity not just as heterogeneity of the workforce in one country but as workforce composition in organisations across countries.

In furtherance to the concept of diversity, Thomas (1990) facilitated the expansion of managing diversity by reasoning that the concept of diversity management covers how to efficiently manage diversity by altering organisational culture and procedures, embracing employee differences and fostering a climate where diversity boosts organisational goals (Ashikali & Groeneveld (2015). As "more and more people are likely to work with people who are demographically different from them in terms of age, gender, race, and ethnicity," Kapoor (2011) noted that the early 1990s saw the rise of diversity management (Tsui et al., 1992: 549). However, Thomas' assertion that diversity is an objective reality and that managers' abilities to successfully

manage workforce diversity are crucial to an organisation's success came under increasing scrutiny in the latter half of the 1990s (Thomas, 1990). Liff (1999; 70) recommended managing diversity as a substitute for equality because it emphasises knowing people as unique beings rather than assuming something about someone's needs and abilities based on whether they belong to a specific gender or cultural affinity.

Hill (2009) suggested that in modern times, diversity initiatives should be comprehensive and involve all kinds of people. Accordingly, he posited that workforce diversity management "demands that we simultaneously focus on our ethical obligation to recognise the pain of historically excluded minority and underrepresented groups while considering the valuable contributions of dominant group members" (Hill, 2009:48-9). This makes diversity management a strategic agenda to include both minorities and majority groups in the management of organisations. The modern notion of managing diversity has a wide-ranging emphasis on diversity, which weakens the claims of historically oppressed groups and improves the majority group's skills in a conducive platform that makes a difference (Kapoor, 2011).

Modern diversity management is also considered a strategic tool for enhancing organisational outcomes. Diversity management is one of the key strategic activities in all kinds of organisations because diversity in the workplace has become a leading issue in contemporary organisational management (Choi & Rainey, 2014). Diversity management is a strategic human resource management component because it focuses on enticing, keeping and successfully managing a diverse staff (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015). In addition, it aims to bring about improvements and increases in positive impacts of diversity at the workplace and minimise or eliminate potential negative relational effects (Choi & Rainey, 2014). The benefits of diversity management include helping to unify employee differences, reducing conflicts among employees and boosting the competitive advantage of the organisation (Dike, 2013), enhancing organisational productivity (Sabharwal, 2014) and providing opportunities for all employees to improve their self-development and increasing their potential (Patrick & Kumar, 2012).

Therefore, diversity management refers to programmes, actions, processes or systems organisations consciously design and implement to create enabling work environments for employees from different backgrounds and promote and utilise their potential for organisational benefit. This is aptly captured by Olsen and Martins (2012) when they define diversity management as ‘the use of human resource management techniques to maintain differences in human capital and ensure that such differences do not adversely affect the accomplishment of the goals and objectives of the organisation (Olsen & Martins, 2012:2). The understanding of these definitions and the concept of diversity management holds much potential for the educational sector in Ghana. Educational institutions such as the Colleges of Education have taken steps to increase workforce diversity management through the attainment of equal enrollment for both males and females, equal opportunities for the career development of teaching and non-teaching staff, using broader viewpoints while making decisions and helping Colleges of Education in Ghana to attain tertiary status fully. Another source of relevance of diversity management to the educational sector in Ghana is the attainment of a diverse student body that promotes the lively exchange of ideas.

2.2.1.5 Diversity Management versus affirmative action

At this point, a distinction needs to be made between diversity management and affirmative action, as the two are not synonymous. While diversity management focuses on all the differences among individuals like age, gender, learning styles, experiences, and qualifications, affirmative action is a strategy to guarantee that eligible individuals from specific groups are given equal employment opportunities and are fairly represented in the workforce across all job classifications, levels and categories. Diversity management practices and policies are voluntary actions organisations adopt and implement to accomplish business objectives. In contrast, affirmative action practices are laws or regulations passed and complied with to correct past biases and prejudices (Klarsfeld et al., 2016b, Veldsman, 2013). Affirmative action is a preferential treatment designed and complied with to compensate minorities and underprivileged persons for biases and prejudices relating to education, employment or promotion at work (Haynes & Alagaraja, 2016).

In the educational sector in Ghana, these two dynamic stances are conspicuous. Diversity management and affirmative action exist in the education process throughout the various levels of education. Though the two concepts may differ in meaning, the achievement of one may necessarily lead to the achievement of the other. However, whereas diversity management is somehow ensured in the Ghanaian educational sector (Ayentimi, Abadi, Adjei & Burgess, 2020), affirmative actions, through compliance with certain international treaties, conventions and laws, ensure that females are equally represented in top managerial jobs in both public and private institutions is not encouraging (Anku-Tsede & Gadegbeku, 2014). There is, therefore, a poor degree of adherence to conferences, conventions, laws and policies to guarantee the non-discrimination, inclusion, and fair representation of females at all levels of public and private institutions, including educational institutions (Anku-Tsede & Gadegbeku, 2014).

Another distinguishing characteristic is that, unlike affirmative action, there is economic value to organisations that pursue diversity management (Klarsfeld et al., 2016b; Veldsman, 2013). Effective diversity management enables organisations to use human capital optimally, enhance competitive advantage, boost client base, add value, and maximise productivity (Zhuwao et al., 2019; Haynes & Alagaraja, 2016). Thus, organisations globally have increased awareness and fostering of diversity management (Akinnusi, Sonubi, & Oyewunmi, 2017), especially in the educational sector. The human capital growth in the educational sector benefits all, irrespective of the differences in personal, socio-cultural and economic values. Ayentimi et al. (2020) noted that though diversity management in terms of gender diversity and equality has gained recognition in the tertiary level of education, in Ghana, there are still certain instances of gender bias, salary differences and low female participation rates in university education, and other professional workforce compared with what is in the policy documents.

Central to affirmative action is the fulfilment of numerical representation of the minority or underprivileged groups (Klarsfeld et al., 2016b). Affirmative action provides for and controls the distribution of scarce places in institutions such as

education and organisations to increase out-group representation (Haynes & Alagaraja, 2016). Moreover, affirmative action includes preferential treatment, quota, organisational goals, time-specific actions and programmes that enhance out-group representation (Niederle, Segal, & Vesterlund, 2013). For the educational sector in Ghana, these affirmative actions are supposed to ensure equal opportunities for school-going children, especially the girl-child. In addition, the education sector must observe and comply with international policy pronouncements such as the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) that solve worldwide issues such as lack of good work, sexism, discrimination, and lack of economic growth (Ayentimi et al., 2020).

While diversity management is critiqued for not always achieving its intended aims since it could bring about new types of differences and exclusions at the workplace (Dahl, 2014), Veldsman (2013) posits that affirmative action is criticised for engaging non-qualified persons in responsible positions to fulfil the quota or attain the correct numbers, that is reverse discrimination; and its failure to meet new challenges. Educational institutions need to encourage the keeping of talented individuals, enhance employee well-being, boost participation and involvement of employees, and lessen illegal attitudes, including prejudice, abuse and bullying. Educational institutions must create an enabling environment where diversity management and compliance to affirmative conventions are prioritised but eschewing inequality, injustice and exclusion (Ayentimi et al., 2020).

2.2.2 Managing diversity and Inclusiveness

Diversity management describes an institution with people of different gender, age and ethnic origin working within the Institution. At the same time, organisational inclusion is the ability of an institution to adopt socially responsible practices towards employees (Dahl, 2014). Furthermore, organisational inclusion involves diverse employees actively participating in organisational activities and decision-making (Paolillo, Silva & Pasini, 2016). According to Sherbin and Rashid (2017), diversity focuses on representing diverse employees within the workplace. Inclusion connotes efforts to attract diverse talents, boosting participation and fostering innovations to

contribute to institutional growth.

Inclusive education (IE) is a strategy for responding to the different needs of all children by increasing their involvement in learning, cultures and communities; and lowering marginalisation from the entire educational system (Booth et al., 2003). In normal school settings, this means providing special education instruction to children. However, it should be noted that inclusive education goes beyond merely putting children with specific requirements for education in comprehensive schools; it includes speeding up the instructional and learning needs of children with specific requirements for education. It also includes the development of adapted instructional strategies and curricula to meet the expectations of all children, including children with specific requirements for education (Suleymanov, 2014). Furthermore, inclusive education enhances and improves the ability of the educational system to serve the needs of all students and therefore serve as a path to achieving education for all (EFA). Therefore, it takes into account a substitution and modification of the information contained in the curricula, activities, policies, frameworks and strategies aimed at meeting the needs of all kids concerning their education and communal lives, irrespective of their sex, physique and age in a conventional system of education (UNESCO, 2009).

In recent times, educational institutions have made several efforts to promote diversity and inclusion in the workplace (Paolillo, Silva & Pasini, 2016, Dahl, 2014). According to Paolillo, Silva and Pasini (2016), empirical research on organisational diversity and its effects have been increasing as evidence of the growing diversity within the workforce of educational institutions in the present era. Diversity in educational institutions without inclusion makes them miss opportunities because diversity with inclusion helps institutions increase talent retention efforts and effective employee and student engagement (Sherbin & Rashid, 2017). Anku- Tsede and Gadegbeku (2014) noted that diversity and inclusion pave the way for improved organisational and economic performance. Therefore, educational institutions' commitment level, especially the tertiary level of education in Ghana, to the challenges of diverse employees and their inclusion should be evident by the kind of policies and new legal mechanisms channelled in the governance process. For

instance, policies on discrimination and harassment and other disability policies in various tertiary institutions are encouraging and should be strictly enforced to meet international standards regarding equal opportunities. This means an inclusive institution becomes attractive to diverse employees and positively impacts employee and organisational outcomes. Theodorakopoulos and Budhwar (2015) opined that diversity and inclusion are regarded as the means to achieving social justice and a prime factor in an organisation's strategic agenda. Thus, the onus lies on employees and managers to ensure an inclusive workplace because no single person can easily facilitate an inclusive workplace (Geiger et al. 2019).

The determinants of an inclusive workplace are not oblivious to scholars (Geiger et al., 2019; Sherbin & Rashid, 2017; Theodorakopoulos & Budhwar (2015). For instance, according to Geiger et al. (2019), the inclusive workplace must have rules for respect and engagement, otherwise known as codes of conduct which must be understood by everybody and upheld and enforced within the workplace, and effective communication channels for feedback and for raising and resolving issues of concern to employees. Similarly, Sherbin and Rashid (2017) identified four factors that bring about inclusion in the workplace: inclusive leadership, authenticity, networking and visibility, and availability of clear career paths. Other factors that bring about inclusion in the workplace include institutional reward systems, the composition of the workforce, collaborative initiatives and goal interdependence (Theodorakopoulos & Budhwar, 2015). Moreover, educational institutions can enhance systems that encourage learning foreign or local cultures, training on cross-cultural differences, encouraging employees to accept international assignments and providing language training as strategies to ensure inclusiveness in the workplace (Patrick & Kumar, 2012). Thus, in building a diverse and inclusive work environment, biases such as prejudice and discrimination should not be allowed to thrive (Daya, 2014). Furthermore, institutions should implement flexible routines and programmes for employees and students, with choice and open and frank communication structures to make employees feel they belong and are appreciated (Daya, 2014).

Efforts to build diverse and inclusive educational environments are not without challenges. For example, Sherbin and Rashid (2017) identified that the unavailability

of data to measure inclusion is a major setback. While headcount can be done for diverse employees, measuring inclusion is difficult (Sherbin & Rashid, 2017). Furthermore, it is not easy to conclude the outcomes of diversity and inclusive management programmes because researchers and scholars use different diversity and inclusive measuring indices; and the instruments used are varied. Thus, institutions that are thinking of diversity and inclusion must first try to achieve diversity representation among the workforce at all levels and put in place and implement effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices (Daya, 2014). This is because inclusion does not need new activities and programmes. However, it is the outcome of strategically implementing diversity-oriented human resource management practices such as recruitment diversity practices, promotion diversity practices, training and development diversity practices and performance management diversity practices (Daya, 2014). Similarly, inclusion efforts are achieved when organisations favour equality and fairness processes (Smith & Turner, 2015).

Many more institutions are paying attention to diversity management and inclusion because they are key to organisational concerns and problems (Choi & Rainey, 2014) and pivotal to organisational survival in the current globalised economy (Ohunakin et al., 2019). Institutions are therefore advised to put in place mechanisms to enhance their diverse employees' management and participation in the many organisational activities (Ohunakin et al., 2019). This is because managing diversity and including all diverse employees boost positive workplace attitudes and behaviours, ultimately enhancing their job satisfaction and performance (Ikeije & Lekan-Akomolafe, 2015). Diversity management in educational institutions aims at fostering an inclusive organisational culture to encourage the potential benefits of diversity and mitigate its adverse impacts (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015:758). Inclusion is an effective diversity management strategy because inclusion is about ensuring that individual differences are accepted and respected and creating an appropriate workplace environment that encourages diverse individual contributions, optimal use of potential and retention of different employees (Ikeije & Lekan-Akomolafe, 2015).

Though diversity management and inclusion are exhaustively studied in advanced

and Western nations, they are yet to be fully explored and established in emerging economies (Ohunakin et al., 2019). Similarly, Singal (2014) argued that the impacts of managing diversity and inclusion on the organisation's actions were less researched, while previous research outcomes of these variables were inconclusive. In a study on the link between diversity management and inclusion in the activities of organisations in Nigeria, Ohunakin et al. (2019) established that diversity management and inclusion have beneficial effects on the productivity of employees in the organisation. Diversity and inclusion are inseparable in managing diverse employees; thus, these constructs should become part of the organisation's culture, and organisations should adopt inclusive policies and approaches as part of their diversity management philosophy (Ikeije & Lekan- Akomolafe 2015).

2.2.2.1 Reasons for and guiding principles in managing diversity

Evidence shows that several educational institutions have invested in diversity management programmes due to their importance and effectiveness (Alhejji et al., 2016). One of the means through which effective diversity management is measured in educational institutions is organisational fairness (Choi & Rainey, 2014). Thus, fair and socially responsible decision-making processes should guide diversity management programmes to aid their effectiveness (Fujimoto et al., 2013). Fairness is the degree to which workers are equitably involved and managed in the organisational environment (Choi & Rainey, 2014). What employees perceive to be fair hinges on their track record of endorsing suggestions for how to treat others and appropriate means of distributing outcomes (Sudin, 2011).

Furthermore, organisational fairness in the decision-making process encourages employees to accept and positively react to many organisational decisions, including human resource interventions such as promotional issues (Fujimoto et al., 2013). Fairness in educational institutions is especially significant because it is not merely an idealistic concept. However, it influences behaviours and leads to fair treatment in the work environment, and therefore can encourage employees and students to work and learn respectively effectively (Alhejji et al. 2016). Furthermore, fairness is closely connected with organisational justice, which explains how individuals perceive

organisational justice (Fujimoto et al., 2013).

Closely related to fairness is organisational justice, which is the view that all employees and students in educational institutions should be treated equally and fairly without discrimination, fear, and favour. According to Moorman (1991), organisational justice refers to how workers decide whether they have fair treatment at work and how those decisions affect other aspects of their work and attitude. It has also been described as employees' opinions about organisational fairness (Campbell & Finch, 2004). There should be impartiality in all issues and dealings of the institutions. Aboagye (2015) noted that academic staff's confidence or trust in leadership would likely improve their performance in an environment where organisational justice is mutually pursued. Therefore, schools, especially universities, should prioritise fairness in all facets of their operations because it affects staff performance and other activities at the workplace.

Another guiding principle for managing diversity is corporate ethical value, which has been identified to impact employees' behaviours and intentions, such as being creative, going beyond their means or planning to depart the organisation (Leung, 2008). Corporate ethical values refer to the totality of the principles and values of an organisation as well as the ethical ideals of the organisation's managers (Bellow, 2012). Therefore, it indicates how and what the Institution expects of employees and students. Furthermore, ethical practices or values are significant for boosting institutions to develop moral environments at the workplace for staff and students. Thus, to enhance employee and institutional loyalty, institutions and organisations should embrace ethical education, manage peer pressure, improve communication and develop and implement codes of conduct (Kaptein, 2009; Schwepker & Good, 2007). Bellow (2012) posits that corporate ethical values are based on the ethical principle theory which focuses more on the individual's psychological perceptions of their organisations or institutions. This gives more insight into understanding the behaviour of employees concerning diversity management and how they perceive ethical policies or practices and their impact on their working relationships.

Understanding that managing diversity effectively is rooted in social identification

among diverse employees is imperative. Diversity management is enhanced in an environment of organisational identification. While organisational identification refers to the basic ideals and distinguishing features of an organisation, social identification refers to how people behave and acts on behalf of the groups they belong to because their affiliations strengthen their sense of social identity and shape their views and perceptions (Van Dick et al., 2004). Organisational identification measures how much an individual views himself and how that aligns with the organisation's standards, goals and beliefs (Van Dick et al., 2004). This means that when an individual is highly identified with an organisation, he/she is less likely to leave because identification leads to naturing of complete fondness for the organisation (Edwards & Peccei, 2010). Thus, institutions should embrace identification principles and practices to achieve diversity management. Further, there should be seamless coordination, collective action, interaction, and connection among teaching and non-teaching staff. These principles, coupled with the unique skills of diverse employees, enhance educational institutions' policies on diversity management (Patrick & Kumar, 2012).

2.2.2.2 The process – steps in effective diversity management

Though it is acknowledged that the success of managing diversity relies on the attitudes and behaviours of all characters within the organisation, irrespective of their perspectives (Mampane, 2019), organisations must implement effective diversity management processes. This is relevant because “when people from different backgrounds come together in the workplace, there is potential for great accomplishment, but also for great conflict” (Bovana, 2014:22). Effective diversity management processes aid educational institutions in harnessing the positive contributions of diverse employees. Bovana (2014) identified six steps for effective diversity management as follows.

- Step 1: commitment of top management to formulating and implementing business reasons for diversity strategies. Top management commitment is important in the process of diversity management.
- Step 2: undertake diversity research to be abreast with diversity management issues.
- Step 3: communicate with stakeholders as a form of explanation and

engagement.

- Step 4: train and educate stakeholders to be abreast with strategic interventions.
- Step 5: review the current organisational structure and systems. Step 6: monitor and evaluate the diversity process.

(Bovana, 2014:82).

These steps are relevant, appropriate, and fitting for the current study because for higher educational institutions in Ghana to manage diversity effectively, the top management must accept it and show commitment. The top management is the body that provides and drives the agenda of the Institution. Thus, when they do not show commitment to the ideals of diversity, there is no way any innovative diversity management strategy will thrive.

Similarly, Wambui et al. (2013) suggested that diversity management should be inbuilt within the organisation's culture and considered an unending organisational activity to create an inclusive workplace. They posit seven steps organisations could adopt to manage diversity effectively.

- Step I – Create a recruitment strategy that focuses on diversification, Step II – Provide training in employee diversity for recruitment of personnel,
- Step III – Institute good behaviour practices and provide training in cultural sensitivity and conflict management for top management staff,
- Step IV – Provide training in cultural sensitivity for all staff,
- Step V – Monitor and evaluate the outcome of the training and diversity management programmes and policies,
- Step VI – Strengthen open communication and teamwork practices, and
- Step VII – Organise staff get-togethers and retreats annually or periodically.

(Wambui et al., 2013:4).

These steps are imperative to effective diversity management in higher educational institutions, including Ghana. This is because diversity is about diverse persons, so there must be a structured and formalised approach through which diverse persons can be reached for employment. In addition, such other strategies as settling in,

orientation and training should be made available to all diverse employees to eschew any form of negative perceptions.

2.2.2.3 Best practices and strategies in diversity management

Diversity management in educational institutions is structured using international best practices to meet global focus. These global best practices of diversity management practices include top management support and managerial accountability for diversity, strategic goals, mentoring programmes, alternative work arrangements, social interactions, diversity training (Alhejji et al., 2016, Sabharwal, 2014), numeric representation and same ideals shared by all persons including staff and clients (Choi & Rainey, 2014). Some of the best diversity management practices are discussed below.

Top management support and managerial accountability for diversity management in educational institutions are major best practices. However, adopting diversity management programmes does not necessarily bring about effective implementation (Choi & Rainey, 2014). Thus, to achieve educational institutions' goals, diversity management must become a management effort and strategy championed by top-level management (Kalargyrou & Costen, 2017; Sabharwal, 2014). Only when there is commitment, effective leadership, and cooperation of all employees can the gains of diversity management be made (Sabharwal, 2014, Dike, 2013). This is because any acts of indifference to implementing diversity strategies from senior management would render the diversity plan unfruitful (Corporate Finance Institute, 2020). Another way through which educational institutions support diversity management is through managerial accountability for diversity. Therefore, top management support should include their support for accountability in the diversity management process.

Secondly, educational institutions should make it a strategic goal to ensure good diversity management. The tertiary level of education can make diversity part of their objectives to get the most out of their diverse workforce (Corporate Finance Institute, 2020; Kalargyrou & Costen, 2017). Kalargyrou and Costen (2017) suggest that diversity should be considered integral to the business's success and incorporated

into the organisation's overall strategy. According to the Corporate Finance Institute (2020), organisations should not shy away from publicly embracing and working with persons from diverse backgrounds. Organisations should encourage and support activities that improve the welfare of underprivileged and vulnerable groups, such as funding their activities, supporting disability walks or HIV/AIDs awareness programmes, and offering scholarships and internships to minority groups (Corporate Finance Institute, 2020). Moreover, educational institutions can form associations that accept and include all types of persons and collaborate with public agencies and skills-providing institutions to satisfy their diverse employees, including persons with disabilities (Kalargyrou & Volis, 2014). Veldsman (2013) opines that long-term diversity orientation, diversity interpretation, employee engagement, and diversity training, such as cross-cultural training, are effective strategic tools for managing diversity which could boost the organisation's diversity climate.

Additionally, educational institutions should engage in mentoring programmes or activities to enhance diversity management. At the educational level, diversity in mentoring is seen in academic mentoring. According to Lacey (1999), a mentor refers to a dependable and influential person that collaborates with another person (mentee) to assist him/her in learning new things or expose them to concepts or things that he/she would not have had the chance to learn. It is "a relationship which gives people the opportunity to share their professional and personal skills and experiences, and to grow and develop in the process" (Spencer, 1996:5). Similarly, it also refers to a scenario where a more seasoned or knowledgeable person works with a newcomer or an inexperienced individual in an organisation (Lacey, 1999). Mentoring covers providing instruction, giving emotional support, inspiring and coaching. According to Appelbaum (2000), giving people encouragement and direction to experiment, using their qualities and skills to their advantage, and assisting them in finding suitable and rewarding careers are all processes of mentoring. Mentoring can be a formal or informal arrangement where more senior or experienced members of an institution take their less experienced members by providing them guidance, advice and support (Kalargyrou & Volis, 2014).

Another best practice for ensuring diversity management is through alternative work

arrangements. Alternative work arrangements can be made in the educational sector through flexible work schedules. Flexible work schedules turn to enhance proper management of workforce diversity to ensure positive organisational performance. Adjusting work arrangements include redesigning work schedules through the use of technologies and other factors associated with individuals to improve the organisation's effectiveness and workers' job results (Hayman, 2009). Examples of work schedule activities in the educational sector include flexi-time, where working hours allow employees to have the freedom to select their starting and closing time daily on the assumption that they work for a certain number of hours daily or weekly; division and rationalisation of job where two part-time staff perform job roles of one full-time staff; and shortened week through increasing the number of hours worked per day.

Promoting social interactions with colleagues is one of the best practices that enhance diversity management. Social interactions with colleagues have been acknowledged as a highly valued job aspect for many workers (Abugre, 2012). According to Chen and Huang (2007), social interactions refer to the degree to which a group of people with similar ties cooperate, communicate and trust each other. Social relationships among employees in the education sector serve as a platform to share information and other associated benefits to educational institutions (Chen & Chang, 2011). According to Hsiao, Chen and Chang (2011), social interaction assists in harmonising discussions and effective information management and can improve communication for enhanced organisational output. It is noted that an assessment of the management of information competencies, effective social communication, and obtaining and use of knowledge significantly enhance diverse performance (Chen & Huang, 2007; Hsiao, Chen & Chang, 2011).

One of the best practices is diversity training. Training employees in the educational sector reduces employee diversity's negative effect where workers may look down on others due to their differences in age, gender, educational level, culture, race, skin colour, experiences and others. Diversity training ensures that employees are enlightened in the performance of their jobs to embrace others that may seem and look different from themselves. When trained in this regard, employees cultivate

social, cultural and emotional intelligence in their area of expertise. Quansah (2013:103) noted that “training is any attempt to improve current or future employees by increasing employees’ abilities to perform through learning, usually by changing the employees’ attitudes or increasing their skills, capabilities and knowledge.” Moreover, according to Armstrong (2020:235), training “is considered as a process of modifying employees’ behaviour through learning which transpires as a result of consistent education, instruction, development and planned experience.”

Recruitment activities constitute another area of diversity practice which enhances organisational success. Educational institutions are required to identify and engage new talent pools from non-traditional hire sources such as minority groups, veterans exiting the military, and across different countries (Corporate Finance Institute, 2020, Kalargyrou & Costen, 2017). Kalargyrou and Costen (2017) opine that organisations should create recruitment plans to attract diverse talent pools. The availability of fresh talents from varied backgrounds provides diverse skills and knowledge to deliver better and quality services for the organisation to maintain a competitive advantage (Corporate Finance Institute, 2020).

Equal representation and shared values by employees are best practices of organisational diversity management. Diversity management practices and strategies should provide a secure forum for discussing the challenges associated with diversity (Corporate Finance Institute, 2020). It is important to eliminate unsupportive organisational cultural practices that have tendencies to create exclusive work environments of unequal representations (Sabharwal, 2014). In this direction, Corporate Finance Institute (2020) suggests that organisational networks and resource groups should be created, and employees of similar backgrounds should be encouraged to link up and communicate freely among themselves. While there should be increases in mentoring, networking and socialising, it is important to ensure that other diversity management programmes are not skewed towards certain employees to cause dissatisfaction in the organisation (Corporate Finance Institute, 2020; Choi & Rainey, 2014).

One other best strategy of diversity management is that organisations should

distinguish between their diversity and affirmative action programmes (Corporate Finance Institute, 2020) and establish effective diversity measures quantitatively and qualitatively (Kalargyrou & Costen, 2017). Essentially, affirmative action programmes are implemented by governments and are targeted at women and minority groups. In contrast, diversity management programmes are created and implemented by organisations. They can change the organisation because people from diverse backgrounds, beliefs and cultures bring different work styles, thoughts and perspectives for effectiveness, efficiency, innovation and creativity (Corporate Finance Institute, 2020).

Other recommended best practices of diversity management identified by Kalargyrou and Costen (2017) are linking diversity management to performance, making sure that leaders are responsible for their actions towards the achievement of diversity objectives, taking part in effective planning, devising methods to create employee participation in achieving diversity objectives, teaching and explaining to management and employees about the advantages of diversity (Kalargyrou & Costen, 2017). Similarly, Amegashie (2018) identified the following as strategies that service organisational leaders adopt to be ahead of their peers in the market: adding diversity to organisational goals and objectives, training and providing information on diversity, providing employment and keeping the employees, providing conducive but inclusive work environments, engaging and leveraging on networks, and being accountable and transparent. Other strategies identified by Bovana (2014) include assessment of the organisation, top leadership commitment, incorporating diversity into strategic planning, measurement impact of diversity, accountability, and employee involvement.

In conclusion, it is imperative to note that diversity management strategies would be achieved only through action, not intent. Thus, organisations should take cogent steps to implement diversity management strategies and create conducive environments for employees to interact meaningfully and exhibit mutual understanding (Davis, Frolova & Callahan, 2016b).

2.2.2.4 The Barriers to effective diversity management

Some scholars have raised criticisms against diversity management initiatives as championing the position of minority groups (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Yang & Konrad, 2011). This has resulted in most groups faulting the educational institutions as unfair and unreliable (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015). Further, it is acknowledged that there is a lack of consensus in the workforce diversity and diversity management literature (Choi & Rainey, 2014). According to Choi and Rainey (2014:310), “despite the optimistic views, the diversity management literature still shows little consensus over what outcomes diversity management can bring in diverse organisational contexts.” Therefore, the crux becomes how to effectively manage a diversified workforce in different contexts to achieve educational goals (Dike, 2013).

Scholars identify discrimination, ethnocentrism, stereotypes and prejudice as the most occurring barriers to organisational diversity management (Ikeije & Lekan-Akomolafe, 2015; Ogbo, Anthony & Ukpere, 2014; Wambui et al., 2013; Patrick & Kumar, 2012). According to Patrick and Kumar (2012), other barriers are harassment, backlash and blaming of victims (Patrick & Kumar, 2012). An investigation conducted by Davis, Frolova, and Callahan (2016a) on the perspectives and behaviours of some managers in Australia showed that the bane to effective diversity management is improper communication of diversity management messages. Other barriers include the absence of leadership acumen among diverse staff, career and family life challenges, and opposition to change (Ogbo, Anthony & Ukpere, 2014).

Similarly, Ikeije and Lekan-Akomolafe (2015) suggest that barriers to diversity management, such as cultural resistance, negative attitudes and behaviours, complaints and legal actions against organisations, may adversely affect working relationships and damage employee morale, leading to personnel and productivity losses. Further, Wambui et al. (2013) identified the following challenges: complaints and court actions, communication barriers, resistance to change, undesirable attitudes and behaviours, implementation difficulties, generational gaps and different human characteristics and perspectives. According to Wambui et al. (2013), animosity, suspicion and generational gap are the significant barriers to diversity

management in Kenya.

In the educational sector in Ghana, the following barriers are peculiar: Discrimination is a strong barrier which impedes good diversity management in the educational sector of Ghana (Atuahene & Owusu-Ansah, 2013). Employee discrimination can be seen in two ways (Hirsh & Kmec, 2009). The first part is that employees are supposed to be protected from discrimination based on sex, gender, race and religion. The second employee discrimination is based on the minority group in a work setting, such as women and disabilities. Therefore, the employer has different expectations to initiate proactive policies to ensure these groups receive full consideration in hiring, promotion and other human resource decisions (Hirsh & Kmec, 2009). According to the Labour Act (2003) of Ghana, unfair labour practice includes being biased towards the working conditions of someone because the person is a leader or member of a labour union. Again, any form of prejudices, threats or favouritism based on the employees' age, gender, ethnic group, religious groupings and others is guilty of unfair labour practice. On the other hand, any attempt by union leaders or members to frighten the employer during collective bargaining discussions is tantamount to unfair and biased labour practices (Labour Act, 2003).

Another barrier in the educational sector in Ghana is harassment in schools, especially at the tertiary levels of education (Atuahene & Owusu-Ansah, 2013). Workplace harassment includes all types of maltreatment, such as being biased, unwarranted sexual provocations, hazardous environments, and hostility at the workplace. These workplace harassments could be from one person to another person, a person to a group or from a group to a person (Crawshaw, 2009). Harassment at work is an attitude that is purposefully planned to destroy or tarnish the image of another person. Rokonuzzaman et al. (2014) noted that any action aimed at soliciting sexual favours and making unwanted advances for sex constitutes sexual harassment. They further stated that it occurs through bribes, working conditions, extortions or coercion. Therefore, when it creates an intimidating and unpleasant atmosphere that puts fear and impedes effective performance, it is described as a hostile environment for sexual harassment. Sexual harassment could affect either males or females, and it is unsolicited attention, coercion and assault (Berdahl &

Moore, 2006). Berdahl and Moore (2006) posited that women, whether in the majority or minority, are mostly victims than men. Most victims of sexual harassment in organisations are women, and most victims of ethnic harassment are minority groups. Thus, minority women are at a twofold risk of experiencing unacceptable pestering and provocation at work. Therefore, harassment forms a major barrier to diversity management, especially in the educational sector.

Furthermore, the challenges associated with communication are identified as one of the banes to managing diverse employees in the educational sector. The communication barrier reflects that the delegation of duties and roles is unclear. This is seen in many levels of authority and extensive reporting lines that impede the smooth flow of communication. Furthermore, in communicating diversity, there might be misunderstanding and misinterpretation of the language communicated, which can muddle the original intention. This affects good intentions because receivers of the information communicated may interpret it differently, especially when the sender's credibility is at stake. Thus, to eliminate these barriers, educational institutions must use simple and clear messages, treat employees fairly and ensure that promotions are based strictly on the merit and abilities of employees and not on any arbitrary characteristics.

2.2.3 Consequences of diversity management

Diversity management has many consequences in educational institutions. It is, therefore, imperative to understand that diversity management has implications on outcomes at both the individual and organisational levels (Olsen & Martins, 2012). Thus, Davis, Frolova, and Callahan (2016a) assert that there is evidence that suggests that organisational outcomes, conduct and actions of employees are intimately related to promoting diversity in organisations.

2.2.3.1 Organisational Outcomes of workforce diversity management

At the organisational level, the impact of diversity management on productivity, inspiration of employees, efficiency and interpersonal interactions cannot be

underestimated. Therefore, any process or activity within educational institutions that would serve as obstacles to impede effectiveness should be investigated and changed. There is consensus among diversity scholars that the impacts and consequences of diversity management on organisations are varied and complex (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Choi & Rainey, 2014). It has been suggested that research investigations on the relationship between surface-level and deep-level diversity in work outcomes are mixed (Mor Barak et al., 2016; Girish, 2015). These organisational outcomes are categorised as positive and negative outcomes.

Effective diversity management has also positively influenced organisational outcomes, eliminating workplace diversity conflicts (Girish, 2015). Sabharwal (2014) identified that a diverse workforce improves problem-solving skills because of the varied perspectives, which serve as a comparative advantage, thereby improving performance and productivity. Choi and Rainey (2014) suggest that organisations that implement effective diversity management practices and policies perform better than those that do not have diversity management practices.

Additionally, Fujimoto, Hartel and Azmat (2013) indicated that only a few studies had analysed the influences of diversity management on organisational justice perception. When diversity management is effective and implemented well, employees have positive justice perceptions of the organisation (Hajro, Gibson & Pudelko, 2017, Eisenberger, Malone & Presson, 2016). Accordingly, Fujimoto, Hartel and Azmat (2013) reckon that integrating diversity management and organisational justice principles helps to eliminate unfair incidents in diverse organisations. This integration is imperative because just and fair initiatives increase employees' commitments, which invariably improves productivity (Choi & Rainey, 2014). Educational institutions can therefore use the availability of diversity management initiatives to create perceptions of fairness among a diversified workforce as well as students.

It is thus gainful to suggest that to maximise employee diversity, educational institutions need to create work environments where fairness practices dominate diversity management practices (Fujimoto et al., 2013). For instance, employment

and admission processes should be transparent across all educational levels, especially at the tertiary level. However, except for a few studies, this assertion of the interconnectedness of organisational justice and diversity management remains mostly untested (Choi & Rainey, 2014). Moreover, there are conflicting views about the relationship between diversity and employee behaviour. For example, while some believe that diversity enhances employee behaviour (Patrick & Kumar, 2012), others, such as Sabharwal (2014), noted that diversity management policies, practices and initiatives that improve employee performance could have adverse effects when not managed properly.

On the other hand, diversity management can affect educational institutions negatively. Guillaume et al. (2017) noted that the effects of diversity management on employee productivity are mixed. A study by Mor Barak et al. (2016) revealed that some visible forms of diversity and deep-level diversity are negatively related to beneficial work outcomes, while others exhibit positive or no significant outcomes. Guillaume et al. (2017) found that diversity management lowers performance because, as Sabharwal (2014) suggested, diverse groups in educational settings often have conflicts and have difficulty assembling quickly to perform tasks which may adversely affect performance. It may also result from diverse groups being excluded from important networks, information sessions or decision-making (Choi & Rainey, 2014).

2.2.3.2 Employee consequences of managing workforce diversity

Diversity management is key at the employee level of analysis and is imperative in understanding employee interactions, relationships and outcomes. When diversity-related challenges are not addressed, it wastes resources and affects productivity. Additionally, Wambui et al. (2013) suggest that organisations that fail to adopt effective diversity management practices cannot compete effectively and struggle to attract, motivate and keep diverse staff, clients and partners needed in the current business environment. Other consequences include loss of time and money, increased lawsuits, and employee unrest (Wambui et al., 2013).

On the other hand, Meena and Vanka (2017) posited that it is important to manage diversity to enhance cohesion, communication, and cooperation because when diverse individuals are not properly managed, it brings about less interaction and discrimination of minority or out-group members. Moreover, workplace diversity assists employees in developing and nurturing skills for communal living and cooperation, fostering mutual respect and teamwork, which enhances organisational reputation, quality and productivity (Wambui et al., 2013). Further, global markets provide opportunities for promotion and development to an organisation with diverse employees. Thus, organisations must be interested in effectively managing workforce diversity to eliminate diversity consequences.

Further, there is evidence that although diversity management is intended for all employees, its usefulness is usually perceived differently by minority and majority groups within organisations (Kim, Lee & Kim, 2015). For example, Kim, Lee and Kim (2015) found females to have more favourable perceptions of diversity management practices than males. Their finding is in line with the findings of previous studies, which indicated that men are less favourable to diversity management practices because they affect or change the power structure of organisations (Kim, Lee & Kim, 2015).

For the educational sector in Ghana, proper diversity management will lead to an efficient educational system where employees and students can work freely without fear of victimisation, discrimination and unequal representation of either minority groups or majority groups. At the organisational level, educational institutions would gain improved academic excellence and stand the chance of being recognised internationally. At the employee level in the educational sector, diversity management would boost employees' morale, increase their job satisfaction and contentment and hence improve performance and organisational citizenship behaviours.

2.3 HR-RELATED DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

The basic question to be answered in this section is what constitutes diversity-oriented human resource management practices. Two terminologies of diversity-oriented human resource management practices are found in the literature: diversity-focused human resource management practices (Kundu et al., 2015) and diversity-oriented human resource management practices (Meena & Vanka, 2017). These terms are used interchangeably in the literature. Regarding conceptualising it, various scholars provide various definitions of diversity-focused HRM. According to Meena and Vanka (2017), diversity-oriented human resource management practices refer to effectively aligning or integrating traditional practices with diversity management goals. Meena and Vanka (2017) further explained that diversity-oriented human resource management practices focus on attracting, acquiring and maintaining a diverse workforce in a fair work environment. Likewise, Noor, Khalid and Rashid (2016) define diversity-oriented human resource management practices as including diversity practices in the set of human resource management practices. Moreover, diversity-oriented human resource management practices are a result of connecting diversity management to the operational domains of human resource management (D'Netto et al., 2014).

Noor, Khalid and Rashid (2016) focused on five diversity-oriented human resource management practices (screening and engaging employees, training and development, assessing performance, remuneration, career progression and job security) to determine the influences of these activities on the attitudes and extra-role behaviours of employees in the organisation. Similarly, Kundu et al. (2015) evaluated the link between four diversity-focused human resource management practices (screening and engaging employees, training and development, assessing work and remuneration management) and views of employees on productivity and the mediation effect of procedural justice on them. Building on previous studies, Meena and Vanka (2017) set out to develop classifications of diversity-oriented human resource management practices. They developed seven classes: fairness-oriented selection practices, fairness-oriented performance evaluation practices, fairness-oriented compensation practices, training-oriented practices, team-oriented

practices, control-oriented practices and Identity-free practices.

Strategic Human Resource Management researchers and professionals describe a bundle or group of coherent activities or interventions in human resource management that have been shown to positively influence the performance of firms as high-performance work systems (Do, 2016, Posthuma et al., 2013). Posthuma et al. (2013) emphasised nine practices that lead to high productivity: screening and engagement, training and development, performance management and appraisals, rewards and compensations, job and work design, employee relations, communication, promotions and turnover, retention and exit management.

This study conceptualises diversity-oriented human resource management practices into procedural, distributional and interactive diversity-oriented human resource management practices. This typology makes a case for fairness within the processes and procedures of human resource management practices. The current researcher believes that incorporating fairness within the human resource management processes and procedures will improve organisational outcomes at both the individual and firm levels, ultimately influencing employees' extra-role performance. The procedural diversity-oriented human resource management practices refer to HRM decision-making fair processes and procedures within the organisational human resource management practices to ensure workforce diversity. These may include policies and procedures in staff development, opportunities for employees to be trained and acquire skills in diversified workforce environments, available processes and procedures to recruit employees from diverse backgrounds and advertising job openings through different media sources. Distributional diversity-oriented human resource management practices describe fair outcomes of human resource management practices. It seeks to lay a foundation for fairness within the workspace for all groups of employees. Examples include equal advancement opportunities for all kinds of employees, performance-based pay systems for all employees, equal access to fringe and social benefits, availability of education and development opportunities, and availability of career management and mentoring programmes for all employees. Finally, interactional diversity-oriented human resource management practices refer to how organisations instil effective

socialisations and interactions within human resource management practices at the workplace. This practice includes organisations holding regular multi-cultural activities to bring people of different backgrounds together, organisation of annual international days, availability of high-quality superior-subordinate interactions, availability of multilingual and communication courses for employees, promotion of teamwork and information sharing, elimination of harassment and other discriminatory practices and consensus building at the workplace.

Diversity-oriented human resource management practices are relevant to the educational sector because these practices assist in the management of educational institutions. Most educational institutions, especially universities, use various human resource management practices to achieve organisational performance. Therefore, integrating diversity management into human resource management practices in achieving strategic organisational and employee-level goals is paramount. Practically, most educational institutions, including those in Ghana, engage in recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management and appraisals, rewards and compensations, job and work design, employee relations, communication, promotions, turnover, retention and exit management. For instance, available literature identifies three typologies of human resource management practices that seek to achieve this feat: human resource practices that promote fairness, training and enhance team building (Meena & Vanka, 2017, Roberge et al., 2011). Meena and Vanka (2017), therefore, suggest that within the diversity-oriented human resource management framework, human resource practices contribute positively to the performance of organisations by increasing social interactions and ties among employees, which reduces social categorisation and other inimical social behaviours which negatively impact organisational outcomes.

2.4 WORKFORCE DIVERSITY IN THE GHANA EDUCATION SECTOR

Within the various levels of education, the Ghanaian educational sector has incorporated enhanced diversity management practices based on good policies promoting workforce diversity in education. One of the fundamental issues that the Ghanaian educational system has addressed is open schooling and Open University

systems that have improved access and fairness based on the country's educational goals and objectives (Ingutia, Rezitis & Sumelius, 2020). This was corroborated by Daniel (2012) that the educational sector in Ghana has increased accessibility and involvement (Daniel, 2012). Open schooling provides opportunities for the following persons to access higher education: adolescents and young adults who dropped out of mainstream education, nursing mothers, physically challenged persons, females, and geographically-disadvantaged persons. In addition, this initiative eliminates most of the barriers that females encounter in education, enhancing gender equity at all levels of education in Ghana (Ayentimi et al., 2020).

The nation's second-cycle education has recently witnessed the biggest access to senior high education. This follows the 1992 Constitution, which reiterates that "Secondary Education in its different forms, including technical and vocational education, shall be made generally available and accessible to all by every appropriate means, and in particular, by the progressive introduction of free education" (Constitution of Ghana, 1992). In fulfilment of this provision, previous governments put in place programmes to boost access, quality and equity, such as free secondary education enjoyed by students of northern extraction, scholarships by the Cocoa Board, excellence scholarships for secondary schools, hardship scholarships, senior high school subsidy, and progressively free secondary education (Ministry of Education, 2018). These various attempts by various governments have contributed towards achieving the gradual implementation of the Free Senior High School (FSHS) policy in direct response to fulfilling the requirements of Article 25 Section (b) of the 1992 National Constitution (Constitution of Ghana, 1992).

Previous governments took bold steps to make senior high education progressively accessible nationwide. This started by covering day students' public Senior High School (SHSs) costs. The sponsorships included the absorption of examination, entertainment, library, Students Representative Council (SRC), sports, culture, science and mathematics quizzes, Information Communication Technology (ICT) and co-curricular fees for 320,488-day students in public SHSs. This was expanded to include 120,000 boarding students by the 2015/16 academic year (Ministry of Education, 2018). Through these measures, efforts were made towards achieving the

sustainable development goals (SDG), especially those related to education. According to goal four of the SDG, “by 2030, all boys and girls should complete free equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes” (UNDP Report, 2020).

Following their victory in the 2016 general elections, the current government implemented the FSHS policy, their premier education policy. However, this created controversy about its benefits, sustainability and accompanying challenges (Ministry of Education, 2018). Under the FSHS policy, the government was expected to pay every cost covering feeding, tuition, and other charges of all first-year students admitted in the 2017/2018 academic year. As a result, parents were wholly relieved from the obligation of paying their children’s school fees (Ministry of Education, 2018). The Ministry further suggested that parents will have money to put down from the upcoming three years of their children’s senior high school years (Ministry of Education, 2018). Thus, parents can set those monies aside to cover their children’s university education costs.

There are other relevant policy documents, both international and local, that encourage diversity, inclusiveness and affirmative action. Ghana is a member of some of these international bodies, and therefore, as a matter of necessity, comply with these international treaties, conventions and laws regarding diversity management, inclusivity, and affirmative actions. The SDGs have called for the promotion of equal opportunities, eradication of inequality, poverty and economic emancipation for all people (Suleymanov, 2014). International stakeholders in education have encouraged many countries to enhance inclusive education for all by taking into account a substitution and modification of the content of curricula, activities, policies, frameworks and strategies aimed at meeting children’s social and educational requirements irrespective of their sex, age, class or physical orientation in a typical education system (UNESCO, 2009).

In terms of local participation, Ghana has gradually expanded inclusive education in recent years. Significant stakeholders in education at the district level were trained on appropriate methods and styles of teaching to adopt when handling children with

special educational needs through the inclusive education programme (Tagoe, 2014). In addition, the Persons with Disabilities Act (2006:7) states that “no school in the country should reject any child, with the only exception being where assessment results show that regular education placement is inappropriate.” Thus, it is only when the child’s examination shows that his/her condition is serious which would necessitate him/her special placement at the school. This means it is mandatory to be enrolled in a school for all children with special needs to receive quality education (Anlimachie & Avoada, 2020). Thus, to ensure their educational success, students with special needs must be given adequate attention and support systems to access them quickly.

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This Chapter dealt with workforce diversity, its conceptualisations and the related concepts that offer clarity to the understanding of workforce diversity management. The review further captured definitions of workforce diversity, diversity management, dimensions of diversity and the evolution of diversity management. The Chapter also captured related concepts such as affirmative action and inclusiveness in the educational sector. Moreover, the guiding principles in diversity management, the processes involved in effective diversity management and best practices in diversity management were discussed. The barriers to effective diversity management and the consequences of diversity management were also discussed in this chapter. In addition, key issues regarding diversity-oriented human resource management practices covering the conceptualisation of the term, its typologies, and its influences on employee and organisational outcomes were also reviewed and discussed. Finally, workforce diversity in the Ghanaian education sector was also discussed. The following chapter will review and discuss available literature on organisational citizenship behaviour, its theoretical perspectives, and underlying linkages with workforce diversity and diversity-oriented human resource management practices.

CHAPTER 3: ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter presents an overview of the literature on organisational citizenship behaviour. It provides a detailed summary of the origin of the construct, its definition and the types or dimensions of OCB. It further reviews and discusses theoretical perspectives, antecedents of OCB, best practices to elicit organisational citizenship behaviour, and the link between diversity-oriented human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviours. Finally, organisational citizenship behaviour in the Ghanaian context is also discussed.

3.2 ORIGIN OF THE OCB CONSTRUCT

Katz and Kahn (1978) assert that OCB originated in the 1980s at a workplace when staff members engaged in extra-role behaviours, which Yusof, Yaacob, and Rahman (2019) claim have major effects on employee and organisational results. Later, these extra-role actions were referred to as organisational citizenship behaviours by Bateman and Organ (Organ, 1988). Organisational citizenship behaviour was defined and conceptualised as a result of further research by Organ and his team. Organisational citizenship behaviour is used to describe the various extra-role activities that are undertaken by employees which are not sanctioned and rewarded by the workplace but invariably increase the success and efficiency of the organisation (Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013; Dzansi & Dzansi, 2010; Organ, 1988: 4). Extra-role behaviours have been discovered, some of which include making objective, positive comments about one's department, demonstrating personal interest in others' work, mentoring new employees, adhering to laws and regulations, being on time, and taking care of the organisational property (Chen et al., 2013; Organ, 1990).

Since then, the construct has drawn significant interest from both practice and academia (Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013), and it has undergone multiple evaluations that have reinforced and improved it (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Organ, 1988;

Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). For instance, Smith, Organ and Near (1983) claim that when organisational citizenship behaviour was first developed, two dimensions were created: general compliance (demonstrating conformity to general guidelines and standards) and altruism (attitudes that are aimed at assisting specific persons). Later, three categories—helping behaviour, civic virtue, and sportsmanship behaviour—were established by Podsakoff, Ahearne and MacKenzie (1997). Organ (1988) conducted additional analyses that led to the creation of five distinct dimensions: civic virtue, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and altruism. Williams and Anderson's (1991) subsequent research on organisational citizenship behaviour led them to categorise the dimensions into two groups: those that benefit individual employees within the organisation, like courtesy and altruism, and those that benefit the entire company, like conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue (Emami et al., 2012; Williams & Anderson, 1991). However, the five dimensions of Organ (1988) essentially became the core components of OCB and the major focus in modern management literature. Therefore, this study concentrates on these five dimensions.

The origin of OCB and its dimensions have been applied to several sectors, such as the educational sector. According to Ocampo et al. (2018), the contextual application of OCB in the educational sector has been slow in its development. Although the concept has been developed since the 1980s, its application in the education sector started recently in the 2000s (Swati et al., 2012). From the beginning of the studies of OCB, the majority of the studies were theoretical rather than empirical, hence the slow contextualisation of OCB in the educational sector. Just as organisational citizenship behaviour is essential in every type of company worldwide, it is also required in the educational sector. Thus, the educational sector, particularly the universities, has essential responsibilities in improving the quality of education and developing excellent tertiary education organisations to compete worldwide. Studies on OCB in tertiary institutions in Ghana are very few. Indeed, Tandoh (2020) observed that scholars and researchers of OCB ignored the educational sector in Ghana. A study conducted on the OCB of the teaching staff of the Centre for Distance Education of the University of Cape Coast (UCC) in Ghana showed that OCB among the employees is diverse and high, increasing UCC's image and reputation (Tandoh,

2020). Therefore, OCB in higher education must be developed to establish good working behaviours and attitudes that influence overall organisational performance. This would be in fulfilment of the observations made by Sopiya and Soeling (2020:1030) that OCB comprised an increased level of engagement, increased levels of output, employee engagement in projects, cordial working relationship with peers, interest in the community, respect for one another, teamwork and organisational pride for tertiary level of education.

3.3 DEFINING OCB

Various definitions of OCB were given after the first concrete definition by Organ and his team (Rubel & Rahman, 2018; Fajar & Soeling, 2017; Yadav & Punia, 2013; Organ, 1988). According to Organ (1988: 4), OCB refers to “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly recognised by the formal reward system which in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation.” The concept is that individual employees have the “willingness to cooperate” and appropriately respond to work situations with innovative and spontaneous behaviours (Yadav & Punia, 2013). Therefore, Yadav and Punia (2013) define citizenship behaviours as comprising all positive and acceptable actions and activities that employees undertake of their own volition, which benefit their fellow workers and positively impact the organisation. This means that organisational citizenship behaviours are self-imposed by employees, not specifically spelt out in the job descriptions and requirements and do not lead to financial pay-outs or attract sanctions for non-performance.

Moreover, Fajar and Soeling (2017) suggest that organisational citizenship behaviour includes volunteering for additional work, assisting peers at work and making positive comments about the organisation. Therefore, the concept of OCB is underpinned by voluntary employee activities and the willingness of employees to participate in activities that boost organisational objectives. According to Rubel and Rahman (2018), organisational citizenship behaviour refers to all forms of behaviours of employees that have beneficial organisational impacts but are not connected to the compensation structure.

Many organisations aim to achieve organisational citizenship behaviour because it is prime and critical for organisational effectiveness, has positive, beneficial effects and serves as a source of competitive advantage for organisations (Rubel & Rahman, 2018; Fajar & Soeling, 2017; Ahmed, 2016; Begum et al., 2014) and necessary for employee rewards and evaluations and organisational excellence (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2017). In addition, it is worth noting that organisational citizenship behaviour has been identified and used in organisational research as a measure of employees' expression of positive organisational behaviour (Emami et al., 2012) that brings about change and effectiveness of organisations (Beal, Stavros & Cole, 2013). As a result, organisational citizenship behaviour continues to receive increased attention from scholars and professionals to understand its nature and sources within organisations (Fajar & Soeling, 2017; Gyekye & Haybatollahi, 2015). Therefore, In this study, organisational citizenship behaviour refers to all forms of actions, attitudes and behaviours that are not formally spelt out as an organisational requirement or procedure but are exhibited by employees to enhance organisational effectiveness and fortune.

The definitions presented by various scholars in the OCB literature are important and can be applied to the educational sector. For instance, tertiary-level institutions, including Technical Universities and Colleges of Education in Ghana, are influenced by staff discretionary behaviours toward individuals and institutions. This makes the role of tertiary-level educational institutions very crucial in training employees to perform core duties and exhibit voluntary behaviours that enhance organisational growth. In addition, educational institutions provide high-level knowledge and skills and, more essentially, act as a source of the labour market where skilled labour forces are developed and trained (Dirican & Erdil, 2016; Sopiyaana & Soelingc, 2020). Accordingly, tertiary education level employees must understand and develop the willingness to perform positive and acceptable actions and activities that benefit their fellow workers and positively impact the organisation. This is usually possible when employees set strategic goals and implement the institution's vision, mission, and other strategic objectives for effective growth. In this regard, developing OCB in employees includes shaping the positive orientated behaviours and attitudes towards

the execution of tasks and going beyond official duties to perform voluntary actions in assisting peers at work and making positive comments about the organisation.

3.4 TYPES OF OCB

An extensive body of literature has identified organisational citizenship behaviour as different types or forms. However, Podsakoff et al. (2000) developed approximately thirty organisational citizenship behaviour typologies. These were classified into helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue, and self-development. Similarly, Organ (1990) identified and named five types of organisational citizenship behaviour: courtesy, altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness (Ahmed, 2016; Organ, 1990). Singh and Srivastava (2016) postulate that courtesy is treating others with respect and preventing conflicts from arising from work relationships, altruism is assisting other employees in their tasks activities such as helping less skilled, newly engaged, over-loaded or absent employees, and sportsmanship refers to non-complaining attitudes of employees, that is, employees, having positive attitudes. Further, Singh and Srivastava (2016) suggest that civic virtue refers to employees taking an active part in organisational administration, volunteering ideas and strategies to improve the procedures in the organisation; and conscientiousness describes employees carrying out or performing in-role behaviour beyond the minimum levels such as working long hours and obeying rules and regulations.

Recent scholars, taking a cue from the work of Podsakoff et al. (2009), categorised the five dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour into two main types. In essence, the behaviours targeted at individual employees and people; and those targeted at the organisation (Rubel & Rahman, 2018; Jain & Rizvi, 2018; Memon et al., 2017; Singh & Srivastava, 2016; Beal, Stavros & Cole, 2013; Sesen & Basim, 2012). The later dimensions, which consist of civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness, cover all kinds of voluntary behaviours that influence whole organisations, while the former dimensions, which comprise altruism and courtesy, include all discretionary behaviours that benefit individuals in the workplace (Donia, O'Neill & Brutus, 2018; Memon et al., 2017, Singh & Srivastava, 2016; Sesen &

Basim, 2012).

Usually, employees assess the organisational environment and associated work conditions before deciding to engage in citizenship behaviours (Gyekye & Haybatollahi, 2015). Thus, employees will actively engage in organisational citizenship behaviours when they have positive perceptions of the workplace and when the organisation adopts fair and just procedures and processes (Gyekye & Haybatollahi, 2015). Similarly, it has been revealed that employees who participate in citizenship behaviours are satisfied, committed, involved and desirous of the organisation achieving its goals and objectives (Jena & Pradhan, 2018). In Ghanaian tertiary institutions, factors that influence teaching staff to perform OCB include truthfulness, the loyalty of workers, happiness, how employees view their jobs, the attitude of leaders, leader-member exchange, personal nature and how old the person is (Tandoh, 2020). Besides, Yadav and Punia (2013) posit that organisations such as educational institutions can also encourage their employees to engage in citizenship behaviours by providing an enabling environment and motivation. On the contrary, Yuen Onn et al. (2018) reveal that very often, the inclination of an employee to engage in citizenship behaviours is motivated primarily by the employee's interest, such as to impress managers or career prospects, and not the organisation's interest. Such tendencies are self-serving and do not benefit the organisation; hence employees must comprehend the nature of citizenship behaviours as voluntary and not a part of organisational incentives (Bolino & Grant, 2016).

This study largely adopts the various types of organisational citizenship behaviour identified by Organ (1988): altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. This is because they are the most used typologies of OCB (Abdulrab et al., 2020), serve as the building blocks to other dimensions (Obiora & Okpu, 2015) and are usually the basis on which other modern dimensions are formed (Thiruvankadam & Durairaj, 2017).

3.4.1 Altruism

Altruism describes all kinds of helping behaviours of an employee to another employee with no reward expectation (Organisational Psychology Degrees, 2018). According to Dzansi and Dzansi (2010:5), “altruism is a voluntary action that helps a specific other person with an organisationally related task or activity, or an attitude or way of behaving marked by an unselfish concern for the welfare of others or the belief that acting for the benefit of others is right and good.” In other words, altruism is when an employee extends a helping hand to other colleagues expecting no compensation. Some of the ways it can be exhibited at the workplace include an academic staff deciding to assist a colleague to complete his/her lecturing task or other tasks, volunteering to perform certain special projects, volunteering to perform extra work to reduce the workload of other lecturers or tutors, and assisting new teaching staff to acclimatise at the workplace when they first arrive (Business NLP Academy, 2020, Mitonga-Monga & Cilliers, 2016). Some benefits of altruism are enhancing productivity and effectiveness and decreasing the stress load on other employees, especially those overwhelmed with tasks (Business NLP Academy, 2020).

Altruism relates to the educational sector in its application in terms of classroom work, collaborative research work, community services, free consultancy services to students and colleagues and mentoring other young academic staff such as teaching assistants and research assistants. Researchers (Diep et al., 2016; Omale & Amana, 2014) have observed that altruism as a factor of OCB significantly influences the knowledge-sharing behaviours of both students and staff of universities. However, the extent to which an altruistic worker contributes to work in universities in Ghana is likely dependent on the worker has feeling regarding affective commitment, reciprocity and the evaluation of the perceived cost-benefit analysis (Omale & Amana, 2014).

3.4.2 Courtesy

Courtesy describes acts of politeness or consideration that an employee exhibits towards other employees (Organisational Psychology Degrees, 2018). It is “a

discretionary behaviour or effort to prevent work-related problems with others” (Dzansi & Dzansi, 2010:5). This means that individuals decide voluntarily to live peaceably with others. It shows care and concern for what other employees are going through. It can be expressed through inquiring about the status of personal subjects or matters that a colleague earlier mentioned, inquiring whether a colleague has challenges with certain aspects of assigned tasks, and alerting colleagues about prior engagements or commitments such as being absent from work (Business NLP Academy, 2020).

The application of courtesy as a dimension of OCB to the educational field is seen in the fact that workers (lecturers) mostly exhibit a high level of politeness and consideration in discharging their duties. These discretionary behaviours of lecturers or tutors in tertiary educational institutions in Ghana are usually expressed through lectures and interactions with students, colleagues and even subordinates (Kwarteng, 2021). Furthermore, at the tertiary level of education, workers usually take necessary steps to solve potential problems that could damage the school’s reputation. For instance, in tertiary institutions in Ghana, lecturers serve as mediators and counsellors between students and university administration in times of students’ misunderstanding of certain treatments in the school.

3.4.3 Sportsmanship

Dzansi and Dzansi (2010:5) describe sportsmanship as “any behaviour that demonstrates a willingness to tolerate less than ideal circumstances or inconveniences without complaining, or observance of the rules of fair play, respect, and graciousness in losing towards customers”. Similarly, Organisational Psychology Degrees (2018) posits that sportsmanship occurs when an employee decides and continues to exhibit cheerfulness, dedication, and commitment towards work despite hostile and unfair decisions. According to Business NLP Academy (2020), sportsmanship is when an employee shows no signs of negativity when something does not go as planned or when he/she perceives something as annoying, frustrating, difficult, or sabotaging. For example, it is exhibited when university workers do not complain or gossip when their assignments or projects are not selected (Business

NLP Academy, 2020). This means that an employee who keeps calm without showing signs of upset or disappointment when faced with inconveniences at the workplace exhibits sportsmanship. The underlying issue is to maintain good relationships at the workplace.

The spirit of sportsmanship is exhibited mainly at the tertiary education level when lecturers or teachers are committed to their job responsibilities despite their low remuneration levels. In Ghana, teachers exhibit high sportsmanship in their service in Nation building. Yamoah (2013) noted that though teachers do not get the reward system they require, the performance of their formal job requirements and discretionary duties is measured as positive. At the tertiary level, lecturers go beyond and above themselves to add to and support the overall enhancement of the universities they serve.

3.4.4 Conscientiousness

Conscientiousness refers to “a discretionary behaviour that goes well beyond minimal role and task requirements or showing great care, attention, and industriousness in carrying out a task or role, especially towards customers or doing things according to a sense of right and wrong especially towards customers” (Dzansi & Dzansi, 2010:5). Conscientiousness also refers to actions of employees that depict a high level of self-control and discipline beyond the acceptable requirements in a certain scenario. It is exhibited through punctuality at work, staying late after work, and doing more than is assigned (Organisational Psychology Degrees, 2018). It occurs when employees exhibit diligence at the workplace and go beyond the job description to design or develop new processes or procedures to undertake assignments effectively (Mitonga-Monga, & Cilliers, 2016).

Conscientiousness is useful in the educational sector, especially at the tertiary level. Workers in the tertiary level exhibit punctuality at work, staying late after work and doing more than is assigned. Agyemang, Dzandu and Boateng (2016) observe that conscientiousness, one of the big five personality traits, significantly impacts knowledge sharing dispositions and actions of university teachers. At the tertiary level

of education in Ghana, conscientious teachers are dependable, persistent, punctual to lectures, hardworking, and result-oriented lecturers (Agyemang et al., 2016). In addition, they are usually associated with self-discipline, dutifulness, competence as well as having a high level of self-motivation.

3.4.5 Civic virtue

Civic virtue occurs when employees defend their organisations' reputations and take steps, whether at work or outside, to promote the name or goodwill of the organisation (Organisational Psychology Degrees, 2018). It means representing one's workplace well and supporting one's organisation (Business NLP Academy, 2020). Further, civic virtue is exhibited when employees portray the positive aspects of the organisation wherever they find themselves, participating in activities of the organisation and being an advocate for the organisation (Business NLP Academy, 2020). Further, the civic virtue of workers in the educational sector can be seen through voluntary attendance at meetings and organisational functions, reading and abiding by organisational notices and bulletins (Mitonga- Monga & Cilliers, 2016). In addition, it has been noted that civic virtue increases employee performance and job satisfaction because it nurtures a sense of community within the business environment (Business NLP Academy, 2020).

In the educational sector, especially at the tertiary level, most lecturers of Technical Universities and tutors of colleges of education exhibit a great deal of civic virtue. Moreover, lecturers and tutors go the extra mile to protect their respective institutions' reputations during academic competitions. For instance, most lecturers contribute to uplifting their university through cutting-edge research that addresses modern challenges (Kwarteng, 2021).

3.5 OTHER CONSTRUCTS SIMILAR TO OCB

The increasing interest of researchers/scholars in organisational citizenship behaviour over the past two decades has led to several terminologies being used interchangeably with organisational citizenship behaviour in the literature

(Tamunomiebi & Onah, 2019). The following are some of the terminologies used which show some level of similarity with OCB: pro-social organisational behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), organisational loyalty (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), extra-role behaviour (Vandynne, Cummings & Parks, 1995) and organisational commitment (Thiruvenskadam & Durairaj, 2017).

With pro-social organisational behaviour, Brief and Motowidlo (1986) refer to how employees go above and beyond themselves to perform their duties, which is a well-known factor in determining how an organisation performs. A type of pro-social behaviour is 'contextual performance', which describes activities and services that employees provide freely that benefit the workplace, community and other employees (Bergeron et al., 2013). Contextual performance covers employee attitudes that enhance the organisational environment, including social and psychological contexts (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Edwards et al., 2008). This dimension deals with institutional and social actions that support the accomplishment of the core tasks. Rotundo and Sackett (2002:107) stated, "Behaviours used to describe contextual performance include demonstrating effort, facilitating peer and team performance, cooperating, and communicating". Contextual performance, for instance, describes how the organisation attains effectiveness within the social and psychological environment. It is further separated into interpersonal facilitation and job dedication (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Organisational or employee loyalty is another construct associated with OCB. Recent studies have established employee loyalty as a practice of organisational citizenship behaviours in educational institutions. According to the definition by Fullerton (2003), loyalty means attachment to the organisation that may be considered an emotional response, especially when an employee believes strongly in organisational goals and values and has a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. According to Becker (2016), loyalty could also be defined as a strong desire to maintain a membership in an organisation, a willingness to slug on high levels of effort for the sake of the organisation, and a definite belief in and admissibility of the values and goals of the organisation. Thus, loyalty is characterised by the strong wish to continue

membership in an institution which positively retains members.

The extra-role behaviours of employees towards a company's success cannot be underestimated. Hameed and Waheed (2011) posited that employees are the important assets available to any firm, business, or organisation. Therefore, extra-role behaviours (Vandyne, Cummings & Parks, 1995) are necessary for achieving organisational goals. According to Williams and Anderson (1991), extra-role behaviour involves behaviours that are characterised as organisational citizenship behaviours, thus helping behaviours that are outside the core requirements.

The literature has identified organisational commitment to be a form of OCB. Organisational commitment involves an attachment of members to an organisation (Kipkebut, 2010). In addition, Aladwan, Bhanugopan and Fish (2013) defined organisational commitment as the degree to which employees see themselves as attached and belonging to an organisation. Organisational commitment involves affective, normative and continuance levels of commitment. Although employee commitment to the organisation is a psychological state that binds employees to the organisation, it also reveals discretionary energy whereby an individual develops an attachment to the organisation and is willing to give the best out of himself for the organisation's well-being (Cohen, 2014). Committed employees are usually content with their job and are not tempered to look for other jobs or opportunities somewhere because of the satisfaction they get from the organisation (Aladwan et al., 2013).

Therefore, it is important to note that the common trend that flows through these concepts is that individual discretionary power contributes beyond formal work requirements. Of course, these concepts have some similarities, yet some scholars still use these concepts differently.

3.6 EXPLORING ANTECEDENTS OF OCB

Available empirical studies on organisational citizenship behaviour show that quite a sizable number of studies focus on the antecedents or determinants of citizenship behaviour within organisations (O'Grady, 2018; Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez,

2017; Memon et al., 2017; Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013; Yadav & Punia, 2013; Emami et al., 2012). Emami et al. (2012) suggest that much current research examines antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviours at the individual and group levels. Antecedents of citizenship behaviours are factors that influence organisational citizenship behaviour to occur, or in other words, they are the determinants of organisational citizenship behaviour (Yadav & Punia, 2013; Emami et al., 2012). Some of the antecedents include job satisfaction, personality and job traits, leadership, commitment, perceived justice and fairness, happiness at work, and organisational learning capability (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2017; Yadav & Punia, 2013; Rajjani, 2013); procedural justice and motivational theories (Rasheed, Jehanzeb & Rasheed, 2013); and role perception, individual disposition and employee age (Chahal & Mehta, 2010). Other antecedents found in the literature include job satisfaction, fairness, personality characteristics, and leader supportiveness (Emami et al. 2012); social exchange framework (Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013); and commitment, organisational support, and justice (Perreira & Berta, 2015).

After a comprehensive literature review, Tandoh (2020) posits the following as a revised set of antecedents: job satisfaction and organisational commitment, role perceptions, leader behaviours and leader-member exchange, fair perceptions, individual dispositions, motivational theories, and employee age. Moreover, O'Grady (2018) categorised antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviours into three main dimensions: organisational factors, individual factors, and leadership styles. Similarly, Emami et al. (2012) also identified three groupings of antecedents to comprise personality characteristics, task characteristics, and attitudinal measures. A further review of the antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviours by Noor, Khalid and Rashid (2013) indicates four main categories of organisational citizenship behaviour: individual characteristics, task characteristics, organisational characteristics, and leadership behaviours. To identify the strength of these dimensions on citizenship behaviours, Emami et al. (2012) compared the effects of personality characteristics with attitudinal measures. They found that personality characteristics predict organisational citizenship behaviours more strongly than attitudinal measures. They further posit that the results of studies that examined the

linkage between task characteristics and organisational citizenship behaviours were inconclusive (Emami et al., 2012).

Some scholars who examined dimensions related to organisational factors identified three organisational antecedents of citizenship behaviours: organisational support, organisational climate, internal branding, and group characteristics (O'Grady, 2018; Wu & Liu, 2014; Asha & Jyothi, 2013). According to Wu and Liu (2014), perceived organisational support shows that the organisation cares for its employees and values their activities and inputs, thereby boosting their morale to engage in extra-role behaviours. Group characteristics that have been identified to influence citizenship behaviour include group cohesiveness, team member exchange, group potency, and perceived team support (O'Grady, 2018). O'Grady (2018) further opined that when employees' social identity and values synchronise with the organisation's climate, it positively impacts their citizenship behaviours. Randhawa and Kaur (2015), who conducted further studies on organisational climate, agreed with that assertion by indicating that dimensions of organisational climate (namely support, clarity of organisational goals, welfare, participation, the autonomy of employees, and feedback to employees) have a significant impact on the engagement of citizenship behaviours within an organisation. In addition, the availability of fair and just processes and procedures within the workplace enhances employees' inclination to engage in citizenship behaviours (Yadav & Punia, 2013). Yadav and Punia (2013) further posit that when employees are treated fairly, they feel accepted and valued, making them loyal and boosting their morale to engage in extra-role activities.

Regarding individual determinants, O'Grady (2018) posits that some individual antecedents consist of gender, age, and personality traits. For example, Malik, Ghafoor and Iqba (2012) conducted empirical studies on personality traits and leadership qualities among employees in the banking sector in Pakistan. These authors concluded that these two characteristics significantly bring about citizenship behaviours. However, scholars have identified that though there is a relationship between the age and gender of employees and organisational citizenship behaviours, the influence of age and gender on citizenship behaviour is inconclusive (O'Grady, 2018; Huang, McDowell & Vargas, 2015; Bahrami et al., 2013; Yadav & Punia, 2013).

For instance, further studies conducted by Yadav and Punia (2013) on the role of gender in citizenship behaviours indicate that females have a higher proclivity to participate in citizenship behaviours than males.

On the contrary, the results of a study undertaken by Bahrami et al. (2013) in an Iranian teaching hospital showed that male employees exhibit more citizenship behaviours than their female colleagues. Some other individual antecedents that have been found to trigger organisational citizenship behaviours include personality (Yadav & Punia, 2013) and length of work experience of employees (O'Grady, 2018). O'Grady (2018) posits that employees with extended work experience are deemed work-value congruent, boosting their tendency to engage in citizenship behaviours. Furthermore, O'Grady (2018) opines that an employee's perception of justice within an organisation influences the employee's involvement in citizenship behaviours. This assertion is supported by Chhetri (2014), who suggests that the existence of justice and fair practices within the workplace leads to trust, resulting in citizenship behaviours.

Moreover, it has been found that the leadership styles of managers or superiors significantly impact citizenship behaviours. According to Emami et al. (2012), leadership behaviours significantly predict organisational citizenship behaviours. In a study that was conducted on teachers' organisational citizenship behaviours under different leadership styles, Ali and Waqar (2013) found that apart from the laissez-faire leadership style, all the other leadership styles, namely transactional and transformational leadership styles significantly influence employees to engage in citizenship behaviours (Ali & Waqar, 2013). Among the antecedents discussed, this study focuses on diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perceptions, and employee happiness as contributors to organisational citizenship behaviour.

The antecedents of OCB have many implications for the educational sector, especially at the tertiary level of education in Ghana. The implications are discussed based on individual and organisational levels. At the individual level, workers of the educational sector need to exercise a high level of OCBs in discharging their duties

to achieve a high level of academic and administrative performance. Lecturers at the tertiary level play dual roles in ensuring overall institutional performance; while they ensure academic work is going smoothly, they also play an integral role in organisational performance. At the individual level, staff of tertiary institutions are inherently required to show some level of OCB in their dealings with students as well as colleagues' staff, such as job satisfaction, personality and job traits, commitment, happiness at work, role perception, individual disposition or characteristics and employee demographic characteristics such as age, gender, educational level, experience and others.

At the organisational level, educational institutions are to put structures in place to enhance the antecedents of OCB. Most educational institutions at the tertiary level have institutionalised certain practices to enhance staff performance through OCB activities. The emphasis placed on building a team and group spirit during undergraduate and graduate-level lectures seems to suggest how serious these educational institutions are in enhancing OCB. For instance, group cohesiveness, team member exchange, group potency, and perceived team support (O'Grady, 2018) serve to engage students and staff. Another strategy for enhancing organisational level antecedents of OCB is through organisational climate. This can be seen in various ways, including organisational support, clarity of organisational goals, welfare systems, supporting participative activities, a climate that allows for the autonomy of employees, and prompt feedback to employees (Randhawa & Kaur, 2015). Building a conducive organisational culture supporting OCB initiatives in Ghana's educational sector is also important in determining healthy OCBs. Other organisational-level antecedents of OCB include leader supportiveness, perceived organisational justice and fairness, and organisational learning capability.

3.7 OUTCOMES AND CONSEQUENCES OF OCB

Available studies on the outcomes and consequences of organisational citizenship behaviour are mixed (Chahal & Mehta, 2010). While some researchers (Chahal & Mehta, 2010; Shahzad, 2011) view the consequences of OCB as positive, other researchers (Campbell Pickford & Joy, 2016) view the consequences of OCB as

unfavourable. According to Chahal and Mehta (2010), some of the impacts of organisational citizenship behaviour on the effectiveness of organisations include reduced absenteeism and turnover, employee satisfaction, employee loyalty, employee retention, customer loyalty, and customer satisfaction. On the other hand, for example, Shahzad (2011) identified two major outcomes of organisational citizenship behaviour, firstly, on managerial assessment of the performance of employees and secondly, on the organisation's overall effectiveness. In the former scenario, managers consciously or unconsciously consider their employees' organisational citizenship behaviours whenever evaluating their performance. This is because OCB causes a significant variation in the performance of employees and makes the manager's job easier (Shahzad, 2011). Considering the latter outcome, OCB enhances the organisation's effectiveness because the extra-role behaviours would undoubtedly positively influence the organisation (Shahzad, 2011).

Contrary to the positive consequences, Campbell Pickford and Joy (2016) and Zhang (2011) are among OCB scholars who identified that OCB has negative consequences. According to Campbell Pickford and Joy (2016), negative consequences of OCB include demotivation due to lack of reciprocity from employees assisted, decreased citizenship behaviours due to promotion issues and compromising formal job roles to undertake extra roles. Similarly, Zhang (2011) identified three critical concerns of organisational citizenship behaviour: discrimination because of gender bias, perceived unfairness or injustice among employees not rewarded, which may lead to absenteeism and habituation, or making an extra-role behaviour become an organisational norm which may increase the stress level.

In the education sector, the consequences of OCB are paramount as the positive impact of OCB yields improved results for the institution, especially at the tertiary level. Improved staff satisfaction, staff loyalty, other stakeholders' satisfaction and other stakeholders' loyalty towards the school work collectively towards enhancing the overall performance in the educational sector at the tertiary level (Elstad, Christophersen & Turmo, 2012). Again, the practice of OCB positively affects staff (teaching and non-teaching) retention, reduces turnover, and reduces absenteeism.

According to Elstad et al. (2012), OCB amongst teachers is essential for smoothly running institutional arrangements. Furthermore, Choong et al. (2019) noted that OCB significantly improves teachers' general teaching roles and personal teaching, which is discretionary. Therefore, school management and policymakers are urged to develop effective human resources initiatives and programmes to enhance OCB.

The negative consequences of OCB are also relevant in the educational sector as it helps stakeholders know where to appropriately direct resources to improve or overturn every weakness into strength. For instance, educational institutions should reduce negative consequences of OCB, such as gender bias, perceived unfairness or injustice among staff, which may lead to absenteeism and habitual lateness or general counter-productive work behaviours (Banwo & Du, 2020).

3.8 BEST PRACTICES TO ELICIT OCB

The OCB literature reveals that there are best practices that trigger organisational citizenship behaviours. Some researchers (Rubel & Rahman, 2018; Fajar & Soeling, 2017) suggest that OCBs do not happen independently but must be triggered. The OCB literature is replete with the relevance and impact of organisational citizenship behaviour on the effectiveness and productivity of businesses (Ahmed, 2016; Begum et al., 2014). Thus, the availability and continuous performance of organisational citizenship behaviour within an organisation contribute to the organisation's general growth and performance. Employees can be motivated to engage in citizenship behaviours, including achievement, affiliation, and power. Thus, to influence employees to engage in citizenship behaviours, organisations must strengthen their commitment by creating a supportive and enabling environment and organisational culture for OCB to thrive (Yadav & Punia, 2013). This affirms the point made by Griep, Wingate and Brys (2017) that there is evidence that organisational set-up influences employees' tendency to participate in citizenship behaviours. Besides, there should be an adequate investigation of contextual issues of organisational citizenship behaviours through an overall and integrated approach to studying citizenship behaviours (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2017). For instance, Griep, Wingate and Brys (2017) claimed that scholars should examine citizenship behaviours within

different geographical contexts because geographical contexts influence citizenship behaviours.

Further, to trigger citizenship behaviours, organisations should support and encourage teamwork, link the qualities of OCB with objectives and goals, and provide ample flexibility to their employees (Dash & Pradhan, 2014). Moreover, managers of organisations must exhibit behaviours they seek employees to demonstrate because workplace cultures emanate from top management. Therefore, managers of organisations that demonstrate citizenship behaviours undoubtedly have their employees engaging in citizenship behaviours (Dash & Pradhan, 2014). Besides these, Zhang (2011) posits the following practices that could bring about organisational citizenship behaviour: a conducive office social environment, training supervisors to be aware of citizenship behaviours, and looking out for organisational citizenship behaviour traits in hiring practices. Thus, though organisational citizenship behaviour is voluntary extra-role behaviour exhibited by employees, the organisation and its managers have important roles in fostering and ensuring that such citizenship behaviours thrive in organisations.

The implications of the best practices that trigger OCB in the educational sector deserve much attention. These best practices include creating conducive geographical contexts, managerial commitment to creating a supportive and enabling environment, organisational culture and managerial staff training to enhance understanding of OCB in the educational sector (Dash & Pradhan, 2014; Zhang, 2011). Oplatka (2009) observed that the best practices of OCB ensure that extra-role, non-obligatory and un-rewarded tasks and activities in teaching are perceived by teachers who perform these tasks or activities to have some influence on themselves in terms of a sense of self-fulfilment and a higher level of job satisfaction. Apart from the fulfilment lecturers derive from executing their non-obligatory duties, they also derive satisfaction from the fact that their students can excel in their academic performance (Oplatka, 2009). Moreover, the best practices enable lecturers to derive satisfaction from the evidence noticed from the school's overall performance regarding improved discipline and higher institutional reputation/image.

3.9 MEASURING OCB

The organisational citizenship behaviour literature indicates several conceptualisations and definitions of organisational citizenship behaviour (Mahembe et al., 2015; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Organ, 1988). This is because several different constructs have been developed within the broad scope of organisational citizenship behaviour (Campbell Pickford & Joy, 2016). This has resulted in the lack of an acceptable standard to measure the many conceptualisations of OCB (Mahembe et al., 2015) and the inability to compare studies conducted at different places (Campbell Pickford & Joy, 2016).

Shahzad (2011) noted that the study of Smith, Organ and Near (1983) was the first to develop a measure of organisational citizenship behaviour, which constitutes two components, namely altruism and generalised compliance. Subsequently, Organ (1988) came out with the five-dimensional variables of organisational citizenship behaviour, which turned out to be the most used instrument (Mahembe et al., 2015; Organ, 1988). Podsakoff et al. (1990) developed the organisational citizenship behaviour scale grounded in the work of Organ (1988). The organisational citizenship behaviour scale (Podsakoff et al., 1990) combined Organ's five dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour (altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue). Shahzad (2011) observed that to measure the dimensions well, Podsakoff et al. (1990) came out with a list of items to measure each dimension. Mahembe et al. (2015) and Naqshbandi and Kaur (2013) noted that the organisational citizenship behaviour scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) is empirically distinct, passed the clarity and relevance tests, and has been validated in several countries.

Furthermore, Williams and Anderson (1991) conceptualised organisational citizenship behaviour as a two-dimensional instrument for measuring organisational citizenship behaviour. The first consideration is that organisational citizenship behaviour focuses on the organisation (OCBO) because it benefits the organisation. In contrast, the second consideration is that organisational citizenship behaviour focuses on individuals (OCBI) because it indirectly benefits individuals and the

organisation. Based on this categorisation, some studies posit that organisational citizenship behaviour is a multi-dimensional construct, while others stated that it is uni-dimensional (Yaakobi & Weisberg, 2020; Zhang, Jiang & Jin, 2020; Mitonga-Monga & Cilliers, 2016; Paul, Bamel & Garg, 2016; Xerri & Brunetto, 2013; Wong, Wong & Ngo, 2012). Proponents of the multi-dimensional conceptualisation of organisational citizenship behaviour include Yaakobi and Weisberg (2020), Paul, Bamel and Garg (2016), Xerri and Brunetto (2013), Mohammad, Quoquab Habib and Alias (2011). Nonetheless, LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002) indicated that it does not matter whether organisational citizenship behaviour is measured as a unit-level or multi-level dimension because there are no significant differences between the measures of the two outcomes.

Considering this, the present study employs the organisational citizenship behaviour scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990), which is grounded in the work of Organ (1988) in measuring organisational citizenship behaviour. This implies that OCB must be empirically measured in the five dimensions, namely altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue within the educational sector, especially at the tertiary level. This will help validate the measurement scales in the context of the educational sector in Ghana. Furthermore, the validation of the scale used to measure OCB is necessary to enhance understanding of the operation of OCB in the educational sector.

3.10 OCB IN THE GHANAIAN CONTEXT

Some studies have been conducted in the context of Ghana regarding OCB. In the Ghanaian context and recent literature, OCB is exhibited through employees' intra-role, extra-role and exterior performance. While intra-role and extra-role performances occur within the organisation, exterior performance occurs outside the organisation's walls, such as behaviours of employees who have left and those who are yet to join the organisation. Benuyenah (2021), in a systematic review, posits that though OCB can occur both inside and outside the organisation, these intra-role, extra-role and exterior behaviours can influence organisational performance and must be managed just like any other performance matrix. In this regard, OCB can be

seen as a predictor (Abdul-Samad, Grisham & Mohammed, 2019; Kissi et al., 2019) as well as a predicted variable (Abubakar, 2019; Dartey-Baah & Addo, 2019; Randy-Cofie, 2018; Abane, 2016; Delle & Kumassey, 2013) in the Ghanaian context. In Ghana, the practices of OCB can generally be applied in the educational sector, especially among tertiary educational institutions. Yet, there is a gap in empirical studies in the educational sector in Ghana to validate this view. Hence the quest of this study is to fill this contextual gap in the literature.

Several studies (Kissi et al., 2019; Abdul-Samad, Grisham & Mohammed, 2019; Bosco & Abdul-Samad, 2017) have used OCB as a predictor in finding out the influence of OCB on other work outcomes among Ghanaian organisations. Kissi et al. (2019) examined the interactive effects of OCB on employee performance and found that OCB positively affects employee performance in the Ghanaian construction industry. A study of some selected Ghanaian public universities by Abdul-Samad, Grisham and Mohammed (2019) established that OCB significantly predicts organisational commitment, especially continuance commitment. Similarly, Bosco and Abdul-Samad (2017) noted that there is a positive association between OCB (helping behaviour, sportsmanship, organisational loyalty, organisational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development) and affective commitment as well as self-motivation of higher educational institutions of learning in Ghana.

On the other hand, some researchers (Abubakar, 2019; Dartey-Baah & Addo, 2019; Randy-Cofie, 2018; Abane, 2016; Delle & Kumassey, 2013) have used OCB as a dependent variable which is being affected by other variables in organisations. For instance, Abubakar (2019) noted that job satisfaction and work engagement significantly influence organisational citizenship behaviour. Again, Dartey-Baah and Addo (2019) and Randy-Cofie (2018) investigated leadership's influence on OCB, significantly influenced by transformational and transactional leadership styles. The relationship shows how OCB served as a predicted variable in Ghana. Furthermore, Abane (2016) found positive effects of employee perceptions of corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities on OCB across some selected organisations in Ghana, while Delle and Kumassey (2013) observed that organisational culture has a

significant positive relationship with OCB.

3.11 LINKING DOHRMP AND OCB

The human resource management function is essential for managing diversity in the workplace because of its ability to eschew inequalities among diverse employees (Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013). In similar characteristics, diversity-oriented human resource management practices play vital roles in attracting, motivating, and retaining a diverse workforce because its processes and practices are fair and equitable, which serves as a motivation to employees to exhibit positive attitudes and behaviours at the workplace (Memon et al., 2017; Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013). Furthermore, empirical studies reveal that the implementation of diversity-oriented human resource management practices by firms has influenced employees to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours within organisations (Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013; Kizilos, Cummings & Cummings, 2013). This is because an organisation that effectively implements diversity-oriented human resource management practices is perceived to promote a fair and supportive work environment that triggers extra-role behaviours among its employees (Kizilos, Cummings & Cummings, 2013). Similarly, Memon et al. (2017) claim that effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices are fundamental to employees exhibiting citizenship behaviours within organisations because they make employees feel valued, accepted, and taken care of, which invariably puts an obligation on the employees to exhibit extra-role behaviours.

Paille (2013) posits that organisations that develop the skills and techniques of their employees through training and development generate feelings of being valued, which makes employees reciprocate with positive attitudes, such as extra-role behaviours at the workplace. Some researchers and scholars (Memon et al., 2017; Moshabaki, Madani & Ghorbani, 2013; Kizilos, Cummings & Cummings, 2013; Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013) sought to explain the mechanisms linking diversity-oriented human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviours of employees. Kizilos, Cummings and Cummings (2013), for example, examined recruitment and selection diversity management practices and training and

development of diversity management practices in firms and noted that these practices create a sense of impartiality among employees, which they perceive as being valued by the organisation; and consequently, motivate them to engage in citizenship behaviours. Additionally, Noor, Khalid and Rashid (2013) examined the influences of five diversity-oriented human resource management practices on organisational citizenship behaviour and posit that it is expected that diversity-oriented human resource management practices would positively impact the attitudes and behaviours of employees to engage in citizenship behaviours. Therefore, since effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices influence employees to engage in extra-role behaviours, institutions should implement practical strategies, procedures and processes in implementing diversity-oriented human resource management practices (Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013).

In addition to the above, Kundu et al. (2019) examined the link between diversity-focused human resource practices (namely recruitment and selection diversity management, training and development diversity management, performance appraisal diversity management and compensation diversity management) and perceived firm performance and the mediating effect of procedural justice. Their study revealed a positive relationship between diversity-focused human resource practices and perceived firm performance. In support of this finding, they opine that implementation of diversity-focused human resource practices is non-discriminatory and merit-based and invariably influences the attitudes and behaviours of employees to be loyal and committed to engaging in extra-role activities, which boosts productivity. In support of this perception, Noor, Khalid and Rashid (2013) posit that it is imperative to note that characteristically, diversity-oriented human resource management practices are non-discriminatory practices and processes which provide an equal and fair playing field for all kinds of employees, including minorities. Furthermore, Moshabaki, Madani and Ghorbani (2013) examined the role of diversity-oriented human resource management on organisational citizenship behaviour in the automotive industry in Iran within the purview of organisational justice and commitment. They found that effective diversity-oriented human resource management in compensation, recruitment, and selection practices will likely trigger employees to engage in citizenship behaviours.

The relationship between diversity-oriented human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviour in the context of the educational sector in Ghana is essential because this relationship benefits the management of tertiary institutions. Diversity-oriented human resource management is foundational for developing and sustaining organisational citizenship behaviours among academic and non-academic staff (Diep et al., 2016). In an environment of diversity where staff derives satisfaction with the strategic management style of the institution, positive voluntary behaviours beyond what is required from official engagement behaviours and positive behaviours based on personal choices are usually expected (Kurtulmus, 2016). According to Kurtulmus (2016), who studied the relationship between diversity management and teachers' organisational citizenship behaviour in high schools, diversity management can significantly predict organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment. Therefore, when educational institutions manage diversity effectively, staff may exhibit voluntary behaviours that contribute to the success of that organisation (Mamman, Kamoche, & Bakuwa, 2012). Similarly, it can also get the same expected response from the employees who realise that diversity is tolerated in the institution. As OCBs are voluntary behaviours, it is possible to justify that these behaviours could be observed more in environments where the employees feel comfortable and where there is respect for individual differences.

Despite these findings, D'Netto et al. (2014) suggest inadequate empirical studies on diversity-oriented human resource management practices as a concept and as an organisational antecedent. Similarly, Noor, Khalid and Rashid (2013) posit that although antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviours are quite researched, there is a need to refine and clarify them to understand the concept better. It is equally imperative to undertake further investigations of diversity-oriented human resource management practices as an antecedent of organisational citizenship behaviours within the African context, particularly in the educational sector in Ghana since there is a dearth of literature on the concept in Sub-Saharan Africa. This study seeks to fill this gap in the literature on organisational citizenship behaviour by examining the five dimensions in the context of the educational sector, specifically at the tertiary level of education.

3.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This Chapter reviewed organisational citizenship behaviour, its origin, definition and antecedents. Further, it provided a review of best practices of organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour in the Ghanaian context, and the literature detailing diversity-oriented human resource management practices as an antecedent of organisational citizenship behaviour. In the next Chapter, the mediating variable, employee happiness, and the theoretical perspectives of this study, namely organisational justice and social exchange theories, are reviewed and discussed. These theoretical perspectives are the underlining grounds through which diversity-oriented human resource management practices influence organisational citizenship behaviour. The theoretical perspectives and mediating variables' influences on these concepts constitute the hypotheses tested in this study.

CHAPTER 4: EMPLOYEE HAPPINESS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This study chapter focuses on the conceptualisation and empirical literature review on employee happiness and the relationship between employee happiness and other variables such as diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational justice perception. The chapter begins by highlighting the definitions of employee happiness and its dimensions. It further reviews the literature on the antecedents of employee happiness and the consequences of employee happiness.

4.2 DEFINING EMPLOYEE HAPPINESS

Globally, the concept of happiness is used to describe a person's life, how one is satisfied with life, the dominance of positive moods and emotions and minimal levels of adverse effects (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2016, Cui, Davis & Huang, 2016). Happiness is identified to have numerous benefits; thus, it is appropriate to feel and pursue happiness (Chancellor, Layous & Lyubomirsky, 2015). An employee is happy when s/he regularly experiences positive emotions such as joy, satisfaction, contentment, enthusiasm and interest (Proto, 2016, Oswald, Proto & Sgroi, 2015). Employee happiness refers to the positive attitudes, feelings, moods, emotions, flow styles or positive affective experiences of employees within an organisation (Cui et al., 2016). Salas-Vallina, Alegre and Fernandez (2016) opined that when employees are happy at work, they express happy feelings towards the job and its characteristics, other employees and the whole organisation; and that it lowers turnover of employees and minimises customer complaints (de Waal, 2018). Thus, employees' emotions must not be consigned to the background since employee happiness positively returns to productivity (Oswald et al., 2015). For instance, there is evidence to show that when happiness increases, it results in greater productivity in paid piece-rate tasks because the efforts of happy employees increase (Proto, 2016, Oswald et al., 2015).

Oswald et al. (2015) identified increasing employee efforts at the workplace as one of the main factors that link employee happiness to productivity. With this, educational institutions must put in place effective strategies and policies that will encourage employees to increase their efforts at work (Kiruja & Mukuru, 2018), such as creating a good and diversity-conscious working environment (de Waal, 2018), converting workplaces into high performing organisations (de Waal, 2018; Honyenuga, 2015), and implementing effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices (Collings, Wood & Szamosi, 2018; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 2017; Do, 2016). Since increasing efforts at the workplace are essentially about harnessing the skills, knowledge, abilities, opportunities and willingness of employees to engage in extra-role behaviours, organisations must adopt, invest and make use of diversity-oriented human resource management practices to provide employees with the necessary skills, motivations and willingness to increase their work efforts (Do, 2016; Downey, van der Werff, Thomas & Plaut, 2015). Downey et al. (2015) opined that effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices make employees feel included in the organisation, thus creating a trusting climate and a feeling of belonging, which makes employees happy, positively influencing their engagement and productivity. Similarly, organisations that design and implement effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices are regarded to create care climates and are socially responsible, making the workplace attractive and increasing the employees' happiness (Collings et al., 2018; Noe et al., 2017).

According to Cui et al. (2016), organisational culture and social environment affect employees' happiness at the workplace. A literature review by Suojanen (2012) showed that employee happiness is influenced by higher income, a higher level of professionalism, a reasonable number of working hours, nice co-workers and a favourable working environment, good management that regularly provides constructive feedback, a sense of humour in the workplace and exciting work. Hellstrom (2014) also found that employee happiness in the workplace is influenced by eight dimensions: balance work-life; autonomy; mastery; progress; performance; culture; appreciation, and commitment. It is also evident that people get happy at work due to well-paid jobs, good work-life balance, great variety at the job, individual autonomy, the possibility to learn new things, high job security, and getting support

from co-workers (De Neve & Ward, 2017). In summary, four factors influence employees' happiness at work: the nature of the job, relationships with superiors and colleagues, the workplace itself and external conditions (de Waal, 2018). It is, therefore, important that managers create environments and put in place processes and mechanisms that would make employees happy at the workplace because happy employees are motivated and have high levels of productivity.

In conclusion, it is imperative to know that every organisation, including higher educational institutions, requires happy employees. On this basis, both public and private universities need happy employees to achieve the institutions' objectives, visions and missions. However, lecturers in Ghana are unhappy with their job performance in public and private universities due to motivation issues (Amoako, Dartey-Baah & Sokro, 2019). This assertion was confirmed by Ofori and Antwi (2020), who suggested that university lecturers in Ghana are not happy. According to Ofori and Antwi (2020), in the past, some of the factors that made teaching staff in universities in Ghana to be happy were working with a committed and dedicated team (lectures and leaders), leadership support, job stability, academic freedom, work autonomy, and a happy working environment. Therefore, it suffices to state that the essential role that happy employees perform to the success of organisations requires managers of organisations, including universities in Ghana, to put measures in place to make employees and university workers happy.

4.3 DIMENSIONS OF EMPLOYEE HAPPINESS

The management literature has discussed several indicators of employee happiness. For this study, most scholars seem to agree on the following indicators: work engagement, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and employee subjective well-being. These indicators are discussed in this section.

4.3.1 Work engagement

Scholars and practitioners have shown keen interest in work engagement in the past decade because it has been observed that engaged workers are committed to the

goals and objectives of an organisation (Joo & Lee, 2017). According to Kahn (1990) and Schaufeli and Bakker (2010, p 15), work engagement refers to a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of the mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption”. The essentials of engagement are the core elements of vigour, dedication and absorption. Albrecht et al. (2015) postulate that work engagement is about employees exhibiting high physical stamina, a sense of being involved and attached with a strong will and focus on achieving the goals and objectives of the organisation. This means engaged employees exhibit high energy levels, loyalty and commitment to work. As a result, practitioners lookout for engaged workers because they do everything within their might to ensure that their organisations thrive and succeed by exhibiting high levels of creativity, task performance, organisational citizenship behaviours, positive affinity towards clients and paying attention to detail (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018; Joo & Lee, 2017, Albrecht et al., 2015).

Work engagement, therefore, involves an expression of the self through work and other employee-role activities exhibited daily through work behaviours such as being happy at work (Stander, Mostert & De Beer, 2014). Therefore, it can be concluded that work engagement describes a favourable and loving work environment where employees feel cheerful and belong and put up unquestionable work attitudes such as dedication, single-mindedness and happiness.

4.3.2 Job satisfaction

Employee job satisfaction represents one of the most complex areas facing today's managers when managing their employees (Aziri, 2011). According to Amin (2021), job satisfaction describes a favourable emotion towards his/her job roles, resulting in the individual being assertive and excited about one's job. An earlier definition of job satisfaction confirmed by Lee et al. (2013:410) is that it refers to a “pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences”. Also, it is defined as “the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the overall evaluation of one's job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p 130). As noted by Amin (2021), job satisfaction leads employees to be motivated and loyal to the organisation. Thus, subsequent research found that job satisfaction is essential in

influencing the aims and plans of employees (Lee et al., 2013). Therefore, it is an empirically investigated variable in organisational and management studies (Lee et al., 2013).

Some empirical studies on factors influencing worker satisfaction in higher educational institutions in Ghana (Ephraim & Adamu, 2020; Saani & Boateng, 2019; Emmanuel & Akonor, 2017). According to Emmanuel and Akonor (2017), remuneration is a major factor that increases the happiness and contentment of staff of private universities in Ghana, including roles and functions, interpersonal interactions, advancement and opportunities for training. Similarly, Saani and Boateng (2019) suggested that intrinsic and extrinsic factors cause workers' satisfaction with governance in public and private universities in Ghana. A recent study by Ephraim and Adamu (2020) revealed that basic social amenities should be available to enhance workers' satisfaction in addition to planting trees and other green plants around academic building facilities. From the ongoing discussion, it can be deduced that both pecuniary and non-pecuniary factors influence the satisfaction levels of tertiary educational workers in Ghana. Thus, managers of tertiary institutions should provide good compensation packages, invest in employee participation, and enhance employee knowledge, skills and attitudes that boost satisfaction.

In general, satisfied employees tend to be happier at the workplace, which translates into positive work behaviours (Lee et al., 2013), and thus deliver better service to customers, leading to higher levels of customer satisfaction and organisational growth (Eren et al., 2013). Job satisfaction encompasses the general emotional outlook of employees concerning their employment. Generally, all employees have aspirations, hopes and requirements, as well as demands that they expect to be fulfilled by their employers. Therefore, employees are happy and content when their aspirations and requirements are identified, and steps are taken to accomplish these requirements and needs. This preposition consolidates Locke's (1976) definition that the emotional feelings of employees about their work experiences determine whether they are content or not about their jobs. Consequently, satisfaction in this study is considered a unit measure to refer to the positive emotional experience as a total evaluation of one's happiness.

4.3.3 Affective organisational commitment

Affective commitment is the most essential of the three kinds of commitment (Amah & Oyetunde, 2019). It refers to commitments of employees which arise from the employee's own volition to be committed and identify with the organisation (Usman et al., 2021, Amah & Oyetunde, 2019, Vagharseyyedin, Zarei & Hosseini, 2018). Also, Mercurio (2015) defined commitment as an indicator of psychological attachment to the organisation that is relevant to work motivation. Employees' dedication to any organisation is exhibited in different forms and can be directed to activities like task, customer, and team roles.

According to Vagharseyyedin, Zarei, and Hosseini (2018), affectively committed employees exhibit high performance and regularity, quickly retaining them in the organisation. Thus, emotionally committed persons do not leave, but they stay because they regard their aspirations and aims to be connected to the overall goals and objectives of the organisation. Scholars suggest that affective organisational dedication has relationships with human resource management practices and work experiences such as organisational justice. To develop affective commitment, employees must identify with the organisation and deeply appreciate its values, principles and standards of fairness, transparency and organisational culture (Rusu, 2013). For this study, affective commitment refers to a sense of emotional attachment to the organisation, which most clearly measures employee happiness.

Organisational commitment is also exhibited in higher educational institutions in Ghana. For example, a study conducted by Abdul-Samad, Grisham and Mohammed (2019) in public universities in Ghana reveals the presence of affective, continuance and normative commitments among employees. They noted that the exhibition of affective commitment indicates that employees feel attached to their universities since the university has become a home to them. Further, factors that boost the commitment levels of university workers in Ghana include decision-making and governance (Saani & Boateng, 2019) and the availability of financial and non-financial compensation packages (Saani & Tawiah, 2017).

4.3.4 Employee subjective well-being

Some scholars describe employee subjective well-being as happiness about one's work roles and aspects (Gordon et al., 2018). According to Chou (2015), subjective well-being refers to the contentment one has with life and the expression of positive emotional experiences resulting from freedom from stress. Further, Kuykendall and Tay (2015) describe it as the affection and fulfilment that one derives from his/her job. It has been suggested that higher levels of employee subjective well-being result in increased performance, engagement and organisational competitiveness (Tuzovic & Kabadayi, 2018; Gordon et al., 2018). Similarly, subject well-being encompasses prosperity, well-being, well paying job, affection and current joyful occurrences such as purchasing a home and having kids (Weimann et al., 2015). Two kinds of subjective well-being are reported in the literature: affective balance and judgments about life satisfaction (Erdogan et al., 2012). Based on the above definitions, subjective employee well-being describes workers' feelings and expressions of happiness with their job and all its related aspects in a stress-free atmosphere.

Concerning tertiary institutions in Ghana, a microscopic scholarly study has been done on employee well-being (Ofori & Antwi, 2020). The few available studies indicate that favourable and unfavourable factors influence the contentment and happiness of university lecturers in Ghana. For example, a study by Ofori and Antwi (2020) revealed that meddling in politics, administration, and governance of institutions and mentality adjustments impact academic employees' well-being in universities in Ghana. Similarly, Ofori and Bell (2020) concluded that society places huge expectations on university lecturers in Ghana, which positively and negatively impacts their well-being. Ofori and Bell (2020) explained that societal respect for lecturers leads to favourable emotional dispositions and contentment, while monetary demands bring discontent and negative well-being. Therefore, university management must develop plans for the continuous flow of positive workplace well-being experiences, ultimately resulting in happy university workers achieving organisational goals.

4.4 ROLE OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR IN EMPLOYEE HAPPINESS

Organisational behaviour critically analyses people's behaviour, attitudes, and organisational performance (Dailey, 2016). Similarly, Suri (2012) postulates that organisational behaviour encompasses the features and attitudes of employees, the organisational characteristics and processes, and the characteristics and attitudes of employees as well as their aspirations and enthusiasms for the roles and responsibilities they perform in the organisation. Essentially, organisational behaviour explains the impact of employees' contributions on an organisation's success or failure (Prabha, Punniyamoorthy & Nivethitha, 2021; Krantz, 2018; Dailey, 2016). Therefore, it can be concluded that organisations influence employees, and employees influence organisational outcomes (Suri, 2012).

While Dailey (2016) and Prabha, Punniyamoorthy and Nivethitha (2021) suggested that the primary structural levels of institutional activity lie at the individual, group and organisational levels, Suri (2012) proposed that the key elements of corporate actions are individuals, buildings, technology and the surroundings. According to Dailey (2016), individual-level analysis of organisational behaviour describes those kinds of analysis, explanations or expositions on how employees act or react to issues at the workplace and how their personalities and activities influence or affect organisational outcomes. The group-level analysis considers the organisational behaviour of employees or managers in teams or workplace groupings (Ginter, Duncan & Swayne, 2018). Organisational level analysis occurs when organisational outcomes influence or affect the attitudes or behaviours of employees at the workplace (Prabha, Punniyamoorthy & Nivethitha, 2021).

Since organisational behaviour encompasses employees' thoughts, feelings, emotions and actions, and organisational goals and activities are implemented by employees individually or collectively, the management of organisational behaviour is key to managers of organisations (Dailey, 2016; Suri, 2012). This puts a responsibility on managers to understand the behaviour of their employees because employees are valuable resources of the organisation who develop it, craft its objectives and paths, provide strategic direction and make decisions, resolve

challenges and provide answers to questions (Ginter, Duncan & Swayne, 2018; Daft, 2015; Suri, 2012). In this direction, Daft (2015) emphasised that managers must appreciate their employees' expectations, motivations and needs.

The organisational setting is not lonely because individual employees interact with others at the workplace and establish healthy workplace relationships (Drucker, 2018; Suri, 2012). Suri (2012) observed that due to the interaction between the organisation, individuals and groups, the presence or absence of individuals in an organisation has repercussions on the organisation's outcome (Ginter et al., 2018; Suri, 2012). These interpersonal relationships have implications for employees being happy at the workplace. Similarly, employees exhibit several behaviours and attitudes at the workplace, which affect organisational outcomes. These attitudes and behaviours of employees, such as organisational citizenship behaviours, are not concealed and affect the functioning and operations of the organisation (Rubel & Rahman, 2018). With this, organisations must take the interactions between employees and organisations and their behaviours very seriously by placing a high premium on their employees through regarding, consulting and involving them in managing the organisation (Ginter et al., 2018; Daft, 2015; Suri, 2012). Therefore, workers are the emblem of creativity, innovation and brilliance who bring about successful organisational change and innovation (Suri, 2012). In conclusion, it can be deduced that leaders and supervisors should develop a serene atmosphere for employees to exhibit positive and fruitful organisational behaviours and interactions, such as organisational citizenship behaviours, because when employees are happy, employees are creative and innovative.

Expressing positive attitudes and behaviours is equally important in the educational sector. It has been found that universities in Ghana have a well-planned structure for recognising their employees, which positively impacts employee attitude and behaviour (Amoatema & Kyeremeh, 2016). According to Amoatema and Kyeremeh (2016), the management of universities in Ghana uses awards and recognition packages due to the dynamic setting of the university and the fact that not only highly paid employees are highly motivated and happy. Awards and recognitions are given to high-performing and excellent employees during graduation or special

staff ceremonies. These awards and recognitions, which are in the form of cash awards, symbolic awards, spot programme and verbal recognition, make employees feel loved, honoured and recognised, which boost their self-esteem (Amoatema & Kyeremeh, 2016). This would lead university workers to exhibit positive work behaviours and attitudes because it creates positive feelings which influence their perceptions and interactions. Therefore, the onus is on managers of organisations and institutions to comprehensively understand their organisational culture and environment and their employees to put in place measures and mechanisms that would boost employee morale, motivation and satisfaction.

4.5 ANTECEDENTS OF EMPLOYEE HAPPINESS

The management literature revealed several antecedents of employee happiness. This study defines antecedents as factors that influence employee happiness at work. For instance, in their systematic review, Salas-Vallina, Alegre and Guerrero (2018) grouped the antecedents of employee happiness into four categories: work context factors, social interactions, leadership factors and personal resources. For work context factors, the literature revealed some factors that impact employee happiness, such as autonomy, flexibility at work, supportive supervisors or superiors, sufficient workers, lean arrangements, expectations of work, serenity, professionalism, conditions, fairness, feedback, empowerment, trust, dignified treatment, lean management, work climate, fair remuneration, perceived social status and available inputs (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Guerrero, 2018). Empirically, Thompson and Bruk-Lee (2021) noted that greater job demand brings worker discontent. Requirements of the job involve “physical, psychological social and or organisational aspects of the job that requires sustained physical and or psychological cost” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016). For instance, job demands are high work pressures on employees, emotionally taxing tasks, and high role ambiguity. Job demands often become stressors, resulting in many adverse organisational outcomes (Bakker & Demerouti 2016). It is well established that a high level of job demand results in decreased employee organisational commitment and performance, and increased turnover, especially under low job resources.

Another group of antecedents is social interactions, including collaboration, interpersonal relationships, high-quality connections, workers' and managers' relationships, pleasant interactions, and communication (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Guerrero, 2018). For instance, the antecedent of employee happiness observed in the happiness literature is organisational and individual support at work (Qaiser, Abid, Arya & Farooqi, 2020). Qaiser et al. (2020) noted that support from working colleagues significantly enhances employee happiness. This means that the extent to which employees provide social support to each other at work can positively affect the working experience, subjective well-being and the quality of work-life, thereby improving employee happiness (Veenhoven, 2016). According to Spreitzer, Porath and Gibson (2012), a supportive working environment enhances the development of positive relationships among employees, eventually increasing happiness and reducing turnover intentions. In addition, support from colleagues, such as sharing ideas and collaborating with colleagues, ensures growth, vitality and learning, enhancing employee happiness. On the other hand, the happiness literature has also revealed that the unavailability of social backing at the workplace reduces employees' happiness, among others (Spreitzer et al., 2012).

Furthermore, personal resources are one of the antecedents of employees' happiness at work. These factors include the level of education, personal well-being, self-esteem, workplace adversity, unfavourable dispositions, genuineness, stamina, favourable emotions and dispositions (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Guerrero, 2018). For instance, Peeters, Van De Voorde, and Paauwe (2021) suggest that employees with less contentment had little to average productivity. However, employees with great contentment had average, high and top performance. The study conducted by Peeters et al. (2021) revealed that the contentment and satisfaction of employees are based on training opportunities, availability of networks, and independence (Qaiser et al., 2020). Again, the same study identified that functions and responsibilities that are more comprehensible and advise on productivity, independence and flexibility are associated with employee well-being, which intends to enhance high and top employee performance significantly.

The final groupings of the antecedents of work happiness suggested by Salas-

Vallina, Alegre and Guerrero (2018) are leadership factors such as stimulating, genuine, bringing change, innovative and business-minded. It is reported that many empirical studies explored the connections between leadership styles and contentment (De Vito et al., 2018, Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Guerrero, 2018). It is noted that an inspirational leadership style significantly predicts employee (medical specialists) happiness at work (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2017), while a transformational leadership style also significantly improves health workers' happiness at work (Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2017). Therefore, creative and inspirational leaders have a stronger impact on workers' happiness. In conclusion, managers and employers should provide environments and opportunities for growth, autonomy and recognition for their employees because it can be deduced from the ongoing that employees are happy with their work when they are given more autonomy, opportunities for growth and recognition.

Antecedents of employee happiness are equally relevant in the educational sector since when workers are dissatisfied in higher educational institutions, it leads to low morale, low productivity and high turnover (De Vito et al., 2018). On the other hand, in higher educational institutions in Ghana, employee happiness is influenced by effective communication processes, a safe work environment and fair treatment of workers (Alipui 2020). Similarly, a study conducted by Saani and Tawiah (2017) on the effects of compensation packages on the junior staff of the University of Cape Coast showed that non-financial rewards such as recognition, responsibility, needs for achievement, influence and personal growth have positive effects on their pleasure. Further, Afful-Broni (2012) revealed that low income, lack of clear career progression and delays in promotion, and unavailability of appropriate facilities and logistics result in the low motivation of workers, affecting their morale, happiness and performance.

4.6 OUTCOMES OF EMPLOYEE HAPPINESS

The outcomes of employee happiness in organisational settings have been discussed in recent literature. While some scholars reveal the positive outcomes of employee happiness, other researchers discover the negative consequences. There

are inherent positive benefits of employee happiness in every organisation. For example, happy employees are more likely to foster meaningful social relationships, eventually encouraging others to stay longer in the organisation (Ford et al., 2016). At the same time, employee happiness can enhance optimism, higher self-esteem, a sense of humour and a contagious effect on others (Ford et al., 2016).

Employee happiness will likely result in positive organisational and/or individual-level outcomes such as organisational commitment (Choudhury, Dutta & Dutta, 2021). Employees that feel happy at work become committed. Thus, they are more likely not to leave or cut their ties with the organisation than unhappy employees. Therefore, commitment is the positive emotions or feelings employees express to indicate their contentment and fondness of the organisation and to reveal their readiness to go above and beyond for its success (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2012). Employee commitment is, therefore, a positive consequence of employee happiness.

Another positive consequence of employee happiness is job satisfaction. Happy employees will express contentment and joy with their careers. Career satisfaction has been identified as one of the critical attributes that help employees to exhibit their full potential. According to the literature, job performance is highly related to high performance and improved productivity (Lee et al., 2013). According to Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2017), as job satisfaction is linked to positive attributes such as enhanced performance and productivity, job dissatisfaction is linked to negative attributes such as turnover intentions and absenteeism. According to Martínez- Martí and Ruch (2017), employee happiness has three routes thus the pleasant life, the good or engaged life and the meaningful life the employees experience in the organisation. These dimensions of employee happiness and job satisfaction are favourably connected. Martínez-Martí and Ruch (2017) found that the interaction of these dimensions of employee happiness as measured by pleasure, engagement, and meaningful life predicted job satisfaction significantly.

Many researchers and practitioners recognise the employee happiness-performance link. Hosie et al. (2012) agreed that employee happiness is significantly associated with contextual and task performance. Task performance is one of the positive

consequences of employee happiness examined in the happiness literature. Hosie, Willemyns and Sevastos (2012) describe task productivity as fulfilling specific assignments to achieve accuracy, quality, efficiency and swiftness. It is usually facilitated by job knowledge, job skill and task habits. Its effectiveness is connected to the swiftness, accuracy and quality with which employees perform their assignments to fulfil the vision and aims of the organisation and themselves (Choudhury et al., 2021).

Contextual performance is yet one of the aspects of the positive consequence of the practice of employee happiness. Many studies have linked employee happiness and contextual performance, among which employee happiness predicts contextual performance (Hosie et al., 2012). Happy employees are likely to perform credibly beyond their core organisational roles. Happiness is a form of acceptable attitude exhibited within a work environment. It is a key factor required for effective contextual performance, described as favourable attitudes that employees exhibit to help achieve the organisation's fundamental purpose (Thompson & Bruk-Lee, 2021). Therefore, several researchers attest that employee happiness improves employee-level outcome variables such as organisational commitment, task and contextual performance. However, findings of recent studies (Thompson & Bruk-Lee, 2021) reveal that high job demands significantly reduce employee happiness. This leads to the decreased dedication of employees and their eagerness towards productivity but increases unproductive attitudes and plans of departing the organisation.

4.7 EMPLOYEE HAP AND DOHRMP

The link between diversity-oriented human resource management practices and employee happiness has been established in the management literature to have a positive association (Arslan & Polat, 2021; Mousa et al., 2021; Mousa, Ayoubi & Massoud, 2020; Georgiadou, Gonzalez-Perez & Olivas-Lujan, 2019). For instance, Arslan and Polat (2021) conducted a study in Turkey to examine whether teachers' viewpoints affect their satisfaction and contentment. Their study revealed that effective engagement in teaching and reading, inability to identify colours and impartiality significantly predicted employee happiness at work. In this study, employee

happiness is measured as positive affect, negative affect and fulfilment. Another study by Mousa et al. (2021) observed that workplace fun may affect the perception of organisational inclusion and meaningful work. The results showed that organisational inclusion (a feature of diversity-oriented HRM) has a favourable connection with workplace fun and meaningful work, indicating employee happiness at work.

Furthermore, Mousa, Ayoubi and Massoud (2020) considered the effects of employees' sex and viewpoints on diversity management and organisational inclusion in developing countries' perspectives, with workplace fun predicted by organisational inclusion. It was indicated that there is a significant favourable connection between diversity management and organisational inclusion, positively impacting employee workplace fun. In a different interaction, workplace fun significantly mediates the linkage between diversity-oriented human resource management and organisational inclusion. According to Paolillo et al. (2016), organisational inclusion is an active part of diversity management because it actively engages all diverse employees whenever a choice is being made and in all other activities of the firm (Paolillo et al., 2016).

Similarly, Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015) noted that European organisations have been applying strategies for managing diversity, fair working conditions and affirmative actions since immemorial. These efforts are the outcome of steps by organisations to develop diversity-oriented human resource management practices, which often includes searching and screening, appointing, selecting, placing, building, and keeping motivated employees with a variety of background such as age, gender, nationality, race, experience, cultural backgrounds to boost organisational performance. In the African context, Mousa, Massoud and Ayoubi (2020) explored how sexual dispositions affect organisational inclusion and influence the contentment and satisfaction of 320 teaching staff of some universities in Egypt. It was revealed that sexual dispositions, diversity management and organisational inclusion significantly predicted contentment and satisfaction.

Further, studies conducted by Wang and Brower (2019) revealed a significantly strong relationship between the perceived capabilities of employees, managing

diversity, the productivity of teams and contentment. In this case, job satisfaction indicates employee happiness (Tziner, Oren, Bar & Kadosh, 2011). Tziner et al. (2011) posited that contentment encompasses both favourable and unfavourable dispositions that employees have of their jobs. Thus, for an employee to be content and happy, his/her demands, ambitions and preferences must be met. Therefore, contentment comprises the depth to which employees' aims, aspirations, demands, and wants fare with the fundamental attitudes contributing to workplace happiness. Thus, Alam and Shin (2020) suggested that prejudices against people of diverse backgrounds should be eschewed to guarantee happiness and satisfaction.

Further, an investigation by Arslan and Polat (2021) about the impact of tutors' viewpoints on diversity and contentment at work showed no significant connection between contentment and promoting uniformity or having a variety of management practices. The contrary findings might have been caused by contextual issues such as the education environment in Turkey and the level of education from which the data was collected. This assertion was validated by the general view that Turkish educators are dissatisfied (Turkey Education and Science Labourers Union, 2014). Also, Mousa, Ayoubi and Massoud (2020) reiterated that the gender of employees has a potential effect on how organisational justice can affect employee happiness at work. For instance, Mousa, Ayoubi and Massoud (2020) underscore that female employees in the context of public hospitals respond more positively to multicultural management than their masculine counterparts. The assertion is also buttressed by Mousa, Massoud and Ayoubi (2020) that gender multicultural management is favourably linked to workplace happiness. However, Mousa, Massoud and Ayoubi (2020) also indicated that multicultural gender and organisational integration do not have any linkages established between them. By these findings, school administrators are poised to effectively apply diversity management practices by consolidating the diverse perspectives that ensure a positive impact on employee happiness and reduce the impact of practices that negatively impact employee happiness.

The current investigator never encountered any empirical research on the linkages between employee happiness and diversity-oriented human resource management practices in higher educational institutions in Ghana. Anecdotal evidence, however,

exists that effective implementation of diversity-oriented human resource management practices in Ghana's tertiary educational institutions affects university workers' happiness. Therefore, this research aims to determine the link between employee happiness and diversity-oriented human resource management practices in tertiary educational institutions in Ghana.

4.8 EMPLOYEE HAP AND OCB

Employee happiness which is also referred to as workplace happiness is identified in the management literature to have a strong connection with organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Cek & Eyupoglu, 2020; Salas-Vallina, Alegre and Fernandez, 2016; Pryce-Jones & Lindsay, 2014). Salas-Vallina Alegre and Fernandez (2016) examined how the well-being of employees impacts organisational citizenship. The findings suggested that well-being and happiness are positively linked to OCB, and this relationship is mediated by organisational learning capability. This means that when employees are content with their work, their enthusiasm increases, resulting in their engagement in extra-role activities.

Furthermore, Cek and Eyupoglu (2020) examined the effect of overall satisfaction (intrinsic & extrinsic) on the OCB of high school teachers in the educational management literature. The findings revealed that teachers are more intrinsically satisfied with their jobs compared with extrinsic job satisfaction. Overall, job satisfaction is associated with OCB and has a favourable influence on OCB, with intrinsic job satisfaction having a greater effect than extrinsic contentment. It is noted that well-being and contentment are established measures of employee happiness. Similarly, Mohammad, Quoquab Habib and Alias (2011) measured how two dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB for individuals and OCB for organisations) are associated with internal and external well-being. The study revealed that internal and external well-being are essential factors regarding employees' extra-role behaviours.

Mousa et al. (2020) investigated whether workplace happiness significantly predicted organisational citizenship behaviours, revealing a significant influence of workplace

happiness on organisational citizenship behaviours. With this, the study of Pryce-Jones and Lindsay (2014) underscored that happiness at work delivers a return on investment and strategic outcomes (helpful extra-role behaviours) when properly implemented. Moreover, improving the well-being of employees, a measure of employee happiness has a praising effect on organisational citizenship behaviours (Rossouw & Rothmann, 2020). Rossouw and Rothmann's (2020) study focused on the fact that employees found greater satisfaction and joy in improving the lifestyles of people, fair treatment and service to humanity than in their typical salary. It can therefore be deduced that when employees are satisfied with the content and environment of their jobs, they tend to engage in extra-role behaviours.

The linkages between employee happiness and organisational citizenship behaviours in Ghana's tertiary educational institutions have not been adequately explored. The only study the author found was the one written by Abdul-Samad, Grisham and Mohammed (2019), which revealed that workers of universities in Ghana display all three kinds of organisational engagement and that their commitments are favourably connected to their extra-role attitudes. However, the higher education environment in Ghana is growing at alarming rates; therefore, there is a need to increase empirical studies on employee happiness and organisational citizenship behaviours for optimum employee outputs and excellent institutions.

4.9 EMPLOYEE HAP AND OJ PERCEPTION

Extant studies have shown that the negative effects of employee workplace happiness can be very detrimental to the efficiency and effectiveness of organisations, especially academic institutions. Ahmed, Ishak and Kamil (2021) proposed that organisational justice perception influences employee well-being in academia. The study effectively suggested that educational institutions should improve understanding, create awareness and promote employee well-being, which indicates employee happiness. According to Dodge et al. (2012), employee well-being reflects the prevalence of positive emotions and moods of individuals, a sense of pride in their work, and a belief that it gives them a chance to realise their potential.

Ajala and Bolarinwa (2015) noted that employees' feeling of justice in various aspects of the organisation, such as promotional decisions, assignments of tasks and allocation of rewards, have a significant bearing on employees' psychological well-being and social interaction which intend reflects employee happiness. The study further identified that distributive, procedural and interactional justice had an exceptionally favourable linkage with employee happiness. As a result, the management of tertiary educational institutions is to note and create an environment of justice that supports employees' happiness by enhancing their psychological well-being regarding ideas, dispositions, sentiments, comprehensions, viewpoints and interactions with others. Behrani (2017) underscored that employee happiness is very important in ensuring organisational performance through equitable sharing of organisational incentives, procedures followed at work and interactions among employees. Heffernan and Dundon (2016) expressed that workers' views of distributive, procedural and interactional justice positively influence employee happiness, job satisfaction, affective commitment and well-being. Moreover, Jandaghi, Alimadadi, Fard and Golverdi (2012) opined that the happiness of workers at universities and fairness within the organisation are favourably related. Moreover, Mitonga-Monga and Hoole (2018) noted that organisational justice and commitment are also favourably connected.

On the other hand, some studies (Behrani, 2017) have established that fairness within the organisation is negatively connected to employee happiness. Behrani (2017) further suggested that sexual dispositions and marriage do not influence fairness within the organisation and employees' contentment. This shows that despite employees' differences regarding demographic features such as gender and marital status, the interaction between organisational justice and employee happiness remains effective. Therefore, educational institutions should enhance working environments that promote equity, fairness and justice, eventually ensuring employee happiness.

4.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This Chapter concentrated on conceptual clarification and empirical literature review on employee happiness. The review concentrated on the necessary foundations underpinning the relationships between the study's variables, such as employee happiness and its dimensions, the antecedents, and consequences. Moreover, the review examined the relationships between employee happiness and diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational citizenship behaviours and organisational justice perception.

CHAPTER 5 : THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS AND HYPOTHESES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

From the preceding chapter, the researcher reviewed the empirical literature on employee happiness and highlighted the relationships between it and the other variables of this study, namely diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perception and organisational citizenship behaviour. In this Chapter, the theoretical perspectives of the study are reviewed, and the hypotheses are developed based on empirical literature. The Chapter starts by emphasising the theoretical underpinnings, namely social exchange theory and organisational justice theory associated with the study variables. Further, the interactions between the various constructs in the developed model were also discussed.

5.2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The relationship between social and organisational justice, employee happiness, workforce diversity and organisational citizenship behaviour has been recognized as the major strategies in the educational sector towards increasing organisational competitive advantage (Mousa, Massoud & Ayoubi, 2020). Due to increasing interest in organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) in the educational sector, scholars (Zayed, Jauhar, Mohaidin & Murshid, 2020; Oguz, 2010) have established the underlying factors influencing OCB and employee happiness. Most of these studies have discovered, among others, that human resource diversity management and social and organisational justice are related to OCB and employee happiness (Fujimoto, Hartel & Azmat, 2013). Organisational theories, including Social Exchange Theory (SET) and Organisational Justice Theory, have been used to explain the association between diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perception, OCB and employee happiness (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Greenberg, 1987). This study considered relevant theories explaining the association between human resource diversity management, organisational

justice perception, OCB, and employee happiness.

5.2.1 Social exchange theory

The social exchange theory (Homans, 1958) is regarded as one of the most influential ideas that could be adopted to describe and comprehend attitudes and behaviours within organisations. According to this idea, interactions and relationships bring about a series of transfers and transactions that lead to mandatory and discretionary actions (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Typically, these interactions result from the organisation's and individuals' actions (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Further, it emphasises that there are actions that depend on each other among individuals that can develop into high-quality relationships. Therefore, the underlining perspective of this idea is that relationships should benefit either party because people enter into and maintain exchange relationships that they perceive to be beneficial and rewarding (Miles, 2012).

Furthermore, according to Cropanzano et al. (2017), SET predicts that when positive action is initiated by an organisational actor, in reaction, there is a positive favourable reciprocal response by the targets involved. This means that positive and negative initiated actions within the organisational environment will lead to reciprocal good or bad responses such as happiness and positive perceptions. Miles (2012) is, therefore, of the view that to get the best out of employees, such as through organisational citizenship behaviours and sharing knowledge, organisations should create environments of trust and high job security and make use of both social and economic benefits to make their employees feel valued.

From the educational institutions' perspective, several studies (Atta & Khan, 2015; Bodla et al., 2014) that favour the idea of social exchange propose that workers would engage in extra-role activities even to the detriment of their specified assignments due to the encouragement, contentment, happiness and commendation they got from their bosses and the organisation. Thus, any form of value the organisation places puts a strain on the workers to reciprocate such favourable actions by performing beyond their specified jobs. Consequently, these extra-role behaviours, termed

organisational citizenship behaviour, intend to produce favourable work-related outcomes such as OCB. On the contrary, any form of mistreatment or unfair organisational practice makes workers discontented, which invariably affects their emotional dispositions, disconnects them from their responsibilities and makes them unproductive (Atta & Khan, 2015).

Thus, this study assumes that when higher educational institutions, including Universities and Colleges of Education in Ghana, implement effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices, it leads to staff forming positive perceptions about the organisation, positively influencing their behaviours to reciprocate its actions. The perspective expressed in this study is that the effective implementation of diversity-oriented human resource management practices would create beneficial and favourable work conditions for employees. Thus, all categories of Universities and Colleges of Education workers would feel obligated to reciprocate this good gesture of the organisation; as a result, the staff would exhibit a sense of commitment and loyalty to the institution and consequently exhibit extra-role behaviours.

Following Cropanzano et al.'s (2017) perspectives and according to the idea of social exchange, this research proposes that: first, the impacts of diversity-oriented human resource management practices on organisational citizenship behaviours of staff is mediated by employee happiness. Second, the effects of perceived organisational justice on organisational citizenship behaviours are expected to be mediated by employee happiness. Studies have shown that adopting and using effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices are related to organisational citizenship behaviours (Noe et al., 2017; Kanfer, Frese & Johnson, 2017; Kundu & Mor, 2016). The effectiveness of diversity-oriented human resource management practices leads to positive perceptions and social and organisational acceptance, which boosts results of employees such as organisational citizenship behaviours (Guillaume et al., 2017; Kim, Lee & Kim, 2015). Kim et al. (2015) thus emphasised that key predictors of positive employee outcomes include effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices. This summarises the conclusions that Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015) reached that employees' positive perceptions due to

effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices increase their happiness. They are most likely to reciprocate with positive workplace behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviours.

5.2.2 Organisational justice theory

It is widely acknowledged that organisational justice theory is one of the most popular theories in educational institutions and management disciplines because it is argued to be an imperative factor in building and maintaining effective interpersonal relationships in the workplace (Miles, 2012). Greenberg (1987) came out with the organisational justice theory based on the theory of equity propounded by Adams (1963). The equity theory explains how employees perceive equity regarding sources, results and consequences of discrepancies. Therefore, employees tend to act in a way that may punish or harm the organisation if they are unhappy about the inequality in the exchange relationship. Attempts to expand the equity theory resulted in establishing organisational justice theory (Gilliland & Chan, 2002).

The definitions of organisational justice by scholars do not vary. According to Dahanayake et al. (2018), organisational justice describes how an individual perceives and reacts to fairness in an organisation. Similarly, Heffernan and Dundon (2016) stated that organisational justice describes how much an organisation views all activities and systems of the organisation to be fair. Therefore, organisational justice theory and management theorists focus on employees' perceptions of fair processes and procedures and how they affect or shape their attitudes (Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Miles, 2012). This view is supported by Tan (2014), who suggested that employees' perceptions influence their attitudes and behaviours. The main assumption of organisational justice theory is that employees' perceptions influence their attitudes to exhibit good or bad behaviours, which invariably positively or negatively impact their behaviour and performance (Cropanzano & Molina, 2015; Miles, 2012). It has also been observed that these perceptions influence employees' need for belonging, control and meaning and their positive self-regard (Miles, 2012). Thus, attitudes towards organisational justice are fundamental to both the effective and efficient functioning of the organisation and the satisfaction of employees

(Heffernan & Dundon, 2016). Organisational justice theory, therefore, encompasses employees' perceptions about all the fair practices, processes, systems and procedures instituted at the workplace to aid organisational activities and performance.

Scholars have distinguished between three primary aspects of organisational justice, namely distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice, which is further categorised into two kinds: informational justice and interpersonal justice (Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Girish, 2015; Cropanzano & Molina, 2015; Fujimoto, Hartel & Azmat, 2013; Miles, 2012). According to Fujimoto et al. (2013), distributive justice refers to how employees perceive the organisation to be fair about work outcomes. Girish (2015) describes it as a fair system of allocating resources and making decisions.

Procedural justice, conversely, refers to how workers perceive their superiors' decision-making processes and procedures to be fair (Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Fujimoto et al., 2013). It concerns how fair the organisation's rules, procedures, policies, practices and processes that lead to work outcomes are regarded by employees (Dahanayake et al., 2018; Girish, 2015). Further, interactional justice connotes how workers believe their interactions and relationships with their superiors are fair (Fujimoto et al., 2013). In other words, it is how employees perceive the treatments they receive to be fair; it is divided into informational and interpersonal justice.

According to Fujimoto et al. (2013), interpersonal justice describes the degree of pleasantness and respectfulness of managers and supervisors to other workers, while informational justice connotes the messages or information provided by authorities and superiors as explanations of processes or procedures that have been used.

Within higher educational institutions, scholars suggest that workers enjoy their work and give their best when they perceive justice prevails (Nethavhani, Maluka & Mayeza, 2020). While agreeing with this perspective, Aboagye (2015) suggested that

when academic staff in higher educational institutions in Ghana notice that their organisations embrace all aspects of organisational justice, their trust and performance levels increase. Thus, administrators of colleges and universities should embrace and adopt all dimensions of organisational justice to enhance employee morale, commitment, and outcomes. Nevertheless, though the literature showed that adopting the full dimensions of organisational justice has positive employee and organisational outcomes, studies (Nethavhani, Maluka & Mayeza, 2020, Aboagye, 2015) within the higher education context indicate that some aspects of organisational justice predict employee and organisational outcomes more than others. For instance, Aboagye (2015) found that procedural and informational justice have favourable influences on the truthfulness and output of teaching staff of colleges and universities in Ghana, while distributive and interpersonal justice have insignificant effects. Similarly, a study conducted by Nethavhani, Maluka and Mayeza (2020) among academic staff in a selected university in South Africa indicated that except for procedural justice, which has a negative perception, all the other kinds of organisational justice have positive perceptions among academic staff of the university. Therefore, though it is imperative to roll out all dimensions of organisational justice within the institution, managers of higher educational institutions should identify and pay more attention to those dimensions that positively affect employee and organisational outcomes.

This current researcher believes that in addition to the social exchange theory, organisational justice theory is appropriate for understanding the linkages between diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perception, employee happiness and organisational citizenship behaviours. For example, workers' views of receiving proper care and treatment are critical to increased employee loyalty, belonging and performance (Pan et al., 2018). Furthermore, available studies indicate that organisational justice is linked positively to organisational outcomes (Pan et al., 2018; Saifi & Shahzad, 2017; Demirkiran et al., 2016). For instance, Saifi and Shahzad (2017) opine that positive organisational justice perceptions of employees make employees satisfied with their jobs, ultimately bringing about positive employee behaviour. Similarly, Demirkiran et al. (2016) postulate that when employees notice fairness and honesty within the organisation,

they will engage more in extra-role behaviours to achieve organisational objectives. Thus, employees focus on the organisation's fairness in its processes, procedures and systems. Once they are satisfied that the organisation is fair, it increases their sense of belonging and acceptance, making them happy thus, they engage in extra-role duties to attain the organisation's vision and mission.

5.3 THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

From the social exchange perspective, individuals will establish and keep exchange friendships or interactions that they perceive to be beneficial and rewarding (Miles, 2012). For Cropanzano et al. (2017), social exchange theory predicts that when positive action is initiated by an organisation, in reaction, the targets involved have a positive favourable reciprocal response. On the other hand, from the organisational justice perspective, employees view and evaluate all activities and systems of the organisation as fair or unfair, affecting their behaviour (Heffernan & Dundon, 2016). Thus, the focus is on the perceptions of fairness in the processes and procedures and how they affect or shape employees' attitudes (Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Miles, 2012). Therefore, from the social exchange theory and organisational justice perspective, it is argued that the acceptance and practise of effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices (DOHRMP) could make employees have positive organisational justice perceptions (OJP), leading to increased employee happiness (EHAP) which could in turn impact positively on the organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) of employees. This proposition is reflected in the accompanying Figure 5.1.

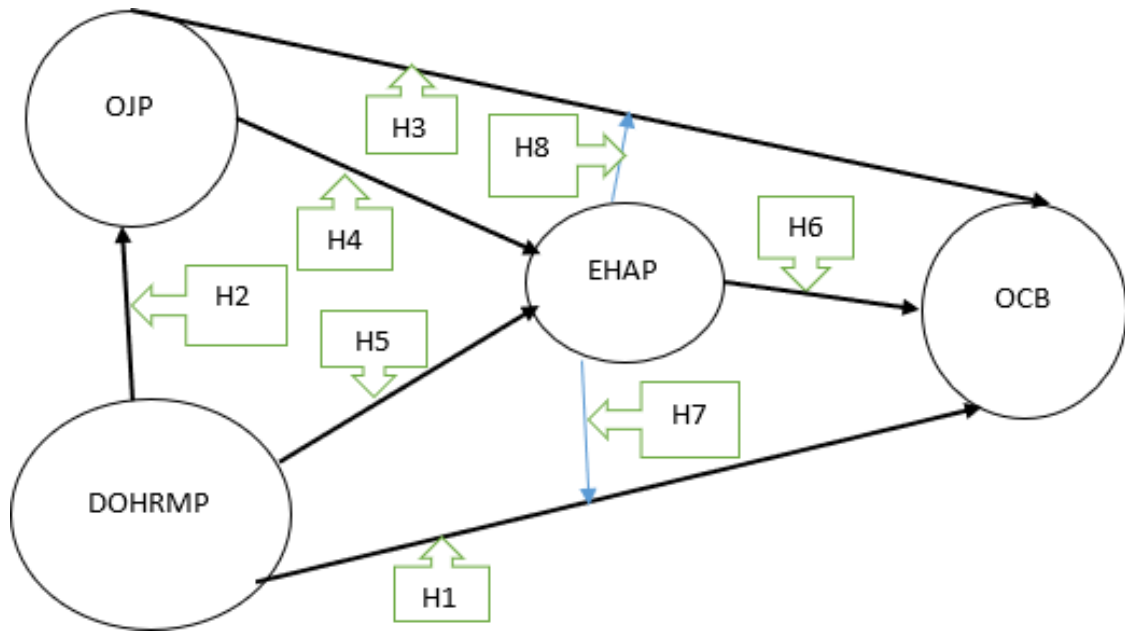


Figure 5.1: Conceptual framework linking DOHRMP, OJP, EHAP and OCB

5.4 HYPOTHESES FORMULATION

The hypotheses were formulated based on the empirical literature that has been reviewed. Eight hypotheses were created using the relationships between the variables such as diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perception, and organisational citizenship behaviour and employee happiness.

5.4.1 DOHRMP and OCB

The human resource management function is essential for managing diversity in the workplace because of its ability to eschew inequalities among diverse employees (Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013). In similar characteristics, human resource practices that are diversity-oriented play vital roles in attracting, motivating, and retaining a diverse workforce because its processes and practices are fair and equitable, which serves as a motivation to employees to exhibit positive attitudes and behaviours on the job (Memon et al., 2017; Noor et al., 2013). Empirical studies reveal that the implementation of diversity-oriented human resource management practices by firms

has influenced employees to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours within organisations (Noor et al., 2013; Kizilos et al., 2013). This is because an organisation that effectively implements diversity-oriented human resource management practices is perceived to promote a fair and supportive work environment that triggers extra-role behaviours among its employees (Kizilos et al., 2013). Similarly, Memon et al. (2017) claim that effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices are fundamental to employees exhibiting citizenship behaviours within organisations because they make employees feel valued, accepted, and taken care of, which invariably puts an obligation on the employees to exhibit extra-role behaviours. Paille (2013) posits that organisations that develop the skills and techniques of their employees through training and development generate feelings of being valued, which makes employees reciprocate with positive attitudes, such as extra-role behaviours at the workplace.

Some researchers and scholars (Memon et al., 2017; Moshabaki, Madani & Ghorbani, 2013; Kizilos, Cummings & Cummings, 2013; Noor et al., 2013) sought to explain the mechanisms linking human resource management practices that are diversity-oriented and organisational citizenship behaviours of employees. Kizilos, Cummings and Cummings (2013), for example, examined recruitment and selection diversity management practices and training and development of diversity management practices in firms and noted that these practices create a sense of impartiality among employees, which they perceive as being valued by the organisation; and consequently, motivate them to engage in citizenship behaviours. Additionally, Noor, Khalid and Rashid (2013) examined the influences of five diversity-focused human resource management practices on organisational citizenship behaviour and posit that it is expected that diversity-oriented human resource management practices would positively impact the attitudes and behaviours of employees to engage in citizenship behaviours. A further study conducted by Noor et al. in 2016 on the role of diversity-oriented human resource management practices as antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviours of a star-rated hotel in Malaysia revealed that in totality, human resource management practices that are diversity-oriented are significant predictors of citizenship behaviours of employees. As a result, they posit that policymakers and practitioners should put in place effective

strategies and modalities to boost the implementation of diversity-oriented human resource management practices to encourage workers to engage in extra-curricular role behaviours (Noor et al., 2016).

In addition to the above, Kundu, Kumar and Gahlawat (2018) examined the link between diversity-focused human resource practices (namely recruitment and selection diversity management, training and development diversity management, performance appraisal diversity management and compensation diversity management) and personal, corporate effectiveness and the mediating factor of procedural justice. Their study revealed that diversity-focused human resource practices and perceived firm performance are favourably connected. In support of this finding, they opine that implementation of diversity-focused human resource practices is non-discriminatory and merit-based and invariably influences the thoughts and actions of staff members to be loyal and committed to engaging in extra-role activities, boosting productivity. In support of this perception, Noor et al. (2013) posit that it is imperative to note that characteristically, diversity-oriented human resource management practices are non-discriminatory practices and processes which provide an equal and fair playing field for all kinds of employees, including minorities. Furthermore, Moshabaki, Madani and Ghorbani (2013) examined the role of diversity-oriented human resource management on organisational citizenship behaviour in the automotive industry in Iran within the purview of organisational justice and commitment. They found that effective diversity-oriented human resource management regarding salary, hiring and choosing employees will likely trigger employees to participate in citizenship behaviours.

The relationship between diversity-oriented human resource management practices and organizational citizenship behaviour in the context of the educational sector in Ghana is underscored by the fact that this relationship benefits the management of tertiary-level institutions. Diversity-oriented human resource management is foundational for advancing and sustaining organisational citizenship behaviours among academic and non-academic staff (Diep et al., 2016). In an environment of diversity where staff derives satisfaction with the strategic management style of the institution, positive voluntary behaviours beyond what is required from their official

engagement behaviours and positive behaviours based on their personal choice are usually expected (Kurtulmus, 2016). Further, Kurtulmus (2016) investigated diversity management in high school teachers' extra-role actions. They concluded that diversity management is a key indicator of organisational citizenship behaviour and commitment. Therefore, when educational institutions handle diversity well, employees may deliberately engage themselves in some actions that support the effectiveness and productivity of the organisation (Mamman et al., 2012). Similarly, staff members may start responding when they perceive that diversity is accepted in the organisation. As OCBs are voluntary behaviours, it is feasible to defend that these actions are more likely to be seen in settings where workers are more at ease and individual variations are accepted, respected and valued.

Despite these findings, D'Netto et al. (2014) suggest inadequate empirical studies on human resource management practices that focus on diversity as an organisational antecedent. Similarly, Noor et al. (2013) posit that although antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviours are quite researched, there is a need to refine and clarify them to understand the concept better. It is equally imperative to undertake further investigations of diversity-oriented human resource management practices as an antecedent of organisational citizenship behaviours within the African context, particularly in the educational sector in Ghana since there is a dearth of literature on the concept in Africa. This work aims to close this need in the literature on organisational citizenship behaviour by examining its dimensions in the context of the educational sector, specifically at the tertiary level of education (Universities) in Ghana. Therefore, it is hypothesised: *H1: diversity-oriented human resource management practices significantly influence organisational citizenship behaviours.*

5.4.2 DOHRMP and OJP

Diversity-oriented human resource management is an important aspect of organisational justice (Fujimoto, Hartel & Azmat, 2013). In this regard, most organisations, especially the educational sector, seek to increase underrepresented individuals and ensure inclusiveness and transparency through varied diversity management practices. One of the major goals of diversity-oriented human resource

management practices is to eradicate biases and prejudices in all aspects of business processes. The diversity-oriented human resource management practices and organisational justice literature has revealed diverging views on this relationship. While some scholars (Le, Zheng & Fujimoto, 2016; Ledimo, 2015; Fujimoto, Hartel & Azmat, 2013) are of the view that the management of diversity in organisations has a favourable impact on organisational justice perception, other researchers (Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Guest, 2011) cautioned that human resource management linkages are inconclusive and being debated. According to Heffernan and Dundon (2016), organisational justice theory has been conspicuously omitted in studies on human resource management. This view, therefore, emphasizes the suggestion of Singh and Kassa (2016) that the linkages between diversity-oriented human resource management and organisational justice must be studied and established in different contexts.

In support of the argument that diversity-oriented human resource management practices positively impact organisational justice perception, Ledimo's (2015) study, which investigated factors that affect employees' organisational justice perceptions, showed that diversity management practices favourably influence workers' perception of organisational justice. Similarly, Asghar, Fatemehalsadat and Hassan (2013) suggested that the effective implementation of diversity-oriented human resource management practices increases employees' perception of the organisation to be fair, which invariably enhances their commitment levels. These findings reflect that a combination of factors influences organisational justice perception. Moreover, Le et al. (2016) investigated the connection between inclusion, organisational justice and employee well-being with a sample from Australia's Tourism Industry. They found that inclusion is an essential factor of diversity-oriented human resource management practices and is favourably connected to the different kinds of organisational justice, such as procedural, interpersonal and distributive justice.

Recent studies have recognised that contemporary educational institutions are paying more attention to diversity management and how it can be used to enhance the organisational justice climate. One of the key issues is how diversity management can be leveraged to encourage moral behaviour and fair work opportunities for

disadvantaged persons to ensure organisational fairness. To underscore this opinion, Fujimoto, Hartel and Azmat (2013) investigated integrating diversity management principles in organisational management to enhance organisational justice. The findings showed that effective human resource diversity management enhances organisational justice in all dimensions, including interactional, procedural and distributive justice. Therefore, the study recommends that diversity justice management should lead to the establishment of fair and moral workplaces for employees.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that minority staff members in higher educational institutions report more unjust treatment, such as marginalisation and discrimination. Further, evidence also shows that academic staff perceives unjust practices in universities (Nethavhani, Maluka & Mayeza, 2020). For example, a study conducted by Nethavhani, Maluka and Mayeza (2020) about academic employees' perceptions of organisational justice at the University of Limpopo revealed that academic staff observes some level of injustice when it comes to procedural justice at the University. Therefore, it is important to state that educational institutions must address unfairness among diverse employees for effectiveness and efficiency. In doing so, educational institutions must ensure the existence of or creation of fair processes and structures and the effective management of employees. Thus, creating justice in workforce diversity as benchmarking of fairness will reduce unfair treatment in organisations with a diverse workforce.

Undoubtedly, there is a need for further investigations of all the aspects of organisational justice within the tertiary educational environment (Nethavhani, Maluka & Mayeza, 2020), especially its relationship with diversity-oriented human resource management practices. This is because the findings of such an empirical study would inform the ongoing debate on its connection with employees' perception of organisational justice. Therefore, this study seeks to test the hypothesis: *H2: diversity-oriented human resource management practices significantly predict employees' organisation justice perception.*

5.4.3 OJP and OCB

Studies (Khaola & Rambe, 2020; Kwak, 2016; Nwibere, 2014) have shown that if employees are treated positively, they will feel obligated to pay back in the same or better manner. The organisational justice literature reveals a positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour. For instance, Khaola and Rambe (2020) revealed that organisational justice significantly impacts OCB among the staff of universities and commercial enterprises in Lesotho. Also, organisational justice was identified as a predictor of employee affective commitment, which is also a strong predictor of OCB. A study by Kwak (2016) examined the effect of organisational justice on OCB among Korean civil servants, with findings revealing that organisational justice significantly predicted OCB. The study found that procedural, interactional justice is important for OCB.

Furthermore, Vuuren, Dhurup and Joubert (2016) revealed a strong predictive power of organisational justice perception on organisational citizenship behaviours. The findings show that employees tend to engage in pro-social behaviours in an environment of fairness and positive perceptions of procedural, distributive and interactional justice. Wee, Ahmad and Fen (2014) reiterated that procedural justice reports a stronger relationship with all dimensions of OCB (courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, altruism & conscientiousness) than distributive justice. This relationship was buttressed by Garg, Rastogi and Malik (2019) with the findings that perceived organisational justice factors positively affect employees' extra-role behaviours by giving rise to positive social interactions, satisfaction and increased interpersonal interactions. Further, Nwibere (2014) examined the empirical relationship between organisational justice and OCB with a sample of 245 academic members of staff (both teaching and non-teaching) from nine Universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. The findings showed a favourable connection between organisational justice and OCB. Notably, the various OCB dimensions, such as courtesy, altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness and sportsmanship, are significantly and individually influenced by organisational justice in institutions of higher learning in Nigeria. This means that educational institutions must initiate measures necessary to enhance: impartiality in allocating incentives and other benefits such as favours, the neutrality of the systems

and methods used to make judgements or reach conclusions, and impartiality in the interactions between managers, superiors and other employees. By this, educational institutions stand to gain from employees through organisational citizenship behaviours or good discretionary job-related actions that may translate into going out of your way to assist others with their work (altruism), exceeding expectations in all areas, including regularity at work, adherence to procedures, laws and standards (conscientiousness), actively engaging in the affairs and activities of the organisation and exhibiting keenness for its survival (Civic virtue), the worker's capacity for bearing with less than ideal circumstances without objecting (Sportsmanship), and preventing the creation of needless workplace conflicts with coworkers (Courtesy) (Nwibere, 2014).

From the ongoing, it is relevant to remember that there is a dearth of research on organisational justice and OCB in the educational sector, especially among higher educational institutions in Ghana (Tandoh, 2020). Therefore, to add to empirical studies and consolidate these findings in the context of the Ghanaian higher educational sector, it is necessary to propose the following hypothesis to be tested: *H3: organisational justice perception significantly predicts organisational citizenship behaviour.*

5.4.4 OJP and employee happiness

Extant studies have shown that negative effects of employee workplace happiness can be very detrimental to organisations' efficiency and effectiveness, especially academic institutions (Ahmed, Kamil & Ishak, 2018, Behrani, 2017). Further, Ahmed, Kamil and Ishak (2018) proposed that organisational justice perception influences employee well-being in academia. The study effectively suggested that educational institutions should improve understanding, create awareness and promote employee well-being, which indicates employee happiness. According to Weimann, Knabe and Schob (2015), employee well-being reflects the prevalence of positive emotions and moods of individuals on their job and feelings that the work provides opportunities to develop their potential for self-actualisation (Dodge et al., 2012).

Ajala and Bolarinwa (2015) noted that employees' feeling of justice in various aspects of the organisation, such as promotional decisions, task assignments and allocation of rewards, have a significant bearing on employees' psychological well-being and social interaction, which intends to reflect employee happiness. The study further identified that distributive, procedural and interactional justice had a strong favourable connection with employee happiness. Therefore, the management of tertiary educational institutions is advised to create and enhance fair practices and procedures that support employees' happiness by enhancing their psychological well-being regarding ideas, sentiments, dispositions, comprehensions, viewpoints and interactions with others. Similarly, Behrani (2017) underscored that employee happiness is crucial in ensuring organisational performance by equitably allocating organisational benefits or incentives, procedures followed at work, and employee interactions. Heffernan and Dundon (2016) supported these views, who indicated that workers' views of distributive, procedural and interactional justice positively influence employee happiness, indicated by job satisfaction, affective commitment and well-being. Moreover, Jandaghi, Alimadadi, Fard, and Golverdi (2012) researched the connection between organisational justice and staff contentment with findings that reveal a strong favourable linkage between organisational justice and staff happiness among academic institutions. Mitonga-Monga and Hoole (2018) further reinforce this postulation that organisational justice is significant with the affective and continuance of organisational commitment.

On the other hand, some studies (Behrani, 2017) have established that organisational justice hurts employee happiness. Behrani's (2017) study further identified that no discernible difference exists between the marriage and sexual orientations of employees on the relationship between organisational justice and employee happiness. This shows that despite employees' differences regarding demographic features such as gender and marital status, the interaction between organisational justice and employee happiness remains effective. Therefore, educational institutions should enhance work environments that promote equity, fairness and justice, eventually bringing about employee happiness. Since the relationships between organisational justice and employee happiness are still unclear, there is a need for further empirical studies to understand the mechanisms

and advance the research. This research, therefore, aims to close this gap by empirically investigating the linkages between organisational justice and employee happiness among the staff of universities in Ghana. The following hypothesis guides this study: *H4: organisational justice perception significantly predicts employee happiness.*

5.4.5 DOHRMP and employee happiness

Generally, perception influences attitudes or behaviours. According to Otaye- Ebede (2018), how employees view diversity-oriented human resource management practices within their organisations has implications for both employee and organisational outcomes. However, available literature shows that the relationship between diversity-oriented human resource management practices and employee happiness is inconclusive. This is because the relationship seemed to have been established in the management literature to have a positive association (Arslan & Polat, 2021; Mousa, Ayoubi, Massoud & Chaouali, 2021; Mousa, Ayoubi & Massoud, 2020; Georgiadou, Gonzalez-Perez & Olivas-Lujan, 2019), a recent study by Arslan and Polat (2021) revealed contrary findings. This, therefore, calls for further investigations of these concepts.

Available literature showed that quite a lot of scholars support the view that diversity-oriented human resource management perceptions have positive influences on employee happiness (Arslan & Polat, 2021; Mousa, Ayoubi, Massoud & Chaouali, 2021; Georgiadou, Gonzalez- Perez & Olivas-Lujan, 2019). According to Otaye-Ebede (2018), when employees perceive that effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices are in place, it increases their likelihood of engaging in good customer care services, positively impacting productivity. Further, Arslan and Polat (2021) conducted a study to determine whether opinions on diversity affect workplace happiness among 768 Turkish school instructors. The results identified that how employees blend and learn among themselves, colour blindness and fairness diversity management perspectives are favourable determinants of employee happiness at work. In this study, employee happiness is measured as positive affect, negative affect and fulfilment. Another study by Mousa et al. (2021)

observed that workplace fun may affect the perception of organisational inclusion and meaningful work. The results showed a favourable connection between organisational inclusion, a dimension of diversity-oriented human resource management practices, and workplace fun and meaningful work, which are also indicators of employee happiness at work.

Furthermore, Mousa, Massoud and Ayoubi (2020) considered how gender might affect employee perception of diversity management and organisational inclusion in developing countries' perspectives, with workplace fun predicted by organisational inclusion. The findings showed that diversity management is positively associated with organisational inclusion, positively influencing employee workplace fun. In a different interaction, workplace fun significantly mediates the relationship between diversity-oriented human resource management and organisational inclusion. According to Paolillo, Silva and Pasini (2016), organisational inclusion is an active part of diversity management. Organisational inclusion seeks to involve diverse employees in the decision-making process, and it is the active involvement of all employees in the organisation's activities (Paolillo, Silva & Pasini, 2016). Similarly, Alam and Shin (2020) found support for the relationship between diversity management and job satisfaction of employees in the workplace through perceived visible diversity discrimination in terms of age, gender and race identities.

On the other hand, a study by Arslan and Polat (2021) on the influences of diversity perspectives on happiness among teachers in public high schools found that reinforcing homogeneity and access perspectives of diversity management practices did not significantly predict employee happiness at work among high school teachers. According to the study, the contrary findings might have been caused by contextual issues such as the education environment in Turkey and the level of education from which the data was collected. This assertion was validated by the general view that there is no contentment among instructors in Turkey (Turkey Education and Science Labourers Union, 2014).

The ongoing shows that employees' perceptions and interpretations of diversity-oriented human resource management practices significantly influence their attitudes

and behaviours (Otaye-Ebede, 2018). By these findings, the onus is on practitioners, including school administrators, to effectively apply diversity management practices by consolidating the human resource diversity perspectives that ensure a positive impact on employee happiness and reduce the impacts of practices that negatively affect employee happiness. Accordingly, this study proposes the following hypothesis: *H5: diversity-oriented human resource management practices perceptions significantly predict employee workplace happiness.*

5.4.6 Employee happiness and OCB

Employee happiness, also referred to as workplace happiness, is identified in the management literature to have a strong connection with organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Cek & Eyupoglu, 2020; Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2016; Pryce-Jones & Lindsay, 2014). Salas-Vallina, Alegre and Fernandez (2016) examined the effect of employee happiness at work on organisational citizenship. The findings suggested that the relationship between happiness at work and OCB is positively related, which is mediated by organisational learning capability. This means that increased contentment among workers inspires them to accept instructions and encourages them to enhance their interpersonal relationships, resulting in OCB.

Further, Palihakkara and Weerakkody (2019), in a study about employee happiness and citizenship behaviours of executive-level employees, suggest that employers should enhance work-life balances opportunities for their executives to increase their energies which boosts their positive emotions and increase their happiness resulting in citizenship behaviours. The study established a positive linkage between happiness and organisational citizenship behaviours. Similarly, Agustina et al. (2020) confirmed that employee happiness strongly impacts employees' organisational citizenship behaviours.

In addition, Mohammad, Quoquab Habib and Alias (2011) measured how two dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB for individuals and OCB for organisations) are associated with both internal and external forms of contentment. The study revealed that internal and external job satisfaction is

important in predicting citizenship behaviours. These studies are supported by the study of Pryce-Jones and Lindsay (2014), who revealed that happiness at work brings about a return on investment and strategic outcomes (helpful extra-role behaviours) when properly implemented. Thus, it can be deduced that implementing practices and processes to boost employee happiness, such as improving employees' well-being, positively affects organisational citizenship behaviours (Rossouw & Rothmann, 2020). This gives a certain level of comfort and satisfaction to employees because the performance of extra-role behaviours, such as improving the well-being of other people and aiding in the administration of justice and public service, are more satisfying to workers than their typical salary (Rossouw & Rothmann, 2020).

Unlike other sectors, the educational sector does not have many studies on the dimensions of employee happiness. Thus, Salas-Vallina, Alegre and Fernandez (2016) suggest that there should be increased and continued inquiries into the dimensions of happiness at work and its linkages. In a study about whether happiness at work brings about organisational citizenship behaviour in private and public schools in Pakistan with a gender perspective, Sabir et al. (2019) revealed that female teachers are happier than male teachers and, as such, exhibit more citizenship behaviours than their male counterparts in the educational sector. Furthermore, Cek and Eyupoglu (2020) examined the effect of overall satisfaction (intrinsic & extrinsic) on the OCB of high school teachers in the educational management literature. The findings revealed that teachers are more intrinsically satisfied with their jobs compared with extrinsic job satisfaction. Overall, job satisfaction is associated with OCB and positively influences OCB, with intrinsic job satisfaction having a greater effect than extrinsic job satisfaction. It is noted that job satisfaction is an established measure of employee happiness. The current researcher, however, observed that these studies covered only the primary and higher schools leaving out the tertiary sector. It is this gap that this study seeks to fill and, therefore, seeks to investigate further the relationship between employee happiness on OCB in the higher education sector in Ghana by testing the following hypothesis: *H6: employee happiness will have a significant effect on organisational citizenship behaviours.*

5.4.7 Employee happiness, DOHRMP and OCB

The management literature reveals interactions between employee happiness, diversity-oriented human resource management and employee outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviour. From the literature, employee happiness, as a result of effective diversity-oriented human resource management practices, has been discovered to be a source of sustained competitive advantage for educational institutions and has a profound effect on organisational citizenship behaviours (Cek & Eyupoglu, 2020; Salas-Vallina, Alegre & Fernandez, 2016; Pryce-Jones & Lindsay, 2014). For instance, Cek and Eyupoglu (2020) noted that content workers more easily engage in extra-role activities than dissatisfied employees. It has also been argued that workplace happiness, both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, is very important in predicting citizenship behaviours (Mohammad, Quoquah Habib & Alias, 2011).

Studies have also indicated a strong relationship between diversity-oriented human resource management practices and employee happiness. Researchers have demonstrated a strong relationship between diversity-oriented human resource management and employee happiness (Arslan & Polat, 2021; Mousa et al., 2021; Mousa, Ayoubi & Massoud, 2020; Georgiadou et al., 2019). Diversity-oriented human resource management practices are now considered to have both tangible and intangible parts of the organisation's resources, having the potential to ensure continuous organisational and employee outcomes. For instance, Arslan and Polat (2021) identified that diversity management perspectives significantly predicted employee happiness at work. Employee happiness is measured as positive affect, and fulfilment has been argued to be impacted by fairness and diversity management. Furthermore, Ashikali and Groeneveld (2015) expressed that implementing diversity-oriented human resource management practice such as affirmative actions and equal employment opportunities enhance fairness regarding minority groups at different organisational levels. It can therefore be deduced that effective diversity management practices bring about happiness and that an organisation that promotes an atmosphere of fairness enhances employee happiness.

Though scholars have continually demonstrated that there is growing evidence that diversity-oriented human resource management positively affects employee happiness (Arslan & Polat, 2021; Mousa et al., 2021; Georgiadou et al., 2019), there is a need to understand the function of happiness of workers on the relationship between diversity-oriented human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviours in higher educational institutions in Ghana. The literature above provides a necessary basis for this study to hypothesise that: *H7: employee happiness significantly mediates the influence of diversity-oriented human resource management practices on organisational citizenship behaviours.*

5.4.8 Employee happiness, OJP and OCB

Previous studies have continually established that organisational justice perception strongly impacts OCB (Khaola & Rambe, 2020; Kwak, 2016; Nwibere, 2014) and employee happiness (Ahmed, Kamil & Ishak, 2018; Behrani, 2017; Weimann et al., 2015; Ajala & Bolarinwa, 2015) but silent on the moderating interactions between these variables. The management literature tends to focus more on the organisational level of analysis. It does not explicitly explain the individual-level interactions between these variables in the Ghanaian higher educational sector. The unavailable study of the interactions of these key variables is an essential void in the management literature that the present study seeks to address. Employee happiness is significant in creating and sustaining employees' extra-role behaviours. It motivates employees to perform citizenship behaviours and promotes a culture of organisational citizenship behaviours (Khaola & Rambe, 2020).

From the above assertions, the literature presents a necessary foundation to examine the moderating role of employee happiness in the relationship between organisational justice perception and organisational citizenship behaviours. Thus the formulation of the hypothesis that: *H8: Employee happiness significantly mediates the impact of organisational justice perception on organisational citizenship behaviours.*

5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This Chapter reviewed the theories that strengthened the research, clarifying the developed model and formulating hypotheses. The theoretical literature review was on Social Exchange Theory and Organisational Justice Theory as the principal and necessary foundations underpinning the relationships between the study variables: diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perceptions by employees, organisational citizenship behaviours and employee happiness. The notion behind the Social Exchange Theory is that connections, exchanges and interactions have reciprocal actions. This means that when an organisation initiates a positive action that benefits employees, they reciprocate through favourable actions to benefit the organisation. In the case of the Organisational Justice Theory, employees' fairness perception of procedures and processes of an organisation shape their attitudes toward acting constructively. Further, the Chapter clarified the concepts of organisational justice perception and employee happiness and formulated hypotheses for testing. The next chapter covers the methodology.

CHAPTER 6: METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter encompasses the methods, various processes, and procedures used in collecting and analysing the empirical data. In addition, the methodology and philosophical paradigm underpinning the study are presented in this Chapter. This section consists of various sub-sections, namely, research approach, research design, study area, population, sample and sampling procedure, data collection procedure, instrumentation, method of data analysis, the validity of data, data reliability, ethical consideration in data collection, limitations of the study and conclusion of the Chapter.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF PHILOSOPHICAL ASSUMPTIONS

Every research is based on a certain philosophical perspective. Philosophical assumptions shape the nature of knowledge, what constitutes knowledge, its sources, and its limits (Ngulube, 2015). Philosophical assumptions include ontology and epistemology (Creswell, 2014). Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality. It “encompasses the claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units it is made of and how those different units interact with one another” (Blaikie, 2004:7). Ontology, therefore, is the descriptions or presumptions about the nature of reality. Objective ontology depicts the existing social entities, while subjective ontology believes that social actors interested in social phenomena generate them through their subjective views and subsequent actions (Scotland, 2012). On the other hand, epistemology concerns how researchers come to know or produce knowledge (Scotland, 2012; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008; Blaikie, 2004).

A set of philosophical beliefs constitute a paradigm. A research paradigm is “a set of beliefs, values and techniques shared by members of a scientific community, which acts as a guide or map, dictating the kinds of problems scientists should address and the types of explanations acceptable to them” (Khan, 2014:229).

Researchers must adopt paradigms based on their philosophies (beliefs, positions, or assumptions) or ontological and epistemological choices (Wahyuni, 2012). Research paradigms include positivism, interpretivism or constructivism, and critical realism paradigms, realism, and pragmatism, among others (Alharahsheh & Pius, 2020; Burrell & Morgan, 2017; Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Creswell, 2014; Khan, 2014; Brennan et al., 2011; Onwuegbuzie, Johnson & Collins, 2011).

6.3 THE PHILOSOPHICAL ASSUMPTIONS FOR THE STUDY

This study is guided by philosophical assumptions that inform its theoretical framework, research methodology and objectives. These assumptions would lead to a better understanding of diversity management and contribute to the existing knowledge in this field.

Sobh and Perry (2006: 126) state that “there is no objective ground for choosing a paradigm”. The researcher needs to adopt a paradigm that is suitable and consistent with the assumptions made concerning the study. Consequently, and judging from the various paradigms and their underlying assumptions, the positivism paradigm was adopted for this investigation because it is the one that best fits its objectives. This enabled the investigator to develop research questions and hypotheses and employ the survey approach to gather important data to test the hypotheses formulated in the study’s early stages. Also, the investigation was not intended to explore a deeper understanding of a phenomenon or to broaden assumptions regarding the other alternative research paradigms.

According to Nyein et al. (2020), those who subscribe to the positivist paradigm believe that reality is a single and independent fact that can be empirically measured using structured quantitative methods. Positivists generally lean on objectivism, assuming that knowledge is independent of the researcher and can be measured objectively (Tronvoll et al., 2011). Khan (2014) observes that using a positivist paradigm to investigate a subject matter affords the law of generalisation, which seeks to uphold that a single reality or subject will yield similar results if similar methods are used. Positivists are also interested in investigating how variables are

connected by examining the results of the cause and consequences of those variables. Since this is a primary study which aims to examine quantitative data, a positivist position will be best suited to drawing out the implications of the data in the analysis.

6.4 RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN

The philosophical assumptions and paradigms discussed above influence the research approach and design. The approach and design must match the phenomenon of interest instead of strictly committing to a given philosophical assumption (Schwab, 2013). This section is devoted to the discussion of the research approach and design.

6.4.1 Approach

The research approach can generally be inductive, deductive or abductive, corresponding to qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods (Fassinger & Morrow, 2013). In qualitative research, the investigator makes knowledge claims predominantly on interpretivist philosophy. On the other hand, the quantitative approach relies on positivist beliefs or assumptions to develop knowledge and establish the nature of reality (Creswell, 2014), while the mixed methods approach combines qualitative and quantitative approaches simultaneously (Creswell, 2014; Fassinger & Morrow, 2013).

This study followed the quantitative research approach. It used investigational tactics, including tests and surveys, and gathered information with instruments designed to collect data for statistical analysis (Creswell, 2014). This study sought to establish relationships among variables in a relatively large sample size of teaching and non-teaching staff of tertiary educational institutions in Ghana.

The quantitative approach was followed, meaning the research employed deductive reasoning because the emphasis was on quantifying variables by assigning numbers to these perceived qualities of constructs (Vogt et al., 2014). The objective was to

investigate possible associations among various constructs: diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perception, organisational citizenship behaviours and employee happiness. Another reason for choosing the quantitative approach is that it could be promptly undertaken and results reviewed quickly since it could be tallied quickly compared to qualitative research and generalisation (Choy, 2014).

6.4.2 Design

There are several research designs, such as longitudinal, experimental and cross-sectional (Uprichard, 2013; Smith, 2012; Mitchell & Jolley, 2012). The longitudinal research design consists of continuous or repeated measures of study variables over some time, often years or decades. Regarding experiments, the investigator administers a treatment to the studied group and evaluates the experimental group's results against the control group. Experimental designs have at least three special features, thus manipulation, control of extraneous variables and randomization (Smith, 2012).

This study employed a cross-sectional correlational survey design (Choy, 2014). The cross-sectional correlational survey design ensured that the investigator gathered information from the respondents over a short period. Uprichard (2013) suggested that cross-sectional surveys are ideal for drawing general assumptions about a population from a sample and making it easier to conclude. Moreover, they are rapid, simple and affordable (Choy, 2014). Although a longitudinal design may be suitable for determining causal linkages (Uprichard, 2013), the time limitation and financial implications imposed by the PhD study could not allow for continuous or repeated measures of study variables over the required time. The study explores the relationships between diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perception, organisational citizenship behaviours and employee happiness in the Ghanaian educational system. The cross-sectional survey design was chosen as the most suitable research design.

6.5 STUDY AREA, POPULATION AND SAMPLING

This section discusses the study area, population and sampling techniques used.

6.5.1 Study area/setting

The study area included all universities in the Ghanaian tertiary education space. This was made up of all private and public universities.

6.5.2 Population

The target population for this study was the total number of staff of all the public and private universities put together. The total number of staff of all the public and private universities is estimated to be 27,115 (National Accreditation Board, 2020).

6.5.3 Sampling technique

The study relied on a probability sampling technique that allowed every population member a fair chance to participate in the investigation. Moreover, it was an appropriate technique for conducting quantitative analysis (Etikan & Bala, 2017; Taherdoost, 2016). Therefore, multi-stage probability sampling (Etikan & Bala, 2017, Alvi, 2016) was used to determine the sample participants. According to Alvi (2016), multi-stage probability sampling combines two or more probability sampling techniques. In this instance, three (3) different sampling techniques were adopted to select participants for inclusion in the study. The first was the stratified sampling technique which involved grouping the population into homogeneous strata before sampling (Etikan & Bala, 2017). This enabled the researcher to divide the schools into two main strata, namely public and private universities, as shown in Table 6.1. According to the stratification, there were seventeen (17) public universities and thirty-five (35) private universities.

Table 6.1: Public and private universities in Ghana

Type of University	Names of Universities	Number of full-time staff
Public	University of Ghana	6,098
	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology	3,669
	University of Development Studies	1,513
	University of Cape Coast	2,520
	University of Education Winneba	1,981
	University of Energy and Natural Resources	494
	University of Health and Allied Sciences	604
	University of Mines and Technology	481
	University of Professional Studies	546
	Accra Technical University	531
	Cape Coast Technical University	348
	Ho Technical University	463
	Kumasi Technical University	592
	Koforidua Technical University	610
	Sunyani Technical University	512
	Takoradi Technical University	796
	Tamale Technical University	441
	African University College of Communication	74
	All Nations University College	346
	Anglican University College	49
	Ashesi University	115
	Catholic University College	114
	Central University	402
	Christ Apostolic University College	60
	Christian Service University College	106
	Dominion University College	76
	Evangelical Presbyterian University College	70
	Garden City University College	206

Private	Ghana Baptist University College	68
	Ghana Christian University College	67
	Ghana Technology University College	468
	Islamic University College	185
	Jayee University College	41
	KAAF University College	146
	Kings University College	72
	Knutsford University College	127
	Lancaster University Ghana	105
	Laweh Open University	22
	Maranatha University College	39
	Methodist University College, Ghana	347
	Mountcrest University College	106
	Pentecost University College	149
	Perez University College	61
	Presbyterian University College	203
	Radford University College	86
	Regent University College of Science & Technology	254
	Spiritan University College	27
	University College of Management Studies	107
	University of Agriculture and Environment	35
	Valley View University	352
	Wisconsin University College	144
	Zenith University College	87
Total		27,115

Source: National Accreditation Board (2020)

The second sampling technique that was used was simple random sampling. Out of the seventeen (17) public universities and thirty-five (35) private universities, the simple random sampling technique was used to select approximately nine (9) and eighteen (18) public and private universities, respectively, for data collection. This approach was based on the work of Rose, Spinks and Canhoto (2014), who suggested that half of the constituents of a population of any study have the

population characteristics. Further, the employees of these sampled universities were randomly selected to take part in filling out the questionnaire.

6.5.4 Sample size

The sample size is paramount in any research, especially in Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) studies, because it gives greater stability to the parameter estimates. Various researchers have suggested different sample sizes for SEM. However, no consensus has yet been reached in the literature (Kline, 2011; Ong & Puteh, 2017). The criteria suggested by Kline (2011) were that a sample size below 100 is small, between 100 and 200 is medium and fairly acceptable, and a sample size of over 200 is often considered large and good to use. Considering the suggestion of Kline (2011), Ong and Puteh (2017) claimed that a sample size of 200 and above was preferable for SEM analysis.

This investigation sought to sample permanent teaching and non-teaching staff due to several evident factors. Firstly, the permanent staff were better positioned to share their opinions and views on diversity management practices in their various institutions. Similarly, permanent staff in the various tertiary educational institutions were responsible for introducing, supervising and overseeing responsibilities for ensuring that diversity-oriented human resource management practices were implemented to the letter. As a result, they were in better positions to provide information about their institution's diversity practices, procedures, systems and policies.

The formula proposed by Yamane (1967), $n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}$, (Chaokromthong & Sintao) 2021 was used to determine the sample size where:

n = the sample size,

N = the population size,

e = the level of precision

Yamane's proposed formula was adopted for this study because it has been accepted that it was the best and most suitable for surveys and other studies that

have finite populations (Chaokromthong & Sintao, 2021).

Using the population size of 27,115 and the level of precision of 0.05 which was set at the 95% confidence level, the sample size was 394 employees. The sample size was proportionally allocated among the two types of institutions, as indicated in Table 6.2. Further, the sample size of each category was proportionally allocated among the various institutions sampled for investigation. Refer to Table 6.3 for the proportional allocation of the sample size among the institutions selected.

Table 6.2: Proportional allocation of sample size

Institution	Total population	Sample size	proportional allocation	Sample size
Public	22,199	394	$22199/27115 \times 394 = 322.567$	323
Private	4,916		$4916/27115 \times 394 = 71$	71
Total	27,115			394

Table 6.3: Sample size allocated to sampled universities

Type of University	Sampled Universities	Number of full-time staff	Sample size allocated
Public	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology	3,669	117
	University of Cape Coast	2,520	80
	University of Professional Studies	546	18
	Accra Technical University	531	17
	Cape Coast Technical University	348	11
	Kumasi Technical University	592	19
	Koforidua Technical University	610	20
	Sunyani Technical University	512	16
	Takoradi Technical University	796	25
Total		10,124	323

Private	African University College of Communication	74	2
	All Nations University College	346	7
	Anglican University College	49	1
	Ashesi University	115	2
	Central University	402	8
	Christian Service University College	106	2
	Dominion University College	76	2
	Garden City University College	206	4
	Ghana Christian University College	67	1
	Ghana Technology University College	468	10
	Islamic University College	185	4
	Jayee University College	41	1
	KAAF University College	146	3
	Kings University College	72	2
	Knutsford University College	127	3
	Methodist University College, Ghana	347	7
	Valley View University	352	8
	Presbyterian University College	203	4
Total		3,382	71

6.6 DATA COLLECTION

This section encompasses the sources of data, descriptions of the pilot study and data collection method and instruments.

6.6.1 Data sources

The source of research data is either from primary or secondary sources. Primary data sources are data collected directly from the respondents and utilised for the precise reason they were gathered. For example, primary data sources include interviews, observation and questionnaires (Creswell, 2014). On the other hand, a secondary source of data includes available sources because the data has been

collected, processed and probably used by another researcher for different purposes (Ong & Puteh, 2017).

This study used primary sources of data collection and analysis. This enabled the investigator to explore the relationships and effects among variables considered in this study, specifically diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perception, organisational citizenship behaviour and employee happiness. Additionally, using a primary data source guaranteed the study's credibility since the quality of some secondary data is in dispute (Yilmaz, 2013). For example, there is a chance that secondary data cannot give accurate information concerning participants' perceptions, opinions and views regarding what is happening at their respective places. As a result, gathering original data was deemed more acceptable for this investigation than secondary data analysis.

6.6.2 Pilot study

A preliminary investigation was carried out to ascertain the research instrument based on the constructs of the study. This helped the researcher check and verify the research instruments' face, content and context validity. The preliminary investigation was conducted at Ho Technical University and the University of Health and Allied Sciences, Ho. The staff of these two institutions did not participate in the main study. In order to measure the internal consistency and reliability of the scale items, Cronbach's Alpha (α) and composite reliability were computed. As a result, the constructs used in the current study were considered reliable based on the Cronbach's Alpha values meeting the thresholds of 0.70 and 0.60 based on Nunnally's (1970) and Hales's (1986), respectively.

6.6.3 Data collection method and Instrument

Data collection is the procedure employed to acquire and compile research data on certain demographic and sampled respondents in a well-established methodical manner, weighing the data from various sources to produce a thorough and accurate research interest (Creswell, 2014). In addition, gathering data allows the investigator

to analyse the study results and respond to the research questions.

The primary tool adopted for gathering information from respondents was a structured questionnaire, which is recommended to be an easier approach to collecting accurate information from people for analysis (Burkard, Knox & Hill, 2012). In addition, the questionnaire ensured that the information obtained was unbiased due to the investigator's minimal involvement with the information provided by the respondents.

The questionnaire was separated into five different parts. The first section of the survey asked participants about their demographic data such as gender, age, qualification, position occupied and type of work. The second part elicited responses about diversity-oriented human resource management practices for this study. These categories included procedural human resource management practices, distributional human resource management practices and interactional human resource management practices. The third aspect of the questionnaire looks at organisational justice perception with categories such as distributive, procedural and interactional justice. The fourth part of the questionnaire is concentrated on employee happiness with categories such as engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption), job satisfaction, affective commitment and well-being. The fifth aspect of the questionnaire focused on organisational citizenship behaviour with categories of altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue.

The participants were instructed to indicate their agreement or disagreement with the statements by ticking the appropriate box. The questionnaire measured the key independent variables, such as diversity-oriented human resource management practices and organisational justice perception and the dependent variables, such as organisational citizenship behaviour and employee happiness. Thus, the questionnaire was structured using the Likert format with a seven-point response scale ranging from 7 = *“Strongly Agree”*; 6= *“somewhat agree”*; 5= *“Agree”*; 4= *Neutral*; 3= *Neutral*, 2= *Disagree*; and 1 = *“Strongly Disagree”*.

6.7 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

This section is devoted to discussing the validity and reliability of the research instrument.

6.7.1 Validity

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2017), validity describes the degree to which a scale accurately measures and portrays a concept. Normally, validity assessments include but are not limited to face validity, content validity and construct validity. Face validity suggests an index's characteristics that make it appear to be a true measure of some variables. Similarly, content validity signifies how well an index accounts for all the interpretations and meanings represented in a variable (Surucu & Maslakci, 2020). A popular method of determining content validity is to consult experts. Thus, professional opinions were obtained for this investigation to ensure face and content validity. The professionals were mainly supervisors of this thesis who scrutinised the data collection instrument. Further, to judge the questions' applicability and the amount to which the constructs under study were covered, other academics in the subject area also applied their specialised knowledge.

Construct or convergent validity describes how an index is linked with other variables in an empirical relationship (Cohen et al., 2017). This validity is often assessed using factor analysis. In keeping with how scales are developed and cleansing procedures (Taber, 2018), the construct validity of the measuring items was guaranteed through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The EFA was used to retain items that share significant variance with their main variables, whereas CFA was used to confirm them (refer to Chapter Seven). Also, an Average Value Extracted (AVE) of at least 0.5 indicated sufficient convergent validity, meaning that a latent variable could explain above half of the variance of its indicators on average (Ullman & Bentler, 2012) (refer to Chapter Seven).

6.7.2 Reliability of the scale

The scale's reliability is very important as it shows the extent to which scales are consistent with the results of repeated measurements (Surucu & Maslakci 2020). It is usually measured using coefficient alpha or Cronbach's alpha (Peterson & Kim, 2013). Cronbach's alpha measures how the constructs' various items interact with other variables (Taber, 2018). In literature, there is disagreement about what is considered an acceptable value of Cronbach's alpha. For instance, Hair et al. (2010) indicated that a target above 0.60 is acceptable. Nunnally (1970) also stipulated that below 0.50 in Cronbach's alpha range is considered unsatisfactory, between 0.50 and 0.69 is considered adequate, and 0.70 and higher is considered acceptable.

Thus, this thesis assessed the reliability of the scales by utilising Cronbach's alpha value of 0.70 as the cut-off point in line with Nunnally's (1970) position. Alternative measures of reliability, such as composite reliability obtained through confirmatory factor analysis, could be employed (Peterson & Kim, 2013). As a result, the investigator used composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha to predict the internal consistency of the measurement scales (refer to Chapter Seven).

6.8 DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

Each questionnaire in the current study had a code number assigned to it to make it easier to identify it. The data were entered into the computer using IBM-SPSS Version 23 and exported into Amos Version 21 of the structural equation modelling (SEM) software. IBM-SPSS Version 23 was used because of familiarity and compatibility. Simple descriptive statistics, such as means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentages, were used to present the results, including regression estimates to conclude the study's hypotheses. Other analyses, including factor analysis (FA) and correlation, were used to perform preliminary analyses such as normality, construct validity, and reliability. Finally, the hypothesised relationships (direct and mediation) were tested for confirmation or otherwise using Structural Equation Modelling, Amos version 21, and Andrews Hayes Process model for mediation and moderation using estimates from the analyses.

6.8.1 Structural equation modelling

This study adopted Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to test the hypotheses because SEM is robust in multivariate analysis techniques, specifying the relationships among independent and dependent variables simultaneously utilising two primary models of models measurement and structural (Ullman & Bentler, 2012). Overall, SEM centres on these two sets of models: firstly, the measurement model allows for using latent variables and a cluster of variables of observed variables underlying each construct in the analysis and uses confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for validation and reduction of measurement errors. Secondly, the structural equation model allows for measuring the significance of the relationships between latent variables, achieved through path analysis to minimise measurement errors by testing multiple indicators per latent variables while offering a good fit and graphical modelling interface (Byrne, 2013).

SEM was adopted due to four main reasons. First, Bivariate correlation and regression, for example, cannot postulate a complicated model structure that can capture the complexity of the multivariate reality. The use of a small number of variables to understand complex phenomena is limiting. However, multifaceted studies such as this are statistically modelled and tested using SEM (Ullman & Bentler, 2012). Secondly, when performing statistical data analysis, SEM techniques consider measurement errors (Byrne, 2013). Thirdly, SEM allowed for moderating and mediating variables where a dependent variable could simultaneously act as an independent variable. Fourthly, SEM can concurrently estimate the many correlations that have been hypothesised, ensuring better precision of the estimated coefficients than measuring individual variables.

6.8.2 Mediation analyses

The analysis of the mediation variable was accomplished by utilising the Cause-Effect Model approach, as suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). According to Baron and Kenny (1986), three different regression estimate requirements must be fulfilled for mediation testing: firstly, the independent variable must affect the mediator

in the first equation (model A); secondly, the mediating variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable in the second equation (model B); and thirdly, when Model A and Model B, are controlled, a previously significant relation between the independent and the dependent variables in the third equation (model C) is no longer significant. The other conditions clearly show that the independent variable must significantly predict the mediator in Model A; the independent variable must significantly predict the dependent variable in Model B; the mediator must significantly predict the dependent variable in Model C, and the independent variable must predict the outcome variable less strongly in Model C than in Model A (partial mediation). But full mediation occurs when the independent variable is insignificant in the third model (Model C).

In testing for mediation, it was preferred to use SEM techniques to using regression techniques because SEM provided the best techniques for controlling measurement error. In addition, SEM also provided attractive alternatives for exploring the mediation effect (Baron & Kenny, 1986). For this reason, the conditions considered by Baron and Kenny (1986) were employed in SEM to test the hypothesised mediated relationships.

Andrew Hayes' process model aided the mediation analyses. According to Hayes and Rockwood (2020), Andrew Hayes' process model integrated mediation analyses to test and examine the study's hypotheses. This process helped to test how mechanisms or variables change depending on the situation or individual differences. The process model can show the statistical significance of what separates the direct effect from the overall effect, which is not accounted for in Baron and Kenny's requirement for mediation. Furthermore, research scholars (Hayes & Rockwood, 2020) have also argued that the conditions given by Baron and Kenny (1986) are not such a relevant precondition before one can test mediation. The approach has become old and therefore needs to be revised. They, therefore, proposed that one can still test for mediation without necessarily meeting Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation conditions. In order to strengthen and confirm Baron and Kenny's mediation analysis, Andrew Hayes' process model has been recommended to be relevant in supporting the mediation analysis, thereby overcoming the shortfalls of Baron and

Kenny (1986) and raising the confidence of researchers.

6.9 ETHICAL ISSUES IN THE RESEARCH

Respondents of this research were likely hesitant to provide information about fair and just organisational practices and other diversity-oriented human resource management practices due to fear of reprimand by superiors. To curtail this problem, the researcher assured all respondents that their identities and particulars would be kept confidential and not disclosed to anyone at any point in the research process. Further, the respondents were assured that their identities and particulars would not be mentioned in the research or data-gathering instruments. Further, to allay their fear of reprimand from superiors, the researcher, prior to the data collection, applied and received consent from all educational institutions that were sampled for the study and informed potential respondents appropriately for their permission. Therefore, the respondents were guaranteed the security and privacy of their responses. Further, the respondents were informed that it was a voluntary undertaking and that they could opt out without suffering any loss.

Further, some respondents and organisations selected for the study and the scholarly community might be interested in the research results (Chang & Chen, 2011). The researcher assured the Institutions that they would be furnished with summaries of the research findings whenever they expressed interest. Moreover, the researcher would take steps to publish reports out of the research to satisfy the scholarly community and ensure at all times that publicising the research results was done responsibly.

This research was undertaken per the Research Ethics and Integrity Policy Framework of the Central University of Technology, Free State, South Africa. This policy was aligned with acceptable international norms and standards for conducting research. Ethical issues were, therefore, of paramount interest and importance to the researcher before, during and after the research period.

6.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This Chapter discussed the study's methodology, which involved the mode of data collection and the analytic procedures undertaken. The targeted population of the study was mainly staff of selected Universities in Ghana. The stratified, multi-stage and simple random sampling methods were employed to sample respondents from the population. Further, it highlighted data analysis methods such as descriptive statistics, correlation and SEM analysis to find the relations among the independent, mediating, and dependent variables. The next chapter will discuss the results of the data analyses in detail.

CHAPTER 7: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This Chapter presents the results of the analysed data collected from the field. The presentation makes use of tables, figures, and charts. The order of presentation in this Chapter includes a demographic profile of the respondents, a test of normality and outliers, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) (measurement and structural models) and the mediation results. The results of the study are subsequently discussed.

This research investigates diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perception, happiness at work and organisational citizenship behaviour among tertiary institutions in Ghana. Twenty-seven (27) tertiary institutions (universities) made up of nine (9) public universities, and eighteen (18) private universities participated in the study, with three hundred and ninety-four (394) respondents sampled. Notably, all three hundred and ninety-four (394) responses were usable, giving a response rate of 100%. The 394 respondents were teaching and non-teaching staff from Ghanaian public and private universities. Before the analysis, the data was entered using the IBM SPSS version 25 software. After data screening, the participants' profiles were examined, and the relationships among the main variables were tested using correlation, regression, and SEM, particularly Amos version 21 software and the Andrew-Hayes process model.

7.2 DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

The analysis revealed an overall male dominance with 56% of total respondents over female respondents with 44%. In terms of ages of participants, the ages between 31 to 40 years recorded the highest number (164) of respondents representing 42% of the total responses. This was followed by the ages between 20 to 30 years, which recorded 30% of the total respondents, and 24% of the respondents were between 41 and 50 years. The least number of respondents were aged 50 and above years. The analysis further demonstrated that a greater percentage (39%) of the

respondents were Master's degree holders, 34% were Bachelor's degree holders, and 9% each were PhD holders and Diploma holders, respectively. Moreover, less than 2% of the respondents were certificate holders. Additionally, the analysis considered the length of service and, thus working experience of respondents. The analysis revealed that 35% of the respondents had work experience of fewer than six years, 26% had work experience from six to ten years, 23% had work experience of 11 to 15 years, and 13% had 16 to 20 years of work experience. Less than 3% of the respondents had above 20 years of work experience. It is shown from the analysis that the majority (82%) of the respondents were Christians, while 11% of the respondents were Muslim. Traditional African, Hinduism, Atheist and other religions were represented as 2%, 3%, 1% and 1%, respectively. With regards to employment status, as many as 294 respondents representing 75%, were permanent staff, followed by 13% of them with fixed-term, full-time contract staff, and 12% of the same respondents were fixed-term, part-time contract staff. The nature of respondents' work was also examined, with findings that 51% of the respondents were academic staff and 49% were support or non-academic staff.

Table 7.1: Summary of demographics

Variable	Sub-category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	219	55.6
	Female	172	43.7
	LGBTQ+	3	.8
Age	20-30	119	30.2
	31-40	164	41.6
	41-50	94	23.9
	50 and above	17	4.3
Highest Education	PhD	34	8.6
	Masters	154	39.1
	Honours/PGDip	30	7.6
	Bachelor's/Adv Dip	133	33.8
	Diploma	36	9.1

	Below Diploma	7	1.8
Length of Service	0-5yrs	139	35.3
	6-10yrs	103	26.1
	11-15yrs	91	23.1
	16-20yrs	50	12.7
	21 and above yrs	11	2.8
Religion	Christian	323	82.19
	Muslim	45	11.4
	Traditional African	7	1.8
	Hinduism	10	2.5
	Atheist	4	1.0
	Other	4	1.0
Employment Status	Permanent (Full-time)	294	74.7
	Fixed-term, full-time contract	52	13.2
	Fixed-term, part-time contract	48	12.2
Nature of Work	Academic	200	50.8
	Support	194	49.2
Rank (Job Position)	Full Professor	5	1.2
	Associate Professor	4	1
	Senior Lecturer	29	7.4
	Lecturer	20	5.1
	Assistant Lecturer	36	9.1
	Executive Management	7	1.8
	Head of Administrative	31	7.9
	Non-managerial senior member	66	16.8
	Senior Staff	122	30.9
	Junior Staff	74	18.8
Total		394	100

The job positions of respondents were analysed with findings that identified various positions with their representations. These included full Professor and Associate Professors having 1% of respondents each, Senior Lecturer (7%), Lecturer (5%), Assistant Lecturer (9%), Executive Management (2%), Administrative Head (8%),

Non-managerial Senior Member (17%), Senior Staff (30%), and Junior Staff (19%).

7.3 DATA SCREENING AND EXAMINATION

Data cleaning/screening is often discussed regarding missing values, data normality and outliers.

7.3.1 Missing values analysis

Having a large sample of data without missing values is generally inevitable, and statistics can almost not change that. Relatively, missing observations in a data set for analysis can significantly lower the sample size, affecting the accuracy of confidence levels, statistical power and parameter estimates (Pigott, 2001). The best thing to do about missing data is not to have any. However, once there is missing data, the researcher can manage it by determining how much it affects the inferences made (Soley-Bori, 2013). Recognising the causes and reasons for missing data can greatly guide how to handle them, as it could be due to possible data value missing said to be missing completely at random (MCAR), missing at random (MAR) and missing not at random (MNAR). When data is MCAR or MAR, missing data is said to be ignored (Hair et al., 2006). When missing data is more than ten per cent (10%) of the overall data and also occurs in a non-random pattern (MNAR), then it must be addressed (Hair et al., 2006). Missing values can potentially impact the statistical analyses of the overall data in terms of statistical power and regression bias if not dealt with accurately. "The researcher has the options of deleting subjects which have missing values, replacing the missing data values, or using robust statistical procedures that accommodate for the presence of missing data" (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010:157). Several methods handle missing data, like listwise, pairwise, mean imputation, multiple imputation and expectation maximisation methods.

Table 7.2: Missing values analysis

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Missing values Before		Missing values replaced by		No. of Extremes	
				MAR		MAR		Low	High
				Count	Per cent	Count	Per cent		
PHRMP	394	4.71	1.27	19	4.8	0	0	12	0
DHRMP	394	4.38	1.17	20	5	0	0	6	0
IHRMP	394	4.48	1.17	18	4.5	0	0	4	0
POJP	394	4.38	1.07	17	4.3	0	0	0	0
DOJP	394	4.12	1.21	19	4.8	0	0	6	0
IOJP	394	4.43	1.23	18	4.5	0	0	7	0
HAP	394	4.85	1.24	24	6.1	0	0	1	0
OCB	394	5.28	1.06	26	6.5	0	0	20	0

Note: Number of cases outside the range ($Q1 - 1.5 \cdot IQR$, $Q3 + 1.5 \cdot IQR$)

It is noted (Gold & Bentler, 2000) that the expectation maximisation (EM) method proposed by Dempster, Laird and Rubin (1977) holds more promise for dealing with difficulties caused by missing data than other methods regardless of the sample size, percentage of missing data or the way the data is distributed. This is because the imputed data is imposed for the greatest probability estimation and further gives accurate data estimators. Therefore, the current investigator used the EM method to estimate missing values in the data (Table 7.2).

7.3.2 Data normality

A normal data distribution presupposes the average sample size distribution should be normal (Garson, 2012). However, data that is not normally distributed should be converted using a variety of statistical techniques in order to fit the data for further analysis and provide a confidence interval for some goal values. The normality test comes in two varieties, namely univariate and multivariate. When one variable has a normal distribution, this is called univariate normality. Yet, when the variables are regularly distributed relative to one another, multivariate normality of the data is achieved (Garson, 2012; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Garson (2012) asserts that multivariate normality is a prerequisite for using structural equation modelling, which

is adopted in this work. Therefore, checking for univariate normality is a prerequisite for multivariate normality assessment. However, although it is a prerequisite for multivariate normality, univariate normality is not guaranteed (DeCarlo, 1997).

The absolute skewness and kurtosis values determine whether a variable is normal. According to a general rule of thumb, for data to be normally distributed, skewness and kurtosis should be in the range of -2 to +2 (Garson, 2012). However, this does not imply that the data will also be multivariate normal; multivariate non-normality is still possible (West et al., 1995). The critical ratio (C.R.), which is similar to z-statistics and connected with Mardia's coefficient of multivariate kurtosis, if larger than five (> 5.00), shows that the data is abnormally distributed, according to Bentler (1990; 1995). Therefore, the C.R (z-statistic) value of 5.37, shown in Table 7.3, implied that the data of this current investigation also complied with the multivariate normality assumption.

Table 7.3: Results showing univariate and multivariate tests of normality

Variable	Min	Max	Skewness	C.R	Kurtosis	C.R
PHRMP	1.00	6.63	-1.06	.12	.64	.24
DHRMP	1.00	6.89	-.67	.12	.12	.24
IHRMP	1.10	6.90	-.58	.12	-.12	.24
POJP	1.33	7.00	-.38	.12	-.22	.24
DOJP	1.00	7.00	-.32	.12	-.25	.24
IOJP	1.00	7.00	-.64	.12	-.08	.24
HAP	1.28	7.00	-.68	.12	-.08	.24
OCB	1.37	6.83	-1.26	.12	1.58	5.37

7.3.3 Investigating outliers

In data analysis, outliers can drastically change the data analysis outcome and indicate that the data is abnormal. They are typically seen as extremely high or low values of a single variable (a univariate outlier) or a combination of these values of two or more variables (a multivariate outlier). Outliers in a single variable can be found

using stem and leaf graphs, boxplots, histograms and/or the z scores of variables (Garson, 2012). The Mahalanobis distance statistic, often known as the Mahalanobis d-squared statistic, is used to identify multivariate outliers. The data demonstrates how one observation is far from the rest. The observations in the data with the highest Mahalanobis D-square values are most likely considered outliers and are examined. From the results produced in the SPSS analysis, a few outliers were deleted from the data.

7.4 FACTOR ANALYSIS

This section is devoted to describing the procedures undertaken under factor analysis.

7.4.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Factor Analysis (exploratory and confirmatory) reviews the full collection of interdependent associations by not distinguishing variables (dependent and independent) in the study. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), largely known as Principal Component Analysis, was carried out on the data to identify the underlying causes and to keep elements that had strong connections with the variables for SEM analysis. Information regarding the connections between the structures must be gathered by using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Sampling Adequacy test, Cumulative Variance Explained (CVE) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity (p-value) to eliminate repetition. The standard thresholds for KMO value must be higher than five (> 0.5), CVE must be higher than fifty per cent ($> 50\%$), and Bartlett's test value should be significant at a 5% confidence level. These results are depicted in Table 7.4, which shows that the data or sample is adequate or suitable for factor analysis.

Table 7.4: Summary of results showing factor analysis of the study variables

Variables	CVE(%)	KMO	Bartlett's test (P-Value)
PHRMP	63.11	.89	.000
DHRMP	56.13	.91	.000
IHRMP	56.20	.90	.000
POJP	51.60	.84	.000
DOJP	56.39	.91	.000
IOJP	59.86	.91	.000
HAP	63.52	.95	.000
OCB	55.42	.94	.000

7.4.2 Measurement model analysis with SEM, AMOS

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a statistical procedure designed to determine if the assumption is that an association among observed variables and their core latent constructs exist. Other uses of the CFA include cleansing the indexes, evaluating the uni-dimensionality of the scale items, and determining the discriminant validity among these constructs. In the measurement model (see Figure 7.2), PHRM, DHRM and IHRM represented procedural, distributional and interactional human resource management, respectively; POJP, DOJP and IOJP represented procedural, distributional and interactional organisational justice perception, respectively; OCB represented organisational citizenship behaviour, in five dimensions such as altruism (ai), courtesy (ct), conscientiousness (cs), sportsmanship (sp), and civic virtue (ci) and HAP represented happiness at work.

The outcomes were scrutinised and re-examined repeatedly to fit the measurement model based on the recommended thresholds (Gaskin & Lim, 2016; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The final fitting model removed two, three and seven items from the PHRM, DHRM and IHRM constructs constituting diversity-oriented human resource management practices, respectively. Further, six, eight and four items were deleted from the POJP, DOJP and IOJP constructs constituting the overall organisational justice perception variable, respectively. Moreover, the OCB construct witnessed the

deletion of three items from the five dimensions thus (altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue). Finally, the happiness at work construct saw the deletion of nine items to enable a better fit into the measurement model. It is noted that these deleted items were deleted mainly due to their low loadings in the overall measurement model, as examined in the Amos version of structural equation modelling. Therefore, those with low loading (standardised regression weights) were deleted one after the other by examining the fit indices indicators.

According to Hair et al. (2010), the model fit and integrity or construct validity are the bases which can be used to delete some items that do not perform well in the model. These items were deleted by utilising either their residual values or factor loadings. The final and standardised CFA measurement loadings are shown in Figure 7.1. In this Figure, the minimum item for each main construct was three and nine being the maximum. This aligns with Kenny's (2012) conclusion that two is the minimum, three is safer, particularly if factor correlations are weak, four gives safety, and five or more is good for CFA.

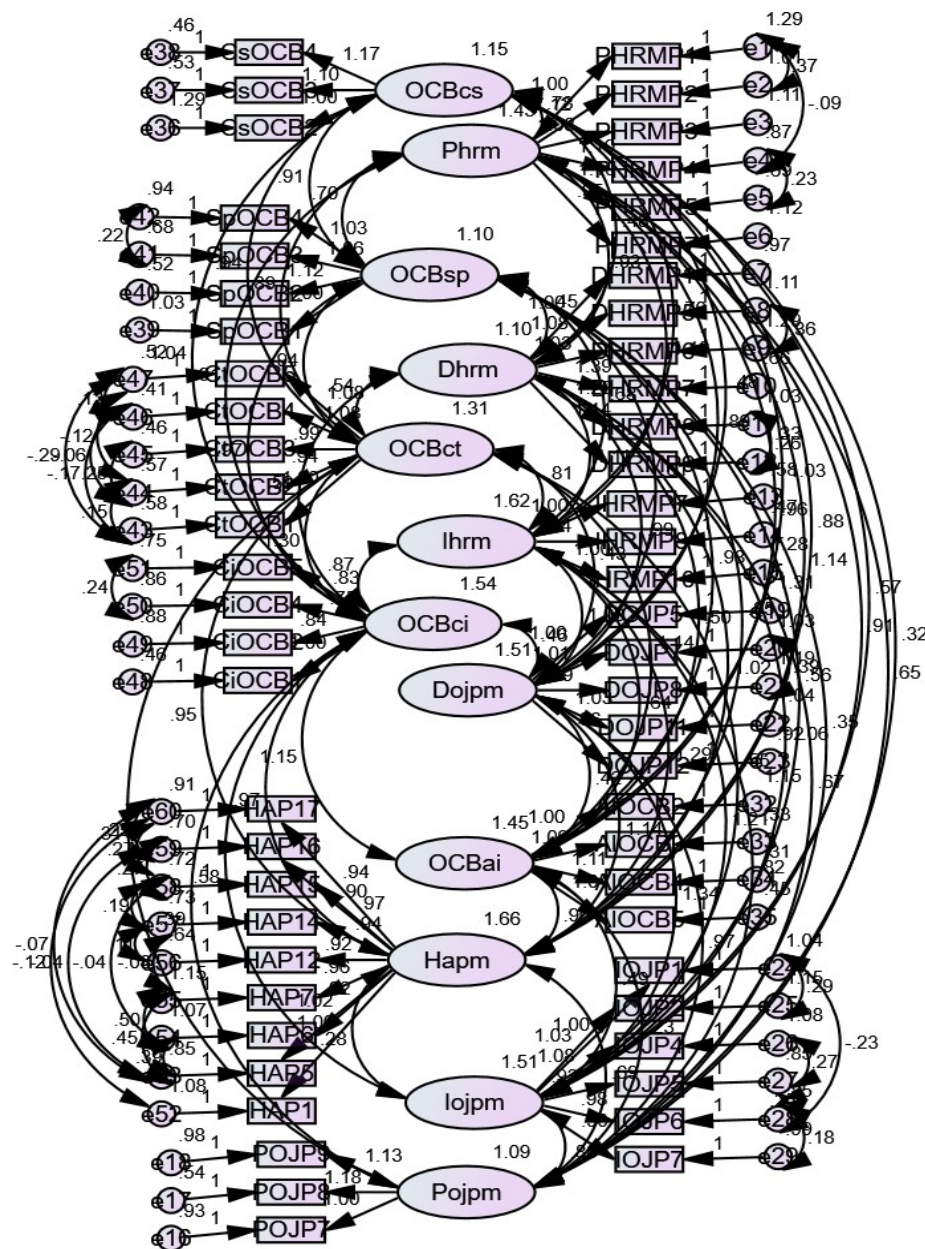


Figure 7.1: Measurement model

7.4.3 Validation of measurement models

The measurement model in Figure 7.1 was validated using a variety of fit indices. Table 7.5 depicts the descriptions of the fit indices, their cut-off-criterion and the further findings of the study model. It is revealed that the measurement model has a suitable fit and adequate quality on all of the widely used fit indices (Kline, 2011; Hair

et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Etezadi-Amoli & Farhoomand, 1996; Hoyle, 1995). For instance, the study model has a Chi-square to the degree of freedom (CMIN/Df) of 2.348, which is a good value within the recommended range of 3, as advised by Hu and Bentler (1999). This proves that the research model has shown a sufficient data representation.

In addition, the Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA) of the study model was 0.059, which satisfied the recommended cut-off point (< 0.06), suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999) and Hair et al. (2010). The incremental fit measures, such as the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) with a value of 0.900, show that the model adequately fits, suggesting that the study's model adequately represents the data and that the model quality is acceptable.

Table 7.5: Fit indices for the measurement model

Measurement	Research Model	Recommended Threshold level	Interpretation
CMIN	3512.852	--	--
DF	1496	--	--
CMIN/DF	2.348	Btn 1 & 3	Excellent
C.F.I	.900	$>.95$	Acceptable
G.F.I	.765	$>.95$	Acceptable
RMSEA	.059	$<.06$	Excellent
SRMR	.057	$<.08$	Excellent
TLI	.889	$>.95$	Acceptable
IFI	.900	$>.95$	Acceptable

7.4.4 Validation and reliability of model measurement

This section describes the results of the measurement of validity and reliability. The validation and reliability ensure that the measurements and constructs used in the model are accurate, consistent and reliable. As a result, they enhance the credibility and robustness of the research findings.

7.4.4.1 Results of reliability analysis

To measure the internal consistency reliability of the scale items, Cronbach Alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) were computed and displayed in Table 7.6. The Cronbach alpha values ranged from 0.847 to 0.966, indicating good reliability (Nunnally, 1970) of the data. Likewise, the constructs had composite reliability values ranging from 0.831 to 0.940. The results depict that all the constructs have also demonstrated sufficient composite reliability according to the acceptable threshold by Nunnally (1970). Furthermore, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was also tested as a measure of discriminant validity. AVE measures the variance captured by a construct in comparison to the level of variation attributable to measurement error. A threshold greater than 0.70 (> 0.70) is considered very good. However, an AVE level of 0.50 and above is acceptable (Hair et al., 2010). The AVE values of this study ranged from 0.577 to 0.755 (see Table 7.6), showing some acceptable levels as indicated by Hair et al. (2010).

Table 7.6: Validity and reliability analysis of the study variables

Variables	Initial items	Final items	A	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
PHRM	8	6	.916	.905	.614	.599	.910
DHRM	9	6	.900	.891	.577	.689	.903
IHRM	10	3	.911	.872	.695	.689	.886
POJP	9	3	.879	.831	.622	.566	.844
DOJP	13	5	.935	.874	.580	.789	.874
IOJP	10	6	.924	.899	.597	.789	.900
OCBai	5	4	.910	.925	.755	.677	.940
OCBcs	4	3	.847	.850	.656	.660	.874
OCBsp	4	4	.867	.861	.609	.660	.871
OCBct	5	5	.927	.930	.727	.842	.932
OCBci	5	4	.873	.857	.601	.842	.875
HAP	18	9	.966	.940	.637	.657	.942

NOTE: α = Cronbach's Alpha, CR= Composite Reliability, AVE= Average Variance

7.4.4.2 Results of model validity analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed to establish the variables involved in the data to determine the instrument's construct validity. In determining the elements to be extracted from the model, the cumulative variance explained in percentage and the factor loadings of individual constructs were considered. In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett test of sphericity were tested to determine the suitability of factor analysis. Every item was also significant at a 1% (0.01) level. The results showed that the scale has a good convergent validity (See values in Table 7.4).

Apart from convergent validity, the study also showed good discriminant or divergent validity. According to Kenny (2012), discriminant validity differentiates one construct from another in its mode. It ensures that the same reason cannot account for the variance among different variables. There is, therefore, poor discriminant validity if correlation values of 0.85 or more exist between the independent variables. Table 7.7 shows the independent variables' correlation coefficients and suggests no discriminant validity issues, as all values are within the threshold of Kenny's (2012) recommendation.

Table 7.7: Correlation coefficients of the independent variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
PHRMP	.784											
DHRMP	.739	.760										
IHRMP	.774	.830	.833									
POJP	.519	.608	.613	.789								
DOJP	.601	.768	.689	.752	.762							
IOJP	.619	.824	.770	.682	.888	.773						
OCBai	.665	.396	.417	.186	.281	.329	.869					
OCBcs	.609	.431	.511	.289	.366	.433	.800	.810				
OCBsp	.562	.413	.507	.318	.399	.436	.735	.812	.781			
OCBct	.649	.449	.554	.257	.304	.388	.823	.763	.781	.853		
OCBci	.615	.450	.552	.304	.303	.382	.769	.781	.746	.918	.775	
HAP	.736	.755	.787	.514	.716	.811	.580	.637	.629	.645	.610	.798

Moreover, the square root of the AVE and the squared correlation between the construct items are compared to determine the AVE values' discriminant validity. When the AVE's square root exceeds the squared construct correlations, discriminant validity is present (Hair et al., 2010; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As shown in Table 7.7, some of the study's constructs have shown strong discriminant validity except for some variables with one squared construct greater than the square root of its AVE. This indicates somewhat of a concern, but all other forms of discriminant validity tests have proven that those variables are discriminantly valid.

7.4.5 Factor loadings of retained constructs' items

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is a data analysis method for confirming the assumption that an association exists between observed variables and their core latent constructs. Other uses of the CFA are to cleanse the indexes, evaluate the unidimensionality of the scale items, and determine the discriminant validity among the constructs. When using the measurement model, the findings were scrutinised and re-examined repeatedly in order to fit the measurement model. According to Hair et al. (2010), the model fit and integrity or construct validity are the bases which can be used to delete some items that do not perform well in the model. These items are deleted using either their residual values or factor loadings. The standardised CFA measurement loadings are depicted in Table 7.8. It is revealed in Table 7.8 that each main construct required a minimum of three items and a maximum of nine.

Furthermore, Table 7.8 demonstrate the retained items, their associated factor loadings, and their significance indicated with asterisks. It is noted that those without asterisks were fixed items in the measurement model. The T-values were also indicated except for the fixed items with no T-values.

Table 7.8: Factor loadings for retained items

S/N	Item	Loading (Sig.)	T-Value
	Diversity-oriented HRM		
Phrm1	My university's HRM policies and procedures are designed to promote employee diversity	.726	--
Phrm2	My university's training and development policies and procedures allow for individual training and development plans	.800***	18.760
Phrm3	My university advertises job openings through different media	.776***	14.897
Phrm4	In my university, employees in the HR department come from diverse backgrounds	.817***	15.075
Phrm5	In my university, the selection interview panels come from diverse backgrounds	.846***	16.171
Phrm7	My university trains employees to acquire skills in working in a diversified workforce environment	.730***	14.015
Dhrm1	There is advancement in opportunity for the minorities	.729	--
Dhrm5	In my university, the ability to deal with diversity is a performance criterion	.731***	14.202
Dhrm6	My university allows for fringe benefits regardless of status	.690***	13.370
Dhrm7	In my university, training & development opportunities are open for all groups of employees	.874***	17.097
Dhrm8	The university provides career management programs for all employees regardless of age, gender, or religion.	.799***	15.561
Dhrm9	My university has mentoring programs that provide support for employees from minority backgrounds	.721***	13.949
lhrm7	My university promotes teamwork	.859	--
lhrm8	My university encourages team members to share information	.888***	22.843
lhrm10	My university emphasizes consensus in decision making	.747***	17.393
	Organisational Justice Perception		
POJP7	My organisation provides opportunities to appeal, or challenge management decisions	.736	--
POJP8	In my university, everyone can freely express their views and feelings about policies and procedures	.859***	15.557
POJP9	In my university, everyone can freely express their views and feelings about recruitment and selection policies and procedures	.766***	14.263
DOJP5	The pay and rewards I receive reflect the efforts I put into my work	.732	--
DOJP7	More productive workers in my university receive higher rewards	.774***	14.962
DOJP8	The workload is equitably distributed to all employees	.746***	14.399
DOJP11	In my university, the workload is equitably distributed to all employees	.779***	15.103
DOJP12	In my view, there is objectivity and fairness in performance appraisal	.777***	15.073
IOJP1	All job applicants are treated politely, with dignity and respect	.770	--
IOJP2	In my university, job applicants are always provided with timely feedback about interview decisions and their implications	.763***	18.532
IOJP4	In my university, recruitment and selection procedures are thoroughly explained to all job applicants	.787***	16.346
IOJP5	Employees are always provided with timely feedback about training & development opportunity decision and their implications	.778***	16.053
IOJP6	Training & development procedures are thoroughly explained to all employees	.795***	14.861
IOJP7	All employees are treated politely, with dignity and respect regarding training & development opportunities	.744***	15.266
	Organisational Citizenship behaviour		
OCBai2	I often help students even when it is not required	.746	--
OCBai3	I am always willing to help others who have work-related problems	.916***	19.277
OCBai4	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to co-workers	.922***	19.430
OCBai5	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to students	.880***	18.405

OCBcs2	I never take extra breaks at work	.686	--
OCBcs3	I always obey the university's rules and regulations even when no one is watching	.852***	15.103
OCBcs4	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay	.878***	15.461
OCBsp1	I refrain from complaining about trivial university matters because it consumes time	.719	--
OCBsp2	I always focus on the positive side of things in the university instead of what is wrong	.852***	15.819
OCBsp3	I never make big issues out of little/ trivial university matters	.803***	14.929
OCBsp4	I never try to find fault with what the university is doing	.742***	13.775
OCBct1	I always take steps to prevent problems with others at the university	.833	--
OCBct2	I am always mindful of how my behaviour affects others in the university	.819***	21.952
OCBct3	I am always mindful of how my work performance affects others in the university	.857***	20.552
OCBct4	I do not abuse the rights of others in the university	.889***	19.189
OCBct5	I always try to avoid creating problems for others in the university	.865***	17.157
OCBci1	I always consider the impact of my actions on the university	.877	--
OCBci2	I always attend university meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important	.743***	17.654
OCBci4	I always attend university functions that are not required but help the university's image	.706***	16.273
OCBci5	I always keep abreast of changes in the university	.763***	18.368
	Happiness at work		
HAP1	I feel pleased with the work I do	.779	--
HAP5	I am very optimistic about the future of work at my university	.819***	17.701
HAP6	Life is good at my university	.755***	15.990
HAP7	My university is a good workplace	.757***	16.033
HAP12	I often experience joy and elation with my work at the university	.828***	17.988
HAP14	I have a sense of meaning and purpose in my work at the university	.817***	17.666
HAP15	I feel I have a great deal of energy towards my work at the university	.828***	17.949
HAP16	I usually have a good influence on work events at the university	.809***	17.420
HAP17	I often have fun with other people at the university	.785***	15.831

7.5 CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF COMPOSITE VARIABLES

A correlation test was performed using the linearity test to determine whether the variables in the study have any connections among them. Linearity occurs when there is a significant correlation between two variables. In order to test basic linear regression, there must be a tangible link between the independent factors and the dependent variables (Field, 2009). Table 7.9 shows the correlation matrix indicating the linear relationship among the variables. The results showed that diversity-oriented HRM has a significant positive relationship with overall OCB ($r = 0.585$, $P < 0.01$), overall OJP ($r = 0.757$, $P < 0.01$) and happiness at work ($r = 0.777$, $P < 0.01$). It also has a significant positive relationship between OJP and OCB ($r = 0.702$, $P < 0.01$) as well as happiness at work ($r = 0.394$, $P < 0.01$). Moreover, happiness at work is significantly related to OCB ($r = 0.629$, $P < 0.01$). Therefore, the correlation analysis

revealed that the independent variables, thus, diversity-oriented HRM, organisational justice perception and happiness at work, have a positive relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour in the context of staff of tertiary educational institutions.

Table 7.9: Correlation analysis

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Sex	1											
Age	.069	1										
Educ.	.090	-.417**	1									
Exper.	.071	.610**	-.366**	1								
Religion	.019	.121*	-.076	.096	1							
Empl_st.	-.110*	-.413**	.319**	-.367**	.053	1						
Nat_work	.134**	.002	.249**	-.071	-.029	.079	1					
Position	.089	-.340**	.531**	-.384**	-.115*	.219**	.415**	1				
DOHRMP	-.038	-.198**	.067	-.140**	-.345**	.084	-.050	.069	1			
OJPT	.001	-.191**	.073	-.161**	-.204**	.124*	-.121*	.024	.757**	1		
HAP	.002	-.124*	.064	-.126*	-.295**	.101*	-.029	.036	.777**	.702**	1	
OCBT	-.005	-.032	-.046	.010	-.308**	.029	.058	.023	.585**	.394**	.629**	1

It should be noted that the demographic variables utilised in the research were evaluated for linkages to determine if they had any significant relationship with the dependent variables. That was a prerequisite for utilising demographic variables as controls. The results show that the dependent variables, such as OCB, had a significant positive relationship with the control variables, such as age, experience, religion, employment status and nature of work but an insignificant relationship with gender, academic qualification and position of respondents.

Consequently, it could be concluded that the independent and dependent variables are linear. This satisfies Field's recommended stated prerequisite for regression analysis (Field, 2009). These variables (OJP, HAP, OCB) also had a significant positive relationship with some demographic variables (age, work experience, employment status and nature of work). This means these demographic variables could be added further to examine the regression estimates between independent and dependent variables. At this analysis stage, these correlation analyses act as crucial

prerequisites for performing regression analysis. The findings also demonstrate that the independent variables significantly impact the dependent variables with the control variables, such as age, work experience, employment status and nature of work. Therefore, this study needed to include these variables for further analysis (regression).

7.6 STRUCTURAL MODEL ANALYSIS AND VALIDATION

Several fit indices were used to validate the overall fitness of the structural model (see Table 7.10). These fit indices, including their conventional criteria and the results of both the direct models, were depicted in Table 7.10. In addition, the CMIN/df or (χ^2/df), RMSEA and the Incremental fit measures of the model were shown.

Table 7.10: Goodness-of-fit indices for structural model

Measurement	Structural Model	Recommended Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN	13.076	---	
DF	6	---	
CMIN/DF	2.179	Btn 1 & 3	Excellent
CFI	.993	>.95	Excellent
GFI	.989	>.95	Excellent
RMSEA	.055	<.06	Excellent
PClose	.514	>.05	Excellent
SRMR	.055	<.08	Excellent
TLI	.982	>.95	Excellent
IFI	.993	>.95	Excellent

Based on Hu and Bentler (1999), and Gaskin and Lim (2016)

From Table 7.10, all the fit indices have demonstrated adequate fit using each fit indices and their related benchmarks recommended thresholds (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Etezadi-Amoli & Farhoomand, 1996). As an illustration, CMIN/df (χ^2/df) of the research's structural model, 2.179, which fell below the cut-off point Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended for a good fit, was excellent. Also, the study model has an RMSEA of 0.055 for the direct and indirect baseline, which are within the

permissible range. In addition, the CFI and GFI of the structural model of 0.993 and 0.989, respectively, are excellent, as Hu and Bentler (1999) and Hair et al. (2010) suggested. Likewise, the Pclose of 0.514 for the baseline model is excellent and consistent with Hair et al. (2010) and Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand's (1996) recommendation of Pclose > 0.50 as excellent.

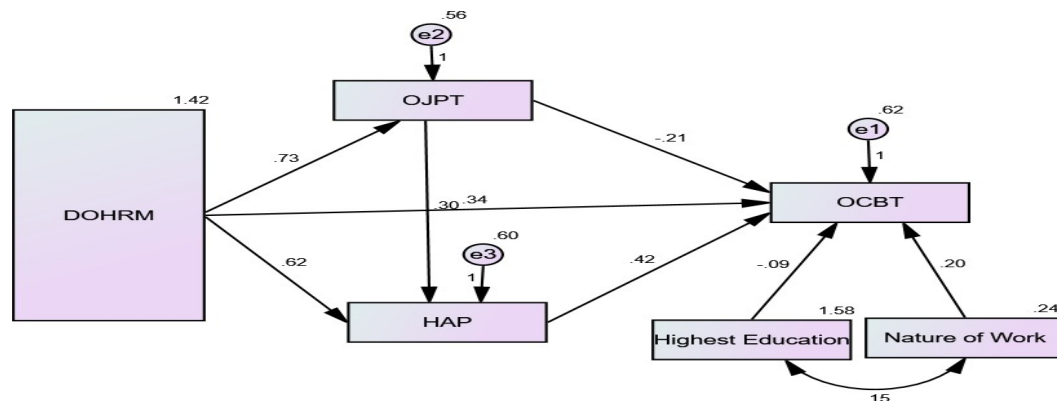


Figure 7.2: Structural model showing relationships

The structural model was presented based on the conceptual model (seen in Chapter Five), where diversity-oriented HRM practices (DOHRMP) predict overall OCB, OJP and HAP. In contrast, OJP predicts OCB and HAP, and HAP predicts OCB. In addition, it is noted that two demographic variables were used as control variables (level of education and nature of work).

7.7 PATH RELATIONSHIPS ASSESSMENT BASED ON OBJECTIVES

Table 7.11 and Figure 7.2 show the direct path relationships between the variables as indicated based on the objectives as well as the hypotheses of the study.

Table 7.11: Direct and indirect path relationships

Hypo	Path Relationship	Structural Model	
		Estimate	P-Value
H1	Diversity-oriented HRM ---→ OCB	.375***	.000

H2	Diversity-oriented HRM ---→ OJP	.757***	.000
H3	Diversity-oriented HRM ---→ HAP	.575***	.000
H4	Organisational Justice Perception -----→ OCB	-.227***	.000
H5	Organisational Justice Perception -----→ HAP	.267***	.000
H6	Happiness at work-----→ OCB	.503***	.000
	Higher Education	-.109	
	Nature of Work	.091	

7.7.1 DOHRMP and OCB

The study's first objective examined the influence of diversity-oriented HRM practices (DOHRMP) on organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB). This aim was examined by formulating the first hypothesis, which stated that: there is a significant positive relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB.

This hypothesis was tested using the structural model of SEM analysis via Amos version (version 21), with OCB being the predicted variable and DOHRMP being the predictor variable. It is noted that DOHRMP is a composite variable with dimensions such as procedural, distributional and interactional HRM practices. The highest level of education and the nature of respondents' work were used as control variables since they were found to correlate significantly with the main variables during the correlation analysis conducted earlier. Besides, these demographic variables helped the structural model to obtain excellent goodness-of-fit indices. The results of this analysis demonstrated that the highest educational level and the nature of respondents' work did not significantly influence OCB are presented in Table 7.11 and Figure 7.2.

Further, the analysis revealed that OCB was significantly influenced by diversity-oriented HRM practices ($\beta=.375$, $P_{(.000)}<.001$). Moreover, the standardised beta value of .375 indicates that diversity-oriented HRM's influence on OCB was positive and significant. Additionally, the regression weight (beta value) of .38 indicates that 38% variation among OCB in the organisation is positively influenced by a unit increase in diversity-oriented HRM practices among tertiary institutions in Ghana.

This finding supports the ideals of previous literature as well as other scholars (Memon et al., 2017; Moshabaki, Madani & Ghorbani, 2013; Kizilos, Cummings & Cummings, 2013; Noor et al., 2013) who sought to explain the mechanisms linking human resource diversity management practices and organisational citizenship behaviours of employees. Similarly, diversity-oriented HRM practices play vital roles in attracting, motivating, and retaining a diverse workforce because its processes and practices are fair and equitable, which serves as a motivation to employees to exhibit positive attitudes and behaviours at the workplace (Memon et al., 2017; Noor et al., 2013). The finding further supports previous empirical studies asserting that the implementation of diversity-oriented HRM practices by firms has influenced employees to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours within organisations (Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013; Kizilos, Cummings & Cummings, 2013). In addition, the study shares the view of Memon et al. (2017) that effective diversity-oriented HRM practices are fundamental to employees exhibiting citizenship behaviours within organisations because they make employees feel valued, accepted, and taken care of, which invariably puts an obligation on the employees to exhibit extra-role behaviours.

Further, the finding implies that organisations that develop the skills and techniques of their employees through training and development generate feelings of being valued, which makes employees reciprocate with positive attitudes such as extra-role behaviours at the workplace. This confirms some researchers and scholars (Memon et al., 2017; Moshabaki, Madani & Ghorbani, 2013; Kizilos, Cummings & Cummings, 2013; Noor, Khalid & Rashid, 2013) who sought to explain the mechanisms linking human resource diversity management practices and organisational citizenship behaviours of employees. Moreover, it is imperative to note that, characteristically, diversity-oriented HRM practices are non-discriminatory practices and processes that provide an equal and fair playing field for all employees, including minorities (Noor et al., 2013). This is consistent with the view that effective human resource diversity management in compensation and recruitment and selection practices will likely trigger employees to engage in citizenship behaviours (Moshabaki et al., 2013).

The study further investigated which dimension of DOHRMP performed better. The

findings revealed that procedural diversity-oriented HRM has more regression weight ($\beta=.44$) than interactional ($\beta =.09$) and distributional ($\beta =.00$). This means that procedural diversity-oriented HRM practices are relevant in enhancing OCB more than the other two. Furthermore, Interactional diversity-oriented HRM though not significant, also performs better than distributional diversity-oriented HRM practices, which exert almost zero effect on OCB.

These findings confirm the assertion that the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and organisational citizenship behaviour in the context of the educational sector in Ghana is essential because this relationship benefits the management of tertiary institutions. Moreover, the findings meant that educational institutions should be more mindful of and institute more procedural diversity-oriented HRM practices to stimulate more citizenship behaviours from employees.

Furthermore, the dimensions of diversity-oriented HRM (procedural, interactional & distributional) serve as foundational grounds for developing and sustaining organisational citizenship behaviours among academic and non-academic staff (Diep et al., 2016). In an environment of procedural, interactional and distributional diversity-oriented HRM practices, staff derive satisfaction with the institution's strategic management style. In addition, this environment creates positive voluntary behaviours beyond what is required from official engagement behaviours and positive behaviours based on personal choices (Kurtulmuş, 2016).

7.7.2 DOHRMP and OJP

The study's second objective sought to examine the influence of diversity-oriented HRM practices (DOHRMP) on organisational justice perception (OJP). This objective was measured by developing another hypothesis: 'There is a significant positive relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OJP.'

This hypothesis was tested using the structural model of SEM analysis via Amos version (version 21), with OJP being the predicted variable and DOHRMP being the predictor variable. It is noted that DOHRMP is a composite variable with dimensions

such as Procedural, Distributional and Interactional HRM practices. The highest level of education and the nature of respondents' work were used as control variables since they correlate significantly with the main variables during the correlation analysis conducted earlier (Table 7.9). Besides, these demographic variables helped the structural model obtain excellent goodness-of-fit indices. The results of this analysis which demonstrate that the highest educational level of respondents and the nature of respondents' work did not significantly influence OJP, are presented in Table 7.11 and Figure 7.2.

Further, the analysis revealed that OJP was significantly influenced by diversity-oriented HRM practices ($\beta=.757$, $P_{(.000)}<.001$). Moreover, the standardised beta value of .757 indicates that diversity-oriented HRM's influence on OJP was positive and significant. In addition, the regression weight (beta value) of .76 indicates that 76% variation among OJP in the organisation is positively influenced by a unit increase in diversity-oriented HRM practices among tertiary institutions in Ghana.

The finding that OJP is by diversity-oriented HRM practices significantly influence confirms that diversity-oriented HRM practices are an important aspect of organisational justice (Fujimoto et al., 2013). In this regard, most organisations, especially educational institutions, seek to implement varied diversity management practices such as ensuring increased representation of minorities, all-inclusiveness and transparency. One of the major goals of human resource diversity management practices is to eradicate biases and prejudices in all aspects of business processes. This study confirms that contemporary educational institutions are paying more attention to diversity management and how it can be used to enhance the organisational justice climate. One of the key issues is how diversity management can be leveraged to promote socially responsible actions and equitable employment outcomes for minority groups which are fundamental to organisational justice principles. To underscore this opinion, Fujimoto et al. (2013) noted that integrating diversity management principles enhances organisational justice.

In addition, the finding of this study suggests that educational institutions need to address and eschew all issues of unfairness among diverse employees by instituting

fair and just procedures and processes and ensuring that it is equally and equitably applied within the institution. Thus, in line with Aydin and Karaman- Kepenekci's (2008) views, the analysis encourages educational institutions to create just procedures to benefit all diverse employees. This will serve as benchmarking of fairness that will reduce unfair treatment in organisations with a diverse workforce.

The analysis further demonstrated that distributional DOHRMP predicts ($\beta = .39$) OJP better than interactional DOHRMP with a regression weight of $\beta = .28$. The least performing dimension of DOHRMP was procedural HRM practices which had a regression weight of $\beta = .06$. This means that in terms of the impact of DOHRMP, distributional HRM practices seem more relevant compared with interactional HRM practices and procedural HRM practices. Therefore, this study suggests that tertiary educational institutions should adopt and implement more distributional DOHRMP to enhance employees' organisational justice perceptions.

7.7.3 DOHRMP and HAP

The third objective of the study sought to examine the influence of diversity-oriented HRM practices (DOHRMP) on happiness at work (HAP). This objective was measured by developing the third hypothesis: 'There is a significant positive relationship between DOHRMP and HAP'.

This hypothesis was tested using the structural model of SEM analysis via Amos version (version 21), with happiness at work being the predictor variable and DOHRMP being the predictor variable. It is noted that DOHRMP is a composite variable with dimensions such as Procedural, Distributional and Interactional HRM practices. In addition, the highest level of education and the nature of respondents' work were used as control variables since they correlated significantly with the main variables during the correlation analysis conducted earlier. Besides, these demographic variables helped the structural model to obtain excellent goodness-of-fit indices.

Table 7.11 and Figure 7.2 present the results of this analysis which demonstrate that

the highest educational level of respondents, as well as the nature of work of respondents, did not significantly influence happiness at work. Further, the analysis revealed that DOHRMP has a substantial beneficial impact on HAP ($\beta = .575$, $P_{(.000)} < .001$). Moreover, the standardised beta value of 0.575 indicates that diversity-oriented HRM's effect on happiness at work was positive and significant. Furthermore, the regression weight (β) of 0.58 indicates that 58% variation among employee HAP in the organisation is positively influenced by a unit increase in DOHRMP among tertiary institutions in Ghana.

This finding supports previous literature of the same view (Arslan & Polat, 2021; Georgiadou et al., 2019) that diversity-oriented HRM practices significantly positively affect employee happiness at work. The present finding demonstrated a positive relationship between diversity-oriented human resource management practices and employee happiness established in the management literature with positive association (Arslan & Polat, 2021; Mousa et al., 2021; Mousa et al., 2020b; Georgiadou et al., 2019). For instance, the finding supports the assertion that there is a positive association between organisational inclusion, a dimension of diversity-oriented HR management practices and workplace fun as well as meaningful work, which are also indicators of employee happiness at work (Mousa et al., 2021). The study concurs with the assertion that school administrators are poised to effectively apply diversity management practices by consolidating the diverse perspectives that ensure a positive impact on employee happiness and reduce the impact of practices that negatively impact employee happiness (Mousa, 2020).

Also, the finding relates with Ashikali and Groeneveld's (2015) notion that organisations in Western countries have a long history of implementing affirmative actions, equal employment opportunities and other diversity-related mechanisms that enhance fairness regarding minority groups at different organisational levels. These efforts come as a result of attempts by organisations to build human resource diversity management practices, which often include attracting, hiring, selecting, placing, developing and retaining a diverse range of highly qualified workforce regardless of their differences in terms of age, gender, nationality, race, experience, cultural backgrounds in order to boost organisational diversity and performance.

7.7.4 OJP and OCB

The fourth objective of the study sought to examine the influence of organisational justice perception (OJP) on OCB. This objective was measured by developing the fourth hypothesis, which stated that: 'there is a significant positive relationship between OJP and OCB'.

This hypothesis was tested using the structural model of SEM analysis via Amos version (version 21), with OCB being the predicted variable and OJP being the predictor variable. It is noted that OJP is a composite variable with dimensions such as procedural, distributional and interactional justice perception practices. In addition, the highest level of education and the nature of respondents' work were used as control variables since they correlate significantly with the main variables during the correlation analysis conducted earlier (Table 7.9). Besides, these demographic variables helped the structural model to obtain excellent goodness-of-fit indices.

Table 7.11 and Figure 7.2 present the results of this analysis which demonstrate that the highest educational level of respondents and the nature of the respondents' work did not significantly influence OCB. Further, the analysis revealed that OCB was significantly influenced by OJP ($\beta = -.227$, $P_{(.000)} < .001$). Moreover, the standardised beta value of $-.227$ shows that the impact of OJP on OCB was negative and significant. This means that OJP has a significant negative influence on OCB. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. Additionally, the regression weight (β) of -0.23 indicates that a unit increase negatively influences 23% variation among OCB in the organisation in OJP practices such as procedural, distributional and interactional practices among tertiary institutions in Ghana.

This study's finding complements previous assertions that if employees perceive the organisation as less fair, they are less likely to engage in OCB (Spitzmuller, Ilies & Choi, 2018). Therefore, this study confirms that some scholars claim organisational justice negatively influences organisational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, these findings are consistent with previous research suggesting that individuals who

perceive their organisation as less fair may be less motivated to engage in behaviours beyond their formal job requirements (Colquitt et al., 2001). Furthermore, the negative relationship between OJP and OCB may be explained by social exchange theory, which suggests that individuals engage in OCB as a form of reciprocity for fair treatment by the organisation (Blau, 1964).

This means that educational institutions have to initiate measures necessary to promote: impartiality in making decisions concerning the allocation of benefits and other organisational rewards and favours (distributive justice); the objectivity of the methods, mechanisms, processes, and procedures used to determine the decisions or outcomes (procedural justice); and neutrality in the quality of the interpersonal treatment employees perceive within the work environment (interactional justice). By this, educational institutions stand to gain from employees through organisational citizenship behaviours or desirable discretionary work-related behaviours that may translate into: taking unusual steps to help colleagues with their work (altruism), going well beyond the usual call of duty in the areas of daily attendance at work, adhering to policies, rules and regulations, and norms (conscientiousness), responsively participating and involving in, or concern about the welfare or success of the institution (Civic virtue), the willingness of the employee to tolerate less than ideal situations without complaining (Sportsmanship), and avoiding the occurrence of unnecessary work-related frictions with colleagues (Nwibere, 2014).

The study further investigated the influence of each dimension of the OJP on OCB and found that interactional OJP strongly predicts OCB ($\beta = .30$) better than distributional OJP ($\beta = .05$) and further procedural OJP ($\beta = .02$). This means that interactional OJP significantly and strongly predicts the performance of OCB and therefore appears to be the most relevant variable than distributional and procedural OJP. The finding agrees that employees tend to engage in pro-social behaviours in an environment of fairness and positive perceptions of procedural, distributive and interactional justice (Vuuren et al., 2016). Wee, Ahmad and Fen (2014) reiterated that procedural justice reports a stronger relationship with all dimensions of OCB (courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue, altruism & conscientiousness) than distributive justice. This relationship was buttressed by Suarez-Mendoza and Zoghbi-Manrique-

de-Lara (2007) with the findings that distributive, procedural and interactional justice positively impact employees' extra-role behaviours.

7.7.5 OJP and HAP

The research's fifth aim sought to examine the influence of OJP on employee HAP. This objective was measured by developing the fifth hypothesis, which stated that: 'there is a significant positive relationship between OJP and HAP'.

This hypothesis was tested using the structural model of SEM analysis via Amos version (version 21), with happiness at work being the predictor variable and OJP being the predictor variable. It is noted that the variable OJP is a composite variable with dimensions such as Procedural, Distributional and Interactional justice perceptions. The highest level of education and the nature of respondents' work were used as control variables since they were found to correlate significantly with the main variables during the correlation analysis conducted earlier. Besides, these demographic variables helped the structural model obtain excellent goodness-of-fit indices. Though the demographic variables helped in the structural model best fit, Table 7.11 and Figure 7.2 present the results of this analysis which demonstrate that the highest educational level of respondents and the nature of work of respondents did not have any significant influence on HAP.

Further, the analysis revealed that HAP was significantly influenced by OJP ($\beta = 0.267$, $P_{(.000)} < .001$). Therefore, this hypothesis was accepted as the data supported the initial prediction. Moreover, the determined beta value of 0.267 shows that the effect of OJP on happiness at work was positive and significant. Moreover, the regression weight (β) of 0.27 indicates that a 27% variation in employee happiness in the organisation is positively influenced by a unit increase in OJP practices (procedural, distributional & interactional) among the staff of tertiary institutions in Ghana.

This finding supports previous assertions that organisational justice perception influences employee well-being in academia (Ahmed, Kamil & Ishak, 2018; Weimann

et al., 2015; Dodge et al., 2012). Thus, the study effectively suggested that educational institutions should endeavour to improve understanding, create awareness and promote employee well-being which is an indicator of employee happiness (Ahmed et al., 2018). Employee well-being reflects the prevalence of positive emotions and moods of individuals on their job and feels that the work provides opportunities to develop their potential into self-actualisation (Dodge et al. (2012). Employees' feeling of justice in various aspects of the organisation, such as promotional decisions, assignments of tasks and allocation of rewards, have a significant bearing on employees' psychological well-being and social interaction which intend to reflect employee happiness. The study further identified that distributive, procedural and interactional justice positively correlated with employee happiness. Therefore, the management of tertiary educational institutions is to note and create an environment of justice that supports employees' happiness by protecting and enhancing their psychological well-being regarding thoughts, feelings, emotions, understanding, perceptions and interpersonal relations.

Further, this study's finding implies that to boost employee happiness, management of tertiary educational institutions should create a room of justice that supports employee happiness by enhancing and protecting their psychological well-being regarding thoughts, feelings, emotions, understanding, perception and interpersonal relations. Employee happiness is crucial in ensuring organisational performance through fairness in distributing organisational rewards or incentives, procedures followed at work and employee interactions (Behrani, 2017). Further, the finding confirms Ajala and Bolarinwa's (2015) notion that employees feeling of justice in various aspects of the organisation, such as promotional decisions, assignments of tasks and allocation, have a significant bearing on employees' psychological well-being and well-being social interaction, which intend reflects employee happiness.

On the contrary, the finding did not support previous studies that revealed a negative effect between organisational justice perception and employee happiness at work (Behrani, 2017). This may be due to context differences and other demographic differences among respondents. However, it was noted by Behrani (2017) that there is no significant difference in terms of gender and marital status of employees on the

relationship between organisational justice and employee happiness. This shows that despite employees' differences regarding demographic features such as gender and marital status, the interaction between organisational justice and employee happiness remains effective. Therefore, educational institutions should enhance work environments that promote equity, fairness and justice, eventually ensuring employee happiness.

7.7.6 Happiness at Work and OCB

The sixth objective of the study sought to examine the influence of happiness at work on OCB. This objective was measured by developing the sixth hypothesis, which stated that: 'there is a significant positive relationship between happiness at work and OCB'.

This hypothesis was tested using the structural model of SEM analysis via Amos version (version 21), with OCB being the predictor variable and happiness at work being the predictor variable. In addition, the highest level of education and the respondents' work nature were used as control variables. These demographic variables helped the structural model obtain excellent goodness-of-fit indices.

Table 7.11 and Figure 7.2 showed that the highest educational level of respondents and the nature of the respondents' work did not significantly influence OCB. Further, the analysis revealed that OCB was significantly influenced by happiness at work ($\beta = .503$, $P_{(.000)} < .001$). Moreover, the determined beta value of .503 shows that the impact of happiness at work on OCB was positive and significant. Furthermore, the regression weight (β) of .50 indicates that 50% variation among OCB in the organisation is positively influenced by a unit increase in happiness at work among the staff of tertiary institutions in Ghana.

The finding supports the idea that happiness is identified to have numerous benefits; thus, it is appropriate to feel and pursue happiness (Chancellor, Layous & Lyubomirsky, 2015). Employees are happy when they regularly experience positive emotions such as joy, satisfaction, contentment, enthusiasm and interest (Proto,

2016, Oswald, Proto & Sgroi, 2015). Employee happiness refers to the positive attitudes, feelings, moods, emotions, flow styles or positive affective experiences of employees within an organisation (Cui et al., 2016). When employees are happy at work, they express happy feelings towards the job and its characteristics, other employees, and the whole organisation; it lowers employee turnover and minimises customer complaints (de Waal, 2018).

Further, the analysis posits that organisational justice perception influences employee well-being in academia. The study effectively suggested that educational institutions should endeavour to improve understanding, create awareness and promote employee well-being which is an indicator of employee happiness (Ahmed et al., 2018). Employee well-being reflects the prevalence of positive emotions and moods of individuals on their job and feels that the work provides opportunities to develop their potential into self-actualisation (Dodge et al., 2012). Employees' feeling of justice in various aspects of the organisation, such as promotional decisions, assignments of tasks and allocation of rewards, have a significant bearing on employees' psychological well-being and social interaction which intend to reflect employee happiness. The study further identified that distributive, procedural and interactional justice positively correlated with employee happiness. Therefore, the management of tertiary educational institutions is to note and create an environment of justice that supports employees' happiness by protecting and enhancing their psychological well-being regarding thoughts, feelings, emotions, understanding, perceptions and interpersonal relations.

7.8 MEDIATION ANALYSIS USING ANDREW HAYES PROCESS MODEL

The seventh objective investigates the mediation function of employees' workplace happiness in the relationships between DOHRMP and OCB on the one hand and DOHRMP and OJP on the other. Also, the mediating role of happiness at work was applied to the relationship between OJP and OCB. Three hypotheses were set to measure this objective.

MH1: There is a significant mediating role of happiness at work in the relationship

between DOHRMP and OCB.

MH2: There is a significant mediating role of happiness at work in the relationship between DOHRMP and OJP.

MH3: There is a significant mediating role of happiness at work in the relationship between OJP and OCB.

Table 7.12: Mediated path relationships

	Mediated path Relationships	Estimates	Upper Bounds	Upper Bounds	Decision
MH1	DOHRMP -->HAP-->OCB	.220**	.329	.111	Partial Mediation
MH2	DOHRMP -->HAP-->OJP	.730**	.792	.667	Partial Mediation
MH3	OJP-->HAP-->OCB	.369**	.454	.283	Full Mediation

7.8.1 DOHRMP, HAP and OCB

MH1: There is a significant mediating role of happiness at work in the relationship between DOHRMP and OCB.

Table 7.13: Summary of mediation analysis of DOHRMP, EHAP and OCB

	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Decision
Estimates	.308	.528	.220	
SE	.054	.037	.055	
t-value		14.282	3.982	
P-value	.000	.000	.000	
DOHRMP -->HAP --> OCB				Partial Mediation

The research attempted to investigate the role of mediation of happiness at work on the relationship between DOHRMP and OCB. This objective was measured using Andrew Hayes' process model. From the analysis (see Table 7.13), it is revealed that there is a significant indirect effect of DOHRMP on OCB ($\beta = .308$, $t = .054$, $P < .001$). The total effect of DOHRMP on OCB was also significant ($\beta = .528$, $t = 14.282$, $P < .001$), with the inclusion of the mediator (happiness at work), the effect of DOHRMP on OCB was still significant ($\beta = .220$, $t = 3.982$, $P < .001$). In summary, DOHRMP

significantly predicts OCB and happiness at work as a mediating variable also significantly predicts OCB. Furthermore, the relationship is still significant and positive after the introduction of happiness at work in the relationship between DOHRMP and OCB. Therefore, the mediating role of happiness at work was partial mediation. This shows that happiness at work partially mediates the relationship between DOHRMP and OCB. Hence, the hypothesis was supported.

This finding exemplifies that employee happiness is a source of sustained competitive advantage for educational institutions and profoundly affects organisational citizenship behaviours (Cek & Eyupoglu, 2020; Salas-Vallina et al., 2018; Pryce-Jones & Lindsay, 2014). Thus, this study assisted in understanding the role of employee happiness on the relationship between human resource diversity management practices and organisational citizenship behaviours by suggesting that satisfied workers have a higher propensity to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours than dissatisfied employees.

In addition, the finding agrees that diversity-oriented HRM practices are now considered to have both tangible and intangible parts of the organisation's resources and have the potential to ensure continuous improvements in organisational and employee outcomes. For instance, this study has suggested that diversity management perspectives significantly predicted employee happiness at work. Further, employee happiness is measured as positive affect (joy, pleasure, contentment, cheerfulness, peaceful, calm, being in good spirit, satisfied, happy, full of life and pride) and fulfilment (development of personal attributes, exploration of one's potential, fulfilment and self-expression) has been argued to be impacted by fairness diversity management practices (Arslan & Polat, 2021).

7.8.2 Diversity-oriented HRM, happiness at work and OJP

MH2: There is a significant mediating role of happiness at work in the relationship between DOHRMP and OJP.

Table 7.14: Summary of mediation analysis of DOHRMP, EHAP and OJP

	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Decision
Estimates	.215	.729	.515	
SE	.036	.032	.049	
t-value		22.972	10.611	
P-value	.000	.000	.000	
DOHRMP --→HAP --→ OJP				Partial Mediation

The research investigated the mediation function of happiness at work on the relationship between DOHRMP and OJP. This objective was measured using Andrew Hayes' process model. From the analysis (see Table 7.14), it is revealed that there is a significant indirect effect of DOHRMP on OJP ($\beta=.215$, $t=.054$, $P<.001$). The total effect of DOHRMP on OJP was also significant ($\beta=.729$, $t=22.972$, $P<.001$), with the inclusion of the mediator (happiness at work), the effect of DOHRMP on OCB was still significant ($\beta=.515$, $t=10.611$, $P<.001$). In summary, DOHRMP significantly predicts OJP and happiness at work also significantly predicts OJP. The relationship is still significant and positive after introducing happiness at work in the relationship between DOHRMP and OJP. Therefore, the mediating role of happiness at work was partial mediation. This shows that happiness at work partially mediates the relationship between DOHRMP and OJP. Hence the hypothesis was supported.

This finding relates to the assertion that organisations in Western countries have a long history of implementing affirmative actions, equal employment opportunities and other diversity-related mechanisms that enhance fairness regarding minority groups at different organisational levels (Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015). These efforts come as a result of attempts by organisations to build human resource diversity management practices, which often include attracting, hiring, selecting, placing, developing and retaining a diverse range of highly qualified workforce regardless of their differences in terms of age, gender, nationality, race, experience, cultural backgrounds in order to boost organisational performance.

7.8.3 OJP, Happiness at Work and OCB

MH3: There is a significant mediating role of happiness at work in the relationship between OJP and OCB.

Table 7.15: Summary of mediation analysis of OJP, EHAP and OCB

	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Decision
Estimates	.457	.369	-.089	
SE	.051	.044	.052	
t-value		8.477	-1.716	
P-value	.000	.000	.087	
MH3: OJP -->HAP --> OCB				Full Mediation

Note: OJP: organisational justice perception, EHAP: employee happiness at work, OCB: organisational citizenship behaviour, SE: Standard Error.

The study aimed to determine the mediation function of happiness at work on the relationship between OJP and OCB. This objective was measured using Andrew Hayes' process model. From the analysis (see Table 7.15), it is revealed that there is a significant indirect effect of OJP on OCB ($\beta = .457$, $t = .054$, $P < .001$). The total effect of OJP on OCB was also significant ($\beta = .369$, $t = 8.477$, $P < .001$), with the inclusion of the mediator (happiness at work), the effect of OJP on OCB was not significant ($\beta = -.089$, $t = -1.716$, $P < .001$). In summary, OJP significantly predicts OCB and happiness at work also significantly predicts OCB. After introducing happiness at work in the relationship between OJP and OCB, the relationship is not significant or negative. Therefore, the mediating role of happiness at work was full mediation. This shows that happiness at work fully mediates the linkage between OJP and OCB. Hence the hypothesis was supported.

This finding relates to the assertion of previous studies that have continually established that organisational justice perception strongly impacts OCB (Khaola & Rambe, 2020; Kwak, 2016; Nwibere, 2014) and employee happiness (Ahmed et al., 2018; Behrani, 2017; Weimann et al., 2015; Ajala & Bolarinwa, 2015). The management literature tends to focus more on the organisational level of analysis. It does not explicitly explain the individual-level interactions among these variables at

work to ensure organisational success. Thus, this study's focus on the impact and role of individual-level analysis is profound. Therefore, employee happiness plays a significant role in creating and sustaining employees' extra-role behaviours in a fair organisational climate, which motivates employees to perform citizenship behaviours, thereby promoting a culture of organisational citizenship behaviours (Khaola & Rambe, 2020).

7.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This research examines the impact of diversity-oriented HRM, OJP, on OCB with the mediating role of employee happiness at work. Based on the study's objectives, structured analytical methods were used to analyse the data and the hypothesised relationships. The study revealed that diversity-oriented HRM practices significantly predict OCB, OJP, and employee happiness at work. Further, OJP significantly predicts OCB and employee happiness at work. Moreover, the research revealed a favourable positive linkage between employee happiness at work. The study further examined the mediation role of happiness at work on the connection between diversity-oriented HRM and OCB and OJP. The analysis showed a partial mediation role of employee happiness at work on the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM, OCB, and OJP. In addition, the mediating role of happiness at work on the relationship between OJP and OCB was also examined. The analysis revealed a full mediation of happiness at work on the relationship between OJP and OCB. The next Chapter covers the conclusions, insights gained and recommendations.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This study centred on the impacts of diversity-oriented human resource management practices, organisational justice perception and happiness at work on organisational citizenship behaviour of staff of tertiary educational institutions in Ghana. It also examined the mediation function of happiness at work on the linkages between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OJP on OCB on the one hand and OJP on the other. The first chapter comprised the main introduction to the research and covered the background of the study and the problem statement. Chapter Two reviewed the related empirical literature on diversity-oriented human resource management practices and conceptualised it for this research. Further, Chapter Three reviewed the empirical literature on organisational citizenship behaviour. In Chapter Four, the empirical literature on employee happiness was reviewed.

In contrast, Chapter Five considered the theoretical underpinnings of diversity-oriented HRM practices and examined the social exchange theory and organisational justice perception theories. In addition, the key hypotheses for accomplishing the study's goals were formulated in this Chapter. Chapter Six covered the methodology of the study. It reviewed the philosophical underpinnings and position of the research, the quantitative research approach, data collection instruments and analysis techniques and outlined the ethical issues that bothered this study. In Chapter Seven, the data was analysed, and the results obtained from the study were presented and discussed thoroughly. In this final chapter, the research is brought to a close by presenting the conclusions, insights gained into the subject matter and from undertaking this research, recommendations and limitations of the study. The recommendation is categorised into three aspects, namely recommendations for professional practice, policy and future research.

8.2 CONCLUSIONS

In this section, conclusions are made on the hypotheses tested based on the findings discussed in Chapter 7. First, table 8.1 summarises the conclusions, followed by a detailed narrative. Following this, a conclusion is drawn on the conceptual framework.

Table 8.1: Conclusions on the Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Sig @ (0.05)	Result (accept/reject)	Conclusion
H1: there is a significant positive relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB	Sig (5%)	Accept	A significant positive relationship exists between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB.
H2: there is a significant positive relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OJP	Sig (5%)	Accept	Diversity-oriented HRM practices significantly and positively influence OJP.
H3: there is a significant positive relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and employee happiness at work	Sig (5%)	Accept	Diversity-oriented HRM practices have a significant and positive relationship with employee happiness.
H4: there is a significant positive relationship between OJP and OCB	Sig (5%)	Reject	There is a significant negative relationship between OJP and OCB.
H5: there is a significant positive relationship between OJP and happiness at work	Sig (5%)	Accept	OJP has a significant positive relationship with happiness at work.
H6: there is a significant positive relationship between employee happiness at work and OCB	Sig (5%)	Accept	There is a significant positive relationship between employee happiness and OCB.
Hypothesis 7 tests the mediation role of EHAP			
MH1: There is a significant mediating role of happiness at work in the relationship between DOHRMP and OCB	Sig (5%)	Accept	Happiness at work partially mediates the relationship between DOHRMP and OCB.
MH2: There is a significant mediating role of happiness at work in the relationship between DOHRMP and OJP	Sig (5%)	Accept	Happiness at work partially mediates the relationship between DOHRMP and OCB.
MH3: There is a significant mediating role of happiness at work in the relationship between OJP and OCB	Sig (5%)	Accept	Happiness at work fully mediates the relationship between OJP and OCB

Diversity-oriented human resource management practices have recently become the centre stage of academic discussions and industry (Rosken, 2022). The benefits of diversity-oriented HRM practices on organisational-and individual-level outcomes cannot be underestimated. The diversity-oriented HRM literature alludes that

organisations, especially academic institutions, benefit more from diversity-oriented HRM practices (Kalargyrou & Costen, 2017; Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Sabharwal, 2014). The benefits are even more when higher educational institutions, which are the reservoir of knowledge and international best practices, instil these diversity-oriented practices in learners because they are the potential industry players upon completion of their courses at the higher educational institutions. Implementing and learning these values (diversity-oriented HRM practices) directly or indirectly set the pace for other organisational variables such as the perception of organisational justice, employee happiness at work and organisational citizenship behaviours. Furthermore, the management literature indicates that the impact of diversity-oriented HRM practices is greater when it is interplayed with other variables, such as happiness at work as a mediating variable (Dwertmann et al., 2016; Choi & Rainey, 2014; Fujimoto, Hartel & Azmat, 2013).

It is based on these assertions that this study sought to examine the direct effect of diversity-oriented HRM practices on OCB and OJP on the one hand and the indirect (mediating role) effect of happiness at work on the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM and OCB as well as OJP. The study further examines the mediating role of happiness at work on the relationship between OJP and OCB. It used structured analytical methods to analyse the data and test the hypothesised relationships based on the study's objectives. The study revealed that diversity-oriented HRM practices significantly predict OCB, OJP and happiness at work. Further, the findings showed that OJP significantly predicts OCB and happiness at work. Moreover, the study revealed a significant positive relationship between employee happiness at work and OCB.

The study further examined the mediation role of happiness at work on the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM and OCB, and OJP. The analysis showed a partial mediation role of employee happiness at work on the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM, OCB, and OJP. In addition, the mediating role of happiness at work on the relationship between OJP and OCB was also examined. The analysis revealed a full mediation of happiness at work on the relationship between OJP and OCB. Therefore, the study concludes that diversity-oriented HRM

practices are important in enhancing employees' perception of justice, happiness at work and organisational citizenship behaviours among the staff of higher educational institutions.

Furthermore, existing literature reveals that the perceptions of individuals at the workplace influence their attitudes and behaviours, which invariably impact their productivity (Giannikis & Nikandrou, 2013). Thus, this study contends that diversity-oriented human resource management practices are key in creating enabling, caring and supportive work environments that give employees positive organisational perceptions. When employees develop these positive perceptions, it enhances their emotions and organisational well-being, boosting their motivation and satisfaction. Accordingly, the employees see it as an onus to return the good organisational gesture by acting outside one's role.

This study concludes that employee happiness at work is also relevant in influencing OCB and supporting the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB and OJP. The organisational management literature highlights that the mood of workers influences their productivity (Cek & Eyupoglu, 2020; Bellet, De Neve & Ward, 2023). Thus, the literature denotes that satisfied employees, fulfilled and have opportunities of developing their potential and other personal attributes, exhibit positive moods in the workplace (Arslan & Polat, 2021; Cek & Eyupoglu, 2020). This study's findings imply that when employees develop positive moods, it demonstrates their happiness and just perceptions of the organisational environment's diversity-oriented human resource management practices. This influences them to exhibit and engage in extra-role behaviours.

8.3 INSIGHTS GAINED

The study has shown that diversity-oriented HRM practices influence OCB and OJP to achieve institutional growth in organisational management. Further, the study has also shown that OJP alone cannot enhance OCB. Moreover, happiness at work is a relevant mediating variable regarding linkages between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB and OJP. Above all, the study has provided the basis for

understanding the application of diversity-oriented HRM practices and organisational justice perception practices in their procedural, distributional and interactional dimensions. It has, therefore, enhanced the understanding of social exchange theory in supporting the assertion that employees or subordinates are more prone to take on additional responsibilities than are specified in their job descriptions when they receive the needed diversity-oriented HRM practices, fair working environment, and experience happiness at work as well as a commendation from their superiors and the organisation as a whole. Thus, this study showed that when higher education institutions implement effective diversity-oriented HRM practices, staff form positive perceptions about the organisation, positively influencing their behaviours to reciprocate its actions.

In addition to the social exchange theory, this study further enhances our understanding of the organisational justice theory and its application in the context of higher educational institutions (universities) in Ghana. This theory is appropriate for understanding the linkages between human resource diversity management practices, organisational justice perception and organisational citizenship behaviours. This is because an essential factor contributing to increased employee loyalty, belonging, and performance is when employees perceive that they are treated fairly within the organisation. Thus, employees would be interested in how fair and just the organisation's processes, procedures and systems are. Once they are satisfied that the organisation is fair, it increases their sense of belonging and acceptance, which makes them happy thus, they engage in extra-role duties to attain the goals and objectives of the organisation.

Using a quantitative approach, the researcher thoroughly examined all dimensions of diversity-oriented HRM practices and OJP, such as procedural, distributional and interactional HRM practices and justice perceptions. In addition, happiness at work and five dimensions of OCB (altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue behaviours) were examined in the study. Analysing the data gathered gave an accurate and holistic representation of the study variables. The study informed the researcher on continually enhancing the strategy of engaging respondents in higher educational institutions and the dynamics involved in gathering

data for research. The strategy of engaging respondents and resilience in gathering and handling data was developed during data collection.

The relevance of diversity-oriented HRM practices is undebatable in ensuring that higher education institutions in Ghana enhance the performance of employees through strategic goals by introducing procedural, distributional and interactional diversity-oriented HRM practices. This is because the findings of this study revealed that diversity-oriented HRM practices significantly impact employees' happiness at the workplace. Therefore, Management should pay attention to the role of happiness at work as it seems to partially mediate the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB and OJP. Furthermore, management should note that work happiness fully mediates the relationship between OJP and OCB. Therefore, happiness at work is important in strengthening the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB, OJP on the one hand and OJP and OCB on the other.

8.4 IMPLICATIONS/ RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations of this study are categorised into three areas: recommendations for professional practice, recommendations for policy formulation, and recommendations for future research.

8.4.1 Professional practice

The present study found that diversity-oriented HRM practices in terms of procedural, distributional and interactional practices help enhance employee-level outcomes such as OCB, including its dimensions such as altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue behaviours. Specifically, procedural diversity-oriented HRM practices seem strongest compared to the other two (distributional and interactional) in analysing their effects on OCBs. For the management of higher educational institutions, procedural diversity-oriented HRM practices in terms of how employees perceive the decision-making processes and procedures of the superiors to be fair should be a matter of concern. Thus, higher

educational institutions, including both private and public universities, are encouraged to treat diversity issues with the needed attention and invest in diversity-oriented HRM practices and ensure that all rules, policies and procedures, as well as practices that affect work outcomes, are fair and openly communicated to all employees (Dahanayake et al., 2018; Girish, 2015) as it has the potential of enhancing pro-social behaviours of employees beyond their core duties.

Similarly, the study found that diversity-oriented HRM practices significantly influenced OJP. Specifically, distributional diversity-oriented HRM practices seem more relevant than interactional and procedural ones. Therefore, Management and practitioners in higher educational institutions are entreated to strategically enhance distributional diversity-oriented HRM practices regarding fair work outcomes and equitable distribution of resources and decision outcomes. With such strategies, employees will perceive the organisation as fair and thus have positive organisational justice perceptions (Girish, 2015; Fujimoto et al., 2013).

Additionally, the study found that diversity-oriented HRM practices have a significant positive effect on happiness at work. Therefore, the study recommends that educational institutions implement effective strategies and policies that will lead employees to increase their efforts at work while also having fun and satisfaction. Thus, it is suggested that the management of higher educational institutions should create a good and diversity-conscious working environment which would positively affect employees by enhancing their pleasure, contentment, cheerfulness, calmness, being in good spirits and pride (Arslan & Polat, 2021). This strategy will deepen the employees' loyalty to the organisation. In the long run, it will convert the workplace into a high-performing organisation because the employees will become high performers due to their satisfaction by implementing effective diversity-oriented HRM practices (Do, 2016).

Moreover, the study showed that OJP significantly influenced OCB. Specifically, interactional OJP significantly and strongly predicts the performance of OCB and therefore appears to be the most relevant variable than distributional and procedural OJP. Therefore, the study recommends that the management of higher educational

institutions enhance the interpersonal interactions with which they interact and treat their employees. In other words, it is how employees perceive the treatments they receive from their superiors to be worthy and fair. Once this perception is reached, it results in enhanced and positive social and interpersonal interactions and satisfaction among both superior and subordinate staff, positively affecting employees' extra-role behaviours (Garg, Rastogi & Malik, 2019; Wee, Ahmad & Fen, 2014). This is further separated into informational justice and interpersonal justice. For instance, Management should treat employees politely and concerning authorities and superiors. In contrast, messages or information provided by authorities and superiors should be followed with explanations of the processes or procedures used. With such treatments, employees perceive the organisation to have quality and fair interpersonal justice, motivating them to work beyond the norm and engage in other extra-role activities.

Furthermore, the study demonstrated that OJP significantly influenced happiness at work. Therefore, this study recommends that Management of tertiary educational institutions take note to protect and create environments of justice that support employee happiness through enhancing their psychological well-being in terms of thoughts, feelings, emotions, understanding, perceptions and interpersonal relations, among others. The role of positive psychological well-being in organisational performance cannot be underrated. Therefore, this study highlights and reiterates that employees' feelings and perceptions of justice within the organisation positively impact their emotions and well-being, boosting their productivity (Behrani, 2017; Ajala & Bolarinwa, 2015). Therefore, educational institutions should aim to enhance work environments that promote equity, fairness and justice, eventually ensuring employee happiness and increasing productivity.

Moreover, the study found that OCB was significantly influenced by work happiness among selected Ghana universities. Therefore, the study recommends that managers of higher education institutions create acceptable content and environment for employees, which will make them engage in extra-role behaviours. Management of the various universities should design and implement diversity-oriented HRM practices that intend to create climates of care and happiness that are socially

responsible for making the workplace attractive and increasing the OCB at work. Further, the study found happiness at work as a mediating variable playing a partial role in the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM and OCB. Therefore, the study recommends employee happiness as a source of sustained competitive advantage for educational institutions in implementing diversity-oriented HRM practices to enhance OCB among teaching and non-teaching staff. Management should take strategic decisions regarding enhancing happiness at work, which catalyses the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM and OCB.

Again, the study demonstrated that happiness at work partially mediates the linkage between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OJP. Thus, the study recommends that happiness-at-work practices should be implemented as it is found to have some role in how diversity-oriented HRM practices impact the OJP of staff at higher educational institutions. Therefore, creating positive attitudes, feelings, moods, emotions or positive affective experiences of employees within the organisation is relevant for institutional growth. Finally, the study showed that happiness at work fully mediates the relationship between OJP and OCB. This shows the relevance of happiness at work among the staff of higher educational institutions in Ghana. Therefore, the study recommends that happiness at work should be integrated into institutional work processes or practices to regularise it.

8.4.2 Recommendations for policy

The current study has recommendations for policy formulation for both public and private tertiary educational institutions, especially within the Ghanaian context. The study revealed that diversity-oriented HRM practices predict OCB, OJP and happiness at work. This indicates that higher educational institutions are prone to diversity-oriented human resource management practices due to the need for a globalised work environment. Therefore, the higher education sector should develop a working policy document regulating their activities within the confines of diversity-oriented HRM, OCB, OJP and happiness at work. The policy's emphasis should cover diversity-oriented HRM practices and include policies on OCB, OJP and happiness at work.

Furthermore, there should be policies, government interventions and programmes on enhancing diversity-oriented HRM practices, OJP, OCB and happiness at work in Ghanaian higher educational institutions. Diversity-oriented HRM practices and OJP, such as procedural, distributional and interactional HRM practices and justice practices, should be encouraged among institutions. There should be government interventions to support the implementation of these practices. Interventions such as regulatory instruments, supervision by government agencies (Ghana Tertiary Education Commission (GTEC), and other international stakeholders should ensure that higher educational institutions adhere to best HRM practices regarding diversity-oriented HRM practices, OJP, OCB and happiness at work.

In addition to the above, the study recommends industry-level policies on best HRM practices, such as diversity-oriented HRM practices, OJP, OCB and happiness at work. Ensuring that diversity-oriented HRM practices are adhered to within the industry level is key to competitive advantage. Considering that higher educational institutions are key influencers of most national and international policy implementations, a working policy on diversity-oriented HRM practices, OJP, OCB and happiness at work that would guide higher educational practice should be developed. This would ensure that knowledge and practice are congruent.

The study further recommends organisational-level policy documents to enhance institutional growth. This policy document should include, among other things, empowerment programmes that would unearth the benefits of diversity-oriented HRM practices, OJP, OCB and happiness at work within the institution. Furthermore, budget allocations should be given to such empowerment activities/programmes to show the government's seriousness in empowering higher educational institutions.

8.4.3 Recommendations for future research

The following are recommended for future studies. The connection between diversity-oriented HRM practices, OJP, OCB and happiness at work with the mediating role of happiness at work should be critically examined in future studies to either validate or

challenge the findings of this study. For instance, future studies could utilise longitudinal designs to examine the connection between diversity-focused HRM practices and OCB evolution. This would offer more solid proof of the causal connections between these factors.

Moreover, a comparative study between educational institutions at various levels and not only higher education institutions could provide very interesting findings for contextual contributions. Future research could make a cross-cultural comparison of the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and these constructs in various nations and regions. This would make it easier to see how these practices affect workplace behaviour across various cultural contexts and to compare those effects.

Similarly, studies between different industries regarding diversity-oriented HRM practices, OJP, OCB and happiness at work could be promising for comparisons and generalisation purposes. Though this study combines private and public Universities, it did not give particular attention to comparing the results of these institutions. Further, the use of multi-level analyses in future studies should be considered. Using multi-level analyses to examine the effects of diversity-focused HRM practices and OCB at individual and group levels would account for potential variations among departments and faculties within Ghanaian tertiary institutions.

Future studies could also investigate the moderating roles of other demographic variables, such as years at the institution, academic qualifications, and staff experience. This study established the mediating role of happiness at work. However, it did not investigate the moderating roles of other variables that could help literature, such as the institution's size and ownership (public or private). These outcomes could significantly moderate the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices, OJP, OCB and happiness at work to enrich the literature.

8.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY TO THEORY

This study contributes to the literature by examining diversity-oriented HRM practices, an emerging research area (Cox & Blake, 2011). By focusing specifically on diversity-oriented practices, the study helps advance understanding of how these practices relate to workplace outcomes such as OCB and OJP. Further, it contributes to the literature and offers extensive insights into OJP and OCB in a non-Western context by examining them in the context of Ghanaian tertiary institutions. Earlier research on OCB and OJP has primarily been conducted in Western contexts (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Thus, this study helps to expand our understanding of these constructs in a non-Western context.

Moreover, the study explored the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB from a justice perspective. Examining the role of justice perceptions in the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB enhances the literature. Prior research has suggested that perceptions of justice can influence employees' reactions to HRM practices (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). This study extends this research by examining justice perceptions in the context of diversity-oriented HRM practices. In addition, by highlighting the role of employee happiness in the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB, this study contributes to the literature by examining the mediating role of employee happiness in the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB. This builds on research suggesting that HRM practices can affect employee well-being (Guest, 2017) and that well-being can affect workplace behaviour (Grant et al., 2013). Finally, by focusing on the context of tertiary institutions in Ghana, this study contributes to the literature by examining the relationship between diversity-oriented HRM practices and OCB in the context of tertiary institutions in Ghana. This context is important because the Ghanaian tertiary educational system is unique in its structure and governance, which may influence how diversity-oriented HRM practices are implemented and perceived by employees.

8.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study has several potential limitations. Firstly, the study adopted a quantitative method with a cross-sectional design for data collection. Even though this approach seems good as it strengthens the study's outcome, it still lacks in inferring underlining causal relationships. However, it is important to reiterate that the study's findings are consistent with theoretical predictions. A longitudinal research design that investigates the linkage between diversity-oriented HRM practices and the other variables (OJP, OCB and employee happiness at work) might bring forth the nature of the linkages, provide answers to whether the OJP of employees changes with time and the time interval to expect the benefits of diversity-oriented HRM practices.

Secondly, the data for the study were drawn from a sample of Public and Private Universities in Ghana. The cultural environment may affect the findings, limiting the generalisation of the findings to other cultural contexts and institutions. Therefore, it is important to note that generalising the current findings to other countries should be done with caution. This is because the findings in the context of Ghana may not reflect the situation in other countries.

Finally, the choice of a singular research approach, a quantitative approach, could also limit the study since using a mixed method could have been more appropriate and in-depth and provided a deeper meaning of the variables involved in the study. That notwithstanding, the study's objectives were achieved.

8.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This study determined the influences of diversity-oriented HRM practices and OJP on the OCB of employees of tertiary educational institutions in Ghana and the mediating effects of employee happiness at work. It has been revealed in this study that diversity-oriented HRM practices play vital roles in creating fair work environments that motivate employees and boost their extra-role behaviours. The findings emphasised the assertion that though diversity-oriented HRM practices are important, they are much more useful when adopted and implemented since they influence the just

perceptions of employees, which affect their attitudes and behaviours towards work as high performers (Do, 2016). This Chapter presented the conclusions of the study and acknowledged the limitations of the study. It also outlined the study's recommendations in terms of professional practice and policy implications for University Management and other HR practitioners. The Chapter also made recommendations for future research to enhance knowledge in diversity management.

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APPENDIX 1: RESPONDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Diversity-oriented HRM practices and organisational citizenship behaviour of staff of tertiary institutions in Ghana: A justice and happiness perspective

Dear respondent. I am a PhD student at the Central University of Technology, Free State in South Africa, researching on the above topic. My research project is being supervised by Professor DY Dzansi, Dr LW Dzansi, and Dr K Boemah. The study is entirely for academic purpose, and all information would be treated as confidential. I would be very grateful for your assistance in completing the questions below. Please read the statements carefully and tick (X) against your choice. THANK YOU!

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS										
1	Gender	[1] Male				[2] Female			[3] LGBTQ+	
2	Age (years)	[1] (20-30)		[2] (31-40)			[3] (41-50)		[4] (Above 50 years)	
3	Highest education	[1] (PhD)		[2] (Master's)	[3] Honours/ PGDip		[4] Bachelor's/ Adv Dip		[5] (Diploma)	[6] (Below Diploma)
4	Length of service	[1] (0-5) Years		[2] (6-10) Years		[3] (11-15) Years		[4] (16-20) Years		[5] (21 and above) Years
5	Religion	[1] Christian	[2] Muslim			[3] Traditional African	[4] Hinduism		[5] Other	[6] Atheist (none)
6	Employment status	[1] Permanent (Full-time)				[2] Fixed term full-time contract			[3] Fixed term part-time contract	
7	Nature of work	[1] Academic				[2] Support				
8	Rank (job position)	ACADEMICS ONLY				SUPPORT STAFF ONLY				
		[1] Full Prof	[2] Associate Prof	[3] Senior Lecturer	[4] Lecturer Assistant [5] Assistant Lecturer	[6] Executive	[7] Head of Admin	[8] Non-manager	[9] Senior staff	[10] Junior staff

		essor	essor	ture		manag	strative	ial senior		
		r	r	r		ement	Unit	member		

SECTION B: DIVERSITY ORIENTED HRM PRACTICES/ ISSUES								
Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your university's human resources management practices by ticking (X)								
Q/N	Statements	Responses						
		Strongly Disagree [1]	Disagree [2]	Somewhat Disagree [3]	Neutral [4]	Somewhat Agree [5]	Agree [6]	Strongly Agree [7]
9	My university's HRM policies and procedures are designed to promote employee diversity	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
10	My university's training and development policies and procedures allow for individual training and development plans	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
11	My university advertises job openings through different media	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
12	In my university, employees in the HR department come from diverse backgrounds	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
13	In my university, the selection interview panels come from diverse backgrounds.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
14	My institution has special programmes to recruit employees with diverse backgrounds.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
15	My university trains employees to acquire skills in working in a diversified workforce environment.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
16	My university's performance appraisal raters come from diverse backgrounds	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
17	There is opportunity in advancement for employees from minority backgrounds	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
18	All fringe and social benefits are given to all employees	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

19	In my university, appraisers background does not influence performance ratings	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
20	My university's pay system is only performance-based	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
21	In my university, ability to deal with diversity is a performance criterion	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
22	My university allows for fringe benefits regardless of status	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
23	In my university, training & development opportunities are open for all groups of employees.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
24	The university provides career management programs for all employees regardless of age, gender, religion etc.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
25	My university has mentoring programs that provide support for employees from minority backgrounds.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
26	My university holds regular multi-cultural activities that bring people of different backgrounds together	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
Continued from the previous page on diversity oriented HRM practices/ issues								
Q/N	Statements	Strongly Disagree [1]	Disagree [2]	Somewhat Disagree [3]	Neutral [4]	Somewhat Agree [5]	Agree [6]	Strongly Agree [7]
27	In my university high-quality superior-subordinate interactions are commonplace	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
28	My university provides multilingual courses for employees	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
29	My university provides programs that highlight the problems of stereotyping	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
30	My university provides communication courses for employees to improve communication among co-workers	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
31	My university promotes teamwork	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
32	My university encourages team members to share information	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

33	My university emphasizes the importance of team member's contribution	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
34	My university emphasizes consensus in decision making	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

35	My university monitors the working environment to eliminate harassment and other discriminatory tendencies	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
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SECTION C: ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE PERCEPTION

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your university's organisational justice by ticking (X)

Q/N	Statements	Responses						
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
36	The HRM policies and procedures in my university eliminate bias and discrimination.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
37	The HRM policies and procedures have been applied consistently	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
38	In my university, interviewees are only asked job-related questions	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
39	Policies and procedures form the basis of management decisions	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
40	My university provides opportunities to appeal or challenge training & development related decisions	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
41	My organisation provides opportunities to appeal or challenge pay and rewards related decisions	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
42	My organisation provides opportunities to appeal, or	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	Challenge management decisions							
43	In my university, everyone can freely express their views and feelings about policies and procedures.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

44	In my university, everyone can freely express their views and feelings about recruitment and selection policies and procedures	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
Continued on the next page								
Continued from the previous page on diversity oriented HRM practices/ issues								
Q/N	Statements	Strongly Disagree [1]	Disagree [2]	Somewhat Disagree [3]	Neutral [4]	Somewhat Agree [5]	Agree [6]	Strongly Agree [7]
45	During recruitment and selection decision-making, equity statistics are used to ensure representativity.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
46	In my view, everyone in the organisation is treated fairly in terms of career advancement	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
47	In my university, everyone is treated fairly in terms of training opportunities	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
48	I think that the rewards I receive here is linked to my experience, qualifications and skills	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
49	The pay and rewards I receive reflect the efforts I put into my work	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
50	In my university, rewards always reflect employee performance	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
51	More productive workers in my university receive higher rewards	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
52	In my university, workload is equitably distributed to all employees	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
53	In my university, I believe that compensation is fair to all employees	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
54	In my university, the working conditions are the same for all employees	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
55	In my university, the workload is equitably distributed to all employees	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
56	In my view, there is objectivity and fairness in performance appraisal	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

57	In my university, employees from minority groups do not have to be higher performers	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
58	All job applicants are treated politely, with dignity and respect	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
59	In my university, job applicants are always provided with timely feedback about interview decision and its implications	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
60	In my university, interviewers always refrain from improper remarks and comments	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
61	In my university, recruitment and selection procedures are thoroughly explained to all job applicants	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
62	Employees are always provided with timely feedback about training & development opportunity decision and its implications	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
63	Training & development procedures are thoroughly explained to all employees	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
64	All employees are treated politely, with dignity and respect regarding training & development opportunities	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
65	My boss explains very clearly any decisions made about my remuneration	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
66	In my university after performance appraisal, feedback and ongoing support are provided for all employees	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
67	In my university appraisal feedback is timely	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

SECTION D: YOUR HAPPINESS AT WORK

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your happiness about working in your university by ticking (X)

Statements	Responses
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		Strongly Disagree [1]	Disagree [2]	Somewhat Disagree [3]	Neutral [4]	Somewhat Agree [5]	Agree [6]	Strongly Agree [7]
68	I feel pleased with the work I do	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
69	I feel that my work in the university is very rewarding	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
70	I have very warm feelings towards almost everyone at work	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
71	I always wake up feeling rested and eager to go to work	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
72	I am very optimistic about the future of work at my university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
73	Life is good at my university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
74	My university is a good workplace	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
75	I am well satisfied with everything in my work at the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
76	I always have a cheerful effect on others at my university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
77	I feel in control of my work life in the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
78	I feel fully mentally alert at work	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
79	I often experience joy and elation with my work in the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
80	I find it easy to make work related decisions in the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
81	I have a sense of meaning and purpose in my work at the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
82	I feel I have a great deal of energy towards my work at the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
83	I usually have a good influence on work events at the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
84	I often have fun with other people at the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
85	I have happy memories of the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

SECTION E: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement regarding your university's organisational justice by ticking (X)

Q/N	Statements	Responses
-----	------------	-----------

		Strongly Disagree [1]	Disagree [2]	Somewhat Disagree [3]	Neutral [4]	Somewhat Agree [5]	Agree [6]	Strongly Agree [7]
86	I often help staff even when it is not required of me	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
87	I often help students even when it is not required	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
88	I am always willing to help others who have work-related problems	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
89	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to co-workers	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
90	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to students	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
91	My attendance at work is above the norm	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
92	I never take extra breaks at work	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
93	I always obey the university's rules and regulations even when no one is watching	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
94	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
95	I refrain from complaining about trivial university matters because it consumes time	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
96	I always focus on positive side things in the university instead of what's wrong	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
97	I never make big issues out of little/ trivial university matters	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
98	I never try to find fault with what the university is doing	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
99	I always take steps to prevent problems with others at the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
100	I am always mindful of how my behaviour affects others in the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
102	I am always mindful of how my work performance affects others in the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
103	I do not abuse the rights of others in the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
104	I always try to avoid creating problems for others in the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

105	I always consider the impact of my actions on the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
106	I always attend university meetings that are not mandatory but are considered important	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
107	I always attend university functions that are not required but help the university's image	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
108	I always keep abreast of changes in the university	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
109	I always read and keep up with university announcements, memos, and so on	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

APPENDIX 2: SAMPLE APPLICATIONS FOR PERMISSION TO ADMINISTER QUESTIONNAIRE

EDEM K. HONU
SENIOR ASSIST. REGISTRAR
HO TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY



**P.O BOX HP217. HO TECH.
UNIVERSITY**
HO
0244979211 / 0207403339
ehonu@htu.edu.gh

REF: EKH/L_2022/001

10th March, 2022

THE REGISTRAR
KWAME NKUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY
KUMASI

Dear Sir/Madam,

PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA IN YOUR INSTITUTION

I am Edem Kodzo Honu, a PhD student in Management Sciences at the Central University of Technology, Free State, South Africa and a staff of Ho Technical University. As part of the requirements to complete the programme, a student has to write thesis in the area of specialisation.

My study topic is **"Human Resource Diversity Management Practices and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour of Staff in Academic Institutions in Ghana: A Justice and Happiness Perspective"**.

Your Institution is one of the Institutions I have sampled for study. I, therefore, write to seek permission to enable me collect data from staff of your University for the project work and promise that the data collected would be treated as confidential and used for the intended purposes.

I look forward for a favourable consideration. Please, you can forward your response to ehonu@htu.edu.gh or Office of the Registrar, Box HP217. Ho Technical University, Ho.

Thank you.



EDEM K. HONU
SENIOR ASSISTANT REGISTRAR
(OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR)

APPENDIX 3: LETTERS OF APPROVAL TO ADMINISTER QUESTIONNAIRE



**Kwame Nkrumah
University of Science
and Technology, Kumasi**

OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR

RO/OFF

April 12, 2022

Senior Assistant Registrar
Ho Technical University
Ho

Dear Sir,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA IN YOUR INSTITUTION

THIS is to acknowledge receipt of your letter seeking permission to collect data from staff of KNUST towards your PhD programme in Management Sciences at the Central University of Technology Free State South Africa on the topic: "Human Resource Diversity Management Practices and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour of Staff in Academic Institutions in Ghana; A Justice of Happiness Perspective".

I write at the instance of the Registrar to inform you that approval has been granted to enable you carry out the research.

By a copy of this letter, all officers concerned are being requested to respectfully accord you all the courtesies in this regard.

Sincerely Yours,



EFUA ARKU
SENIOR ASSISTANT REGISTRAR (REGISTRAR'S OFFICE)
For: REGISTRAR

CC: Vice-Chancellor
Pro Vice-Chancellor
Provosts
Deputy Registrar (HRD)
College/Deputy Registrars



UNIVERSITY OF PROFESSIONAL STUDIES, ACCRA

P. O. Box LG 149, Accra, Ghana. Tel: (+233) 0302 500171 / 500722 Fax: (+233) 0302 - 513503
Website: www.upsa.edu.gh E-mail: enquiry@upsa.edu.gh admissions@upsa.edu.gh

My Ref. No.: IM/ROB/RCC/026

1st June, 2022

MR. EDEM K. HONU
HO TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
P. O. BOX MA 407
MAWULI POST- HO

Dear Mrs. Honu

RE: PERMISSION FOR ASSISTANCE TO COLLECT DATA
(MR. EDEM K. HONU – 0244979211/ 0207403339)

This is to inform you that your request to collect data for your Phd studies on the topic “Human Resource Diversity Management Practices and Organizational Citizenship Behavior of Staff in Academic Institutions in Ghana” has been approved by Management. Please contact the Human Resource Directorate of the University for the necessary Assistance.

We wish you success in your endeavors.

Yours Sincerely,

Prof. Ibrahim Mohammed
(Director, Research and Consultancy)
For: Registrar

Cc:

- Director, Human Resource Directorate
- File

Bankers: - Access Bank, UPSA Branch / Ecobank, Legon / Bank of Africa, East Legon

CAPE COAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

(OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR)

Tel: 0592774927/0209185158

Website: www.cctu.edu.gh

Email: registrar@cctu.edu.gh



P.O. BOX DL. 50

Cape Coast

Our Ref: CCTU/494/111

March 25, 2022

EDEM KODZO HONU
SENIOR ASSISTANT REGISTRAR
HO TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
P. O. BOX HP217
HO

Dear Mr. Honu,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA IN YOUR INSTITUTION

Your letter dated March 10, 2022 on the above-mentioned subject refers.

We wish to inform you that approval has been granted for you to collect data at Cape Coast Technical University (CCTU) on your Ph.D. thesis titled "Human Resource Diversity Management Practices and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour of Staff in Academic Institutions in Ghana: A Justice and Happiness Perspective" in partial fulfilment of the requirements of your programme.

You are kindly entreated to observe the COVID-19 protocols during the collection of data at CCTU.

By a copy of this letter, the Director of Public Affairs is kindly informed to provide you the necessary assistance.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

Hannelore Asmah (Mrs.)
Senior Assistant Registrar
For: Registrar

cc: Registrar
Director of Public Affairs

KUMASI TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF THE REGISTRAR
Tel. No: 03224 91128
Fax: 03220 22387
Email: registrar@kstu.edu.gh



P. O. Box KS 854
Kumasi - Ashanti,
Ghana, West Africa

Our Ref: KsTU/ADM/456

25/03/2022

Mr Edem K. Honu
Senior Assistant Registrar
Office of the Registrar
Ho Technical University
Box HP217.
Ho.

Dear Mr Honu,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA IN YOUR INSTITUTION

Your letter with reference number EKHV.2022/003 on the above-mentioned subject refers.

We are happy that Kumasi Technical University is part of your sample target for data collection for your PhD Research. Therefore, we write to inform you that permission has been granted to you to collect data from our University.

You may contact the undersigned on telephone number: 0200158301 for further assistance regarding your request.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,

Jenkins A. Asaah (PhD)
Deputy Registrar (Gen. Admin)
For: REGISTRAR

Cc: Vice-Chancellor



KOFORIDUA TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

P. O. Box KF 981, Koforidua, E/R
Ghana, West Africa

Tel: (+233) 3420 24466 (+233) 3420 22890 (+233) 3420 24993 Tel/Fax: (+233) 3420 24179 Website: www.ktu.edu.gh

KTU/RO/22/083

14th April, 2022

Our Ref:.....

Your Ref:.....

Date:.....

Mr. Edem K. Honu
Senior Assistant Registrar
P.O. Box MA 407
Mawuli Post – Ho

Dear Sir,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA IN YOUR INSTITUTION

Your letter dated 7th April, 2022 on the above subject-matter refers, please.

We write to inform your that, Management has considered your letter under reference and has subsequently granted you **permission to collect Data** in the University.

By a copy of this letter, the **Head of Human Resource Department** is being requested to assist you in this direction.

Yours faithfully,


Mathias Fred Adjei (Esq.)
Ag. Registrar

cc:

Vice Chancellor
HoD (Human Resource)



Our Ref: STU/TR/69/617

Your Ref:

Date: MARCH 24, 2022

Mr. Edem K. Honu

Office of the Registrar

Ho Technical University

P. O. Box HP 217

Ho

Dear Sir,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA IN YOUR INSTITUTION

Your letter dated March 10, 2022 on the above subject matter refers.

I write to inform you that the Vice-Chancellor has given approval for you to collect data from staff of Sunyani Technical University for your research work, as per your request.

However, any data collected from the University should be treated as confidential and used for the intended purpose as stated in your letter.

Thank you.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Ernest Owusu'.

Ernest Owusu
Assistant Registrar
For: Registrar



TTU/Admin/IntroLtr./Vol./45

23rd March, 2022

Mr. Edem Kodzo Honu
Office of the Registrar
P. O. Box HP217
Ho Technical University
Ho, Ghana
Tel: 024 497 9211 / 020 740 3339
Email: ehonu@htu.edu.gh

Dear Sir

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA IN YOUR INSTITUTION

We refer to your letter on the above subject dated 10th March, 2022 by which you introduced yourself as **Mr. Edem Kodzo Honu** a PhD student in Management Sciences at the Central University of Technology, Free State, South Africa and a staff of Ho Technical University.

We acknowledge that you require permission to enable you collect data from staff of Takoradi Technical University for your project work.

We hereby write to inform you that Takoradi Technical University has given you approval to conduct data collection on the thesis topic: *"Human Resource Diversity Management Practices and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour of staff in Academic Institutions in Ghana: A Justice and Happiness Perspective"* as a requirement for the above-mentioned programme.

We wish you well in your academic endeavour.

Yours faithfully

JOSEPH ESHUN
DEPUTY REGISTRAR (DHR)
for REGISTRAR

CC:
Registrar



12th April, 2022

Mr. Edem Honu

Senior Assistant Registrar

Ho Technical University

Dear Mr. Honu,

RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA IN YOUR INSTITUTION

We refer to your letter dated 7th April, 2022 on the above subject and write to inform you that access has been granted for you to collect data in our institution to facilitate your PhD thesis.

We wish to express our appreciation to you for your desire to include the Presbyterian University College, Ghana in your research.

We wish you the very best.

Thank you.


E.O. Agyenim-Boateng (PhD)
ACTING REGISTRAR

cc:

President

Vice President

DoF

Ag. DDIA

Librarian

