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جامعة الإمارات العربية المتحدة
United Arab Emirates University

United Arab Emirates University

College of Business and Economics

ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF HAPPINESS AT
WORK: THE CASE OF THE OIL AND GAS INDUSTRY IN ABU
DHABI

Nouf Mohammed Abdulla Al Hawai

This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of Doctorate of Business Administration

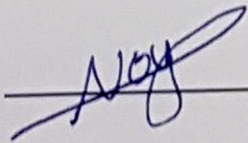
Under the Supervision of Professor Riyad Eid

March 2019

Declaration of Original Work

I, Nouf Mohammed Abdulla Al Hawaii, the undersigned, a graduate student at the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU), and the author of this dissertation entitled "*Antecedents and Consequences of Happiness at Work: The Case of the Oil and Gas Industry in Abu Dhabi*", hereby, solemnly declare that this dissertation is my own original research work that has been done and prepared by me under the supervision of Prof. Riyad Eid, in the College of Business and Economics at the UAEU. This work has not previously been presented or published, or formed the basis for the award of any academic degree, diploma or a similar title at this or any other university. Any materials borrowed from other sources (whether published or unpublished) and relied on or included in my dissertation have been properly cited and acknowledged in accordance with appropriate academic conventions. I further declare that there is no potential conflict of interest with respect to the research, data collection, authorship, presentation and/or publication of this dissertation.

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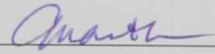
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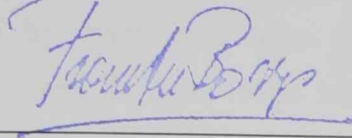
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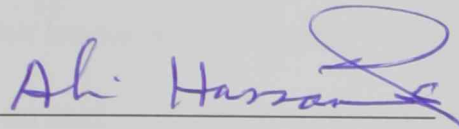


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Abstract

The pursuit of happiness at work (HAW) has been touted as the next frontier to be conquered in order to help organizations achieve success, and it has also been a quest undertaken by many employees. The considerable amount of research examining HAW since the late 1990s has focused on conceptualization of the construct, yet scant attention has been given to the antecedents and consequences of HAW. In other words, little is known about the environmental characteristics that may positively or negatively evoke HAW and, in turn, whether HAW can enhance individual job performance. More research is thus needed to explore the current state of HAW in the oil and gas industry and the driving factors behind it. This study is an attempt to fill this lacuna in the research.

The present study was carried out to examine the influence of job environment characteristics (job demands and job resources) on individual job performance (task performance and contextual performance). Building on job demands-resources (JD-R) and psychological capital (PsyCap) theory and on Fisher's (2010) conceptualization of HAW. Efforts were made to investigate the mediating role of HAW on the effects of job demands and job resources and their relationship to individual job performance. The study also examined the moderating role of personal resources (PsyCap) on the relationship between job environment characteristics and HAW. A set of standard questionnaires on job demands, job resources, PsyCap, HAW, and individual job performance was used for data collection. A cross-sectional survey was conducted on a sample of 409 employees from the oil and gas sector in Abu Dhabi (United Arab Emirates: UAE), which was selected using simple stratified random sampling. Structured equation modeling (SEM) was used for data analysis. The results confirmed that job demands are positively associated with individual job performance while job demands are negatively related to individual job performance via HAW. The results also show a positive and significant relationship between job resources and individual job performance directly and via HAW. The study's findings suggest that HAW will enhance overall job performance among oil and gas employees. A moderating effect of PsyCap is observed on the relationship between job demands and HAW. In contrast, there is non-significant moderation of the effect of PsyCap in Job resources on HAW. Finally, theoretical and practical implications

of the study are also discussed within the context of the UAE oil and gas industry for possible organizational development interventions that would enhance employee HAW levels for greater performance.

Keywords: Job demands, job resources, happiness at work, JD-R model, psychological capital, individual job performance, oil and gas industry.

Title and Abstract (in Arabic)

المسببات والنتائج المترتبة على السعادة في العمل: الحالة خاصة بقطاع النفط والغاز في أبوظبي

الملخص

يُشار حالياً ان السعي وراء السعادة في العمل على أنها الجبهة التالية لمساعدة المؤسسات على تحقيق النجاح المؤسسي، كما أنها هدف وضعت الكثير من المؤسسات في نصب أعينها. ولقد ركزت الأبحاث الكثيرة التي تفحصت مفهوم السعادة منذ أواخر التسعينات على ماهية السعادة في العمل، ولكنه لم يولّ الكثير من الاهتمام لمسببات ونتائج السعادة في العمل. بتعبير آخر، فنحن لا نعرف الكثير عن السمات البيئية المؤسساتية التي قد تؤثر سلباً أو إيجاباً في السعادة في العمل، وكذلك ما لو كان من الممكن للسعادة للعمل في تأثير الأداء الوظيفي للأفراد. لذلك فهناك حاجة ماسة للمزيد من البحث لاستكشاف جانب السعادة في العمل في صناعة النفط والغاز والعوامل التي يترتب عليها الشعور بالسعادة في العمل. وتأتي هذه الدراسة محاولة لسد هذه الثغرة في البحوث.

أُجري هذه البحث لدراسة تأثير سمات بيئة العمل (متطلبات و موارد العمل) على الأداء الوظيفي الفردي (أداء المهام والأداء السياقي) على أساس نظرية الموازنة بين طلبات الوظيفة ومواردها (JD-R)، و بناء على نظرية رأس المال النفسي (PsyCap) وعلى على تصور "فيشر" عن السعادة في العمل. وتفحصت هذه الدراسة الدور البيئي (Mediating role) الذي تلعبه السعادة في العمل بين متطلبات الوظيفة ومواردها و تأثيرها على الاداء الوظيفي الفردي. كما تفحصت الدراسة الدور الوسيط (Moderating role) الذي تلعبه الموارد الشخصية (أو ما يعرف برأس المال النفسي) على العلاقة بين سمات بيئة العمل والسعادة في العمل. ولقد استخدم في الدراسة مجموعة من الاستبيانات اللتي تناولت عناصر البحث لجمع البيانات. كما أجرينا مجموعة من الدراسات الاستقصائية على عينة من 409 موظفين من قطاع النفط والغاز في أبوظبي (الإمارات العربية المتحدة) حيث اختيرت العينة باستخدام نظام التعيين العشوائي التراصفي البسيط (Stratified simple random sampling). كما استخدمنا نمذجة المعادلات البنائية (SEM) في تحليل البيانات. وأكدت النتائج أن متطلبات الوظيفة ترتبط ايجابيا بالأداء الوظيفي الفردي بينما ترتبط سلبيا على الاداء الوظيفي مع الوجود البيئي للسعادة في العمل. كما ارتبطت الموارد الوظيفية ايجابيا بالأداء الوظيفي الفردي مباشرة و من خلال السعادة في

العمل. كما اوضحت نتائج الدراسة ان راس المال النفسي يلعب دور الوسيط بين متطلبات العمل و السعادة في العمل فقط بينما لا يوجد تأثير واضح لعلاقة راس المال النفسي بين موارد العمل على السعادة، وجدنا أن السعادة في العمل وسيط مهم بين طلبات الوظيفة ومواردها وبين الأداء الوظيفي الفردي. تُشير نتائج الدراسة أن تعزيز السعادة في العمل سيحسّن من الأداء الوظيفي الكلي للأفراد. كما نوقشت التبعات النظرية والتطبيقية لهذه الدراسة في سياق صناعة النفط والغاز في ابوظبي في ضوء التدخلات الممكنة للتطوير المؤسسي التي ستحسن بدورها من مستويات السعادة في العمل لتحقيق مستوي أداء وظيفي أفضل.

مفاهيم البحث الرئيسية: متطلبات الوظيفة، موارد الوظيفة، السعادة في العمل، نموذج الموازنة بين طلبات الوظيفة ومواردها (JD-R)، رأس المال النفسي (PsyCap)، الأداء الوظيفي الفردي، صناعة النفط والغاز.

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Writing this acknowledgement is a satisfying activity, as it means that my dissertation is complete. It is a moment in which to reflect on my years at the United Arab Emirates University, and think about all the people who have directly or indirectly contributed to completion of this endeavor. First and foremost, I would like to acknowledge Almighty God for giving me the strength and direction to complete this research. My sincere thanks go to my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Riyad Eid, for his continuous guidance and encouragement. I have been extremely lucky to have him as my supervisor. He has always shown great interest in my work and has provided guidance whenever needed. I would like to thank my committee for their guidance, support, and assistance throughout my preparation of this dissertation, especially all the members of the College of Business and Economics at the United Arab Emirates University for assisting me throughout my studies and research, who smoothed my path with this dissertation and the course work of my studies. I take this opportunity to thank my sister for her continuous support and encouragement throughout my Doctorate of Business Administration journey. Without her continued and unconditional support, it would have never been possible for me to take this work to fruition. Last, but not least, I would like to acknowledge my parents for their endless love and care, and for their sincere prayers, which have always given me great strength and motivation to grow personally, as well as professionally.

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this work to my country, family and friends.

You are the reason happiness matters to me. My cup overflows.

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List of Abbreviations

ACS	Affective Commitment Scale
AET	Affective Events Theory
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CMIN/DF	Chi-Square Divided by Degrees of Freedom
CMV	Common Method Variance
COR	Conservation of Resources Theory
CSE	Core Self-Evaluation
GCC	Gulf Cooperate Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HAW	Happiness at Work
HERO	Hope, Resilience, Optimism, And Self-Efficacy
HLM	Hierarchical Linear Model
IWPS	Individual Work Performance Scale
JCQ	Job Content Questionnaire
JDI	Job Descriptive Index
JD-R	Job Demands-Resources Model
JDS	Job Diagnostic Survey
JSS	Job Satisfaction Survey
MOAQ	Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire
MSQ	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
NFI	Normal Fit Index

NWWs	New Ways of Working
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OLBI	Oldenburg Burnout Inventory
OPEC	Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries
OTH	Orientations to Happiness
PCI	Psychological Capital Intervention
PCQ	Psychological Capital Questionnaire
POB	Positive Organizational Behavior
POS	Perceptions of Organizational Support
PsyCap	Psychological Capital
QEEW	Questionnaire on the Experience and Evaluation of Work
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SEM	Structured Equation Modelling
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SOC	Sense of Coherence
SWB	Subjective Well-Being
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
UWES	Utrecht Work Engagement

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Overview

Due to the significance of employees' happiness at work (HAW), scholars have carried out numerous studies on the subject. Nevertheless, the need still exists to identify the antecedents and consequences of HAW. The present study therefore investigates the link between HAW and various prediction and outcome variables. The study is expected to contribute to the literature on HAW and to help to improve the management of employees, with the ultimate goal of achieving higher levels of job performance.

The present study attempts to achieve this goal by focusing on reaching a better understanding of the effects of job demands and job resources on individual job performance through the mediating role of HAW. Furthermore, it helps to investigate the moderating role of personal resources, or psychological capital (PsyCap), in the relationship between job environment characteristics (job demands and job resources) and HAW.

1.2 Motivation of the researcher

Happiness is one of the fundamental needs of employees, and makes significant contributions to overall business performance . For this reason, positive emotions related to happiness have been widely studied by scholars (Fredrickson, 2001; Goodman, Doorley, & Kashdan, 2018; Li et al., 2018). In this regard, the government of the United Arab Emirates (UAE) has been ambitious and has pursued HAW in its official strategy toward 2020. This is because, in the current highly competitive business world, industries such as oil and gas are being required to bring out the true

potential of their employees through the creation of an internal working environment that is conducive to happiness. To ensure such an environment, however, more academic work is required so that suggestions may be made to the industry concerning various important antecedents and outcomes that may contribute to HAW. The present study is an attempt to fill this lacuna in the research.

The physical, psychological, and subjective wellbeing of employees has gained increasing attention in academic literature. In this regard, HAW has been found to have a positive impact on various individual and organizational level outcomes, including increased productivity (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Zelenski, Murphy, & Jenkins, 2008), creativity (Kamel, Martins, Pessanha, & de Andrade, 2017), and enhanced organizational citizenship behavior (Rego, Ribeiro, & Cunha, 2010; Rego, Ribeiro, e Cunha, & Jesuino, 2011). One of the main motivations behind conducting this research study stems from the personal interest of the researcher when managing a large interdisciplinary team during a difficult and challenging time. Based on exposure to work in a number of managerial roles, the researcher became anxious to engage in an action-oriented study focused on HAW. This study was born out of a particular concern that specific contextual factors may have a negative impact by decreasing employees' morale, thereby causing a deleterious effect on their wellbeing at work. As a pragmatic manager, the researcher is extremely eager to learn more and ensure that the results of this study can be used in the management of human resources.

Additionally, despite Social & Human Resources Development being a priority area of the Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030, and the observation by Lyubomirsky, King, and Diener (2005) that happiness creates success, there remains a significant

lack of research on the happiness levels of employees in the UAE's oil and gas industry, resulting in highly valuable insights being overlooked. Furthermore, amid the current downsizing of the oil and gas industry, it has become difficult for managers to retain their experienced and talented employees, and this has had a negative impact on organizations' performance. Similarly, the aftereffects of downsizing on retention of employees have been studied by Gandolfi and Hansson (2015), who admitted that the factors affecting their HAW and performance are still ambiguous, but also stated that addressing HAW may alleviate the problems of productivity loss due to stress and the costs of psychological distress triggered by downsizing. Such observations serve as the primary motivation for the present study.

1.3 Research background

As a result of globalization and technological innovations, organizations are currently faced with increasingly intense competition. They are being required to keep their strategies in step with the rapid pace of the abrupt changes that occur almost daily in today's business world – changes that may be economic, political, social, or technological. Organizations can only sustain their competitive advantage by managing their human resources and bringing out the true potential of their employees. This may be achieved by generating HAW through environments that are more conducive to positive emotions, and where employees can work enthusiastically to achieve better results that will ultimately enhance organizational performance (Tseng, 2009).

Promoting employees' positive wellbeing (PWB) can be an excellent way of stimulating individual and organizational performance. Several positive emotions that are included in the experience of PWB can broaden the scope of attention, cognition,

and action, and also build physical, intellectual, and social resources (Fredrickson, 2001). Furthermore, positive emotions can foster and enhance employees' perceptions of the meaning of their work (Wright & Cropanzano, 2004), so that they make efforts not only for financial rewards or career advancement, but also for the personal fulfilment of "doing a good job." This type of orientation can greatly enhance their performance. As Gavin and Mason (2004a) have argued, when an organization creates meaningfulness of work for its employees, the result is greater health and happiness among them; this, in turn, further increases their productivity in the long run. The study by Gavin and Mason (2004b) has further noted that health, happiness, and productivity are essential ingredients of a good society, and having employees seek productivity autonomously is a focus of every business organization. Positive emotions can also help people to thrive when confronted with adverse situations, to become more proactive and resilient, to grow less prone to stress symptoms, and to become more disposed to developing productive social connections. Consequently, the work climate improves and productivity increases. When individuals experience positive affects, they become more eager to help others who are in need (Fredrickson, 1998), and this stimulates the positive emotion of gratitude in those receiving help. These experiences of gratitude, in turn, often create the urge to reciprocate, thus amplifying the effects of the initial helpful act and reinforcing the possibility of higher performance (Cameron, Bright, & Caza, 2004).

1.4 Background of the problem

The present study contributes to the existing body of knowledge related to the field of positive workplace psychology. Despite widespread recognition of the importance of HAW, there has been a dearth of research addressing the HAW

construct (Fisher, 2010; Salas-Vallina, Alegre, & Fernandez, 2016), and limited number studies examining the relationship between it and job performance. In light of this gap in the literature, the link between HAW and job performance was taken up as the topic of the present study in accordance with previous research that has suggested the role that HAW plays in achieving positive outcomes at the organizational level (da Camara, Hillenbrand, & Money, 2009). Such studies, however, have paid insufficient attention to the connection between HAW and individual job performance. Similarly, a number of studies have tested HAW as a mediating variable, but its effects on job environment characteristics and individual job performance have yet to be tested (Pradhan, Hati, & Kumar, 2017). Also, there is scant research in which HAW has been tested as a multidimensional construct together with task or contextual performance (Edgar, Geare, & Zhang, 2017). It is clear that, in order for organizations to achieve more productive workplaces, increased emphasis on HAW is necessary (Layard, 2018; McGonagle, 2015).

In recent years, economic productivity has, to a large extent, been achieved at the cost of employees' health and happiness. It is obvious that the growing trend toward obsession with productivity and its concomitant dysfunctional effects on employees needs to be changed. In spite of this, sufficient empirical research has yet to be conducted to investigate the relationship between HAW and performance, and how to make improvements. This study provides practitioners with possible routes to take that would favor a happier and more productive workforce, particularly in light of the current situation in which most employees around the world are unhappy with their jobs (Adams, 2013). One of the possible reasons for this may be that organizations are unable to provide work environments for employees that are conducive to their happiness.

Furthermore, there is little scholarly consensus about which antecedents (job demands and job resources) affect HAW and to what degree (Diener et al., 2017; Renee Baptiste, 2008). Despite the recognition of HAW as an important issue, there remains a paucity of research examining the ways in which HAW can be better informed by the job demands-resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). The importance of understanding the antecedents of HAW in an organizational setting cannot be denied, yet few efforts have been made to integrate the JD-R model with actual practice in HAW studies. Human resource management (HRM) practitioners could benefit from looking beyond commitment and job satisfaction to gain a better understanding of which job environment characteristics (job demands and job resources) have an influence on HAW.

It can easily be observed that the term “happiness” is used quite loosely in the human resource management literature, and studies have mainly focused on the wellbeing of employees, rather than their happiness, and neglected their individual needs and desires. “Happiness” is a term used in a variety of ways across the fields of both philosophy and psychology, and thus terminological gaps inevitably occur in the HRM literature. Warr (2013) has stated that HAW studies often focus mainly on features of the environment, such as aspects of jobs and organizations, and very little attention is paid to the experiences of individuals. In order to better understand HAW, the experiences of employees should be examined along with aspects of job environment characteristics. Moreover, it is also important to observe the phenomenon of HAW through parallel examination of the factors that enhance or hinder it. In terms of theory, academic studies have observed the relationships between job demands and job resources and HAW; however, to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, these relationships have yet to be empirically tested.

The constructs of job satisfaction and wellbeing have, in contrast to HAW, been frequent subjects of academic studies (Fisher, 2010; Thin, 2012). HAW, as a construct distinct from job satisfaction and commitment, should also be comprehensively examined, particularly in light of the highly limited research that has been conducted in this regard. It is particularly surprising that so little research on this subject can be found within the field of organizational psychology (Judge & Klinger, 2008). While conceptualizations of HAW show some overlap with job engagement and other established employee attitudes, its discriminant validity necessitates further studies to confirm existing research. In addition, as indicated by Gruman and Saks (2011), it is inevitable that overlaps will be encountered among moderately correlated concepts, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, but this does not necessarily imply that those constructs are not distinct.

One potential contribution of this study thus lies in its establishment of the discriminant validity of job engagement, job satisfaction, and affective organizational commitment. In this way, HAW can be viewed as a multidimensional construct observable through distinct sub-dimensional constructs, which, in addition to their distinctive features, also demonstrate significant conceptual, definitional, and measurement overlaps (Rodríguez-Muñoz & Sanz-Vergel, 2013). What these constructs have in common is sharing the aspects of pleasant judgments (positive attitudes) or positive experiences such as enjoyable feelings, emotions, states of flow at work and positive moods (Fisher, 2010; Garrosa, Moreno-Jimenez, Rodriguez-Munoz, & Rodriguez-Carvajal, 2011; Rodríguez-Muñoz & Sanz-Vergel, 2013). It has been debated that job engagement, job satisfaction, and affective organizational commitment may not be distinct as constructs due to their frequent overlaps with each other. Such discussions have raised concerns about their conceptual and empirical

proximity (Herrbach, 2006). In order to discriminate among these constructs, several themes can be extracted using, for example, the circumplex model of affect¹ Russell (1980). This model provides clear distinctions to show how different emotions possess various measures of activation and pleasantness (Larsen & Diener, 1992). Fisher (2010) has concluded that HAW measurement requires more research, and has suggested that affective organizational commitment, engagement, and job satisfaction “should capture much of the variance in person-levels in organizations.” Similarly, a previous study by Wright and Cropanzano (2004) has confirmed that the relationship between happiness and productivity grows stronger when happiness is operationalized more broadly than job satisfaction.

The UAE oil and gas industry – the setting of the present study – plays a key role in the country’s economic development and makes major contributions to its gross domestic product (GDP). Even so, the sector is not immune to challenges, which include production losses that increase labor and utility costs, as well as organizational downsizing that threatens its sustainability and profitability. The industry is thus being required to regain competitiveness by optimizing its human resources, which are the most valuable assets of any organization (Salas, Tannenbaum, Kraiger, & Smith-Jentsch, 2012). This can be better achieved by considering HAW in the industry’s organizations. So far, there has been a minimal amount of research with regard to the psychological aspects of employees working in the UAE oil and gas industry. Due to

¹ The circumplex model of affect postulates that emotions as psychological events are constructed with basic affective mechanisms relating to feelings of a pleasant or unpleasant continuum (valence dimension) and energized (arousal/activation dimension) continuum. These two mechanisms are assumed to be circular. So, each emotion can be understood as a combination of both dimensions with varying degrees of both pleasure and activation (Posner, Russell, & Peterson, 2005; Russell, 1980; Warr, 2011).

the significance of this sector in the UAE's economy, it is worthwhile examining the present study's proposed model to reveal the effects of job demands and job resources on employees' job performance through HAW.

There is less understanding, however, of the linkage between happiness and individual levels of performance (Sathyanarayana, Gargesha, & Bellave, 2013). Employees perceive work environment characteristics based on their level of PsyCap (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007). Furthermore, Youssef and Luthans (2007, p. 783) have argued that work happiness is "related to the perception, emotional interpretation, and cognitive processing of events and situations rather than to actual conditions and happenstances." In relation to this, Segerstrom, Carver, and Scheier (2017) have suggested that resilient and optimistic individuals perceive job demands as challenges, rather than threats. Moreover, the qualitative study of positive psychology and career development by Robertson (2017) has revealed that the personal contextual meaning of work experiences should not be ignored. Personal-level resources and implicit attitudes can thus be considered proximal indicators in the greater sphere of the happiness–performance relationship. It is therefore crucial in the present study to investigate employee happiness at the individual level and examine its relative impact on individual job performance.

To the researcher's best knowledge, a gap in the literature that cries out for further research to verify the relationship between HAW and individual job performance. The study is particularly significant because no such study has been conducted in the context of the Middle East or GCC countries. The few studies that have discussed this topic in the context of the UAE provide neither empirical insights

nor primary data collected from local organizations. This literature review thus aims to lay the theoretical foundations for research on job characteristics and their relationship with HAW, and determine the effect of HAW on individual job performance within the context of oil and gas industry in Abu Dhabi, UAE.

The present study is especially significant in that it empirically confirms the relationship between job environment characteristics (job demands and job resources) with individual job performance through the mediating role of HAW within the context of the UAE. The study is also helpful in drawing conclusions about the determinants of HAW in the UAE's oil and gas industry. Moreover, it may be of assistance in contributing to a rigorous evaluation of current workforce practices, in addition to offering suggestions to the UAE's government on setting policies to ensure higher levels of employee happiness and job performance in the government, semi-government, and private sectors.

Hence, the research problem has provided the foundation for research questions aiming to capture what leads to HAW and how is HAW translated into individual job performance, taking into consideration the effect of personal predisposition. It is attempted to answer the below questions:

1. To what extent do job resources, job demands, and personal resources influence HAW and individual job performance?

The subsidiary questions investigated are:

1. How do job demands, job resources, and personal resources (PsyCap) relate to HAW?
2. How do job demands and job resources relate to individual job performance?

3. How does HAW relate to individual job performance (task and contextual performance)?
4. What practical lessons can this study provide to support the UAE government's policies that aim to enhance employee's HAW and individual job performance?

1.5 Oil and gas industry context in the UAE

The oil and gas industry of the UAE plays a vigorous role in the economic growth of the country. It has been observed to be a dynamic and volatile industry that contributes up to US\$60 billion to the total annual revenue of the UAE and accounts for 36.4% of its total GDP (Fund, 2017). Recently, the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) ranked the UAE as one of the leading oil and gas producing countries of the world, as it holds 8.1% of in the world's total crude oil reserves, from which 2.9 million barrels per day are exported. Furthermore, the UAE government has consistently focused on increasing the production rate as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Total Crude Oil Production of the UAE

Year	Production rate (million barrels/day)
1991	2,320
1993	2,260
2000	2,289
2005	2,400
2017	2, 874
2018	2,864

Source: OPEC (2018)

Moreover, this sector affords up to 55,000 workers with employment opportunities; this is further evidence of its significance, which is driven by modern imported technology and equipment that demand technical expertise to perform their operations. In addition, due to the industry's challenging work environment – characterized by extremely advanced technologies, and the high degree of technical expertise involved – the risk of accidents makes the health and safety of workers a high priority (Vederhus, Ødegård, Nistad, & Håvold, 2018). According to Harhara, Singh, and Hussain (2015), A distinctive characteristic for organizations operating in the oil and gas industry is that some of the oil fields are in remote areas, a significant number of oil and gas employees are based in these locations. These remote areas for both for onshore and offshore fields are far-flung rural areas, and the accommodation facilities associated with these locations differs from blocks or rigs.

As a result of the UAE oil and gas industry's highly competitive environment, managers always strive to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage by managing and bringing out the true potential of their employees. At present, organizations are becoming more concerned about inculcating a healthy work environment driven by the need to achieve the physiological and psychological wellbeing of their employees. While organizations must acquire modern technology and equipment along with talented workers for better output, it is certainly desirable for them to concentrate on job environment characteristics, including job demands and job resources. The reason for this is that the job environment, which is the sum of actions, forces, and other effectual aspects, is potentially draining for employees while performing their work.

Thus, managers need to develop a job environment that is conducive to generating positive emotions in the work context. In a regional study conducted by

Jones and Punshi (2013) across the Arab states with a sample size of 4,600 individuals, however, it was found that UAE nationals (aged 25 to 34) were the least engaged employees in their jobs among the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) states. Similarly, another study found that the oil and gas industry of the UAE faces high turnover rates (Harhara et al. (2015). Thus, a look at the bigger picture reveals that the UAE's oil and gas industry must nurture its human resources to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage. It is essential to retain workers, particularly due to the fact that the UAE's energy sector is currently undergoing a radical diversification of its energy mix and transitioning from a dependence on oil and gas toward embracing cleaner, renewable energies. Furthermore, the UAE government has been attempting to position the country as an international leader in the fields of tourism and financial services (Al-Suwaidi, 2011).

The precipitous fall in crude oil prices by as much as 60% (a decrease in price from US\$114 per barrel to US\$26 per barrel) from 2014 to 2016 (Vandyck et al., 2018) marked the beginning of a tremendous challenge for this industry, and represents only the most recent example of major changes occurring in the UAE oil and gas industry by dramatically illustrating the uncertainty of the market (Burns, McLinn, & Porter, 2016). The approximately 60% decrease in crude oil prices had a profound effect on all chemical and hydrocarbon industries, and contemporary literature has dubbed this massive oil price decline as an "oil price shock" (Vandyck et al., 2018; Wong & El Massah, 2018) (see Figure 1.1).

Consequently, some of the leaders of the oil and gas industry have implemented cost-cutting strategies through employee downsizing or rightsizing in order to survive and remain a part of the industry. However, this has had

undesired harmful effect on the overall performance of employees and organizations (Neves, 2014). More experienced and talented workers voluntarily move to other organizations due to high levels of job insecurity (Kraemer, Gouthier, & Heidenreich, 2017; Nwoye, 2017), and the employees that remain a part of such organizations lose their motivation and morale drops, resulting in lower levels of performance (Schiro & Baker, 2009; Ugwuanyi & Ibe, 2012). Thus, the sudden shifts in the industry necessitate more effective management of employees. The present study can contribute to achievement of this goal by considering job environment factors that can increase HAW and thus lead to an environment more conducive to happiness and better results for the industry.



Figure 1.1: Brent Crude Oil Prices: 10-year Daily Chart
Source: Macrotrends (2018). Price data point: 24 August 2018

1.6 HAW literature in the context of the UAE

The abrupt decrease in crude oil prices experienced between 2014 and 2016 significantly affected the UAE's economy. Now, the government has shifted its strategic direction to focus more on other industries in a plan to position the UAE as an international finance and trading center in the contemporary globalized world. The region has so far established an ultra-modern image with luxury hotels, resorts, and high-profile sports events. Moreover, the UAE has developed a modern and efficient infrastructure system with road networks, bridges, large international airports, and harbors. This strong infrastructure, together with a flexible tax system, has made the UAE more attractive for direct foreign investment. In particular, the oil and gas industry is maintaining its commitment to proceed with new projects, in which the UAE has invested more than US\$81 billion since 2009 (Parry, Davidson, Clark, & Guilford, 2006; Salisbury & Mirza, 2010). As described by Harhara et al. (2015), this has become possible due, in part, to the UAE's investment in human capital on the one hand, and its belief in promoting happiness among employees and citizens on the other, resulting in a more productive and successful society. UAE government policymakers recognize and understand that happiness is a valuable and tangible aspect of the community for which they are responsible, and they therefore include happiness issues in their agendas for the economy, politics, sustainability, and society (Senasu & Singhapakdi, 2017).

In relation to this, the UAE established its Happiness Ministry in 2016. The Ministry's goal, which falls under the government's vision, is to include the UAE among the top five happiest countries in the world by 2021. Hence, in order to achieve this ambitious goal, it is necessary to attain highly competitive human capital within

the country. As such, more emphasis is being placed on enhancing the operational effectiveness of various government bodies with a focus on human resources in the workplace. A focus on the determinants of work happiness may therefore help both organizations and government entities to create and enhance a work environment that is conducive to HAW and improved performance.

By conducting empirical research at the doctoral level within the context of the UAE, it is expected that the country will become better situated within the global literature on happiness and job performance. The present study thus aims to make valuable contributions by examining the role of job characteristics in determining HAW, and to examine the effects of HAW on individual job performance. Through the examination of HAW within the context of the UAE's oil and gas sector, the proposed research model is also expected to develop an in-depth understanding of the factors driving HAW within the specific organizational-industrial context of the UAE. This study can therefore make both theoretical and practical contributions to the government, particularly to the oil and gas industry, which have the intention of growing and enhancing the employee's performance in the UAE. Additionally, the research findings may provide useful policy recommendations to guide the continuous efforts of the UAE government to create happier citizens and employees who will ultimately increase the job performance of the country.

The interest in happiness has also extended to the workplace experience (Fisher, 2010). This is a matter of great concern, particularly given the large amount of time spent by individuals at work (Drakopoulos & Grimani, 2017; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Ramlall, 2008; Russell, 2008; Simone, 2014; Tasnim, 2016). On a daily basis, employees generally spend one-third of their time at work (Simone, 2014).

Hence, happiness in life is largely dependent on employees' HAW (Tasnim, 2016). HAW has gained high attention in the field of organizational behavior and occupational health as a result of increased demands for productivity, economic uncertainty, the need for cost-efficient strategies, and increased competition (Daud, 2017; Perko, 2017). Recently, HAW has been viewed by a number of scholars and senior executives as a primary source of positive outcomes that benefit organizations as well as employees (Salas-Vallina et al., 2016).

1.7 Significance of the study

The importance of studying HAW stems from four significant findings. First, HAW has been associated with increased effective performance, higher job satisfaction, greater affective commitment, lower absenteeism, and, ultimately, increased organizational citizenship (Fisher, 2010; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Van De Voorde, Paauwe, & Van Veldhoven, 2012). Second, organizational interest in HAW has also been driven by ethical motives, since HAW may provide a more human-oriented perspective on employee management, since it entails the principle that employees deserve to work in a pleasant environment that allows their psychological and physical states to be respected and maximized (Salas-Vallina et al., 2016). Third, studies have shown that employee unhappiness translates into negative outcomes, such as increased withdrawal behavior among employees, rising costs, decreased profits, and customer dissatisfaction (Alias, Mohd Rasdi, Ismail, & Abu Samah, 2013). Fourth, happy employees are more energetic, goal-oriented, resilient, interested in their work, willing to help others, and persistent in facing challenges compared with unhappy workers (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011).

Due to the recent upsurge in happiness studies, the conception of happiness has shifted from rhetorical declarations to quantitative processes (Yang, Zhu, & Zhang, 2017). Philosophical perspectives on happiness have not translated well into scientific studies and thus have not gained much traction in terms of a cumulative empirical base (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Lyubomirsky (2019) stated, that most of happiness books and writings on the eighties were based mainly on subjective opinions that were relatively uninformed by empirical data. It has only been in recent years that scholars have begun systematic and scientific research in the field of happiness (Diener & Seligman, 2004; Guidi, 2007; Kashdan, Biswas-Diener, & King, 2008). Persistent HAW has been found to bring about considerable benefits for employees, and scholars have recognized the worth of employees' positive emotions, since HAW generates high levels of motivation among workers leading to their better performance (Bao & Lyubomirsky, 2013; Benz & Frey, 2004; Hosie & Sevastos, 2010; Saenghiran, 2013). Thus, it may be argued that the pursuit of happiness among organizations' employees is a highly worthwhile endeavor that can be expected to bear fruitful results not only for individuals, but also for organizations.

It has been found that happy employees are more engaged and go the extra mile to achieve organizational success (Claypool, 2017; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Fryer, 2004; Ramlall, 2008). According to the Fredrickson (2001) broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions, positive emotions such as happiness have an upward spiral effect by widening individuals' thought-action repertoires and promoting individual resilience as a coping strategy. This, in turn, motivates learning and growth, and builds greater personal resources, ranging from social and psychological resources to physical and intellectual ones.

1.8 General research objectives

The present study aims to examine the proposed impact of job environment characteristics (job demands and job resources) on individual job performance (task and contextual performance) through the mediating role of HAW. It is also proposed that, in the UAE oil and gas industry, personal resources (PsyCap) will moderate the relationship between (1) job demands and HAW, and (2) job resources and HAW.

1.8.1 Specific research objectives

The aims of this paper are:

1. To study the impact of job demands and job resources on HAW;
2. To investigate the impact of job demands and job resources on individual job performance;
3. To examine the impact of HAW on individual job performance;
4. To analyze whether HAW mediates between job demands, job resources, and individual job performance;
5. To examine whether personal resources (PsyCap) moderates the relationship between job demands, job resources, and HAW.

1.9 Chapter summary

HAW is deemed as the next frontier to be conquered; HAW can leverage on organizations' capacity to achieve organizational excellence due to HAW ensuring a higher level of job performance from employees. Results indicate that happiness directly affects the performance of employees. It confirms that the happier the employees are, the higher the likelihood that they will perform better. Results are useful to the UAE government for developing and implementing policies about the

happiness of workers, organizations, and the country. The study investigates the impact of job characteristics on HAW using a sample of 409 employees in the oil and gas industry in Abu Dhabi, UAE. The researcher used quantitative methodology to analyze the collected data. Moreover, the contribution in the literature is two-fold. First, to the best knowledge of this researcher, this is first study to explore HAW in the oil and gas industry in the UAE. Second, this study is novel, in that scant number of studies has been conducted to test the relationship between HAW and job performance at the individual level.

The research findings indicate that job demands (job overload, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, and job insecurity) have a negative impact on HAW (job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and job engagement) which reduces HAW to a considerable extent. The results also reveal that job resources (job autonomy, performance feedback, supervisory support, financial rewards, and opportunity for development) have a positive impact on HAW. Moreover, it has been found that HAW is positively related to individual job performance (including both task performance and contextual performance). Additionally, the results of the study confirm the mediating role of HAW between job demands and individual job performance, as well as between job resources and individual job performance. The findings also indicate that personal resources (PsyCap) show a significant moderation relationship between job demands and HAW such that the lower the level of PsyCap, the higher is the negative relationship of job demands on HAW. However, personal resources (PsyCap) shows non-significant moderation relationship between job resources and HAW, which means that, in this specific context, personal resources neither strengthen nor weaken the relationship job resources and HAW.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Overview

The literature review for the present study is organized as follows. First, given the complexity of the concept of happiness, the review begins by surveying the multitudinous definitions of the word “happiness” from philosophical, psychological, economic, and sociological perspectives. It is essential to highlight the definitions of happiness as viewed through these lenses in order to appreciate the elasticity of the concept, and this review of the meaning of happiness will be significant when analyzing data from the field and attempting to understand what happiness means for the employees surveyed in the present research. Second, the review provides a more focused definition of happiness as it relates to performance at work and examines the operationalization of HAW. The present study seeks to explain the correlations between these two constructs, and thus they are surveyed and key ideas are summarized to provide information on how the happiness of employees can be reflected in their performance at work. Then, the literature review moves on to more closely examine the determinants of HAW by utilizing the JD-R model of Bakker and Demerouti (2008) while also considering PsyCap as a personal psychological resource. These topics are significant because it is their theoretical analysis that has led to the construction of the integrative theoretical model on which the present research is based.

2.2 Happiness

The word “happiness” can be used in numerous ways. In its widest sense, it is a blanket term for all that is good (Veenhoven, 2010). In this definition, it is frequently used interchangeably with terms such as “organizational wellbeing,” “subjective

wellbeing,” “quality of life,” “utility,” or “welfare” (Barbosa, 2017; Lyubomirsky & Tucker, 1998; Veenhoven, 2014). Based on this classification, happiness can be defined as the feelings and beliefs held by a person based on their individual experiences in life. Thus, feelings and beliefs can be viewed as “components” of happiness. Diener (1984) has defined happiness as an ongoing state of psychological wellness encompassing both cognitive judgments and affective reactions. Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, and Schkade (2005), meanwhile, have claimed that happiness can be thought of as frequent positive feeling, infrequent negative feeling, and subjective wellbeing.

Furthermore, Vázquez (2013, p. 104) has stated that “the principle meaning of the word happiness is not empirical, but a normative one.” Indeed, happiness is a complex and multidimensional construct that has been investigated through various conceptual and theoretical lenses (Grant, Christianson, & Price, 2007; Paliwal & Singh, 2017; Sanchez-Sanchez, 2017; Spsychala, 2009). However, after many decades of debating the meaning of happiness, the question of how to define it remains problematic, and any conclusive definition has yet to be reached. Happiness still means different things to different people, and this is the result of the diversity of disciplines and contexts in which such semantic debates take place, which include philosophy, psychology, economics, and sociology. It is thus nearly impossible to find a clear and coherent definition of the word “happiness.” This is also partially due to the instabilities and fluctuations of emotions over the course of life events, as well as the complexity of individual differences in perceiving and interpreting happiness (Fisher, 2010; Lyubomirsky & Tucker, 1998; McGillivray & Clarke, 2006; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, & Ilies, 2012; Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

2.2.1 Happiness from a philosophical perspective

Research on happiness has become increasingly prevalent in recent decades. Historically, its roots can be traced back to roughly 2,500 years ago, beginning with the various Chinese schools of Confucianism and, later, Buddhism (imported from India). Such philosophies placed great emphasis on the quality of social relations and interpersonal virtues (Joshnloo, 2014), arguing that happiness is a reflection of a positive attitude toward knowledge, learning, and responsibility (Ballas & Dorling, 2013). A few centuries later, the “Golden Age of Greece” brought philosophy to the forefront of the Western world, when the philosopher Aristotle saw the ultimate goal of human actions is achieving happiness (Sutherland & Cooper, 1996; Wright & Cropanzano, 2004), and defined happiness as “the duty to do what helps us achieve self-fulfillment” (Salas-Vallina, López-Cabrales, Alegre, & Fernández, 2017, p. 316).

A relatively more recent wave of conjecture about happiness in the discourse of philosophy arose during the Hellenistic period, during this period, the philosophy of Epicurus rose as a response to an increasing authoritarianism and the decline of commitment to civic and political activities, which was followed by an growing sense of insecurity and lack of significance at the personal level (Guidi, 2007). The advocates of Epicureanism argued that the goal of life is to seek pleasure, enjoy friends, and avoid pain (Ballas & Dorling, 2013). From the eleventh to thirteenth centuries, Al-Farabi, Abu Hamid Al-Ghazali, and Thomas Aquinas joined the pantheon of well-known thinkers who tackled the subject of happiness in their philosophical pursuits, attempting to offer a comprehensive explanation of the meaning of happiness from both philosophical and religious points of view (Ballas &

Dorling, 2013; Hamed, 2013; Ogonowski, 2017; Oishi, Graham, Kesebir, & Galinha, 2013).

More recently, Diener (1984) has argued that happiness revolves around three defining phenomena. First, from the Hedonic perspective, Diener (1984) explains that happiness constitutes a type of judgment of the positive and negative aspects of an individual's life. Second, happiness involves both the presence of positive emotions and the absence of negative emotions (McGonagle, 2015; Michalos, 1985; Schimmack, 2008; Warr, 1990). Third, happiness is a global judgment, as it generalizes that one's life is going well overall. For the most part, it is accepted that happiness refers to both a global and subjective judgment that an individual is experiencing a proper level of positive emotion and relatively little negative emotion (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001; Keser, 2016; Slåtten, 2011).

2.2.2 Happiness from a psychological perspective

The predominant psychological literature defines happiness in its relation to an individual's mental state of feeling happy (Suojanen, 2012; Veenhoven, 2009). With regard to work, there is a wide range of evidence that employee happiness can have a direct effect on employee health, and happy individuals have also been shown to experience greater longevity (Allen & McCarthy, 2016; Argyle, 1997; Bao & Lyubomirsky, 2013; Deeg & van Zonneveld, 1989; Diener & Chan, 2011; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Salas-Vallina et al., 2017). For example, Deeg and van Zonneveld (1989) discovered evidence that happy individuals live longer under all univariate and multivariate models when controlling for related satisfaction variables. The authors concluded that: (1) the studied satisfaction variables accounted for between 1.4% and 8.1% of the variance in survival rate, and (2) 70-year-old males

with average health lived 20 months longer if they were one standard deviation above the happiness median, with the effect being relatively weaker for women than for men. Research has also demonstrated that negative emotions are deeply intertwined with poor health conditions, distress, unhappiness, and decreased survival rate (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Naughton et al., 2002).

This field of humanistic psychology evolved as a variation of positive psychology and arose from the conceptualization that good functioning is fundamental to obtaining a good life (Veenhoven, 1996). Since the 1950s, happiness has been systematically studied from the perspective of humanistic psychology. For instance, Abraham Maslow explored the field of human psychology and developed theories about motivation, happiness, optimism, and human needs that explain the necessity of gratification and how it plays a vital role in the production of positive emotions such as happiness, joy, delight, and contentment (Maslow, 1954). The incorporation of Maslow's hierarchy of needs² into happiness studies reveals that happiness can be viewed on the basis of two main theories: need theory, and motivation theory. First, human need theory emphasizes the importance of satisfying a hierarchy of basic needs such as safety, esteem, and self-actualization (Maslow, 1954). While all are fundamental to pursuing happiness, satisfaction of higher needs such as self-actualization and esteem is crucial for true happiness. Maslow also introduced motivation theory, which paved the way for studies of wellbeing (Simone, 2014) by attempting to understand the rationales behind individual behavior and the processes that lead to such behavior. Both theories indicate the significance of considering

² Maslow's hierarchy of needs, also known as the theory of motivation. Maslow and Lewis (1987) states in his hierarchy of needs that there are at least five sets of goals, which are called the "basic needs": physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization.

individuals' needs and understanding what motivates them to feel good in order to create an environment in which they can better function (De Neve, Diener, Tay, & Xuereb, 2013).

Bakker, Daniels, Bakker, and Daniels (2012) have claimed that, in parallel with the rise of positive psychology during the late 1990s, there has been a steadily increasing interest in the positive side of employees' organizational experience. This orientation has drawn attention to positive phenomena such as work-related flow, employee engagement, employee wellbeing, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and positive affective experience at work. In this regard, the field of positive organizational behavior (POB) departs from the more revolutionary approach of positive psychology (Fisher, 2010). POB is defined as "the study and implementation of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace" (Luthans, 2002, p. 59). The very essence of positive organizational psychology can be found in the belief that happiness leads to many positive states within the workplace. Thus, it is thought that the study of positive organizational psychology will lead to a better understanding of what drives and stimulates employees to reach their full potential at work and allows them to flourish (da Camara et al., 2009).

2.2.3 Happiness from an economic perspective

In the literature on economics, happiness is strongly linked with the concept of procedural utility, which entails the idea that people not only value instrumental outcomes, as is the usual interpretation in traditional economics, but also have preferences for the processes and conditions driving such outcomes (Frey & Stutzer,

2005). Easterlin (1974) was the among first economists to make prominent utilization of happiness data when he claimed that, despite increases in individual income over time, people were not reporting an increasing level of happiness. With the empirical evidence, known as the “Easterlin Paradox,” Frey and Stutzer (2018) have claimed that considering happiness within the economic sphere does not act in isolation, factors such as unemployment, inflation, and income do affect happiness levels. Taking this into account, the study of happiness and its relative measurement represents a great advance for economics, in that it provides insights into economic decision-making and direct policy interventions. Interpreting happiness measures can also result in vital indicators of individuals’ quality of life and welfare.

2.2.4 Happiness from a sociological perspective

It is clear that individuals value happiness differently, and thus it is neither a static confirmable experience nor a truly knowable fact (Suojanen, 2012). For some, happiness means adventure, while others value a peaceful life and constant joyfulness. As individuals grow older, they tend to believe that happiness is a peaceful, calming, and relaxing feeling, whereas younger people frequently associate happiness with excitement, thrills, and energy (Suojanen, 2012). Moreover, the concept of HAW may differ extremely from one employee to the next, since the meaning of work can vary depending on the viewpoints of different generations, and such gaps are expected only to grow in the future (Holbeche & Springett, 2004; Twenge, 2010). Individuals may also have very personal frameworks for measuring their experiences of happiness. However, from a progressive point of view, such frameworks can be expected to show relatively little variation across individuals because, for example, experienced pain has a common scope, and thus happiness can be expected to as well (Suojanen, 2013).

2.2.5 The various perspectives on happiness

As revealed in the paragraphs above, the domains of philosophy, psychology, economics, and sociology each offer vastly different perspectives and analytical approaches regarding the concept of happiness. Philosophers tend to operate at a high level of abstraction and interpret happiness as a concept that underpins human existence, while psychologists and economists offer varying definitions of happiness, with the former seeking to understand the feelings of happiness and the latter focusing on knowing what people value (Suojanen, 2013). It is clear, however, that positive experiences can advance one's personal capacity to act effectively, achieve high performance levels, and realize one's full potential.

2.3 The job demands-resources (JD-R) model

Among the theoretical models that allow an understanding of the various aspects affecting HAW, the JD-R framework³ (Demerouti et al., 2001) has gained increasing support among researchers in occupational health and organizational psychology. According to the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), which is based on theories of job design and job stress, work environment characteristics can be classified into two general categories: (1) job demands (e.g., high workload and job ambiguity); and (2) job resources (e.g., supervisory feedback and job autonomy). This is the first assumption of the JD-R model. Put differently, the core assumption of the JD-R model postulates that all job characteristics can be categorized as either job demands or job resources in any kind of working environment (Bakker, Demerouti, &

³ In the context of the current study, the terms JD-R model, JD-R theory, and JD-R framework are used interchangeably to indicate the job demands-resources model (JD-R) throughout the study.

Sanz-Vergel, 2014). Contrary to other models, the JD-R model allows the inclusion of many possible working conditions, depending on the specific working context (Kool, Feijen-de Jong, Schellevis, & Jaarsma, 2019). This flexibility makes the JD-R model applicable for use in different work contexts and among various types of occupations.

After a series of conceptual revisions, Schaufeli and Taris (2014) proposed the second assumption of the JD-R model which postulate that job demands and job resources trigger two relatively independent psychological processes : a health-impairment process, and a motivational process (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007) (see Figure 2.1). On the one hand, the health-impairment process of job demands is the most important predictors of the development job strain (burnout), reducing employee's engagement and depleted employee energy levels. The long-term effects of such factors can include adverse outcomes such as emotional exhaustion, mood disorders (e.g., depression), physical problems (e.g., fatigue, musculoskeletal, or cardiovascular issues), and health problems (Bakker et al., 2014; Pérez-Fuentes et al., 2019). On the other hand, the motivational process assumes that job resources have motivational potential and lead to high well-being (engagement) and positive outcome (performance) (Bakker et al., 2007). Thus, the JD-R's dual-process orientation offers a way in which to include both strain outcomes and positive psychological outcomes into a single framework.

A further assumption of the JD-R model is that, although the processes are relatively independent, the JD-R model posits that job resources may interact with job demands to affect levels of burnout (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005). This interaction effects were not explicitly included in the JD-R traditional rendition of the model. In this sense, job resources reduce and buffer the effects of job demands and

their associated physiological and psychological costs (Bakker et al., 2007). A review of the JD-R model research indicates that workload and emotional demands are common types of job demands, and that supervisor support is the most common job resource (Bakker, Hetland, Olsen, & Espevik, 2018; Le Blanc, Demerouti, Bakker, Fraccaroli, & Sverke, 2017).

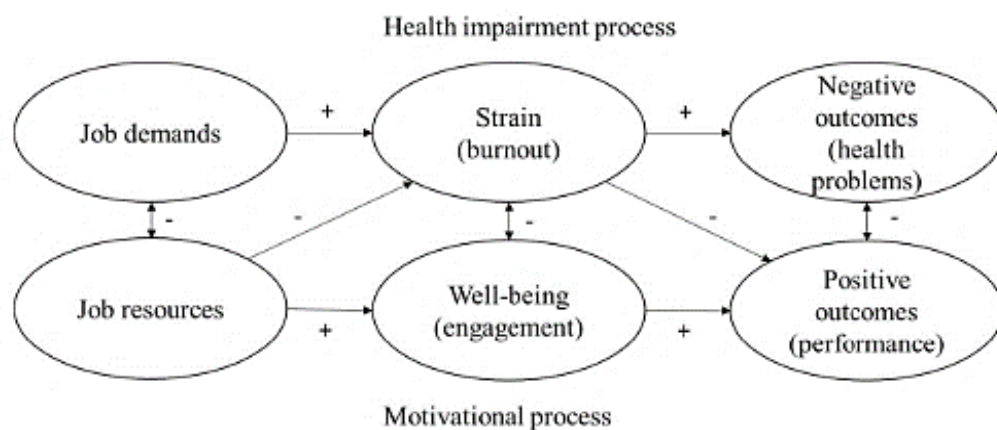


Figure 2.1: The Dual Process Model
 Source: Schaufeli and Taris (2014)

The above figure of the JD-R postulates a positive connection between job demands and job strain, explaining it using the health impairment process whereas job resources are primarily related to well-being and engagement. A series of cross-sectional studies and longitudinal studies were produced to shape the JD-R model and its underlying components. The studies' findings concluded that high demands-low resources condition should result in high strain and low well-being while the low demands-high resources condition may lead to low strain and high level of well-being (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

Job demands are defined as “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort or skills and are therefore associated with certain

physiological and/or psychological costs” (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, p. 312). This implies that there are aspects of a job that can be associated with certain costs and require consistent efforts to address (Demerouti, Bakker, & Fried, 2012). Job resources, meanwhile, are defined as the aspects of a job that have the motivational potential to encourage job engagement and high performance levels through achievement of work goals (i.e., extrinsic motivational role) or through stimulation of individual growth, learning, and development (i.e., intrinsic motivational role) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

As mentioned, the two main aspects of job demands and job resources each triggers independent processes. For example, job demands produce an energetic process that can result in burnout and exhaustion due to depletion of energy (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), and can result in a health-impairment process that exhausts employees’ resources and can causes health problems (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). As such, job demands require individual effort and consume energy resources (Bakker, 2014, p. 1389). Employees strive to handle job demands by exerting energy resources, but continuous exposure to job demands will wear down individuals’ energy reserves, resulting in exhaustion and burnout (Van den Broeck, Van Ruysseveldt, Vanbelle, & De Witte, 2013).

Job resources, meanwhile, induce a psychological motivational process that encourages employees to engage in tasks and roles, which then leads to job engagement (Schaufeli, 2015) and commitment (Bakker & van Woerkom, 2017). This mechanism can be explained through a motivational process in which adding resources to an individual’s current total resources can facilitate goal attainment, satisfy basic psychological needs for autonomy and competence, and enhance self-efficacy

(Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). When such states are attained, the individual will be motivated to engage in their work and workplace.

The JD-R theory also goes one step further, as it suggests that job resources particularly influence motivation and job engagement when job demands are high. Job autonomy, skill variety, and performance feedback as job resources thus become distinctly important when job demands are very challenging. This idea is consistent with the notion from Hobfoll and Shirom (2001) that all types of tangible or psychological resources gain importance and become singularly useful when needed. In other words, job resources can serve as a “buffer” when dealing with job demands (Demerouti et al., 2001). Especially when employees are confronted with a high workload and emotionally demanding tasks, they are able to use their available job resources to deal consistently with those job demands. Figure 2.2 depicts this version of the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001).

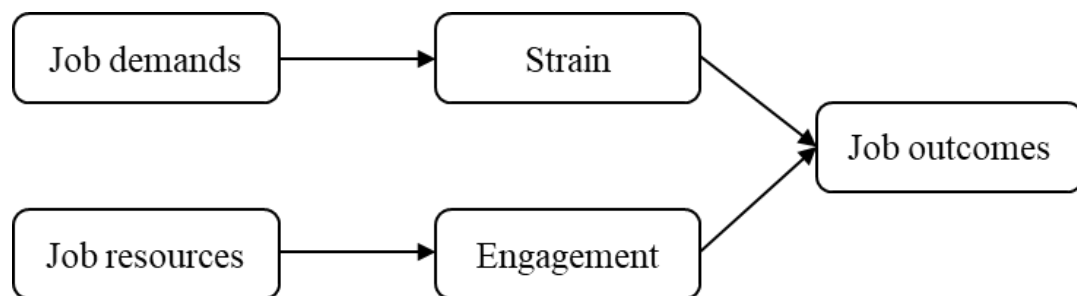


Figure 2.2: The JD-R Model
 Source: Demerouti et al. (2001)

The present study adopted the JD-R model with the aim of gaining a deeper understanding of the influence and specific roles of job resources and demands on HAW and individual job performance in the UAE oil and gas industry at Abu Dhabi. As such, the study is interested in the direct relationships among job environment characteristics: job demands and job resources, in terms of their direct and indirect

effects on and individual job performance and HAW in a sample of oil and gas employees. Table 2.1 presents a selection of studies that have indicated the utilization of JD-R theory as a central framework for their research.

Table 2.1: Review of JD-R Model Research

Author(s)	Job demands	Job resources	Personal resources	Outcomes	Context	Sample	Statistical tool
Welleman (2018)	N/A	Organizational support, career advancement opportunities	N/A	Turnover intention	Multinational company	141 international assignees and repatriates from the Netherlands	SEM
Mette, Garrido, Preisser, Harth, and Mache (2018)	Quantitative demands (i.e., work hours, pace of work, workload)	Social support	Psychological detachment	Stress	Offshore wind industry	250 offshore wind farm workers in Germany	SEM
Salmela-Aro and Upadaya (2018)	Information communication technology (ICT) demands, interpersonal and multicultural demands, and authoritarian management	High work ability and positive team climate	Resilience	Work burnout and engagement	Multinational occupational health services	1,415 employees	SEM
Novaes, Ferreira, and Valentini (2018)	Job overload	Social support and autonomy	Psychological flexibility at work	Job satisfaction, positive effects, and negative effects	Public and private organizations	4,867 Brazilian employees	SEM
Berthelsen, Hakanen, and Westerlund (2018)	Quantitative demands, work pace, emotional demands, role conflicts, and work-family conflict	Influence, possibilities for development, role clarity, co-worker support, and supervisor support	N/A	Work ability	The public dental sector in Sweden	1,345 dental specialists	SEM
Adil and Baig (2018)	Workload, time pressure, and work-life imbalance	Autonomy and feedback	N/A	Burnout and employee wellbeing	Pharmaceutical organizations	352 Employees in Pakistan	SEM
Mañas et al. (2018)	Role ambiguity	N/A	N/A	Affective engagement and extra-role performance	Multinational private service sector	706 employees in Spain	Linear hierarchical multilevel model
Van Steenbergen, van der Ven, Peeters, and Taris (2017)	Workload, mental demands, and task ambiguity	Co-worker support, Autonomy, supervisor support, and possibilities for development	PsyCap	Burnout and work engagement	Financial services in the Netherlands	126 employees	Multivariate, covariate, and correlation analysis

Table 2.1: Review of JD-R Model Research (Continued)

Author(s)	Job demands	Job resources	Personal resources	Outcomes	Context	Sample	Statistical tool
Ugwu, Icha-Ituma, and Okafor (2017)	Emotional job demands	N/A	Hope and resilience	Work engagement	Education	221 academic staff in Nigeria	Hierarchical multiple regression analysis
Lee, Shin, and Baek (2017)	Job overload, emotional demands, and technology demands	Job autonomy, performance feedback, and technology resources	N/A	Work engagement and job stress	Education	172 part-time MBA students	Hierarchical regression analysis
Bakker and Demerouti (2017)	Job overload, emotional job demands, physical job demands, and work-home conflict	Autonomy, social support, quality of relationship with supervisor, and performance feedback	N/A	Job burnout	N/A (meta-analysis study, 2010–2016)	N/A	Meta-analysis study
Huang, Wang, and You (2016)	Workload	Social support	Self-efficacy, self-esteem, and optimism	Job burnout	Various contexts (software development, electronic engineering, and agricultural products)	481 Full-time Chinese employees	Multiple mediation model
Evers, van der Heijden, Kreijns, and Vermeulen (2016)	Work pressure and emotional demands	Learning climate, supervisor support, co-worker support, and job's learning value.	N/A	Teachers' flexible competence	Education	211 teachers in the Netherlands	SEM
Plomp et al. (2016)	Work pressure, emotional workload, and physical workload	Social support, autonomy, and opportunities for development	N/A	Work engagement and emotional exhaustion	Education	305 young interns in an educational institution in the Netherlands.	SEM
Schaufeli (2015)	Qualitative demands, quantitative demands, and organizational demands	Social resources, organizational resources, work resources, and development resources	N/A	Employability, performance behavior, and commitment.	Various contexts (health, commercial services, and retailing)	1,213 employees in the Netherlands	SEM

Table 2.1: Review of JD-R Model Research (Continued)

Author(s)	Job demands	Job resources	Personal resources	Outcomes	Context	Sample	Statistical tool
Gordon, Demerouti, Bipp, and Le Blanc (2015)	Work pressure and job demand predictability	Autonomy	N/A	Task performance and contextual performance	Healthcare	49 nurses in the Netherlands	Hierarchical linear model
Huynh, Xanthopoulou, and Winefield (2014)	Emotional demands and work-home conflict	Training and organizational support	N/A	Ill health, turnover intention, and happiness	Emergency services	887 emergency service employees in Australia	SEM
Henz and Mills (2014)	Pressure, job insecurity, and workplace anxiety	Organizational resources (i.e., job autonomy and pace of work), social resources (i.e., supervisor evaluation and friendly colleagues), and boundary-spanning resources (i.e., full schedule control and time off for family)	N/A	Work-life conflict	N/A	2,466 employees in Britain	SEM
Van Rensburg, Boonzaier, and Boonzaier (2013)	Work pressure, emotional demands, and physical demands	Team effectiveness and leadership effectiveness	Sense of coherence (SOC)	Work engagement	Call center	217 call center representatives in South Africa	Multiple regression analysis and SEM
Fernet, Austin, and Vallerand (2012)	Emotional exhaustion	Job control, job recognition, and quality of relationships	N/A	Work motivation and occupational commitment	Education	586 school principals in Canada	SEM

Table 2.1: Review of JD-R Model Research (Continued)

Author(s)	Job demands	Job resources	Personal resources	Outcomes	Context	Sample	Statistical tool
Crawford, LePine, and Rich (2010)	Challenging demands (i.e., job responsibility, time urgency, and workload) and hindering demands (i.e., administrative hassles, emotional conflict, organizational politics, resource inadequacies, role conflict, and role overload)	Job control, opportunities for development, participation in decision-making, task variety, feedback, and work social support.	N/A	Burnout and engagement	N/A	Meta-analysis study of 55 manuscripts from 2008–2010	Meta-analytic structural modeling
Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2009a)	N/A	Autonomy, supervisory coaching, performance feedback, and opportunities for professional development	Self-efficacy, organizational-based self-esteem, and optimism	Work engagement	Electrical engineering company	163 employees in the Netherlands	SEM
Babakus, Yavas, and Ashill (2009)	Role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload	Supervisor support, training, rewards, and service technology support	N/A	Burnout, job performance, and turnover intention	Banking	530 frontline bank employees in New Zealand	SEM
Prieto, Soria, Martínez, and Schaufeli (2008)	Quantitative overload, emotional demands, and role ambiguity	Autonomy and support climate	Mental competencies and emotional competencies	Burnout and work engagement	Education	274 teachers in Spain	Hierarchical multiple regression analysis
Bakker, Van Emmerik, and Van Riet (2008)	Work pressure, emotional demands, and work-home conflict	Co-workers social support, team cohesion, harmony, autonomy, supervisory coaching, and supervisor support	N/A	Objective team performance	Temporary employment agency	176 employees	SEM

2.4 Conceptualization of HAW

HAW is a complex and multi-layered phenomenon that is highly worthy of investigation (Tasnim, 2016). It is usually described as a job attitude that refers to a state of happiness in the workplace, but this definition is highly subjective (Salas-Vallina et al., 2016). In a similar vein, Fisher (2010) has defined HAW as a happy feeling related to one's job, its characteristics, and the organization as a whole. Employee HAW can be further described in terms of the overall quality of functioning at work and the employee's general experience (Van De Voorde et al., 2012).

Chiumento (2007) has defined a happy employee as someone who is able to enjoy good working relationships, career growth, opportunities for development, and a feeling of being valued and well-treated. Seligman (2011) used the acronym PERMA to express how individuals feel happiest when they have Pleasure (delicious food, a warm shower, etc.), Engagement (a sense of flow, exciting and challenging activities, etc.), Relationships (social bonds), Meaning (the pursuit of belonging to something bigger than themselves), and Accomplishments (achievement of tangible goals).

Since HAW can indicate any number of a large family of positive emotions, it partially overlaps with the definitions and operationalization of job engagement, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Fisher, 2010). As such, HAW is a multidimensional construct that can only be adequately explained through its distinct sub-dimensional constructs. While each of those constructs possesses some distinctive features, there is also a significant overlap among them in terms of concept, definition, and measurement (Rodríguez-Muñoz & Sanz-Vergel, 2013). Such constructs represent pleasing judgments and positive experiences.

The present study utilizes Fisher's (2010) operationalization of HAW (see Figure 2.3), which encompasses three attitudinal dimensions that broadly explain it: job engagement, job satisfaction, and affective organizational commitment. These three positive attitudinal dimensions may thus act as precise proxies to explain HAW (Fisher, 2010), and are aligned with the compatibility principle, which assumes that attitudinal dispositions can serve as powerful predictors of individuals' behaviors (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005).

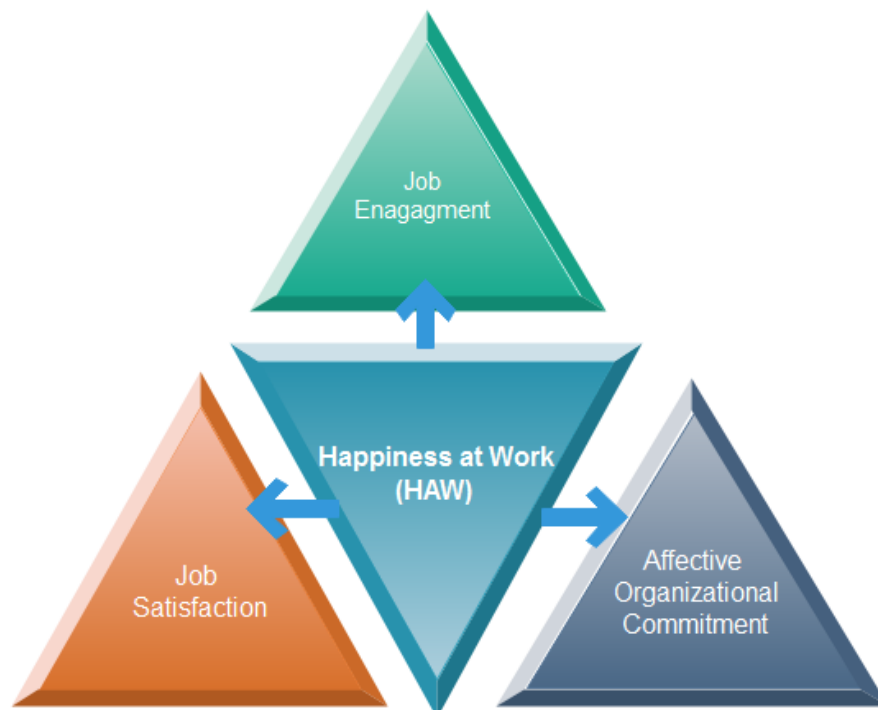


Figure 2.3: Happiness at Work (HAW) Operationalization
Source: The author's own study based on Fisher (2010)

2.4.1 Job satisfaction

The most central and frequently used construct within HAW studies is job satisfaction, which has long been investigated both as an independent and dependent variable in organizational studies, and has traditionally been associated with job performance (Fisher, 2010). Brief and Weiss (2002) has pointed out that job

satisfaction is a relatively weak concept that is measured as an affective state, but theoretical and empirical work since the 1990s has raised thoughtful questions about the affective nature of job satisfaction with regard to its definition, measurement, and determinants. According to Moorman (1993) and Salas-Vallina et al. (2017), job satisfaction is a type of appraisal that does not depend on emotional judgments but, rather, on the evaluation of a job's characteristics, opportunities, conditions, and outcomes. Bowling, Eschleman, and Wang (2010), meanwhile, have used meta-analytic regression tools in a sample of employed adults to find that a significant relationship exists between job satisfaction and employees' happiness. Bowling et al. (2010) thus concluded that the effects of happiness on job satisfaction were stronger than the impact of job satisfaction on happiness. These results suggest that happiness can be described as a general tendency to experience specific emotions, and that this tendency influences satisfaction fields such as the workplace.

2.4.2 Affective organizational commitment

Affective organizational commitment is arguably the most studied component of organizational effectiveness. According to Meyer and Allen (1990), affective organizational commitment is a feeling of identification with an organization's values and goals, and an emotional connection with that organization. Fisher (2010) has demonstrated that affective commitment is the form of attachment most closely congruent with HAW in comparison with other commitment components; namely, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Therefore, it can be said that affective organizational commitment represents an emotional attachment to an organization, and this leads employees to remain a part of it (Glazer & Kruse, 2008). Additionally, previous research has offered strong evidence of affective commitment

as a direct predictor of employees' psychological wellbeing and as a resource that buffers the adverse effects of job stressors (Rivkin, Diestel, & Schmidt, 2016).

Many studies have found that there is a significant positive association between affective organizational commitment and HAW. In relation to this, a longitudinal study conducted by Herrbach (2006) has investigated the relationship between organizational identification, organizational commitment, and self-reported affect at work. The study involved a sample of 365 French engineers who were alumni of an engineering university. The results of structured equation modeling (SEM) showed that affective organizational commitment was associated with the experience of more positive affective states, as compared with continuance commitment and normative commitment. Another finding of interest came from a meta-analytic study conducted by Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) in which a sample of 155 published reports was used to reveal that affective organizational commitment is a strong predictor of a set of desirable work behaviors, including job performance, positive organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and attendance.

2.4.3 Job engagement

Among the elements associated with employee wellbeing, job engagement has consistently drawn the attention of both practitioners and academics in light of its numerous benefits to both employees and organizations (Sonnentag, 2003). The earliest definition of job engagement was provided by Kahn (1990), who defined job engagement as a personal process in which employees show a positive attitude embodied in their association with the workplace. Mere physical attendance at the place of work, bereft of any emotional and psychological involvement, does not constitute job engagement. Rather, engaged employees are psychologically present

and cognitively integrate themselves with their work roles by manifesting conditions of involvement and deep focus (Kahn, 1992). In a similar vein, Salas-Vallina et al. (2017) defined job engagement as a unique feeling of motivation and energy linked to a sense of thrill, enthusiasm, activation, and passion at work. Similarly, Saks (2006) posited that job engagement is a composition of cognitive, emotional, and attitudinal states associated with individual job performance. Schaufeli (2017a), as cited by Sinval, Pasian, Queirós, and Marôco (2018), defined job engagement as a cognitive-affective persistent state in time that is not focused on any object or specific behavior. Meanwhile, Schaufeli and Salanova (2010) conceptualized job engagement as a positive, motivational, and psychological work-related state characterized by three rigorous states of vigor, dedication, and absorption in the workplace.

The term “vigor” refers to an individual’s energetic approach and persistence toward work, marked by mental resilience in investing effort in the work and continuing it despite any obstacles faced. Dedication is characterized by high levels of enthusiasm and strong involvement in one’s work elicited by the experience of a sense of significance, inspiration, pride, and meaningfulness that motivates employees to be more committed to their work roles. Finally, absorption refers to an intrinsic enjoyment elicited when completely engrossed in and deeply concentrated on one’s job. Employees’ sense of absorption is often associated with a feeling of time “flying by,” sometimes to the extent that employees’ view of time is distorted and they experience long periods of time as only fleeting moments. In such cases, withdrawal from work seems more like a challenging task than an enjoyable experience (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004; Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker, 2002). In sum, engaged employees are those with high energy levels coupled with high enthusiasm and a deep sense of invigoration in their work.

Previous research findings have depicted engaged employees as being motivated to invest extra effort as a result of higher levels of energy, concentration, and resilience (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Researchers into organizational behavior have hypothesized that work effort is a significant manifestation of motivation to achieve one's task and increase quality in carrying out one's main work responsibilities (Gruman & Saks, 2011; Naylor & Pritchard, 1980) and, as such, job engagement, by improving motivation, translates into improved individual job performance through greater work effort. Furthermore, employees experiencing job engagement are eager to expand their roles and show adaptive behavior in alignment with organizational changes (Anitha, 2014). Engaged employees also find their jobs pleasurable and also experience better health (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

Bakker and Demerouti (2008) have further contended that engaged employees are more likely to experience positive emotional states such as happiness and joy. In the circumplex model of emotion, engagement is positioned at the pleasant extreme among positive emotional states such as happiness, enthusiasm, enjoyment, and pleasure (Russell, Olson, & Sprenkle, 1980). Similarly, from the theoretical perspective of the JD-R model, the presence of job engagement facilitates the relationship between job resources and job outcomes, since the JD-R model postulates that job resources and personal resources are two factors driving an individual to achieve a motivational state.

2.5 Psychological capital (PsyCap)

PsyCap can be defined as a positive psychological state of development at the individual level (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017) that is based on one's beliefs, the

exposure of innate abilities, and efforts associated with striving toward excellence. (See Table 2.2). The concept focuses primarily on an individual's strengths and positive aspects (Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004). The term PsyCap is also often used simply to refer to individual motivational predisposition accumulated through the positive psychological dimensions of HERO – Hope, self-Efficacy, Resilience, and Optimism (see Figure 2.4) – and emphasizes “who you are” and “what you are becoming” as an individual (Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). According to Luthans and Youssef-Morgan (2017), PsyCap is drawn from the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001), which postulates that positivity has an upward spiral effect on building psychological resources that can be tapped into as needed by individuals. By being based on both theory and research, the psychological resources of PsyCap have an underlying common ground in meeting the criteria for inclusion in POB; they are: (1) based on theory and valid measures; (2) open to development and not confined to fixed traits; and (3) related to desirable work outcomes and thus have a consequent impact on performance (Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010). Developable PsyCap encompasses management of the positive psychology constructs of HERO, which involve a “motivational propensity” to accomplish goals successfully (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007, p. 9). Thus, PsyCap, as a form of psychological resource, is part of an interactive, synergistic circle of resources, rather than a distinct and completely independent psychological construct (Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2015).



Figure 2.4: The Components of Psychological Capital (PsyCap)
Source: The author's own study based on Luthans et al. (2004)

PsyCap influences a variety of outcomes at the individual level; it is thus of importance to organizations, and also goes beyond the workplace. Furthermore, it has been shown to be correlated with favorable employee attitudes, such as reduced intention to quit, as previous research has found that individuals who are higher in PsyCap are likely to have lower turnover intention (Avey, Hughes, Norman, & Luthans, 2008). In particular, those who possess a higher level of hope are better able to create multiple pathways toward success in their current jobs, thereby mitigating any upsurge or development of intention to quit (Seligman, 2006). The same applies for individuals with higher levels of resilience. Although some individuals are prone to experience hindering or challenging job demands negatively, individuals with high PsyCap are more likely to adapt positively and bounce back from those demands. Employees with higher optimistic capacity are proactive in their future outlook and build up the confidence to succeed in their jobs. Similarly, optimistic employees voluntarily engage in challenging events (Bandura, 1997), expend all necessary efforts

and resources, and persevere in the face of challenges (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). As a result, optimism can be said to motivate employees to direct their own destinies (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007). In sum, individuals who are high in PsyCap perform better overall than those who are low in PsyCap (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008), since the former are able to draw on more resources in pursuing their goals.

The core construct of PsyCap draws on the positive psychology movement pioneered by Martin Seligman (1998), which emerged as a reminder of the seemingly forgotten mission to determine and build the strengths of individuals, and was then expanded to the workplace setting under the banner of Positive Organizational Behaviour (POB) (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). At first, self-efficacy, hope, optimism, subjectivity, resilience, and emotional intelligence were determined and supported as the theoretical constructs of POB. Later, theoretical and empirical research in the field of POB shed light on the HERO dimensions as the core types of psychological resources. In successive works, Luthans et al. (2004) combined those four psychological resources into the sub-dimensional construct of PsyCap. According to Luthans, Avolio, et al. (2007), employees can possess these four types of first-order positive psychological states that make up individual's PsyCap namely hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism (HERO).

Hope has been viewed predominantly in the literature from the perspective of Snyder (1995), who sees hope as a cognitive conceptualization of a positive outlook on future outcomes that is based on goal-directed determination and pathways of thinking (planning of ways to meet goals). According to Snyder's theory, hope represents a set of beliefs asserting that one's goals can be attained in the future. These beliefs consist of two interrelated and reciprocal components: agency thinking, and

pathways thinking. On the one hand, agency thinking refers to one's will to pursue goals. Thus, it is the cognitive motivation that one uses to initiate and sustain movement toward a goal (Snyder et al., 1991). It is embodied in the construct measurement item "At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals." On the other hand, pathways thinking refers to one's perceived capability of imagining ways to reach a given goal and the ability to achieve such a goal by generating goal-oriented strategies (Snyder et al., 1991). One example of pathways thinking belief can be found in the item "I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals." In general, hopeful employees can envisage objectives, develop strategies, and sustain efforts to achieve their objectives (Snyder et al., 1991, p. 572). According to Luthans, Youssef, et al. (2007), individuals who possess hope can set realistic yet challenging goals and expectations, and then reach out for those goals through self-directed determination, willpower, and perception of internalized control. Research has also proven that hopeful employees are capable of resetting goals when necessary (Gibson & Hicks, 2018). Furthermore, hopeful employees are often independent thinkers who strive for a high level of autonomy in planning paths and realize their established goals (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007). Other streams of research have also found that hope has a significant effect on performance and task accomplishment, as it contributes to the attainment of goals (Peterson & Byron, 2008; Yotsidi, Pagoulidou, Kyriazos, & Stalikas, 2018). Farran, Herth, and Popovich (1995) have suggested that hope involves expanded functioning through which the individual feels more positive about what they are doing. According to Fredrickson and Losada (2005), as a result of broaden-and-build effects, hope may accumulate and compound over time, since people who experience positive emotions then broaden their thought-action repertoires and build

more resources. The presence of hope enables them to transform for the better, thus making them more resilient and effective.

Self-efficacy refers to beliefs regarding one's abilities to execute a specific task within a given timeframe to meet a set of situational demands. Furthermore, it refers to possessing the confidence and capacity to take on challenges by utilizing cognitive resources and motivation levels to ensure the successful fulfillment of difficult tasks (Bandura, 1997). Research has revealed that self-efficacy is a significant component when coping with rapid change, and it motivates employees to set competitive goals and deal with occupational stress (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009). According to Bandura (1997), there are four ways of developing one's self-efficacy. The first is through mastery experiences, which serve as indicators of capability and consist of positive self-experience in handling a task or exhibiting a skill. This is potentially the most effective method for developing self-efficacy, since it includes direct information about success in one's accomplishments (Luthans et al., 2004). However, simply succeeding in doing a task does not directly build confidence. Rather, situational processing of things such as task complexity and cognitive processing, which can involve perceptions of one's ability, will have an impact on its development. Bandura (1997) has argued that mastery experiences gained through perseverance and learning ability develop a solid and lasting sense of self-efficacy; nevertheless, self-efficacy that is formed through easily obtained successes will not be accompanied by any significant levels of perseverance or stability when greater challenges arise (Luthans et al., 2004). The second way to develop one's self-efficacy is through vicarious experience, or modeling, which refers to the process of learning from colleagues' experiences and observing others' performance of jobs similar to the one assigned to the observer. For example, if employees observe others like themselves succeeding by

exerting effort, they will come to believe that they can also succeed by doing the same. Hence, the more similarity there is in terms of the performed task, the more effect there will be on developing self-efficacy. Conversely, observing others' failures can inculcate doubt about an individual's own ability to do similar activities. Such vicarious modeling is particularly vital for employees with little experience and is a very practical strategy for optimizing confidence through training and development programs (Luthans et al., 2004). The third way, verbal persuasion, is another way to develop self-efficacy. It refers to the process of being told that one has all the abilities necessary to succeed, which strengthens one's belief in future successes. Well-respected, performance-oriented individuals can help to develop confidence in employees by persuading them that they "have what it takes" and have a "can-do" attitude (Luthans et al., 2006). The fourth way is physiological feedback, which refers to reactions manifested in an employee's own physiological state, such as reduced anxiety (Bandura, 1997). Individuals often depend on their feelings, both physical and emotional, to assess their capabilities. If these feelings are negative (sickness, depression, or stress), they will generally result in reduced confidence.

Resilience is an employee's capacity to respond to pressure rapidly, adaptively, and effectively. When resilient employees are surrounded by problematic challenges and adversity, they sustain themselves and bounce back from an unfavorable situation (Masten & Reed, 2002). The generally accepted characteristics of resilient employees are acceptance of reality, and the ability to embrace and accept significant change. Research has discovered that resilience not only helps to manage problems, stress, and threats, but also motivates individuals to achieve higher levels of satisfaction at work (Mahar, Basheer, & Maitlo, 2017). It is also positively correlated with team performance (Meneghel, Salanova, & Martínez, 2016), mental health level, life

satisfaction (Mortazavi & Yarolahi, 2015), survival of life crises, and organizational performance (Soltani & Soleimanian, 2015).

Lastly, optimism refers to optimistic behavior produced through cognitive processing of positive expectations for success now and in the future (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007). Optimistic employees often welcome positive events and ignore negative ones (Gillham, Shatte, Reivich, & Seligman, 2001; Mahfooz, Arshad, Nisar, Ikram, & Azeem, 2017), meaning that they perceive positive events as personal, pervasive, long-lasting causes vis-à-vis their internal locus of control, while negative events are perceived as uncontrollable external situations and characterized as temporary (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Employees who possess resiliency tend to engage in active coping strategies to alter a situation that would otherwise lead to negative affect (Gillham et al., 2001). Optimistic employees thus redirect their paths so as to achieve their targets successfully and are able to develop positive attributes to attain such targets (Yildiz, 2017).

PsyCap, as a set of personal resources, thus provides a psychological advantage in any given environment by allowing individuals to think about and induce positive behavioral development for greater outcomes (Luthans & Avolio, 2014; Yang & Cho, 2015). Abundant studies conducted in the field of PsyCap have shown that it contributes significantly to organizational outcomes (Sahoo, Sia, Sahu, & Appu, 2015), behavior, psychological wellbeing (Avey, Luthans, Smith, et al., 2010), organizational commitment (Shahnawaz & Jafri, 2009), work-life happiness, job satisfaction (Chaudhary, Bidlan, & Darolia, 2015), OCB (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011; Youssef & Luthans, 2007), decreased stress and burnout, increased job engagement (Alessandri, Consiglio, Luthans, & Borgogni, 2018; Cheng, Hong, &

Yang, 2018), reduced intention to quit, sustainable competitiveness (Çavuş & Gökçen, 2015), and reduced counterproductive work behaviors and organizational cynicism (Avey, Luthans, & Youssef, 2010).

Although researchers using the JD-R model have previously elucidated job environment characteristics to a considerable degree (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007), recent additions to the JD-R model represent substantial contributions to the study of personal resources. Such personal resources are commonly linked with an individual's PsyCap and it has been argued that, without the presence of personal resources, various job demands can easily generate negativity, leading to the development of symptoms associated with stress, depression, and occupational strain (Tremblay & Messervey, 2011). According to the JD-R model, each job has its own set of demands that can exhaust an individual's mental and physical resources, thereby leading to the depletion of energy (Bakker et al., 2005). It then follows that the more general resources, accompanied by personal resources, that individuals have, the more likely they will be able to ameliorate the negative effects of job demands efficiently, thereby experiencing higher motivation, job satisfaction, and job engagement; this, in turn, influences their perceptions of job demands and resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Table 2.2 presents a selection of studies that have indicated the utilization of psychological capital (PsyCap) as a central framework for their research.

Table 2.2: Literature on Psychological Capital (PsyCap)

	Author(s)	Findings	Sample	Role of PsyCap
Psychological capital (PsyCap)	Luthans et al. (2006)	PsyCap intervention (PCI) was shown to have preliminary support for increasing not only participants' PsyCap, but also their financial impact and a high return on investment.	74 engineering managers	Qualitative study
	Luthans et al. (2008)	Results showed that employees' PsyCap was positively related to their performance, satisfaction, and commitment.	737 employees from a variety of jobs and industries.	Mediator
	Avey et al. (2009)	Results suggested that PsyCap (hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism) may be the key to better understanding of variations in perceived symptoms of stress, as well as intention to quit and job search behaviors.	416 employees from a variety of jobs and industries	Independent variable
	Avey, Luthans, Smith, et al. (2010)	Results indicated that employees' PsyCap was associated with measures of well-being and. Additionally, PsyCap explained further variance in those measures over time.	280 employees from a variety of jobs and industries	Independent variable
	Martin, O'Donohue, and Dawkins (2011)	Preliminary analysis demonstrated little support for team level PsyCap as a direct predictor of job satisfaction and turnover intention among volunteer emergency services workers.	592 emergency service volunteers from public sector organizations in Australia	Independent variable
	Roberts, Scherer, and Bowyer (2011)	Results indicated that PsyCap buffered the negative effects of job stress on uncivil behaviors.	390 employees from a variety of jobs and industries	Moderator
	Cheung, Tang, and Tang (2011)	PsyCap moderated the association between emotional labor (surface acting and deep acting) on job satisfaction and burnout.	264 full-time Chinese schoolteachers in China	Moderator

Table 2.2: Literature on Psychological Capital (PsyCap) (Continued)

	Author(s)	Findings	Sample	Role of PsyCap
Psychological capital (PsyCap)	Nguyen and Nguyen (2012)	PsyCap had positive impacts on both job performance and quality of working life among marketers.	364 marketers in Vietnam	Independent variable
	Cassidy, McLaughlin, and McDowell (2014)	PsyCap was negatively correlated with ill-being and positively with wellbeing.	2,068 employees from a variety of jobs and industries in the United Kingdom	Mediator
	Teo, Roche, Pick, and Newton (2014)	PsyCap reduced role stress experience among nurses.	401 nurses in Australia	Moderator
	Huang and Lin (2015)	PsyCap positively moderated the relationship between career capital and career success.	260 employers in Taiwan	Moderator
	Sahoo et al. (2015)	The study found that PsyCap helped individuals to overcome difficulties in the workplace and achieve balanced lives.	–	Qualitative study
	Yang and Cho (2015)	PsyCap had a significant influence on the relationship between innovative work behaviors and fostered behavioral development for greater results.	373 employees from SMEs in China	Independent variable
	Hao, Wu, Liu, Li, and Wu (2015)	The study revealed that PsyCap positively moderated the relationship between work-family conflict and depressive symptoms.	824 Chinese female nurses	Moderator
	Youssef-Morgan and Luthans (2015)	PsyCap offered a viable set of resources and mechanisms to promote wellbeing within and beyond the workplace.	–	Qualitative study
	Aybas and Acar (2017)	The study showed that PsyCap partially mediated the relationship between motivation and skill-enhancing human resources practices in work engagement.	590 employees from several private companies in Turkey	Mediator

Table 2.2: Literature on Psychological Capital (PsyCap) (Continued)

	Author(s)	Findings	Sample	Role of PsyCap
Psychological capital (PsyCap)	Gupta and Shaheen (2017)	The study found that PsyCap was negatively related to turnover intention and affects it indirectly through work engagement.	217 employees working in diverse industries in the service sector	Independent variable
	Luthans and Youssef-Morgan (2017)	The study revealed that PsyCap is an evidence-based core construct and positive approach that can leverage an understanding of human strengths, ability to thrive, and excellence. The authors stated that positive emotions are among the key mechanisms through which PsyCap operates.	–	Qualitative study
	Mahar et al. (2017)	The study found a positive significant effect of PsyCap on organizational learning.	50 employees in the banking sector in Pakistan	Independent variable
	Mahfooz et al. (2017)	The study revealed that PsyCap moderated the relationship between workplace ostracism and job stress on the one hand, and turnover intention on the other. The relationship between the negative effect on job stress and turnover intention was strong when PsyCap was low.	300 employees and doctors in Pakistan	Moderator
	Malik and Dhar (2017)	The study elucidated how employees with high PsyCap and autonomy exhibited extra role behavior.	520 nurses and 163 supervisors from 42 hospitals in India	Mediator
	Nafees and Jahan (2017)	The study revealed that PsyCap was positively correlated with medical students' mental wellbeing because it helped to mitigate the effects of stress on mental health.	80 medical students in India	Independent variable

Table 2.2: Literature on Psychological Capital (PsyCap) (Continued)

	Author(s)	Findings	Sample	Role of PsyCap
Psychological capital (PsyCap)	Yildiz (2017)	The study results showed that employees' PsyCap and personality characteristics contributed significantly to their work and firms, and had a significant effect on their organizational commitment.	Knowledge workers in China	Qualitative research
	Cheng et al. (2018)	The study aimed to explore the mediating effect of PsyCap on the relationship between work engagement and service behavior. The results revealed that flight attendants with high PsyCap showed more work engagement and better service behavior.	375 flight attendants of China Airlines based in Taiwan	Mediator
	Digan, Sahi, Mantok, and Patel (2018)	The study revealed that PsyCap reinforced the relationship between women's empowerment and a firm's performance. Hence, PsyCap was suggested as providing entrepreneurs with the psychological resources necessary to overcome the many mental and emotional challenges associated with the entrepreneurial process.	69 women entrepreneurs from SMEs In India	Moderator
	Gautam and Pradhan (2018)	PsyCap was found to be positively correlated with academic achievement and negatively correlated with stress. The results showed that PsyCap moderated the relationship between stress and academic achievement. The study implied that PsyCap enhances students' capability to improve their own academic performance	210 students in India	Moderator
	Kim, Kim, Newman, Ferris, and Perrewé (2018)	PsyCap was found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction and psychological wellbeing.	708 employees from athletic departments in the USA	Mediator

2.6 Antecedents of HAW

As organizations, psychologists, and human resource development practitioners continue to focus on the state of HAW, research in the field of positive psychology has suggested that there may be antecedents to HAW that could threaten or enhance its attainment (Ersoy & Ehtiyar, 2017; Fisher, 2010; Salas-Vallina, Alegre, & Guerrero, 2018). It has been further indicated that focusing on both the positive and negative antecedents of HAW could allow leveraging of job resources and offset the potential adverse effects of job demands to create a platform for a happy workforce (Kowalski & Loretto, 2017).

A plethora of studies have researched the effects of personal traits and individual-level differences to explain HAW (Steel, Schmidt, & Shultz, 2008; Warr, 2013); other key determinants of employee HAW concern factors that are related to job characteristics (Ilies, Aw, & Pluut, 2015). According to Warr (2013), environmental and personal variables, in particular, may be important for happiness and may also function independently of each other. The current literature on employees' HAW antecedents reveals the most common negative job characteristics to be role overload, role ambiguity, job insecurity, and work-life conflict (Adnan Bataineh, 2019; Crawford et al., 2010; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014; von Krassow, 2015; Warr, 2013), and the most common positive job resources (see Table 2.3) to be job autonomy, performance feedback, supervisor support, financial reward, and opportunity for development (Bakker et al., 2018; Demerouti et al., 2001; Le Blanc et al., 2017; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The following sections justify the choice of the above antecedents in relation to HAW with reference to the JD-R model, after which the hypotheses of the present study are described.

Table 2.3: Job Demands and Job Resources Subdimension

Job Demands	Job Resources
Role Overload	Job Autonomy
Role Ambiguity	Performance Feedback
Job Insecurity	Supervisor Support
Work-Life Conflict	Financial Reward
	Opportunity for Development

Source: The authors own study based on Bakker and Demerouti (2007)

2.6.1 Job demands

Job demands are “those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs” (Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006, p. 379). Furthermore, the importance of job demands in certain occupations depends on specific job characteristics (Bakker et al., 2005). While job demands differ across occupations, many job settings have common and significant physical, cognitive, and emotional components. For example, doctors and nurses in an emergency department must lift patients, run from one room to another, and think quickly on their feet (Shieh, Sung, Su, Tsai, & Hsieh, 2016). In the context of the UAE’s oil and gas industry, employees are in an occupation that is particularly demanding physically, cognitively, and emotionally (Bergh, Leka, & Zwetsloot, 2018; Hystad, Saus, Saetrevik, & Eid, 2013; Sutherland & Cooper, 1996). Karasek Jr. (1979) has conceptualized job demands as work stressors emanating from the physical nature of work, as well as the psychological (cognitive and emotional) aspects of a job. However, due to the nature of the jobs they are performing employees working in the field differ in their perceptions of job demands when compared with those working at

a company headquarters. Generally, employees working in the oil and gas industry are involved in tasks with intensive physical demands. This highly demanding industry is therefore associated with a wide range of performance and organizational stressors (Bergh et al., 2018), especially for employees working at offshore or inland oil facilities (Parkes, Clark, & Payne-Cook, 1997). These physical demands include long shifts, repetitiveness, physical exertion, work pressure, time pressure, and frequent waiting times, as well as cognitive demands, such as the need to memorize a great deal and complex decision-making (Javaid, Isha, Sabir, Ghazali, & Nübling, 2018; Karasek Jr., 1979; Mette, Garrido, Harth, Preisser, & Mache, 2018; Perko, 2017; Vischer, 2018). Additionally, employees working in the oil and gas industry are confronted with emotional demands, such as work-family conflict and job insecurity (Javaid et al., 2018). These demands make employees easily vulnerable to burnout and stress (Hystad et al., 2013).

Hence, demands are more likely to be perceived as pathological stressors leading to feelings of exhaustion and burnout. On a similar note, Hart (2014) has suggested that, if there is insufficient recovery time, employees will have less ability to respond to job demands, thus leading to even more exhaustion. Moreover, the negative experiences produced by frequent high levels of demands are more likely to prevail over positive experiences and deplete emotional resources, consequently initiating “burnout syndrome” and stress (Adil & Baig, 2018; Portoghese et al., 2017). This “loss spiral” has been supported by research by Murphy (2014), Demerouti, Bakker, and Bulters (2004), and Hobfoll (2002), which shows that job demands result in experience of job strain that makes employees perceive and create even more job demands in a reversed causal relationship (Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996). Additionally, job demands can result in a cynical attitude where employees distance

themselves emotionally and mentally from work as a form of coping strategy (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011; Bakker, Schaufeli, Sixma, Bosveld, & Van Dierendonck, 2000).

Discussions of job demand constructs can be found in a large body of literature (Affrunti, Mehta, Rusch, & Frazier, 2018; Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Gomoll, 2018; Metelitsa, 2018; Novaes et al., 2018; Troyer, 2018; Welleman, 2018). Such job demands range from interpersonal conflict, time pressure, and job overload to role ambiguity, work-life conflict, and role conflict. The negative implications of such demands have also been described in relation to employees' wellbeing, job-related behaviors, and even spillover effects on their family lives (Bakker et al., 2005; Sousa, Chambel, & Carvalho, 2018). Research by Van De Voorde, Veld, and Van Veldhoven (2016) has revealed that job demands negatively influence employees' productivity and job engagement. Similarly, Kim and Yang (2016) have argued that job demands do not necessarily assume negative aspects; however, extreme job demands can indeed lead to job stress and result in negative states such as burnout, depression, strain, and exhaustion. Among the various types of job demands, the present study will examine role overload, role ambiguity, job insecurity, and work-life conflict as those that effect HAW in the UAE oil and gas industry. These demands are based on the theoretical foundation of the JD-R model (Bakker et al., 2007; Bakker, Van Emmerik, et al., 2008; Demerouti et al., 2001).

The perception of job demands as negative antecedents is based on two premises. First, job demands become more significant when conflicts arise between job demands and employees' effort expenditure or control in order to meet those demands (Mohanraj & Manivannan, 2013). Thus, a job demand-effort imbalance can have a particularly negative impact on job-related stress and is associated with physical

and psychological costs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Second, it is the imbalance between job demands and job resources (i.e., high job demands and low job resources) that creates job stress and can lead to burnout if not mitigated by coping strategies (Astvik & Melin, 2013). It is important to highlight, however, that job demands are an inevitable part of work and, arguably, this can be considered normal and not necessarily problematic. Thus, the question is how to balance job demands with employees' abilities to exert control and effort, and also to reduce any hindering job demands to a minimum level (Saif-ur-Rehman, 2011).

Hence, it is necessary to detail how job demands are cognitively appraised as negative predictors and conceptualized in the context of occupational health research. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) have posited that cognitive appraisal is the process of evaluating whether an experience is positive, stressful, or irrelevant with regard to one's wellbeing. Spector (2002) has integrated this view and proposed that job characteristics must first be perceived as stressors, which later leads to negative emotions. Then, in the absence of job resources, employees perceive job demands as intolerable tasks. In cases where abundant job resources are unavailable to employees, various factors, such as positive feedback from a supervisor, can act as a buffer against job demands to make highly demanding tasks more bearable and understandable to the employees (Burtscher, Meyer, Jonas, Feese, & Tröster, 2018). That is, the employees will welcome the "reasons for the presence of a stressor and their exposure to it" (Kahn & Byosiere, 1992, p. 622).

In the context of the JD-R model (Bakker et al., 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001), job resources are assumed to buffer the negative effect of job demands by influencing the negative perception of those demands. In this vein, Crawford et al. (2010) have

refined the JD-R model by including processes of appraisal of job demands, and have suggested that hindrance demands tend to be appraised negatively due to the tendency of those demands to block the potential fulfillment of personal progression. Additionally, hindering demands evoke negative emotions (i.e., anger, fear, and anxiety) and passive coping behavior (i.e., rationalization and withdrawal intention), which limit the ability to deal adequately with those demands.

In sum, job demands in the context of the oil and gas industry play an important role in influencing HAW. This aspect should therefore be examined to further the understanding of the effects of job demands on HAW. Such an examination is critical not only from a practical perspective, but also from the perspective of achieving a greater comprehension of which types of job demands serve as antecedents to influence HAW and, consequently, individual job performance.

2.6.1.1 Role overload

The American Psychological Association (2015) has classified role overload as one of the top stressors in the workplace, and studies often regard role overload as an affective event (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Fisher, 2014; Ilies et al., 2007; Schmitt, Ohly, & Kleespies, 2015). According to Frone, Yardley, and Markel (1997), role overload can be described as a situation in which an employee has too much to accomplish within a limited timeframe. They state that high levels of workload could lead to a psychological preoccupation with unfinished work, especially when the employee is trying to accomplish the demands of another role at the same time. Denhof, Spinaris, and Morton (2014) consider role overload to be a type of operational stressor, and can include mandatory overtime, low decision-making authority, hyper-vigilance, low salary, budget cuts, and employee layoffs (Bierie, 2012; Denhof et al.,

2014). Meanwhile, Leiter and Schaufeli (1996) have defined role overload as the perception that available resources, such as the time and energy to meet job demands and expectations of work senders (i.e., supervisors), are lacking. Role overload can also be further classified into physical (quantitative or objective) workload and perceptual (qualitative or subjective) workload (Ganster, Fox, & Dwyer, 2001).

In the course of academic research using the JD-R model, role overload has been recognized as a well-established job demand (Demerouti et al., 2001; Karasek, 1985; Laschinger, Finegan, & Shamian, 2001). The JD-R model explains that exposure to a high workload is detrimental to employees' wellbeing, and can increase burnout and fatigue (Ganster et al., 2001; Ilies et al., 2015). The model also describes how job demands have the potential to impair employees' health, as they require the sustaining both physical and psychological effort, and they consume resources (Bakker et al., 2014; Brouze, 2014; Demerouti et al., 2001; Houkes, Janssen, Jonge, & Bakker, 2003; Rothmann & Joubert, 2007).

Overall, research has shown that role overload is positively associated with numerous unfavorable work outcomes, such as workplace deviance (Eissa & Lester, 2017; Ugwu, 2017), declines in performance levels (Mandrick, Peysakhovich, Remy, Lepron, & Causse, 2016; Sutanto, 2017), psychological detachment (Sonnetag & Bayer, 2005), reduced job satisfaction (Farooq Abbasi, 2015; Malik, Ghafoor, & Iqbal, 2013), and frustration (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). These outcomes subsequently result in energy depletion and health problems, such as high blood pressure, and poor general psychological and physiological wellbeing (Ilies, Dimotakis, & De Pater, 2010; Ugwu et al., 2017). The concept of workload as a negative demand can be extended to explain variance in job performance, with it having been suggested that

performance changes under circumstances of stress and workload, and that there is a compensatory trade-off between cognitive goals and effort expenditure (Sutanto, 2017). Interestingly, a study examining the relationship between job insecurity and high levels of workload with perceptions of workplace bullying under organizational change found that the perception of bullying may be associated with job insecurity under the condition of high workload levels (Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017). Moreover, working under conditions with high demands can encourage individuals to take sick leave out of concern that their tasks will remain unfinished if they take time off work (Kinman & Wray, 2018). As can be deduced from these studies, job overload appears to be a highly significant experience among many employees in contemporary organizations.

Workload is especially crucial within the context of the UAE oil and gas industry, which has undergone major organizational changes, including mergers and downsizing. Employees in this industry have reported higher quantitative job demands and work intensification compared with employees in other relatively stable industrial sectors (Sutherland & Cooper, 1996), and increased workload is a well-documented negative aspect associated with organizational change. In such times, organizations mainly focus on their financial survival, rather than on the promotion of a healthy work environment (Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017). Moreover, “survivors” of organizational change may struggle to complete all of their work since, in many cases, the extra tasks of redundant employees are directed to them on top of their normal work duties, resulting in a high workload (Dolan, Belout, & Balkin, 2000). To maintain competitiveness and secure the company’s bottom line, employees are usually asked to take on additional workloads and responsibilities (Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

It must be noted, however, that job demands have been shown to exert contradictory influences (Lai, Chang, & Hsu, 2012; Ng & Chan, 2017). According to Kim and Beehr (2018), although workload is considered a challenge stressor, demands that are challenging can also be overcome with sufficient skill and additional effort. Theoretically, this distinction can be used to argue that overcoming challenging demands, such as a high workload, means that an employee has accomplished a major achievement (i.e., completed a great deal of work). In such cases, this sense of achievement could potentially lead to favorable outcomes for employees. Furthermore, it has been found that workload also has a positive relationship with task performance (Iwani, 2015). One study (Beehr & Drexler, 1986) has already attempted to rectify this seeming contradiction with the theory of job characteristics by pointing out that, through a process similar to a moderating effect, jobs with higher work control and work demand can change employees from the inside out, thus increasing their job satisfaction.

2.6.1.2 Role ambiguity

Employees' ability to work in uncertain work environments has been a characteristic of present-day organizations. Such uncertainty can be due to role ambiguity, or a lack of clarity about different work trajectories, such as obscurity of job objectives, vagueness of job expectations, and lack of information on the output required from one's role (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970; Srikanth & Jomon, 2013; Yousef, 2000). In other words, role ambiguity pertains not only to a lack of clarity about tasks themselves, but also how they should be done and prioritized, as well as obscure metrics concerning how an employee's job is evaluated or promoted.

In the context of the JD-R model, role ambiguity is a type of role characteristic that can be defined as a hindering job demand, in that it interferes with or inhibits an individual's ability to achieve valued goals and results. It is also the main predictor of stress and burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Studies show that role ambiguity affects employee's performance and affective engagement, and its negative implications extend to sleep deprivation, exhaustion, and health impairment (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Mañas et al., 2018; Mei-Ling, Sobanah-Dhevi, & Vija-Kumaran, 2018).

All employees have certain roles within an organization together with expectations about the specific behaviors required of their individual positions. Such expectations allow acquisition of the behavioral requirements of each role. However, when expectations are ambiguous or conflicting, role stress can occur as a result (Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006). Classical role theory suggests that every position in a structured organizational setting must have specific tasks and responsibilities (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Such specification of tasks allows an organization's management to hold employees accountable for their performance and provide guidance to them. If employees do not know what authority they have to perform their activities, or what is expected to be accomplished and how, they will be hesitant to make decisions and will have to rely on a trial-and-error approach to meet their management's performance expectations (Rizzo et al., 1970).

Furthermore, individuals generally behave in ways that are consistent with how their roles are defined (Kahn et al., 1964). Employees who experience role ambiguity lack adequate information to perform their work and awareness of expectations of how to behave. Thus, such expectations need to be clarified along with

the supporting knowledge necessary to perform their required activities. Kahn et al. (1964) have pointed out that ambiguity originates from complexities exceeding an individual's degree of comprehension and from the outcomes of changes associated with increased demands. As such, it is quite understandable that individuals experiencing role ambiguity will also face challenges in meeting their performance expectations (Srikanth & Jomon, 2013). Role ambiguity can also occur when new roles are forming. In such circumstances, a lack of information about what needs to be done, when, and how can cause distress for an employee by making the job difficult and causing feelings of detachment.

The negative impacts of role ambiguity on HAW are deemed to be more severe in the oil and gas industry than in other industries due to changes resulting from plunging oil prices and recent restructuring (Bergh et al., 2018). This means that employees are likely to experience uncertainty about many different facets of their transforming work environments, and role ambiguity is one of the main drawbacks an employee will encounter in an organization that is subject to change (Antoniou, Davidson, & Cooper, 2003), especially considering that the expectations applicable to the old organization may not be replaced with clear expectations under the new organizational setup (Jimmieson, Terry, & Callan, 2004). In this regard, Fisher (2003) has therefore argued that role stress is likely to result from the uncertainties associated with organizational change.

2.6.1.3 Work-family conflict

The concept of work-family balance has been discussed by many scholars in terms of dynamism in the workplace (Oludayo, Falola, Obianuju, & Demilade, 2018; Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman, & Garden, 2005). Rapid changes in work

environments raise concerns about the ability of employees to achieve a healthy balance between their work and private lives, and there have been calls to achieve some degree of equilibrium (Edgar et al., 2017; Henz & Mills, 2014). Work-family conflict, meanwhile, is defined by Siegel et al. (2005) as the competing role pressures brought on by activities related to work and those that are unrelated; in other words, when fulfilling one's work responsibilities makes it difficult to attend to activities outside of the work domain, and vice versa. According to Voydanoff (2004), such conflict can be regarded as an individual's perception of the effects of the work domain on the life domain, and encounters with work-family conflict can be categorized with respect to their significance for wellbeing; namely, whether they are positive, negative, or neutral.

Khairuddin and Nadzri (2017) have mentioned that work-life conflict originates from the outcomes of changes associated with increased demands and extra work hours. Research by Luther et al. (2017) has also found that medical clinicians who worked overtime reported detrimental health outcomes, such as higher burnout, as well as increased work-family conflict and lower job satisfaction. In light of this, it is quite understandable that employees experiencing work-family conflict would also face challenges in meeting performance expectations (Naithani, 2009).

Previous studies (e.g., Anwar & Shahzad, 2011; Mukarram, Akbar, Jan, & Gul, 2012) have revealed that work-family conflict is negatively related to performance. More recently, Zakaria and Ismail (2017) have observed work-family conflict as being characterized by misalignment of the demands of work and family, which leads to adverse outcomes for employees. They have posited that high work-family conflict is associated with negative consequences for individuals, such as life dissatisfaction,

anxiety, depression, and poor health (Zakaria & Ismail, 2017). In terms of relationships, there is often an increase in interpersonal conflict, marital dissatisfaction, and divorce. These negative consequences extend to result in absenteeism, difficulties with retention, unpunctuality, low commitment, and loss of talented employees in an organization (Ajala, 2017).

In line with these observations, a number of researchers have investigated the relationship between work-family conflict, and employee happiness and wellbeing (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Rao, 2017). Spillover theory (Staines, 1980) suggests that there is a similarity between what happens in the family environment and in the work environment, such that HAW leads to happiness at home (Staines, 1980; Sundaresan, 2014). Work-life conflict has also been shown to have a negative impact on individuals, employers, and families (García-Cabrera, Lucia-Casademunt, Cuéllar-Molina, & Padilla-Angulo, 2018). Furthermore, such conflicts have been found to contribute to low organizational commitment, work dissatisfaction, family dissatisfaction, pressure, employee turnover, health and psychological problems, and various social issues. In a qualitative study, Helliwell, Huang, and Wang (2017) have found that those with jobs that leave them too tired to enjoy the non-work elements of their lives report levels of positive affect in their day-to-day lives that are substantially lower than those who do not have such jobs. Furthermore, workers who report that their jobs interfere with their ability to spend time with their partner and family, as well as those who “bring their job home” by worrying about work matters even when they are not in the workplace, report systematically lower levels of subjective wellbeing.

In order to overcome such work-life conflict, Boyar, Maertz Jr, Mosley Jr, and Carr (2008) have suggested that organizations can work to reduce it by adopting work-life balance initiatives that help employees to balance work and family demands. This study by Boyar et al. (2008) implies that an organization attaining work-family balance receives shared benefits for both employees and the organization itself. In light of this, the achievement of such a balance is no longer a goal limited solely to human resources departments, and all line managers should be responsible for seeing to the work-life balance of their staff members. Such initiatives are about helping employees to maintain healthy, rewarding lifestyles that will, in turn, lead to improvements in performance (Harrell-Cook, Levitt, & Grimm, 2017; Lozano, 2017; Rao, 2017). Zakaria and Ismail (2017) suggest that the existence of work-life balance initiatives in an organizational setting will encourage organizations to reduce the interference of employees' job roles with their family roles. For example, employees could be allowed to leave work early to care for a sick child or parent, and this would enable them to have the time necessary to attend to family matters. Kossek and Hammer (2008) have found that employees with managers trained in sensitivity and understanding of work-family balance reported increased perceptions of overall health. Furthermore, previous research has revealed that employees' perception of their organizations as supportive of families is associated with higher levels of employee wellbeing (García-Cabrera et al., 2018; Johnpray, 2018; Marcinkus, Whelan-Berry, & Gordon, 2007).

2.6.1.4 Job insecurity

Job insecurity, defined as “the perceived powerlessness to maintain the desired continuity in a threatened job situation” (Greenhalgh & Rosenblatt, 1984, p. 438), may be referred to as concern about the continued existence of an individual's current job

(Klandermans & van Vuuren, 1999). Recently, Kalleberg (2018) has suggested that job insecurity is present in “precarious work” where one’s role is uncertain, unstable, and insecure. Job insecurity has become a common and seemingly unavoidable organizational phenomenon, and has been highlighted as perhaps one of the most critical stressors in contemporary working life (Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2015). It has been associated with various undesirable emotional, cognitive, and behavioral problems (Shoss, Jiang, & Probst, 2018). Previous research has also shown negative correlations with stress reactions, employees’ psychological wellbeing, and predictions of physical health over time (De Witte, Pienaar, & De Cuyper, 2016; Mohr, 2000). It has also been found that job insecurity is detrimental to individual wellbeing due to feelings of uncontrollability and unpredictability about the future of one’s job (Warr, 1984; Witte, 1999).

Moreover, job insecurity has been consistently associated with reduced levels of job satisfaction, job engagement, and job performance. Cheng, Mauno, and Lee (2014) and Heaney, Israel, and House (1994) have found significantly lower levels of job satisfaction among employees who felt insecure about their jobs, and that higher levels of job insecurity led to less proactive career behavior and job engagement. In a similar vein, Cheng and Chan (2008), Khan and Ghufraan (2018), and Mazzetti, Lancioni, Derous, and Guglielmi (2018) have found that job insecurity is negatively associated with job performance. Comparisons between the experience of job insecurity and unemployment have found that the psychological effect of job insecurity is parallel with, and sometimes even surpasses, the impact of being unemployed (Witte, 1999). In the JD-R model, job insecurity is also a significant work-related demand. The model explains that job insecurity is one of the “bad things” threatening obstacles at work that negatively consume energy and consistently require

physical or mental effort (Schaufeli, 2017b). As such, it is associated with certain physiological and psychological costs.

De Witte (2000a) has suggested that job insecurity constitutes two components: recognition of threats to job security, and concern about those threats. Furthermore, the perception of potential job loss owes to the cognitive aspect of job insecurity, which consists of a cognitive appraisal of future events, whether certain or uncertain. Fear of job loss, meanwhile, is related to the affective aspect, which triggers emotions based on the meanings connected with potential job loss. Mohr (2000) has elaborated on this rationale, stating that there are four levels of job insecurity. The first is job insecurity as a state of public necessity, when unemployment rates are high due to a country's general economic trends. The second is job insecurity at the company level, which is labeled as "chronic insecurity," when the economically unstable situation of a company is recognized, but a real threat is not yet apparent. The third is job insecurity at the individual level, which is referred to as "acute job insecurity." This occurs when a real threat is highly acknowledged and downsizing is a reality. The fourth is the "anticipation of job loss," which occurs at the time of carrying out arrangements for dismissal. Hence, it is necessary to make a distinction between "acute threats" of job loss and "chronically insecure jobs," since each of them involves different psychological and mental demands. Meanwhile, Dekker and Schaufeli (1995) have explained the severity of job insecurity, stating that continued insecurity about job loss can be even more problematic than certainty about one's dismissal.

Job insecurity represents a severe breach of the former psychological contract that was considered to be an essential aspect for employees within the effort-reward balance model (Siegrist, 1996), in which they expect job security to be provided by

their organizations in return for their invested efforts, loyalty, and commitment. Hence, job insecurity reflects an imbalance between received rewards and given efforts; such an imbalance promotes strain and corrodes wellbeing. As a result, employees with concerns about the continuity of their jobs could react by decreasing job engagement (Camgoz, Ekmekci, Karapinar, & Guler, 2016; Holm & Hovland, 1999). It has also been revealed that leaving an organization to look for more secure job opportunities is common among employees who feel insecure about their current jobs. Organizations may consequently lose their most valuable employees, whom they would most wish to retain (Holm & Hovland, 1999).

2.6.2 Job resources

According to Kim and Hyun (2017), job resources refer to particular job attributes that influence employees' achievement of work objectives. Job resources can be categorized as organizational (e.g., contingent rewards and opportunities for professional development), interpersonal and social (e.g., supervisor support and trust of leadership), and task-related (e.g., workplace autonomy and performance feedback). In the JD-R model, job resources are thought to have motivational potential, since they help employees to adjust to the strain produced by job demands, increase their learning capacity, and achieve job-related goals. Previous studies have outlined how job resources contribute to increased job engagement, and extra-role performance, thereby leading to a positive state of wellbeing and motivation (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Bakker et al., 2007). In the present study, when applying the JD-R model to the context of the UAE oil and gas industry, the variables of job autonomy, performance feedback, supervisor support, opportunities for development, and financial rewards have been identified as important and relevant job resources.

2.6.2.1 Job autonomy

Job autonomy refers to the extent to which employees are provided with freedom to make decisions about what procedures they use in carrying out their activities, the timing of their work, and the scheduling of their work; or, at the organizational level, it can be embodied in the form of a decentralized and democratic governance structure (Hackman & Oldham, 1974; James & Sells, 1981; Welander, Wallin, & Isaksson, 2017). According to self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), job autonomy is a basic human need that, if satisfied, leads to increased motivation and persistence, while its deprivation can lead to apathy and alienation. Consequently, the presence of job autonomy increases employees' motivation and emphasizes their ability to be responsible for their own work outcomes, thus ensuring positive outcomes such as job engagement (Cai, 2018).

Several researchers have pointed out that employees who are provided with job autonomy possess a high level of affective commitment, satisfaction, engagement, and mental wellbeing, thus indicating that they have unique intrinsic motivational factors prompting them to be efficient and highly engrossed in their jobs (Lee et al., 2017; Ng & Chan, 2017; Nielsen et al., 2017). For instance, Park and Searcy (2012) surveyed and interviewed 12,846 employees at 1,190 establishments in Great Britain, and revealed through hierarchical linear modeling that job autonomy is strongly related to mental wellbeing and organizational commitment. In a similar vein, Dodd and Ganster (1996) conducted an experimental study on 197 individuals and showed that job autonomy is linked with increased job satisfaction and job performance. These results are consistent with research carried out at a large, international company in the USA by Morgeson, Delaney-Klinger, and Hemingway (2005), who discovered that the

opportunity to expand one's role through job autonomy is critical for performing additional work tasks, as those who perform extra tasks are recognized by their supervisors, who then evaluate their performance accordingly. Furthermore, job autonomy has been shown to have a strong influence on employees' attitudes, as they become empowered to control their work and reduce the negative effects of job demands, thus leading them to strive to produce quality work (Baillien, De Cuyper, & De Witte, 2011; Naus, van Iterson, & Roe, 2007).

However, when job autonomy exceeds a certain level in the work environment, things can backfire. For example, some employees require little supervision for their work to be done correctly, while others require the provision of extra directions (Baillien et al., 2011). Hence, the type of employee in question determines the extent of autonomy given. Leaders must, therefore, identify those who are able to complete their tasks alone and those who require extra pushing or additional directions to complete their given assignments (Golden & Wiens-Tuers, 2006). While an extensive array of literature has explained, the positive association of job autonomy with individuals and organizations, the negative effects of autonomous work appear to be relatively unexplored. When such effects are present, it seems to be because the employees do not receive as much direct feedback regarding their job performance compared with other employees (Borzaga & Tortia, 2006; Mirvis & Hackett, 1983). In relation to this, Henz and Mills (2014) have posited that jobs permitting autonomous work also tend to be more demanding.

Traditionally, many companies have been strict in controlling the lower employee levels while allowing relatively more freedom among the higher ranks (Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999). Also, many leaders tend to have an overactive

command-and-control style of leadership that leaves little room for employee's autonomy, which is unsuited to most jobs in the present day. Studies have shown that a lack of employee autonomy elevates stress hormones and stress levels, and causes burnout (Raza, Aliha Yousaf, & Naqvi, 2014; Schaufeli & Buunk, 1996; ten Brummelhuis, ter Hoeven, Bakker, & Peper, 2011). Welander (2017), Zito et al. (2018), and De Lange, De Witte, and Notelaers (2008) have claimed that a lack of job autonomy affects decisions to leave a company, while Berlanda, Pedrazza, Trifiletti, and Fraizzoli (2017) have mentioned that a lower degree of autonomy is a ubiquitous source of dissatisfaction in workplaces. Slemp, Kern, and Vella-Brodrick (2015) argue that managers with autonomy-supportive leadership styles induce employee self-initiation and prompt fostering of an employee's intrinsic motivational resources and discretionary behavior. In contrast, those with more suppressive leadership styles tend to demotivate their employees and pressure them to feel, think, or behave in certain ways. In relation to this, Kim, Cable, Kim, and Wang (2009) conducted a study on a sample of 196 individuals in South Korea's hotel sector using a matched employee-supervisor questionnaire and hierarchical multiple regression analysis. They found that the relationship between feedback seeking and task effectiveness became significantly stronger as job autonomy increased. They also discovered that employees with high job autonomy may be less dependent on their supervisors in executing their tasks, and thus the development of relationships with supervisors could be less critical to task effectiveness.

Job autonomy as shown in the JD-R model provides more opportunities to manage the stressful circumstances resulting from job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Burney, 2011). In a JD-R model-based study by Xanthopoulou et al. (2009a), it has been stated that job resources are not only critical to "get things done," but are also

important in their own right because they increase job engagement. Conversely, a lack of job resources has a detrimental effect not only on employee burnout, but also on employee motivation and performance (Galletta, Portoghese, & Battistelli, 2011), since it precludes actual goal accomplishment and undermines employees' learning opportunities. Job autonomy is thus considered crucial not only for its direct effects on wellbeing according to various work indicators, but also as a moderator of the relationship between job demands and wellbeing outcomes (Zito et al., 2018).

2.6.2.2 Performance feedback

Performance feedback has been defined and measured in many ways, with its various definitions including information provided to employees regarding the quantity or quality of their performance, information offered to them following their performance, and information that tells them what and how well they are doing. Providing performance information allows individuals to modify their performance (Burney, 2011), and perhaps the most influential theory of performance feedback stems from the work of Kim (1984), who asserted that managers should continuously support employees explicitly to set performance goals, and also attempt to increase the level of publicity of goal-setting behavior.

It is clear that feedback is an essential communication tool for any type of organization. Providing employees with performance feedback is a significant way of improving performance at work (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Joo, 2012), and various organizations use different ways or approaches to give such feedback. Nevertheless, certain universal principles or guidelines for talking to employees about their performance do exist. A competent manager will find time to discuss an employee's performance either daily or weekly, according to the relevant work schedules. Aguinis

et al. (2012) have stated that managers start by discussing the positive sides of performance and then highlight the critical points that require improvement. In this way, employees discover their strengths and weaknesses; through this they become sure about the areas to which they should pay more attention. Managers can also draw up job plans whereby they are able to point out an organization's goals and its expectations in order to form the basis for evaluation of employees' performance. Such goals should always be shared with the employee at the beginning of the contract period and in a signed agreement. Having set the stage in this way, it becomes easier to evaluate and give feedback to employees, and this has been shown to boost productivity. However, many leaders or managers fail to understand the importance of performance feedback as a powerful management tool that is at their immediate disposal. It is necessary for them to provide continuous feedback to induce employee accountability, maintain momentum, generate an upsurge in confidence, and stimulate learning (Holbeche & Springett, 2004).

In accordance with job characteristics theory, Hackman and Oldham (1976) have noted that some aspects of work design, such as performance feedback, generate the psychological conditions necessary for job engagement. In a further study by Hackman (1980), performance feedback was included as a key job resource due to its role as a core intrinsic motivator, and it was mentioned that improved satisfaction and enhanced performance of employees can be predicted when job redesign induces performance feedback. In a similar study by Park, Kim, Park, and Lim (2018), findings drawn from a meta-analytical study of publications from between 2005 and 2016 revealed that performance feedback, including performance systems, was a prevalent antecedent for job engagement. Similar findings have been drawn from a very recent quantitative study by Nawrin (2018), who studied a sample of 440 employees in

Bangladesh's private banks by means of multiple regression analysis and the Sobel test to reveal that performance feedback was a strong predictor of job engagement. In a similar vein, Albrecht and Su (2012) observed a sample of 128 employees in a Chinese telecom company using SEM, and showed that performance feedback was associated with engagement through the fulfillment of employees' need for meaningfulness.

Feedback has a powerful connection not only with the performance of employees, but also that of organizations (Srikanth & Jomon, 2013). Every job can be identified with the organization as a whole, and it is through performance feedback that this can be achieved. According to Salancik (1977), employees can be induced to make a public commitment that creates salient implications for future behavior by announcing that they are not only capable of achieving a goal, but also are willing to attempt to achieve it; this then increases their persistence in accomplishing the related tasks. Schaufeli and Taris (2014) have found that performance feedback can improve employees' learning opportunities, thereby increasing their competence. According to Tims, Bakker, Derks, and van Rhenen (2013), feedback acts as a continued learning tool, since employees can share and ask about each piece of feedback that they receive and learn from them in order to stay aligned with organizational goals and expectations. Continued learning is thus a critical factor in improving performance.

Regardless of whether it is negative or positive, better working relations can be built on performance feedback. With feedback, the members of an organization can achieve better job decision latitude, which can then help them to increase and improve their performance (Demerouti et al., 2012). What practicing managers need to know is how this tool can bring about increases in performance, as such an understanding

would enable them to focus their managerial efforts on critical contingent variables when implementing goal setting and performance feedback (Kim, 1984), Conversely, employees who are provided with the opportunity to correct their performance deficits and remediate their weaknesses can thereby improve their career growth opportunities, development, and employability (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007).

In a study conducted by Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2000), the authors supported the notion that performance feedback within a supportive environment is positively associated with job engagement in a healthcare context. The study findings revealed that exhausted nurses did not necessarily disengage themselves from their work and, on the contrary, higher levels of disengagement were observed particularly among those nurses who lacked sufficient job resources, including performance feedback. Another study building on the JD-R model, by Menguc, Auh, Fisher, and Haddad (2013), applied multilevel modeling to a sample of 482 service employees and customers in 66 retail stores to reveal that performance feedback was positively related to engagement, while supervisor support was not. Consequently, more engagement was linked to increased positive outcomes and better service employee performance. When examining interactions, the study also found that performance feedback had a negative effect on engagement at high levels of perceived autonomy.

HAW research has established the need for the presence and availability of job resources as a precondition for the attainment of a state of happiness, and one of these critical resources is performance feedback. Theoretically, if an organization lacks suitable resources to fulfill such preconditions, the employees will be unable to experience engagement or satisfaction and will, as a result, suffer from a lack of

commitment. In line with this reasoning, several studies have demonstrated that employees with access to adequate levels of performance feedback are most likely to enjoy job satisfaction (Jong, 2016; Karim, 2017; Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008).

2.6.2.3 Supervisor support

Supervisor support refers to the extent to which subordinates perceive their supervisors' interest in their wellbeing and job performance (Choi, Cheong, & Feinberg, 2012). Employees need to feel valued, heard, and cared for, and these are some of the contextual roles of a supervisor (Kalemci Tuzun & Arzu Kalemci, 2012). In much of the relevant literature, supervisor support is considered to be a form of social support (Gloria & Ho, 2003; Himle, Jayaratne, & Thyness, 1991) whereby employees develop the perception of being cared for, motivated, valued, and part of a communication network of reciprocal obligations (Sekiguchi, Burton, & Sablynski, 2008). Supervisors administer employees' work, provide direct and indirect feedback on that work, and serve as pivotal individuals who influence rewards, appraisal, and career development in an organization. Supervisor support has been viewed as a contextual resource that an individual can draw on to help to achieve their goals (Halbesleben, 2010). Amabile and Kramer (2011) studied a sample of 669 managers from companies around the world and asked them to rank five employee motivators in terms of importance, among which they ranked "supporting progress" in last place. The study indicated that 95% of the managers failed to recognize that supporting their employees was one of their primary motivators, rather than mere traditional incentives such as financial rewards.

Supervisors play a synergistic role in the employee-organization relationship. Zhang, Tsui, Song, Li, and Jia (2008) have mentioned that supervisor support is

important in creating trust and positive mutual relationships. Accordingly, employees who feel supported by their supervisors have less propensity to look for another job externally and are persistent in investing more effort in their work (Abdullah & Wan, 2013). Another study has further shown that the more employees feel that their organization is focusing on providing support, the less they will be inclined to leave the organization (Paillé, Bourdeau, & Galois, 2010). Likewise, a meta-analytical study of 73 research papers by Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, and Rhoades (2002) found that supervisor support correlated with turnover intention reduction, job satisfaction, and positive mood when mediated by perceived organizational support (POS). Similar results were revealed in studies by Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, and Allen (2007) and DeConinck and Johnson (2009), with both detecting the indirect influence of supervisor support on turnover intention. Nevertheless, Maertz et al. (2007) have recommended further research on supervisors' personal and situational characteristics that may influence employees' positive attitudes and optimize their identification with an organization.

According to Foong-ming (2008), supervisor support also has intangible and socio-emotional components that can help to induce empowerment, inspire confidence at work, and offer professional and personal guidance, as well as assist in dealing with subordinates with respect and trust, and these aspects are congruent with organizational support and care. A study specifically focusing on organizational experience, job performance evaluation, and career satisfaction by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) has shown that the main elements of supervisor support include providing guidance and the necessary support to help employees to accomplish their action plans, having the ability to invest time to learn about employees' career goals and aspirations, caring about whether employees are

achieving their career goals, offering information about different career opportunities within the organization, and ensuring that employees get credit when they make achievements in their jobs. Supervisor support also includes providing helpful feedback about performance and emphasizing the usefulness of learning on the job. Additionally, it includes supporting employee's eagerness to acquire additional training or education to advance their careers by providing assignments that give them opportunities to gain and optimize new skills.

With respect to the theory of perceived organizational support (POS) (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), it is helpful to understand the association between management behavior and employee wellbeing (Eisenberger et al., 2002). POS theory posits that employees create a global perception of the extent to which an organization takes care of their wellbeing and respects their contributions (García-Cabrera et al., 2018). Consequently, employees may have parallel perceptions of the extent of support received from their supervisors (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2004). Furthermore, it appears that employees perceive supervisor support as a manifestation of organizational support, since supervisors are thought to act as agents and representatives of an organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; García-Cabrera et al., 2018; Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010; Levinson, 1965; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2004). Thus, employees' pleasant or unpleasant treatment by supervisors is perceived as reflecting the organization's views and decisions about them (Foong-ming, 2008).

Providing evidence that supports the role of supervisors in employee wellbeing, a cross-sectional study by Kalliath and Beck (2001) sampled 312 nurses working in a hospital in New Zealand and used SEM to discover that supervisor

support helped to reduce burnout, emotional exhaustion, and turnover intention. It has also been confirmed in studies by Gilbreath and Benson (2004) and Hämmig (2017) that supervisor support affects employees' wellbeing, with the former suggesting that an organization opting to create a healthy working environment must emphasize the role of supervision. Meanwhile, Brauchli, Bauer, and Hämmig (2014) have stated that supervisor support is an important resource for health and wellbeing in the workplace.

Empirical evidence has shown that supervisor support helps to optimize employee job satisfaction (Charoensukmongkol, Moqbel, & Gutierrez-Wirsching, 2016; Galletta, Portoghese, Penna, Battistelli, & Saiani, 2011; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). A meta-analytical study conducted by Harter et al. (2002) used data collected by the Gallup Organization from 36 companies to examine the relationship at the business unit level between employee satisfaction and engagement, and its outcomes; this revealed that supervisor support is positively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Another study by Charoensukmongkol et al. (2016) used data collected from a sample of 174 employees at two universities in the USA to investigate the positive effects of supervisor support on job satisfaction, and reported that supervisor support influenced employees' behavior, sense of accomplishment, and identification with their organizations. Similar findings were revealed in a study by Galletta, Portoghese, Penna, et al. (2011) of 1,240 nurses in three Italian hospitals, which examined the moderating role of supervisor emotional support on the relationship between job engagement and job satisfaction, with the results indicating that the relationship became stronger with higher levels of supervisor emotional support.

Although supervisor support may be one of the most important factors ameliorating stress in the workplace, as a job resource it can also become a source of strain in some specific contexts. In other words, it can potentially turn into a job demand. The JD-R model fails to explain this contradictory aspect of supervisor support, or how such support may be most effective when it is perceived by employees as a need and added value (Zhang, Xia, & Han, 2017). Previous studies have shown evidence of the adverse aspects of supervisor support, such as research by Buunk and Peeters (1994) on a sample of police officers in the Netherlands, which found that such support intensified feelings of stress and burnout due to job overload. Thus, when support is perceived as being imposed on an employee, it may induce feelings of inferiority and incompetence (Peters, Spanier, Radoschewski, & Bethge, 2018). Similar results were found by Himle et al. (1991), who studied a sample of human services social workers in Norway to reveal that supervisor support intensified anxiety outcomes when workers were faced with role conflict and job overload.

2.6.2.4 Financial rewards

Financial rewards refer to payments, such as salaries, bonuses, benefits, promotions, and incentives, that are provided to employees in return for their services (Johari, Yean, Adnan, Yahya, & Ahmad, 2012). They are considered a type of extrinsic reward that is external to the work itself, with individuals other than the employee controlling the amounts and whether they are granted. Specifically, financial rewards are a job aspect that is functional in achieving work goals and stimulates employee learning, and therefore is defined as a job resource in the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Lawler (2003) has argued that there are two factors determining the attractiveness of rewards to employees, the first being the amount of reward that is

given, and the second being the weighted value assigned by an individual to the reward. Several studies have shown that financial rewards can be used not only as a system of compensation to recognize employees' efforts and contributions, but also as a motivational tool (Chiu, Wai-Mei Luk, & Li-Ping Tang, 2002). Such rewards can further be utilized as means of influencing and modifying behavior (Birch, 2002; Getachew, 2016; Hofmans, De Gieter, & Pepermans, 2013). According to Armstrong and Stephens (2005), financial rewards are used to enhance employment relationships and the resilience necessary to meet individual needs.

Many of the theories relevant to the use of financial incentives to motivate workers are rooted in the concept of scientific management by Taylor (1911), expectancy theory by Vroom (1964), motivation-hygiene theory by Herzberg (1968), reinforcement theory by Skinner (1953), equity theory by Adams (1963), and learned industriousness theory by Eisenberger (1992). The last theory mentioned here asserts that extrinsic incentives can serve as signals to guide individuals toward specific creativity-related goals, thereby enhancing intrinsic motivation and individual creative behavior. According to social exchange theory (SET), when employees understand that organizations fulfill their needs in the workplace, they will fulfill their obligations by reacting with increased preparedness to perform their tasks and demonstrate the desired service values, behaviors, and attitudes. The extent to which employees believe that their organizations value and reward service behavior can thus have a strong impact on employee performance (Chiang & Birtch, 2011).

2.6.2.5 Opportunity for development

Throughout the relevant literature, the opportunity for development has been used interchangeably with terms such as "opportunity for career growth," "opportunity

for career development,” “opportunity for growth,” “perception of chances for development,” and “opportunity for professional development.” Career growth and development have been defined as “the degree of professional upward mobility within the organization” (Weng & Hu, 2009b). While Jans (1989) has defined career growth and development as “one’s perception of the chances for development and advancement within an organization,” Weng and Hu (2009b) have operationalized four constructs underlining career growth and development: career goal progress, professional ability development, promotion speed, and remuneration growth. This multidimensional conceptualization means that opportunity for development is concurrently a feature of employee efforts to progress toward their career objectives and acquire new skills, as well as an organization’s efforts to reward those efforts through promotions and salary increments. Hence, organizations need to provide advancement for employees in the form of career growth, career development, or career success in order to establish and maintain employees’ attachment to them. This may involve promotion or lateral movement toward new functions or knowledge and skill development, new assignments within a given area, or participation in training programs.

Previous research has emphasized that, although individual career self-management is indeed critical within the contemporary career field, organizations continue to play an essential role in employees’ career development, thus extending the focus on career management beyond the choices made by employees in order to recognize the role of organizations in managing their careers. It has been pointed out how organizations strive to leverage the potential benefits of opportunity for development, which can yield myriad benefits for both the organizations and their employees. There are four main reasons for this. First, there has been a recent trend

that considers employees' careers as "boundary-less" and "protean"; that is, individuals must seek out and take responsibility for directing and shaping their own career trajectories (Cheremie, 2013) by learning from experience and relationships (Hall & Mirvis, 1996). Second, employees are more likely to stay in organizations with clear career hierarchies and opportunities for personal growth and development, rather than staying in organizations where their career path is stagnant with few or no opportunities for growth. Third, opportunities for job-based learning, as well as hierarchical promotions, are the primary vehicles by which employees seek to build their career competencies (Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999; Smith, 2010; Wittekind, Raeder, & Grote, 2010). And last, but not least, opportunity for development can yield positive outcomes that are closely linked with organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Spagnoli & Weng, 2017; Weng, McElroy, Morrow, & Liu, 2010).

2.7 Consequences of HAW

2.7.1 Individual job performance

Job performance has been studied as an essential form of individual and group behavior, with researchers and practitioners often aiming for its enhancement through job design, training, personnel selection, development, or shaping of managerial style and organizational culture (Motowidlo, 2003; Warr & Nielsen, 2018). Individual job performance is usually a manifestation of knowledge, skills, abilities, and motivation directed at role-prescribed behavior, such as official job responsibilities (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). According to Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit (1997), job performance is regarded as the aggregate value to an organization of discrete behavioral and attitudinal episodes performed by an individual over a standard interval of time. Individual job performance has also been defined as "things that people do,

[and] the actions they take, that contribute to the organization's goals" (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015, p. 48). Meanwhile, Nayar (1994) has defined job performance as "the degree to which an individual executes his or her role concerning certain specified standards set by the organization."

Campbell and Wiernik (2015) have stated that an individual's job performance is regarded in organizational psychology and organizational behavior as one of the most crucial dependent variables. The importance of measuring performance arises from the underlying assumption that individual job performance has a direct effect on organizational performance. As such, improving individual job performance is essential to develop the core competency of the organization as a whole (Yee, 2018). Warr and Nielsen (2018) and Edgar et al. (2017) have suggested that it is essential to differentiate between types of performance based on their distinctive nature in association with the constructs under investigation. In this regard, however, Warr and Nielsen (2018) have indicated the complexity of the various performance indicators, as each one has its own limitations. For example, objective indicators of individual workers' performances (output, sales, etc.) are rarely available, since output is usually recorded for groups, rather than individuals, or because job activities are not readily quantifiable, while self-reported performance may lean toward positive inflation of the individual. Hence, Warr and Nielsen (2018) have concluded that a type of bias limits the generalizability and comparability of findings of other studies.

Among the principal aspects of the various types of job performance, the classical structure and dimensional model of job performance proposed by Borman and Motowidlo emphasizes task performance and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo et al., 1997). Both types of performance differ

fundamentally in terms of the potential psychological processes underlying each aspect (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo et al., 1997; Sonnentag, Volmer, & Spsychala, 2008). The outcome aspect arises as a result of employees' behavior (e.g., number of sales and targets attained), while the behavioral aspect encompasses the behavior itself and what actions employees take to establish their preferred outcomes (e.g., sales negotiations with the customer) (Campbell, McHenry, & Wise, 1990; Sonnentag et al., 2008). Hence, it is clear that these aspects do not overlap, since each determinant that affects an aspect of an outcome is different from those affecting the behavioral aspect (Sonnentag et al., 2008). On the basis of the current study, both aspects of performance were included, the outcomes and ability to display core technical skills are central to task performance, while voluntary-behavioral aspects that supports the organizational and social functionalities are mostly reflected in the measurement of contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Van Laethem, Beckers, de Bloom, Sianoja, & Kinnunen, 2018).

2.7.1.1 Task performance

Warr and Nielsen (2018) have defined task performance as an orientation focusing on behaviors that are formally required to meet organizational goals. Borman and Motowidlo (1993), meanwhile, have described task performance as the effectiveness of employees in specific job role activities that are associated with a "technical core." It is also known to be a quantifiable variable across different job duties (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Task performance is sometimes referred to as "in-role performance" or "proficiency" (Warr & Nielsen, 2018). According to Motowidlo and Schmit (1999), task performance is mainly predicated on employees' ability to utilize their professional skills and knowledge to produce products, services,

or outcomes as a part of their formal job descriptions. Hence, it is an integral part of the contract between the employer and employee (Sonnentag et al., 2008).

2.7.1.2 Contextual performance

Contextual performance reflects employees' interpersonal and voluntary behavior to facilitate task performance, which helps to enhance organizational effectiveness (Wang, Lu, & Sun, 2018). It is often not recognized by any formal reward systems (Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999). Although it does not directly contribute to organizational performance, it generally supports the organizational, social, and psychological environment (Motowidlo, 2003; Sonnentag et al., 2008). The term is used interchangeably with others such as "extra-role" or "prosocial" activities, as well as "OCB." Principally, employees who exhibit contextual performance go beyond formally prescribed job goals and exceed their task performance. This type of performance translates into behaviors such as helping co-workers, guiding new employees, taking the initiative in additional tasks, promoting positive affect in others, eliminating hostilities and conflict, and boosting interpersonal trust (Motowidlo, 2003; Warr & Nielsen, 2018). Unlike task performance, contextual performance activities are comparable for almost all jobs (Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999), while task performance involves domain-specific performance.

2.8 Hypothesis development

2.8.1 The relationship between job demands and HAW

In line with the theoretical framework of the JD-R model, job demands are often negatively associated with psychological and motivational outcomes for employees. Job demands are not automatically negative but, rather, transform into job

stressors when the costs required to meet such demands become too high (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). There is great consensus throughout the literature that job demands deplete employees' mental and physical energy resources, which can lead to burnout, health-related problems, and other negative outcomes, such as work stress. Additionally, job demands have a significant positive relationship with fatigue symptoms and lack of energy (Atwater & Carmeli, 2009; Golparvar, Kamkar, & Javadian, 2012; Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008; Roslan, Ho, Ng, & Sambasivan, 2015; Salas-Vallina, Alegre, et al., 2018). Karasek Jr. (1979) has proposed the job strain model to elucidate the impact of perceived job demands and job autonomy on psychological strain, and maintained that employees with high job demands and low job autonomy experience high levels of strain.

As mentioned, the oil and gas industry in Abu Dhabi has undergone extensive changes in recent years, and the effects of organizational restructuring, cost optimization, and technological innovation will continue to have an impact on it in the future, particularly in terms of the negative job characteristics associated with working in the industry. The work culture in many oil and gas organizations is one in which high job demands become an inevitable part of everyday working life. According to Bergh et al. (2018), psychosocial risks in the oil and gas industry can have a substantial impact on employee wellbeing and safety consequences, and must be handled in the same way as other operational risks. Meanwhile, oil and gas industry employees are making extra efforts to meet the demands of far-reaching career steps in order to perform their duties. Consideration of job demands could be mostly prevalent in knowledge-intensive working contexts. For example, the oil and gas industry, as employees require a strong support for their complex tasks (Salas-Vallina, Alegre, et al., 2018). When exposure to stressors as a result of accumulated job demands

continues, employees begin to lose the interest and motivation that led them to take on their jobs in the first place (Bakker & Oerleman, 2016; Bakker, Van Emmerik, et al., 2008; Taris, 2006). Not surprisingly, employees with high job demands are unable to do their jobs due to a negative spiral of stress. Consequently, this affects their overall level of work happiness.

Empirical research generally points to multiple interaction effects in the relationship between job demands and employee outcomes. In the relevant literature, job demands are seen as predictors associated with HAW sub-dimensions. In a recent cross-sectional study of 2,989 Japanese employees at two manufacturing companies, Inoue, Kawakami, Eguchi, and Tsutsumi (2018) used hierarchical multiple regression analysis to examine the interaction effects of job insecurity and role ambiguity on psychological distress. Their findings suggested that higher levels of role ambiguity strengthened the association of job security with psychological distress. Other studies have indicated the effect of job demands on job satisfaction. Using a sample of 161 employees, Rodríguez, Van Landeghem, Lasio, and Buyens (2017) examined the situational and dispositional determinants of job satisfaction in environments created by implementing employee-supportive lean practice. Rodríguez et al. (2017) found that perceived job demands had a negative impact on job satisfaction. Urien, Osca, and García-Salmones (2017), meanwhile, conducted a study on a sample of 573 employees of multinational companies in Mexico and Spain, and revealed that job demands, particularly high-level role ambiguity, are related to low job satisfaction – in other words, the more uncertainty there is about tasks, goals, and levels of performance, the less satisfied workers are. Furthermore, Urien et al. (2017) argued that, due to changes in task requirements as a result of technological and organizational innovation, the

assigned responsibilities were perceived as ambiguous and thus such innovation strategies may not help them to fulfill their job demands.

Similarly, in a meta-analysis of 141 studies conducted by Fila, Purl, and Griffeth (2017), it was found that job demands are negatively associated with job satisfaction and positively related to emotional exhaustion. Ram, Khoso, Shah, Chandio, and Shaikih (2011) used a simple random technique to find a sample of 84 Pakistani managers and assistant managers. They discovered that role ambiguity was positively and significantly related to work stress, and that work stress was negatively and significantly related to job satisfaction. In a similar vein, Yousef (2002) found that, among 361 employees of organizations in the UAE, those who perceived higher levels of role conflict and role ambiguity were less satisfied with their jobs. Similarly, role ambiguity has been reported as correlating negatively with job satisfaction; for example, one study on momentary happiness found that the stress indicators related to role ambiguity were depressed mood, lowered self-esteem, job dissatisfaction, low motivation to work, and intention to quit (Cooper & Cartwright, 1997). In contrast, role clarity may be helpful for employees who experience high job demands, since it results in clear expectations (Lang, Thomas, Bliese, & Adler, 2007).

Similarly, research supports the idea that the high job demands of work-family conflict and job insecurity have been found to have a significant effect on employee dissatisfaction (Armstrong, Atkin-Plunk, & Wells, 2015; Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002; Byron, 2005; De Witte et al., 2016; Ernst Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Zhang, Griffeth, & Fried, 2012). Under the circumstances of high work-family conflict, employees feel challenged to complete their tasks successfully (Zhang et al., 2012).

Affective commitment is a manifestation of employees' personal and spontaneous desire to work for the benefit of their organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Meanwhile, the stress caused by job demands can induce depersonalization, exhaustion, and a reduced sense of personal accomplishment (Levert, Lucas, & Ortlepp, 2000). These kinds of negative emotions then provoke a negative appraisal of the working environment, thus decreasing levels of affective commitment (Ashford, Lee, & Bobko, 1989). In a similar vein, employees facing an excess of job demands can feel emotionally exhausted, and this can develop an imbalance in social exchange relations, which then leads to lower levels of affective commitment (Chênevert, Jourdain, Cole, & Banville, 2013).

The literature indicates that a variety of job demands may also influence affective organizational commitment. In a cross-sectional study conducted by Anthun and Innstrand (2016) on a sample of 3,066 university employees, the findings revealed that work-family conflict was significantly and negatively associated with both the meaning of work and organizational commitment among all age groups. Similarly, Anton (2009) has obtained data from a sample of 261 employees in Spain, which show that job demands (role conflict and job ambiguity) are negatively associated with affective commitment when mediated by job satisfaction. Anton (2009) has argued that affective commitment is strongly correlated with employees' behavior either directly or through their attitudes. The deterioration of employee commitment can lead to serious implications that can then easily expand to affect an entire organization (Leiter & Maslach, 1988).

Up to the present, a significant volume of research has attempted to explain the demands-engagement relationship (Alzyoud, 2016; Bakker et al., 2007; Braine &

Roodt, 2011; Crawford et al., 2010; Mañas et al., 2018; Schaufeli, 2017c; Van Steenbergen et al., 2017). Hindrance demands could reduce engagement by triggering negative emotions and cognition (Crawford et al., 2010). In a longitudinal study conducted by Sonnentag, Binnewies, and Mojza (2010) on 309 human services employees working in German and Swiss non-profit organizations, it was found that, over time, excessive job demands correlated positively with predicted emotional exhaustion, psychosomatic complaints, and low job engagement. Moreover, in a very recent study conducted by Pincheira and Garcés (2019), on a sample of 107 employees in Chile. Their study indicate that psychological demands (workload) is negatively correlated with happiness, thus, reducing the happiness 19.8%.

In light of the above, it can be assumed that job demands are likely to result in lowered HAW levels among oil and gas employees. The present study therefore hypothesizes that:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Job demands are negatively related to HAW.

2.8.2 The relationship between job resources and HAW

There is substantial evidence from both cross-sectional and longitudinal research to support the relationship between job resources and positive outcomes (Gordon et al., 2015; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013). Bakker (2015) has argued that job resources (e.g., financial reward, job autonomy, supervisor support, performance feedback, and opportunity for development) play an intrinsic motivational role in fostering growth, learning, and development, enabling the achievement of work goals. This is based on the psychological motivation process described in the JD-R model of Bakker et al. (2014), which suggests that job resources are the physical, psychological, social, and organizational characteristics of a job that encourage the motivation process

and enhance positive attitudes at work. Moreover, according to Tims, Bakker, Derks, et al. (2013), when job resources increase, job satisfaction has a tendency to increase as well. Job resources, meanwhile, can have a buffering effect in reducing the dysfunctional implications of job demands if such resources are perceived to be adequate. Even when they are not, individuals may be able to maintain an optimistic belief that future events are likely to be good, which may provide a chronically high estimate of their affective resources and thus lead to the belief that they can weather the costs of paying attention to negative information in most situations (Gillham et al., 2001). Raquel, Bernardo, Sara, Abraham, and Ana Isabel (2010) have also argued that, when employees have access to a plenty of job resources, the effect of job resources on employee wellbeing will be more strongly positive. The present study examines the five job resources of financial reward, job autonomy, supervisor support, performance feedback, and opportunity for development.

Past research has found job resources to be positively related to job satisfaction. For example, a study conducted by Zito et al. (2018) on a sample of 318 call center agents of an Italian telecommunication company examined the mediating role of job satisfaction between two job resources (job autonomy and supervisor support) and turnover intention, and found that both job autonomy and supervisor support were positively related to job satisfaction, thus indicating their roles as predictors of job satisfaction and wellbeing indicators in general. In a cross-sectional study of 308 employees in Malaysia, Idris, Dollard, and Winefield (2011) examined the mediating role of job resources between the effects of globalization on employees' psychological health and job satisfaction, and concluded that job resources were positively related to job satisfaction, further indicating that the JD-R framework is practically applicable in an Asian setting.

In a similar vein, empirical studies have shown that job resources have a positive impact on job engagement within the workplace (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Prieto et al., 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a). In a recent study conducted by Turnell et al. (2016) on an international sample of 417 clinicians, logistic regression analysis was used to examine the relationship between burnout and job engagement. The study findings indicated that the availability of job resources predicted higher levels of job engagement, while higher levels of job demands predicted higher levels of burnout. In a cross-sectional study by van Mol, Nijkamp, Bakker, Schaufeli, and Kompanje (2018), job engagement was examined among a sample of 193 workers in an intensive care unit to explore the complex relationships among job engagement, job demands, and personal resources. It was found that job resources could positively predict job engagement – in other words, the level of job engagement increased together with the experience of abundant job resources such as job autonomy, performance feedback, and enhanced peer communication. In a meta-analysis conducted by Park et al. (2018), it was concluded that job resources (supervisor support and performance feedback) were the most frequently studied as predictors of job engagement in non-profit organizations. Furthermore, using three-wave longitudinal research on a sample of 228 supervisor-subordinate pairs, Yang et al. (2018) found that supervisor support (as a job resource) for career development was positively related to career satisfaction and ability to be promoted. They investigated the critical mechanism through which supervisor support was correlated with career outcomes to explore the situational variables related to the effectiveness of supervisor support. Yang et al. (2018) bolstered their findings by stating that, according to conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989), supervisor support is perceived as a vital job resource and is, therefore, likely to enhance subordinates' enthusiasm and energy levels in the form of

job engagement, career satisfaction, and expectation for promotion. One explanation for the implications of supervisor support has been provided by Saks (2006), who suggests that employees tend to view their supervisors' orientation toward them as indicative of the organization's support, and thus supervisor support is likely to be an important predictor of employee engagement.

In line with the JD-R model, it was found that job resources promoted job engagement among 54 teachers in the Netherlands (Bakker & Bal, 2010). Job resources were also revealed to enhance job engagement levels and help in coping with job demands among Finnish teachers working in elementary, secondary, and vocational schools (Bakker et al., 2007). More specifically, supervisor support is among the job resources that promote employee wellbeing and, in turn, enhances self-development, job engagement, and innovative behavior (Schaufeli, 2017c).

Regarding the relationship between job resources and engagement, Chen and Yu (2014) examined job resources, job demands, burnout, commitment, and turnover intentions among a sample of 190 paid volunteers, with the findings showing that job resources have a significant positive effect on job commitment. Similarly, Kirk-Brown and Van Dijk (2016) studied a sample of 604 employees (chronically ill employees and a referent group of general employees) in Australia using multi-group SEM analysis, and discovered that the provision of job resources resulted in higher levels of affective commitment for all employees.

The aforementioned studies indicate that job resources interact positively with HAW sub-dimensions (job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and job engagement). This is in line with the JD-R theoretical model, which explains how job resources can be expected to be a positive predictor of job engagement through a

motivational process. In this regard, job resources, such as supervisor feedback and opportunity for development, are intrinsically related to an employee's perceptions of job satisfaction, while support from a supervisor is effective in alleviating burnout level (Constable & Russell, 1986; Marek, Schaufeli, & Maslach, 2017). In a study of 135 full-time Thai employees of Japanese subsidiaries, Sattavorn (2018) examined the antecedents of organizational commitment and theorized that attachment to one's supervisor is significantly correlated with organizational commitment. Thus, employees who are highly satisfied with their supervisor support are more likely to be committed to their organization in the form of affective organizational commitment and job engagement, and this subsequently affects HAW in general. The present study therefore proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Job resources are positively related to HAW.

2.8.3 The relationship between job demands and individual job performance

Within the context of increasingly complex and uncertain workplaces, the body of research on job demands and their consequences for employees and organizations has grown substantially since the end of the 1990s. Furthermore, changes in work environments have gradually paved the way for even more job demands to arise (Ogbuanya & Chukwuedo, 2017). As such, changes in work environments may have consequences in terms of job characteristics and subsequently lead to both favorable and unfavorable outcomes with respect to a given organizational situation (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). As mentioned in Chapter 1, Demerouti et al. (2001) have defined job demands as aspects of a job that require physical or mental effort, and have observed that they are associated with certain physiological and psychological costs. In principle, when job demands increase, the cognitive and emotional costs for

employees also rise as they accommodate the level of those demands (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In other words, the greater the effort required, the greater the cost for employees (Demerouti et al., 2001).

To comprehend how the relationship between job demands and job performance operates, it is crucial to understand in detail how the two constructs interact. Furthermore, a comprehension of the dynamics underpinning job demands and individual job performance is required. Hence, the JD-R model focuses particularly on the job characteristics underlying the work environment. Drawing on the JD-R model, it can be said that job demands result in an energy-depletion process through which high job demands cause strain for employees, thereby diminishing their mental and physical energy resources. Hence, job demands are the parts of a job that require constant energy and exertion of effort (Li, Jiang, Yao, & Li, 2013), which can, in turn, lead to burnout and other health-related problems, such as increased absenteeism due to sickness (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003; Van Steenbergen et al., 2017). This is called the “health-impairment process” in the JD-R model. As such, employees who are repeatedly exposed to high job demands can be expected to develop feelings of mental and physical depletion. Another explanation can be drawn from Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, and Jackson (2003), whose COR theory identifies job demands that can negatively affect job performance. These include cases where employees perceive the risk that their hindering job demands or responsibilities will exceed their resources, or where invested resources will not result in commensurate returns. COR theory states that job demands will negatively affect individuals’ ability to attain their goals and thus hinder their job performance.

A study by Tuckey et al. (2017) introduced new conceptual categories of job demands, dividing them into challenges, hindrances, or threats in relation to performance and employee wellbeing. The initial JD-R model did not distinguish among these categories, and job demands were, instead, simply viewed as possibly harmful stressors with the potential to deplete energy and incur psychological costs. However, Tuckey et al. (2017) have stated that, while many job challenges and circumstances (e.g., initiating new projects) are potentially stressful, they also have possible associated gains in terms of an individual's development and achievement, whereas job hindrances (e.g., job overload) tend to thwart an individual's capability to accomplish goals. Job threats, meanwhile, have more salient implications for employees' work, as they can evoke strong emotions that presage harm, either directly to themselves or to important non-work domains such as family and personal goals. All three categories of job demands can lead employees to feel overwhelmed and, subsequently, generate negative affective states, anxiety, fear, depression, emotional dissonance, low self-esteem, worry, and cynicism (Alarcon, 2011; Els, 2015; Zito et al., 2018). Furthermore, the subjective experience of job-related stress is variously associated with perceived demands that go beyond one's comfort zone (Hui & Sue-Chan, 2018; Searle & Tuckey, 2017).

In a meta-analytical study conducted by LePine, Podsakoff, and LePine (2005) that focused on twenty-two journals, it was indicated that not only did challenge stressors have a positive direct effect on performance, but they also offset indirect effects on performance through (negative) strain and motivation. The results of this study are in agreement with earlier findings by Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, and Boudreau (2000), who studied longitudinal data from a sample of 1,886 managers in

the USA, with regression results indicating that self-reported challenge-related stress was positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to job search behaviors. Such challenge-related stress factors were labeled “challenge stressors,” since they included stressful demands viewed by managers as obstacles to be overcome in order to learn and achieve. Specifically, challenge stressors are considered to be work-related demands or circumstances that, although potentially stressful, have linked to potential gains for individuals (Tuckey et al., 2017).

The relationship between job demands and performance has been established by several scholars and is receiving growing attention in academic research, especially from a holistic perspective (Bhagat, Allie, & Ford, 1995; Nelson & Simmons, 2003; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Researchers have found that job demands, such as job overload, role ambiguity, work-life conflict, and job insecurity, have a negative effect on job performance (Bakker, 2015; Nelson & Simmons, 2003). Bakker (2015) revealed that job demands are likely to result in strain and reduced performance in a sample of individuals in a diverse range of occupations. Other research has found that job demands exacerbated the health impairment process, with work pressure, work-family interface, and emotional demands (job demands) being positively associated with burnout, which, in turn, was negatively related to in-role performance (Nelson & Simmons, 2003).

Although the aforementioned studies depict that job demands are associated with lower job performance, this correlation has received a varying empirical support in light of the development of various theoretical and empirical studies using the JD-R model. Job demands may not have particularly negative consequences in terms of employees' levels of burnout (Hakanen & Koivumäki, 2014; Mei-Ling et al., 2018;

Tims, Bakker, Derks, et al., 2013). Research has furthermore suggested that challenging job demands can facilitate job engagement, since employees can satisfy their basic needs for gaining competence (Tims, Bakker, Derks, et al., 2013). Other studies have suggested that employees even find pleasure in working hard and dealing with stress, and found no significant relationship between job demands and performance (Hakanen & Koivumäki, 2014; Mei-Ling et al., 2018). Bang and Reio (2017) have asserted that most of these conflicting results may be attributed to employees' perceptions of job demands and adaptive processes, and posited that the seemingly contradictory findings indicate a lack of conceptual and empirical clarity regarding the dynamic processes associated with job demand dimensions (burnout, in the case of their study). Nonetheless, since the weight of the literature suggests negative outcomes from job demands, the present study expected that each job demand construct would be negatively associated with both task performance and contextual performance.

According to COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the presence of highly challenging job demands in a resource-rich environment should result in improved performance. COR theory thus postulates that employees will attempt to accumulate resources that they deem valuable and that will later act as potential motivators against hindering job demands and preventive factors, guarding against resource depletion (Cheng & Yi, 2018). In light of the JD-R model, a lack of job resources precludes actual goal accomplishment, which then causes failure and frustration (Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2003). When organizations do not provide their employees with sufficient job resources, withdrawal and decreased commitment will be the end result (Demerouti et al., 2001). These outcomes can be interpreted as self-protecting mechanisms that prevent the development of employee frustration caused by lack of

achievement of work-related goals (Hackman, 1980). Indeed, consistent with this line of reasoning, COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) argues that individuals strive to obtain and maintain (job) resources, and that situations are experienced as stressful when loss or threat of loss occurs, or when the acquisition of job resources fails. To reduce their levels of stress, employees thus attempt to limit their losses. One way to achieve this is to develop a detached attitude toward their jobs (Wright & Bonett, 1997). It has also been suggested that this detached attitude can diminish job performance (Maslach, 1993). The present study therefore proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Job demands are negatively related to individual job performance.

2.8.4 The relationship between job resources and individual job performance

One of the main objectives of this research was to examine the job environment characteristics that are related to individual job performance, which has always been an outcome of interest within the workplace literature. Since the Industrial Revolution, human resource development practitioners and researchers have been investing their time and effort in optimizing workplaces to obtain the most efficient and productive output. From a classical management perspective, Thorndike (1949, p. 121) declared the importance of job performance by stating that it is “the ultimate criterion.”. Although a positive relationship between job resources and individual job performance seems apparent, empirical evidence of the multivariate effect of job resources on individual job performance is limited, since most studies have been conducted on the effect of job resources as a univariate variable on job performance. Additionally, research on the direct relationship between job resources and individual job performance is also limited. In other words, most of the studies were restricted to

additive and common moderating effects. For example, the relationship between job resources has been found to be related to positive work outcomes through motivation, or behaviors such as job engagement (Chung & Angeline, 2010; Demerouti et al., 2001; Kim, 2017; Plomp et al., 2016). Thus, it is challenging to determine how other studies have postulated this relationship, which is not indicated as a direct relationship in the primary JD-R model.

Kasl (1996, p. 49) has suggested that a researcher should go beyond testing models to investigate possible alternatives, “even if these are not formally part of the model, or even part of some broader formulation.” Thus, to understand how the relationship between job resources and individual job performance operates, it is crucial to know how they interact. To this end, the present study utilized several theoretical frameworks, including self-determination theory (SDT), SET, COR theory, and the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), in order to provide a better understanding of the interactions between job resources and individual job performance. Based on the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), job resources concern the physical, psychological, social, and organizational characteristics of work that: (1) are functional in attaining work-related objectives; (2) reduce job demands and their accompanying physiological and psychological costs; and (3) trigger personal growth and development that help to complete work tasks (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The JD-R model also proposes that job resources have a dual function by both positively affecting the motivation process and buffering the negative effect of job demands. The basic premise of the JD-R model postulates that high levels of job resources are related to positive work outcomes through a motivational process, which leads employees to invest energy and dedication in performing their work. Hence, the availability of job resources contributes to job engagement and

organizational commitment (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Le Blanc et al. (2017) have further argued that job resources evoke a motivational process that leads to enhanced performance.

Job resources are assumed to play both an intrinsic and extrinsic motivational role that occurs through triggering of motivational potential (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Such intrinsic and extrinsic processes intersect to create positive job engagement, which, in turn, leads to worker retention and productivity (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) have found that the extrinsic motivational role is instrumental in achieving work-related goals and dealing with job demands. Additionally, extrinsic motivation acts as a resource that fosters employees' willingness to dedicate their efforts to a task, which then results in goal attainment. Deci and Ryan (1985) indicate on their developed self-determination theory (STD), the intrinsic motivation that satisfies the basic psychological needs for autonomy, belonging, and competence, and this then fosters employees' growth, learning, and development (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2001). The underlying premise is that job resources are intrinsically valued by employees and therefore likely to fulfill their needs when present.

In agreement with JD-R theory, it has been found that job resources are negatively related to burnout because employees with more adequate access to resources are more easily able to meet job demands and protect themselves from the strains of further resource depletion, whereas those with fewer resources accrue strain that results in burnout more quickly (Bakker, Lieke, Prins, & van der Heijden, 2011; Demerouti et al., 2001; Salanova, Bakker, & Llorens, 2006). Furthermore, under demanding work conditions, employees with higher levels of resources at their

disposal are more capable of dealing with such demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Crawford et al., 2010; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011). Moreover, a lack of job resources leads to depletion of individuals' energy, which eventually results in health problems such as burnout (Bakker et al., 2005). Job resources, meanwhile, can be used to elicit increased job engagement and alleviate the adverse effects of work burnout among employees (Demerouti et al., 2001). Rising empirical evidence suggests that inadequate or missing job resources inhibit actual goal attainment and hinder employees' ability to deal with the challenges caused by job demands, which is likely to cause failure and frustration that culminate in reduced staff retention (Walt, 2008). Furthermore, job resources can refer to environmental resources that can be used to turn challenges into flow experiences, can alter the perceptions and cognitions evoked by such stressors, and can moderate responses subsequent to the appraisal process, or reduce the health-damaging consequences of such responses (Kahn & Byosiere, 1992). Additionally, job resources are assumed to stimulate personal development and to encourage equanimity, perseverance, and self-reliance (Demerouti et al., 2001).

In this regard, COR (Hobfoll, 1989) is a highly relevant theory for rationalizing the effects of job resources (or lack thereof) on an employee's job performance. COR theory predicts that, within the workplace, there are objects, personal characteristics, circumstances, and energies that are valued by employees, or that serve as a means for the attainment of other objects, personal characteristics, or energies (Hobfoll, 1989). Hence, employees will seek to build, retain, and protect their resources, since they understand that such resources may be limited. Moreover, in order to reduce the discomfort of resource limitation, employees will attempt to minimize their losses. With the intention of achieving equity without suffering further negative

consequences, they will most likely reduce their discretionary input. On the basis of this framework, COR has a history of serving as a blueprint for understanding how employees perceive the availability and scarcity of job resources and the resultant effect on work-related outcomes such as job performance (Gilin Oore et al., 2010; Halbesleben, 2010). Accordingly, employees who receive access to resources are less susceptible to resource loss, while those individuals who do not have access to a strong job resource pool are more likely to experience increased loss (loss spiral), or attempt to risk some job resources for increased resource gains (gain spiral). Based on this argument, employees value job resources for task-related goal attainment, and a lack of such resources will exacerbate adverse effects on job performance (Bakker et al., 2005; Leiter & Schaufeli, 1996).

Furthermore, the relationship between job resources and individual job performance is observable from the perspective of SET (Blau, 1964), which argues that human relationships are reciprocal in nature, and thus employees within an employment relationship are motivated to exhibit positive attitudes and behaviors when they understand that their employer values them (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010). This means that, when job resources are adequately available to work with, they feel obliged to repay their organization in the form of higher engagement. Consequently, this positively affects employees' motivation to perform better at work (Antoni & Hertel, 2009). Research has shown that, when support is shown by supervisors in providing their employees with career development opportunities, those employees are likely to reciprocate with an increased commitment toward improving their work by seeking feedback (Chen, 2007; Cheng et al., 2014; Eichhorn, 2009). Similarly, when employees' organizations can provide autonomy, those who have freedom in the way

they perform their work will exhibit a higher quality of job performance (Luchman & Gonzalez-Morales, 2013).

Extant research findings also point to the notion that employees are more likely to attain high job performance in the presence of job resources. A study conducted by Johari, Yean Tan, and Tjik Zulkarnain (2018), based on a sample of 302 teachers, and using SEM and partial least squares regression as data analysis mechanisms, examined the effects of autonomy, workload, and work-life balance on job performance. This study generated findings indicating that autonomy positively impacted job performance. It was shown that teachers with higher levels of autonomy were more likely to demonstrate excellent job performance due to the freedom afforded to them in the pacing of their task assignments, as well as the procedures required to complete their tasks.

Similarly, by performing a cross-sectional study of 85 pairs working in the frontline hospitality industry, Cai (2018) examined the moderating role of job autonomy in the relationship between prosocial motivation and job performance. The study results showed that high levels of perceived job autonomy strengthened the expression of prosocial motivation and, in turn, employees were more likely to take charge of tasks, which consequently led to higher job performance. Another study was conducted by Nesheim, Olsen, and Sandvik (2017) on a sample of 510 employees working at a multinational Internet service provider in Norway to examine the associations among networking ability, autonomy, and job performance. The study resulted in two major findings: (1) job autonomy was positively associated with in-role and contextual performance; and (2) the higher job autonomy was, the stronger the effect of networking ability on in-role performance became. Morgeson et al.

(2005), using a sample of 132 employees, found that job autonomy, cognitive ability, and job-related skill were positively related to role breadth, which, in turn, was positively related to job performance. It was explained that job autonomy could provide employees with the opportunity to expand their roles, which encouraged them to carry out a wider range of job tasks.

Additionally, prior research has investigated the role of performance feedback on individual job performance. The JD-R model has demonstrated feedback to be positively associated with job engagement through a motivational process (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Demerouti et al., 2001; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008). Communication by a supervisor of an employee's strengths and weaknesses in job performance can support the employee's meta-thinking, thus helping them to develop a sense of self-insight that can include improvements in their knowledge and capabilities (Van Der Heijden, 2003). Additionally, performance feedback has cognitive and motivational elements that can enhance employee motivation and performance (Deci, 1975; Steers & Porter, 1974), as it allows employees to understand exactly what is expected of them, thus reducing role ambiguity (Jong, 2016). Additionally, performance feedback provides employees with the opportunity to establish their own goals, thereby increasing their motivation to perform well, which, in turn, makes it easier for them to notice the relationship between effort and resulting performance (Steers & Porter, 1974).

There is currently only a limited amount of research on the influence that supervisor support has on individual performance (Dennis, 2017; Ehrhardt, 2014; Willemse, de Jonge, Smit, Depla, & Pot, 2012) with the exception of a few studies (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Talukder, Vickers, & Khan, 2018). There is, however,

research showing the positive effect that it has on job engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001; Yang et al., 2018), job satisfaction (Willemsse et al., 2012), job commitment (Sattavorn, 2018), and innovation (Dogru, 2018). Employees usually perceive supervisor support as a resource that provides them with instrumental data and enthusiastically support it (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Organizational support theory postulates that employees formulate a general perception of their organization and the extent to which it supports their contributions and prosperity (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2002). Such perceptions of organizational support are valued by employees, as they can expect support to be provided by their organization when necessary in order for them to carry out their jobs effectively and deal with stressful circumstances (George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, & Fielding, 1993).

According to the JD-R model, supervisor support is one of the job resources that helps employees to cope with excessive job demands and enables the employee wellbeing that, in turn, promotes not only self-development, but also other remarkable positive outcomes and innovative behaviors (Bakker et al., 2005; Dogru, 2018; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli, 2017b). Constable and Russell (1986) have stated that supervisor support does not necessarily lower the level of stress experienced by employees but, rather, that it aids them in coping with the stressful aspects of a job. Similar findings have been revealed in a meta-analytical study by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), which showed that supervisor support is positively related to perceived organizational support, in-role performance, and contextual performance. The authors explained their findings by stating that employees often perceive supervisors as representatives of their organizations. Hence, receipt of a supervisor's support contributes to perceived notions of organizational support, which, in turn, increases employees' potential for a high level of job performance. In a study

conducted by Karatepe (2012) on a sample of frontline hotel employees in Cameroon, the mediating role of job engagement between co-worker and supervisor support on career satisfaction, service recovery performance, job performance, and creative performance was examined, with the results indicating that supervisor support is positively linked to job engagement. Meanwhile, a study by Turnipseed and Murkison (2000) using a sample of soldiers in the USA examined the relationship between supervisor support and OCB, and revealed that supervisor support had a positive relationship with subordinates' OCB. In a study by Talukder et al. (2018) using a sample of 305 employees working in the Australian financial sector, the relationships among supervisor support, work-life balance, job attitudes, and employee performance were investigated, with the results indicating a positive relationship with an underlying mechanism through which supervisor support is linked with job performance.

With regard to financial rewards, De Gieter, De Cooman, Hofmans, Pepermans, and Jegers (2012) have suggested that employees are constantly striving to meet their economic needs, which yields positive behaviors and attitudes in the workplace and further motivates employees to perform well. When employees are paid an equitable amount of money that enables them to sustain their basic needs, they become highly motivated to invest more effort and achieve positive organizational goals that have been set. Many employees admit that financial reward is the most important thing to them and acts as a driving force (Stabile, 1999). However, there is some controversy regarding the proposition that a person will be motivated to execute work if rewards and penalties are linked directly to his performance (Vroom & Deci, 1972). This proposition has been definitively challenged by Stabile (1999), who explains that: (1) there can be a negative effect of rewards on intrinsic motivation, as employees may respond to such reward situations by executing tasks simply to achieve

the reward without taking any risks or thinking creatively; (2) a reward can be seen as a punishment, as it adds a level of control of the employer over employees that can translate into reduced self-esteem among those who have been excluded from rewards, as well as feelings of being bribed or punished; and (3) money as a motivator is temporary in its essence, since an employee may feel good when they receive a pay increase, but there may be little apart from the additional money to make them feel valued when it is gone. Kulikowski and Sedlak (2017) have evaluated the JD-R model in examining the relationship between financial rewards and job engagement using a sample of 1,201 multi-occupational employees, and suggested that financial rewards cannot explain additional amounts of variance in job engagement because they found insufficient evidence to claim that financial rewards are related to employee job engagement level. Similarly, Stabile (1999) has argued that the idea of tying pay to performance is overrated, stating that financial rewards can act as an effective motivator only in some circumstances. Meanwhile, De Gieter et al. (2012) have criticized Stabile's assertions for placing too little attention on the vital role of financial rewards in performance. Nevertheless, the feeling of euphoria from financial rewards can rapidly vanish. The study by Stabile (1999) thus concluded that financial reward as "contingent compensation" could have the potential to influence managerial performance positively by maximizing the motivating effect underlying it.

Although the literature on performance-based compensation is rife with inconsistent findings, as shown in the aforementioned studies, it suggests that, overall, financial rewards are a predictor of individual job performance and an important part of the performance-reward system (Camerer & Hogarth, 1999; Zaky, Handoko, & Ali, 2018). The logic of economic exchange argues that benefits derived from financial rewards can be considered primary motives for performance (Chiang & Birtch, 2012;

Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). This is due to the fact that employees invest more effort because they perceive a clear and beneficial economic exchange for their contributions to the organization in the form of the financial rewards that they receive in return. The employment relationship is built on this transactional obligation, which is characterized by short-term monetizable exchanges (e.g., pay for hard work) in which individuals act to maximize the value of the exchange with their organization through performance. Furthermore, in a study conducted by Siefert, Jayaratne, and Chess (1991), it was found that satisfaction with financial rewards was a significant predictor of job satisfaction, while low satisfaction with financial rewards was a significant predictor of depersonalization.

Similarly, Sarwar and Abugre (2013) have examined the relationship between employees' rewards and the dimension of job satisfaction in the private service sector using data collected from 104 employees. Their study revealed that rewards induce positive job satisfaction, which, in turn, stimulates loyalty to the organization. Meanwhile, a study conducted by Cherotich (2012) on a sample of 232 employees of thirteen banks in Pakistan studied the effect of job rewards on job satisfaction with age as the moderating factor. Analysis of the results showed that job satisfaction was positively and significantly related to extrinsic rewards, but not to as high a degree as intrinsic rewards.

Another stream of studies has found that financial rewards can be a predictor of job commitment and retention. For example, Hofmans et al. (2013) examined the relationship between individual differences in perceptions of financial rewards and job commitment using regression analysis of data collected from 365 employees in a variety of sectors and functions. Their study revealed that employees whose financial

reward satisfaction was associated with job satisfaction had stronger affective commitment and lower turnover intention. This suggests that observed individual differences may be due to variances in the mechanisms driving job satisfaction and related concepts such as affective commitment and turnover intention. Other studies have indicated that individuals who are well-paid are likely to perform well. For example, a quantitative study by Edirisooriyaa (2014) examined the extent to which financial rewards impact employee performance using data collected from 100 employees of a public sector organization in Sri Lanka, and it was demonstrated that there was a positive relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and employee job performance. The author recommended that, to achieve a competitive advantage, an understanding of the significance of the reward system for employee performance and design of an effective strategic reward system would be crucial.

In a similar vein, Malik et al. (2015) examined data collected from 181 employees of two private universities in Pakistan to show that extrinsic incentives had a positive influence on employees' creative performance only when the employees had a specific cognitive style (self-efficacy and locus of control). On this basis, it is clear that employees with such cognitive orientations are more likely to perceive financial rewards as indicators of their competence, and such rewards thus strengthen their intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, Currall, Towler, Judge, and Kohn (2005) examined the association between pay satisfaction and performance outcomes at the organizational level using data collected from 117 public school districts, and the results revealed a positive linkage between pay satisfaction and teacher performance. In this regard, Camerer and Hogarth (1999) conducted a meta-analysis and concluded that financial rewards could improve performance under some circumstances, particularly in the area of judgment and decision tasks. Nzyoka and Orwa (2016)

examined a sample of 100 employees at an insurance company and found that there was a significant positive relationship between total compensation and employee performance. The authors argued that, when employees perceive compensation factors to be valuable and sufficient, they become motivated and positively improve their performance. This positive relationship between financial reward and job performance is consistent with the equity theory of motivation (Adams, 1965), which postulates that people work well in accordance with what they regard as fair concerning the effort they have made. In other words, employees show increased performance when they feel strongly connected to and valued by the organization. Hence, fulfilling the exchange process involved in the perceived ratio of an employee's contributions as performance to outcomes as pay can be compared to fulfilling the ratio of another set of referent inputs and outcomes.

Conversely, evidence has indicated that pay dissatisfaction can be a potent determinant of reduced levels of performance (Bretz & Thomas, 1992), counterproductive behaviors, such as lateness and detachment (Cherrier & Munoz, 2007; Koslowsky, Sagie, Krausz, & Singer, 1997), turnover intention (Vandenberghe & Tremblay, 2008; Williams, McDaniel, & Nguyen, 2006), absenteeism (Weiner, 1980; Williams et al., 2006), and theft, sabotage, and vandalism (Bateman & Snell, 2004). As Heneman and Judge (2000, p. 85) have stated, "Research has unequivocally shown that pay dissatisfaction can have important and undesirable impacts on numerous employee outcomes." The importance of understanding employees' pay satisfaction is thus a great matter of concern, as salary is a significant expenditure element in an organization, and is considered to be the nominal value or result that employees receive from their work (Shaw, Duffy, Jenkins Jr, & Gupta, 1999). All of

the consequences of dissatisfaction are costly to the organization, whether directly or indirectly (Schuldes, 2006).

Opportunity for development or career growth, meanwhile, has been linked to a number of attitudes and behaviors that have vital implications for employees and the organizations in which they work, including job satisfaction (Abdulla, Djebarni, & Mellahi, 2011; Kooij, Jansen, Dijkers, & De Lange, 2010), job engagement (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Chavarria, 2016; Cilliers, Mostert, & Nel, 2018; Crawford et al., 2010; Leiter & Bakker, 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a), decision-making competency (Ceschi, Demerouti, Sartori, & Weller, 2017), employee voice (Wang, Weng, McElroy, Ashkanasy, & Lievens, 2014), turnover intention (Karavardar, 2014), organizational commitment (Weng et al., 2010), performance (Bakker & Geurts, 2004; Salas-Vallina, Alegre, et al., 2018; Spagnoli, 2017), and many other positive outcomes. A study conducted by Weng and McElroy (2012) on a sample of 396 managers at 176 companies in China found that not much emphasis has been placed on the specific ways in which experienced employees received promotion opportunities and development in their organizations. The study also concluded that it is not enough to focus on development if it is not linked with recognition and support of employees' efforts through a reward system. When employees know that they can develop professionally and progress in their career, they end up feeling better, are more motivated at work, like to talk about their work, and feel that they work professionally (von Krassow, 2015). Departing from the JD-R model (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, et al., 2003), opportunity for development itself can be conceptualized as a critical job resource that helps employees to move closer to their career goals, creates a richer work experience, and promotes high promotion growth, salary progression, and good development plans. Demerouti et al.

(2001) have noted that employees who receive not only supervisory feedback, but also opportunities for professional development have the means to enhance their abilities and are thus intrinsically motivated to pursue their goals. Additionally, such opportunities fulfill basic human needs, such as the needs for belonging and meaningfulness, and foster individual growth and development (May et al., 2004). Salas-Vallina, Alegre, et al. (2018) have argued that, in a job that is characterized by greater opportunities for growth and advancement, employees will opt to give their best to the organization, no matter how challenging the job may be. Meanwhile, a study by Bakker and Geurts (2004) on a sample of 1,090 employees from a pension fund company, occupational health services company, and insurance company in Holland revealed that opportunities for professional development appeared to be the strongest correlate in relation to flow, which is another facet of job performance. Furthermore, Spagnoli (2017) studied a sample of 474 Italian employees to examine the mediating effect of organizational career growth on the relationship between organizational socialization and work outcomes (job satisfaction and performance). The findings revealed full mediation of career growth, thus suggesting that the role of organizations in career management is particularly salient in retaining talented and knowledgeable employees who can contribute effectively and strategically to organizational performance.

To summarize, the consistent findings above speak to the robustness of the concept of job resources (job autonomy, performance feedback, supervisor support, financial reward, and opportunity for development) as being necessary to obtain positive performance outcomes, since they play a fundamental role in determining individual job performance in different aspects. Thus, in line with the existing literature, the present study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4 (H4): Job resources are positively related to individual job performance.

2.8.5 The relationship between HAW and individual job performance

The literature provides ample support for the notion that happy employees are more productive than their unhappy colleagues (Böckerman & Ilmakunnas, 2012; Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; Fredrickson; Kashdan et al., 2008; Oswald, Proto, & Sgroi, 2015; Rego & Cunha, 2008). Amabile and Kramer (2011) have found that workplace happiness can help employees to achieve career success, improve their job satisfaction, encourage them to work harder, and simultaneously lower their turnover rate. Meanwhile, Edmans (2012) examined firm-level productivity by calculating the fiscal benefits of increasing job satisfaction to reveal that companies with satisfied employees generated 2.3% to 3.8% higher stock returns compared with the market average level from 1984 to 2011. Another study by Gallup has estimated that the cost of disengagement in the USA is between US\$319 billion and US\$398 billion in lost productivity annually (Adkins, 2015).

The position of individual job performance in the context of behavioral responses to HAW, however, has yet to be made explicitly clear in the literature. A longstanding debate continues concerning the nature and strength of relationships between HAW as predictors and criteria of job performance. Nevertheless, there have been at least three explanations throughout the literature that could explain why employees experiencing higher HAW may perform better. These three explanations are based on cognitive, affective, and behavioral perspectives on the HAW-performance relationship.

First, from a cognitive perspective on experiencing positive emotions, Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) have pointed out that an employee displays high levels of happiness when experiencing positive emotions more frequently and negative emotions less frequently. According to the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotion, such emotions have the capacity to broaden individuals' momentary thought-action repertoires and build their personal resources (e.g., hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism) through a widening of the array of thoughts and actions that come to their mind (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005). As this theory suggests, positive emotions can increase the chances of optimal functioning not only in fleeting moments, but also in the near and distant future (Fredrickson, 2001). Seligman and Royzman (2003) have also asserted that a positive attitude leads individuals to adopt a way of thinking that is totally different from that when they experience a negative attitude, explaining that, while a negative, cold mood activates a way of thinking focused on what is bad in order to eliminate it, positive emotions may lead to proactive behavior, rather than avoidance behavior, thus allowing individuals' adaptive processes to better prepare them to cope effectively with future challenges and stress.

Furthermore, from an evolutionary psychological perspective, having a positive mood is a key characteristic related to individuals' motivation to adopt a way of thinking that is creative, tolerant, constructive, generous, relaxed, lateral, resilient, socially connected, physically and mentally healthy, productive, and conducive to proactivity at work (Fay & Sonnentag, 2012; Fredrickson, 2001). It has been shown that the experience of positive moments can be observed in patterns of thought that are "notably unusual, flexible, creative, integrative and open to efficient information" (Fredrickson, 2001, p. 221). Similarly, in their attempt to explain why better results are obtained by positive employees, Judge and Erez (2007), have stated that

experiencing positive emotions may be related to the idea that cheerful individuals usually have positive affect, which, in turn, leads them to think more positively, make better decisions, be more creative, be more motivated to cooperate and help others, and, in general, obtain better results in a wide variety of tasks. High arousal of positively valenced emotions may also stimulate happy feelings that then become actions (Bakker & Bal, 2010).

Similarly, Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008) have noted how empirical research has made it clear that positive emotions: (1) positively affect negotiations; (2) positively affect individual levels of optimism; (3) reinforce individual relationships; (4) predispose individuals to help others; (5) positively affect originality and flexibility; and (6) stimulate joy, exploration, and creativity. Hence, positive affect is characterized by feelings such as enthusiasm and energy, and happy employees are characterized by high positive affect and, to a somewhat lesser degree, low negative affect (Schaufeli et al., 2001). Paschoal and Tamayo (2008), meanwhile, have understood positive affect as the prevalence of positive emotions at work (including affects and moods) and individuals' perception that, in their work, they can express themselves, develop their potential, and make progress in achieving their goals in life (self-actualization). In a similar vein, as stated by Seo and Barrett (2007), positive emotions can constantly affect the three dimensions of motivation: (1) helping to choose a direction (selection of an action); (2) appropriately dosing the amount of effort required to carry out the action (intensity of action); and (3) finally acting with perseverance to achieve the selected target (duration of action). Wright and Bonett (2007) have further emphasized that positive emotions are not only the result of doing things right, but also can increase the potential to do things well in the future.

The positive effects of high-performance work practices may also improve employee performance due to increased opportunities to achieve frequent satisfaction of three basic human needs assumed by SDT: competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Fisher, 2010). This is in line with the Bao and Lyubomirsky (2013) concept of positive affect. When things are going well, employees are more likely to be social and active, which leads to positive experiences that enhance their capabilities to gain skills and valuable resources. This then encourages them to take further steps to succeed in achieving the goals that they have created for themselves, thereby leading to even more positive experiences.

Second, by taking an affective perspective, another attempt to understand the HAW-performance relationship can be derived through various conceptual and theoretical lenses. The circumplex model of affect by Russell et al. (1980) asserts that the underlying structures of affective experiences can be classified into two neurophysiological systems, one related to a pleasure-displeasure continuum and the other to an arousal-activation continuum. Each emotional state can be defined as a combination of these two dimensions in varying degrees of both pleasure and activation (Rodríguez-Muñoz & Sanz-Vergel, 2013). The pleasure continuum summarizes one's affective state and how well one is feeling, whereas the orthogonal activation/arousal continuum refers to a sense of mobilization of energy induced by such an affective state (Russell & Carroll, 1999). Accordingly, it has been found that the emotions felt by those experiencing HAW are high in pleasantness and moderate in activation/arousal (Xanthopoulou et al., 2012). Compared with other positive emotional states, a happy employee is less activated than an energized employee, but more activated than a relaxed worker (Langelaan, Bakker, Van Doornen, & Schaufeli, 2006). Thus, since the state of happiness falls within the activation and pleasure

quadrant, it can be proven that happy employees are in a more positive mood state. Such employees then demonstrate higher performance, cognitive flexibility, job engagement, ability to craft their jobs, and increased creativity (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2008; Hakanen, Peeters, & Schaufeli, 2017).

Meanwhile, drawing on affective events theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), it has been argued that specific contingent conditions in the workplace lead to the emergence of certain emotions, and these affective states contribute to the development of specific attitudes such as job satisfaction and job engagement (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Positive experiences in the workplace are thus expected to lead to positive outcomes, whereas negative emotions can be expected to provoke counterproductive behavior and negative attitudes, such as withholding of performance or withdrawal from work (Eissa & Lester, 2017).

Third, from an attitudinal perspective, research has consistently demonstrated a positive relationship among HAW sub-dimensions, including job satisfaction (Brief, 1998; Cheng, Wang, Moormann, Olaniran, & Chen, 2012; Edwards, Bell, Arthur Jr, & Decuir, 2008; Fisher, 2003; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 1998; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000; Yee, 2018; Yuen, Loh, Zhou, & Wong, 2018), affective organizational commitment (Dehaghi, 2012; Field & Buitendach, 2011), and job engagement (Field & Buitendach, 2011; Rodríguez-Muñoz & Sanz-Vergel, 2013). The majority of these studies found that there is a strong correlation between HAW sub-dimension variables and employees' motivation, in that the level of motivation has a concomitant impact on productivity and performance (Alromaihi, Alshomaly, & George, 2017; Taris & Schreurs, 2009). According to Taris and Schreurs (2009), the main rationale behind the need for job satisfaction is its underlying motivational and

activating potential. In other words, the level of employees' satisfaction will stimulate their level of motivation to perform well. The association between job satisfaction and individual job performance is often accounted for by assuming that satisfied employees feel obliged to do their employers a favor by investing their time and efforts in return for the provision of rewards such as salary, opportunity for development, and job security (Taris & Schreurs, 2009). This is in line with Adams's (1963) equity theory, which implies that equity occurs when employees' investment of effort is in parallel with the benefits received from their organizations. Hence, when such equity is attained, employees pay back benefits by enhancing their performance in terms of both quantity and quality through a kind of reciprocity effect (Saks, 2006).

Several research studies have investigated the link between job satisfaction and job performance (Brief, 1998; Fisher, 2003; Judge et al., 2001; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Yuen et al., 2018). In a recent study by Yuen et al. (2018) using SEM on a sample of 116 maritime officers working in ship management companies in Singapore, it was found that job satisfaction was significantly correlated with job performance among such officers. The authors explained that crew managers should capitalize on their officers' job satisfaction if they wish to enhance their performance at work and retain them. In another recent study, Yee (2018), using multiple regression data analysis, examined the relationship between job satisfaction antecedents and job performance among academic staff members of Malaysian private universities and revealed that job satisfaction and job performance are positively correlated. That is, satisfied academic staff members tended to invest more effort in their work. The author also reported that focusing on academic staff members' job satisfaction is important in motivating them to deliver superior performance. Meanwhile, a quantitative study by Edwards et al. (2008) used SEM to examine various facets of job satisfaction and its

impact on task and contextual performance using data collected from 444 employees working at a manufacturing plant in the USA, with the findings showing that the effect of job satisfaction on contextual performance was more significant than the effect on task performance. Furthermore, a study by Hadziahmetovic and Dinc (2017) investigating a sample of 437 employees working in furniture manufacturing firms in Bosnia revealed a strong relationship between employees' job satisfaction and performance, with the authors recommending that companies improve employees' job performance by influencing their job satisfaction.

In a study by Bakker and Oerlemans (2016), 136 employees from several occupations were asked to reconstruct their momentary behaviors, feelings, and thoughts during the working day. The results of multilevel SEM analysis indicated that employees who are mostly engaged in their work satisfy their innate psychological needs throughout most of the working day and reach higher levels of happiness. Notwithstanding these findings, employees high in burnout endurance seemed to disrupt their psychological needs, thus experiencing lower levels of happiness and spending more time on relatively similar work routines (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2016).

Overall, however, testing of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance has returned mixed results. While some studies have found support for such a relationship, others have not (Berghe & Hyung, 2011; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Judge et al., 2001; Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984). Nevertheless, more recent studies have revealed that the relationship may be stronger than previously thought. According to Jackson and Fransman (2018) and Saari and Judge (2004), the latest studies take into account the correlation effects of sampling error and measurement error, with the average statistical correlation between job satisfaction and job

performance being $r = 0.30$ in more recent studies, which stands in contrast to previous research by Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985), Petty et al. (1984), and Judge et al. (2001), who found correlations between job satisfaction and job performance that were no larger than $r = 0.05$, meaning that the correlations were supposedly weak or insignificant.

Research has indicated that affective commitment is a contributor to individual job performance and indicative of “wellnesses” at work (Etikariena, 2018; Long & Liu, 2014; Meyer et al., 2002). Affective commitment is an attitude shown by an employee and characterized by a psychological identification underlying an emotional attachment to the organization, as well as acceptance of the values of the organization and willingness to remain within it (Meyer & Allen, 1990). According to Hadziahmetovic and Dinc (2017), affective commitment is a manifestation of perceived positive feelings toward an organization. Commitment is thus a specific mindset that compels individuals toward certain courses of action and makes them willing to bind themselves to such courses of action in ways that cannot be explained purely through self-interest. Employees with high affective commitment can be expected to put extra effort into their assigned tasks to show their support of their organization. According to Meyer, Becker, and Van Dick (2006), employees with affective commitment are more likely to experience autonomy and control over courses of action because their motivation is based on voluntarily desire, rather than feelings of obligation or compulsion to work. As such, employees tend to find that their jobs are intrinsically motivating and they constantly consider alternative ways of enhancing their performance (Long & Liu, 2014). When organizations stimulate high degrees of employee affective commitment, they receive benefits in return, such as high levels of loyalty, decreased levels of turnover, lower resistance to change, reduced

counterproductive behavior, and, in general, more dedicated employees (Etikariena, 2018).

Job engagement and individual job performance are highly interlinked variables. Kahn (1990) was one of the first to theorize about job engagement, stating that it accounts for the simultaneous investment of available energies into a work role and HAW that fully engages and connects employees physically, cognitively, and emotionally with their job tasks. Research has shown that employees who are engaged in their work are more likely to work harder and achieve better performance than those who are not (Bakker, 2011). Furthermore, studies have also revealed that the job performance of engaged employees is high as a result of them possessing high levels of energy and enthusiasm toward their work, and also because they create their own job and personal resources, and transfer their engagement to others (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Employees who are highly engaged in their jobs are also likely to be more productive and able to display in-role and contextual performance. Rich, Lepine, and Crawford (2010) have suggested that solid theoretical support can be established for the link between job engagement and performance. In principle, employees who are engaged in their job activities are not only focused on exerting their physical efforts to pursue job-related goals, but also emotionally and cognitively attached to the efforts needed to achieve them (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Kahn, 1990). In contrast, a disengaged employee appears emotionally and cognitively withdrawn from work. In other words, engagement consists of putting one's "hands, head, & heart" (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995, p. 110) into action for optimal job performance.

To summarize, the above explanations of the cognitive, affective, and attitudinal facets of HAW complement each other in clearing up questions of variability in job performance. Simply put, they can provide a holistic approximation of the HAW-performance relationship. Nevertheless, the narrow scope of independent examination of positive attitudes, such as affective commitment, job engagement, and job satisfaction, does not have sufficient explanatory power to account fully for the HAW-performance relationship. In accordance with the compatibility principle, wider attitudinal concepts could more appropriately predict broad behavioral concepts such as job performance (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006). Consequently, a connection with wider attitudinal constructs, such as HAW as a higher-order construct, can have significant predictive capacity to explain individual performance.

Based on the findings of previous research, the present study assumes that HAW contributes to individual job performance, and thus formulates the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5 (H5): HAW is positively related to individual job performance.

2.8.6 The mediating role of HAW

While abundant research can be found that examines the mediating role of happiness among multiple dependent and independent variables (Eldor & Harpaz, 2016; Owens, Baker, Sumpster, & Cameron, 2016; Rich et al., 2010; Sharma & Dhar, 2016; Sood, 2013; Vratskikh, Al-Lozi, & Maqableh, 2016), only a limited number of studies have specifically investigated the mediating role of HAW as a higher-order construct between job resources and demands on individual job performance. HAW thus remains a relatively under-examined area in the literature, particularly in terms of how it could affect the underlying process through which job characteristics interact

to influence job outcomes. The present study thus contributes to the literature by examining this relationship.

According to Fisher (2003), employee happiness fulfills the kind of important mediating role that attitudes and affect appear to play. The effects of job environment characteristics on more distal outcomes, such as individual job performance, are often mediated through happiness (i.e., subjective wellbeing) constructs such as job satisfaction, affective job commitment, and job engagement (De Guzman, Largo, Mandap, & Muñoz, 2014; Patterson, Warr, & West, 2004; Pollock, Noser, Holden, & Zeigler-Hill, 2016; Pradhan et al., 2017; Rego et al., 2011; Santos et al., 2018).

However, if perceptions of job resources influence HAW, and HAW influences individual job performance, then HAW is likely to mediate the relationship between job demands and individual job performance. When employees can acquire resources to achieve their goals – for example, by perceiving feedback, job autonomy, financial rewards, supervisor support, and opportunity for development – they tend to feel happier and obligated to reciprocate to their working organization (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). The JD-R model also suggests that perceptions of job resources can stimulate employees' motivational processes; induce positive work-related states, such as job engagement; and reduce stressful and energetic job demands. This, in turn, can lead to positive outcomes, such as task and contextual performance. Furthermore, according to Hobfoll (1989), COR theory argues that job resources stimulate employees to seek even more resources, thereby creating a positive spiral that ultimately becomes favorable to individual job performance.

Similarly, affective event theory AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) helps to support HAW's mediation of the relationship between job resources, job demands,

and individual job performance. This theory suggests that stable work environments influence the occurrence of positive and negative affective events (e.g., job resources and job demands). Experiencing these events leads employees then to experience affective states (e.g., affective job commitment, job satisfaction, and job commitment). Affective states, in turn, may lead to certain work attitudes (individual job performance). In accordance with this theory, working in a resource-rich context is an important affective event that can trigger higher HAW and lead individuals to engage in higher individual job performance (Lilius et al., 2008).

In the JD-R model, job demands can be perceived by employees as either hindering or challenging factors (Gordon et al., 2018; Le Blanc et al., 2017; Mette, Garrido, Harth, Preisser, & Mache, 2017), job demands may include job stressors such as job overload, role ambiguity, work-life conflict, and job insecurity. These job demands can impact individual job performance through their influence on attitudinal trajectories such as job satisfaction, affective job commitment, and levels of job engagement.

A study conducted by Mañas et al. (2017) examined how affective engagement mediates the relationship between role ambiguity (job demand) and extra-role performance. Their study was undertaken using a sample of 706 employees of a multinational company based in Spain, and the results confirmed that the existence of elevated levels of ambiguity in work teams reduces affective engagement among employees and their extra-role performance behaviors carried out in the workplace. Meanwhile, in a study of 105 school principals and 232 female teachers, Bakker, Gierveld, and Van Rijswijk (2006) examined the effect of engagement on creativity to find that employees with higher levels of job engagement were capable of coming up

with a variety of ways to deal with difficulties and problems in their work environments and, consequently, were able to increase their performance. Furthermore, a longitudinal study conducted by Wang et al. (2015) on a sample of Chinese employees confirmed the mediating effect of engagement whereby job characteristics could predict occupational outcomes.

Based on the above-mentioned theoretical arguments and previous inconclusive findings in the existing literature, the following hypotheses are formulated:

Hypothesis 6 (H6): HAW mediates the relationship between job demands and individual job performance.

Hypothesis 7 (H7): HAW mediates the relationship between job resources and individual job performance.

2.8.7 The moderating role of personal resources (PsyCap)

According to Fisher (2010) and Zhong and Ren (2009), it is critical to realize that happiness and positive attitudes are dependent on an individual's perceptions, appraisals, and interpretations of environments and events. Such appraisals may be influenced by personal dispositional characteristics, expectations, and social influences. As such, not all employees who are exposed to stressful conditions will feel psychologically distressed to the same degree. Such stressful feelings depend on how each individual appraises a specific situation. Findings showing that both genes and personality can predict job satisfaction have verified that there is a dispositional component to HAW that operates independently of job environment characteristics (Fisher, 2010).

Generally, individuals high in dispositional positive affects, such as self-efficacy, tend to be happier at work, as well as in other areas of their lives (Fisher, 2010; Judge & Hurst, 2008; Judge et al., 2001). This is because they are able to counterbalance taxing environmental demands by creating problem-focused coping strategies to handle their job demands (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1992; Panatik, O'Driscoll, & Anderson, 2011). Harty, Gustafsson, Björkdahl, and Möller (2016) have further explained that employees with high PsyCap show more resilience and multipath ways of thinking when faced with challenging job demands, and also that such employees are more hopeful, which results in enhanced motivation to achieve goals. This natural tendency to remain motivated when faced with challenges, together with the ability to map multiple paths for problem solving, is the main factor for achieving job success.

PsyCap has been represented in the literature as an emerging high priority and a core positive construct that organizations can invest in and develop in their workplaces to achieve actual, sustained growth and performance (Huang & Lin, 2015). Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) have proposed that such resources can help people to thrive and succeed at work, in relationships, and in their health. Similarly, Avey, Luthans, Smith, et al. (2010) have conceptualized positive psychological capacities, such as efficacy and optimism, as resources from which one can draw an important theoretical explanation of the mechanism by which they affect employee's wellbeing. Past research has shown that PsyCap is indeed positively related to employees' psychological health and job satisfaction (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Li, 2005). Cheung et al. (2011) further investigated the role of PsyCap as a moderator to explain the relationship between emotional labor (surface acting and deep acting) associated with burnout and job satisfaction using a sample of 264 Chinese full-time school

teachers, with the results of bivariate correlation analysis and moderated regression analysis indicating that the availability of PsyCap enables employees to offset net loss and thereby achieve better job outcomes, higher job satisfaction, and less job burnout.

Using COR theory (Hobfoll et al., 2003), recent research has shown the importance of the operationalization of individuals' psychological resources as conceptual platforms to cope with the detrimental effects of job demands. Occupational strain, which is a potentially negative response to high job demands, can lead to energy depletion and reduce motivation to work (Demerouti et al., 2001); this ultimately hinders personal goals and individual performance. Here, COR helps to delineate the ways in which resources such as PsyCap support individuals in coping with job stressors (Lorenz, Beer, Pütz, & Heinitz, 2016; Nafees & Jahan, 2017). Individuals with a high level of personal resources (PsyCap) may be capable of accepting certain job deficits and investing their efforts to enhance available job resources and overcome resource inadequacy when encountering stressful issues (Hobfoll, 2002). Avey et al. (2011) have supported this view, stating that PsyCap will act as a facilitating agent to motivate positive behavior, thereby ensuring that individuals successfully accomplish their goals and tasks.

Furthermore, studies researching the moderating effect of PsyCap may provide even more insight into whether perceived job demands and their association with HAW are more related to individual variability as characterized by PsyCap. Proportionally speaking, on the one hand, there has been a paucity of research on the moderating correlation between PsyCap and employees' outcomes; on the other hand, there have only been limited studies examining PsyCap's association with job demands and HAW. Hence, to inquire about the moderating role of PsyCap, the

present study examines the consequences of job demands for HAW in relation to the role of PsyCap as a facilitatory agent. Zhong and Ren (2009) have tested the moderating effect of PsyCap on the relationship between academic stress and perceived psychological distress using a sample of 118 undergraduates at a university in Northern China. Their hierarchical regression analysis results indicated that students' PsyCap moderated the relationship between academic stress and depression (Zhong & Ren, 2009). Specifically, the students' PsyCap was negatively correlated with perceived psychological distress, such as anxiety. The research results suggest that, to reduce the negative impacts of academic stress, one available and sustainable approach may be to invest in, manage, and develop undergraduates' positive psychological states, such as PsyCap.

Similar results were found in a study conducted by Gautam and Pradhan (2018) using correlation coefficient and moderated regression analysis of a sample of 210 students in India. This study found that PsyCap was positively correlated with academic achievement and negatively correlated with stress. The results further revealed that PsyCap could moderate the relationship between stress and academic achievement, thus suggesting that PsyCap enhances the capabilities of students by helping them to improve their academic performance. In a study by Jafri (2018), meanwhile, data from a sample of 230 commerce and business students in Bhutan were examined using correlations and regressions to find that psychological resources in the form of hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism have important implications for facilitating students' intrinsic motivation and keeping them academically engaged.

In two studies conducted by Luthans, Avolio, et al. (2007) using hierarchical regression analysis of a total sample of 663 employees, it was shown that PsyCap had

positive relationships with performance and job satisfaction. Avey, Luthans, and Youssef (2010) then studied a sample of 336 employees and designated PsyCap as being positively associated with extra-role performance and organizational citizenship behaviors, while also being negatively associated with undesirable organizational outcomes. Furthermore, in a study by Baron, Franklin, and Hmieleski (2016), the role of PsyCap and work stress in a sample of 160 entrepreneurs was examined to show that PsyCap was negatively related to stress and that stress, in turn, was negatively related to entrepreneurs' subjective wellbeing, thus demonstrating that PsyCap appeared to provide them with the mental hardiness to cope effectively with job-related demands. In a qualitative study by Schaufeli and Taris (2014), it was further shown that personal resources could influence the perception of job characteristics and also directly impact employees' burnout and job engagement, which, in turn, could impact job satisfaction and job performance.

In a study by Hao et al. (2015), hierarchical linear regression analysis was performed to explore the moderating role of PsyCap in a sample consisting of 824 Chinese female nurses, and it was found that PsyCap was a positive resource that could mitigate their depressive symptoms. Moving on to the specific core elements of PsyCap, a study conducted by Siu, Lu, and Spector (2007) on a sample of 692 employees working in China used a series of hierarchical regressions to examine, primarily, the direct and moderating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between stressors and wellbeing. In a similar vein, Siu et al. (2007) have stated that an individual with high self-efficacy is able to master job demands, and tends to interpret difficult tasks as challenging, rather than threatening. This study found that self-efficacy moderated the relationship between stressors and mental wellbeing, yet did not moderate that between stressors and physical wellbeing. Hence, when role conflict

was high, employees with low professional self-efficacy showed higher levels of cynicism compared with employees with high self-efficacy. It was further found that, in the presence of stressors, individuals high in general self-efficacy were less likely to display symptoms of low mental health. In empirical studies, employees high in self-efficacy have been shown to believe that they can achieve whatever they set out to do and “get the job done.” This may help to reduce the occupational stress experienced, which often includes the cognitive mechanisms of being unable to cope with overwhelming job demands, as explained by Schaubroeck and Merritt (1997). On this basis, self-efficacy can act as a resource factor that buffers against stressor perceptions, while those with low self-efficacy may be prone to self-doubt, threat appraisal, and perception of coping deficiencies when confronted with high work demands (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1992). Similarly, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, and Cervone (2004) have examined the ability of efficacy beliefs to predict psychosocial outcomes in academic performance, and found that such beliefs predicted fewer counterproductive behaviors and could help students to attain higher grades. Moreover, highly efficacious individuals have been found to be less likely to experience failures or loss of confidence when confronted with ambiguities, negative feedback, setbacks, and challenges (Bandura & Locke, 2003).

A closer view of the research on personal resources (PsyCap) in the organizational behavior literature yields rich evidence regarding the role of optimism as a moderator. For instance, while defining the relationship between job demands and PsyCap, previous research has also confirmed that higher levels of optimism will motivate individuals to take charge of their own careers (Seligman, 2006). Furthermore, optimism can easily facilitate adaptation to changing work contexts and coping with past failures (Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007). Gillham et al. (2001) have

further suggested that optimism facilitates the mechanisms of processing negative information. From this perspective, it has been explained that positive beliefs, such as optimism, can increase an individual's attention to negative information, since this is the primary step in coping, problem-solving strategies, and self-improvement. Optimism helps individuals to develop solutions and react well to stressors and problems, thereby assisting them in modifying their efforts accordingly (Brown, 2017; Gillham et al., 2001). Along the same lines, optimism increases attention to available job resources, thus leading to the belief that an individual can cancel out negative thoughts in most situations. Similarly, those high in optimism will experience positive outcomes in almost any situation. In this regard, a study by Cha (2003), using regression analysis, looked at a sample of 350 Korean students and found that optimism was a strong predictor of achievement of favorable outcomes and perceived high subjective well-being (SWB).

Similar results were found in a study conducted by Santhosh and Appu (2015) on a sample of 80 graduate students in India, with their regression analysis indicating that optimism was significantly correlated with SWB. The studies of both Cha (2003) and Santhosh and Appu (2015) reported similar findings, in which students with high capacity for optimism would gain favorable outcomes in the future despite any adversities produced by job demands. Such beliefs have been found to have a positive influence on individuals' SWB and HAW (Ariyanto et al., 2017). These findings are consistent with those of Mäkikangas and Kinnunen (2003), who reported that optimism moderated the relationship between job demands and mental distress in a sample of 457 Finnish employees studied using moderated hierarchical regression analysis. In another study by Thomas, Britt, Odle-Dusseau, and Bliese (2011), the authors hypothesized the moderating role of optimism between mental health

symptoms (depression and postwar trauma) and work impairment in a sample of 2,439 soldiers in the military, and the findings that emerged significantly supported their stated hypothesis: that optimism reduced postwar trauma symptoms, depression symptoms, and work impairment.

Since hope represents motivational energy, individuals with a greater capacity for hope will have more energy to pursue success and be better able to identify ways to achieve their career goals (Snyder et al., 2000; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). As such, individuals high in hope can create multiple pathways through which they can overcome challenges, consequently reducing their tendencies to become overwhelmed by job demand stressors. Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) have posited that hope plays a buffering role against psychological distress and dysfunctional behavior. A good deal of research has also shown that hope plays a strong moderating role. In a longitudinal study conducted by Snyder et al. (1991) on a sample of 384 students at the University of Kansas, it was found that students with higher levels of hope tended to set higher goals and perceived that they would be more successful in attaining those goals. Furthermore, Yavas, Babakus, and Karatepe (2013) studied the moderating effects of hope as a personal resource, and the relationship between job burnout and performance, among frontline bank employees in Turkey, and revealed a significant moderating relationship. The authors stated that hope could serve as an antidote to the negative effects of burnout, explaining that it works as a form of guidance for individuals' cognitive processes and behaviors. Hopeful individuals have a tendency to experience frequent positive moods and positive goal-directed outlooks due to their innate disposition toward finding ways to overcome challenging situations, which may allow them to perform better despite stress and burnout.

In combination, these psychological resource capacities form the cognitive, emotional, and motivational bases on which individuals mitigate the detrimental effects of job demand negativity (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Based on these arguments, it is believed that, when employees perceive job environment characteristics to be personally hindering and threatening, their PsyCap may help them to lessen the salience of resource loss associated with such aspects, thus allowing them to better cope with stressors and to reduce the influence of job demands on HAW and individual performance.

In challenging this conventional view, however, various scholars have recommended taking individual difference variables into account. A closer look at the research on personal resources (PsyCap) in the organizational behavior literature, meanwhile, reveals inconsistent results among past moderation studies (Brouze, 2014). Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) have attributed the lack of support for their moderation hypothesis to the nature of the personal resources adopted in their study. They found instead that personal resources served as mediators between job resources and exhaustion or engagement, and suggested that using more behavioral-practical personal resources (e.g., time management) as opposed to affective-cognitive resources (e.g., self-efficacy and optimism), would be more effective in preventing exhaustion and managing job demands, such as job overload and role ambiguity. Similarly, Cheung et al. (2011) have suggested that inconsistencies among past moderation findings can be attributed to an underestimation of the natures of stressors, resources, and strain levels. Moderation effects are thus more likely to be observed when there is congruence between the nature of the resource and the strain, such as in the case of a cognitive job resource and cognitive strain. The authors thus argued that

PsyCap operates on a cognitive level to have a stronger moderating effect on cognitive strain than emotional strain.

Some researchers have found that specific personal resources – self-efficacy and optimism – have the potential to buffer the relationship between job demands and effective coping with organizational change processes, on the one hand, and health-related and organizational outcomes, on the other (Mäkikangas & Kinnunen, 2003; Tremblay & Messervey, 2011; Van Yperen & Snijders, 2000). However, other researchers have discovered that personal resources do not buffer the relationship between job demands and organizational and health-related outcomes. For example, Essenko and Rothmann (2007) revealed that optimism did not moderate the relationship between job demands, and exhaustion and cynicism among a sample of 334 South African teachers.

In a recent study conducted by Grover, Teo, Pick, Roche, and Newton (2018) using a sample of 401 nurses working in the Australian healthcare sector, the relationships among PsyCap, job demands, job resources, psychological wellbeing, and job engagement were explored to find that the moderating effect of PsyCap was not supported, which suggests that PsyCap is related to perceptions, rather than serving as a coping mechanism. This is consistent with the foundation of transactional theory and, as such, the experience of workplace stress can be linked with exposure to specific workplace experiences, thus making employees' perceptions of coping with stress the result of job demands (Pezaro, 2018). Similarly, a study conducted by Van den Broeck (2010) has stated that personal resources play a moderating role in association with job challenges, but not with job hindrances. Therefore, investing energy in job demands that are perceived by employees as challenging may result in favorable

outcomes, while trying to overcome job hindrances is less likely to cultivate future gains.

The effect of personal resources on HAW has received little attention from researchers. However, personal resources have been recognized as vital for individuals' psychological wellbeing in general, and for work-related wellbeing in particular (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Unlike positive personality traits that are fixed, such personal resources are flexible and thus considered appropriate for the present study. Youssef and Luthans (2007) have pointed out that the four most studied personal resources concerning employee wellbeing and performance are hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism, which are all considered to be constituents of PsyCap. According to Salas-Vallina et al. (2017), HAW is an attitude, whereas PsyCap is the source that leads to a positive attitude. Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2009b) have further argued that PsyCap is compatible with the concept of personal resources that fall under the JD-R model.

Based on the explanations above, the present study aims to examine whether PsyCap could moderate the impact of job demands and job resources on HAW (see Figure 2.5 and Figure 2.6), and proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 8 (H8): PsyCap moderates the relationship between job demands and HAW.

Hypothesis 9 (H9): PsyCap moderates the relationship between job resources and HAW.

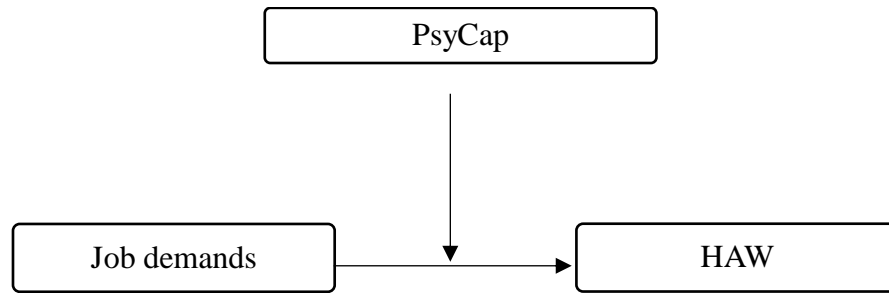


Figure 2.5: PsyCap Moderates the Relationship between Job Demands and HAW

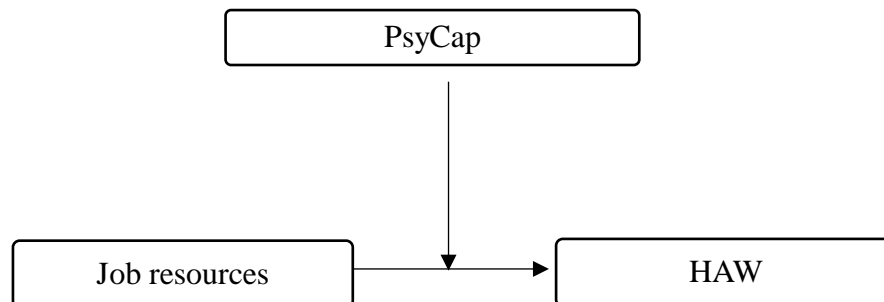


Figure 2.6: PsyCap Moderates the Relationship between Job Resources and HAW

2.9 Research conceptual model and hypotheses

Figure 2.7 displays the research conceptual model. Formally, we propose that:

H1: Job demands are negatively related to HAW.

H2: Job resources are positively related to HAW.

H3: Job demands are negatively related to individual job performance.

H4: Job resources are positively related to individual job performance.

H5: HAW is positively related to individual job performance.

H6: HAW mediates the relationship between job demands and individual job performance.

H7: HAW mediates the relationship between job resources and individual job performance.

H8: PsyCap moderates the relationship between job demands and HAW.

H9: PsyCap moderates the relationship between job resources and HAW.

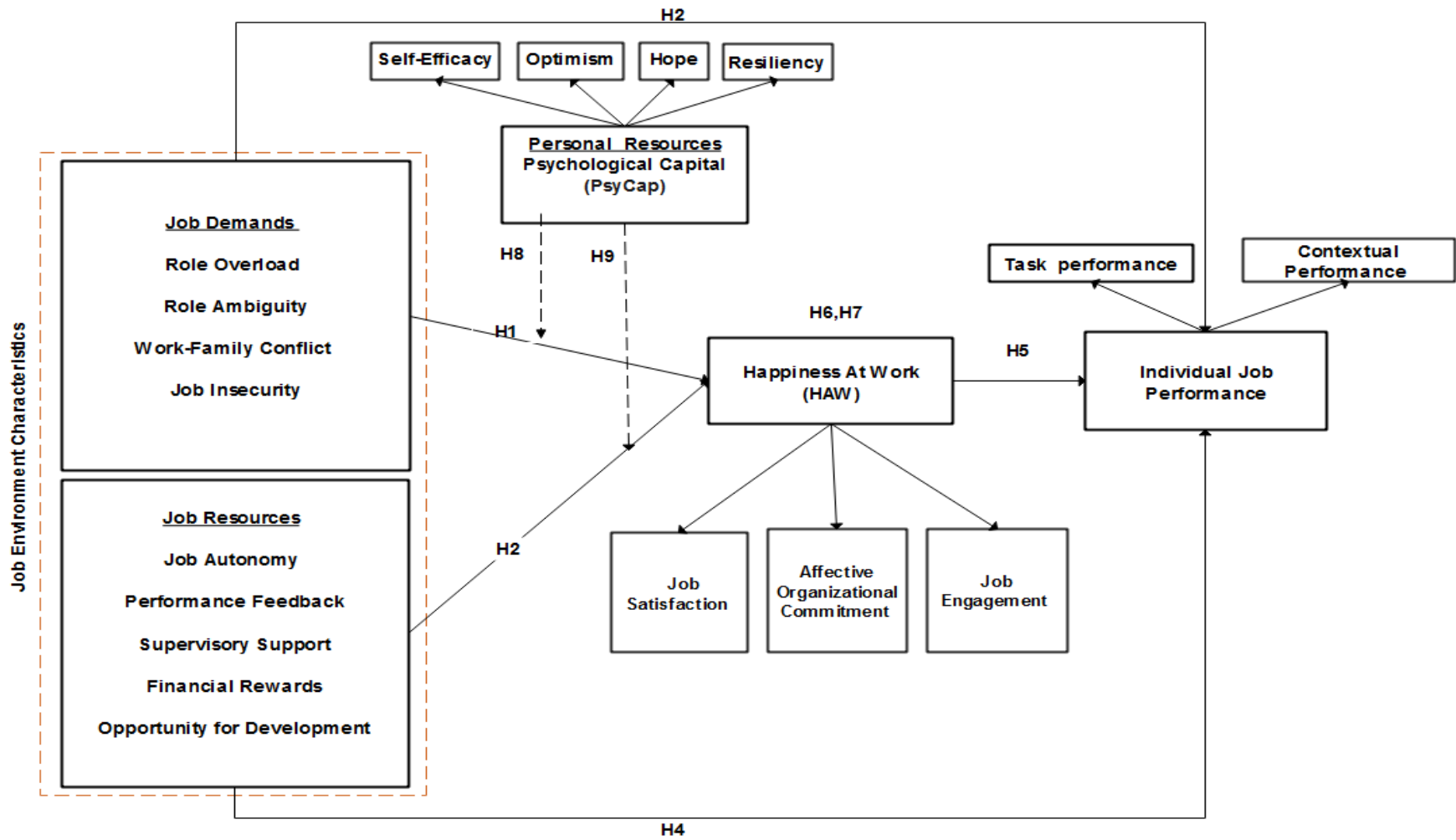


Figure 2.7: Conceptual Model

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

To maintain the rigor of scientific research, Chapters 1 and 2 of the current study have discussed the research background and the literature review in the context of job environment characteristics, HAW, PsyCap, and individual job performance. The objective of the current chapter is to identify the study strategy, discuss study design, and illustrate the operationalization of the research model constructs and the instruments adapted to measure them. Furthermore, this chapter defines the data sources and associated data collection procedures, before examining the methods of analysis. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the methods of analysis and the research paradigm that were addressed while conducting this research. According to Polonsky and Waller (2011), the methodology section provides the reader with the road map of what is to be done and why, letting the readers understand how data were collected and analyzed. It acts as a guideline of how and where information is going to come from that is linked to the objectives of the study.

3.2 Research questions

This research is aimed at providing a better understanding of the mediating role of HAW between job environment characteristics (job demands and job resources) and individual job performance. Additionally, this research examines the moderating role of personal resources (PsyCap) on the relationship between job environment characteristics (job demands and job resources) and HAW. Research questions are addressed within the context of the UAE oil and gas industry.

The key research question investigated is:

2. To what extent do job resources, job demands, and personal resources influence HAW and individual job performance?

The subsidiary questions investigated are:

1. How do job demands, job resources, and personal resources (PsyCap) relate to HAW?
2. How do job demands and job resources relate to individual job performance?
3. How does HAW relate to individual job performance (task and contextual performance)?
4. What practical lessons can this study provide to support the UAE government's policies that aim to enhance employee's HAW and individual job performance?

3.3 Research paradigm

The current research takes up the positivist paradigm that is underpinned by the ontological assumption of realism. Positivists adopt quantitative research methods in collecting data and investigating phenomena (Crossan, 2003), and hold that the scientific method establishes the objective nature of knowledge and limits the researcher's role in data collection and interpretation (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012). As such, research findings are based on observable facts that are discovered by operationalizing the relevant constructs so that they can be measured (Collins, 2010).

As a general rule, the positivist paradigm usually follows a deductive approach, while an inductive approach is usually associated with the phenomenological paradigm. The deductive approach starts with a broader theory, then cascades down into a narrow, specific train of hypotheses that are used to test the theory (Anderson,

2013; Ketchen et al., 1997). The last step is to collect and analyze data that will support, or strengthen, or refute existing theories.

Consideration of the research paradigm remains crucial to a study's design and method, since it forms the foundational beliefs and sets the direction of the study. Consequently, the present study preferred the positivist paradigm in consideration of the research objectives that it intended to achieve. With such a paradigm, it became possible to examine some of the themes related to the topic, to determine the underlying concepts and practices, to test the hypothesized correlations, and to answer the research questions in a structured manner.

3.4 Research strategy and plan

A research strategy is a plan of action developed by an investigator that highlights how to answer primary research questions and that facilitates the conducting of research in a systematic manner, rather than in a haphazard way (Burns & Burns, 2008). It is also a plan by which the activities of searching and evaluating information are carried out (Shajahan, 2007). Hence, a research strategy keeps the investigator focused by providing directions, reducing confusion, and enhancing the procedural quality of the research (Olupot, Kituyi, & Noguera, 2014). According to Marshall and Rossman (2009, p. 61), a research strategy "is a roadmap, an overall plan for undertaking a systematic exploration of the phenomenon of interest." In a similar vein, Bryman (2016, p. 698) suggests that a research strategy is "a general orientation to the conduct of research." A research plan, meanwhile, specifies high-priority research goals and objectives, defines critical questions, and identifies knowledge gaps and the philosophical stance underpinnings of the research (Krueger, Zimmerman, & Spaeder, 2009; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007; Walshe, Caress, Chew-Graham, & Todd,

2004). Moreover, a research plan identifies the sources of data gathering and considers issues such as access to data, logistics, and ethical dilemmas (Morse & Field, 1995; Saunders et al., 2007).

Both Yin (2003) and Saunders et al. (2007) have suggested that, although various research strategies exist, there are many intersections among them, and thus the most critical consideration would be to select the most appropriate strategy for the specific research study. Some of the common research strategies adopted by researchers of business and management are an experiment, survey, grounded theory, case study, ethnography, action research, archival research, cross-sectional study, longitudinal study, and participative inquiry (Collis & Hussey, 2013; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, Jackson, & Lowe, 2008; Saunders et al., 2007). From among these strategies, the present study chooses a cross-sectional study research strategy as the most advantageous option.

The present study undertakes a quantitative research strategy of inquiry through a deduction approach. Hypotheses were formulated from the existing knowledge which has been tested using the primary data collected by means of a survey strategy. According to Saunders (2011), quantitative research strategy is about collecting numbers as hard data and testing the hypothesis with the help of statistical tools. For these reasons, this quantitative research strategy is the most appropriate for this study. The hypothesized relationships between the variables are tested using appropriate statistical techniques in order to assess and model the relationships.

Moreover, the study is divided into two parts: theoretical and empirical. The theoretical part is presented through articulating the literature review on the topic and observation of existing theories; the empirical part is presented using a quantitative

research strategy, as this allows the description of the characteristics of a large population (Saunders & Lewis, 2009).

To generate the information required for the study, the researcher took the following steps:

1. Review, critique, and synthesize existing theoretical and empirical literature (Chapter 2);
2. Articulate the research questions (Chapter 3);
3. Develop the research conceptual model and propose the research hypotheses (Chapter 2);
4. Design the survey items (Chapter 3);
5. Pilot the survey questionnaire on a small sample to pretest whether it elicits the required responses, provide further information on the applied measures, and incorporate additional context-oriented wording. The pilot survey assists in both defining and refining the research instrument, and establishes the validity and reliability of the instrument prior to distributing it to the actual sample (Chapter 3).
6. Distribute the questionnaire to the target sample respondents (Chapter 4).
7. Collect and analyze the research data in adherence to the methodological standards (Chapters 4 and 5).
8. Interpret the results and discuss the survey findings by utilizing the relevant literature on the topic (Chapters 5 and 6).
9. Present the summary, conclusion, and contributions to the literature (Chapter 6).
10. Make recommendations for future research and describe the limitations of the present study (Chapter 6).

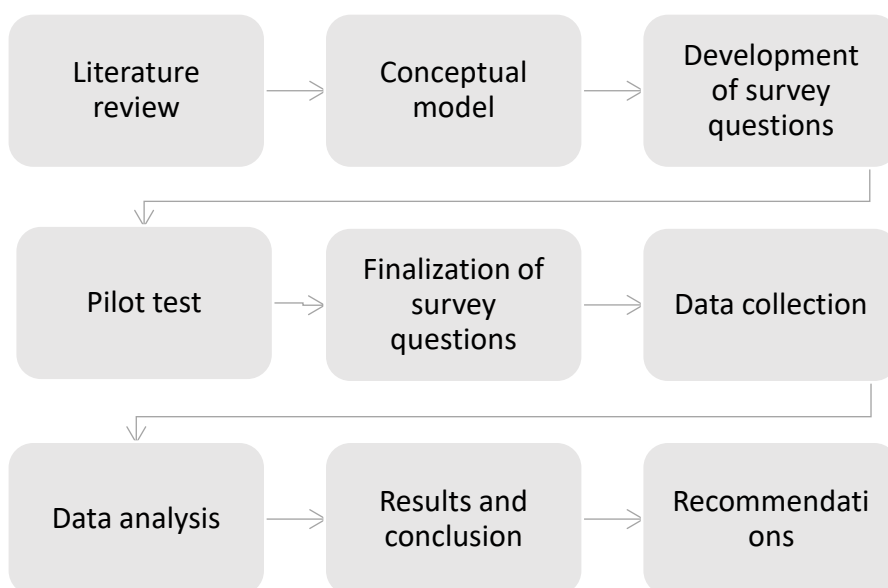


Figure 3.1: Research Plan Flowchart

The research plan followed in this study involved several stages (see Figure 3.1). First, during the earliest stage of the study, the research problem was identified from a preliminary review of the literature. The process consisted of a rigorous review of research studies until existing gaps could be clearly identified within the area of the research at hand. Potential research questions were then formulated from the research problem, the aims of the research were articulated based on those questions, and the research objectives were developed from the main research aims. Furthermore, the relevant literature was deeply reviewed to identify the most appropriate theoretical frameworks and key constructs relevant to the research area. A construct is a concept that is consciously adopted for a specific scientific purpose (Kerlinger, 1986), and then the conceptual framework was later developed.

The data collection exercise consequently involved a quantitative approach utilizing a questionnaire survey method that was developed, subsequently administered, and implemented as a source of primary data collection. The data were later checked for any missing data, multivariate outliers and normality. The data were

subsequently analyzed using the structural equation modeling with maximum likelihood estimation (SEM-MLE) method, path analysis (EMOS) and macro-processing for the moderating effect. The final stage involved interpreting, discussing, and reporting the results of the quantitative survey, again in alignment with the relevant literature findings. The survey strategy was a general and shared process that allows a significant amount of data to be obtained from a large population in an economical manner (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2003; Shields & Watson, 2013). Surveys are known for handling quantitative data that can be operationalized by descriptive and inferential statistics (Saunders & Lewis, 2009), and the aim of the present study was thereby to test the developed research conceptual model and examine the research hypotheses.

3.5 Research design

A research design acts as a master plan or structure for an investigation, or for a list of specifications and procedures for conducting and controlling a research project (Babbie & Mouton, 2002). Samouel, Money, Babin, and Hair (2003) have defined a research design as “the basic directions or recipe for carrying out the project.” In other words, a research design offers the framework within which the procedures of data collection and analysis can be directed toward addressing specific research questions (Orodho, 2003). Consequently, it can provide the necessary information for decision-making with a maximum level of accuracy and validity (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993). Hence, the study is designed with the intention of examining the antecedents and consequences of HAW in the context of the oil and gas industry in Abu Dhabi, and the moderation effect of personal resources (PsyCap) with further focus on the effect of HAW on individual job performance.

The first phase of the research involves conducting the literature review in the context of job environment characteristics derived from the job demands-resources model (JD-R) (Demerouti et al., 2001), happiness at work (HAW) derived from Fisher (2010) conceptualization of HAW, and personal resources (PsyCap) adopted from the Luthans, Youssef, et al. (2007) study of psychological capital theory and individual job performance. For the scope of the current research, HAW antecedents were selected with regard to job demands (comprising job overload, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, and job insecurity). Similarly, job resources (comprising job autonomy, performance feedback, supervisor support, financial rewards, and opportunity for career growth) and individual job performance (comprising task performance and contextual performance) were selected as consequences of HAW. Accordingly, the research conceptual model was developed for testing along with the associated predications developed in the form of hypotheses.

The second phase of this research identifies suitable measurement tools for each of the identified antecedents and consequences, ensuring their statistical quality and applicability in the context of the oil and gas industry and relevant studies in HAW. The third phase of the research involves collecting data though a survey questionnaire. The research conceptual model and associated hypotheses are then applied to the collected data. The research concludes by suggesting several theoretical and practical implications, which are discussed in conjunction with the study's limitations and the possible future direction of the research.

3.5.1 Quantitative approach identification on the context of social science

The quantitative approach is widely used in the natural and social sciences, since it allows a systematic empirical investigation of observable phenomena through

statistical techniques, by translating the associated observations into quantitative (mathematical and computational) terms (Given, 2008). This mechanism is known as “operationalization” (Biggeri & Libanora, 2011; Schunk, 2012). Operationalization is defined as a process of measuring a phenomenon that is not directly measurable, through its existence as indicated by other phenomena. Accordingly, the process involves clarifying an ambiguous concept and making it clearly distinguishable, measurable, and understandable through empirical observations (Pennings, Keman, & Woldendorp, 2016). Operationalization is often used in social sciences in the scientific method of psychometrics, mainly related to complex situations where potential threats to the validity of the operationalization are believed to exist (Lukyanenko, Evermann, & Parsons, 2014; Sarantakos, 1998).

The first step involves developing hypotheses related to the phenomena; these predicate the scenario based on the literature available on HAW. The second step requires measurement, which is central to quantitative research. The literature of the social sciences illustrates that measurement provides the connection between empirical observation and mathematical representations of quantitative relationships (Neuman, 2006; Punch, 2005; Zhao & Zhao, 2012). According to Creswell (2002), quantitative data allow statistical analysis to test for significant causal relationships between constructs (Bryman & Cramer, 2002). It is a key feature that such research involves breaking the issue down to proximate and conclusive constructs that are essential for addressing the research problem, developing hypotheses, and testing theories through observational and instrumental techniques that offer statistical data.

The literature available in the context of social science studies includes cross-sectional studies, a type of observation study that analyzes data collected from a

population, or a representative sample, at one specific time. Typically, a study is considered to be cross-sectional when the sample represents a cross-section of the general population under investigation and the research is bounded to a single timeframe (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Additionally, cross-sectional studies use regression for sorting out the existence and magnitude of causal effects on one or more independent variables on a dependent variable of interest at a given point in time. Moreover, cross-sectional research design is based on correlational research, as it aims to examine the relationship between two or more variables to determine whether such a relationship exists (Bryman, 2016; Fassinger & Morrow, 2013; Trochim, Donnelly, & Arora, 2016). According to Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009), correlational design examines the direction and strength of the relationship between two or more quantifiable variables. In such a design, relationships among facts are pursued and interpreted (Taylor, 2006). In terms of the advantages of correlational design, it is straightforward, inexpensive, and does not consume a considerable amount of time (Lappe, 2000). It is also beneficial in identifying relationships that may later be evaluated more explicitly (Taylor, 2006). In correlational research, data can be collected in natural settings to allow consideration of real-world complexities (Anderson & Arsenault, 2005).

However, the current the study utilizes a comprehensive cross-sectional survey developed after the operationalization of eighteen research model constructs, for the purpose of testing the identified hypotheses with the aim of answering the research questions.

3.5.2 Instruments used to operationalize the research model

In the present study, a pool of 72 items was developed for the survey questionnaire based on the predominantly referenced studies utilizing the same scale in the relevant literature (see Table 3.1). The present study survey is categorized into six sections for the overall eighteen constructs. Section 1 covers demographic questions such as gender, age, marital status, tenure, and occupation; section 2 considers job demands (which include four constructs); section 3 deals with job resources (which include five constructs); section 4 covers PsyCap (which includes four sub-dimensional constructs as moderators); section 5 deals with three sub-dimensional constructs representing HAW as mediators; section 6 considers two sub-dimensional constructs representing individual job performance. (A copy of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix A and B.), (see also measurement scale in Appendix D).

3.5.2.1 Independent variables

Job demands instruments start with job overload. This was measured by a three-item scale developed by Bolino and Turnley (2005) that was adapted from (Schaubroeck, Cotton, & Jennings, 1989) and (Beehr, Walsh, & Taber, 1976). A five-point Likert interval response scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was used. Sample items are: “The amount of work I am expected to do is fair,” which a reversed-coded item “I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work,” and “It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do”. The reliability coefficient was 0.861.

Role ambiguity was measured by a four-item scale developed from Rizzo et al. (1970). A five-point Likert interval response scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5

(strongly agree) was used. Sample items are: “I know what my responsibilities are,” and “In my job I have clear and planned goals and objectives.” The reliability coefficient was 0.906.

Work-family conflict was measured by a four-item scale developed by Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996). A five-point Likert interval response scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was used. Sample items are: “The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life” and “Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.” The reliability coefficient was 0.905.

Job insecurity was measured by a four-item scale developed by De Witte (2000b). A five-point Likert interval response scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was used. Sample items are: “I think that I will be able to continue working in my current organization” and “I feel insecure about the future of my job.” All items measuring job insecurity were reversed-coded. The reliability coefficient was 0.953.

The job resources instrument items start with job autonomy. This was measured by a three-item scale adopted from the job diagnostic survey (JDS) that was developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975). Sample items are: “I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job” and “I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.” The reliability coefficient was 0.952.

Performance feedback was measured by a three-item scale adopted from the job content questionnaire (JCQ) that was developed by Karasek (1985). Sample items are: “I receive sufficient information on the purpose of my work” and “I get

information/feedback from my supervisor about how well I do my job.” The reliability coefficient was 0.962.

Supervisory support was measured by a four-item scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990). Sample items are: “My supervisor takes the time to learn about my career goals and aspirations” and “My supervisor provides assignments that give me the opportunity to develop and strengthen new skills.” The reliability coefficient was 0.969.

Opportunity for development was measured by a four-item scale developed by Weng and Hu (2009a). Sample items are: “My present job moves me closer to my career goals” and “My promotion speed in the present organization is fast.” The reliability coefficient was 0.968. Financial reward was measured by a four-item scale adapted from a questionnaire on the experience and evaluation of work (QEEW) developed by Van Veldhoven and Meijman (1994). Sample items are: “My job offers me the possibility to progress financially” and “I think I am paid enough for the work I do.” The reliability coefficient was 0.967.

3.5.2.2 Moderating variables

The psychological capital questionnaire (PCQ) by Luthans, Youssef, et al. (2007) was used to measure the following four sub-dimensions: self-efficacy (four items; e.g., “I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management”); hope (four items; e.g., “If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it”); optimism (four items; e.g., “When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best”) and resilience (four items; e.g., “When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on”). The

responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The reliability coefficients were 0.948, 0.937, 0.905, and 0.868, respectively.

3.5.2.3 Mediating variables

HAW instruments start with affective job commitment. This is measured by a four-item scale captured from the affective commitment scale (ACS) developed by Meyer and Allen (1990) and published through the *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*. The paper has been cited approximately 14,109 times. Sample items are: “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization,” “I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it,” “I feel like part of the family at my organization,” and “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.” The reliability coefficient was acceptable with a Cronbach alpha of 0.948.

The second measurement of HAW is job satisfaction, which is measured by a four-item scale adapted from the job satisfaction index (JSI) developed by Schriesheim and Tsui (1980). It is composed of items that represent the different work satisfaction dimensions. For example, the nature of the job, supervision, co-workers, pay, and promotion opportunities. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent of their satisfaction with their current work on each item in a five-point Likert scale. Item responses in the tool ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree.) Sample items are: “I am satisfied with the nature of the work I perform,” “I am satisfied with my relationship with my co-workers,” “I am satisfied with my supervisor,” and “Considering everything, I am satisfied with my current job situation”. The reliability coefficient was acceptable with a Cronbach alpha of 0.932.

However, two of the original six items comprising the scale were excluded for this study: “Are you satisfied with the pay you receive for your job?,” and “How satisfied are you with the opportunities that exist in this organization for advancement (promotion)?” Thus, these two items could overlap with the items of another construct measured in this study; for example, opportunity for development and financial rewards.

The third measurement of HAW is job engagement. This utilized a six-item scale extracted from the Utrecht work engagement scale (UWES) by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003). Three items were selected for each dimension of job engagement (vigor, dedication, and absorption). Sample items include: “At my work, I feel bursting with energy” (vigor); “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me,” (dedication); “When I get up in the morning I feel like going to work” (vigor); “I am enthusiastic about my job” (dedication); “I am proud of the work that I do” (dedication); “I am immersed/engrossed in my work” (absorption); and “I feel happy when I am working intensely” (absorption). The reliability coefficient was acceptable with a Cronbach alpha of 0.853.

3.5.2.4 Dependent variables

The last section of the survey questionnaire comprises a range of dependent variables. The individual job performance instruments required include the measuring of task performance and contextual performance using an eight-item measure adapted from the individual work performance scale (IWPS) by Koopmans et al. (2012). Sample items for task performance are: “I am able to plan my work so that I finish it on time” and “I am able to carry out my work well with minimal time and effort.” Sample items for contextual performance are: “I work on keeping my job-related

knowledge up-to-date” and “I take on extra responsibilities.” Items were scored on a five-point rating scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The reliability coefficients were 0.922 and 0.930, respectively.

According to Collis and Hussey (2013), the manner in which the questionnaire is presented encourages those approached to respond, and helps respondents to complete the questionnaire correctly. It can also make subsequent analysis much easier. For the questionnaire to be clearly understood, the respondents must know the context in which the questions are being posed. Table 3.1 summarizes the measurement tools used to develop the survey.

Table 3.1: Measurement Tools Used to Develop the Survey

Construct	Sub-construct	Item code	Items	Author
Job demand	Role overload	A.1	“The amount of work I am expected to do is fair.”	Bolino and Turnley (2005)
		A.2	“I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work.”	
		A.3	“It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do”.	
	Role ambiguity	B.1	“I know what my responsibilities are.”	Rizzo et al. (1970)
		B.2	“I know exactly what is expected of me.”	
		B.3	“In my job I have clear and planned goals and objectives.”	
		B.4	“I feel certain about my level of authority.”	
	Work-life conflict	C.1	“The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.”	Netemeyer et al. (1996)
		C.2	“Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.”	
		C.3	“My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.”	
		C.4	“Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.”	
	Job insecurity	D.1	“I think that I will be able to continue working in my current organization.”	De Witte (2000b)
		D.2	“I am sure I can keep my job.”	
D.3		“I feel insecure about the future of my job.”		
D.4		“I fear that I may lose my job.”		

Table 3.1: Measurement Tools Used to Develop the Survey (Conitined)

Construct	Sub-construct	Item code	Items	Author
Job resources	Job autonomy	E.1	"I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job."	Hackman and Oldham (1975)
		E.2	"I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work."	
		E.3	"I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job."	
	Performance feedback	F.1	"I receive sufficient information on the purpose of my work."	Karasek (1985)
		F.2	"I receive sufficient information on the results of my work."	
		F.3	"My work itself gives me the opportunity to check on how well I am doing my work."	
	Supervisory support	G.1	"My supervisor takes the time to learn about my career goals and aspirations."	Greenhaus et al. (1990)
		G.2	"My supervisor keeps me informed about different career opportunities for me in the organization."	
		G.3	"My supervisor gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it."	
		G.4	"My supervisor provides assignments that give me the opportunity to develop and strengthen new skills."	
	Opportunity for growth	H.1	"My present job moves me closer to my career goals."	Weng and Hu (2009b)
		H.2	"My present job encourages me to accumulate richer work experiences."	
		H.3	"My promotion rate in the present organization is fast."	
		H.4	"In this organization, the possibility of my current salary being increased is considerable."	
		H.5	"My current job provides me with good development opportunities."	
	Financial rewards	I.1	"My job offers me the possibility to progress financially."	Van Veldhoven and Meijman (1994)
		I.2	"The company pays good salaries."	
I.3		"I can live comfortably on my pay."		
I.4		"I think I am paid enough for the work I do."		

Table 3.1: Measurement Tools Used to Develop the Survey (Conitined)

Construct	Sub-construct	Item code	Items	Author
Personal resources	Self-efficacy	J.1	“I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.”	Luthans, Youssef, et al. (2007)
		J.2	“I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company’s strategy.”	
		J.3	“I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.”	
		J.4	“I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.”	
	Hope	K.1	“If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.”	
		K.2	“At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.”	
		K.3	“Right now, I see myself as being pretty successful at work.”	
		K.4	“I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.”	
	Optimism	L.1	“When things are uncertain for me at work I usually expect the best.”	
		L.2	“I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.”	
		L.3	“I’m optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.”	
		L.4	“In this job, things never work out the way I want them to.”	
	Resilience	M.1	“When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on.”	
		M.2	“I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.”	
		M.3	I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.	
		M.4	“I can get through difficult times at work because I’ve experienced difficulty before.”	

Table 3.1: Measurement Tools Used to Develop the Survey (Conitined)

Construct	Sub-construct	Item code	Items	Author
Happiness at work (HAW)	Job engagement	N.1	“At my work, I feel bursting with energy.”	Schaufeli and Bakker (2003)
		N.2	“When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.”	
		N.3	“I am enthusiastic about my job.”	
		N.4	“I am proud about the work that I do.”	
		N.5	“I am immersed/engrossed in my work.”	
		N.6	“I feel happy when I am working intensely.”	
	Job satisfaction	O.1	“I am satisfied with the nature of the work I perform.”	Schriesheim and Tsui (1980)
		O.2	“I am satisfied with my relationship with my co-workers”	
		O.3	“I am satisfied with my supervisor.”	
		O.4	“Considering everything, I am satisfied with my current job situation.”	
	Affective organization commitment	P.1	“I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.”	Meyer and Allen (1990)
		P.2	“I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.”	
		P.3	“I feel like part of the family at my organization.”	
P.4		“This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.”		
Individual job performance	Task performance	Q.1	“I am able to plan my work so that I finish it on time.”	Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, de Vet, and van der Beek (2014)
		Q.2	“I am keeping in mind the work result I need to achieve.”	
		Q.3	“I am able to carry out my work well with minimal time and effort.”	
		Q.4	“I plan my work optimally.”	
	Contextual performance	R.1	I work on keeping my job-related knowledge up-to-date.”	
		R.2	“I continually seek new challenges in my work.”	
		R.3	“I take on extra responsibilities.”	
		R.4	“I start new tasks myself, when my old ones are finished.”	

The measures employed in the present study emerged principally from prior studies including items that assisted the researcher in establishing context and helped to garner essential feedback on several defined response choices. In the first section, participants were asked to respond to the demographic questions. They were asked to mark their responses using a checkmark or circle, thereby making the survey more user-friendly. In sections 2–6, participants were asked to respond in alignment with their agreement level based on the given five-point Likert scale, with scores ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), to indicate how far they agree with given statement. According to Johns (2010) and Babbie (2007), the Likert scale method is simple, versatile, and designed to be universally applicable. Hence, responses are comparable across different questions, and empirical interval data can also be generated, thus allowing responses to items to be analyzed using various statistical tests (Carifio & Perla, 2008; Mitchell & Jolley, 2004).

Participants responded to a questionnaire prepared in a close-ended form to ascertain rapid turnaround from the participants. The potential for acquiescence bias was minimized by including both positively and negatively worded questions, as suggested by Baumgartner and Steenkamp (2001). In section 1, several demographic questions were placed at the beginning of the survey as non-threatening questions to “warm up” the participants. However, some of the participants were conservative toward some of the demographic questions, such as salary range. Cavana, Delahaye, and Sekaran (2001) suggested that awareness of the study content would equip participants with the confidence required to be open about their personal information. This could well be the case in this study as, in the UAE, cultural reticence is challenged by declaring personal information; for example, salary, marital status, and education details.

According to Murray (1999), the questionnaire survey design has a major influence on both the response rate and the quality of information collected. Furthermore, the questionnaire design affects the reliability and validity of the data collected. As explained by Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (1997), to maximize reliability and validity factors, a myriad of elements must be considered, including paying attention to the wording of questions, presentation, the form the questionnaire takes, and clear explanations for the purpose of the questionnaire, followed by testing of the questionnaire. Furthermore, the methods by which the study's construct are scaled, classified, and coded also followed the guidelines suggested by Cavana et al. (2001). Additionally, attention was given to several aspects. First, the questionnaire was developed to be understandable by all participants and to keep close to participants' language, meanings, thoughts, activities, and contexts. In addition, questions were framed in the questionnaire so as to record participants' perceptions and opinions regarding the study's variables (such as job environment characteristics, HAW, PsyCap, individual job performance), and control variables (such as gender, age, location, educational level, the job category, salary range, and overall years of experience within the company).

For the purpose of ensuring comprehensibility of the questionnaire, the study's researcher considered developing the questionnaire in simple English language that participants could understand. To ensure the quality of translation, the questionnaire survey was translated from English into Arabic by an expert translator. The researcher then translated the Arabic version back into English. The two versions were then compared and any inconsistencies were resolved, consulting with the translator to avoid any misinterpretations or discrepancies. (A copy of the questionnaire in Arabic is presented in Appendix B.)

3.6 Research procedures and sample selection

The generalizability of the study is based on the representativeness of the respondents (Eid & El-Gohary, 2014). The participants of this study include experienced UAE national and expatriate employees across all departments and units (onshore and offshore employees) at large oil and gas organizations in Abu Dhabi, UAE. Different job titles are reported, including managerial and non-managerial positions.

Sampling methods can be classified into two categories: probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2002; Shively, 2011; Tyrer & Heyman, 2016). Probability sampling can further be separated into several types, such as stratified, simple random, and systematic sampling (Cohen et al., 2002), while non-probability sampling techniques include snowball, quota, purposive, accidental, and theoretical sampling (Cohen et al., 2002; Trobia & Lavrakas, 2008). The main difference between the two major categories is that, in probability sampling, the chances of individuals in the wider population being selected for the sample are known whereas, in a non-probability sample, those chances are unknown. In probability sampling, each element in the population has a known non-zero chance of being selected using a random selection procedure (Henry, 1990). The phenomenon in question can thus be described more precisely since every participant has an equal probability of being selected from the population (Visser, Krosnick, & Lavrakas, 2000). According to Tyrer and Heyman (2016), probability sampling is more accurate in determining a population's true characteristics as it allows all members of the population to have an equal chance of being selected. Probability sampling is thus appropriate when a researcher wishes to generalize the study's findings, as it seeks

representativeness of the wider population, and allows two-tailed tests to be administered in the statistical analysis of quantitative data. Moreover, probability sampling has less risk of bias than non-probability sampling (Cohen et al., 2002). In light of this, probability sampling was the most reasonable choice for the present study.

More precisely, the study used a stratified random sampling technique in the selection of respondents. This method of sampling involves dividing a population into smaller groups known as strata, which are formed to reflect members' shared attributes or characteristics. A random sample from each stratum is chosen with a membership proportional to the size of that stratum compared to the population. Every company is considered, as strata and sample employees are chosen at random from each oil and gas company. Stratified random sampling was adopted, dividing the oil and gas companies into 11 companies, from which employee samples were chosen by simple random sampling. This technique (probability sampling, stratified sampling, and simple random sampling) gave the study a representative sample without bias and minimized sampling errors, allowing the researcher to identify where sampling errors exist (Palys, 2003).

Prior to data collection, the questionnaire was evaluated by two academic experts and the researcher's main supervisor. Expert views were sought from scholars with an interest in similar fields of research. The academic experts reviewed the questionnaire's items to verify their suitability and to ensure that all items completely addressed every aspect of the research questions. They were also requested to give their feedback about any ambiguities, redundancies, or difficulties in comprehension that they encountered, and modifications were made accordingly.

Before the initiation of the main field research and the official distribution of the questionnaire, a pilot test was conducted to evaluate the design and methodology of the instrument. According to Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin (2013), a pilot test is an experimental testing of a small sample group, with the results being used for testing a study design. Furthermore, Baumgartner, Strong, and Hensley (2006) asserted that the purpose of pilot testing is to determine how well respondents understand the contexts of questions, and that pilot testing also provides an opportunity to eliminate ambiguous questions and reduce bias. Additionally, a pilot test can be used to determine whether the language of the questions is understandable and, moreover, to gauge the time necessary to complete the questionnaire. However, the most helpful aspect of a pilot test is the ability to test the face validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Hence, it is critical to conduct a pilot test prior to the actual research (Bradburn, Sudman, & Wansink, 2004). This step entails an initial test of the data collection tools to determine and rectify any errors. Also, pilot testing can help to identify issues in the research methodology and data collection methods.

During the pretesting stage, a pilot test was performed on twenty volunteer participants from the study's target population. The volunteers were asked to comment on various aspects of a list of items corresponding to the constructs, including the wording of the scales, questionnaire format, and instrument length. Their valuable feedback was used to improve the wording of the questions, thereby reducing the possibility of respondents interpreting the questions in different ways. The participants indicated that the questionnaire completion time of thirty minutes was suitable, and that the questions were clear. In light of their feedback, some slight modifications were made following the pretest. Later, based on participants' feedback, the wording of a small number of items was modified and amendments were made. Additional

instructions on how to answer the questions were also included on the cover page, and brief definitions or clarifying phrases were inserted into each section. As a result of these efforts, the survey was considered to be appropriate for data collection.

After assessing the survey through the pilot study, the survey was generated as a hard copy. Employees were informed about the purpose of the study and were encouraged to participate by the primary researcher. The assurance regarding confidentiality was communicated verbally and in the survey's covering letter. A clear undertaking was given that the response would be addressed at an aggregated-level, rather than as individual-level data. To clarify any questions arising from respondents, a direct way of contacting the primary researcher was provided. The drop-off/pick-up approach was used to collect the completed questionnaires.

3.7 Data sources and collection

To undertake the present study, approval was sought for data collection from the United Arab Emirates University Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee. In accordance with the ethical codes of conduct for research (see Appendix A) various issues were addressed, including a participant information sheet that detailed the objectives of the research and a consent form that addressed issues related to confidentiality, privacy, and potential risks associated with participation in the research.

The selection of these organizations was based on convenience and accessibility to their employees. Companies were assured that no identification of the employer/organization would be provided and that reference would only be made to its entity.

Prior to the distribution of the survey questionnaire, the study needed to be approved by the top management of the companies where the survey took place. The research package – which included copies of the research proposal, project information, an explanation of participant consent, the survey instrument, and the rationale of the study – was provided to the company management. The survey was reviewed by the company's top management. The purpose of the review was to discuss any potential problems with administration procedures, wording of directions, and survey completion scheduling. Bednar and Westphal (2006) suggested that people are typically more willing to comply with a request if it is made by an individual perceived as having legitimate authority. Hence, executive endorsement tends to be a very useful tool in increasing response rates and a powerful signal to communicate the importance of the research. Bednar and Westphal (2006) also argued that top management endorsement increased the likelihood of response by a factor of 2.71 logistic regression estimated coefficients. Put differently, surveys accompanied with top management endorsement were almost three times more likely to be completed and returned.

The distribution of the survey questionnaire to employees working in the organizations under study was carried out between March 2018 and May 2018. A paper questionnaire and a covering letter were used to collect the data necessary to meet the purpose and objectives of the study

The covering letter was designed to encourage participation, and its first paragraph described the nature and the purpose of the study. The second paragraph included a request for participation in the study, followed by statements guaranteeing anonymity and the extent to which confidentiality of information provided would be maintained. An assurance that participation was voluntary and that any individual

approached may withdraw from participation at any time was also included. The covering letter also included the following text in an explanatory statement “The participation is voluntary; accordingly, you may withdraw at any time from the study. There is minimal risk in participating in this study since all data collected will be anonymous.” Participants were informed that a summary of results would be available at their request.

However, the primary researcher used the drop-off/pick-up approach to collect the completed questionnaires. This approach provided the primary researcher with the opportunity to convey the importance of the research personally to the respondents. Additionally, it ensured the presence of the respondent to complete the questionnaires as it had been hand-delivered by the researcher (Steele et al., 2001). According to Steele et al. (2001), the drop off/pick up approach helps to reduce errors of non-coverage and potential sample bias without reducing the response rate. A web survey was used in parallel but, due the extremely low response rate to the survey and the limited time for data gathering, the web survey was excluded. The results of the paper survey questionnaire indicate that, out of 1,000 questionnaires distributed, 600 questionnaires were returned; of these, 409 were useable and fully completed, providing an overall response rate of 40.9%.

3.8 Data analysis procedure

Detailed data analysis covering both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses is presented in Chapters 4 and 5. According to Van Blerkom (2017, p. 216) “descriptive statistics is a process of directly describing the characteristics of either populations or samples [and] involves directly calculating parameters from populations or statistics from samples.” The descriptive analysis provides various

characteristics of the respondents, such as gender distribution, age profile, marital status, tenure, and occupation category, nationality, and income level. It also provides various characteristics of the survey response statistics, such as mean, frequency, standard deviation, percentage, and skewness and kurtosis indices. According to Van Blerkom (2017, p. 216), inferential statistics is defined as “the process of using samples to estimate the characteristics of populations”. Data is first screened to ensure its accuracy, completeness, and quality by examining the questionnaires for normality, ensuring no data are missing and that there are no outliers, thus making the data appropriate for further use in statistical analysis. All the above analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25.

3.8.1 Sample size

Dominick and Wimmer (2003) referred to a sample as a subset of a population that is representative of the entire population. The sample size has been determined according to the Godden (2004) equation. The calculations were based on the confidence level (95%), ratio of population characteristics available in the sample (50%), confidence interval = 0.05, and population size. Godden (2004) suggested two calculation processes must be applied, the first for a sample size for an infinite population (where the population is greater than 50,000) and then a sample size for a finite population (where the population is fewer than 50,000). The sample size can be determined depending on the following equation:

$$SS = \frac{Z(P)(1 - P)}{c^2}$$

Given SS

$$SS = \frac{1 + (SS - 1)}{Pop}$$

where SS = sample size

Z = confidence level (95%)

P = percentage of population picking a choice (worst case of the sample 50% or 0.5)

C = confidence interval or margin of error = 0.05

Pop = Total population (a. The total population derived from oil and gas in Abu Dhabi = 55,000 employees)

$$SS = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.5) (1 - 0.5)}{(0.05)^2}$$

$$SS = \frac{(0.9604)}{0.0025}$$

$$SS = 384.16 \approx 384.$$

$$SS = \frac{1 + (SS - 1)}{Pop}$$

$$SS = \frac{1 + (348 - 1)}{55,000}$$

$$SS = \frac{348}{1.00630}$$

$$SS = 345.0$$

Table 3.2: Survey Response Rate

Number of respondents contacted	Valid responses	Response rate
1000	409	40.9%

Thus, a sample of 345 is considered and taken for the present study. This procedure resulted in 409 useful responses with an overall response rate of 40.9% (see Table 3.2).

To ensure that the valid responses were representative of the larger population, a non-response bias test was used to compare the early and late respondents. Chi-square tests showed no significant difference between the two groups of respondents at the 5% significance level, implying that a non-response bias is not a matter for concern.

3.8.2 Preliminary analyses

After the data collection and before proceeding with model analysis, data screening was performed using multivariate and univariate outlier identification indicating data normality. Additionally, missing data were detected. Later, a preliminary factor analysis for the survey components was conducted to examine the common method variance (CMV), reliability, and scale uni-dimensionality of each construct. This test is considered to be essential because the independent variables and dependency variables data used in this study are entirely self-reported, and so are prone to CMV. To satisfy this test, first, Harman's single-factor test was conducted to check if the scale items are uni-dimensional. Second, a common latent factor (CLF) check was conducted using analysis of moment of structure (AMOS 23) confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to capture the path of common variance among all the observed variables in the model. This test is essential to determine that CMV does not affect the standardized path coefficients.

3.8.3 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

After ensuring that the normality and factorability assumptions have been tested, the analysis process is carried out by adopting structural equation modeling with maximum likelihood estimation (SEM-MLE) with AMOS 23 to examine the fit of the study's measurement and structural models. Following the two-step modeling

method suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), the two-step modeling method begins by evaluating the validity of the measurement model and is followed by the conducting of the structural model assessment by testing standardized path coefficients. The rationale for this two-step approach is to ensure that conclusions emanating from structural relationships were drawn from a set of measurement instruments with desirable psychometric properties.

The assessment of the measurement model for the study's sample was performed by estimating discriminant and convergent validities, as well as internal consistency. Convergent validities were evaluated through item loadings on their related factors; discriminant validities were examined through a comparison between the average variance that the constructs and their measures share to the variances the constructs themselves share (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). After the measurement model had been checked by means of discriminate and convergent validity, it was appropriate to proceed with the structural model. However, to assess the structural model and hypothesis, the study adopted SEM using AMOS 23 with maximum likelihood estimation. The structural model standardized path coefficients (β values) were tested for their respective significance levels, as well as for the coefficients of determination coefficient (R^2 values). The significance of testing the structural model is to examine the hypothesized relationships included in the study's proposed conceptual model. Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003) suggested that the fit of both the measurement model and structural model be conducted prior to analyzing interaction effects (mediation and moderating relationships).

3.8.4 Mediation analysis

Baron and Kenny (1986) argued that there are three conditions that must be met to prove that the mediational effect is taking place: (1) an independent variable should be significantly related to the mediator (X leads to M); (2) the mediator should be significantly related to the dependent variable (M leads to Y); (3) the relationship of the independent variables and dependent variables diminishes when the mediator is introduced into the model (X leads to M, which, in turn, leads to Y). According to Hair Jr., Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2016), from a theoretical perspective, the most common application of mediation is to “explain” why a relationship between an independent variable and dependent variable exists. Hence, it allows the verification of the mechanisms that underlie the cause-effect relationship.

The current study used a bootstrapping method developed by Baron and Kenny (1986) to test the indirect effect between the hypothesized mediation relationships. All the predictors were entered before analysis using AMOS to control for demographic and socioeconomic variables, the mediator (HAW) was separately introduced to each of the predictors (job demands and job resources) so as to predict individual job performance. Bootstrapping is a non-parametric resampling method that does not require the normality assumption on the sampling distribution (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Bootstrapping can also be applied to a smaller sample size with more confidence. Additionally, a better estimate can be drawn with the bootstrapping method because of its resampling in an alternative mode. Moreover, the method shows higher levels of statistical power in comparison to the Sobel test and recognizes the skewed sampling distribution. Therefore, the bootstrapping method was applied in the current study.

3.8.5 Moderation analysis

In order to explore whether the effect of job demands and job resources on HAW varied in magnitude and nature as a function of PsyCap, simple moderation analysis was utilized using the SPSS/PROCESS macro of Hayes and Preacher (2013). This allowed the identification of statistical interactions between the predictors (job demands and job resources) and moderator (PsyCap) variables, and the strength and direction of their collective effect on the outcome variable (HAW) (Judd, Kenny, & McClelland, 2001). Further, moderation encapsulates the enhancement, reduction, or changing effect of the predictor as a result of introducing the moderating variable (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009).

3.9 Ethical considerations

The ethical considerations applied to this research emanated from the need for the study to be credible and trustworthy regarding data collection, rights, values, social principles, and individual convictions. This study complied with the United Arab Emirates University guidelines for conducting social research by securing the necessary ethics clearance from the Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee prior to commencing the collection of data from research participants. Strict confidentiality and anonymity were maintained at each stage of the research process from selecting samples to reporting findings. The organizations under study granted permission after having been provided with a general explanation of the nature of the study in the research packet. The study's participants also gave their consent to the purpose, aim, and objectives of the present study before proceeding. The participants took part in the study on a voluntary basis and anonymity was assured, since the participants were not identified during the final survey throughout the study in order to ensure honest and

truthful responses. As stated in previous sections, the participants had the right to withdraw from the research at any stage in accordance with ethical research protocol (Vogt, Gardner, Haeffele, & Vogt, 2014). In addition, the study conformed to the agreed standards of conduct of social science research, which mandates voluntary participation, no harm to participants, the maintaining of anonymity and confidentiality, the avoidance of deception, and rigorous data analysis and reporting (Babbie, 2010).

3.10 Chapter summary

This chapter reiterates the purpose of this study, has presented the research questions, and explained the nature of the research strategy and the research design. It also shows how the sample of participants was selected, the survey questionnaire instrumentation, and the research procedure, and discusses the collection of the data sources in addition to the methods used to analyze data. The chapter also explains the ethical consideration in conducting the current research and the research guiding paradigm. Chapters 4 and 5 will discuss the purification of measures and descriptive analysis, the model and hypotheses testing, and the data analysis results with the aim of answering the research questions with a focus on the key contributions of this study.

Chapter 4: Purification of Measures and Descriptive Analysis

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data screening and preparation that guarantee the quality of the replies and their consequent use in the statistical analysis. Firstly, the data screening included checking for accuracy, missing data analysis, the presence of outliers, verification of the distribution assumptions and testing of common method bias to ensure that the data was accurate, complete and suitable for a multivariate statistical analysis. Second, the descriptive analysis of the data provides some qualitative insights to investigate, describe and discuss the data obtained in terms of value and contribution to the aims of the research. Thirdly, it focuses on the purification and computation processes of the measuring instruments. In this process, Cronbach alpha is used as an indicator of reliability of the scale measurement. Finally, validity of the measures was considered, and factor analysis was used to examine it. Results of the statistical analysis are used for further analysis in chapter 5 for hypothesis testing and to interpret the findings in the context of research aims.

It is important to highlight that this chapter (chapter 4) and the following chapter (chapter 5) are aimed specifically to present the statistical results from the analysis. Chapter 6 will interpret and discuss the implications and findings of chapter 4 and 5 within the context of the literature discussed in chapter 2. In other words, these two chapters (chapter 4 and chapter 5) are restricted to presentation and analysis of the collected data, without drawing general conclusions or comparing results to those of other researchers. The conclusion and recommendations of these results are discussed in the final chapter (chapter 6).

4.2 Data screening

Cleaning the data once they have been collected is an important step to take before starting the analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The first step in preparing our data for analysis was the process of data editing, coding and data entry to SPSS. First, the data were screened for any errors and omissions, to ensure that it reached the applicable quality standards. Next, the study variables were coded into a format suitable for the statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25. Each variable was given a unique label. This step helped in setting up the computer software to analyse the data. Then SPSS was used to enter the data automatically as it was exported from the Excel sheet.

4.2.1 Missing data

According to Hair et al. (2006) the quality of statistical analyses can be seriously affected by the impact of a large quantity of missing values, and accordingly can make the result of analyses unreliable and biased. Moreover, some statistical analyses cannot be performed when values are missing. Furthermore, Enders (2010) indicates that missing values in the data sets used in the social, behavioural and medical sciences are quite common. There are many options for handling the missing data. The data may not be modified but left alone, especially if the missing values are small and non-random, or the missing values may be replaced. The third option is to delete the cases or variables affected. This is the recommended option if the sample size is large and/or when the respondents have not answered all the questions in the survey. The deletion of variables with missing data is also recommended if these variables are not critical to the study (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Taking the above into consideration, a careful analysis of missing values was conducted. The results revealed no cases of missing data, because the surveys with completed data were the only ones to be included since it yielded enough respondents. In the present study, 434 collected responses were checked and cleaned. There were 5 cases with many incomplete scale answers, while 3 cases had complete scale answers but incomplete demographic responses. Our data set comprised 426 respondents, which supplied material for the following analyses.

4.2.2 Outliers

Outliers are extreme values compared to the rest of the study data. Outliers affect data normality and because normality is considered to be an important assumption of many statistical tests, outliers should be detected and resolved (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), outliers are survey responses that have unusually high or low values that make them distinctly different from other responses for the same variable (univariate outliers). They could also be a unique combination of several responses that stand out from other responses across multiple variables, as in the case of multivariate analysis (multivariate outliers). Outliers can distort the results of a statistical analysis by increasing error variance, reducing the power of statistical tests and biasing estimates of substantive interest (Osborne & Overbay, 2004).

There are two types of outlier, "univariate" and "multivariate". Univariate outliers represent cases with an extreme value in one variable, while multivariate outliers are cases with strange combinations of scores on two or more variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Once the outliers are identified, there are many possible ways of dealing with them. One option is deletion. If there are few outliers, those

values may simply be deleted. Moreover, the variable could be deleted if the question is not well constructed or many outliers are found in this variable. As well as deletion, the Transformation of the entire variable is also available as another way of dealing with outliers (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

To check for the presence of univariate outliers in the data set, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk's tests of normality in statistical assessment were used to assess the normality of the data, with further focus on the values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. This was because values of the Shapiro-Wilk test are consulted when data number less than 50, unlike the present study. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (see Table 4.1) showed that our data significantly differed from the normal distribution (low significance value of the test was below .05).

Table 4.1: Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
ROLEAMB	.192	409	.000	.921	409	.000
WORKFAM	.181	409	.000	.937	409	.000
JOBINSEC	.215	409	.000	.914	409	.000
JOBAUT	.189	409	.000	.924	409	.000
PERFEED	.240	409	.000	.903	409	.000
SUPSUPP	.118	409	.000	.954	409	.000
OPPDEV	.128	409	.000	.969	409	.000
FINREWA	.142	409	.000	.943	409	.000
SELEFF	.207	409	.000	.898	409	.000
HOPE	.217	409	.000	.908	409	.000
OPTIM	.217	409	.000	.908	409	.000
RESIL	.234	409	.000	.902	409	.000
ENGAG	.111	409	.000	.935	409	.000
JOBS	.165	409	.000	.926	409	.000
AFFECORG	.131	409	.000	.943	409	.000
TASPER	.170	409	.000	.934	409	.000
CONTPERF	.175	409	.000	.920	409	.000
JOBDEM	.066	409	.000	.985	409	.000
JOBRES	.055	409	.005	.993	409	.041
HAW	.083	409	.000	.959	409	.000
INDPER	.102	409	.000	.949	409	.000
PERSRES	.093	409	.000	.966	409	.000

However, the values of the skewness for all the were in the range of +1.5 to -1.5 (see Table 4.3). Skewness is a measure of symmetry, or more precisely, the lack of symmetry, where a distribution of data set is called symmetric if it looks the same to the left and right of the centre point (Miles & Shevlin, 2001). Kurtosis can thus be used to measure whether the obtained data are heavy-tailed or light-tailed relative to a normal distribution. That is, data sets with high kurtosis tend to have heavy tails, or outliers, whereas data sets with low kurtosis tend to have light tails, or a lack of outliers (Miles & Shevlin, 2001). Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham identify that values of skewness between -1.5 and +1.5 are considered quasi normal. Furthermore, although the previous test show results that are significantly differed from the normal distribution, It has been reported that for large samples normality tests may yield significant results even in cases of a small deviation from normality (Field, 2013, p. 822; Oztuna et al., 2006).

To assess the presence of multivariate outliers, the analysis of Mahalanobis distance has been carried out using AMOS to identify any multivariate outliers within the data. Mahalanobis' distance is a metric for estimating how far each case is from the centre of all the variables' distributions (i.e. the centroid in multivariate space) (Mahalanobis, 1927). The Mahalanobis distance test has identified 17 cases that is having an outlier (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Multivariate Outliers Test Results (Mahalanobis Distance Method)

Observation number	Mahalanobis d-squared (Distance)	P (Probability)
24	88.070	.000
59	75.305	.000
73	68.959	.000
178	55.468	.000
79	54.504	.000
231	50.749	.000
124	48.881	.000
159	45.814	.000
190	45.755	.000
38	44.403	.000
151	44.010	.000
389	43.149	.000
228	42.729	.000
152	42.701	.000
76	42.488	.000
62	42.109	.000
121	40.596	.000

The Mahalanobis Distance was compared with Chi-Square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of independent variables at a significance level of $p < 0.001$. In total 17 cases were found to exhibit the presence of multivariate

outliers (see Table 4.2). All 17 cases were removed to avoid any bias in the subsequent statistical analysis.

4.2.3 Normality

The normality assumption refers to the shape of the data distribution for each variable being bell-shaped. A skewness-kurtosis approach was adopted to test univariate normality for each variable (Byrne, 2016; Kline, 2005). Using SPSS 25.0, the statistical values of skewness and kurtosis were tested and found they were within their respective levels. As reported in Table 4.3, all the values given support the normality of univariate distribution due to all values of skewness were recognised to be below their cut-off point of “3” as well as all values of kurtosis were found to be not more than “8” (Kline, 2005; West, Finch, & Curran, 1995).

Table 4.3: Partial Display Normality Test Results for all Items

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
A1	409	2.2616	.83872	.903	.121	.983	.241
A2	409	2.3545	.87671	.626	.121	.360	.241
A3	409	2.3521	.90383	.768	.121	.637	.241
B1	409	1.9218	.79751	.957	.121	1.270	.241
B2	409	1.9340	.73634	.697	.121	.692	.241
B3	409	2.0562	.76650	.528	.121	.341	.241
B4	409	2.1418	.82214	.689	.121	.606	.241
C1	409	2.3399	.87414	.520	.121	.223	.241
C2	409	2.3105	.90419	.547	.121	.269	.241
C3	409	2.3276	.87180	.449	.121	.092	.241
C4	409	2.3863	.92217	.422	.121	-.172	.241
D1	409	3.7971	.85772	-.792	.121	1.029	.241
D2	409	3.7579	.88428	-.746	.121	.698	.241
D3	409	3.7090	.92405	-.683	.121	.445	.241
D4	409	3.6919	.96911	-.665	.121	.241	.241
G1	409	3.5379	.85987	-.467	.121	-.014	.241
G2	409	3.5746	.88281	-.539	.121	.045	.241
G3	409	3.5037	.87482	-.375	.121	-.168	.241
H1	409	3.5208	.86329	-.466	.121	-.175	.241
H2	409	3.5110	.86631	-.466	.121	-.210	.241
H3	409	3.5599	.84422	-.594	.121	.039	.241
I1	409	3.2249	1.03055	-.326	.121	-.491	.241
I2	409	3.0587	1.05090	-.194	.121	-.607	.241
I3	409	3.3154	1.09176	-.401	.121	-.592	.241
I4	409	3.3056	1.06273	-.351	.121	-.537	.241
Valid N (listwise)	409						

4.2.4 Common method bias

The common method bias refers to the argument that the observed variance in an endogenous variable is not only due to the relationship between the model constructs, but rather due to the variance introduced by the measurement method. This may result from participants who wish to make their responses project socially desirable images of themselves, or from a bias due to the simultaneous collection of data concerning both the independent and dependent variables or the ambiguity of the survey items (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Non-bias response arises from the fact that some members of the target population have declined to participate in the survey may hold very different views, opinions or perceptions from those who participated (Malhotra, Kim, & Patil, 2006; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007).

4.2.4.1 Harman's single factor

To check for potential common method variance, Herman's Single-Factor Test was run. Harman's Single factor assessment proceeds by including all the items from all the constructs to study factor analysis in order to determine whether most of the variance can be accounted for by one general factor (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The program extracted one factor to check whether a single factor could account for than 50% of the variance. The results shown in Table 4.4 indicate that a single factor could only account for 32.407% of the variance, which is far less than the accepted threshold of 50% (Malhotra et al., 2006). This confirms that the survey responses are free from significant common method bias and that it was acceptable to proceed with the model analysis.

Table 4.4: Results of Herman's Single-Factor Test for Common Method Bias

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
	1	23.920	33.222	33.222	23.920	33.222
2	5.166	7.175	40.397			
3	4.244	5.895	46.292			
4	3.168	4.400	50.692			
5	2.974	4.130	54.823			
6	2.696	3.745	58.567			
7	2.281	3.168	61.735			
8	2.115	2.938	64.673			
9	2.012	2.795	67.468			
10	1.955	2.715	70.183			
11	1.883	2.615	72.798			
12	1.634	2.269	75.067			
13	1.552	2.155	77.222			
14	1.497	2.080	79.302			
15	1.193	1.657	80.959			
16	1.124	1.561	82.520			
17	1.102	1.531	84.051			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.2.4.2 Common latent factor

After Harman's single factor test, common latent factor analysis in CFA using was carried out in order to test the percentage of variance explained by a common latent factor. We used our CFA model, which contained all the constructs and

introduced a common latent factor (CFA is further explained in the next step). Accordingly, this assessment was conducted after CFA, with the purpose of examining data readiness. We connected all the observed variables in the model with the common latent factor and constrained the paths to be equal. The results of AMOS demonstrated that this common latent factor explained only 40 % of the shared variance in all the observed variables. Hence, the common latent factor analysis also confirmed that common method bias is not a major concern in the data used for the present study.

4.3 Descriptive analysis

This section provides general information about respondents. The aim is to provide a brief account of the profile of the study sample. Frequency analysis is used to distribute the participants according to the following characteristics:

- Gender
- Marital Status
- Age of respondent
- Education
- Sector
- Job Title
- Experience
- Location
- Job Nature
- Monthly Income
- Nationality

4.3.1 Gender

The first descriptive analysis begins with the gender of respondents Table 4.5 shows that nearly half of the respondents (52.8%) were males and 47.2% were females. This indicates that there was a balance between the males and females within the sample and reflects the government orientation in the UAE to support the equal opportunity policy.

Table 4.5: Gender of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	193	47.2	47.2	47.2
	Male	216	52.8	52.8	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.3.2 Marital status

Regarding to the marital status of the respondents, the majority of the respondents were married (63.6%). 107 of the respondents were single (26.2%). 7.3% of the respondents were divorced (30 respondents). Finally, only 12 respondents were widows (2.9%). Table 4.6 summarize the distribution of sample by marital status.

Table 4.6: Marital Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Married	260	63.6	63.6	63.6
	Single	107	26.2	26.2	89.7
	Divorced	30	7.3	7.3	97.1
	Widow	12	2.9	2.9	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.3.3 Age

In terms of age, nearly half of the respondents were between 26-35 years old (46.7%), 30.0 % of the respondents aged between 36-45 years old, 13.7% were 46 years old or older, and very few respondents (approximately 1 %) were under 21 years old and 6.8% were between 21-25 years old. Table 4.7 summarize the distribution of sample by age.

Table 4.7: Age of Respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Under 21 Years	3	.7	.7	.7
	21-25 Years	28	6.8	6.8	7.6
	26-30 Years	109	26.7	26.7	34.2
	31-35 Years	90	22.0	22.0	56.2
	36-40 Years	75	18.3	18.3	74.6
	41-45 Years	48	11.7	11.7	86.3
	46 Years or Older	56	13.7	13.7	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.3.4 Education

Table 4.8 shows that more than half of the participants (53.3%) have earned bachelor's degrees. 87 participants (21.3%) received master's degrees. Approximately 8.8% of the survey participants (36 participants) received high School degrees, and only few participants received either less than high school or PhD/Doctorate degrees (1.5%).

Table 4.8: Respondents by Qualifications

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than high school	6	1.5	1.5	1.5
	High school graduate	36	8.8	8.8	10.3
	Diploma	56	13.7	13.7	24.0
	Bachelor's degree	218	53.3	53.3	77.3
	Master's degree	87	21.3	21.3	98.5
	Ph.D./Doctorate	6	1.5	1.5	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.3.5 Respondent by sector

With respect to the sector (Table 4.9), nearly half (45.2%) of the respondents were working in the Upstream Oil & Gas sector (185 respondents). 138 of the respondents were working in the Administration sector (33.7%). 35 of the respondents reported that they were working in the Energy Management Sector (8.6%). 7.1% of the respondents were coming from the Midstream Oil & Gas Sector. Finally, few respondents are working in the Downstream Oil & Gas Sector (22 respondents).

Table 4.9: Respondents by Sector

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Upstream Oil & Gas	185	45.2	45.2	45.2
	Downstream Oil & Gas	22	5.4	5.4	50.6
	Midstream Oil & Gas	29	7.1	7.1	57.7
	Administration	138	33.7	33.7	91.4
	Energy Management	35	8.6	8.6	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.3.6 Job title

In terms of job title, the majority of participants were Mid-Career (60.4%), Team Leader/Manager were 77 respondents (18.8%), 73 were Entry or Junior Level employees (17.8%) and only 12 respondents were Director or Executive (VP, SVP & CEO) (2.9%). This job distribution reflects both the organizational hierarchy and the respective populations in each ADNOC (Table 4.10).

Table 4.10: Respondents by Job Title

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Entry or Junior Level	73	17.8	17.8	17.8
	Mid-Career	247	60.4	60.4	78.2
	Team Leader / Manager	77	18.8	18.8	97.1
	Director or Executive	12	2.9	2.9	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.3.7 Experience

As Table 4.11 shows, most of the participating respondents (56.7%) had less than 10 years' work experience. 89 respondents were having between 11-16 years' work experience (21.8%). 11.5% of the respondents were having between 17-22 years' work experience (47 respondents). Finally, 41 respondents had 23 years or more work experience.

Table 4.11: Experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 5 years	115	28.1	28.1	28.1
	5-10 Years	117	28.6	28.6	56.7
	11-16 Years	89	21.8	21.8	78.5
	17-22 Years	47	11.5	11.5	90.0
	+23 Year	41	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.3.8 Respondents by location

In terms of the location, Table 4.12 show that the majority of respondents were working On-Shore (80.4%). Only 80 respondents were working Off-Shore (19.6%).

Table 4.12: Respondents by Location

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	On-Shore	329	80.4	80.4	80.4
	Off-Shore	80	19.6	19.6	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.3.8 Respondents by job nature

In terms of the job nature, Table 4.13 show that the nearly half of respondents were Non-Technical (51.5%). Similarly, nearly half of the respondents were Technical Staff (48.9%).

Table 4.13: Respondents by Job Nature

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	On-Shore	329	80.4	80.4	80.4
	Off-Shore	80	19.6	19.6	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.3.9 Respondents by monthly income

With respect to the income level (Table 4.14), 23.7% of the respondents reported that their monthly income was less than AED 25,000 per month; for 21%, it was between AED 25,000 and AED 35,000, for 27.1% it was between AED 36,000 and AED 46,000, for 17.8% it was between AED 47,000 and AED 57,000 and for 10.3 % it was more than AED 58,000 per month.

Table 4.14: Respondents by Level of Income Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 25,000 AED	97	23.7	23.7	23.7
	25,000 - 35,000 AED	86	21.0	21.0	44.7
	36,000 – 46,000 AED	111	27.1	27.1	71.9
	47,000 –57,000 AED	73	17.8	17.8	89.7
	More than 58,000 AED	42	10.3	10.3	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.3.10 Respondents by nationality

Table 4.15 reveals that the majority of the respondents (70.4%) in this survey were local. This could be due to the fact that the UAE government employment initiative focus on recruiting UAE National as main part of “Emiratization policy” , specially within the governmental organisation few years ago. Only 121 of the respondents were Expats (29.6%).

Table 4.15: Respondents by Nationality

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	UAE	288	70.4	70.4	70.4
	Expat	121	29.6	29.6	100.0
	Total	409	100.0	100.0	

4.4 Reliability analysis

After the entry and recording processes had been done, all the constructs were filtered by evaluating their reliability and validity. There are a number of reasons for considering the reliability and validity of the constructs. One, a reliable and valid construct improves the methodological rigour of the research; two, it permits a co-operative research effort and provides support for the triangulation of results; and three, it provides a more meaningful explanation of the phenomena that are being investigated (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014).

Item-to-total correlation was used in this study to measure the reliability. The aim was to remove items if they had low correlation unless they represented an

additional domain of interest. This method is considered the most common procedure used by researchers for guaranteeing the reliability of a multi-item scale (May, 1997). The purpose of the item-to-total correlation measure is to determine the relationship of a particular item to the rest of the items in the same dimension. The process helps to ensure that the items making up the dimension share a common core (May, 1997). In this purification process, each item to be retained for further analysis should have an item-to-total correlation score of 0.30 or above and would then be considered highly reliable (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

Additionally, the establishment of reliability was also made on the basis of the average correlation among items within a dimension, which is a matter of “internal consistency” (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1978) . The basic formula for determining the reliability on the basis of this internal consistency is called the coefficient alpha (Cronbach’s alpha). This technique has proved to be a good estimate of reliability in most research situations. Nunnally and Bernstein (1978) suggests that a reliability of 0.60 would be sufficient.

The following section presents the results of the reliability analyses which were carried out for all the measuring constructs in the questionnaire, namely: Role Overload,

Role ambiguity, Work- Family Conflict, Job Insecurity, Job Autonomy, Performance Feedback, Supervisory Support, Opportunity for growth, Financial Reward, Self-Efficacy, Hope, Optimism, Resiliency, Engagement, Job Satisfaction, Affective Organizational Commitment, Task Performance and Contextual Performance. Computing the item-to-total correlation and testing with coefficient alpha constitutes the process of analysing reliability. Item-to-total correlation and the

Cronbach Alpha coefficient are observed to be very popular in the field of social science research (Price & Mueller, 1986).

All the items were found to have a high item-to-total correlation, above the acceptable level of 0.30. As shown in the last column of Table 4.16, below, the reliability coefficients ranged from 0.861 to 0.969 which were significantly higher than the acceptable level of 0.60 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1978). These results confirm that reliable scales were used. This study calculates the reliability for every single variable. Table 4.16 shows the reliability coefficient and item-total correlations for all the study constructs.

Table 4.16: Reliability Analysis for the Research Variables

Item Code	Item	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
	JOB DEMANDS		
A	Role Overload		0.861
A.1	The amount of work I am expected to do is fair.	.644	
A.2	I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work.	.764	
A.3	It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.	.816	
	Role Ambiguity		0.906
B.1	I know what my responsibilities are.	.753	
B.2	I know exactly what is expected of me.	.829	
B.3	In my job I have clear and planned goals and objectives.	.798	
B.4	I feel certain about my level of authority.	.773	
	Work- Family Conflict		0.905
C.1	The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.	.871	
C.2	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	.898	
C.3	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.	.914	

Table 4.16: Reliability Analysis for the Research Variables (Continued)

Item Code	Item	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
C.4	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	.878	
	Job Insecurity		0.935
D.1	I think that I will be able to continue working in my current organization.	.827	
D.2	I am sure I can keep my job.	.842	
D.3	I feel insecure about the future of my job.	.857	
D.4	I fear that I might lose my job.	.859	
	JOB RESOURCES		
	Job Autonomy		0.952
E.1	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	.899	
E.2	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	.907	
E.3	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	.890	
	Performance Feedback		0.962
F.1	I receive sufficient information on the purpose of my work.	.914	
F.2	I receive sufficient information on the results of my work.	.932	
F.3	My work itself gives me the opportunity to check on how well I am doing my work.	.911	
	Supervisory Support		0.969
G.1	My supervisor takes the time to learn about my career goals and aspirations.	.906	
G.2	My supervisor keeps me informed about different career opportunities for me in the organization.	.916	
G.3	My supervisor gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it.	.930	
G.4	My supervisor provides assignments that give me the opportunity to develop and strengthen new skills.	.939	
	Opportunity for Development		0.968
H.1	My present job moves me closer to my career goals.	.897	
H.2	My present job encourages me to accumulate richer work experiences.	.924	

Table 4.16: Reliability Analysis for the Research Variables (Continued)

Item Code	Item	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
H.3	My promotion speed in the present organization is fast.	.930	
H.4	In this organization, the possibility of my current salary being increased is very large.	.924	
H.5	My Current job provides me with good development opportunities.	.897	
	Financial Reward		0.967
I.1	My job offers me the possibility to progress financially.	.897	
I.2	The company pays good salaries.	.900	
I.3	I can live comfortably on my pay.	.906	
I.4	I think I am paid enough for the work I do	.908	
	PERSONAL RESOURCES		
	Self-Efficacy		0.948
J.1	I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.	.879	
J.2	I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.	.866	
J.3	I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.	.879	
J.4	I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.	.872	
	Hope		0.937
K.1	If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.	.836	
K.2	At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.	.837	
K.3	Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work.	.857	
K.4	I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.	.868	
	Optimism		0.905
K.1	When things are uncertain for me at work I usually expect the best.	.826	
K.2	I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.	.849	

Table 4.16: Reliability Analysis for the Research Variables (Continued)

Item Code	Item	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
K.3	I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.	.839	
K.4	In this job, things never work out the way I want them to.	.630	
	Resiliency		0.868
L.1	When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on.	.467	
L.2	I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.	.812	
L.3	I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.	.802	
L.4	I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.	.810	
D	HAPINESS AT WORK (HAW)		
	Engagement		0.953
M.1	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	.828	
M.2	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	.853	
M.3	I am enthusiastic about my job.	.888	
M.4	I am proud on the work that I do.	.874	
M.5	I am immersed/engrossed in my work.	.828	
M.6	I feel happy when I am working intensely.	.860	
	Job Satisfaction		0.932
N.1	I am satisfied with the nature of the work I perform.	.836	
N.2	I am satisfied with my relationship with my co-workers	.832	
N.3	I am satisfied with my supervisor.	.862	
N.4	Considering everything, I am satisfied with my current job situation.	.832	
	Affective Organizational Commitment		0.948
O.1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	.890	
O.2	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	.862	
O.3	I feel like part of the family at my organization.	.886	

Table 4.16: Reliability Analysis for the Research Variables (Continued)

Item Code	Item	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
O.4	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.862	
	INDIVIDUAL JOB PERFORMANCE		
	Task Performance		0.922
P.1	I am able to plan my work so that I finish it on time.	.833	
P.2	I am keeping in mind the work result I need to achieve.	.800	
P.3	I am able to carry out my work well with minimal time and effort.	.806	
P.4	I plan my work optimally.	.837	
	Contextual Performance		0.930
Q.1	I work on keeping my job-related knowledge up-to-date.	.838	
Q.2	I continually seeking new challenges in my work.	.836	
Q.3	I take on extra responsibilities.	.833	
Q.4	I start new tasks myself, when my old ones were finished.	.837	

4.5 Validity analysis

This section presents the test of measure validity and scale development for variables included in this study. A sequence of steps has been followed through the scale development process. It involves the use of exploratory factor analysis. This type of procedure was undertaken to sustain the reliability and validity of the data.

4.5.1 Antecedents of happiness at work (HAW)

Based on the literature review, nine constructs have been identified as antecedents of happiness at work (HAW). These factors are Role Overload, Role ambiguity, Work- Family Conflict, Job Insecurity, Job Autonomy, Performance Feedback, Supervisory Support, Opportunity for growth and Financial Reward. To

validate the constructs, the different items included have been submitted to the factor analysis. The results of our factor analysis are reported below.

Specific requirements need to be met before factor analysis can be successfully utilized. One of the important requirements is to measure the constructs by using interval scales. Using a 5-point Likert scale in the survey questionnaire fulfilled this requirement. A number of reasons account for this use of Likert scales. First, they communicate interval properties to the respondent, and therefore produce data that can be assumed to be interval scaled (Koed Madsen, 1989; Schertzer & Kernan, 1985). Second, in the Human Resources literature Likert scales are almost always treated as interval scales (see for example Deeg & van Zonneveld, 1989; García-Cabrera et al., 2018).

Another important condition is that the sample size should be more than 100 since the researcher generally cannot use factor analysis with fewer than 50 observations (Hair et al., 2006). This requirement has been also fulfilled because there were 409 respondents in this research. The results of the factor analysis tests are briefly discussed below.

4.5.1.1 Bartlett's test of sphericity

The 34 items representing the nine predictors (Antecedents of Happiness at work) have been submitted to the factor analysis. The results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) yielded an eight-factor solution that accounted for **87.606** % of the variance extracted. The result for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) was large at 16728.836, and the associated significance value was very small ($p = 0.00$). This shows that the data were appropriate for factor analysis (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989).

4.5.1.2 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) for measurement of sample adequacy (MSA) gives the computed KMO as 0.865, which is adequate, and above acceptable level (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989) (see Table 4.17).

Table 4.17: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.865
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	16728.836
	df	561
	Sig.	.000

Source: Analysis of survey data

As the above requirements were met, the researcher concluded that factor analysis was appropriate for this data set so that the procedures for factor analysis could be performed.

4.5.1.3 Results of principal component analysis extraction process

Factor extraction results using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) are given in Table 4.18. It should be noted that an eigenvalue of 1.0 is used as the benchmark in deciding the number of factors (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 4.18: Principal Component Analysis Extraction Results

Component	Total Variance Explained								
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.043	32.480	32.480	11.043	32.480	32.480	4.501	13.239	13.239
2	4.045	11.896	44.376	4.045	11.896	44.376	3.716	10.930	24.170
3	3.298	9.699	54.075	3.298	9.699	54.075	3.634	10.688	34.857
4	2.694	7.924	61.999	2.694	7.924	61.999	3.567	10.492	45.349
5	2.178	6.407	68.406	2.178	6.407	68.406	3.390	9.969	55.318
6	1.987	5.844	74.250	1.987	5.844	74.250	3.258	9.582	64.900
7	1.641	4.827	79.077	1.641	4.827	79.077	2.706	7.959	72.859
8	1.583	4.656	83.733	1.583	4.656	83.733	2.626	7.725	80.584
9	1.317	3.873	87.606	1.317	3.873	87.606	2.388	7.023	87.606

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.1.4 Extraction method: principal component analysis

An initial (un-rotated) solution identified 34 items and eight factors with eigenvalues of more than one, accounting for 87.606 % of the variance (see Table 4.18). As Table 4.19 shows, all 34 items score communalities that range from 0.689 to 0.943. Therefore, it could be concluded that a degree of confidence in the factor solution has been achieved.

Table 4.19: Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
A1	1.000	.689
A2	1.000	.819
A3	1.000	.872
B1	1.000	.749
B2	1.000	.835
B3	1.000	.788
B4	1.000	.778
C1	1.000	.864
C2	1.000	.895
C3	1.000	.907
C4	1.000	.871
D1	1.000	.826
D2	1.000	.845
D3	1.000	.847
D4	1.000	.863
G1	1.000	.921
G2	1.000	.928
G3	1.000	.909
H1	1.000	.922
H2	1.000	.943
H3	1.000	.924
I1	1.000	.900
I2	1.000	.915
I3	1.000	.923
I4	1.000	.933
J1	1.000	.881
J2	1.000	.883
J3	1.000	.895
J4	1.000	.899
J5	1.000	.906
K1	1.000	.890
K2	1.000	.918
K3	1.000	.925
K4	1.000	.923

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.1.5 Factor rotation and factor loading

On being satisfied with the nine chosen factors, a loading of all the items within the nine factors was examined. The Varimax technique for rotated component analysis was used with a cut-off point for interpretation of the factors at 0.50 or greater (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989). The results are summarized in Table 4.20 below:

Table 4.20: Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A1									.768
A2									.885
A3									.906
B1						.820			
B2						.884			
B3						.823			
B4						.833			
C1				.918					
C2				.932					
C3				.933					
C4				.911					
D1					.853				
D2					.878				
D3					.885				
D4					.890				
G1							.900		
G2							.909		
G3							.855		
H1								.839	
H2								.865	
H3								.859	
I1			.861						
I2			.876						
I3			.862						
I4			.868						
J1	.850								
J2	.853								
J3	.870								
J4	.875								
J5	.871								
K1		.902							
K2		.930							
K3		.937							
K4		.934							

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.a

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations

All items were loaded onto the expected factors for which they were designed. Factor loadings were all higher than 0.60 so that each item loaded higher on its associated construct than on any other construct. As suggested by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998), a factor loading higher than 0.35 is considered statistically significant at an alpha level of 0.05. This is supported by the discriminant validity of the measurement.

4.5.1.6 Factor naming and interpretation process

The interpretation of the nine-factor solution was accomplished by relating them to the theoretical concepts of human resources. The nine factors can be discussed as follows:

Factor 1 consists of five items and fits very well with the ‘opportunity for growth’. This factor comprises the following items (1) My present job moves me closer to my career goals, (2) My present job encourages me to accumulate richer work experiences, (3) My promotion speed in the present organization is fast, (4) In this organization, the possibility of my current salary being increased is very large, and (5) My Current job provides me with good development opportunities. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being ‘In this organization, the possibility of my current salary being increased is very large’ (.875) and the lowest loading “My present job moves me closer to my career goals” (0.850).

The second factor consists of four items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding ‘Financial Reward’. It covers the following variables (1) My job offers me the possibility to progress financially, (2) The company pays good salaries, (3) I can live comfortably on my pay, and (4) I think I am paid enough

for the work I do. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “I can live comfortably on my pay” (0.937) and the lowest loading “My job offers me the possibility to progress financially” (0.902).

The third factor consists of four items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding ‘Supervisory Support’. It covers the following items (1) My supervisor takes the time to learn about my career goals and aspirations, (2) My supervisor keeps me informed about different career opportunities for me in the organization, (3) My supervisor gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it and (4) My supervisor provides assignments that give me the opportunity to develop and strengthen new skills. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “My supervisor keeps me informed about different career opportunities for me in the organization” (0.876) and the lowest loading being “My supervisor takes the time to learn about my career goals and aspirations” (0.861).

The fourth factor consists of four items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding ‘Work- Family Conflict’. It covers the following items (1) The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life, (2) Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me, (3) My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties and (4) Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties” (0.933) and the lowest loading being “Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities” (0.911).

The fifth factor consists of four items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding “Job Insecurity”. It covers the following variables (1) I think that I

will be able to continue working in my current organization, (2) I am sure I can keep my job, (3) I feel insecure about the future of my job and (4) I fear that I might lose my job. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “I fear that I might lose my job” (0.890) and the lowest loading being “I think that I will be able to continue working in my current organization” (0.853).

The sixth factor consists of four items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding ‘Achievement’. It covers the following variables (1) I know what my responsibilities are, (2) I know exactly what is expected of me, (3) In my job I have clear and planned goals and objectives and (4) I feel certain about my level of authority. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “I know exactly what is expected of me” (0.884) and the lowest loading being “I know what my responsibilities are” (0.820).

The seventh factor consists of three items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding ‘Job Autonomy’. It covers the following variables (1) I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job, (2) I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work and (3) I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work” (0.909) and the lowest loading being “I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job” (0.855).

The eighth factor consists of three items and fits very well with ‘Performance Feedback’. This factor comprises the following variables (1) I receive sufficient information on the purpose of my work, (2) I receive sufficient information on the results of my work and (3) My work itself gives me the opportunity to check on how

well I am doing my work. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “I receive sufficient information on the results of my work” (0.865) and the lowest loading being “I receive sufficient information on the purpose of my work” (0.839).

Finally, the ninth factor consists of three items and fits very well with “Role Overload”. This factor comprises the following variables (1) The amount of work I am expected to do is fair, (2) I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work and (3) It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do” (0.906) and the lowest loading being “The amount of work I am expected to do is fair” (0.768).

4.5.2 HAW, personal resources and HAW consequences

Based on the literature review, eight factors have been identified to represent Happiness at work, Personal Resources and HAW Consequences, namely: Self-Efficacy, Hope, Optimism, Resiliency, Engagement, Job Satisfaction, Affective Organizational Commitment, Task Performance and Contextual Performance. To validate the constructs, the different items included have been submitted to the factor analysis. The results of our factor analysis are reported below.

4.5.2.1 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

The 38 items representing Self-Efficacy, Hope, Optimism, Resiliency, Engagement, Job Satisfaction, Affective Organizational Commitment, Task Performance and Contextual Performance have been submitted to the factor analysis. The results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) yielded a nine-factor solution that

accounted for 82.511% of the variance extracted. The result for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) was large at 9221.870, and the associated significance value was very small ($p = 0.00$). This shows that the data were appropriate for factor analysis (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989).

4.5.2.2 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) for measurement of sample adequacy (MSA) gives the computed KMO as 0.943, which is adequate, and above acceptable level (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989) (see Table 4.21).

Table 4.21: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.943
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9221.870
	df	231
	Sig.	.000

As the above requirements were met, the researcher concluded that factor analysis was appropriate for this data set so that the procedures for factor analysis could be performed.

4.5.2.3 Results of Principal Component Analysis Extraction Process

Factor extraction results using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) are given in Table 4.22. It should be noted that an eigenvalue of 1.0 is used as the benchmark in deciding the number of factors (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 4.22: Principal Component Analysis Extraction Results

Component	Total Variance Explained								
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	16.624	43.748	43.748	16.624	43.748	43.748	4.804	12.642	12.642
2	3.240	8.527	52.274	3.240	8.527	52.274	3.602	9.479	22.121
3	2.275	5.986	58.260	2.275	5.986	58.260	3.435	9.040	31.161
4	2.068	5.443	63.704	2.068	5.443	63.704	3.393	8.929	40.090
5	1.825	4.803	68.506	1.825	4.803	68.506	3.372	8.874	48.964
6	1.549	4.076	72.583	1.549	4.076	72.583	3.360	8.842	57.806
7	1.465	3.855	76.438	1.465	3.855	76.438	3.257	8.570	66.376
8	1.258	3.310	79.748	1.258	3.310	79.748	3.165	8.329	74.705
9	1.050	2.763	82.511	1.050	2.763	82.511	2.966	7.806	82.511

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.2.4 Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

An initial (un-rotated) solution identified 38 items and nine factors with eigenvalues of more than one, accounting for 82.511 % of the variance (see Table 4.22). As Table 4.23 shows, all 38 items score communalities that range from 0.472 to 0.885. Therefore, it could be concluded that a degree of confidence in the factor solution has been achieved.

Table 4.23: Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
L1	1.000	.881
L2	1.000	.865
L3	1.000	.866
L4	1.000	.857
M1	1.000	.829
M2	1.000	.836
M3	1.000	.852
M4	1.000	.862
N1	1.000	.839
N2	1.000	.857
N3	1.000	.848
N4	1.000	.648
O1	1.000	.472
O2	1.000	.838
O3	1.000	.838
O4	1.000	.840
P1	1.000	.796
P2	1.000	.824
P3	1.000	.858
P4	1.000	.844
P5	1.000	.781
P6	1.000	.826
Q1	1.000	.831
Q2	1.000	.837
Q3	1.000	.857
Q4	1.000	.828
R1	1.000	.885
R2	1.000	.861
R3	1.000	.875
R4	1.000	.852
S1	1.000	.830
S2	1.000	.787
S3	1.000	.803
S4	1.000	.824
T1	1.000	.825
T2	1.000	.835
T3	1.000	.836
T4	1.000	.830

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.5.2.5 Factor Rotation and Factor Loading

On being satisfied with the nine chosen factors, a loading of all the items within the eight factors was examined. The Varimax technique for rotated component analysis was used with a cut-off point for interpretation of the factors at 0.50 or greater (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989). The results are summarized in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24: Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
L1		.886							
L2		.885							
L3		.854							
L4		.856							
M1				.801					
M2				.809					
M3				.808					
M4				.802					
N1							.843		
N2							.835		
N3							.823		
N4							.748		
O1									.619
O2									.832
O3									.788
O4									.808
P1	.742								
P2	.781								
P3	.780								
P4	.772								
P5	.736								
P6	.747								
Q1						.768			
Q2						.796			
Q3						.807			
Q4						.810			
R1			.817						
R2			.816						
R3			.774						
R4			.814						
S1					.782				
S2					.748				
S3					.792				
S4					.774				
T1								.703	
T2								.787	
T3								.779	
T4								.765	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations

All items were loaded onto the expected factors for which they were designed. Factor loadings were all higher than 0.60 so that each item loaded higher on its associated construct than on any other construct. As suggested by (Hair et al., 1998), a factor loading higher than 0.35 is considered statistically significant at an alpha level of 0.05. This is supported by the discriminant validity of the measurement.

4.5.2.6 Factor Naming and Interpretation Process

The interpretation of the nine-factor solution was accomplished by relating them to the theoretical concepts of human resources. The nine factors can be discussed as follows:

Factor 1 consists of six items and fits very well with the 'Engagement'. This factor comprises the following items (1) At my work, I feel bursting with energy, (2) When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work, (3) I am enthusiastic about my job, (4) I am proud on the work that I do, (5) I am immersed/engrossed in my work and (6) I feel happy when I am working intensely. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being 'When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work' (.782) and the lowest loading "I am immersed/engrossed in my work" (0.736).

The second factor consists of four items. This factor represents the respondents' opinions regarding 'Self-Efficacy'. It covers the following items (1) I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management, (2) I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy, (3) I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area, and (4) I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being "I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with

management” (0.886) and the lowest loading “I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area” (0.854).

The third factor consists of four items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding ‘Affective Organizational Commitment’. It covers the following items: (1) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization, (2) I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it, (3) I feel like part of the family at my organization and (4) This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization” (0.817) and the lowest loading being “I feel like part of the family at my organization” (0.774).

The fourth factor consists of four items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding ‘Hope’. It covers the following items: (1) If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it, (2) At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals, (3) Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work and (4) I can think of many ways to reach my current work go. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals” (0.809) and the lowest loading being “If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it” (0.801).

The fifth factor consists of four items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding “Task Performance”. It covers the following variables: (1) I am able to plan my work so that I finish it on time, (2) I am keeping in mind the work result I need to achieve, (3) I am able to carry out my work well with minimal time and effort and (4) I plan my work optimally. The values are closely grouped with the

highest loading being “I am able to carry out my work well with minimal time and effort” (0.792) and the lowest loading being “I am keeping in mind the work result I need to achieve” (0.748).

The sixth factor consists of four items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding ‘Job Satisfaction’. It covers the following items: (1) I am satisfied with the nature of the work I perform, (2) I am satisfied with my relationship with my co-workers, (3) I am satisfied with my supervisor and (4) Considering everything, I am satisfied with my current job situation. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “Considering everything, I am satisfied with my current job situation” (0.810) and the lowest loading being “I am satisfied with the nature of the work I perform” (0.768).

The seventh factor consists of three items. This factor represents the respondents’ opinions regarding ‘Optimism’. It covers the following variables (1) When things are uncertain for me at work I usually expect the best, (2) I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job, (3) I’m optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work and (4) In this job, things never work out the way I want them to. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best” (0.843) and the lowest loading being “In this job, things never work out the way I want them to” (0.748).

The eighth factor consists of three items and fits very well with “Contextual Performance”. This factor comprises the following variables (1) I work on keeping my job-related knowledge up-to-date, (2) I continually seeking new challenges in my work, (3) I take on extra responsibilities and (4) I start new tasks myself, when my old

ones were finished. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “I continually seeking new challenges in my work” (0.787) and the lowest loading being “I work on keeping my job-related knowledge up-to-date” (0.703).

Finally, the ninth factor consists of three items and fits very well with “Resiliency”. This factor comprises the following variables (1 When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on, (2) I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work, (3) I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job and (4) I can get through difficult times at work because I’ve experienced difficulty before. The values are closely grouped with the highest loading being “I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work” (0.832) and the lowest loading being “When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on” (0.619).

4.6 Chapter summary

This chapter emphasises the preliminary analysis of the collected surveys. This includes first, encoding, editing and entering the data into SPSS. This is followed by the reliability and validity tests, which covers all the research constructs to find the extent to which the measurements are reliable and valid. Item-to-total correlation was calculated for each variable. As shown in Table 4.16, all variables have an acceptable reliability values ranged from 0.861 to 0.969, which was significantly higher than the acceptable level of 0.60 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1978) and therefore, acceptable for further analysis.

Table 4.25 presents a summary of the reliability analysis of the main constructs in this study. Then, content and construct validity were discussed. The reliability and validity analyses show that our measures are both reliable and valid. Finally, the

researcher examined the general descriptive analysis of the respondents' profile and their response distribution. In addition, some initial interpretations are also put forward as a start for the data analysis process.

Table 4.25: Reliability Analysis of Main Constructs in the Study

Basic Constructs	Total Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Role Overload	3	0.861
Role Ambiguity	4	0.906
Work- Family Conflict	4	0.905
Job Insecurity	4	0.935
Job Autonomy	3	0.952
Performance Feedback	3	0.962
Supervisory Support	4	0.969
Opportunity for growth	5	0.968
Financial Reward	4	0.967
Self-Efficacy	4	0.948
Hope	4	0.937
Optimism	4	0.905
Resiliency	4	0.868
Engagement	6	0.953
Job Satisfaction	4	0.932
Affective Organizational Commitment	4	0.948
Task Performance	4	0.922
Contextual Performance	4	0.930

Next chapter, different statistical techniques will be used to explore the relationships between HAW antecedents and consequences and to test the study model and hypotheses.

Chapter 5: Quantitative Analysis-Model and Hypotheses Testing

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has cleaned and validated the data that was collected from the field work and has presented an exploratory analysis of different aspects of happiness at work (HAW) in oil and gas companies. This chapter discusses the next and main stage of the data analysis, namely, hypotheses testing. SPSS/AMOS/ Macro Process version 25 was used to analyze the data. As discussed in chapter one, the aim of the thesis is to develop a better understanding of the impact of job demands, job resources and Personal Resources (PsyCap) on HAW, in turn the effect of HAW on individual job performance in in the oil and gas industry in Abu Dhabi. Furthermore, a model that integrates job environment characteristics, Psychological Capital (PsyCap), happiness at work (HAW) and Individual job Performance will be tested. Therefore, as explained in chapter 1, this research attempts to address three main questions. First, to find out how job demands, job resources, and personal resources (PsyCap) resources relate to HAW. Second, to find out how job demands and job resources relate to individual job performance. Third, to examine the mediating role of HAW on the correlation of job environment characteristics and individual job performance (Task and contextual performance). Chapter 4 contributed partially to the answer of the previous questions; while this chapter also contributes to the full answer of the three questions.

5.2 Measurement models

It is important to indicate that, as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1982), before testing the full latent model, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in chapter 4 using principal components analysis with Varimax rotation.

For the HAW antecedents, the results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) yielded a nine-factor solution that accounted for 87.606% of the variance extracted (chapter 4). For the HAW, PsyCap and HAW consequences, the results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) yielded a nine-factor solution as well that accounted for 82.511% of the variance extracted (chapter 4). All items loaded highly on their intended constructs.

5.2.1 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Before examining the model, which considers all the constructs together, it is important to highlight, from a methodological point of view, that individualized analyses of each of the dimensions were made (the measurement model), in order to carry out a prior refinement of the items used in their measurement. Having established the different measures, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. This research used both a structural model (which includes all the constructs in one model; also called inner model) and a measurement model (in which each construct has a separate model; also called outer model) (Hair Jr. et al., 2016).

5.2.1.1 Confirmatory factor analysis for the antecedents of happiness at work (HAW)

In conceptualizing Job demands construct, as discussed in the methodology chapter 3, it as a second-order construct that consists of four first-order components— Role Overload, Role Ambiguity, Work- Family Conflict and Job Insecurity – measured by three, four, four and four items respectively.

Similarly, in conceptualizing Job resources construct, as discussed in the methodology chapter 3, it as a second-order construct that consists of five first-order components— Job Autonomy, Performance Feedback, Supervisory Support,

Opportunity for growth and Financial Reward – measured by three, three, four, five and four items respectively.

The results, shown in Figure 5.1, support the proposed second – order factors solution, comprising job demand and job resources.

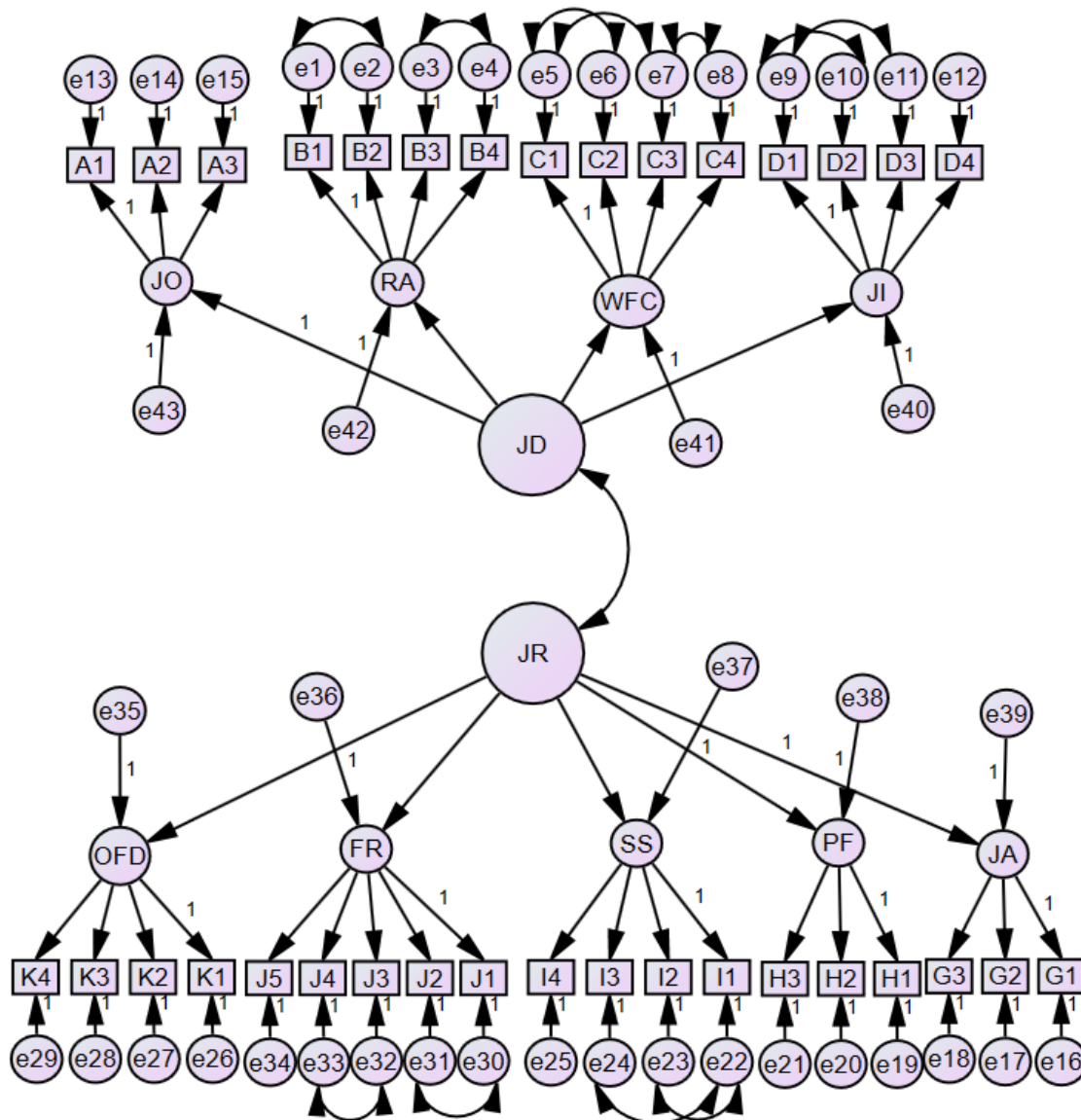


Figure 5.1: The Main and Sub-Constructs of HAW Antecedents

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to verify the theorized construct of the latent variables namely the main antecedents (job demands and job resources) of HAW and its 9 observable sub-constructs namely: Role Overload, Role

Ambiguity, Work-Family Conflict, Job Insecurity, Job Autonomy, Performance Feedback, Supervisory Support, Opportunity for growth and Financial Reward. SPSS AMOS is used to carry out the confirmatory factor analysis. Figure 5.1 shows the main antecedents (Job Demands and Job Resources) of HAW.

It was decided that item with factor loading and R^2 less than 0.5 will be excluded. All the factor loadings on the main and sub-constructs are high. The results of the measurement model which are the indicators of the latent variable of Figure 5.1 are shown in Table 5.1 and Table 5.2. All the factor loadings are sufficiently high and the high values of Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) also reflect high internal consistency and reliability of the main construct and all the sub-constructs.

Table 5.1: The Fitness Indices for HAW Antecedents

Statistic	Index value Obtained	Suggested Acceptable Level
Chi-square significance	0.06	> 0.01
CMIN/DF	2.567	<3
AGFI	0.811	> 0.80
NFI	0.925	> 0.90
TLI	0.947	>0.90
CFI	0.952	>0.90
RMSEA	0.062	<0.10

The fitness indices are listed in Table 5.1. Chi-square significance = 0.06 and reflect a goodness of fit of the suggested measurement model. Furthermore, although the Adjusted Goodness-Of-Fit statistic (AGFI) = 0.811, other indices show a that the model has a good fit and aligned with the suggested statistic proposed experts , (Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1995; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1982) such as the normal fit index (NFI) = 0.925 (>0.90), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.952 (\geq 0.90) were also employed as measures of incremental fit. The Chi-Square divided by Degrees of Freedom (CMIN/DF) =2.567 (<3), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.062 (<0.10) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = 0.947.

Both Cronbach's Alpha and the Composite Reliability Index can take any value between 0 and 1, with values between 0.7 and 0.9 considered as satisfactory (Hair Jr. et al., 2016). Table 5.2 gives a summary of values for Cronbach's Alpha, the Composite Reliability Index and Average Variance extracted for all the model constructs. The values suggest that all the measurement constructs are both valid and reliable and can be used for path analysis.

Table 5.2: HAW Antecedents Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Construct	Scale	First Level	Second Level	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
Job Demands				0.844	0.863	0.676
	Role Overload	.882		0.861	0.870	0.826
		A.1	.689			
		A.2	.848			
		A.3	.941			
	Role Ambiguity	.823		0.906	0.899	0.828
		B.1	.705			
		B.2	.793			
		B.3	.930			
		B.4	.884			

Table 5.2: HAW Antecedents Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results (Continued)

Construct	Scale	First Level	Second Level	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
	Work- Family Conflict	.752		0.905	0.952	0.910
		C.1	.858			
		C.2	.882			
		C.3	.978			
		C.4	.925			
	Job Insecurity	.662		0.935	0.913	0.845
		D.1	.702			
		D.2	.764			
		D.3	.929			
		D.4	.988			
Job Resources				0.859	0.885	0.767
	Job Autonomy	.803		0.952	0.870	0.826
		E.1	.689			
		E.2	.848			
		E.3	.941			
	Performance Feedback	.858		0.962	0.902	0.868
		F.1	.868			
		F.2	.883			
		F.3	.855			
	Supervisory Support	.709		0.969	0.931	0.877
		G.1	.808			
		G.2	.820			
		G.3	.937			
		G.4	.944			
	Opportunity for growth	.761		0.968	0.922	0.837
		H.1	.804			
		H.2	.819			
		H.3	.826			
		H.4	.819			
		H.5	.919			
	Financial Reward	.754		0.967	0.933	0.881
		I.1	.837			
		I.2	.894			
		I.3	.904			
		I.4	.891			

5.2.1.2 Confirmatory factor analysis for HAW and HAW consequences

Similarly, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to verify the theorized construct of the latent variables of HAW as second-order construct that includes 3 sub-constructs namely: Job Engagement, Job Satisfaction, Affective organizational commitment and HAW Consequences as second-order construct that includes 2 sub-constructs namely: Task Performance and Contextual Performance. Figure 5.2 shows the main construct. The results, shown in Table 5.3, support the proposed two second-order constructs, comprising the happiness at work and HAW consequences constructs.

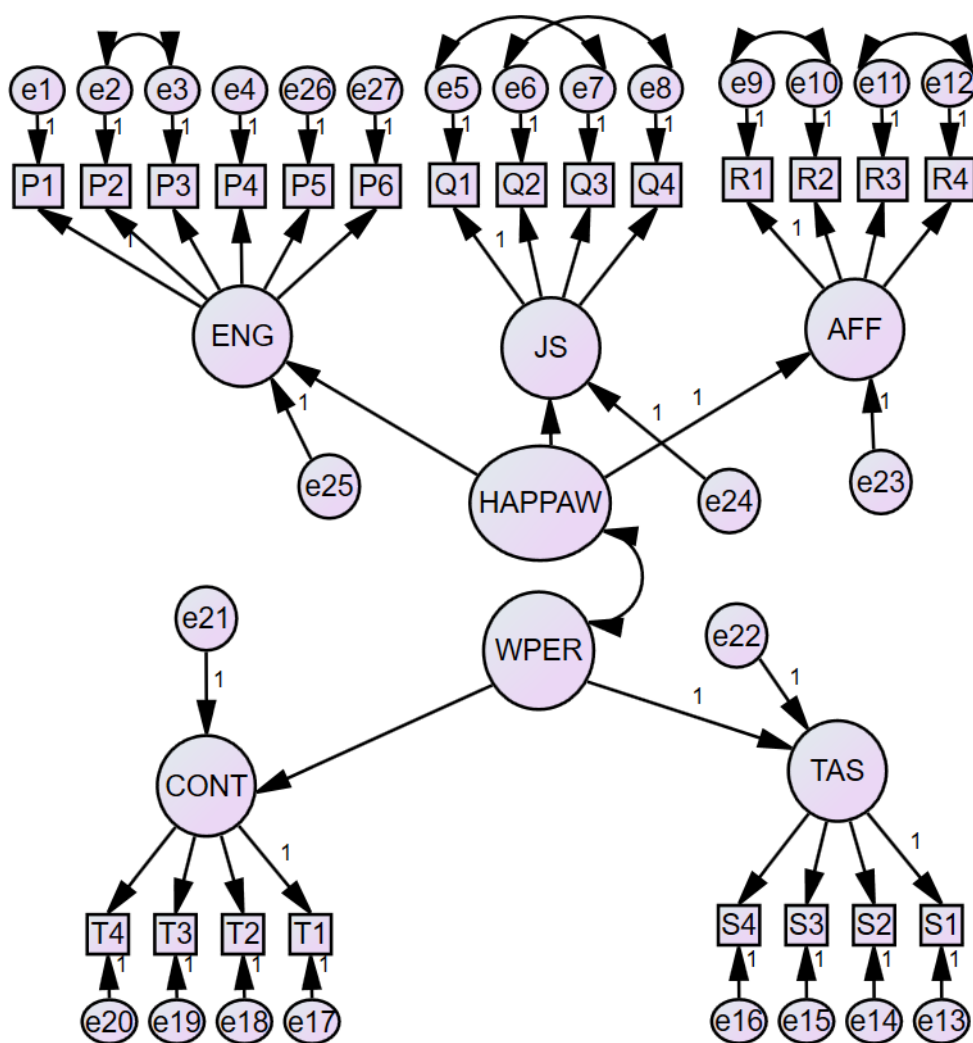


Figure 5.2: HAW and HAW Consequences

As it was the case with the components of the HAW antecedents, it was decided that item with factor loading and R^2 less than 0.5 will be excluded. All the factor loadings on the main and sub-constructs are high. All the factor loadings and R^2 are reasonably high. The results of the measurement model which are the indicators of the latent variable of Figure 5.2 are shown in Table 5.3 and Table 5.4. All the factor loadings are sufficiently high and the high values of Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) also reflect high internal consistency and reliability of the main construct and all the sub-constructs.

Table 5.3: The Fitness Indices for the HAW and HAW Consequences

Statistic	Index value Obtained	Suggested Acceptable Level
Chi-square significance	0.00	≥ 0.01
CMIN/DF	2.191	< 3
AGFI	0.805	≥ 0.80
NFI	0.954	> 0.90
TLI	0.970	≥ 0.90
CFI	0.974	≥ 0.90
RMSEA	0.054	< 0.10

The fitness indices are listed in Table 5.3. Although Chi-square significance = 0.000 the other indices show that the model has a good fit and aligned with the suggested statistic proposed by Bentler (1990), Hu and Bentler (1995) and Jöreskog and Sörbom (1982) such as Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) = 0.805 (≥ 0.80),

the Comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.974 (≥ 0.90), the CMIN/DF=2.191 (< 3), the normal fit index (NFI) = 0.954 (> 0.95) and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = 0.970 (≥ 0.90).

Table 5.4: HAW and HAW Consequences Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Construct	Scale	First Level	Second Level	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
Happiness at work				0.759	0.813	0.769
	Engagement	.763		0.853	0.895	0.765
		M.1	.700			
		M.2	.714			
		M.3	.788			
		M.4	.831			
		M.5	.746			
		M.6	.811			
	Job Satisfaction	.753		0.932	0.854	0.769
		N.1	.840			
		N.2	.732			
		N.3	.776			
		N.4	.729			
	Affective Commitment	.791		0.948	0.880	0.803
		O.1	.802			
		O.2	.743			
		O.3	.876			
		O.4	.793			
Individual Job Performance				0.800	0.700	0.726
	Task Performance	.664		0.922	0.834	0.746
		P.1	.769			
		P.2	.722			
		P.3	.710			
		P.4	.784			
	Contextual Performance	.788		0.930	0.852	0.767
		Q.1	.795			
		Q.2	.758			
		Q.3	.748			
		Q.4	.770			

5.2.1.3 Confirmatory factor analysis for psychological capital (Moderation)

Similarly, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to verify the theorized construct of the latent variable of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Moderating Variable as second-order construct that includes 4 sub-constructs namely: Self-Efficacy, Hope, Optimism and Resiliency. Figure 5.3 shows the main construct. The results, shown in Table 5.3, support the proposed factor solution, comprising the Self-Efficacy, Hope, Optimism and Resiliency.

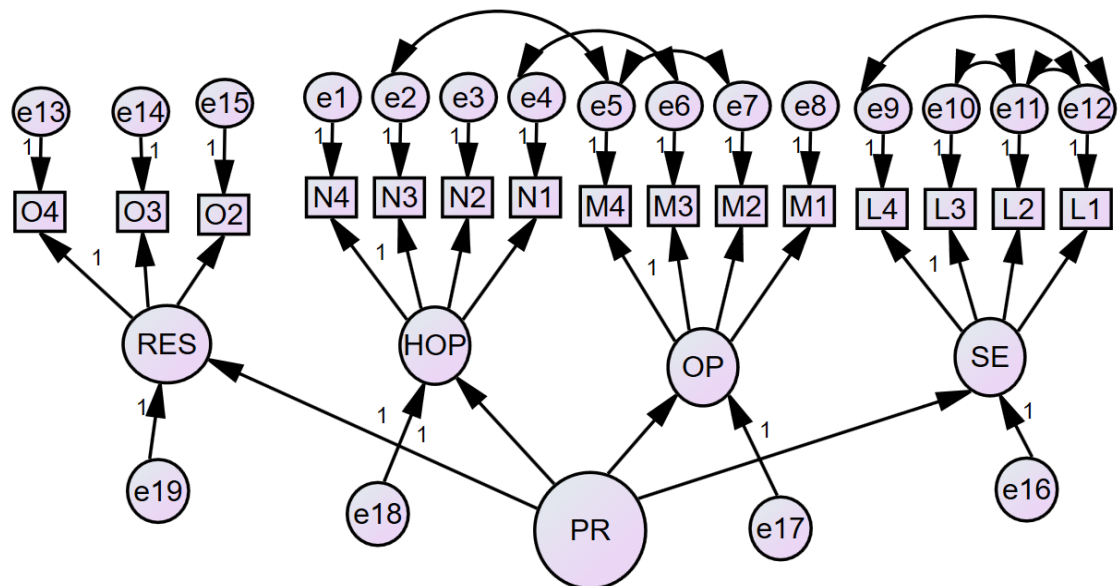


Figure 5.3: Psychological Capital (Moderation)

As mentioned before, it was decided that item with factor loading and R^2 less than 0.5 will be excluded. Apart from one item in the Resiliency construct (When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it moving on) that is having a factor loading that is less than 0.50 and has been removed, all the factor loadings on the main and sub-constructs are high. All the factor loadings and R^2 are reasonably high. The results of the measurement model which are the indicators of the latent variable of Figure 5.3 are shown in Table 5.5 and Table 5.6. All the factor loadings are sufficiently high and the high values of Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability (CR)

and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) also reflect high internal consistency and reliability of the main construct and all the sub-constructs.

Table 5.5: The Fitness Indices for the Psychological Capital (Moderation)

Statistic	Index value Obtained	Suggested Acceptable Level
Chi-square significance	0.318	≥ 0.01
CMIN/DF	1.068	< 3
AGFI	0.960	≥ 0.80
NFI	0.985	> 0.90
TLI	0.999	≥ 0.90
CFI	0.999	≥ 0.90
RMSEA	0.013	≤ 0.10

The fitness indices are listed in Table 5.5. The Chi-square = 0.318 which is significant and reflect a goodness of fit of the suggested measurement model the other fitness indices show that the model has a good fit and aligned with the suggested statistic proposed by Bentler (1990), Hu and Bentler (1995) and Jöreskog and Sörbom (1982) such as Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) = 0.960 (≥ 0.80), the Comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.999 (≥ 0.90), the CMIN/DF=1.068 (< 3), the normal fit index (NFI) = 0.985 (> 0.95) and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = 0.999 (≥ 0.90).

Table 5.6: Psychological Capital (Moderation) Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Construct	Scale	First Level	Second Level	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
Psychological Capital				0.800	0.760	0.664
	Self-Efficacy	.687		0.948	0.894	0.797
		J.1	.828			
		J.2	.861			
		J.3	.741			
		J.4	.760			
	Hope	.578		0.937	0.879	0.802
		K.1	.885			
		K.2	.781			
		K.3	.811			
		K.4	.732			
	Optimism	.703		0.905	0.861	0.777
		L.1	.652			
		L.2	.835			
		L.3	.837			
		L.4	.784			
	Resiliency	.689		0.868	0.849	0.806
		M.1	.837			
		M.2	.839			
		M.3	.743			

5.2.2 Convergent validity analysis

Convergent validity describes the extent to which items of a specific dimension or construct converge or share a high proportion of variance (Hair Jr. et al., 2016). Convergent validity can be evaluated by three criteria (Čater & Čater, 2010; Fornell &

Larcker, 1981; Hair Jr. et al., 2016; Liang & Wen-Hung, 2004). Firstly, factor loading for an item is at least 0.6 and significant. Secondly, construct reliability is a minimum of 0.60 (See Table 4.16). Finally, average variance extracted (AVE) for a construct is larger than 0.5. Table 5.7 summarizes the results of the convergent validity analysis. Note that all of the scales had an acceptable convergent validity.

Table 5.7: Convergent Validity Results

Constructs	Composite Reliability	AVE
Job Demands	0.863	0.676
Job Resources	0.885	0.767
Personal Resources	0.760	0.664
Happiness at work (HAW)	0.813	0.769
Individual Job Performance	0.700	0.726

5.2.3 Discriminant validity analysis

Discriminant validity is the distinctiveness of two conceptually similar constructs (Hair Jr. et al., 2016). This indicates that each construct should share more variance with its items than it shares with other constructs. Discriminant validity is present when the variances extracted by the constructs (AVE) from each construct are greater than the square of the inter-correlation c_s . As seen in Table 5.8, all latent constructs had the squared root of AVE higher than their inter-correlation estimates with other corresponding constructs (the factor scores as single item indicators were used to calculate the between-constructs correlations); this implied that the constructs were empirically distinct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Put differently, the results of the

discriminant validity tests indicate that all the correlations among factors are significant and discriminant. For example, Job Resources' squared root of AVE is 0.875 is greater than any squared correlation among the other constructs, i.e. 0.702, 0.521 and 0.473 which means that Job Resources as a construct is statistically distinct.

Table 5.8: Discriminant Validity Results

		Correlations				
		JOBDEM	JOBRES	HAW	PERSRES	INDPER
JOBDEM	Pearson Correlation	0.822				
JOBRES	Pearson Correlation	-.223**	0.875			
HAW	Pearson Correlation	-.215**	.702**	0.876		
PERSRES	Pearson Correlation	-.232**	.521**	.578**	0.814	
INDPER	Pearson Correlation	-.231**	.473**	.663**	.584**	0.852

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

Note: Diagonal values (in bold) are squared roots of AVE; off-diagonal values are the estimates of inter-correlation between the latent constructs.

5.3 Hypotheses testing

Path analysis has been used to analyze the data. It is a multivariate analytical methodology for empirically examining sets of relationships in the form of linear causal models (Duncan, 1986; Li, 1975). The aim of Path analysis is to test the direct and indirect relationships of each hypothesised link on the basis of knowledge and

theoretical concepts which has a path coefficient denoted as the standardized regression coefficient (Pedhazur, 1982). Path analysis does not establish causal relations with certainty, but is used for quantitative interpretations of potential causal relationships (Borchgrevink & Boster, 1998). A path diagram represents the proposed antecedents and consequents among the variables in the model. Arrows are used to symbolize the hypothesized relationships and the direction of the influence in the model. When specifying a path model, a distinction is drawn between exogenous variables and endogenous variables. Exogenous variables influence is outside the model and endogenous variables have influence within the model. In this case, happiness at work (HAW) antecedents are treated as the sole exogenous variables, and happiness at work (HAW) consequences are the endogenous variables (dependent variables).

The proposed structural model that reflects the relationships between the constructs. The value of the path coefficient associated with each path represents the strength of each linear influence. The structural equation-modelling (SEM) package, AMOS 23, has been used to test the hypotheses developed in the model. The researcher used the factor scores as single item indicators and performed a path analysis, applying the maximum likelihood estimates (MLE) procedure, following the guidelines suggested by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1982).

5.3.1 Structural-model testing

Finally, given that the purpose of the study was to test the hypothesized causal relationships among the constructs of the model, the structural equation-modeling package, AMOS 23 has been used (see Figure 5.3). The factor means were employed as single item indicators to perform path analysis, applying the maximum likelihood

estimates (MLE) procedure, following the guidelines suggested by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1982). A more detailed analysis of the results and measures for model fit is reported in Table 5.9.

To apply the MLE procedure for estimating the model, the constructs must satisfy the criterion of multivariate normality (Bagozzi & Yi, 1994). Therefore, for all the constructs, tests of normality, i.e. skewness (degree of symmetry), kurtosis (degree of peakedness/flatness) were conducted (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Table 5.9 indicated no departure from normality as most of the results are close to one (i.e. ± 1) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1994). Thus, once normality was confirmed for all the constructs, it was decided to proceed with the use of the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method to estimate the model parameters. The reliability of the constructs was assessed by item-to-total correlations and Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient (see Chapter 4) (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Furthermore, as discussed in chapter 4, to assess the presence of multivariate outliers, the analysis of Mahalanobis distance (D^2) has been carried out using AMOS to identify any multivariate outliers within the data. Mahalanobis' distance (D^2) is a metric for estimating how far each case is from the centre of all the variables' distributions (i.e. the centroid in multivariate space) (Mahalanobis, 1927). The Mahalanobis Distance was compared with Chi-Square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of independent variables at a significance level of $p < 0.001$. The Mahalanobis distance test has identified 17 cases that is having an outlier (Table 4.2). All 17 cases were removed to avoid any bias in the subsequent statistical analysis.

Table 5.9: Assessment of Normality

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
JOBDEM	409	2.6041	.37262	.174	.121	1.087	.241
JOBRES	409	3.3412	.65121	-.226	.121	.068	.241
PERSRES	409	3.7845	.55347	-.531	.121	1.171	.241
HAW	409	3.6559	.73044	-.833	.121	1.205	.241
INDPER	409	3.8787	.62682	-.769	.121	1.741	.241
Valid N (listwise)	409						

The current study model explains 63.1% for the Individual job Performance and 80.9% for the happiness at work (HAW) which indicates that it has a stronger prediction capacity. The results of testing hypotheses from H1 to H5 using MLE-SEM approach were illustrated in Figure 5.4.

Since there is no definitive standard of fit, a variety of indices is provided along with suggested guidelines. The Chi-Square Significance (X^2) test was not statistically significant at 1% level (probability level = 0.014), which indicated an adequate fit. The other fit indices, together with the squared multiple correlations, indicate a good overall fit with the data (CFI = 0.935, AGFI = 0.890, TLI = 0.917, RMSEA = 0.067, RMR = 0.032). Since these indices confirm that the overall fit of the model to the data was good, it was concluded that the structural model was an appropriate basis for hypothesis testing.

Table 5.10: Standardized Regression Weights

Predictor variables	Criterion Variables	Hypothesized relationship	Standardized coefficient	R ^{2a}
Job Demands	Happiness at work	H1	-0.277****	0.809
Job Resources	Happiness at work	H2	0.638****	
Job Demands	Individual Performance	H3	0.243****	0.631
Job Resources	Individual Performance	H4	0.300****	
Happiness at work	Individual Performance	H5	0.729****	
Statistic			Suggested	Obtained
Chi-Square Significance			≥0.01	0.014
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)			≥0.90	0.932
Adjusted Goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)			≥0.80	0.899
Comparative fit index (CFI)			≥0.90	0.935
The Tucker-Lewis coefficient (TLI)			≥0.90	0.917
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)			≤0.05	0.032
Root mean square residual (RMSEA)			≤0.10	0.067

To test the five hypotheses, a structural model was used. The results give support to most of the hypotheses. Table 5.10 shows the estimated standardized parameters for the causal paths. First, the Job Demands variable (H1) negatively

affects the Happiness at work, (Standardized Estimate=-0.277, $P < 0.01$) and Job Resources (H2) positively affects the happiness at work (Standardized Estimate=-0.638, $P < 0.01$). Therefore, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported.

Similarly, the suggested factor positively affects the Individual Job Performance, namely Job Demands (H3) (Standardized Estimate = 0.243, $P < 0.01$), Job Resources (H4) (Standardized Estimate = 0.300, $P < 0.01$) and happiness at work (H5) (Standardized Estimate = 0.729, $P < 0.01$). Therefore, Hypotheses 3, 4 and 5 were supported.

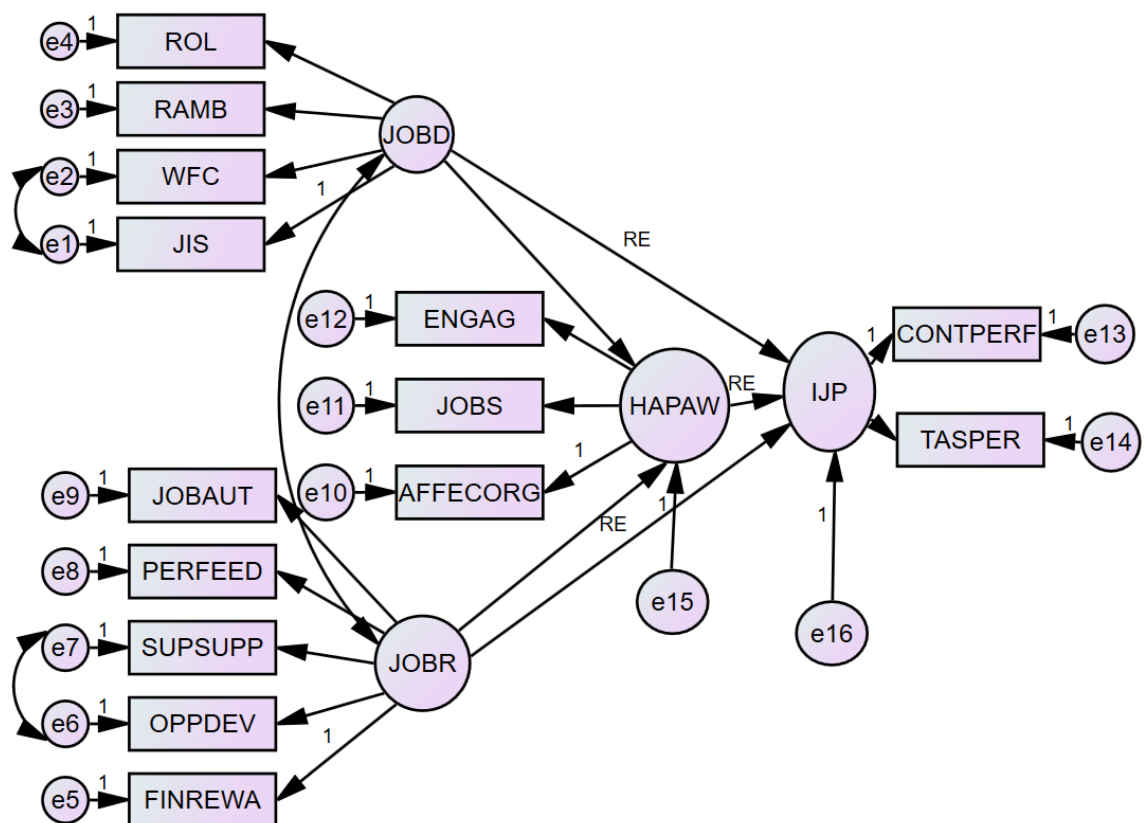


Figure 5.4: Tested Model

The results from the path analysis show that among all independent variables, happiness at work was the key driver behind the formation of the Individual Job Performance as Happiness at work has the strongest effect on respondent's Individual

Job Performance ($\beta = 0.729$). Those results give happiness at work (HAW) factor the first priority among the factors that might affect the Individual Job Performance. The second priority is given to Job Resources, which affects the formation of the Individual Job Performance in regression value of ($\beta = 0.300$). Finally, Job Demands also affect the formation of the Individual Job Performance in regression value of ($\beta = 0.243$).

5.3.2 Mediation hypotheses

The causal effects of job demand and job resources on an individual job performance may be direct or indirect (i.e., mediated via the effect of Happiness at work), or both; in this case, the total causal effects were calculated. More specifically, the indirect effects are the multiplicative sum of the standardized path coefficients. The total effects are the sum of the direct effect and all the indirect effects. Table 5.11 shows the direct, indirect and total effects of the suggested factors.

Table 5.11: Direct, Indirect and Total Effect

Criterion Variable	Predictor variables	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect
Happiness at work	Job Demands	-0.277	0.000	-0.277
	Job Resources	0.638	0.000	0.638
Individual Job Performance	Job Demands	0.243	-0.202	0.041
	Job Resources	0.300	0.465	0.765
	Happiness at work	0.729	0.000	0.729

Following Hair Jr. et al. (2016), and Zhou, Li, and Liu (2010) recommendations, we examined the mediating role of happiness at work in the relationship between the proposed antecedents (job demands and job resources) and

individual Job Performance. As shown in Table 5.11 our findings confirmed that happiness at work mediate the relationship between Job Demands (Direct Effect = 0.243, Total Effect = 0.041, $P < 0.01$), Job resources (Direct Effect = 0.300, Total Effect = 0.765, $P < 0.01$) and Individual job Performance. While, HAW is partially mediate the link between job demands and individual job performance, and job resources to individual job performance. Therefore, Hypotheses 6 and 7 were supported.

5.3.3 Moderation hypotheses

The statistics literature illustrates that there are three main types of hypothesis, incremental validity, moderation and mediation hypotheses. As a field matures the types of question that scientists are trying to answer tend to become more nuanced and specific. Hence direct effects hypotheses using incremental validity (direct hypotheses) can be exciting in the early stages of research to show the existence of a new effect. As the field matures, moderation hypotheses become more popular, as they propose that “the size of a relationship between two variables changes depending upon the value of a third variable, known as a moderator.” Finally, mediating hypotheses present a scenario where we may know that X leads to Y, but a mediation hypothesis proposes a mediating, or intervening variable, that is, X leads to M, which in turn leads to Y (Sean, 2013).

Baron and Kenny (1986) define a moderation relationship or mechanism as “*The moderator function of third variables, which partitions a focal independent variable into subgroups that establish its domains of maximal effectiveness in regard to a given dependent variable*”. Barone and Keeny (1986) illustrate that in social science studies a moderator is a qualitative (e.g., gender, race, class) or quantitative (e.g., level of reward) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the

relationship between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable. Using Personal Resources (PsyCap) as a moderator, the moderation hypotheses of the present study were tested through the SPSS/Macro Process of Hayes and Preacher (2013), a macro which is very useful for testing models with indirect or interaction effects.

Hypotheses 8 and 9 of the present study predict the moderating effect of Personal Resources (PsyCap) on the relationship between the identified antecedents (Job Demands and Job Resources) and happiness at work (HAW):

H8: Personal resources would act as a moderator in the relationship between job demands and HAW.

H9: Personal resources would act as a moderator in the relationship between job resources and HAW.

The results of the analysis (Table 5.12) reveal that Personal Resources (PsyCap) moderate the relationships between Job Demands and Individual Job Performance. Hence, using Personal Resources as a moderator between Job Demand and Individual Job Performance (H8) is supported (Unstandardized Estimate = 0.1853, S.E. = 0.0861, $P = 0.0320$). However, using Personal Resources as a moderator between Job Resources and Individual Job Performance (H9) is not supported (Unstandardized Estimate = -.0005, S.E. = 0.0480, $P = 0.9918$).

Table 5.12: Result of Moderation Analysis

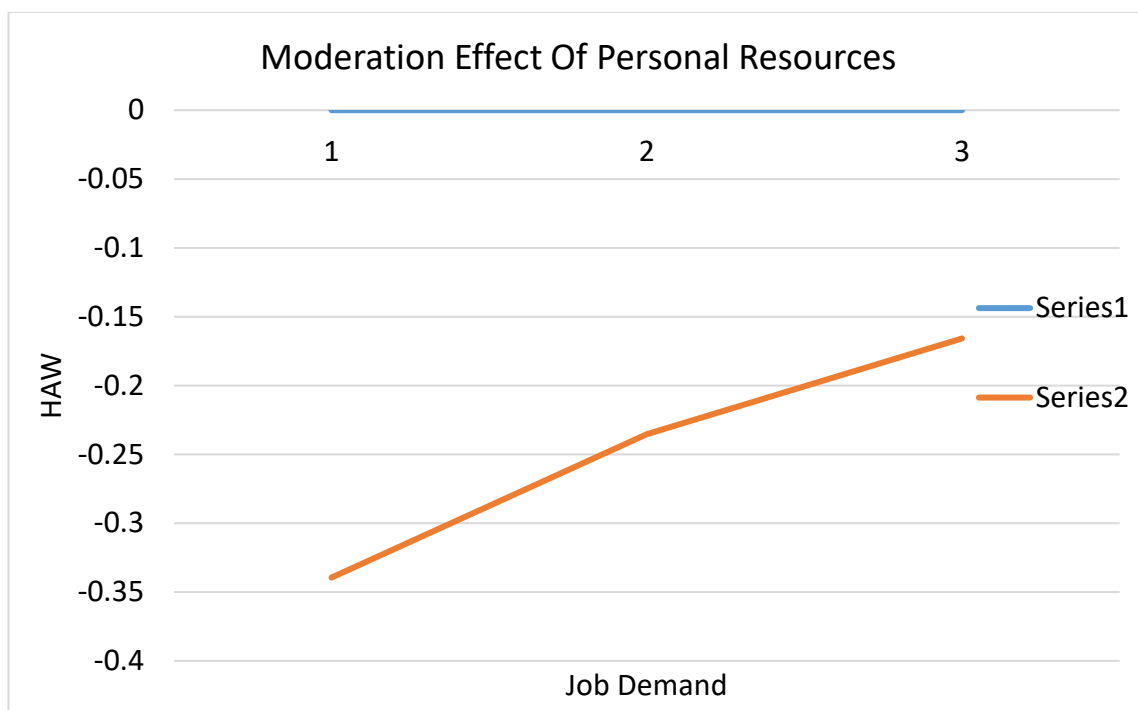
Hypothesis	Variables	Estimate	SE	Sig. (p)
H8	JD	-.9533	.3323	.0043
Dependent = (HAW)	PSYCAP	.1969	.1896	.2997
	JD x PSYCAP	.1853	.0861	.0320
H9	JR	.2247	.1871	.2303
Dependent = (HAW)	PSYCAP	.5266	.1583	.0010
	JR x PSYCAP	-.0005	.0480	.9918

On further probing (see Table 5.12), it was assessed that the moderation effect of Personal Resources as a moderator is significant on the case of job demands-HAW relationship (Sig = 0.0320). which is in accordance with the hypothesized effects. On the hand, the moderation effect between job resources-HAW shows insignificant (Sig = 0.9918). That is, the effects of the job resources and HAW did not depend on employees' PsyCap.

Table 5.13: Moderation Effects on Values of Moderator

Values of Moderator	Dependent: HAW	
	Effect	Sig.
Low	-0.3395	.000
Medium	-0.2353	.000
High	-0.1658	.027

We probed this relationship further with the help of graphs. Figure 5.5 shows that the relationship is negatively stronger for the low Personal Resources (PsyCap) (low value of moderator) as compared to high Personal Resources (PsyCap) (high values of moderator) which is also evident from Table 5.13.



Series1 is Moderator and Series2 is Relationship between JD and HAW

Figure 5.5: Moderating Effect of Personal Resources on the Relationship of JD & HAW

After the results of confirmatory factor analysis, the hypotheses of each stage have been tested. The results summary of hypotheses testing is presented in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Results of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Results
H1. Job demands are negatively related to Happiness at work (HAW).	Accepted
H2. Job resources are positively related to Happiness at work (HAW).	Accepted
H3. Job demands are negatively related to individual job performance.	Rejected
H4. Job resources are positively related to individual job performance	Accepted
H5. Happiness at work (HAW) is positively related to individual job performance.	Accepted
H6. Happiness at work (HAW) will mediate the relationship between job resources and individual job performance	Accepted
H7. Happiness at work will mediate the relationship between job demands and individual job performance.	Accepted
H8. Personal resources (PsyCap) will moderate the relationship between job demands and HAW.	Accepted
H9. Personal resources (PsyCap) will moderate the relationship between job resources and HAW.	Rejected

Source: Analysis of Survey Data

Chapter 6: Discussion

The main purpose of the present study was to obtain a better understanding of the antecedents and consequences of happiness at work (HAW). Given the overarching goal of this study, a quantitative methodology was used to examine the research questions:

1. How do job demands, job resources, and personal resources (PsyCap) relate to HAW?
2. How do job demands and job resources relate to individual job performance?
3. How does HAW relate to individual job performance (task and contextual performance)?
4. What practical lessons can this study provide to support the UAE government's policies that aim to enhance employee's HAW and individual job performance?

6.1 Discussion of the results

The oil and gas industry in Abu Dhabi, UAE has always been forming the backbone of the country's economy since they contribute significantly to the gross domestic product (GDP) (Al-Maamary, Kazem, & Chaichan, 2017; Davidson, 2009) and will continue to play an increasingly major role in the country's future. Although researchers have proposed many models to predict employee engagement, satisfaction and commitment of employees by analyzing several factors, no specific model exists for examining HAW of employees working in the oil and gas industry. This conceptual paper attempts to develop and propose a model that applies to the unique conditions of employees working in oil and gas. Drawing on the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) and Fisher (2010) conceptualization of HAW and adopting PsyCap theory

(Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017), This conceptual paper presents an empirically tested model that primarily focuses on the impacts of job environment characteristics on HAW. Moreover, it also explored the HAW role in impacting the individual job performance in the oil and gas industry. Furthermore, it postulates the effect of PsyCap on the relation between job environment characteristics and HAW. This framework shed light on job environmental stimulants for employees to pursue HAW in the oil and gas industry in Abu Dhabi.

Developing this framework further is significantly advantageous to practitioners in the area of oil and gas, as it would influence the decision makers to introduce changes to the working conditions of the employees working in oil and gas, increasing HAW associated with working in such conditions. This framework is also of high interest to human resource managers of oil and gas companies in the UAE and could be further linked to oil and gas companies and energy management companies in the UAE and GCC region. Several findings emerged from this theory-based empirical investigation. Nevertheless, the expected implications should pave the way for further research for both academics and practitioners for its implications to be effectively utilized in the industry.

6.1.1 HAW antecedents

The study first proposed that job demands have a negative influence on HAW within the context of the oil and gas industry. The results of statistical analysis fully supported this hypothesis. The present study showed that job demands were negatively related to HAW (standardized Coefficients (β) = -0.277). Thus, it was explained that job demands account for 27% of the variation in HAW. Therefore, employees

experiencing high job demands will most likely experience lower HAW. There are five plausible explanations for this result.

First, the result is consistent with the theoretical framework of the JD-R model, which argues that job demands are positively associated with burnout (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). Notably, within the JD-R literature, it has been argued that job demands create an energy depleting process, or “health-impairment process,” which positively leads to the development of burnout. Therefore, employees experiencing high job demands are likely to experience a lower level of job engagement. This is in line with previous studies that have shown how job demands can deplete energy levels (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Crawford et al., 2010). Second, job demands create a stressful working atmosphere that leads to increased emotional exhaustion, a depressed mood, and psychosomatic responses, which further deprive employees of their engagement. Third, job demands contain important physical, mental, and emotional components, such as job overload and job insecurity, which could directly contribute to the emergence of emotional exhaustion. Fourth, job demands affect employees’ motivation and energy levels, meaning that high levels of job demands may contribute to depleted energy (e.g. Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). Fifth, role conflict constrains employees’ ability to perform and be effective in their jobs, and reduces job satisfaction (Schaubroeck et al., 1989). As such, employees react to increases in this hindrance stressor with disengagement from the organization. This result supports the findings of researchers who have suggested that higher levels of role ambiguity strengthen the association of job insecurity with psychological distress (Inoue et al., 2018).

Many researchers have found that perceived job demands have a negative impact on job satisfaction (Allisey, Rodwell, & Noblet, 2008; Armstrong et al., 2015; Bruck et al., 2002; Byron, 2005; Cooper & Cartwright, 1997; De Witte et al., 2016; Ernst Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Fila et al., 2017; Ram et al., 2011; Rodríguez et al., 2017; Urien et al., 2017; Yousef, 2002; Zhang et al., 2012). Similarly, the finding of the present study regarding job demands and affective organizational commitment is in line with previous studies that have revealed that job demands are a negative predictor of affective organizational commitment (Anthun & Innstrand, 2016; Ashford et al., 1989; Chênevert et al., 2013; Levert et al., 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1991). In a similar vein, job demands have been shown to have an adverse effect on job engagement (Alzyoud, 2016; Bakker et al., 2007; Braine & Roodt, 2011; Crawford et al., 2010; Mañas et al., 2018; Sonnentag et al., 2010; van Mol et al., 2018; Van Steenbergen et al., 2017). Moreover, the finding supports results obtained from previous studies indicating that job demands are negatively associated with job satisfaction (Fila et al., 2017; Yousef, 2002).

The results of the present study confirmed Hypothesis 2, which proposed that job resources have a positive significant impact on HAW (standardized coefficients (β) = 0.638), with job resources accounting for 64% of the variation in HAW; therefore, employees who experience high levels of job resources will most likely experience higher levels of HAW. There are three plausible explanations for this result.

First, this result complements previous research by exploring the contributions of job resources to HAW sub-dimensions (Bakker & Bal, 2010; Kirk-Brown & Van Dijk, 2016; Zito et al., 2018). The result confirms the JD-R model, wherein high job resources are initiators of a motivational process that leads to increased job

engagement (Tims & Bakker, 2010). It is also consistent with previous research, such as the study by Xanthopoulou et al. (2009a), which concluded that employees who receive job resources are likely to have both the means and the motivation to be more engaged at work. Additionally, the present study's findings are also in agreement with previous research examining the influence of job resources on job satisfaction. Zito et al. (2018) have confirmed the role of job resources as antecedents to job satisfaction and wellbeing indicators in general. Employees could be more satisfied when they have access to resources, and the authors argued that job resources are crucial for the quality of employees' working life. In particular, the perception of having job autonomy and supervisor support is thought to be crucial for employees' engagement and development.

Second possible explanation for this finding is that employees are likely to be happier with their work when they: (1) experience high job autonomy; (2) receive effective performance feedback; (3) gain a high level of supervisor support; (4) achieve adequate financial rewards; and (5) have opportunities for career growth and development that allow them to cope with the demanding aspects of their job, and provide feelings of personal growth and competence. Third explanation is that job resources also act as a breeding ground for employee satisfaction and job commitment (Zito et al., 2018). Moreover, job resources can act as a buffer in situations where job demands are high, and work as a booster for job engagement even in demanding work situations (Bakker et al., 2007). Bakker (2017) has argued that job resources satisfy psychological needs, and assist employees in dealing with job demands and meeting work targets. One possible explanation can be derived from SDT, which explains that satisfaction of needs may be accounted for by the relationship between job resources and HAW. This suggests that employees who are surrounded by an adequate level of

job resources are more likely to experience a general feeling of psychological freedom, interpersonal connectedness (i.e., belonging), and effectiveness (i.e., competence), which then translate into commitment, satisfaction, and engagement. Another possible explanation could be that job resources in and of themselves are perceived as something positive, thus resulting in feelings of energy and positive affect. As such, the confirmation of Hypothesis 2 has gone some way toward enhancing an understanding of the possible job resources that can lead to increased HAW.

Furthermore, this study further confirmed that two of the expectations derived from the JD-R model can be supported (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) by showing that job demands are associated with a detrimental health-impairment process that can lead to diminished perceptions of HAW. It was also observed that job resources have motivational properties and are associated with an employee's happiness level. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the total positive effect of job resources on HAW was quite high in proportion to the adverse effect of job demands. This result stands in contrast with previous findings and contradicts the conclusion drawn by Hakanen et al. (2006) that the health-impairment process produced by job demands is more prominent than the motivational process produced by job resources.

A final note should be made on the role of job demands and job resources in HAW. The findings of the present study suggest that job resources (job autonomy, performance feedback, supervisor support, financial reward, and opportunity for development) are powerful job resources in the case of HAW in the UAE oil and gas industry. An increase in job demands (job overload, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, and job insecurity) as a contextual factor, however, could lead to adverse

implications in terms of HAW level (job satisfaction, affective job commitment, and job engagement).

6.1.2 HAW consequences

For Hypothesis 3, it was expected that job demands would be negatively related to individual job performance. Job demands did not exhibit a negative relationship with individual job performance and, rather, displayed a positive relationship. Hence, the anticipated pattern was not found. The study results indicated that job demands contributed to the formation of individual job performance by a factor of 24% (standardized coefficients (β) = 0.243). This result contradicts the general postulate that job demands are negatively related to job performance (Bakker, 2015; Bhagat et al., 1995; Hobfoll et al., 2003; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998).

Although the result was not as expected in the context of the present study, this finding is consistent with certain previous empirical studies in which job demands were examined as challenging job predictors, rather than as hindering or threatening. Tuckey et al. (2017) associated challenging job demands with gains for individuals' development and achievement, and argued that hindering job demands tend to thwart an individual's capability to accomplish goals. Similarly, LePine et al. (2005) and Cavanaugh et al. (2000) viewed challenging job demands as platforms for learning and achieving work-related goals.

Some other studies have suggested that employees can even find pleasure in working hard and dealing with stress, and found no significant relationship between job demands and performance (Hakanen & Koivumäki, 2014; Mei-Ling et al., 2018; Nelson & Simmons, 2003). In a study by Tripathy and Sahoo (2018), it is argued that,

while happiness includes positive measures, this does not necessarily entail the absence of the negative factors. Bang and Reio (2017) have asserted that most of these conflicting results may be attributed to employees' perceptions of job demands and adaptive processes, and argue that there is lack of conceptual and empirical clarity regarding the dynamic mechanism associated with job demand constructs. Van den Broeck (2010) further found that challenging job demands stimulate employee motivation, as employees feel satisfied when they accomplish challenging tasks. Similarly, when employees are confronted with challenging job demands, job resources act as valuable tools to foster dedication to the assigned tasks (Bakker et al., 2007). Additionally, Huhtala and Parzefall (2007) assert that certain level of stimulation produced by challenging job demands is beneficial and may provide the extra push required to excel, whereas a high a level of challenge may in the long translated into a deleterious demand. Consequently, leading to increase stress levels and burnout. On the same vein, Crawford et al. (2010) profess that challenging demands tend to promote individual mastery, personal growth, and future gain.

Furthermore, several possible explanations for the positive relationship between job demands and individual job performance can be found. First, it may be due to employees having abundant job resources at their disposal, thus lessening the possible adverse effects that job demands can bring. This rationale is based on the COR theoretical framework (Hobfoll, 1989), which postulates that employees with a plethora of job resources are less susceptible to resource loss under challenging conditions, while resource-poor employees are especially prone to resource loss under objectively identical stressful conditions. Another explanation could be that employees do not experience job demands as hindering demands to their careers, instead seeing them as an opportunity to grow and expand their knowledge and skills. This

explanation is theoretically consistent with the JD-R model amended by considering the challenge-hindrance difference. The JD-R model primarily postulates that job demands can negatively influence outcomes; however, those job demands that are perceived as “challenges” could function as motivation-promoting resources. A further possible explanation for this unexpected association could be based on SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000), which assumes that employees who are intrinsically motivated are more competent, persistent, and focused in performing a task than extrinsically motivated employees. Furthermore, when confronted with high job demands, employees tend to activate compensatory behaviors by adopting performance protection strategies and active coping modes (e.g., utilization of additional mental effort, which is linked to extra costs) (Demerouti et al., 2004; Hockey, 1997). Another explanation can be derived from the current study’s moderator. In other words, employees rich in PsyCap (hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism) can turn job demands into positive results, and thus may be more willing to accept difficult and uncertain challenges because they believe in their ability to resolve workplace difficulties and problems.

Hypothesis 4 was confirmed. Job resources were shown to be positively related to individual job performance (standardized coefficients (β) = 0.300). This means that individual job performance can explain 30% of the variance caused by job resources. This finding is consistent with the theoretical notion underlying the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), which assumes that job resources are functional in attaining work-related objectives, and trigger personal growth and development that help to complete work tasks (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The basic premise of the JD-R model postulates that job resources play either an intrinsic or extrinsic motivational role by proposing that job resources activate a motivational process and buffer the adverse effects of job demands. Additionally, high levels of job

resources are related to positive work outcomes through a motivational process that leads employees to invest energy and dedication in performing their work. Hence, job resources are intrinsically valued by employees and therefore likely to fulfill employees' needs when they are present.

Moreover, rising empirical evidence has suggested that inadequate or missing job resources inhibit actual goal attainment and hinder employees' ability to deal with the challenges caused by hindering job demands, and this is likely to cause failure and frustration that culminate in reduced performance. Such lack of resources will exacerbate the adverse effects on job performance. This argument is in alignment with COR theory, which postulates that employees usually seek to build, retain, and protect their resources, as they understand that such resources may be limited. Therefore, with job resources lacking, employees will attempt to minimize losses with the intention of achieving equity without suffering further negative consequences, and will most likely reduce their discretionary inputs.

The finding also concurs with SET (Blau, 1964), which argues that human relationships are reciprocal in nature, and thus employees are motivated within the employment relationship to exhibit positive attitudes and behaviors when they understand that their employer values them (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010). This means that, when job resources are adequately available to work with, they feel obliged to repay their organizations in the form of higher performance. Thus, employees who have access to job resources (such as job autonomy, performance feedback, supervisor support, financial reward, and opportunity for development) will display high job performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017; Demerouti et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al.,

2002; Johari et al., 2018; Luchman & Gonzalez-Morales, 2013; Rosleea & Effendib, 2018; Talukder et al., 2018; Van den Broeck et al., 2008).

The study results confirmed the prediction of Hypothesis 5 and demonstrated that HAW contributed to 73% of the variance in individual job performance. (standardized coefficients (β)= 0.729) This finding suggests that employees experiencing HAW are going to exhibit higher job performance (task performance and contextual performance). In the context of the oil and gas industry in Abu Dhabi, employees face a rapidly changing and potentially stressful environment. Therefore, it is critical that employees function fully in the positive attitudinal aspect of working life. Enhancing HAW is beneficial for increasing positive functioning in the workplace, since individual job performance is shaped by a continuous discourse of interactions between an individual's cognitive and affective evaluations of work events and circumstances. Because employees with HAW make positive appraisals of their workplaces based on job satisfaction, affective job commitment, and job engagement, they tend to achieve personal growth. Therefore, the HAW levels of employees in the oil and gas industry can be said to play a role in their individual job performance.

Three different explanations for the association of HAW with individual job performance have been proposed. First, HAW is associated with job engagement, which accounts for the investment of physical, cognitive, and emotional energies toward job tasks (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Kahn, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). Additionally, research has previously shown that employees who display a high level of job engagement are more likely to work harder and achieve better performance than those who are not (Bakker, 2011). Second, HAW has been associated with affective organizational commitment, as previous studies have revealed that affective

organizational commitment is a contributor to individual job performance (Dehaghi, 2012; Etikariena, 2018; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Long & Liu, 2014; Meyer et al., 2002; Meyer, Allen, & Allen, 1997). Employees with high affective commitment are thus expected to put extra effort into their assigned tasks, work harder, and produce high-quality work to show support for their organization. That is, the motive behind investing additional effort is based on an employee's voluntarily desire, rather than feelings of obligation to work (Meyer et al., 2006; Meyer et al., 1997). Third, HAW has been associated with job satisfaction. A large number of research studies investigated the link between job satisfaction and job performance (Brief, 1998; Fisher, 2003; Hadziahmetovic & Dinc, 2017; Judge et al., 2001; Taris & Schreurs, 2009; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Yee, 2018; Yuen et al., 2018). Their studies have found that satisfied employees feel obliged to favor their employers by investing their time and efforts in return for being provided with incentives such as financial reward, opportunities for development, and job security. This reciprocal relationship can be explained through Adams's (1963) equity theory, in which satisfied employees pay back benefits received by their organizations in the form of enhanced performance in terms of both quantity and quality (Saks, 2006). Additionally, HAW can be considered a dimension of affective capital, which incites several work-related emotions. Consequently, the relationship between HAW and job performance can be related to general positive affective spillover in the workplace (Golparvar & Abedini, 2014)

In Hypothesis 6, the present study predicted that HAW would mediate the relationship between job demands, job resources, and individual job performance. The study findings show that HAW partially mediates the relationship between those two constructs. First, the mediating effect of HAW on the relationship between job demands and individual job performance was found to have a total effect score 4.1%

(direct: 0.243; indirect: -0.202; total effect: 0.041). In other words, if employees face job demands, they will be less happy in their job and consequently reduce their levels of individual job performance. There is another perspective from which to examine this result: initially, job demands show a positive relationship with individual performance, contrary to what was hypothesized; however, when introducing HAW as a mediator into the model, the job demands-performance relationship reduced. That is, HAW can explain a salient behavior in which, although employees in a job demanding environment remain showing higher performance, yet they may not be happy. This finding is supported by previous research on the mediating role of HAW (Mañas et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2015).

On the other hand, Hypothesis 7 found that HAW partially mediates the relationship between job resources and individual job performance with a total effect score of 76% (direct: 0.300; indirect: 0.465; total effect: 0.765). Hence, HAW maximizes the positive effect between job resources and performance. This finding is consistent with previous studies (Hobfoll, 1989; Wright & Hobfoll, 2004). Freedy and Hobfoll (2017) argues that job resources stimulate positive spiral effect that ultimately becomes favorable to individual job performance. Similarly, affective event theory AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), This theory postulated that stable work environments stimulate the occurrence of positive and negative affective events. Hence, experiencing these events leads employees then to experience affective states (e.g., affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job engagement). Consequently, affective states, in turn, may lead to certain work attitudes (individual job performance).

In the moderator analysis, the present study tested for a moderator that could plausibly influence the relationship between job demands and job resources, and its effect on HAW, by including the interaction term JD x PSYCAP with a path to HAW of JR x PSYCAP, which also had a path to HAW. The JD-R model has suggested that personal resources directly influence perceptions of job demands, job resources, and outcomes (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The rationale behind the moderator analysis was the belief that employees who positively embrace their job environment characteristics perceive fewer job demands and more job resources, which is consistent with the research of Xanthopoulou et al. (2007). Hence, in Hypothesis 8 it was hypothesized that PsyCap (including hope, self-efficacy, resiliency, and optimism as personal resources) would moderate the effect of job demands on HAW.

The moderating effect described in Hypothesis 8 was supported (Sig = 0.320, ≤ 0.05). The present study found that high levels of PsyCap weakened and could “buffer” the negative effect of job demands on HAW. The results suggest that oil and gas industry employees relied on their own personal resources as a means of moderating the negative consequences of job demands. This finding is consistent with is the dispositional component of PsyCap that operates independently of job environment characteristics (Fisher, 2010). The finding concerning a moderating effect can be plausibly explained by the notion that PsyCap assists employees in counterbalancing job demands by creating problem-focused coping strategies to handle their job demands (Hobfoll et al., 2003; Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1992; Panatik et al., 2011). Additionally, studies have shown that PsyCap is associated with better job outcomes, higher job satisfaction, less job burnout, facilitation of intrinsic motivation, and maintenance of individual engagement (Cheung et al., 2011; Gautam & Pradhan, 2018; Hobfoll, 2002). Thus, PsyCap can provide a source of personal

resources for oil and gas industry employees to aid their ability to deal with increasing job demands in their workplace and work environment.

In Hypothesis 9, it was hypothesized that PsyCap would moderate the relationship between job resources and HAW. In light of the present study's results, it was somewhat surprising to find that there was no evidence for a moderating role of PsyCap between job resources and HAW (Sig = 0.9918, ≤ 0.05). That is to say, PsyCap could not explain the variability in moderating effect size. On further investigation, the PsyCap construct was excluded from the path model where job resources have a positive association with HAW. When PsyCap was considered, the effect shown was statistically insignificant.

This finding is consistent with a limited number of previous studies, which also found the moderation effect to be insignificant (Grover et al., 2018; Pezaro, 2018). There are a few possibilities that could explain this lack of moderating effects. First, Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) have suggested that the moderating role may depend on the specific personal resources being used, meaning that some may operate mainly at an affective-cognitive level (e.g., self-efficacy, optimism), whereas others are of a more behavioral-practical nature (e.g., time management skills). It is possible that the personal resources of PsyCap (consisting of hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism) were not sufficiently practical in nature to have a beneficial effect in the case of the oil and gas industry context. Second, it could be that, if employees have a high level of PsyCap, they will display job engagement, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (HAW components) regardless of any environmental motivators such as job resources. In other words, if an employee possesses high PsyCap, this will neutralize the impact of job resources on HAW. Third,

employees with a positive self-concept induced by PsyCap tend to perceive their working environment (such as the level of demands and resources available to them) in a more positive way (Avey et al., 2011; Youssef & Luthans, 2007). This view is due to core self-evaluation (CSE) of, for example, self-efficacy. CSE influences how people subconsciously reach conclusions to appraise themselves, others, and the world (Judge, 1997). Finally, the lack of moderated relationships between job resources and HAW could be attributed to an imperfect operationalization of the relationship between these variables. For example, it is possible that PsyCap does not moderate the effect of job resources on HAW but, rather, acts as a mediator that either partially or fully accounts for the relationship between the two constructs.

6.2 Summary of the discussion

Lending support to the proposed and analyzed hypotheses, HAW was found to mediate the relationship between job environment characteristics and individual job performance. Moreover, job demands were found to have a positive effect associated directly with individual job performance and a negative effect when HAW was introduced into the model. Furthermore, job resources were positively associated with individual job performance when the direct effect was examined, and positively when HAW was introduced. Additionally, the moderating effect of personal resources was shown to be significant between job demands and HAW, while the moderating effect between job resources and HAW was shown to be insignificant. These findings were explained in light of the literature review and the specific contextual factors endemic to the oil and gas industry in Abu Dhabi.

6.3 Theoretical and practical implications of the research

The full picture of the research findings within the context of the existing body of relevant knowledge is provided in this section in order to elaborate on the practical and theoretical implications of the research. This section, therefore, is split into two categories: theoretical implications and practical implications.

6.3.1 Theoretical implications

The findings of the present study provide information to enrich the theoretical literature by adding to the existing knowledge in the domain of HAW antecedents and consequences. The present research potentially contributes to the literature in four major ways. First, the present study augments the literature by examining the antecedents and consequences of HAW in its model. With the study's findings suggesting both jobs demand and job resources as antecedents, and individual job performance (task and contextual performance) as a consequence of HAW, it addresses the recent calls by Salas-Vallina, Alegre, and Fernandez (2017) and Suojanen (2012) to determine how HAW can foster job performance by having scholars devote more attention to this line of research due to its potential to help to induce positive working environments and reduce the potential negative effects of job demands. The study also responds to the need for more research within the positive organizational studies movement in general, and in the field of positive psychology more specifically (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008; Wright & Quick, 2009). Other scholars (Cameron, 2003; Caza & Caza, 2008) have also pointed to the need to pay more attention to the conditions that create positive states in organizations. The present research represents a significant contribution to the HAW literature in this regard, since its findings suggest that job demands are more capable of inhibiting

HAW. As such, the study underscores the need to encourage organizations to consider these antecedents in their HAW approaches.

Second, research on HAW in in the UAE – or in the Middle East, for that matter – is still in its infancy. Most studies have been conducted in Western countries such as Australia, the USA, and the United Kingdom and other European countries, and research into employee happiness in Eastern cultures is under-represented (Pan & Zhou, 2013; Walsh, Boehm, & Lyubomirsky, 2018). The present findings thus contribute to the corpus of literature on the reliable predictor variables of HAW, particularly in the UAE. Thus, it contributes to the corpus of literature on the prediction of HAW conducted in a Middle Eastern setting. Third, JD-R theory has not previously been applied to the evaluation of HAW, but, based on the findings of the present study, JD-R theory may offer a theoretical lens that can contribute to an understanding of how HAW relates to individual job performance, which offers a promising contribution to the field of HAW antecedent evaluation.

Fourth, although PsyCap has been identified as a crucial personal resource that could be useful in navigating the relationship between job environment characteristics and HAW (Newman, Ucbasaran, Zhu, & Hirst, 2014), to date only a few studies focusing on these relationships can be found. For example, Avey, Wernsing, and Luthans (2008) have found that PsyCap relates to positive emotions and employee attitudes and behaviors, arguing that employees who possess high levels of PsyCap are able to experience more positive emotions within organizational environments, even when faced with challenging or stressful situations. Similarly, Grover et al. (2018) have found that PsyCap reduces the effect of job demands perception on employee wellbeing and engagement. Here, the present research suggests that all employees are

susceptible to the HAW level triggered by job demands to the same degree. It suggests that employees that are low in PsyCap are more likely to experience low HAW resulting from job demands, whereas high PsyCap can mitigate such detrimental effects. Accordingly, the present study offers new insights into the personal factors that may make employees more susceptible to the negative effects of job demands. This also corroborates emerging research showing the importance of PsyCap in helping employees deal with negative events at work. Although the present study found only a small amount of support for the moderating effect of PsyCap on HAW, and no additional variance was found between job resources and HAW, an interaction effect was nevertheless observed between job demands and HAW, and this represents a significant contribution to explaining the model (Meier, Semmer, Elfering, & Jacobshagen, 2008). Furthermore, Evans (1985) stated that even an additional 1% over the main effect percentage of the total variance should be considered a contribution, since any moderation effect is difficult to achieve.

Fifth, and finally, there are also important theoretical implications for economics arising from the research. The results suggest that HAW has a significant influence on employee performance. Historically speaking, mainstream economists have excluded positive attitudes from economic research due to a lack of guidance on how HAW may influence productivity and economic outcomes, and a lack of any framework for measuring HAW.

6.3.2 Practical and managerial implications

The present study aimed to understand the factors that help to improve HAW and to examine its relationship with job performance as a continuation of research conducted by Salas-Vallina, Alegre, et al. (2018) and Suojanen (2017). HAW is a

challenging and unusual concept in the business and academic world, and the present study provides an effective tool that aims to improve HAW attitudes and job performance. Since happiness is one of the main components of the UAE's national strategy and of its National Programme for Happiness and Positivity, it is expected that the data resulting from this research will serve as guidelines for policymakers to develop efficient and effective plans to improve HAW, and to instill happiness in the policies, programs, and services of all government bodies. Hence, this study has the potential for managerial application in the adoption of HAW and the alignment of an understanding of its antecedents and consequences. Such practical implications are described below.

The results of the present study imply that job resources may generally improve HAW and individual job performance, and suggest both specific factors and items that companies could emphasize when attempting to create a happy workplace, on the one hand, and to mitigate the adverse factors that jeopardize HAW, on the other. Employees who have been given more job resources by their organization are generally more satisfied, committed, and engaged, and are better off emotionally. Comprehending these factors could be useful for both managers and employees in companies that encourage a positive workplace. Managers should therefore consider these factors when making decisions about how to bring happiness to the workplace, if they hope to be effective. Research has shown that managers who provide the conditions for motivation and generate positive experiences take into account their employees' needs and values, and being fair and transparent in managerial decision-making seems to be essential in ultimately integrating them into the organization, which, in turn, will generate higher levels of HAW (Heinz, Jeworrek, Mertins, Schumacher, & Sutter, 2017; Salas-Vallina et al., 2016). In addition, improvement of

the level of HAW is a gradual process, yet it can certainly be attained with the equal support of every employee from the top to the bottom. Employee commitment and morale can also be enhanced through HAW improvement, making it, indeed, an inevitable move for management in the present competitive organizational setting.

This study also indicated that job resources as HAW antecedents may be particularly crucial for employees working in the oil and gas industry, which is characterized by highly competitive organizations seeking maximum quality (Bergh et al., 2018; Sutherland & Cooper, 1996). As predicted by Hypotheses 2 and 4, job resources have a strong relationship with HAW and individual job performance – a topic that has not been addressed in previous studies. Using the JD-R model, Demerouti et al. (2001) found that job resources interact to increase job engagement and job performance. In other words, job resources have a stronger relationship with employees' engagement and performance when there is an abundance of job resources available. Thus, companies in highly competitive markets are required to pay attention to how employees perceive their organizations. Haller and Hadler (2006) argued that an employee's subjective perception and evaluation are more significant for a sense of happiness, which is not significantly conditioned by the objective situation itself. In building psychologically healthy climates and promoting HAW, managers should pay attention to several aspects: (1) employees should receive a sufficient level of autonomy and free decision-making latitude; (2) supervisors and management should be receptive and provide their employees with support and effective performance feedback; (3) competitive and fair financial rewards should be provided; and (4) doors should be opened to career development and growth. By pursuing these aspects, an organization can expect a high happiness level and improved productivity in return.

The findings of Demerouti et al. (2001) in this regard thus indirectly support the results of the present study.

The present study's results also show that job demands are negatively related to HAW, as predicted in Hypotheses 1 and 3. As such, oil and gas companies should examine the possibility of offering a mentally, psychologically, and physically healthy working environment that offers challenging job demands instead of hindering ones. It is further suggested that negative affect and job demands should be reduced to improve productivity in an oil and gas industry setting. Employers can also help by creating and managing a realistic and appropriate job workload for employees. From an applied perspective, this would involve adopting a tailor-made perspective to help employees to better understand the job demands that they are facing, and to create an awareness of their adverse effects and how to deal with them. Moreover, the role of coping strategies should be emphasized to lessen the effect of immediate job demands. In terms of this aspect, most organizations carry out training to ensure that employees are aware of the job demands that they face and how they can overcome them.

Furthermore, the results of this study also have important implications for the design of organizational interventions. Before embarking on an intervention, companies should first identify the sources of job demands relevant both to their employees and to the context of the industry. When job resources are limited, companies can begin with the domain that poses the most problems. Managers should develop inter-professional programs to enable employees to find appropriate strategies that will lead to job demand reduction, principally by improving working conditions (e.g., reduced work-family conflict and job ambiguity). The responsibility to produce

happiness could also be looked at in reference to creating a positive environment that fosters happiness and does not damage or inhibit employees' existing happiness.

Effective HRM practices should be designed in accordance with their possible effects on employees' happiness. Organizations with more human resource practices in place tend to score higher in terms of employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment (although this relationship tends to be non-linear) (White & Bryson, 2013). Leadership also plays an important role in promoting human resources practices, which can lead to enhanced management capacity, as well as organizational performance. A leadership focus and buy-in can also play an integrated role among various HRM components, including recruitment and selection, training and development, and performance management, playing a significant role in the happiness process. Few organizations devote resources to training their leaders from a human perspective, but they should be aware of the need to promote inspiring traits in leaders that, in turn, will improve HAW. Instead, most of them rely on an authoritarian or transactional type of leadership that does not work well (Salas-Vallina, Simone, & Fernández-Guerrero, 2018).

The integrative model of the present study offers oil and gas industry leaders, managers, department heads, and directors, an HRM model that will allow them to take specific decisions to improve positive emotions and attitudes at work. For example, heads of human resources departments could ideally improve their influence by showing a capacity to offer family-friendly practices, such as flex-time or part-time options, which can be useful in motivating employees (Oludayo et al., 2018). Organizations should take various steps to ensure employees have a clear picture of the value of creating a happy workplace. HAW research may thus be considered as a

diagnostic tool and could be successfully implemented in the field of public management. Organizations should also develop clear plans to ensure that all employees and departments are working toward a proper level of happiness, since HAW can act as a protective mechanism that neutralizes hindering job demands and thus relieves stress and anxiety. Indeed, HAW is sufficiently significant to require serious attention by both scholars and organizational leadership, who together can further enhance employees' work happiness over time.

The present study's findings corroborate evidence showing that organizations can effectively provide their employees with positive education and positive psychological intervention programs that focus on factors such as transforming negative thoughts into positive ones, socializing, keeping busy with appealing and entertaining activities, and setting goals. Additionally, a focus on cognitive-behavioral based therapy, mindfulness training, and relaxation techniques can promote stress management programs (e.g., meditation) that have proved to have an effective role in enhancing subjective wellbeing and helping employees to cope with demands (Holman, Johnson, & O'Connor, 2018; Proudfoot, Corr, Guest, & Dunn, 2009; Stone & Parks, 2018). Organizations can furthermore organize regular training programs, career coach sessions, and stress-busting programs (Marsh & Ward, 2018). These will ultimately create a positive, healthy atmosphere in the organizations.

Promoting orientations to happiness (OTH) is another area of practical implication. This type of intervention is based on the cognitive mechanisms that are used by individuals to conceive happiness and include the three pursuits of pleasure, engagement, and meaning (Nurbakova, Laporte, Calabretto, & Gensel, 2017). OTH is a type of intervention that can reduce stress and displays protective properties against

negative and potentially stressful events (Fuochi, Veneziani, & Voci, 2018). In this regard, Martínez-Martí and Ruch (2017) have found the combination of the three above-mentioned pursuits to be strongly associated with increased job satisfaction. Similarly, Giannopoulos and Vella-Brodrick (2011) have argued that OTH interventions increase subjective wellbeing. Moreover, many organizations have begun to tackle the problems of stress by conducting stress audits with the aim of increasing their understanding of human behavior in a particular working environment. Since it is likely that different groups of oil and gas industry employees will experience different problems, it is critical that a stress audit can identify specific problems and any high-risk or vulnerable personnel. A stress audit is a very effective way of helping employees to cope and thrive in a demanding environment where they would otherwise not prosper or survive (Sutherland & Cooper, 1996). Additionally, given that HAW positively affects individual job performance, adopting approaches such as a strategy that increases happiness, a positive people management perspective, and loving kindness meditation promotes appropriate wellbeing. These specific strategies are associated with enhanced levels of happiness, and diminished depression and social anxiety (Lemay, Doleck, & Bazelais, 2018; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Tkach & Lyubomirsky, 2006)

Another implication for practice relates to the present study's findings concerning the moderating role of PsyCap on the relationship between job demands and HAW. One way to use these insights is to pay close attention to and monitor employees who are low in hope, self-efficacy, resiliency, and optimism when they encounter job demands, since it is these employees who are especially vulnerable to high job demands. However, such an application may meet with several ethical problems concerning the extent to which information about an employee's personality

profile can and should be utilized to fine-tune monitoring processes and the giving of advice. One possible alternative in this context is to use a process that encompasses a holistic approach toward facilitating training tools, such as coaching and training programs focused on enhancing employees' stability, and this could very well also have positive implications for their ability to handle job demands. Although PsyCap cannot be changed overnight, employees can be taught to deal with the adverse consequences of their personality structures. Another option may be to change the environment of the employees by having those most vulnerable to the negative consequences of job demands occupy less demand-prone jobs or environments in the organization, thereby achieving a person-organization fit that offers congruence between the personality, values, goals, attitudes, and needs of each employee and the values, goals, culture, and environment of the organization (Kristof, 1996).

With regard to PsyCap, the study's results also suggest that investing in longer-term initiatives to improve employees' personal resources (PsyCap) will help to nurture resiliency skills that will improve their ability to manage work-related changes associated with the work environment. Teaching key competencies designed to help employees become more resilient, adaptive, and committed to sustainable learning and development will make them better able to effectively manage their careers. The first of these key competencies involves building and maintaining self-efficacy, a positive self-image, optimism, and hope through PsyCap (Cole, 2006). In this regard, Luthans and Youssef-Morgan (2017) have shown that PsyCap can be developed over time through specific interventions, such as training workshops, goal-setting exercises, and reflection activities.

HAW is a multidimensional construct, and it cannot be claimed that it is the only scientifically practical method that can be implemented. Therefore, in light of the present study, the researcher has suggested numerous tips to sustain a happy and positive workplace for employees. Management should thus adopt meticulous efforts to boost HAW by reducing job demands, increasing job resources, and enhancing positive downward communication, thereby achieving synergies. The truth that must be considered is that HAW is an investment by both parties: the employee and the employer. This association can perhaps become increasingly confounding for both parties, but managers and HR professionals need to comprehend the fact that there is no “one-size-fits-all” tactic, since each organization possesses its own culture and needs, not to mention unique employees.

6.4 Research limitations

There are some limitations inherent in the present study. First, the data of the study (dependent, independent, mediator, and moderator variables) were exclusively and simultaneously collected through participants’ self-reported measures, which were subjective. This means that the results are based on their perceptions and dependent on their respective levels of knowledge, ability, and experience. Mainly due to a latent positive-negative evaluation of the social desirability phenomena (Spector, 1987), some of the analysis outcomes may be liable to overestimate the research results and be potentially vulnerable to the common method bias problem, thus causing them to appear stronger than if more objective methods had been used. To reduce this potential flaw, factor analysis was conducted following a single factor test, which showed that the constructs were distinct, thus enhancing the accuracy and validity of the self-ratings. Consequently, common method bias does not seem to be a serious problem for

the current results. Although theoretical and empirical research has suggested that self-report surveys are of great value (Fox & Dinur, 1988; Van der Heijden & Nijhof, 2004), it is always necessary to read such findings with caution. Future studies on HAW should utilize more objective measures (such as pay or performance evaluations carried out by supervisors) and multiple data collection methods (such as observation and interviewing) in order to obtain further perspectives. Such objective measures would be necessary to assist in the attainment of more accurate results. Future research could also add more sources (self-rating and supervisor rating) in order to neutralize the threat of common method variance. Furthermore, it is essential also to look at objective measures, most notably for job resources. For instance, future studies could investigate the relationship between formal opportunities for career growth (e.g., the budget for employee training and development, and the promotion rate) and mastery of career competencies.

Second, as with other studies in the same area (De Neve & Ward, 2017; Ersoy & Ehtiyar, 2017; Salas-Vallina et al., 2016; Salas-Vallina, Alegre, et al., 2017), a cross-sectional research design was applied to answer the research questions. In other words, the data collection was captured at a single point in time. This limits the conclusions that one can make about causality, thus limiting the research in terms of predicting inverse causal relations, or making cause-and-effect inferences over the long term. Based on the JD-R model, the researcher analyzed SEM and CFA in which perceived job resources and job demands predicted HAW and individual job performance. Hence, both statistical techniques were recursive (i.e., uni-directional). A definite drawback here is the fact that a cross-sectional survey does not allow the measurement of changing variable values over time.

Consequently, there may be a potential inverse relationship that would preclude any conclusions regarding causation and reciprocal relationships among the study's identified constructs; for instance, employees who are not happy are exhausted or depressed and tend to be less efficient, therefore making them perceive stronger job demands. Conversely, employees indicating high happiness levels may simply be more energetic, committed, satisfied, proactive, and resilient, and thus less prone to stress symptoms (Ong, Edwards, & Bergeman, 2006), therefore making them perceive job resources as more supportive. This, however, is beyond the scope of the present study. Alternatively, future studies could attempt a longitudinal and experimental research design in order to provide more definitive conclusions about the cause-effect relationship and verify the stability of the research model over time. Additionally, this could provide a better understanding of the dynamic nature of these concepts and allow further exploration of the effect that HAW has in stimulating job demands and job resources. Moreover, it could be examined whether individual job performance has an inverse relationship with HAW.

Third, although the researcher used stratified simple sampling to secure the generalizability and representativeness of the sample (Eid & El-Gohary, 2014), the sample was derived from only one type of organization (the oil and gas industry). This may have limited the cross-validation and generalizability of the study's findings across different type of organizations. Caution is therefore required in generalizing the results of the present study to other organizations and industries. Future studies should thus gather more diverse and larger samples from different industries.

Fourth, due to the time limitations constraining the present study, the unit of analysis was derived from individuals who otherwise could have been dyads. In other

words, the HAW part of the questionnaire would be filled out by the employee and the individual job performance part would be filled out by the direct supervisor. A number of scholars have argued for the need to assess HAW objectively through supervisor or peer reports, or through job analysis (Spector & Jex, 1991; Veenhoven, 2000). Hence, more objective measures of individual job performance variables could also be considered whenever possible in future research (Rego & Cunha, 2008).

Fifth, some of the measurement items could be subject to the cultural understanding of the research sample, as HAW, job demands, and job resources may have different meanings across different cultural groups. Despite the significance of HAW and its positive impact on job performance, only a limited amount of research has been carried out in the context of non-Western cultures, and thus it is necessary to further such research in a diverse range of cultures across the globe in order to gain a better understanding of the implications of this construct. This is because the findings of studies carried out in specific cultures cannot be directly applied or generalized to other cultures (Burke, 2010; Jaladin, Muhamad, & Lau, 2017; Liu, Spector, & Shi, 2007). Danna and Griffin (1999) have argued that the dynamics surrounding measurement of subjective wellbeing have been predefined by external criteria when it is a kind of purely “ideal condition” that differs across cultures. As such, the need emerges to identify the variables that may potentially affect employees’ happiness and test the happiness-performance relationship in non-Westernized business contexts, such as those in the Middle East. In this regard, Fineman (2006) has suggested that it is likely mistaken to consider positivity and happiness as universal constructs, since their interpretation may vary across cultures. Accordingly, cross-cultural data could enhance the understanding of the present study’s framework (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Also, happiness studies cannot be generalized from specific workplaces, since

cultural factors may have affected the findings of those studies (Hirsjärvi & Remes, 2004; McGonagle, 2015; Suojanen, 2012). Better cultural qualitative insights can be gained through technology. Often, reflected through platforms as Facebook, Twitter, and Snapchat (Veenhoven, 2018). Social media provides a fertile ground to study new ways in which individuals present their cultural perspective of HAW. For example, analyzing individuals online daily postings of their experiences toward their working environment.

Additionally, while it may appear that organizations in the UAE are becoming more Westernized in their ways of doing business, the deeply rooted collectivistic cultural emphasis is still dominant there. According to Lomas and Lomas (2018, p. 19), “the field of positive psychology has tended to downplay socio-cultural factors that impinge upon wellbeing” (p. 19). Future studies are thus strongly encouraged to conduct cross-cultural comparisons based on similar or extended frameworks that explore the correlates of culturally sensitive models of wellbeing in an Arab setting. Situativity and contextuality may affect the study results, as may relative cultural conceptualizations (Hirsjärvi & Remes, 2004; Suojanen, 2012). Indeed, future investigations are recommended to explore how context-sensitive frameworks of happiness may influence employee functioning and psychological health to advance the science of happiness in the UAE and other collectivist societies.

6.5 Recommendations for future research

“One thing can be said for sure: we are nowhere near the end of science. So, most of what we know now will be disproved or reassessed in the future. That is how science works, not through the blind faith but continual doubt” (Haig, 2015, p. 53). Nevertheless, recommendations for future research are numerous, as there remains a

plethora of unexplored aspects of the subject of the present study. The current study narrows these potential future research subjects into the following ten recommendations.

First, despite the large number of studies, there is little evidence about HAW that could be maintained with even a minimum amount of certainty. Only limited knowledge has been developed about the range of attitudinal measures surrounding HAW, and thus further clarification is required. A selection and clarification of these concepts should be developed, as should the effects of more recent constructs, such as conscious leadership, on HAW. Another interesting road for research would also be to combine different levels of analysis into a multilevel framework. This perspective could consider individual viewpoints (individual level), contextual factors (group/unit level), and human resource practices employed (organizational level).

Second, little evidence from multilevel analyses of HAW can be found. A fruitful avenue for future research would thus be to expand the exploration of a contingent view of strategic human resource management on HAW, since studies have shown that HAW predicts mental health and immune functioning, and lessens stress, accident occurrence, and suicide rates (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005).

Third, the happiness literature depends extensively on quantitative measures, as they have mainly used quantitative self-reported fixed questionnaire surveys to address the phenomena. Godard (2014) has suggested that focusing on surveys has turned individuals' perceptions into mere "emotional numbers." Even though questionnaires can display many aspects of an uncertain topic and provide findings that are generalizable in many different situations, qualitative measures should also be incorporated to complement them by bringing in new insights and telling the story

behind the topic (Suojanen, 2013). Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014, p. 4) have explained that qualitative data are “a source of well-grounded, rich descriptions and explanations of human processes.” Therefore, in order to expand the horizon of understanding of the employee happiness spectrum, it crucial to ask employees themselves how, what, why, and when work makes them happy, so that they can turn their perceptions into a more narrative and visual approach.

Fourth, future research must emphasize that happiness is a shared responsibility. Employees are responsible for their own happiness just as much as their employers. Hence, both sides should be recognized as responsible for promoting happiness. Another approach to future studies on happiness could examine the relationship between psychological contracts and happiness expectations, and how they are formed within organizations.

Fifth, future studies should concern themselves with gender differences in perceiving and conceiving workplace happiness. It has been amply demonstrated that men and women behave differently in certain circumstances. The reasons for such differences often depend on their varying expectations of the job environment. Men and women sometime differ in terms of job-related values, as women may place more value on the social factor, while men attach considerably more value to the opportunity for self-expression in their works (Azim, Haque, & Chowdhury, 2013), which is likely due to the way in which men and women are socialized to have different motives and goals. Previous studies have indicated that women report higher job satisfaction than men (Thompson & Prottas, 2006) and are generally happier than men (Blanchflower, 2008; Suojanen, 2013; Veenhoven, 2010). Other studies have shown that women are more vulnerable to burnout and stress (Prieto et al., 2008; Thompson & Prottas, 2006).

Furthermore, women have been found to be twice as vulnerable as men to depression and anxiety (Robins & Regier, 1991). Such aspects would be interesting considerations in an examination of how happiness is perceived based on gender differences and in an exploration of the aspects of happiness level differences that can be detected between genders.

Sixth, future research could take into consideration the notion that levels of happiness may differ according to age (Charles et al., 2016; Stone, Schwartz, Broderick, & Deaton, 2010), depression severity (Yik, Russell, & Barrett, 1999), ethnicity (van den Berg, Mond, Eisenberg, Ackard, & Neumark-Sztainer, 2010), and marital status (Wade et al., 2016). These variables were controlled for in the current study.

Seventh, future research should focus on whether happiness outside the workplace affects employees' HAW by taking into consideration the spiral effect of positive and negative emotions. There is a large body of research in the management literature on employee happiness and leaders' role in shaping it.

Eighth, more research should be done to ascertain whether leader moods and employee happiness are linked. Future research is necessary to increase an understanding of how happiness at work leads to OCB and how this can help not only to improve organizations, but also to bring about the overall development of employees.

Ninth, and finally, a number of research directions should be explored in more depth concerning the variation between the public and private sectors in terms of HAW. In this regard, a study conducted by Mohyeldin Tahir Suliman (2007) has

concluded that private sector employees scored higher in job performance than their public sector counterparts in the UAE.

Tenth, as the demographic analysis shows that majority of oil and gas employees fall under the title category of mid-career (60.4%). Thus, it is essential to attach more importance to promote HAW to this category.

6.6 Research contribution

The contribution of this study stems from developing an empirical framework of that integrates HAW assessment mechanism for Abu Dhabi's oil and gas industry within the wider literature. It has explored various factors affecting HAW in the current oil and gas industry and provides original insights that can enhance our understanding of how happiness at work is triggered and how it ultimately affects performance. Examining these factors may form the demand to reform in the current manpower planning and talent management structures in this industry. Furthermore, the findings of this study provide practical insights for policymakers and practitioners which they need to consider alongside other organizational factors affecting employee's happiness. The research suggests a detailed proposal for developing a happy working place in the oil and gas industry including a general job environment characteristic - performance indicator set.

Additionally, in addressing the research questions, the author had effectively added more robust and consistent findings to happiness research. Overall, this research refines the scholarly understanding of the role of various contextual and personal predictors of HAW. Specifically, this research goes beyond the direct effects of job environment characteristics in HAW research by studying the important, yet

overlooked, indirect effects, which extends theoretical arguments regarding whether HAW can be translated to positive outcomes such as better individual job performance or not.

In addressing the main research question, to what extent do job resources, job demands, and personal resources (PsyCap) influence HAW and individual job performance? The answers to both the theoretical- and empirical sub-questions have contributed to answering the main research question adding the contributions of the present study and enabled it to make considerable theoretical contributions. Specifically, a major contribution of this study is the finding that HAW do influence individual job performance in a significant level. This effect takes a significant positive relationship to both task performance and contextual performance. While the position of individual job performance in the context of behavioral responses to HAW has yet to be made explicit in the extant literature, the findings of the present study clarify the strength of the relationship between HAW as a predictor and job performance as an outcome. Prior work has focused primarily on how these orientations are manifested in specific issues such as turnover intention and organization citizenship behavior (OCB) (Salas-Vallina, Alegre, et al., 2017; Wang & Yang, 2016), but the current study has made an effort into understanding the salient type behavioral consequences with focusing on a particularly in both task performance and contextual performance. Therefore, it can be argued that HAW is translated statistically to the attainment of individual performance as a worthwhile organizational endeavor. This unique finding makes HAW not only a mere and distal end outcome, but have concrete exclusionary predictive power to improve individual job performance in the workplace.

In addressing the study sub -question: How do job demand and job resources relate to individual job performance? From the present study, an insight can be gained into how different job demands (i.e., Role overload, role ambiguity, work-life conflict, and job insecurity) and job resources (i.e., Job autonomy, performance feedback, supervisory support, financial rewards, and opportunities for development) can relate to individuals' job performance (i.e., task performance and contextual performance). In the contrary to findings of mainstream literature, the findings of this research posit that job demands are found to be positively related to individual job performance. This study's findings suggest that job demands play a pivotal role in eliciting individual job performance, thereby shaping task performance as well as contextual performances. By this managing job demands that are challenging not threatening or hindering as an important contextual factor affecting employees' critical task activities, this study enriches existing knowledge of the relationship between job demands and employee outcomes. Overall, the results suggest that job demands and job resources are important for organizations which seek to increase their employees' level of performance

In addressing the second research sub-question, how do job demand, job resources, and personal resources (PsyCap) relate to HAW? The main theoretical contribution of this study is that it enhances the understanding of the adverse effects of job demands in predicting HAW. More specifically, this study empirically proved the existence of a direct adverse impact of job demands on HAW, which lowers the level of HAW. In this regard, the present study adds to the literature related to HAW, and it is, in fact, the first study to empirically test the JD-R model in the UAE, using a sample of oil and gas employees.

While this model has so far been tested and confirmed in many countries primarily within the Western context of the US, Europe and Eastern Europe (Gordon et al., 2018), the reported results from the largely and heavily unexplored UAE context provide additional evidence for the reliability and validity of the JD-R model. Furthermore, this study also contributes to the understanding of how specific job resources affect employees HAW in several fronts. However, the present study confirms the predictive power of job resources on HAW, indicating that job resources such as job autonomy are perceived positively in the occupational group that works in a knowledge-intensive area such as oil and gas industry.

Although conclusions regarding the moderating role PsyCap between job resources is equivocal. Importantly, this study contributes to understanding personal differences in PsyCap by contesting evidence indicating that employee's PsyCap can affect how employees deal with their job demands in relation to HAW. The study results are showing that employee possessing a low level of PsyCap will perceive a significantly negative association between job demands and HAW. This pattern of interaction effect signifies on the systematic differences between employees as a function of their personal resources (PsyCap). A deeper understanding of the consequences of PsyCap on employee perception of job demands and HAW further provides practical input for HRM to support sustainable HAW in the context of the oil and gas industry.

Another key contribution of this study rests on the role of HAW as a mediator of the link between job demands, job resources, and individual job performance. Thus, it reinforced the mediating role of HAW, and unpacks the dynamics that underlie happiness in the workplace. The findings contribute to happiness literature by

proposing job environment characteristics as a new precedent of the shaping HAW, and directing attention of scholars to diversifying the variables they used to test their hypotheses. Traditionally, the effects of job environment characteristics have been limited to job engagement or job stratification. We have now expanded this to include the full scope of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, including HAW, task performance, and contextual performance.

In summary, the present study is one of the first studies to identify a possible relationship between HAW and individual job performance, and the first to expand the empirical setting beyond the predominant Western context. As such, the present study has contributed to the existing positive psychology literature by offering increased insight into how job environment characteristics can predict HAW and individual job performance. The current research can thus assist organizations in improving organizational happiness and job performance – specifically, what job environment characteristics to consider and what benefits HAW can bring. Organizations can also use the findings of this study to develop interventions and strategies for improvement. the contextual factors required to understanding the setting within which happiness at work is experienced

Finally, another critical contribution that emerges as result of the findings of this study lies in its establishment of the discriminant validity of job engagement, job satisfaction, and affective organizational commitment as main sub-dimensions of HAW. Additionally, the present study has extended the relevant body of research by applying the JD-R model to an investigation of the antecedents of HAW and individual job performance among oil and gas industry employees. Hence, one of the most crucial contributions is an update of the JD-R model through the addition of HAW as a

mediator and integration of representative job outcome variables (task performance and contextual performance) through HAW. Moreover, to the researcher's best knowledge, this is the one first study that systematically investigate HAW in the UAE and the oil and gas industry.

6.7 Conclusion

The study's results indicate five main findings. First, job demands (job overload, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, and job insecurity) negatively impacted HAW (job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and job engagement), thereby statistically reducing HAW to a significant degree. However, contrary to the study's predication, job demands showed a positive effect on individual job performance. Second, the results indicate that job resources (job autonomy, performance feedback, supervisor support, financial reward, and opportunity for development) were positively associated with HAW and individual job performance, as anticipated. Third, HAW positively predicted individual job performance (task performance and contextual performance). Fourth, personal resources (PsyCap) moderated the relationship between job demands and HAW, meaning that higher PsyCap resulted in reduced strength of the negative effect of job demands on HAW. Fifth, and finally, personal resources (PsyCap), nevertheless, showed no effect on the relationship between job resources and HAW. Overall, the study concluded with its limitations, contributions, and recommendations for future research.

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Appendices

Appendix A: UAEU ethical approval

Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee -Approval-	
Proposal number:	<i>ERS_2018_5716</i>
Title of Project:	<i>Antecedents and Consequences of Happiness at Work (HAW): The Case of Oil and Gas Industry in Abu Dhabi</i>
PI:	<i>Nouf Mohammed Abdulla Ali</i>
Co-PI:	
The above proposal has been reviewed by:	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> one member of the Social Sciences REC <input type="checkbox"/> two members of the <i>Social Sciences REC</i>	
And the decision is:	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Favourable <input type="checkbox"/> Favourable with Additional Conditions <input type="checkbox"/> Provisional Opinion <input type="checkbox"/> Unfavourable Opinion <input type="checkbox"/> No Opinion (Proportionate Review* only)	
Reason:	
<i>After evaluating this proposal, we see no major ethical concerns. Therefore, the proposal is approved for one year.</i>	
Please ensure that you indicate to research participants that your study has received ethical approval from UAE University by referring to the proposal number.	
Name (Chair or designee):	<i>Clara Morgan</i>
	<i>Clara Morgan</i>
Signature	<i>March 20, 2018</i>
	Date

Appendix B: Survey instrument in english**Antecedents and Consequences of Happiness at work (HAW): The Case of Oil and Gas Industry in Abu Dhabi**

Dear Survey Participant,

We would like you to participate in this study to explore the antecedent of Happiness at work (HAW) and its consequences on individual work performance in oil and gas industry in Abu Dhabi. This research is conducted as part of completing the Doctorate of Business Administration (DBA) Degree in the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU). The study intends to provide a better understanding of the effect of job characteristics (Job Demands & Job Resources) as well as Personal Resources (Psychological Capital) on Happiness at work (HAW). Consequently, measuring the effect of HAW on employee's work performance. A summary of the report will be available to all the interested participants. Please indicate your interest by providing us with your email address in the specified section.

Kindly note the study questions/items has been reviewed and approved by the Social Science Research Ethics Committee in the University of United Arab Emirates No: ERS-2018-5716.

The participation is voluntary; accordingly, you may withdraw at any time from the study. There is minimal risk in participating in this study since all data collected will be anonymous.

If you have questions regarding this study, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher directly as per the contact information below.

Thank you in advance for your valuable contribution to this important study.

General instructions to complete the survey

- Please answer all the questions, to the best of your knowledge
- Please tick the following statement if you agree to participate:

I agree to voluntarily participate in the study

Yes No

Nouf Mohammed Ali

Doctorate of Business Administration (DBA) Student

College of Business and Economics

United Arab Emirates University (UAEU)

E-Mail: 201590093@uaeu.ac.ae

Antecedents and Consequences of Happiness at work (HAW): The Case of Energy Sector in Abu Dhabi

Dear Survey Participant,

We would like you to participate in this study to explore the antecedent of Happiness at work (HAW) and its consequences on individual job performance in Energy Sector in Abu Dhabi. This research is conducted as part of completing the Doctorate of Business Administration (DBA) Degree in the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU). The study intends to provide a better understanding of the effect of job characteristics (Job Demands & Job Resources) as well as Personal Resources (Psychological Capital) on Happiness at work (HAW). Consequently, measuring the effect of HAW on employee's job performance. A summary of the report will be available to all the interested participants. Please indicate your interest by providing us with your email address in the specified section.

Kindly note the study questions/items has been reviewed and approved by the Social Science Research Ethics Committee in the University of United Arab Emirates No: ERS-2018-5716.

The participation is voluntary; accordingly, you may withdraw at any time from the study. There is minimal risk in participating in this study since all data collected either participants and company's names will be totally anonymous.

If you have questions regarding this study, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher directly as per the contact information below.

Thank you in advance for your valuable contribution to this important study.

General instructions to complete the survey

- Please answer all the questions, to the best of your knowledge
- Please tick the following statement if you agree to participate:

I agree to voluntarily participate in the study

Yes

No

Nouf Mohammed Ali

Doctorate of Business Administration (DBA) Student

College of Business and Economics

United Arab Emirates University (UAEU)

E-Mail: 201590093@uaeu.ac.ae

Who should complete this questionnaire?

- a-** The following questions should be answered by an employee who is working on Energy sector industry in Abu Dhabi. This will be done through asking respondents:
- b-** 1. To choose an answer in an appropriate box.
- c-** 2. To indicate their extent of agreement about different issues. A five-point scale (1-5) has been designed as follows:

Please put a tick in the appropriate box

Basic Information		
Please put (√) in the box next to the best answer to each question below:		
What is your gender?	<input type="checkbox"/> Female	<input type="checkbox"/> Male
What is your marital status	<input type="checkbox"/> Married	<input type="checkbox"/> Single
	<input type="checkbox"/> Divorced	<input type="checkbox"/> Widow
What is your age group?	<input type="checkbox"/> Under 21 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 21 to 25 years
	<input type="checkbox"/> 26 to 30 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 31 to 35 years
	<input type="checkbox"/> 36 to 40 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 41 to 45 years
	<input type="checkbox"/> 46 years or older	
What is your educational background?	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than high school	<input type="checkbox"/> High school graduate
	<input type="checkbox"/> Diploma / (includes equivalency)	<input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's degree
	<input type="checkbox"/> Master's degree	<input type="checkbox"/> Ph.D./Doctorate
	<input type="checkbox"/> Other degree	

What sector do you work for?	<input type="checkbox"/> Upstream Oil & Gas	<input type="checkbox"/> Midstream Oil & Gas
	<input type="checkbox"/> Downstream Oil & Gas	<input type="checkbox"/> Administration (HR, Finance...)
	<input type="checkbox"/> Energy Management	
Which of the following most closely matches your job title?	<input type="checkbox"/> Entry or Junior Level	<input type="checkbox"/> Mid-Career
	<input type="checkbox"/> Team Leader / Manager	<input type="checkbox"/> Director or Executive (VP, SVP & CEO)
How many years of full-time work experience do you have in Energy sector	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 5 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 5-10 Years
	<input type="checkbox"/> 11-16 Years	<input type="checkbox"/> 17-22 Years
	<input type="checkbox"/> +23 Year	
Where is your position located?	<input type="checkbox"/> On-Shore	<input type="checkbox"/> Offshore
What is the nature of your job?	<input type="checkbox"/> Technical	<input type="checkbox"/> Non-technical
Monthly Income (in AED)	<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 25,000 A	<input type="checkbox"/> 25,000 - 35,000 AED
	<input type="checkbox"/> 36,000 – 46,000 AED	<input type="checkbox"/> 47,000 –57,000 AED
	<input type="checkbox"/> More than 58,000 AED	
What is your Nationality?	<input type="checkbox"/> United Arab Emirates	<input type="checkbox"/> Expat

Please Identify to what extend you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

A. Role Overload:	What is your perception on the amount of work you have to do comparing to the time given?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
A.1 The amount of work I am expected to do is fair (R)	1	2	3	4	5
A.2 I never seem to have enough time to get everything done at work.	1	2	3	4	5
A.3 It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.	1	2	3	4	5
B. Role ambiguity:	To what extent you are clear about your roles and tasks?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
B.1 I know what my responsibilities are	1	2	3	4	5
B.2 I know exactly what is expected of me	1	2	3	4	5
B.3 In my job I have clear and planned goals and objectives	1	2	3	4	5
B.4 I feel certain about my level of authority.	1	2	3	4	5

C. Work- Family Conflict:	To what extent you have the ability to balance the demands of your personal and professional lives?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
C.1 The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life .	1	2	3	4	5
C.2 Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	1	2	3	4	5
C.3 My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties.	1	2	3	4	5
C.4 Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	1	2	3	4	5
D. Job Insecurity	To what extent you are certain about your future job security?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
D.1. I think that I will be able to continue working in my current organization.	1	2	3	4	5
D.2. I am sure I can keep my job.	1	2	3	4	5
D.3. I feel insecure about the future of my job (R)	1	2	3	4	5
D.4 I fear that I might lose my job ®	1	2	3	4	5

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

E. Job Autonomy:	To what degree you are have the controllability, freedom and independence over accomplishing your formal work task?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
E.1 I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
E.2 I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	1	2	3	4	5
E.3 I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	1	2	3	4	5
F. Performance Feedback:	To what extent carrying out the work activities provides you with clear information about your performance.				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
F.1 I receive sufficient information on the purpose of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
F.2 I receive sufficient information on the results of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
F.3 My work itself gives me the opportunity to check on how well I am doing my work.	1	2	3	4	5
	1	2	3	4	5
G. Supervisory Support:	To what extent does your supervisor reinforce and support the use of learning and your performance on the job?				

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
G.1 My supervisor takes the time to learn about my career goals and aspirations.	1	2	3	4	5
G.2 My supervisor keeps me informed about different career opportunities for me in the organization.	1	2	3	4	5
G.3 My supervisor gives me helpful advice about improving my performance when I need it.	1	2	3	4	5
G.4 My supervisor provides assignments that give me the opportunity to develop and strengthen new skills.	1	2	3	4	5
H. Opportunity for Development	To what extent you believe that you are receiving professional upward growth to attain your career goals, professional development, promotion speed and remuneration growth?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
H.1 My present job moves me closer to my career goals.	1	2	3	4	5
H.2 My present job encourages me to accumulate richer work experiences.	1	2	3	4	5
H.3 My promotion speed in the present organization is fast.	1	2	3	4	5
H.4 in this organization, the possibility of my current salary being increased is very large.	1	2	3	4	5
H.5 My Current job provides me with good development opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
I. Financial Reward	To what extent are you satisfied with your pay-level and benefits?				

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
I.1 My job offers me the possibility to progress financially	1	2	3	4	5
I.2 The company pays good salaries	1	2	3	4	5
I.3 I can live comfortably on my pay	1	2	3	4	5
I.4 I think I am paid enough for the work I do	1	2	3	4	5

The following statements explore the effect of the Personal Resources & strengths you believe that you have and it supports your successful completion of work. Indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements.

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

J. Self-Efficacy:	To what extent you have confident in your abilities to complete and succeed at your tasks?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
J.1 I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.	1	2	3	4	5
J.2 I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.	1	2	3	4	5
J.3 I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area.	1	2	3	4	5
J.4 I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
K. Hope:	To what extent you believe that you have the willpower and long term positive outlook to create and reach your goals?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

K.1 If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.	1	2	3	4	5
K.2 At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.	1	2	3	4	5
K.3 Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work.	1	2	3	4	5
K.4 I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals	1	2	3	4	5
L. Optimism:	To what extent you believe that you have a positive attribution to succeed in work and will always experience good outcomes in life now and in the future?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
L.1 When things are uncertain for me at work I usually expect the best.	1	2	3	4	5
L.2 I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job	1	2	3	4	5
L.3 I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.	1	2	3	4	5
L.4 In this job, things never work out the way I want them to. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
M. Resiliency	To what extent you believe that you have the ability to overcome challenges, failures, or overwhelming changes and achieve success at your work?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
M.1 When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on.(R)	1	2	3	4	5

M. 2 I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.	1	2	3	4	5
N.3 I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.	1	2	3	4	5
M.4 I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.	1	2	3	4	5

The following statements explore your level of engagement, job satisfaction and commitment toward your work, indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements.

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

N. Job Engagement:	To what extent you believe that you are positively present during performing work?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
N.1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy (v).	1	2	3	4	5
N.2 When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (v)	1	2	3	4	5
N.3 I am enthusiastic about my job (d).	1	2	3	4	5
N.4 I am proud on the work that I do (d).	1	2	3	4	5
N.5 I am immersed/engrossed in my work (a).	1	2	3	4	5
N.6 I feel happy when I am working intensely (a).	1	2	3	4	5
O. Job Satisfaction:	How do you explain your overall job experience?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
O.1 I am satisfied with the nature of the work I perform.	1	2	3	4	5
O.2 I am satisfied with my relationship with my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5
O.3 I am satisfied with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5

O.4 Considering everything, I am satisfied with my current job situation.	1	2	3	4	5
P. Affective Organizational Commitment:	To what extent you feel that you are emotionally attached, identified and involved in your organization?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
P.1 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5
P.2 I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it	1	2	3	4	5
P.3 I feel like part of the family at my organization	1	2	3	4	5
P.4 This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5

The following statements explore your perceived individual performance toward your work, indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements.

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

Q. Task Performance:	To what extent you are proficient with performing your core substantive or technical tasks that are central to their job?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Q.1. I am able to plan my work so that I finish it on time	1	2	3	4	5
Q.2 I am keeping in mind the work result I need to achieve	1	2	3	4	5
Q.3 I am able to carry out my work well with minimal time and effort.	1	2	3	4	5
R4: I plan my work optimally.	1	2	3	4	5
R. Contextual Performance:	To what extent you can describe your behaviors toward supporting your organizational, social and psychological environment?				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
R1. I work on keeping my job-related knowledge up-to-date.	1	2	3	4	5
R. I continually seeking new challenges in my work	1	2	3	4	5
R. I take on extra responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
R. I start new tasks myself, when my old ones were finished	1	2	3	4	5

Any additional comments:

.....

.....

.....

Thank you very much for participating in this survey. You have provided a significant amount of valuable information for my doctoral dissertation.

If you would like a copy of the study report, please, provide your email address below.

Personal

E-mail:

.....

(Optional)

Appendix C: Survey instrument in arabic

المسببات والنتائج المترتبة على السعادة في العمل "HAW": الحالة خاصة بمجال النفط والغاز في أبوظبي

عزيزي المشارك في الاستبيان،

نود منك المشاركة في هذه الدراسة لمعرفة مسببات السعادة في العمل "HAW-Happiness At Work"، ونتائجها على أداء العمل الفردي في مجال النفط والغاز في أبوظبي. ويتم إجراء هذا البحث كجزء من استكمال أطروحة الدكتوراه في إدارة الأعمال "DBA" في جامعة الإمارات العربية المتحدة "UAEU". تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى توفير فهم أفضل لتأثير خصائص الوظيفة (المتطلبات الوظيفية وموارد العمل)، بالإضافة إلى الموارد الشخصية (رأس المال النفسي) على السعادة في العمل "HAW". وبالتالي، قياس تأثير السعادة في العمل على الأداء الوظيفي للموظفين وسيكون هناك ملخصاً عن التقرير متاح لجميع المشاركين المهتمين. يرجى إظهار اهتمامك بموضوع الدراسة من خلال توضيح عنوان البريد الإلكتروني الخاص بك في الجزء المحدد له.

يرجى ملاحظة أن البنود والأسئلة الواردة في هذه الدراسة قد تمت مراجعتها والموافقة عليها من جانب اللجنة الأخلاقية والادبية في كلية العلوم بجامعة الإمارات العربية المتحدة بموجب الرقم: ERS-2018-5716.

إن المشاركة في هذه الدراسة أمر تطوعي، وبالتالي يمكنك الانسحاب منها في أي وقت. ولن تمثل المشاركة في هذه الدراسة خطورة كبيرة حيث أنه لن يتم الكشف عن هوية جميع البيانات المجمعة.

إذا كان لديك أي أسئلة بخصوص موضوع الدراسة، فيرجى عدم التردد في الاتصال بالباحث مباشرة عن طريق معلومات الاتصال الموضحة أدناه.

ونشكركم مقدماً على مساهمتك القيمة في هذه الدراسة المهمة.

تعليمات عامة لاستكمال الاستبيان

- يرجى الإجابة على الأسئلة حسب مقدار معرفتك
- يرجى وضع علامة على الجملة التالية إذا وافقت على المشاركة:

أوافق على المشاركة طواعية في هذه الدراسة نعم
لا

نوف محمد عبدالله الحواري

طالب دكتوراه في إدارة الأعمال "DBA".

كلية الإدارة والاقتصاد

جامعة الإمارات العربية المتحدة "UAEU".

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من الذي ينبغي عليه إكمال هذا الاستبيان؟

أ- يحق للموظف الذي يعمل في قطاع النفط والغاز في أبوظبي أن يجيب على الأسئلة التالية. وسوف تطرح هذه الأسئلة على الجهات المستفيدة.

ب- يرجى اختيار الإجابة في المربع المناسب لها

ج- للإشارة إلى مدى الاتفاق بشأن القضايا المختلفة المطروحة. تم تصميم الاستبيان بحيث يشتمل على مقياس مكون من خمس نقاط .

أولاً: المعلومات الخلفية

يرجى وضع علامة في المربع المناسب:

معلومات أساسية		
يرجى وضع (√) في المربع الذي يشير إلى أفضل إجابة لكل سؤال موضح أدناه:		
ما هو النوع؟	<input type="checkbox"/> أنثى	<input type="checkbox"/> ذكر
ما هي الحالة الاجتماعية؟	<input type="checkbox"/> متزوج	<input type="checkbox"/> أعزب
	<input type="checkbox"/> مطلق	<input type="checkbox"/> أرمل
ما هي فئتك العمرية؟	<input type="checkbox"/> أقل من 21 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> من 21 إلى 25 سنة
	<input type="checkbox"/> من 26 إلى 30 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> من 31 إلى 35 سنة
	<input type="checkbox"/> من 36 إلى 40 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> من 41 إلى 45 سنة
	<input type="checkbox"/> 46 سنة فأكثر	
ما هو مستواك التعليمي؟	<input type="checkbox"/> أقل من المدرسة الثانوية	<input type="checkbox"/> خريج المدرسة الثانوية
	<input type="checkbox"/> شهادة دبلوم (أو ما يعادلها)	<input type="checkbox"/> شهادة البكالوريوس
	<input type="checkbox"/> شهادة الماجستير	<input type="checkbox"/> شهادة الدكتوراه
	<input type="checkbox"/> شهادة أخرى	
اسم الشركة:		
ما القطاع الذي تعمل فيه؟	<input type="checkbox"/> التنقيب والإنتاج	<input type="checkbox"/> عمليات نقل البترول من أماكن الاستخراج لمصافي التكرير
	<input type="checkbox"/> التكرير والتوزيع	<input type="checkbox"/> الإدارة
أي من التصنيفات التالية هي الأقرب لمنصبك الوظيفي؟	<input type="checkbox"/> المستوى الأول أو المبتدأ	<input type="checkbox"/> في منتصف الحياة المهنية
	<input type="checkbox"/> قائد فريق أو مدير	<input type="checkbox"/> الادارة التنفيذية (نائب الرئيس أو نائب الرئيس الأول أو الرئيس التنفيذي)
كم عدد سنوات خبرتك العملية بنظام الدوام الكامل في مجال النفط والغاز؟	<input type="checkbox"/> أقل من 5 سنوات	<input type="checkbox"/> من 5 إلى 10 سنة
	<input type="checkbox"/> من 11 إلى 16 سنة	<input type="checkbox"/> من 17 إلى 22 سنة
	<input type="checkbox"/> 23 سنة فأكثر	
أين يقع موقعك الوظيفي؟	<input type="checkbox"/> البر	<input type="checkbox"/> البحر (الجزر، منصات، بوارج)
ما هي طبيعة وظيفتك؟	<input type="checkbox"/> فنية	<input type="checkbox"/> غير فنية

<input type="checkbox"/> أقل من 25000 درهم إماراتي	<input type="checkbox"/> من 25000 إلى 35000 درهم إماراتي	الدخل الشهري (بالدرهم الإماراتي)
<input type="checkbox"/> من 36000 إلى 46000 درهم إماراتي	<input type="checkbox"/> من 47000 إلى 57000 درهم إماراتي	
<input type="checkbox"/> أكثر من 58000 درهم إماراتي		
<input type="checkbox"/> دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة	<input type="checkbox"/> مغترب	ما هي جنسيتك؟

ثانياً: المتطلبات الوظيفية

يرجى تحديد مدى موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك على العبارات التالية.

5	4	3	2	1	
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
A- كمية الدور الوظيفي					
ما هو تصورك لمقدار العمل الذي يتوجب عليك القيام به مقارنة بالوقت الممنوح له؟					
5	4	3	2	1	A.1 حجم العمل المتوقع مني القيام به عادل
5	4	3	2	1	A.2 لا يبدو لي أن لدي ما يكفي من الوقت لإنجاز كل شيء في العمل.
5	4	3	2	1	A.3 يبدو لي في كثير من الأحيان أن هذا العمل أكثر مما يمكن لشخص واحد أن يقوم به
B- ازدواج الدور الوظيفي:					
إلى أي مدى واضح لك المهام والأدوار الوظيفية الخاصة بك؟					
5	4	3	2	1	B.1 أعرف ما هي مسؤولياتي
5	4	3	2	1	B.2 أعرف بالضبط ما هو متوقع مني
5	4	3	2	1	B.3 بالنسبة لوظيفتي، هناك مجموعة من الأهداف والغايات الواضحة والمخطط لها.
5	4	3	2	1	B.4 متأكد من مستوى السلطة الذي أتمتع به
C- التعارض بين المتطلبات الوظيفية ومتطلبات الأسرة					
إلى أي مدى لديك القدرة على الموازنة بين متطلبات حياتك الشخصية وحياتك المهنية؟					
5	4	3	2	1	C.1 تتعارض متطلبات العمل مع متطلبات حياتي الأسرية والوقت الشخصي
5	4	3	2	1	C.2 لا يمكنني عمل الأشياء التي أود القيام بها في المنزل لأن متطلبات وظيفتي تثقل كاهلي
5	4	3	2	1	C.3 تتسبب وظيفتي في شعوري بالإرهاق بما يجعل من الصعب الوفاء بواجباتي الأسرية

5	4	3	2	1	C.4 اضطرتت إلى إجراء تغييرات على خطط الأنشطة الأسرية الخاصة بي بسبب الواجبات المرتبطة بالعمل		
A- تصور بشأن التقليل المؤسسي ما هو تصورك بشأن تخفيض العمالة مؤخرًا في المؤسسة؟							
			لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
5	4	3	2	1	D.1 أدى التقليل المؤسسي إلى دفع الموظفين نحو البحث عن فرص وظيفية جديدة		
5	4	3	2	1	D.2 ت التقليل المؤسسي هو أمر لا مفر منه أو لا يمكن تجنبه		
5	4	3	2	1	D. التقليل المؤسسي هو جزء متوقع في دورة حياة النشاط التجاري للمؤسسة		
5	4	3	2	1	D.4 أدى التقليل المؤسسي المؤسسة إلى تعلم الموظفين لمهارات جديدة		
B- الأمن الوظيفي إلى أي مدى تشعر بالأمان تجاه مستقبلك الوظيفي؟							
			لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
5	4	3	2	1	E.1 أعتقد أنني سأتمكن من مواصلة العمل في مؤسستي الحالية.		
5	4	3	2	1	E.2 أنا متأكد من أنني سأحتفظ بوظيفتي		
5	4	3	2	1	E.3 أشعر بعدم الأمان تجاه مستقبل وظيفتي		
5	4	3	2	1	E.4 أخشى من أنني قد أفقد وظيفتي		
ثالثًا: - موارد العمل							
تهدف العبارات التالية إلى معرفة تأثير موارد العمل التي أتاحتها الشركة لك، يرجى توضيح مدى اتفاقك مع كل ما ورد في العبارات التالية.							
5	4	3	2	1			
			لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
C- الاستقلال الوظيفي إلى أي درجة تتمتع بالقدرة على التحكم والحرية والاستقلال بشأن إنجاز مهام عملك الرسمية؟							
			لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
5	4	3	2	1	F.1 أتمتع بقدر كبير من الاستقلالية في تحديد الطريقة التي يمكنني بها إنجاز مهمني		
5	4	3	2	1	F.2 يمكنني أن أحدد بنفسني الطريقة التي يمكنني بها إنجاز مهمني		
5	4	3	2	1	F.3 لدي فرصة كبيرة تساعدني في الشعور بالاستقلالية والحرية عند اختبار الطريقة التي يمكنني بها إنجاز مهمني		

إلى أي مدى يساعد تنفيذ المهام الوظيفية في تزويدك بمعلومات واضحة عن أدائك.					A- تقييم الأداء
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	G.1 أتلقى معلومات كافية عن الغرض من عملي
5	4	3	2	1	G.2أ أتلقى معلومات كافية عن نتائج عملي
5	4	3	2	1	G.3 أتلقى معلومات كافية عن أهداف عملي
إلى أي مدى يقوم مشرفك بتعزيز ودعم استخدام أدوات التعلم وكذلك الحال بالنسبة لأدائك في العمل؟					B- الدعم الإشرافي:
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	H.1 يوفر لي مشرفي وقتًا لكي يتعرف فيه على أهدافي وطموحاتي الوظيفية
5	4	3	2	1	H.2 يحرص مشرفي على إخباري بالفرص الوظيفية المختلفة المتاحة لي في المؤسسة
5	4	3	2	1	H.3 يسدي لي مشرفي نصائح مفيدة بشأن تحسين أدائي عندما أكون بحاجة إليها
5	4	3	2	1	H.4 يكلفني المشرف بتنفيذ المهام التي تتيح لي فرص من شأنها مساعدتي على تطوير مهارات جديدة وتعزيزها
إلى أي مدى تعتقد أنك تحصل على نمو تصاعدي مهني يساعدك على تحقيق الأهداف المهنية، والتطوير المهني، وسرعة الحصول على الترقيات وزيادة المكافآت؟					C- فرصة للنمو المهني
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	I.1 تساعدني وظيفتي الحالية على الاقتراب أكثر من أهدافي المهنية
5	4	3	2	1	I.2 تساعدني وظيفتي الحالية على الإلمام بالخبرات العملية الأكثر ثراءً
5	4	3	2	1	I.3 سرعة الحصول على الترقيات داخل مؤسستي تمضي بخطى سريعة
5	4	3	2	1	I.4 من المحتمل أن يزيد راتبي الحالي داخل المؤسسة بشكل كبير للغاية
5	4	3	2	1	I.5 تساعدني وظيفتي الحالية على تزويدي بفرص تنموية جيدة
إلى أي مدى أنت راض عن مستوى الأجور والمزايا؟					D- العائد المالي
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	J.1 يوفر لي عملي امكانيه التطور ماليا.
5	4	3	2	1	J.2 تمنح مؤسستي رواتب جيدة

5	4	3	2	1	J.3 استطيع العيش بشكل مريح على راتي
5	4	3	2	1	J.4 أعتقد ان راتي يتكافئ مع مقدار العمل اللي ابذله
رابعًا: الموارد الشخصية – رأس المال النفسي					
تهدف العبارات التالية إلى معرفة تأثير الموارد الشخصية ونقاط القوة التي تعتقد أنك تمتلكها، كما أنها تدعم نجاحك في إتمام عملك. يرجى توضيح مدى اتفاقك مع كل ما ورد في العبارات التالية.					
5	4	3	2	1	
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
A- فعالية الذات- الكفاءة الذاتية:					
إلى أي مدى تشعر بالثقة في قدرتك على إنجاز المهام المطلوبة منك والنجاح فيها؟					
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	K.1 أثق في قدرتي على تمثيل مجال عملي في الاجتماعات التي تُعقد مع الإدارة
5	4	3	2	1	K.2 أثق في قدرتي على المساهمة في المناقشات التي تدور حول استراتيجية الشركة
5	4	3	2	1	K.3 أثق في قدرتي على المساعدة في تحديد الأهداف أو الغايات المرتبطة بمجال عملي
5	4	3	2	1	K.4 أثق في قدرتي على تقديم المعلومات اللازمة لمجموعة من زملاء العمل
B- الأمل:					
إلى أي مدى تعتقد أن لديك قوة إرادة ونظرة إيجابية طويلة المدى من شأنها أن تساعدك على تحديد أهدافك والوصول إليها؟					
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	L.1 إذا تعرضت لأي مأزق في العمل، يمكنني حينها التفكير في عدة طرق للخروج من هذا المأزق
5	4	3	2	1	L.1 في الوقت الحالي، أسعى بهمة إلى تحقيق أهدافي الوظيفية
5	4	3	2	1	L.3 حتى هذا الوقت أرى أنني ناجح للغاية في عملي
5	4	3	2	1	L.4 يمكنني التفكير في العديد من الطرق التي من شأنها مساعدتي في تحقيق أهدافي الوظيفية الحالية
C- التفاؤل					
إلى أي مدى تعتقد أن لديك مؤشرات إيجابية سوف تساعدك على النجاح في العمل وهو ما سيجعلك تحصل على نتائج جيدة في حياتك في الوقت الراهن وفي المستقبل؟					

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	M.1 عادة أتوقع الأفضل عندما لا تكون أمور العمل على ما يرام
5	4	3	2	1	M.2 دائما أنظر إلى الجانب المشرق من الأمور فيما يخص وظيفتي
5	4	3	2	1	M.3 أنا متفائل بشأن ما سيحدث لي في المستقبل بما أنه يتعلق بعملتي
5	4	3	2	1	M.4 لا تسير الأمور في وظيفتي على النحو الذي أرغب في أن تكون عليه
إلى أي مدى تعتقد أن لديك قدرة على التغلب على التحديات أو الإخفاقات أو التغييرات الساحقة وتحقيق النجاح في عملك؟					A- المرونة
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	N.1 عندما تواجهني عقبات في العمل، أجد صعوبة في التغلب عليها والمضي قدماً
5	4	3	2	1	N.2 عادة أدير الصعوبات التي أواجهها في العمل بطريقة أو بأخرى
5	4	3	2	1	N.3 أشعر أنني قادر على التعامل مع أمور كثيرة تتعلق وظيفتي في وقت واحد.
5	4	3	2	1	N.4 أستطيع أن أتجاوز الأوقات الصعبة في عملي لأنني واجهت صعوبات مثل هذه من قبل
خامساً: السعادة في العمل "HAW"					
تهدف العبارات التالية إلى معرفة مستوى انخراطك داخل المؤسسة، ومدى رضائك عن الوظيفة والتزامك بمهام عملك. يرجى توضيح مدى اتفاقك مع كل ما ورد في العبارات التالية.					
5	4	3	2	1	
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
إلى أي مدى تعتقد في إيجابية تواجدك داخل المؤسسة أثناء قيامك بتنفيذ مهام عملك؟					B- الانخراط
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	O.1 أثناء قيامي بأداء وظيفتي أشعر بتدفق الطاقة داخلي

5	4	3	2	1	0.2 عندما أستيقظ في الصباح، أشعر برغبة في الذهاب إلى عملي
5	4	3	2	1	0.3 أنا متحمس لعملي
5	4	3	2	1	0.4 أنا فخور بالعمل الذي أقوم به
5	4	3	2	1	0.5 أشعر بأنني منهك أو منغمس في عملي
5	4	3	2	1	0.6 أشعر بسعادة عندما أعمل بصورة مكثفة
كيف يمكنك التعبير عن تجربتك الوظيفية بصورة عامة؟					A- الرضا الوظيفي
لا أوافق بشدة					لا أوافق بشدة
أوافق بشدة					أوافق بشدة
5	4	3	2	1	P.1 أنا راض عن طبيعة العمل الذي أقوم به
5	4	3	2	1	P.2 أنا راض عن علاقتي مع زملائي في العمل.
5	4	3	2	1	P.3 أنا راض عن مشرفي
5	4	3	2	1	P.4 بالنظر إلى كل شيء، أنا راضٍ عن وضعي الوظيفي الحالي.
إلى أي مدى تشعر بأنك مرتبط عاطفيًا بمؤسستك ومعروفًا بها ومشاركًا فيها؟					B- الالتزام العاطفي تجاه المؤسسة
لا أوافق بشدة					لا أوافق بشدة
أوافق بشدة					أوافق بشدة
5	4	3	2	1	Q.1 سأكون سعيدًا إذا قضيت باقي مسيرتي المهنية في هذه المؤسسة
5	4	3	2	1	Q.2 أستمتع بمناقشة أمور المؤسسة مع أشخاص من خارج المؤسسة
5	4	3	2	1	Q.3 أشعر وكأنني فرد من أفراد العائلة في هذه المؤسسة
5	4	3	2	1	Q.4 أحدثت هذه المؤسسة تأثيرًا كبيرًا على المعاني الشخصية الخاصة بي
سادسًا: أداء العمل الفردي					
تهدف العبارات التالية إلى معرفة أدائك الفردي الملموس تجاه عملك، يرجى توضيح مدى اتفاقك مع كل ما ورد في العبارات التالية.					
5	4	3	2	1	
أوافق بشدة					لا أوافق بشدة
أوافق					لا أوافق
محايد					لا أوافق
أوافق					لا أوافق
أوافق بشدة					لا أوافق بشدة
5	4	3	2	1	R.1 قادر على التخطيط لعملي بحيث يمكنني إنجازه في الوقت المحدد له
إلى أي مدى أنت بارع في أداء المهام الموضوعية أو الفنية التي تعتبر من الأمور الجوهرية في سبيل القيام بتنفيذ وظيفتك؟					C- أداء المهام
لا أوافق بشدة					لا أوافق بشدة
أوافق بشدة					أوافق بشدة

5	4	3	2	1	R.2 أضع في اعتباري نتائج العمل التي أحتاج إلى تحقيقها
5	4	3	2	1	R.3 قادر على تنفيذ عملي بشكل جيد مع بذل الحد الأدنى من الوقت والجهد
5	4	3	2	1	R.4 أخطط لعملي بشكل مثالي
إلى أي مدى يمكنك وصف سلوكك تجاه دعم بيئتك التنظيمية والاجتماعية والنفسية؟					S- الأداء السياقي
أوافق بشدة	أوافق	محايد	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	
5	4	3	2	1	S.1 أحرص على تحديث معلوماتي المرتبطة بمجال عملي
5	4	3	2	1	S.2 أبحث باستمرار عن تحديات جديدة في مجال عملي
5	4	3	2	1	S.3 أتولى مسؤوليات إضافية
5	4	3	2	1	S.4 أبدأ في تنفيذ مهام جديدة بمجرد الانتهاء من تنفيذ المهام القديمة
أي تعليقات إضافية:					
.....					
.....					
.....					
<p>أقدم لك جزيل الشكر على مشاركتك في هذا الدراسة. فقد ساهمت في تقديم كمية كبيرة من المعلومات القيمة لأطروحة الدكتوراه خاصتي.</p> <p>وإذا كنت ترغب في الحصول على نسخة من تقرير الدراسة، يرجى توضيح عنوان البريد الإلكتروني الخاص بك أدناه.</p> <p>البريد الإلكتروني:</p>					

Appendix D: References of measurement tools

Construct	Dimension	Scale	Number of Items
Job Demand	Role Overload	(Bolino & Turnley, 2005)	3 items
	Role Ambiguity	(Rizzo et al., 1970)	4 items
	Work-Life Conflict	(Netemeyer et al., 1996)	4 items
	Job Insecurity	(De Witte, 2000b)	4 Items
Job Resources	Job Autonomy	(Hackman & Oldham., 1975)	3items
	Performance Feedback	(Karasek, 1985)	3 items
	Supervisory Support	(Greenhaus et al., 1990)	4 items
	Opportunity for Growth	(Weng & Hu, 2009a)	4 items
	Financial Rewards	(Van Veldhoven & Meijman, 1994)	3 Items
Personal Resources	Self-Efficacy	Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) by (Luthans, Youssef, et al., 2007)	4items
	Hope		4items
	Optimism		4items
	Resilience		4items
Happiness at Work (HAW)	Job Engagement	(Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003)	6 items
	Job Satisfaction	(Schriesheim & Tsui, 1980)	4 items
	Affective Organization Commitment	(Meyer & Allen, 1990)	4 items
Individual Performance	Task Performance	(Koopmans et al., 2014)	4 items
	Contextual Performance		