

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Competency

The Global Forum for Rural Advisory Service (GFRAS) Consortium defines competency as the sufficiency of knowledge and skills that enable a person to act in a wide variety (Umar, Man, Nawir, Latif, & Samah, 2017). According to Nybø (2004), in a competency approach, people are not doing the job based on their position but based on the knowledge and skill they possess. Spencer and Spencer (as cited in Gray, 1999) outline the point that competencies must be related to performance in the workplace and not to what would be desirable to have.

In a literature survey “Understanding Competencies and Competency Modeling” (Chouhan & Srivastava, 2014), McClelland (1973) presented data that traditional achievement and intelligence scores may not be able to predict job success and what is required is to profile the exact competencies required to perform a given job effectively and measure them using a variety of tests. He defined ‘competency’ as “a personal trait or set of habits that lead to more effective or superior job performance,” in other words, an “ability that adds clear economic value to the efforts of a person on the job.” Klemp (1980) defined competency as “an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective and superior performance on the job.”

## 2.2 Assessment Center

According to Woodruffe (1993), An assessment center is not a place but refer to a method or approach. Assessment centers rely on multiple behavioral simulation exercises which are carefully designed to measure individuals on multiple performance dimensions (Brummel, Deborah, & Seth, 2009). After undergoing use considerably in private industry, Assessment Centers are receiving greater attention from the government in the U.S. as well as abroad (Wise, 1979). He also states that assessment centers use a variety of techniques including management games, background interviews, group discussions, individual fact-finding, and decision-making exercises, in-basket exercises, leaderless group discussions, oral presentation exercises, written exercises, and written communications exercises.

According to Hagan, Konopaske, Bernardin, & Tyler (2006), Assessment centers are typically characterized by (1) the use of situational tests or work samples (2) to obtain specific behavior, (3) which is observed by trained assessors, (4) who make independent evaluations across multiple competencies about what they have seen, and (5) then pool their observations with other trained assessors to arrive at an over-all assessment center rating. Woodruffe (1993) says “the assessment must be against the competency dimensions of change rather than of stasis, and the development systems must equip people for longer-term change, while also being responsive to their development needs in the shorter term.” When assessment center philosophy and web-based technology were combined synergistically, it will set a

path for effective organizational change and development (Lehman, Hudson, Appley, & Sheehan, 2009).

### **2.3 Motivation**

Ryan & Deci (2000) state, “to be motivated means to be moved to do something. A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated”. Work motivation is mainly divided into two types, with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation showing that different incentives have a distinct impact on the motivation of employees. While intrinsic motivation concerns reward as an activity itself, external control variables as explicit rewards are the source of extrinsic motivation (Kuranchie-mensah & Amponsah-tawiah, 2016). Based on self-determination theory, the definition of intrinsic motivation is as an activity being carried out for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Moreover, according to Ryan (1982), intrinsic motivation can be declined because of an environmental event by making the perceived locus of causality more external or by reducing one’s perception of competence, and vice versa, intrinsic motivation can be increased by making the perceived locus of causality more internal or by giving strength to one’s perception of competence. In one sense, there is inherent motivation within individuals, and in another sense, there is inherent motivation in the relationship between individuals and activities (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In addition, they argued that for some activities, people are intrinsically

motivated, not others, and not everyone is intrinsically motivated for any specific task. Strong intrinsic motivation happens when three psychological states are created, and those are experienced meaningfulness of the work, experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work, and knowledge of the actual results of the work activities (Hackman and Oldham, 1980 in Kuranchie-mensah & Amponsah-tawiah, 2016). Intrinsic motivation works as a mediating and moderating influence on the relationship between perceived investment in employee development and various aspect of work performance (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2009)

## **2.4 Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is a set of positive or negative feelings and emotions with which employees see their work (Newstrom, 2011). Job satisfaction plays a key role in terms of employee performance and to some extent in terms of productivity, efficiency, employee relationships, absenteeism, and turnover for organizations (Dugguh & Dennis, 2014). They also state “one common research finding is that job satisfaction influences employee performance and life satisfaction. This correlation is reciprocal - people who are satisfied with life tend to be satisfied with their job, and people who are satisfied with their job tend to be satisfied with life.”

Job satisfaction could be seen as a management tool to achieve certain organizational goals relating to reducing absenteeism and unpunctuality, but the importance of job satisfaction is not limited to or justified by its somewhat weak relationship with some organizational outcomes (Hantula, 2015). The core of job

satisfaction is the overall state which comes from experiencing a work situation (Christen, Iyer, & Soberman, 2006).

## **2.5 Organizational Commitment**

In common, commitment is seen as a positive orientation to an organization, linked to the organization's readiness to stay (Hakansson & Isidorsson, 2012). Newstrom (2011) states that organizational commitment is the degree to which an employee identifies with and desire to continue actively participating in the organization. Moreover, commitment is usually stronger among long-time employees, those who have had personal success in the organization (Newstrom, 2011). The overall concept of organizational commitment to the affective responses of people to their employing organizations in general (Stride, Wall, & Catley, 2007). Organizational commitment is more likely to increase if group members see the shared vision and support of joint leaders (Wu & Chen, 2018).

Part of the organizational commitment's current popularity can be attributed to its central role in human resources management policies (Copey & Hartley, 1991). Such a commitment can generally be characterized by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the objectives and values of the organization; (b) a willingness to make substantial efforts on behalf of the organization; (c) an obvious desire to maintain membership of the organization (Porter, Steers, & Mowday, 1974).

## **2.6 Control Variable: Job Stress, Leadership, and Individual Factors**

This study sets leadership, job stress, and individual factors such as gender, age, and seniority as control variables that influence motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Jin (2017) states that several studies have already shown that job stress and leadership affect job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In addition, job stress and leadership also affect motivation (Almansour, 2012; Buble, Juras, & Mati, 2014; Wani, 2013).

According to Kahn and Boysiére (1994), as cited in Hu & Cheng (2010), Job stress is defined as a particular relationship between an employee and his or her work environment. Jin (2017) states “the psychological response to job stress is decreased job satisfaction and also organizational commitment.”

Leadership is defined as a wide menu of behaviors, some suitable for a single environment (Krapfl & Kruja, 2015). The transaction leader does not engage the workers regularly unless an error or deviation occurs whereas transformation leadership is inspiring, challenging, charismatic, stimulating and consistently developing the employees' abilities (Alghazo & Al-Anazi, 2016).

Moreover, Individual factors such as age, gender, and seniority also affect motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. According to Weberova, Hitka, & Lizbetinova (2017), age and gender influence the employees' motivation in Slovak. Motivation also is influenced by seniority in Kenya (Singh, 2017). Johnson & Johnson (2000) demonstrate that age improves job satisfaction. According to Kim (2005), because women place greater value than men on intrinsic rewards such as worthwhile work achievement, women are more satisfied with their

jobs than are men. In addition, the employee who have more job experience, he or she has more job satisfaction (Boltes, Lippke, & Gregory, 1995). Mathieu & Zajac (1990) state that women employees have a higher level of organizational commitment than man employees. Furthermore, age and job experience also influence organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

## 2.7 Theoretical Framework

Overall from the theory discussion, the theoretical framework can be illustrated as figure 1 ;

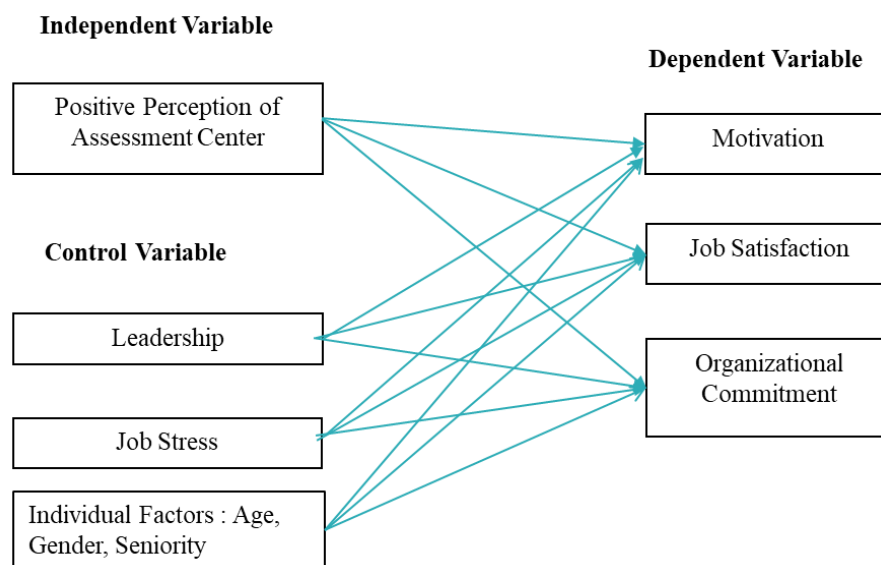


Figure 1. Theoretical Framework