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**THE MEDIATING AND MODERATING EFFECTS ON THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB
PERFORMANCE: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND
EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT AS MEDIATOR AND ISLAMIC
CULTURE AS MODERATOR**



**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA
2018**

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CULTURE AS MODERATOR**



**A Thesis submitted to Ghazali Shafie Graduate School of Government
in fulfilment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy
Universiti Utara Malaysia**



Kolej Undang-Undang, Kerajaan dan Pengajian Antarabangsa
(College of Law, Government and International Studies)
Universiti Utara Malaysia

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study is to examine the mediating role of organizational commitment and employees' empowerment as well as the moderating role of Islamic culture on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance of academicians in public universities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The problem arises when the Saudi government restructured the higher education system. As a result, new job requirements lower the level of satisfaction, organisational commitment and decrease the performance of academic staff. Data were collected from five public universities in the Kingdom using a cross-sectional study design. There were 384 respondents selected using cluster random sampling. The study used survey and the questionnaires were personally-administered. Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) was used to test the hypotheses in this study. The findings reveal that job performance depends on the degree of job satisfaction and employees' empowerment. In contrast, the finding does not support the moderating effect of Islamic culture on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among the academicians. The results further show that organization commitment mediates between job satisfaction and job performance among the academicians. Furthermore, external job satisfaction does not have any significant influence on the job performance of the academicians. The results provide important insights to owners-managers, policy-makers and researchers to have a greater understanding on the effects of employee empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment on organization performance. The policy makers of universities should emphasize on employees' empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. It is also important to note that an over-concentration on Islamic culture may result in lower job performance. Policy-makers should encourage academicians to improve their organizational commitment and provide opportunities to the latter since employees' empowerment encourages their job performance. Limitations of the present study and avenues for future research are also being discussed.

Keywords: Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, employees empowerment, Islamic culture, Saudi Arabia

ABSTRAK

Objektif utama kajian ini adalah untuk mengkaji komitmen organisasi sebagai pemboleh ubah pengantara, pemeraksanaan pekerja dan peranan budaya Islam sebagai faktor penyederhana dalam hubungan antara kepuasan kerja terhadap prestasi kerja ahli akademik di universiti awam di Arab Saudi. Masalahnya timbul apabila kerajaan Saudi menyusun semula sistem pendidikan tinggi. Akibatnya, keperluan pekerjaan baru merendahkan tahap kepuasan, komitmen organisasi dan mengurangkan prestasi staf akademik. Data dikumpulkan dari lima universiti awam di negara itu menggunakan rekabentuk kajian keratan rentas. Seramai 384 responden yang dipilih menggunakan pensampelan kelompok rawak. Kajian ini menggunakan soal selidik di mana ia telah diedarkan dan dikumpulkan oleh penyelidik. *Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM)* digunakan untuk menguji hipotesis kajian. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa prestasi kerja bergantung kepada tahap kepuasan kerja dan pemeraksanaan pekerja. Walau bagaimanapun, dapatan kajian tidak menyokong pengaruh faktor penyederhana budaya Islam terhadap hubungan antara kepuasan kerja dengan prestasi pekerjaan di kalangan ahli akademik. Hasil kajian seterusnya menunjukkan bahawa komitmen organisasi telah mengantara kepuasan kerja dan prestasi pekerjaan di kalangan ahli akademik tersebut. Selain itu, kepuasan kerja luaran tidak mendatangkan pengaruh yang signifikan terhadap prestasi pekerjaan di kalangan ahli akademik. Dapatan kajian ini memberikan pandangan penting kepada pemilik-pengurus, pembuat dasar dan penyelidik untuk lebih memahami kesan pemeraksanaan pekerja, kepuasan kerja dan komitmen organisasi terhadap prestasi organisasi. Pembuat dasar universiti harus menekankan pemeraksanaan pekerja, kepuasan kerja dan komitmen organisasi. Walau bagaimanapun, adalah penting untuk diambil perhatian bahawa tumpuan yang lebih tinggi terhadap budaya Islam boleh menyebabkan prestasi kerja menjadi lebih rendah. Pembuat dasar harus menggalakkan ahli akademik untuk meningkatkan komitmen organisasi mereka dan memberi peluang kepada mereka bagi tujuan pemeraksanaan, seterusnya dapat menggalakkan prestasi pekerjaan di kalangan ahli akademik. Akhir sekali, batasan kajian dan peluang untuk penyelidikan masa hadapan turut dibincangkan.

Kata Kunci: Kepuasan kerja, komitmen organisasi, pemeraksanaan pekerja, budaya Islam, Arab Saudi

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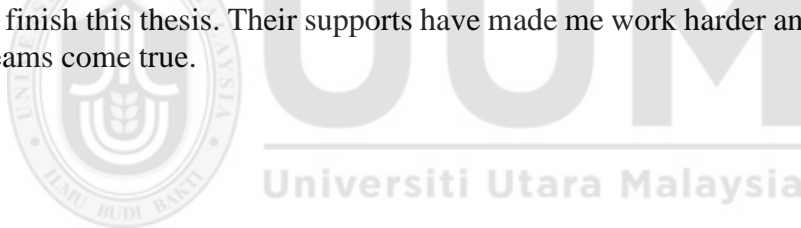


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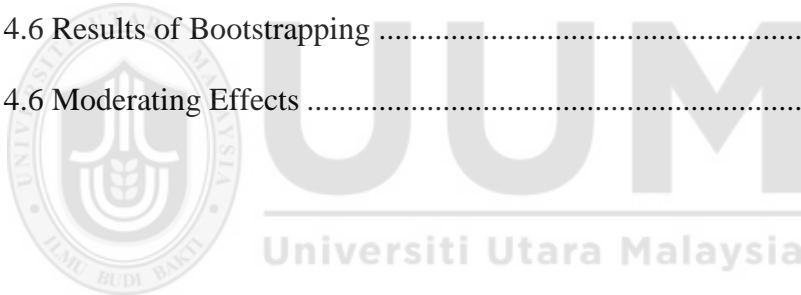
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EMP	Empowerment
ISC	Islamic Culture
JOP	Job Performance
JOS	Job satisfaction
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
ORC	Organizational Commitment
PLS	Partial Least Squares
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background of the Study

The success of an organization is based on the extent to which it achieves its goals. Achieving organizational goals depends on many factors, such as organizational culture, government policies, people in the organization, competitors and the economic situation (Ebert & Griffin, 2011). In line with the current study's perspective, employees' job satisfaction, commitment, empowerment, organizational culture and job performance are deemed to be imperative for the success of any organization.

Employees (the human resources) play a significant role in the success of their organizations through their contribution to the outcomes. Their contribution is positive when they perform well and in accordance with their organizational goals, thus enhancing organizational outcomes. On the other hand, employees' under performance may have negative implications for the organization's capability to achieve organizational goals. According to Robbins and Coulter (2012), organizational performance is linked to employees' performance because it is the potential source of organizational competitive advantage and for devising appropriate organizational strategies.

It is evident that higher education has a significant impact on the economic and social development of a country. Development and progress in education is recognized as

one of the main indicators of a country's overall development. In addition, the higher education sector is the most critical of the educational sectors because it produces knowledge through science and research (Pavan, 2016; Smith & Abouammoh, 2013). Advancements in science and research have had remarkable impacts on a country's development. Accordingly, Saudi Arabia has embarked on a plan, known as AFAAQ. The AFAAQ plan aims to boost human capital resources by providing quality higher education to help the country in economic transformation from a petroleum-based economy to a broader multiple resources-based economy. For this purpose, about 12% of the country's budget has been allocated for the development of the higher education sector (Smith & Abouammoh, 2013).

Several studies (e.g., Tsai, Cheng, & Chang, 2010; Ntisa, 2015; Ibrahim, 2015; Masihabadi, Rajaei, Koloukhi, & Parsian, 2015; Hakim, 2015) have provided substantial literary and empirical evidences regarding the role of the academic staff as an important determinant for achieving a university's goals. Al-Ghamdi and Tight (2013) further emphasized that a university's ability to achieve institutional success primarily relies on the performance and the quality of the academic members. According to them, continually assessing academic members' performance in order to determine their points of strengths and weaknesses is one of the effective ways to achieve institutional goals. In response to continual improvement and development of academicians, the Saudi Ministry of Higher Education (MOH) established the Higher Education Council in 2007.

The objective is to link faculty promotion to performance. Promotion is based on the staff engaging in further studies and research since receiving the last degree over a

four-year period. The aforesaid policy initiative as stated by Al-Ghamdi and Tight (2013) shows a greater emphasis on research rather than teaching and services. Consequently, the academic staff's orientation has shifted from teaching-centred to a research-oriented approach that ultimately leads to their lesser emphasis on teaching as the core component of their job responsibilities. Thus, the system has somehow led to the neglect of teaching performance.

Although there are numerous studies on the performance of academic staff, more attention is however still needed to uncover those aspects underpinned by past studies or that need consideration, especially in the context of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) universities. For instance, Al Ghamdi and Tight (2013) highlighted key indicators that should be looked into as potential determinants of academic staff's achievements in KSA universities to improve the overall quality of higher education. They suggested that the major focus pertaining to faculty performance should be on identifying the professional needs of academic staff, creating a comprehensive performance planning system, reflecting the best practices of teaching and supporting an effective performance evaluation system.

In addition to Al Ghamdi and Tight (2013) recommendations, numerous studies have also pointed out the importance of faculty's attitudinal orientation towards their job as one of the key characteristics that may likely affect their job performance. For instance, organizational commitment and employee empowerment have also been found to be important for the success of an organization. Both factors are related to job satisfaction and job performance.

Although many studies have examined the role of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in job performance, their findings, however, are still inconsistent. While job satisfaction has been found to have a direct impact on organizational commitment (Golghatmi, Saadati, Saadati, & Ghodsi, 2015), organizational commitment has been found to have an insignificant impact on job performance (Tsai, Cheng, & Chang, 2010; Tolentino, 2013). Similarly, organizational commitment and employee empowerment have been found to be intervening factors that are indirectly associated with the satisfaction-performance link (Bashir, Jianqiao, Jun, Ghazanfar, & Khan, 2011; Dekoulou & Trivellas, 2015).

Employee empowerment is considered as one of the main factors that contributes significantly to organizational success. The direct relationship between employee empowerment and job satisfaction and performance and commitment, has been widely tested (Meyerson & Dewettinck, 2012). Empowering employees helps organizations to be flexible, and as a result, the employees can easily make improvements to their performance. Therefore, employee empowerment is associated with organizational and individuals' innovativeness, creativity and effectiveness. The high growth of technology and globalization mandates the employees to be creative and innovative to achieve higher performance. Hence, employees must be empowered and given the discretion to make their own decisions and adjustments so that they can respond appropriately, quickly and effectively to the changing dynamics. In addition, employee empowerment is also recognized as a supportive and motivational tool that facilitates one's performance. This supportive and motivational role can be operationalized by increasing the level of employees' involvement and participation in the working context (Meyerson & Dewettinck, 2012).

Organizational culture refers to “the values, assumptions and shared expectations between members of an organization” (Schein, 2004). This is because it has an impact on employees’ goal-setting, how they perform tasks and how they employ the available resources (Hakim, 2015). Hence, organizational systems and processes are largely affected by the beliefs, norms and values shared by the employees across the organization. Subsequently, employees’ culture is manifested by the way they approach their job responsibilities, how they behave and perform their respective jobs.

Thus, organizational culture is assumed to be linked to performance and organizational outcomes. In the literature, organizational culture has been found to be related significantly to job performance, because it encompasses several job and organizational facets that are likely to affect organizational performance. These factors include creativity, good communication, innovation and work flexibility. Organizational leaders are now seeking improvement and success by creating a culture that fosters productivity that can lead to success (Schein, 2004). Therefore, it is imperative to unfold the role of organizational culture as a significant factor for achieving higher performance (Cameron & Quinn, 2006), especially in KSA’s university context.

1.1. Higher Education in Saudi Arabia

The higher education sector faces obstacles and challenges all over the world. These obstacles and challenges revolve around financial resources, development of academic staff and program quality. Smith and Abouammoh (2013) argued that to overcome the difficulties in higher education, effort and involvement of the authorities and individuals should gradually and continually be increased.

Keeping in view the importance of higher education for the socio-economic development of a country, public expenditure on higher education in KSA was increased from 31,720 Million SAR in 2009 to 80,000 Million SAR in 2013, equivalent to 8.6% of the total public expenditure and constituting about 2.9% of the country's gross domestic product (GDP). This represents one of the highest education sector expenditure amongst many countries. The number of universities increased from 20 universities in 2005 to 34 universities in 2013, as shown in Figure 1.1. Table 1.1 shows the distribution of the universities across the main administrative areas of KSA, Riyadh and eastern area, have a higher number of universities, 13 and seven, respectively (Ministry of Higher Education, 2014).

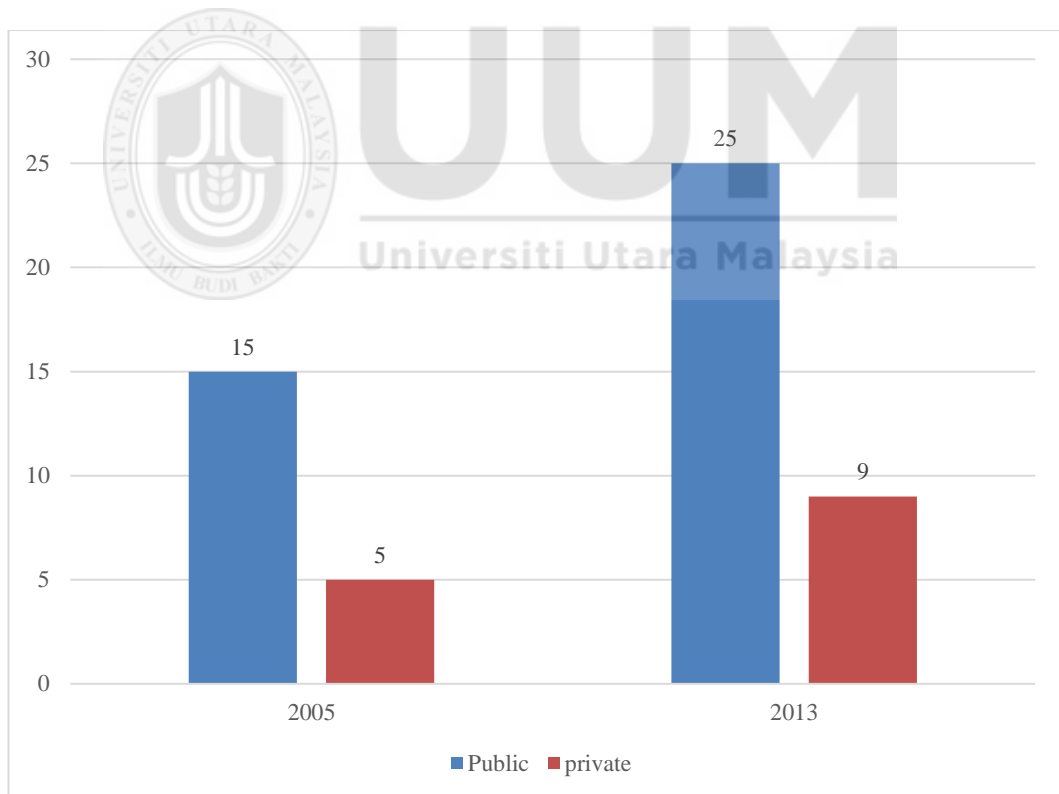


Figure 1.1 Number of Universities in KSA

Table 1.1

KSA Universities according to States

Administrative Area	Universities		
	Public	Private	Total
Riyadh	8	5	13
Makkah	4	2	6
Madinah	2	-	2
Eastern Area	6	1	7
Asir	1	-	1
Jazan	1	-	1
Qassim	1	-	1
Najran	1	-	1
Al-Baha	1	-	1
Tabuk	1	1	2
Hail	1	-	1
Northern Borders	1	-	1
Al-Jouf	1	-	1
Total	29	9	38

Based on the increase in the number of universities, the total number of colleges also increased during the period. Table 1.2 shows that the total number of public colleges increased from 311 in 2005 to 524 in 2013, while the total number of private colleges increased from 16 in 2005 to 68 in 2013. This indicates that the increase in the number of higher education institutions in KSA is mainly public sector institutions (Ministry of Higher Education, 2014; Smith & Abouammoh, 2013).

Table 1.2

Total Number of Colleges in KSA

College	2005	2013
Public colleges	311	524
Private colleges	16	68
Total	327	592

Following the significant increase in the number of higher education institutions, students' enrolment in the universities and colleges has also increased. As shown in Table 1.3, both male and female students significantly increased between 2008 and 2012. The number of students in 2008 was 272,854, increasing to 443,179 in 2012 (Ministry of Higher Education, 2014). The percentage of enrolment was higher for male students during the highlighted period.

Table 1.3

Distribution of Freshmen by Gender (2008-2013)

Year	Male		Female	
2008	142,444	52.20%	130,410	47.80%
2009	164,787	55.40%	132,845	44.60%
2010	185,166	56.30%	143,734	43.70%
2011	206,202	56.30%	160,014	43.70%
2012	245,850	55.50%	197,329	44.50%

The increase also applies to the number of academicians in higher education. The number of Professors in Saudi higher education institutions is 3,434, Associate

Professors, 6,611, Assistant Professors, 17,535, Lecturers, 20,185 and Teaching Fellows, 16,688. Therefore, this study examines and investigates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance in the higher education institutions in KSA. The study used intervening variables of organizational commitment and employee empowerment to get deeper results that can interpret the relationships.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Saudi Arabia has implemented the AFAAQ plan. The main constituent of the plan is to support the higher education system to drive the economic transition from an oil-dependent economy to a broader manufacturing economy (Smith & Abouammoh, 2013). The AFAAQ plan has seen significant growth since its reform initiatives undertaken by the Saudi Arabian higher education sector. The number of universities has increased from 20 in 2005 to 34 in 2013. As a result, student enrolment in universities has also increased. Consequently, the teaching load has significantly increased, in turn, leaving the faculty with less time to engage in quality teaching and research practices (Smith & Abouammoh, 2013). In addition, the aforesaid reform initiatives have put a lot of pressure on academicians to deliver quality teaching services to the students. The ultimate objective of subsequent reform initiatives is to produce relatively knowledgeable and skilled graduates so that they can make positive changes in society and help in developing an innovative and competitive nation (Issa & Siddiek, 2012). In other words, the faculty must deliver quality services and superior performance according to the statutory requirements of the contemporary initiatives and practices (Pavan, 2016; Smith & Abouammoh, 2013).

However, the teaching and research output still lags far behind the benchmarks set by the government for higher education. Low or poor quality teaching and research output is leading to performance discrepancies (Smith & Abouammoh, 2013). Because there is a paucity of research and lack of substantial empirical support in past studies pertaining in context of universities. Therefore, there is a dire need to uncover those aspects that are directly or indirectly associated with faculty job performance. Issa and Siddiek (2012) and Pavan (2016) also recommended and emphasized studying the factors affecting the performance of academicians in the context of higher education in the Arab world, especially in KSA.

For years now, scholars and practitioners have indicated that satisfaction leads to job performance, while dissatisfaction hampers one's motivational drive to perform better. However, past studies examining the satisfaction-performance relationship have indicated certain anomalies in their findings (Davar & RanjuBala, 2012). Inconsistencies and discrepancies have also been reported in results while using the same theoretical approach. For instance, Kalkavan and Katrinli (2014) reported an insignificant association between job satisfaction and performance in the managerial coaching behaviour context. Dekoulou and Trivellas (2015) found a significantly positive connection between one's satisfaction and performance. Moreover, discrepancies have not only been observed in terms of significance or insignificance between the satisfaction-performance link; it has also been found in direct and indirect associations between the aforementioned link. For example, Olusola (2011) and Shalaby (2015) found a directly positive influence of job satisfaction on job performance. However, Tsai et al. (2010) and Riyadi (2015) indicated that the positive impact of job satisfaction on job performance is intervened by another variable.

Accordingly, job satisfaction has an indirectly positive effect on job performance via an intervening factor. In line with the highlighted inconsistencies, it is imperative to adequately address this issue as to whether or not the subsequent relationship is significant and direct or the indirect path to job performance is significant.

Likewise, organizational commitment and empowerment have been identified as important factors that contribute to organizational success. Both factors have also been found to be related to job satisfaction and job performance. Several studies have been conducted to unveil the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment and these studies have found a significantly positive connection between both (e.g., Aydogdu & Asikgil, 2011; Gebremichael & Rao, 2013; Top & Gider, 2013). However, the strength and significance of the relationship varies across the dimensions of organizational commitment and study contexts. Likewise, numerous studies have attempted to examine the role of organizational commitment in influencing one's job performance (e.g., Akhtar, Hassan, & Ahmad, 2015; Folorunso, Adewale, & Abodunde, 2014; Memari, Mahdih, & Marnani, 2013; Tsai, Cheng, & Chang, 2010; Tolentino, 2013; Xuan, Ismail, Rasid, & Kowang, 2014). However, like the satisfaction-performance relationship, findings on the commitment-performance link have also been found to be inconsistent. For instance, some studies have reported insignificant results of the organizational commitment-job performance relationship (e.g., Tsai, Cheng, & Chang, 2010; Tolentino, 2013). On the other hand, some other studies have also shown a significantly positive association between organizational commitment and job performance (e.g., Akhtar et al., 2015; Folorunso et al., 2014; Long et al., 2014; Memari et al., 2013). Therefore, more research is needed to reveal the underlying relationship pattern between organizational commitment and job

performance. Moreover, the study also assumes that satisfaction-performance relationship may be better mediated by organizational commitment.

In pursuit of better performance, empowerment has also been found to be a key indicator that is strongly related to one's job performance. Several studies have demonstrated this relationship and identified empowerment as a strong predictor of job performance (e.g., Degago, 2014; Indradevi, 2012; Kimolo, 2013; Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2009). Moreover, past studies have also found a significant relationship between one's empowerment and the level of job satisfaction (e.g., Chang, Shih, & Lin, 2010; Raza, Mahmood, Owais, & Raza, 2015; Wadhwa & Verghese, 2015). However, very few studies have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and empowerment (e.g., Abidi & Chegini, 2013). Therefore, there is an avenue to unveil this aspect, especially in the current study's empirical and contextual setting, i.e., how individuals' positive attitude towards their job can induce and regulate the perceived level of their intrinsic task motivation manifested in the form of job empowerment. The study aims to incorporate and assess empowerment as an intervening variable to the subsequent satisfaction-performance association.

Organizational culture is linked to the level of employees' performance. It has been verified by previous studies that organizational culture positively and significantly affects performance (Hakim, 2015). In the Middle East region, there is an emerging concern to define Islamic management concepts, Islamic management styles and Islamic work ethics (Hills & Atkins, 2013; Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2007; Kumar & Che Rose, 2010). Moreover, culture in Islamic countries (including the Middle East region) in most cases is linked to work ethics and values that are observed and drawn from

Islamic principles and ideology. According to Murtaza et al. (2016), many studies have viewed the Islamic values, beliefs and principles from the perspective of their influence on workplace performance of Muslim employees. From the perspective of organizational culture, Islam provides a way of life that is embedded in ethics and it guides its groups in all scopes of life (Murtaza et al., 2016).

The Islamic culture in the KSA higher education sector is influenced by the local culture and by attempts to import western management and education style. This is obvious in the top Saudi universities, such as King Abdullah University and King Fahad University. However, it remains to be understood whether KSA actually anticipates importing Western education style, especially when considering the significant differences in the context of education from the Islamic culture and Western culture aspects (Pavan, 2016). Higher education is a subject of national sovereignty of the Saudis without intervention from outsider countries. Therefore, there is concern that globalization and exposure to different cultures might compromise Saudi's Islamic culture, traditions and beliefs that are impacted by the local culture. Many studies have used organizational culture as a moderating variable that affects the performance of the employees (Alharbi & Yusoff, 2012). Therefore, it is important to study the effect of the Islamic culture on the performance of the academic staff in the universities. Specifically, the study aims to uncover the influence of Islamic culture as a moderator in the relationship between job satisfaction and performance.

1.4 Research Questions

The questions related to the purpose of this study are as follows:

- i. Is there any relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among academic staff working in KSA universities?
- ii. Does organizational commitment mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among academic staff working in KSA universities?
- iii. Does employee empowerment mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among academic staff working in KSA universities?
- iv. Does Islamic culture have any effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among academic staff working in KSA universities?

1.5 Objectives of the Research

The objectives of this study are:

1. To examine the impact of job satisfaction on job performance among the academicians working in KSA universities.
2. To examine the intervening role of organizational commitment in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among the academicians working in KSA universities.
3. To examine the intervening role of employee empowerment in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among the academicians working in KSA universities.

4. To examine the moderating role of Islamic culture on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among academic staff working in KSA universities.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is important because it is concerned with the higher education sector, i.e., the sector that plays an important role in the development of a country. In addition, this study provides insights into the relationship between academicians' job satisfaction and job performance, mediated by organizational commitment and employee empowerment and moderated by the influence of Islamic culture in the university context. Drawing from past literature, there is still a gap existing in terms of conceptual and contextual implications of job performance, especially in the university setting. Therefore, it is imperative to develop a conceptually sound framework to empirically examine the issues highlighted in the study.

Examining the link between job satisfaction and job performance via intervening and interaction path in KSA's university context, especially connecting it to deeply rooted cultural dynamics, has led to significant findings of the study. The study contributes significantly to the existing body of knowledge on job performance by providing diverse insights into and by developing greater understanding of the stated issues. Moreover, the current study clarifies the contradictions and inconsistencies associated with the satisfaction-performance link. The study identifies those specific satisfaction-related attributes that have the potential to directly and/or indirectly influence job performance.

In addition, the study provides implications for government officials and university representatives to consider these critical aspects before making any policy decisions as it may likely induce or impede the level of job performance among academicians. Several studies have attempted to examine the satisfaction-performance link; however, very little attention and effort have been given to developing countries, especially KSA. Therefore, there is a dire need to unveil the faculty's underpinning attitudinal patterns in relation to their job performance. The current study unfolds the faculty staff's orientation to their job under the aforementioned hypothetical setting.

1.7 Scope of the Study

The scope of this study includes the theoretical and empirical studies that have been done on job satisfaction and job performance. It also identifies and discusses the missing link between the proposed relationship with respect to the empirical and contextual settings, given that job satisfaction comprises several factors, such as salary, job security, interpersonal relationships, leadership, organizational culture, company policies, conditions of employment, worker autonomy and possibility of growth, development and promotion and job content. The study also includes the mediating role of organizational commitment and employee empowerment along with its subsequent dimensions. The study also examines the moderating role of Islamic culture in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance

In addition, the study was carried out in universities located in 13 areas of KSA. All academic staff from different academic ranks (professors, associate professors and lecturers) who work at the identified universities were the participants of the study. A quantitative cross-sectional research design was employed to achieve the study's

objectives, whereby the self-administered questionnaire was the main tool for data collection. Each sampled university was the unit of analysis for the study. In sum, the study examined the moderating and mediating relationship of Islamic culture, organizational commitment and employees' empowerment in relation to job satisfaction and job performance.

1.8 Definitions of the Terms

The following section provides operational definitions in the context of current study with the help of standardised definition given by the previous literature.

Job satisfaction “it is likeable or positive sensitive situations after person evaluates his work and work experiences” (Locke, 1976). In the current research context, it is positive situation after academicians working at KSA universities evaluate their work and work experience. This feeling represent their liking or disliking their job or aspect of jobs.

Job performance is defined “as behaviours or actions that are relevant to the goals of the organization” (as cited in Koopman et al., 2012). In context of the current research, job performance is their teaching, research and overall actions to achieve their individual and overall goals of the organization.

Organizational commitment is “a psychological state that characterizes an employee's involvement with the organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in that organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In current research, it refers to the state of academicians when they feel involved in their universities and have wish

to work for the organisation. It is the willing of academicians in KSA universities to work for their universities.

Employee empowerment is defined as “the extent to which employees are encouraged to make decisions on their own and how they will handle an issue (Spreitzer & Doneson 2005). The employee empowerment refers to the empowerment given to the academicians to make their independent decision about the teaching, research and other related matters by their own.

Islamic Culture is “any value, thought and symbol based on Islamic norms which influence behaviour, attitude, faith and the habit of someone in a certain walks of life” (Sumarman, 2003 as cited in Hakim, 2012). In context of academicians, the Islamic culture is set of good values, norms, principles, attitude, faith, habits and behaviour of academicians in their daily work life. Islamic culture provides the way of dealing the work related matters in an Islamic way for example good gestures and honesty in work life.

1.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents the background of the study and the problem statement based on the theoretical and empirical literature review on job satisfaction, job performance, organizational commitment and employee empowerment, to identify the gaps. Then, research questions are drawn from the contents of the problem statement. Objectives of the study are presented in line with the research questions. This is followed by the scope of the study in accordance with its conceptual and contextual framework. Finally, in the last sections, presents the summary of overall chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews and explains the definitions and theoretical base of the conceptual framework of this study. The chapter involves developing the hypotheses of the study, including all relationships to be tested to achieve the objectives of the study listed in chapter one. The chapter starts by reviewing the direct relationships, which are job satisfaction and job performance. The next sections consist of reviewing the mediated topics, which are organizational commitment and employee empowerment. In the final sections, the related hypotheses are developed.

2.1 Historical Perspective of Education in Saudi Arabia

When Saudi Arabia was founded in 1932, education was very limited and there were only a few institutions which were providing educational facilities in the country. These institutions were also not easily reachable to all because of the lack of basic facilities, like place and teachers in these institutions. In addition, education was only available in schools which were based in urban mosques, teaching Islamic Law and basic literacy (Encyclopaedia of Education in Saudi Arabia, 2003).

At that time, the living conditions were very difficult, and so, most children were expected to contribute to their family income from a young age, by tending animals

and performing domestic labour (Gaad, 2011). Many public and special schools were started in the country after taking advantage of the growing wealth that happened with the development of oil fields in Saudi Arabia (Al-Musa, 1999).

With the passage of time, Saudi Arabia has now a national free education system for all the citizens across the country from primary level to university level with a focus on fundamental studies of Islam and various areas of modern and traditional arts and sciences. To develop and growth the country, this modern educational system intends to build highly educated citizens that that a developing country will need. In 1927, the first formal authority, "The Council of Education", was established to be responsible for education in Saudi Arabia. This was prior to the formal establishment of Saudi Arabia as an independent 26th state, but it remained until the establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1953.

In 1963, the implementation of education policies in Saudi Arabia became the basic obligation of the Supreme Committee under King Saud. This committee included the following ministers: Ministers of Education, Defence, Labour, Information, Interior and Social Affairs and the General Presidency for Girl's Education (Encyclopaedia of Education in Saudi Arabia, 2003). Furthermore, there were some educational discussions held between Saudi Arabia, Jordan and Egypt, through which teachers and educational specialists of these countries were employed in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the primary policy of education in Saudi Arabia has been deeply influenced by these two countries (Al-Muslat, 1984).

The terms and implementation of state policy on education is the main obligation of three main executive powers and authorities, namely, The Ministry of Education, the General Presidency for Girl's Education and the Ministry of Higher Education. Firstly, the Ministry of Education was especially responsible for formulating education policies for the state and curriculum for boy's education in primary and secondary schools. Secondly, the General Presidency for Girl's Education was responsible for girl's education at all levels as well as the pre-school and college levels. All these responsibilities were approved by the Ministry of Education since 2002. In 1975, the Ministry of Higher Education was established. It was responsible for carrying out and coordinating higher education departments and the executive secretariat of universities (Al-Senble et al., 1998). The Ministry of Education is the most related and important to this research of the ministries mentioned above because it is responsible for the state policy for education, including primary general schools.

In Saudi Arabia, the separation of educational responsibility for boys and girls schools is only because of the cultural viewpoint regarding the division of male and female schools. It is also true of higher education where there is a special department for females. This kind of educational grouping can be found in many Arab countries, especially the Gulf States. In some countries, like Algeria, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan and Syria, this kind of separation is not present due to the mixed schools policy of education in these countries (Al-Asmari, 2013).

Public and private bodies play an important role in the Saudi Arabian education system. Other public authorities, such as the Ministries of Defense, Health and Petroleum along with the General Presidency of Technical Education and Vocational

Training, have a role to play in the education system. This role includes financial assistance, health care, safety and training of individuals to participate in the activities within schools (Al-Musa, 1999). This is very important because schools obtain financial assistance and care from these authorities and they provide employment to students after they graduate. There is also a private sector which grants education for around 12% of the student body in Saudi Arabia (MOE, 2013).

The education system is classified by different levels in Saudi Arabia, which is described below. All Saudi government schools provide free gender-segregated education and all the schools are day schools (Al-Muslat, 1984; Al-Senble et al., 1998).

a) Kindergarten - this is the introductory level, where for one or two years in private/state kindergartens, children can experience school life through educational and social activities before they attend primary school. This level of education is optional for parents and they can choose whether or not they wish their child to join before primary school.

b) Primary level – Pupils are accepted into primary schools at the age of six and complete their education after six years, on condition that they pass all subjects each semester in each year. Having achieved the required standard in the sixth year of this level, pupils are awarded a “Primary School Certificate”, enabling acceptance to the intermediate stage of learning.

c) Intermediate stage – Pupils complete this level in three years with those who pass exams receiving the “Middle Efficiency Certificate” to transfer to secondary school.

d) Secondary stage – Pupils are provided with different branches of study assigned by specialist institutions for a duration of three years that includes scientific institutions (covering subjects, such as Mathematics, English and Chemistry), Dar-Attawheed (Islamic studies), professional institutions (dedicated to agriculture, industry and commerce) and schools teaching the holy Qur'an. Students are guided and prepared with the aim of ensuring the availability of a range of specializations required for national development (Al-Senble et al., 1998). Students who pass this exam receive a certificate upon completion.

e) Tertiary Stage –Universities in Saudi Arabia provide free education in various fields. The students have general knowledge about these different subjects, when they apply in the universities. The students select one to specialize in, for example, humanities, religion and physical, social and applied sciences.

The above describes the various levels of schooling, which are similar to those in a number of other Arab countries, including Egypt, Jordan, Iraq and Gulf State countries. The social perspective in terms of family life, traditions and customs in Saudi Arabia, influences the different forms of education. Besides Science, English and Maths subjects at all levels of schooling, Arabic, Islamic studies and the History of Saudi Arabia is also taught. Although Saudi society is socially divided into wealthy, middle class and poorer citizens, education is free and available for everyone in Saudi Arabia. Some attend private or international schools; however, if they choose to go to state schools, they are exempted from religious studies.

2.2 Higher Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

The first efforts to educate Saudi Arabian citizens in higher education commenced when the government sent 14 scholarship students, in various disciplines to Egypt in 1927 (Alaqael, 2005). The actual beginning of higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia was almost 20 years later when the College of Sharia in Makkah was established in 1949 (Ministry of Higher Education, 2013b); now it is a part of Umm Al-Qura University. Since then, the establishment of many colleges continued in Saudi Arabia until the first public university was established in 1957, which was the King Saud University in Riyadh. King Saud University was founded with only a College of Arts, though it was later followed by the College of Sciences (Alaqael, 2005). These small colleges were later incorporated into public universities. Private universities did not begin in Saudi Arabia until the Dar Al-Hekma University was founded in 1999 (Ministry of Education, 2016).

Saudi public universities fall under two categories, either established universities (or the early original universities) and the emerging universities, which are all newer institutions. There are seven established universities which started with the King Saud University in 1957, followed by the six public universities, King Faisal University 1974 is the latest one. The newer, emerging universities now total 22 universities and is still growing. These began with the establishment of King Khalid University in 1998 and the most recent is Jeddah University in 2014 (Ministry of Education, 2015).

The Ministry of Higher Education in Saudi Arabia was founded in 1975 based on Islamic Law, with the responsibility for implementing Saudi governmental policies in higher education. However, in 2015, the Ministry of Higher Education was integrated

with the Ministry of Education into a single ministry, with the name of the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 2016). Within the Ministry of Education, there exists the conventional hierarchy of the government. This hierarchy, under which the entire higher education system is based, derives its authority from the King and the Council of Ministers, as do all other official organizations in the Kingdom that deal with matters that serve the population. Similar to how it runs other ministries, the Saudi government is responsible for funding, strategic planning and top-level decisions regarding policies for the Ministry of Education. The government almost exclusively separates men and women in the area of higher education; this is accomplished mostly by continuing the tradition of gender-specific (all-male, all-female) higher education, which constitutes the mainstream higher education institutions. Despite the fact that gender segregation is maintained, ample educational opportunities are open to women today. Most students enrol in universities after high school, especially female students, because education is free of charge without any discrimination for both genders; it is also an acceptable path to prepare for careers in education, the medical field and the business world. Women comprise the majority of the university student population (Ministry of Education, 2016). Saudi higher education depends on the generous funding and support from the Saudi Arabian government. Higher education funding increased by 155.9 percent during the period from 2009 to 2013, with expenditures of more than \$8 million in 2009. This funding continued to increase significantly until higher education spending reached \$21 million in 2013 (Ministry of Higher Education, 2013a). Spending on higher education represents 8.6 percent of the total Saudi government funding. Alongside the government subsidy, Saudi universities depend on numerous self-financing sources, such as university endowments, university

enterprises, research chairs and paid programs, as well as the standard grants and donations.

Saudi universities have spread dramatically across the Saudi Kingdom during the past 10 years. This era, from 2005 to 2015, mirrors the reign of King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz, and it is considered the “golden age” of higher education due to its unprecedented expansion. Under King Abdullah’s rule, higher education witnessed not only tremendous strides in terms of the number of opportunities for higher education, but also in terms of the quality. For instance, the number of public and private universities increased by 70 percent, burgeoning from eight to more than 40 universities (Alayear, 2015).

Among the most remarkable developments in Saudi higher education is the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP), which began in 2005 to support studies in various scientific and theoretical disciplines. KASP is considered as the leading program of scholarships in the history of Saudi Arabia (Saudi Arabia Clutter Mission, 2013). Initially, KASP sponsored approximately 9,000 Saudi students to study abroad. The number of scholarships increased significantly to 140,000 Saudi students in only six years (Zeigler, 2012). The trend continued, as 2014 saw an additional 32 percent, reaching its peak at 185,000 (Ministry of Finance, 2015). This trend represents a 20-fold increase within eight years, a significance that cannot be overstated.

2.3 Saudi Higher Education and World-Class University System

KSA is keen to go beyond building a single world-class institution (Altbach & Bal’an, 2007). University ranking is an important factor that determines the development of

higher education and the performance of higher education institutions (HEIs) (Tan & Goh, 2014). University ranking allows the higher ranked universities and institutions to be recognized internationally. Saudi organizations of higher education do have a few open doors that could help them to set up and maintain powerful assessment frameworks. These include the Service of Advanced education support. Strict evaluation program for employees recruitment and aligning the hiring stagey to meet the accreditation criteria, there is need of advisors with worldwide aptitude and experience; the presence of improved deanships (i.e., senior members with obligation regarding developing staff abilities) in numerous Saudi colleges; a general status for advancement and change; the accessibility of base and data innovation that encourage assessment; and the presence of impetuses and grants for brilliance, can be linked to the consequences of assessments (Al-Ghamdi et al., 2010).

2.4 Academic Staff Compensation in KSA Universities

Legitimately led personnel assessment provides a sound and objective premise for basic regulatory choices concerning maintenance, advancement and remuneration for effective execution. Employees in Saudi universities are among the few remaining representatives whose pay increase is based on the number of years of work, not performance. As an outcome, this technique under-acknowledges the more gifted individuals for their expert endeavours and accomplishments (Al-Ghamdi et al., 2010).

Very much composed advancement frameworks guarantee the thought of employees' scholarly quality, draw in qualified individuals and energize scholastic perfection. Devising pay rates just in light of years of business demoralizes coordinated effort and different practices that enhance the nature of teaching, research and administration to

the group and the foundation (Fite, 2006). Annual compensation increments ought to be an immediate impression of efficiency, as this is prone to spur employees to enhance their execution (Mazi & Altbach, 2013)

2.5 Job Performance

Job performance refers to the tasks that employees are required to perform and are remunerated for. There are many definitions of job performance. Each of these definitions indicates attitude (Ntisa, 2015). Performance is defined as the extent to which an individual fulfils the job requirements well (Gathungu & Wachira, 2013), and how their behaviour impacts positively or negatively, on organizational goals achievement. Campbell, (1990) distinguished employee performance and organizational performance in that employee performance is at the individual level. This leads to differentiation between performance outcome aspects and employees' behavioural performance aspects. The behavioural aspect is what individuals do in their workplace that is related to achieving organizational goals. On the other hand, outcome aspects are the consequences of individuals' behaviour (Campbell, 1990) that is further divided into two sub-dimensions of performance, namely task performance and contextual performance.

Researchers have identified and investigated several performance measurements factors that foresee the task performance. Several studies have been done on the effect of performance appraisal methods and task types on task performance effectiveness (Jamil & Raja, 2011; Orpen, 1997; Rahman & Shah, 2012; Swiercz, Bryan, Eagle, Bizzotto, & Renn, 2012). Similarly, numerous studies have been conducted on the effect of workload on task performance (Shah, Raza, Aziz, Ejaz, Jaffari, Ul-Haq, &

2011). Some have assessed the effects of promotion and compensation on task performance (Jamil & Raja, 2011). Likewise, some studies have investigated the effects of physical environment on job performance (Vischer, 2007). On the other hand, in line with contextual performance, studies have categorized job performance into three key predictors: individual, organizational and task-related. Due to the significance of contextual performance on effective functioning of organizations, several studies have been conducted to examine its antecedents so that organizations can take relevant measures to enhance job performance of employees.

In general, three groups of empirical inquiries can be identified. Some have considered the personal factors that may contribute to job performance, such as personality (Comeau & Griffith, 2005; Ahmadi, 2010; Ariani, 2010); values (Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994; Moorman & Blakely, 1995); and ethics (Turnipseed, 2002); while others have looked at the work-related factors, such as job standardization (Chen et al., 2009); and feedback (Peng & Chiu, 2010). Organizational variables have also been examined for their effect on job performance, such as organizational climate (Turnipseed, 1996; Garg & Rastogi, 2006; Dimitriades, 2007); and human resource policies (Paré & Tremblay, 2007; Williams, Rondeau, & Francescutti, 2007). Moreover, job performance has also opened doors for researchers to study its effects on different conditions (Shekrkon, 2001). According to Motowidlo (2003), performance is the sum of expectations of an organization from its employees. Job performance is behaviour exercised by a person in performing his or her job or how competent he or she has become after a due course of training or service (Rashidpoor, 2000). Babu et al. (1997) argued that job performance is measured according to work officially assigned to a person and the amount of effort he or she exerts to accomplish

a task. Thus, it can be termed as the skill of an individual in performing his or her tasks as required.

Task performance and dispositional performance are the two job performances categorized by organizational theorists. Task performance is characterized by tasks of every individual that are directly related to all duties that the person is responsible for, like monitoring attendance of employees. Proper understanding of these phenomena is crucial. All other performances are dispositional which facilitate organizations and social networks to survive (Kwong, 2003). Matavidlo (2003) differentiated between task performance and dispositional performance. According to him, it begins with parts that are pre-defined in formal job description followed by the behavioural effects according to psychological, sociological and organizational aspects. Two aspects of job performance can be observed: job creativity and job role. Role performance is a behaviour linked to job description, while, innovative performance comprises innovative solutions of prospective job problems (Lee et al., 2010).

2.5.1 Multidimensional Concept of Job Performance

Job performance has been perceived as a unidimensional idea by previous researchers (Behrman & Perreault, 1982; Pearce & Porter, 1986). With the passage of time, academicians have noted that the construct is multidimensional (Rotundo & Sacket, 2002; Sacket, 2002; Viswesvaran & One, 2000, Grenslade & Jmmieson, 2007). Murphy (1990) clarified “job performance” as a multi-dimensional construct. According to Murphy (1990), task performance and downtime destructive, and interpersonal behaviours collectively form the construct of job performance. He further clarified that downtime behaviours include absence and tardiness. Task

performance focuses on the performance of the prescribed roles. Inter-personal behaviours refer to helping others in teams and pro-social behaviours. Last but not the least, destructive behaviours are manifested by aggression on the job, theft and other deviant workplace behaviours.

Researchers, for instance, Rotundo and Sackett (2002), have suggested that there are three performance domains: “organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), task performance and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB)”. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) categorized behaviour into task performance and contextual performance. They argued that contextual performance conceptually differs from task performance. Katz and Khan (1978) noted that task performance is role-prescribed but contextual performance is generally more discretionary. Contextual performance is also known as organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), which is conceptualized as contributing to organizational efficiency through developments in the unity of the work groups, organizational environment and the general organizational experiences of others (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Several researchers have revealed that both the contextual performance and task performance can be considered when the managers assess an employee’s job performance (e.g., Borman et al., 1995; Mackenzie, Prodsakoff, & Fetter, 1991; Werner, 1994). Consequently, on the basis of earlier studies, it can be argued confidently that job performance mainly constitutes contextual and task performance (Orr, Sackett, & Mercer, 1989; Mackenzie et al., 1991; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Ferris, Hochwarter, & Witt, 2001; Bott, Svyantek, Goodman, & Bernal, 2003; Carmeli & Josman, 2006). In addition to this, Bell and Menguc (2002) argued that literature on

job performance came up with the behaviours that depends on tasks only, these do not include the behaviours employee side and only representatives of consumers' desired outcomes. Employees are in fact involved in many discretionary behaviours.

Hence, based on Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) performance conception, the current study on job performance is classified into two aspects: contextual performance and task performance, as explained below.

2.5.2 Task Performance

There are several definitions of task performance in the literature on job performance. Scotter, Motowidlo, and Cross (2000) referred to task performance as a pattern of behaviours that are directly involved in the production of products and services, or activities that offer direct support for the organization's core technical processes, and includes behaviours related to job roles of the employees (Coleman & Borman, 2000). Researchers have described task performance as an important predictor of an individual's job performance (Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Schaufeli, Henrica, & Beek, 2011). In job performance literature, there are number of definitions of task performance. All these definitions refer to critical behaviours in the performance of activities prescribed by the jobs. These tasks comprise goal-oriented assessment practices (Campbell & Campbell, 1988). It is also known as role performance. It focuses on behaviours that contribute to the organization's core technical competencies (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Guidice & Mero, 2012), and activities which ultimately help in the accomplishment of organizational objectives (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Task performance is applicable to every job (Demerouti,

Xanthopoulou, Tsaousis & Bakker, 2014). It shows that task performance is necessary to fulfil the jobs requirements (Jawahar & Ferris, 2011; Mohamed & Anisa, 2013).

According to Muindi and Obonyo (2015), the following points may be considered when differentiating between task performance and contextual performance:

- i. Task performance activities differ between the different jobs while contextual performance activities are the same between the different jobs.
- ii. Task performance is affected by the individual's ability while contextual performance is affected by the individual's personality and motivation.
- iii. Task performance is a set of in-role behaviours, while contextual performance is related to extra-role behaviours.

Task performance includes expertise by which administrative staff perform their duties as per officially accepted manners. Furthermore, these are the activities that have an influence on organizational performance directly or indirectly (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

Researchers have investigated several situational factors that predict task performance. Some studies have been conducted to explore the role of Human Resource (HR) practices on performance (Stumpf, Doh & Tymon, 2010). Several others have examined the effect of multiple tasks on task performance (Buchle, Hoyer, & Cerella 2008; Mutter, Naylor, & Patterson, 2005). Similarly, a few studies have demonstrated the effect of goal-setting (Copeland & Hughes, 2002); and leadership style (Baruah &

Barthakur, 2012; Dunegan, Uhl-Bien, & Duchon, 2002; Jung & Avolio, 1999; Shadare & Ayo, 2009) on task performance.

Campbell (1990) developed a job performance model that includes eight factors. The eight factors are conceptualized into two categories: task-related factors and contextual factors. From the eight factors related to task performance are task proficiency, communication (both written and oral), supervision (if the employee has supervisory or leadership role). The rest of the factors are termed as contextual factors, i.e., maintaining personal discipline, demonstrating effort and facilitating peer and team performance. In addition, there are other contextual performance behavioural factors, like altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy and conscientiousness, all under OCB (Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Van Buuren, Van Der Beek, & Vet De, 2012; Muindi & Obonyo, 2015).

Cambell (1990) also distinguished between task-related performance and contextual performance. Cambell (1990) further described task performance as an individual's proficiency and activities that contribute to the organization's technical aspects; while contextual performance is related to the activities that have no contribution to the organization's technical core but supports the achievement of organizational goals by contributing to the organization's psychological and social environments (Muindi & Obonyo, 2015). The issues of how organizational context affects employees' behaviours are important when discussing employee performance. The effect of employees' behaviour on performance from the organizational context perspective is an important theoretical view (Ntisa, 2015).

According to Chu and Lai (2011), job performance is “behavioural, measurable, incidental and multifaceted, and is a sum of irregular events which the employees do in a normal time period in an organization”. Job performance is related to the levels of productivity of a person’s job-related-activities (Shooshtarian et al., 2013; Zaman et al., 2014). It evaluates an individual’s performance against his or her objectives to discover whether or not the results match desired objectives (Yang & Hwang, 2014). In job performance, accomplishment of social and business objectives and responsibilities are judged and measured by other parties (Chen & Silverthorne, 2008). According to Tseng and Huang (2011), job performance can be measured by means of several aspects, for instance, job quality, training efficiency, productivity, work outcomes, punctuality, conduct, performance, judgment and individual characteristics.

The challenges faced by service organizations are basically on how to inspire customer-contact individuals to execute their duties so that they may be able to deliver the service quality that meets the services standard of the organization. Human capital is the base of any organization, i.e., the stability and growth of organizations greatly depends on employees’ performance. Employees’ performance can be defined as what individuals achieve and what they do not achieve. It helps to determine an employee’s productivity in terms of the quantity and quality of jobs attained (Bosco, 2014). Thus, the aim is to develop the employees so that they can go and work for the prosperity of their organisation in future. Similarly, an additional objective is to clarify how efficiently organizations can attain their broader objectives through the accomplishment of long-term corporate aims (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

Green and Heywood (2008) declared that job performance is affected by two aspects: the work background which can show the performance feedback, incentives, workplace, work expectations and equipment; and the individual qualities of the person, including motivation, capability, knowledge and skills. Amarnah et al. (2010) recommended that three elements are mainly involved in job performance, i.e., job characteristics, skills and effort. The above elements delineate how much effort, work and competencies have been presented by a person towards any required work. These elements also outline the levels to which a person has strived.

This is the reason why at times, it is difficult to just delineate generic factors that could increase everyone's job performance. This is also because of the fact that scholars in this region have not yet reached consensus on one single description of job performance. To some extent, it is a multi-factor construct while others take it in a different way (Boshoff & Arnolds, 1995). Consequently, in such circumstances, there may be some talking about individual job performance, problems solving and individual task management; while others consider an individual's responsive behaviour, assets consumption, and so on (Boshoff & Arnolds, 1995).

Specifically, a small number of scholarly works have delineated job performance as an eight-factor construct, for instance, Campbell, McHenry and Wise (1990). As explained by the researchers, job performance consists of eight factors which cater to all kinds of professions. Furthermore, Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) postulated that job performance refers to how efficiently a person strives with available assets to contribute proactively towards the accomplishments of organizational goals.

The current research determines job performance subjectively by taking supervisory a point of view; the description thus for job performance in the current research denotes the attitude and behaviour of people der to attain organizational objectives and to see whether or not the objectives are accomplished.

2.5.3 Contextual Performance

According to Borman and Motowidlo (1993), contextual performance is following the rules, collaborating with peers, working enthusiastically and supporting the aims of the organization. Prior researchers have mentioned that contextual performance is a significant dimension of an individual's job performance (Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, Schaufeli, Henrica & Beek, 2011). Van Scotter, Motowidlo, and Cross (2000) said that such behaviours that facilitate the psychological and social development can be taken as contextual performance, and usually assist others to fulfil a task, or suggest different methods to enhance organizational processes. Rotundo & Sackett (2002) posited that contextual performance refers to those behaviours that facilitate social and psychological aspects of actions to be performed. Such behaviours help in the creation of an atmosphere which is necessary for the implementation of activities which can help the organization to attain its objectives (George & Brief, 1992; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998).

Contextual performance is applicable to every job (Demerouti, Xanthopoulou, Tsaousis & Bakker, 2014). Such employees typically support others in their task completion and eventually support the overall goals of the organization. Contextual performance is sometimes also referred to as extra role performance. These behaviours are discretionary and optimistically affect organizational performance. Such

behaviours do not affect the employee's productivity (Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994). Therefore, it can be understood that role performance involves those actions that are over and above the job requirements (Bakker et al., 2004; McKenzie et al., 1991). Such behaviours include helping colleagues, knowledge gaining and protection of the organization, constructive suggestions and skills (George & Brief, 1992). Moreover, Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) underlined two different aspects of contextual performance: OCB by Borman & Van Scotter, 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996); and the interpersonal facilitations. Normally, facilitating and supporting OCB (Organ, 1988) and pro-social behaviours (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) came under contextual performance.

Contextual performance is discretionary behaviour of an employee in promoting the efficiency of organizations (Organ, 1988). Contextual performance can be divided into sub-dimensions, like sportsmanship, altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue and courtesy. All these voluntary behaviours lead to organizational efficiency (George & Brief, 1992). Five dimensions: defending the organization, individual improvement, supporting the colleagues, positive guidance and goodwill development of organizational reputation is vital for organizational success. Contextual performance is a constructive behaviour as this assists the employees in achieving their tasks for the organization. (Johari, Yahya, & Omar, 2011).

Katz (1964) categorized behaviours essential for the functioning of the organization into three main types, namely: a) people should be urged to enter and stay with the system; b) organizational members have to fulfil role requirements in an effective manner; and c) innovative and spontaneous activity is called for that goes beyond role

prescriptions. An organization's ranks improve from good to great when employees emphasize beyond role prescriptions. According to Katz (1964), if an organization depends only on the blueprints of prescribed behaviour, it may be established as a vulnerable social system.

In other words, organizations thrive on activities, such as: cooperation, suggestions, helpfulness, acts of altruism and other examples of contextual performance. These types of behaviours are significant as they smoothen the working of the organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983). They offer the lubricant required to tackle challenges faced by the organizations and allow participants to handle them through teamwork. Generally, OCB improves organizational performance by providing superior means to manage the dependency factor in the members of a work unit with each other, and consequently, to accomplish overall outcomes (Di Paola & Hoy, 2005).

Organ (1988), a pioneering author who coined the term, "contextual performance" also provided a description of behaviours not 'prescribed' but freely occurring in the hopes of helping others in achieving their tasks. Conceptualized a total of five job satisfaction dimensions, namely: altruism, civic virtue, courtesy, conscientiousness and sportsmanship (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Burns & Carpenter, 2008; Organ, 1988). A short definition of each dimension is provided below:

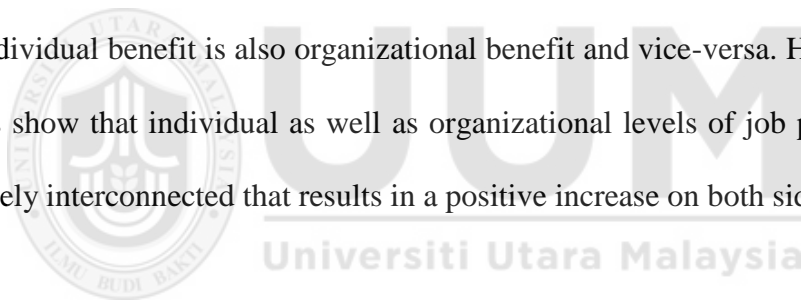
- a) Altruism: it refers to one's selfless concern for others' welfare.
- b) Civic virtue: It deals with voluntary and important tasks, such as attending additional meetings.

- c) Courtesy: it covers individuals taking steps for the prevention of problems with others.
- d) Conscientiousness: it tells about the activities that take place beyond necessity in terms of the execution of assigned tasks.
- e) Sportsmanship: It is a term that refers to the action that prevents adverse actions, like complaining and rumour mongering.

According to Organ and Ryan (1995), individuals who contribute towards organizational effectiveness by going beyond their primary functions are significant, since they are the drivers of the organization and they provide the social context to support task activities. Contextual performance encapsulates activities, like extra job tasks, helping others and adhering to workplace rules and procedures, despite the inconvenience caused.

Successful organizations generally have employees who perform beyond the responsibilities prescribed for them and expend extra time and energy in achieving the task (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005). Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks (1995) defined job performance as work behaviour that goes beyond the primary tasks and that contains promises for long-term success of the organization. Researchers in the field of job performance have attempted to identify work behaviours contributing to the long-run effectiveness of the organization, but those are, in some instances, ignored through the traditional definitions and measures used by researchers to examine job performance. This additional effort expended by the individual is not an authorized effort, although its encouragement enables the transition of an ordinary organization into an excellent one.

DiPaola and Hoy (2005) claimed that developing job performance in schools is similar to modifying the culture in the school; it may entail a slow process and is not simple. Culture change in school hinges on many factors, including determining the need for change. It also includes knowing the way the staff can be motivated in accepting the need for change because if staff are against exhibiting job performance behaviour in the organization, they may not be inclined to adopt the changes required to move forward. In a related study, DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2005) described contextual performance as a unidimensional construct in the context of schools. They stated that if an individual's job performance level is seen influenced in the elementary and secondary schools level, it would also be impacted in higher education. This statement seems consistent with Burns and Carpenter (2008), whereby they claimed that individual benefit is also organizational benefit and vice-versa. Hence, the above studies show that individual as well as organizational levels of job performance are positively interconnected that results in a positive increase on both sides.



Along the same line, Podsakoff et al. (2000) claimed that leadership behaviour is connected to higher job performance. For instance, transformational leadership behaviour, such as vision articulation, provision of suitable model, encouraging the group to accept goals and high performance expectations are significantly and positively related to altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, civic virtue and sportsmanship. A dominant trend in the findings is the key role played by leaders in influencing citizenship behaviour. According to Podsakoff et al. (2000), “supportive behaviour on the part of the leader is strongly associated with OCB and may seem to motivate the effects of perceived organizational support on job performance”.

Burns and Carpenter (2008) viewed that by considering the contribution of contextual performance towards the organization's effectiveness, it is significant for the leaders to acknowledge the construct and support this type of behaviour. A better individual job performance in an organization results in teachers' motivation to put their efforts and time to build a system to facilitate themselves and the schools. Teachers are highly motivated and energized to build a better working environment for themselves and for their students. Obviously, if many of the teachers are found trying to follow the same motivation and spirit towards their respective education surroundings, it will surely result in positive outcomes for the organization.

According to Fullan (2002), for the mobilization of lecturers towards superior performance, leaders have to enhance their working conditions and their morale in the following ways:

1. By performing moral duties in a way that social responsibility is inculcated to others and the environment and making a difference in the students' lives, the schools and other schools in the area.
2. By clarifying the change process by helping others in their assessment and determining the meaning and commitment in novel ways.
3. By redefining resistance and culture by changing the way people work together to achieve due values in the organization.
4. By improving relationships with people of diverse cultures.
5. By creating and sharing knowledge by adding to the individuals' knowledge base and by fostering knowledge sharing in the organization.
6. By establishing a coherence implementing checks and balances.

In explanation of lecturer's profession and job performance, a lecturer's job satisfaction is the contentment he or she experiences during work and plays an important role in retention of new lecturers (Curtis, 2005; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). Satisfaction can be defined as one's feelings towards his or her job or career, as a whole or within some specific aspects, like compensation, autonomy, co-workers, and so forth. It can also be related to a particular effect, such as productivity (Rice, Gentile, & McFarlin, 1991). For lecturers, satisfaction with their career is of utmost importance for student learning. Specifically, a lecturer's job satisfaction influences greatly the quality and stability of teaching. Fundamental to determine lecturer's efficacy and satisfaction is the expectation lecturers possess for their students. A number of researchers are of the view that lecturers who are not satisfied with their work or school climate, are likely to be less motivated to do the best work in their classrooms (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Dramstad, 2004; Ostroff, 1992); whereas, highly satisfied lecturers are not expected to change schools/institutions or to leave the teaching profession, if compared to dissatisfied ones.

Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000) concluded that a greater degree of job satisfaction improves the degree of extra-role behaviours of lecturers at all three levels, namely; the student, the team and the organizations as a whole. Relating this to the present study, it can be inferred that the three levels in this study are the employee, the team and the university as a unit. The reason for this is that this present study is centralized on the administrative staff of the university which can substitute the students in the three levels of the school system in the study of Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000). Furthermore, as teams among the students is possible, so can team among the employees being studied. Lastly, the school is an organization on its own; likewise,

the university is also an organizations on its own. Therefore, the three levels of the University that this present study concentrated on are: the employees, the team and the university as a unit. Schools are described as organizations that provide students with education. Like other organizations, schools should develop a culture of teamwork to ensure quality education. Hence, it is important to develop contextual performance within the schools for establishing a culture of success. The greater the contextual performance levels are within the school, the higher will be the possibility for personnel to work beyond their normal work environment in an effort to establish a school site characterized by high student achievers. Vigoda-Gadot, Beerli, Birman-Shemesh and Somech (2007) stated that some categories of organizational culture may result in higher levels of group contextual performance. They stated that the schools encourage norms of voluntarism, social reciprocity and mutual help could result in higher contextual job performance. They added that school success hinges on the lecturers' inclination to work extra in order to achieve the school's aims and objectives.

Similarly, Christ, van Dick, Wagner and Stellmacher (2003) claimed that for organizations, such as schools, it is pertinent that lecturers take part in extra- role behaviour as this type of behaviour may offer organizations with additional resources to help them improve their performance. In addition, individuals who are 'emotionally attached' to their organizations tend to exhibit higher levels of citizenship behaviour. They suggested that for an increase of contextual performance in the school, lecturers should identify themselves with teams and schools as this would familiarize them with the school's goals, lead to lecturers' behaviours on behalf of the school and increase students' positivity. Lecturers should also identify themselves with the school to be able to take part in school activities and if they recognize that they have a future in the

school, they will be more willing to show contextual performance towards their team and the school as a whole.

Likewise, Oplatka (2006, 2009) stated that both personal and contextual determinants in terms of influencing lecturers' contextual performance can be divided into three groups, namely, organizational, school climate and leadership groups. According to him, the main determinant influencing the contextual performance of lecturers is the personal element as the lecturers' personal level of commitment is dependent on their personal association with their teachings. In other words, they consider teaching as a profession, unlike religion. Lecturers will increase their commitment to a specific service because of their conviction towards their job. On the other hand, few lecturers consider teaching as a sense of selflessness and helping others which is not limited to schools or classrooms. Highly committed lecturers show a high moral obligation to perform at their best due to high moral life values leading them to perform in an appropriate way at work.

Another determinant that influences lecturers' contextual performance, as outlined by Oplatka (2006), is organizational commitment. According to him, a positive work climate, positive collegial interaction, a sense of belonging and work norms are inclined to extra-role activities. Encouragement towards hard work and supportive relationships among colleagues, all positively impact the level of the lecturers' contextual performance. Leaders primarily influence the lecturers' contextual levels. Specifically, leaders' change initiative and innovation and involving lecturers in school decision-making are viewed by lecturers as influencing their contextual performance. This type of leaders also offers positive feedback to lecturers regarding

their performance and motivates them. Leaders who fail to encourage their staff and regularly provide negative feedback, frustrate lecturers and affect their enthusiasm and motivation for work. Therefore, improving the lecturers' contextual performance assists in their involvement with the school and students and their motivation towards personal fulfilment which urges them to go above and beyond their job description and to have a personal stake in helping students to achieve their goals. Both, lecturers and administrators, have reported positive outcome when high levels of contextual performance exist.

In another study, Oplatka (2009) found that superior contextual performance helps teachers and administrators in creating dynamic teamwork and employee satisfaction in the workplace that results in presenting a better image of the school and to develop a mutually respectful school environment. In other words, contextual performance influences students' achievement as lecturers interact with students and colleagues and expend efforts in trying out new curriculum and methods of instruction (DiPaola & Hoy, 2005). In other words, lecturers possessing higher levels of contextual performance basically invest in the students' success and thus, they drive students' learning.

DiPaola and Hoy (2005) added that lecturers who are more inclined to put extra effort to educate students at their own time show personal commitment toward their students' achievement and encourage their efforts. These lecturers are more flexible and they attempt to try out various teaching methods and strategies if the regular teaching strategies do not work. Therefore, contextual performance behaviour improves the lecturers' personal and professional responsibility for students' achievement.

Accordingly, if several lecturers are engaged in contextual performance, the rest will follow them. Hence, for the change to be realized in the school, most of the staff should be inclined to go above and beyond their job descriptions. In this environment, the leaders have to find techniques to motivate staff and lecturers working with students to learn challenging concepts. Educational leaders should also work with staff to encourage greater levels of expectations for success.

Similarly, Tschannen-Moran (2003) stated that by separating and highlighting these behaviours, the organization must be restructured in order to reflect them. Citizenship behaviours enhance organizational performance as they provide an environment in which members of the organizations depend on their co-workers to achieve collective results. The measurement of students' success through the United States Acts of Congress, i.e., reauthorization of Elementary and Secondary Education (NCLB's), Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) and California's Academic Performance Index (API), urge educators' teamwork in order to go above their job expectations and develop a learning environment, where the goal is to improve the standard. OCB helps organizations to create such a learning environment, in which employees along with their organizations, can produce better results by developing their competencies through learning.

2.5.4 Performance Measurements

A debate in Australia on the topic of Performance Measurement of the Government of New South Wales Businesses by guiding the Committee for the Review of state service provision/Commonwealth (1998), describes the pattern of performance in these words, "how well a service meets its objectives, given the external constraints placed on it".

Performance evaluation in the public sector provides information about policy implementation and helps managers to know their work efficiency. It also points out the areas where the productivity level needs to be raised. Moreover, it helps in setting expenditure details for fulfilling needs according to their requirements and performance.

As explained by Abedian et al. (1997), information regarding performance helps to check the management and enhance transparency. In previous years the focus was on input and output analysis of their different departments, such as funds, workers and other resources. The Office of Assistance Management and Procurement in the USA (2005) classifies performance level as, “a process of assessing progress towards achieving predetermined goals, including information on efficiency with which resources are transformed into goods and services (outputs), the quality of those outputs (how well they are delivered to clients and the extent to which clients are satisfied), the outcomes (results of a program activity compared to its intended purpose) and the effectiveness of government operations in terms of their specific contributions to program objectives”. In this paper, ‘Serving the American Public: Best Practices in Performance Measurement, Benchmarking Study Report, June 1997’, scholars have stated that a high level of performance is possible by building a system for measuring performance and its management. President Bill Clinton, while passing the US Government’s Results and Performance Act (USA: 1993) said, “the law simply requires that we chart a course for every endeavour that we collect the people's money for, see how well we are succeeding, inform public how we are doing, stop the things that don't work, and never stop improving the things that we believe are worth spending in”.

The documents explained above complement point out that the performance measurement system should avoid collecting unnecessary data, and should keep management informed for the purpose of decision-making. Performance measurement should be related to the department's planned goals and aims, and also signify the progress made towards the accomplishment of pre-determined goals. The measures should specify the extent to which a program has achieved the predefined activities, functions and objectives. The performance measurement system allows the organization to track the progress and direct it towards achieving its planned aims and goals.

As stated by the US Government document (1997), departments of public service must be involved in performance matters that would guarantee better service delivery to its people as mentioned below:

- Customer satisfaction
- Financial consideration
- Community satisfaction
- Internal business operations
- Employee satisfaction

The US Government document (1997) refers to profit as a primary measurement of winning performance in the private sector. Contrary to this, in the public sector, such broad and straightforward level of performance is not achievable. In the public sector, performance management needs to be evaluated against predetermined goals of departments; hence, departments must execute their services in a way that those expected outcomes are accomplished. The public sector needs to improve its strategies

and make sure its services and products are delivered efficiently and economically to the taxpayers. In this regard, performance measurement is a helpful instrument since it formalizes the procedure of tracking progress towards the achievement of goals established in the beginning.

Rotundo (2000) described that in spite of the fact that researchers introduce their own conceptualization of employment execution, an exemplary definition concentrates on activities or practices of people, not results or outcomes of these actions and behaviours. Smith (1976) argued that among the performance measurement issues occupational performance measurement is a big issue and emphasized that a correct measure of job performance is the immediate examination of behaviour. Murphy (1989) claimed that job performance should be portrayed as practices instead of results. He insisted that outcome-based measures are not all the time useful to the organization, as workers may endeavour to maximize results at the cost of different things. Campbell (1990) described performance as those actions or behaviours under the control of the individual that add to the institutional goals and that can be assessed by the person's level of capacity, a definition that is consistent with the others.

Performance can also be described as the capability of an entity, such as the organization, group or individual, to produce outcomes in relation to determined or specific goals (Lebas & Euske, 2004; Laitinen, 2002). It is a real job or productivity produced by a particular entity or unit. To put it in a different way, the performance notion relates to the quantifiable accomplishments produced (Phillips, Davies, & Moutinho, 1999; Harbour, 1997), and the quantity specifies the processes and ability used to measure and control specific events and activities (Morgan, 2004). Meanwhile,

Millmore, Lewis, Saunders, Thornhill, and Morrow (2007) described performance measurement system as a procedure for evaluating performance against set performance measures. This is grounded on Key Success Factors (KSF) which might consist of the measure of the deviation from standards, previous accomplishments and measures of input and output. To control performance level, one must gauge it, and that measure must be appealing to shareholders as it presents a guide for making decisions (Thorpe & Holloway, 2008). Based on the previous argument, it is apparent that performance measurement monitors and informs 'how good somebody is executing something'. In theory, it is a broad phrase pertinent to activities, things, people, organizations and situations, while performance management is a procedure that assists organizations to devise, execute and modify their plans with the intention to satisfy their stakeholders' requirements (Verweire and Van der Burghe, 2004). The performance measurement system is an objective-oriented procedure (Mondy, 2008); it is frequently utilized interchangeably with performance appraisal, performance measurement or with performance evaluation (Mello, 2006).

2.5.5 Impact of Individual Performance on Organizational Performance

The presence of a seamless relationship between broader organizational goals and individual performance is a vital supposition that underlies a systems approach to performance management (Wholey & Hatry, 1992; Behn, 1995; Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2000; Hood, 1991, 1995; Osborne & Gaebler, 1993). In high-performing businesses, every person is assessed based on his or her performance level. Performance measurement should be able to push employees towards the overall vision of the business and to concentrate on the future and not on the past (Millmore et al., 2007). The last 20 years of studies have seen developments in describing job performance

and in comprehending the performance measurement procedure (Campbell, 1990; Arvey & Murphy, 1998).

Research with respect to performance measurement and management suggests a consensus that it has a positive association with competencies, performance measurement, leadership, workload and goal-setting in performance management systems (Areolla, 2000; Carl & Kapp, 2004; Franzen, 2003; Green, 1999; Hecht et al., 1999; Becker, Huselid, & Ulrich, 2001; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Bryman, Haslam, & Webb, 1994; Lundy & Cowling, 1996; Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Mondy, 2008; Okafor, 2005; Meyer & Botha, 2004; Phillips & Schmidt, 2004; Simmons, 2002; Williams, 2002; Alam et al., 2010; Stephen & Roithmayr, 1998; Wilkinson, Fourie, Strydom, Van der Westhuyzen, & Van Tonder, 2004).

2.5.6 Job Performance and University Lecturers

Performance management in universities focuses on the positions of the vice chancellor, deputy vice-chancellor, dean, deputy dean, academic director/chairman and the heads of departments who are responsible for supervising the performance of university, and hence, the performance of individual teachers and department fellows. The most important teams of the university lecturer is those charged with management of the important educational units: faculties and departments (Meek, Huisman and Goedegebuure, 2000). McCormack, Propper and Smith (2013) interviewed 248 departmental chairpersons in Computer Sciences, English, Business and Psychology and found that the quality of management practices can be directly related to increased performance level. Growing rivalry for public funds and burden of greater liability are said to be the basis for the use of performance indicators in higher education (see for

e.g., Lewis, Ikeda & Dundar, 2001; Sorlin, 2007; Sukboonyasatit, Thanapaisarn, & Manmar, 2011).

The need for enhanced efficiency, effectiveness and accountability keep increasing the demand for the implementation of performance management in higher education (Lapsley & Mitchel, 1996). However, performance management in higher education has not gained adequate considerations from the policymakers and governments in the past (Alam, 2009). Although there is a huge body of research related to job performance and lecturers, studies in relation to academic performance and job satisfaction in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) are scarce (Almayali & Ahmad, 2012). Al-Shuaiby (2009) mentioned that several studies have been carried out by scholars on a variety of problems linked to lecturers' performance in HEIs. In the procedure of evaluating an individual's performance, the most significant problem is to make out a set of suitable standards.

Scholars have been concerned with finding out that the degree to which job satisfaction of university lecturers can be anticipated by a combination of variables involving their competencies as well as roles (Thorp et al., 1998; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2003; Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Daugherty & Finch, 1997; Rosser et al., 2003; Moss & Jensrud, 1995; Billing & Alvesson, 1994). Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly, and Konopaske (2009) showed that the performance in an organization is influenced by job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is an important aspect affecting university performance (File & Shibeshi, 2011). Although there are several studies on the issues of performance in universities, they have not adequately investigated various predictors of lecturers' performance in universities (Al-Shuaiby, 2009). Jing and

Avery (2011), in their study on understanding the relationship between firm performance and job satisfaction, realized that even though leadership and performance relationship recommended by some scholars, present findings are uncertain. To predict lecturers' effects on firm performance in a precise way within a real-world context is challenging (Blettner, Chaddad, & Bettis, 2012; Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2010). A number of studies have either evaluated and/or analysed job satisfaction of HEIS in common (Mercer, 1997; Cox, 1994), and few researches have focused on the association between job satisfaction and job performance of university lecturers (Greiner, 1972; Fiedler, 1997). Numerous studies have investigated the effects of certain professional characteristics of university lecturers on their job satisfaction (Covey, 1991; Arter, 1981; Hahs-Vaughn, 2004), while other have focused on the roles that certain personal characteristics of university lecturers might play in determining their job satisfaction (Moss & Jensrud, 1995; Kempner, 2003; Stanford, Oates, & Flores, 1994). Job satisfaction can contribute to performance improvement when fresh challenges begin (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000). However, there is a scarcity of studies linked to job satisfaction and task performance characteristics of university lecturers as predictors of their job performance. This study particularly focuses on uncertain predictors of job performances of the university lecturers serving in public sector universities.

2.6 Job Satisfaction

2.6.1 Definition of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction, as an imperative idea and relevant to all organizations, has distinctive and corresponding definitions (Saba, 2011). Job satisfaction involves the sentiments

of individuals in a specific occupation and its surroundings (Masemola, 2011). Various attempts have been made to explore job satisfaction.

As indicated by Schneider and Snyder (1975), job satisfaction is "an individual's assessment of conditions present in the employment, or results that emerge as a consequence of having an occupation". Locke (1976) characterizes job satisfaction as "the pleasurable passionate state coming about because of the examination of one's occupation or employment experience". As indicated by Hirschfeld (2000), job satisfaction is "a full of feeling or passionate response to the employment, coming about because of the officeholder's correlation of genuine results with the required results". Hulin (1969) characterized job satisfaction as feelings towards the employment conditions that are said to be connected with what is normal and what is professional about linking to the options. Job satisfaction is described as "people's aggregate sentiments about their occupation and the states of mind they have towards different viewpoints or features of their employment, and also a disposition and discernment that could hence impact the level of fit between the individual and the association" (Spector, 1997). With the end goal of this study, the definition given by Hulin (1969) is considered for the idea job satisfaction. It serves as an appropriate definition since it presupposes that job satisfaction is affected the work situation and personal factors, for example, desires, needs, and values.

2.6.2 Predictors of Job Satisfaction

There are various studies have been conducted to know the level of satisfaction among the employees. To know how satisfied or dissatisfied employees are with their jobs is an exceptionally complex summation of job factors (Robbins & Coulter, 2012).

Volkwein and Zhou (2003) distinguished the following elements as indicators of job satisfaction of employees in an organization:

- Salary
- Job security
- Interpersonal relationships
- Leadership
- Organizational culture
- Company policies
- Conditions of employment
- Worker autonomy
- Possibility of growth, development and promotion
- Job content

Table 2.1 presents the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of job satisfaction. The intrinsic and extrinsic factors are considered as an important determinants of job satisfaction.

Table 2.1

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors

Extrinsic Factors (External Instrumental Material)	(External or Intrinsic Factors (Essential or Quality of Work)
Salary	Job content
Job security	Work autonomy
Conditions of employment	Growth, development & promotion
Company policies	
Leadership	
Interpersonal relationships	
Organizational culture	

Source: Author

2.6.3 Job Satisfaction Theory

Since the 1950s, numerous scholars have created models about job satisfaction (Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005). Despite the facts there is no comprehensive model available that discuss all aspect which impact on job satisfaction. For a hypothesis to serve as the base for huge improvement, it must be academic and accepted in useful terms (Swanson & Holton, 2001). The benefit of using such models for this study is to propel learning so that the study makes a stage in the making of new information.

2.6.2.1 Herzberg's Hygiene and Motivation Theory

One of the more prominent models of job satisfaction is Herzberg's two factor theory given by Herzberg in 1959. Herzberg theory proposed that here are two main aspects of the individual job which are Hygiene Factors and Motivator Factors. Herzberg's theory proposes that the factors included in delivering job satisfaction are specific and different from the elements that prompt job dissatisfaction. As per the two-factor theory of, the essential determinants of occupation fulfilment are the accompanying characteristic parts of the occupation, also known as motivation.

Motivation factors may prompt fulfilment. Accordingly, the idea of satisfaction is by all accounts identified with the nature of the job, which will encourage self-improvement and advancement. These get to be inspiring elements, which will urge researchers to put more exertion into their job with the specific end goal to acquire fulfilment.

Herzberg's theory delineates that hygiene factors demotivate employees when they are not fulfilled. As indicated by Herzberg (1964), the elements that prompt satisfaction are isolated and specific from those that prompt dissatisfaction. Employees contend

that most elements cannot work in seclusion; motivator variables should dependably be there for employees to be satisfied with their job. Moreover, scholars have accepted that some hygiene variables can by themselves, bring about a high level of job satisfaction. Employees will be satisfied when their managers give what they deem as more critical (Colquitt, Wesson, & LePine, 2009).

An illustration will be that of employees who value high pay. Such employees might be profoundly satisfied at work regardless of the way that some motivating factors are at a lower level. The strategy utilized as a part of Herzberg's theory is restricted by its approach. At the point when things are going admirably, employees tend to acknowledge themselves; however, when things are turning out badly, they accuse the external components (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005). Herzberg (1964) theorized a relationship that lead to satisfaction.

Herzberg's two-factor theory makes it straightforward satisfaction inside the work connection by broadening Maslow's chain of command of requirements thoughts and making them more relevant (Dieleman, Toonen, Touré, & Martineau, 2006). The closeness between these assumptions is that they recommend that human needs must be fulfilled for the employees to be motivated (Smit, Cronje, Brevis, & Vrba, 2011).

2.6.4 Internal and External Factors of Job Satisfaction

One of the leading theories of motivation and satisfaction is the two-factor theory developed by Frederick Herzberg. It explained two groups of factors that impact on the level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with work. The first group is the external factors group (hygiene factors) and comprises working conditions, supervisors, wages

and job security. The other group of factors is the internal factors (motivators), and are linked to higher needs, such as recognition by others at work, accountability, work performance and development. According to this theory, the lack of external factors can lead to employee demotivation. The internal factors increase the level of job satisfaction (Ebert & Griffin, 2011; Sypniewska, 2014).

2.6.5 External Factors of Job Satisfaction

External job satisfaction factors such as wages, work conditions, leaders and job security are explained in details.

2.6.5.1 Wages

It is critical to elucidate pay as a source of job satisfaction. The term, 'compensation' alludes to money-related incentives given to workers (Grobler, 2005). Workers who are influenced by money will develop a feeling of fulfilment with their job if they are well paid. These workers feel more motivated and valued by the organisation the helps in performance improvement (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Salary is used to pay the employees for their efforts in order to satisfy their monetary need (Frey & Osterloh, 2001). In the past literature the major reason for dissatisfaction from the job is low salary which do not fulfil the financial needs of the employers (Dieleman et al., 2006).

Monetary rewards are used in HEIs to improve the performance of the academic staff (Schifter 2000). According to Kohn (1993), poor pay rates can bring about lower levels of employment fulfilment. Adam's (1965) value hypothesis serves as a decent representation of how pay scales influence workers' occupation fulfilment. The value hypothesis shows the judgments of employees on whether their manager is treating them decently or not. This happens when employees analyse the relationship between

their occupation inputs (for example, exertion, abilities, experience and capabilities) and employment results, it means the salary and job performance are related (Bergh & Theron 2003). In the wake of contrasting views, workers may encounter one of the following three circumstances:

- Equitably rewarded (equity)
- Under-rewarded (inequity)
- Over-rewarded (inequity)

Workers who are over-remunerated perform better, while individuals who are under-compensated feel disappointed and as a response to low salary deliver poor quality work (Armstrong, 2003). As a general rule, employees tend to compare their salaries with those working at same position within the same industry (for instance, collaborators, companions, neighbours and industry partners). As per Hellriegel, Jackson, Slocum, Staude, Amos, Klopper, Louw and Oosthuizen (2007), workers who need to reduce their emotional disparity have the following alternatives:

- Increase their inputs to justify higher rewards upon feeling that they are over-rewarded as compared to their colleagues.
- Decrease their inputs when they feel that they are being under-rewarded.
- Engage in legal action in order to change their salary scale, such as negotiating with management, industrial action, and so on,
- Choose people who are doing the same job in a similar or same industry with whom to compare themselves.
- Twist reality by rationalising that inequality is justified
- Resign if inequalities cannot be resolved.

According to Dieleman et al. (2006), job satisfaction can be enhanced if management takes care of pay levels. Past studies have attested that pay is a standout amongst the most essential variables to understand job satisfaction (Clark, Kristensen, & Westergård- Nielsen, 2009).

2.6.5.2 Work Conditions

A conducive workplace is one of the fundamental human needs that permits employees to execute their obligations ideally (Roelofsen, 2002). It is believed that in various divisions of business, employees are working longer hours than they ought to with additional compensation for their extra time. The over burden from the job, often make them in stress, this stress of being over utilised by their organisation lead them to be low satisfied from their job (Moyes & Redd, 2008). On the other hand, the workers with conducive working environment and appropriate work load seems to be more satisfied and perform better (Mokaya, Musau, Wagoki, & Karanja, 2013). Having a conducive workplace for workers has two positive outcomes: workers are more satisfied and profitability is higher. The lower level of job satisfaction lead to perception of bad experience at work and destroy the will of workers to perform better. In light of above, conducive work environment with appropriate work load is significantly important for satisfaction and job performance.

2.6.5.3 Leaders

Among the various factor that influence level of satisfaction from job, quality leaders are main elements that play role in satisfaction of the workers (Rowold, 2011). Leadership is defined as “a procedure whereby an individual impacts a gathering of people to accomplish a shared objective” (Northouse, 2011). A positive business relationship relies on the capacity of an organization’s authority. Consequently,

leaders who secure employees' participation will succeed in making a harmonious and beneficial workplace, prompting a sound work relationship (Northouse, 2011).

Previous studies have distinguished diverse leadership styles, i.e., definitive initiative (totalitarian), participative authority (majority rule), delegate (free enterprise) initiative and transformational administration (Özşahin, Zehir, & Acar, 2011). Great leaders encourage the employee to be more innovative and creative in their work and appreciate innovativeness of employees. Enterprise leaders give their subordinates complete opportunity to set due dates for the assigned task to be finished, this flexibility bring positive change in work attitude to perform the given task on time. They just give workers the essential tools and encouragement when required (Bass & Avolio, 1999). Transformational leaders expect the best from each worker and also from themselves. This serves as motivation as they scan for approaches to guarantee that workers know how to accomplish set objectives (Bass & Avolio, 1999). Value-based leaders rebuff workers on the off chance that they do not perform up to the required standard.

Initiative style has a positively critical impact on employees' job satisfaction. There is no single best initiative style that prompts job satisfaction. Leadership style relies on the circumstance (Gilley, Dixon, & Gilley, 2008). Therefore, employees' performance may deteriorate due to un-empowering initiative style of leaders, which could bring about diminished levels of occupation fulfilment and duty. Poor supervisory initiative and poor hierarchical society lead to bad work condition. Non-supportive leadership is considered as important among workers serve as a genuine impression of the nature of authority in the association (Bass & Avolio, 1999). Along these lines, there is a

requirement for leaders to be supportive and cooperative with the workers for better performance.

Numerous department inside organizations act as a group within which a leaders are in control. Individuals from these groups remain disappointed in light of the fact that their leaders do not consider their individual needs (Robbins & Coulter, 2012). With an endeavour to address the above issue, Adair (1983) created and connected an activity-focused model of initiative. The model comprises three interrelated and specific traits of a leaders, i.e., the leader should unmistakably characterize the undertaking, the leader must develop and direct a group effectively to execute the obligation and finally, the leader must create and fulfil the needs of employees inside the group (Oakland, 2007). Administrative aptitudes and authority styles of senior members and heads of offices at colleges must be considered as vital variables that impact positive representative conduct.

2.6.5.4 Job Security

Many scholars have discussed that job security is affected by poor financial condition (Mumford & Smith, 2004). Financial instabilities, new data innovation, modern rebuilding and tough competition add to job security, as organization may not hold employees with lifetime work. Worker who have a feeling of frailty in their livelihood are less satisfied by their job than those seeing their business to be secured (Sverke, Hellgren, & Näswall, 2002).

The impression of high employer stability is connected often times to expanded levels of occupation fulfilment (Dachapalli & Parumasur, 2012). Individuals who marked uncertain contracts of job with their bosses feel more secure than the individuals who

marked settled term contracts. In Europe, for instance, employer stability is high based on the administration demands a finish of uncertain contracts. At the point when individual's status shift from settled term contracts to uncertain contracts, they start to feel secure in their occupations with numerous going with vocation advantages. Levels of job satisfaction of such workers increase (Engellandt & Riphahn, 2005). At the compassionate level, workers are worried with welfare and execution. At the hypothetical level, employer stability is seen as an immediate reason for expanded work execution and concordant job relations. Representatives are occupied with employment fulfilment at the financial level, since professional stability may prompt expanded energy, expanded inspiration and less clashes debate.

Researchers describes job satisfaction as an emotional perception that reveals an effective response toward the job situation (Dipboye, Smith & Howell, 1994; Farkas & Tetric, 1989). It is also the case when an individual reacts in a negative way towards his/her job which causes him/her to display withdrawal behaviour and demotivation towards the task. Therefore, job satisfaction is positive as well as negative feelings and attitude of individuals towards their jobs (Schultz & Schultz, 1994) in a way that the individual is satisfied or dissatisfied with his/her work. Lock (1976) defines job satisfaction as a good personal state that originates from the perception of job experiences. Therefore, maintaining the happiness of an individual is essentially attractive to employers in all organizations. Job satisfaction is considered a contentment with various elements of the job and work situations (Falkenburg & Schyns, 2007). It can be described as the product of behavioural cycle, cause of behaviour, a part of a regulation system where the outcome of the evaluations results in decisions as to whether changes are to be made (Thierry, 1997).

Many management scholars have attempted to present and explain several theories to examine the association amongst job satisfaction and the job performance, but they are still not able to explain it well. Constructed on this, it is revealed that most of the studies reveals certain factors that influence job satisfaction and job performance (Shaikh, Bhutto & Maitlo, 2012). Therefore, most of studies have concluded from fundamental perspective that job satisfaction causes performance that results in satisfaction. The situation has currently been changed; generally, it is found that employees who are working in different organizations are not satisfied with their jobs. Consequently, the performance of these employees is affected.

Due to immense significance of job satisfaction within the organizations, it is studied as a dependent variable where some studies confirmed that the degree of satisfaction is also correlated with demographics of individuals, such as; gender, marital status, age, education and various personality traits. For example, Joshi (2004) carried out a study on job satisfaction of B.Ed. trainees and B.Ed. trained teachers of the Saurashtra region of the Gujarat State. A sample of the B.Ed. trainees and B.Ed. teachers, 120 each, was conducted. Cluster Layer technique was utilized to choose the example. One of most important findings found was a positive important relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement of the male instructors. Moreover, instructors from broke-up families were found having higher job involvement than the teachers from joint families. Diverse apparatuses were received for the information gathering, for example, individual data sheet, work pressure as in job involvement inventory. The results showed that: (1) no huge distinction was found between B.Ed. learners' job satisfaction and task stress; (2) there was certain huge connection found between work contribution and employment fulfilment of B.Ed. learners; (3) there was certain huge

connection found between job satisfaction and job involvement of male instructors; and (4) Teachers who are originating from independent family have higher occupation contribution than the joint family teachers (Joshi, 2004). However, it shows that demographic factors can have significant influence on job satisfaction of teachers which ultimately lead to job performance. Another study was conducted by Vyas (2001) who studied the satisfaction of job of the primary educators with respect to the gender, marital status and qualification. A total of 1,770 male educators and 1,230 female educators were participated in this research, and analysed. The results revealed that there was a prominent variance between unmarried and married teachers as the marital status was reported to affect male teachers' job satisfaction, while married educator's gender was found to affect the job satisfaction. In terms of the educational qualification, the results demonstrated that the effect of different districts was found with reference to lower educational qualifications. In the same vein, Joshi (2005) studied job satisfaction of the secondary school educators of Dabhoi Taluka, Gujarat, India. A total of the 150 secondary school educators were highlighted for the sample of the research from Dabhoitaluka, and a 150 items questionnaire was designed. Findings of study was: (1) graduate instructors were more pleased than the post-graduate instructors; (2) teachers below forty were more pleased with their tasks; and (3) Academic qualification and age level importantly effect job satisfaction. Another study was conducted by Naik (1990) who studied the job satisfaction of the teaching assistants of Baroda University, Gujarat in India 85 teachers from different departments of Baroda institute were selected for the sample of the study. The findings of the study were: (1) no prominent differences was found among female and male college teachers; (2) job satisfaction has the positive relationship with institutional experience; and (3) unmarried educators were found enjoying higher satisfaction than

the married teachers. Thakkar (1995) studied principal's job satisfaction of the secondary institutes. The school's principals of six different districts of Saurashtra India were chosen for the sample of the research. The results of the research were: (1) most school principals had neutral behaviour; (2) there was no correlation difference on the job satisfaction with the age, educational qualification, area and marital status; and (3) Academic experience importantly affected the job satisfaction. Principals with an experience of nine to sixteen years were found to be more contented. Though, Thakkar's study shows that whole demographics factors may not always influence on job satisfaction of principals. Rathava (1998) also found the same conclusion in the study conducted regarding job satisfaction of primary school teachers of Baroda city. A total of 120 school teachers, 80 male and 40 female, participated in the sample. Random sampling technique was utilized to select sample of the research. Lavingia's formulated attitude scale was utilized for the collection of data. The results of the research were age, educational experience and qualification did not meaningfully affect the job satisfaction.

Similarly, Jadeja (1997) studied the values, job satisfaction and problems of the in-service female school teachers. Secondary schools, colleges and 75 primary school educators were included. A total of 584 female teachers from schools of six districts of the Saurashtra University were selected for sample. Nakum defined self-made problems and Value Scale list and viroja detailed job satisfaction Test were utilized for the information gathering. Age, qualification, types of school experience and management were incorporated as independent constructs, whereas job satisfaction, problems and values were the dependent variables. Eminent discoveries of the research were: (1) there was equivalent job satisfaction initiated in each level of the female

instructors' training; (2) Professional Teaching Certification degree holder teachers were more contented than other teachers, having B.Ed. degrees; (3) there was no impact on the job satisfaction of school medium and management of school; (4) there was huge contrast found amongst married and unmarried teachers; and (5) their experience did not influence job satisfaction

According to Schultz and Schultz (1994), job satisfaction is influenced by various factors relevant to work and it hinges on the worker's sense of achievement from his/her day-to-day tasks. Other authors claimed that these factors are the work itself, co-workers, supervision and opportunities (Carrell, Kuzmits & Elbert, 1992). In addition, Seta et al. (2000) added work nature, systems of reward, relationship with co-workers and supervision as factors affecting job satisfaction; while McCormick and Ilgen (1985) noted the prior studies consensus over job satisfaction-turnover association. Among them, Spencer and Steers (1981) established a significant negative association between turnover and job satisfaction of low-performer individuals in hospitals, while; Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982), calculated job satisfaction to be consistent and negatively associated to turnover. Similarly, Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000) claimed that job satisfaction can impact turnover or worker's choice to give up employment. They supported the contention that dissatisfied employees quit their jobs often compared to satisfied ones. The first aim of the firm should be to hire and retain employees while the next one is to drive them towards achieving high performance.

Moynihan et al. (1998) exposed a negative relationship of an intention to leave the job with job satisfaction (-0.70). The supportive evidence was provided by Malkovich and

Boudreau (1997) who argue that the evidence from the U.S. schools indicated that schools having greater satisfaction among teachers show higher retention levels. In addition, Moynihan, Boswell and Boudreau (1998) cited literature, such as Hulin (1991), Mobley (1977) and Porter and Steers' (1973) claim that negative work attitudes have great effect on the turnover model. They reached the conclusion that job dissatisfaction leads to turnover cognition and motivates the employee to quit the job. Combined with the path analysis of Tett and Meyer (1993) on the basis of a meta-analysis, it was reported that an inspiration to give up could considerably be predicted by job satisfaction, and not by commitment to the organizations.

Along the same line, Rumery (1994) stated that prior studies, like Lucas, Atwood and Hagaman (1993) revealed that the age and job satisfaction level predicts intention of employee's turnover. Other studies showed that intention to turnover is a forecaster of future turnover. Specifically, Muchinsky and Tuttle's (1979) study summarized the association between job satisfaction and turnover among 39 studies and revealed that 35 of the 39 studies showed a negative relationship with an average magnitude of -0.40. Nevertheless, the satisfaction-turnover association is confined by financial situations (Muchinsky, 1993); a contention supported by Lawler's (1994) observation.

On the contrary, Jackofsky and Peter (1983), cited in McCormick and Ilgen (1985) were convinced that workers often quit their jobs if they are discontented or aware of other existing opportunities. The data collected from retail employees working in numerous southwestern cities in the US proves this view from a different perspective, some researchers linked job satisfaction with commitment to the job because appropriate organizational measures improve employee attitudes leading to

performance. A good approach to study this phenomenon is through examining the withdrawal behaviours that involve physical withdrawal including; absence and turnover (Falkenburg & Schyns, 2007). Often it involves high costs for the organizations; therefore, organizations are motivated to understand them (Rosse & Noel, 1996). Furthermore, Falkenburg and Schyns (2007) revealed that the job satisfaction and organization commitment both have a moderating effect upon withdrawal behaviours and it is very easy to provide proof of such relationships.

The point of view about performance and job satisfaction can be summarized in one line, “productivity of a happy worker is higher” (Rabins, 1999). The most inspiring factors in the job satisfaction is its relationship with employee performance (Mirderikvandi, 2000). Satisfaction with job ensures organizational responsibility, higher productivity, mental and physical health, an employee working with a good mood will actively participate in learning skills that will make way to promotion (Coomber & Barriball, 2007). There are different factors that show job satisfaction comes with the awards and job performance have an important part in that. Internal rewards come with job output (i.e., sense of accomplishment) and external awards from appreciation of job (salary). These rewards are given to gratify workers, specifically workers (Gholipour, 2001). Basically, there are three different theories which are: performance results into job satisfaction, job satisfaction guides towards employee performance and award works as a mediator between job satisfactions and employee performance. First two theories are not as stronger as the third one is. Awards not only boosts the performance level, but it also has an impact on the job satisfaction. Porter and Stirs (1991) affirmed high motivation with the high positive behaviour toward job can get one to higher performance, and vice versa. Vroom (1964)

investigated this link further and reached the conclusion that of a significant association between performance and job satisfaction. Several researches (Chen & Colin, 2008; Lee, Javalgi & Olivia, 2010; Yi Han, 2008; Zimmerman & Todd, 2009) have affirmed a strong positive relationship between performance and job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is one's state of mind or experience about the type of task he or she does. It is subject to a various factor like the value of a person's relations with his or her supervisor, quality of the working situation, level of fulfilment in work. Better job satisfaction can decrease job performance at times. For instance, one can allow oneself to sit all day long and do nothing. It can satisfy him/her with this "work" in the short-term, but it will not improve his or her performance.

A sense of accomplishment and satisfaction is achieved when a task is done successfully. Job satisfaction comes when a worker feels a sense of accomplishment which is important and well-meaning of sense of joy and recognition (Al-Mutami, 2000). Job satisfaction is worker's feeling of accomplishment, which is usually assumed as directly related to productivity along with personal happiness. Job satisfaction involves completing a task he or she likes perfectly, and rightfully rewarded for his/her efforts. Job satisfaction later involves passion and pleasure an employee shows in his/her work. The Harvard Professional Group (1998) perceived job satisfaction as an important factor that is directly related to acknowledgment, promotion, profits and accomplishment of the goals that steer towards feelings of fulfilment. Job satisfaction can be referred to as a positive emotional state that stems from one's evaluation of his/her job and it is an effective response to it or an attitude towards it. In this regard, Weiss (2002) contended that job satisfaction is a method

wherein investigators can identify the objects of cognitive evaluation, namely affection beliefs and behaviours. Based on this description, our job attitudes is developed according to our feelings, trust and behaviours.

Besides, it can also be discerned from the study conducted by Samad (2006) that Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is the bases for job satisfaction. This model (five specific needs) provide a good foundation from which examiners in the past could produce job satisfaction theories. Job satisfaction indicates the satisfaction of individuals with their jobs. In history, the jobs available to an individual hinge on his parents' occupation. In this regard, there are several factors that can affect the job satisfaction level of an individual and they include, the pay level and benefits, the perceived equality of the promotion system in the firm as well as the working conditions in terms of quality. People who are happier with their jobs, are more satisfied than those who are not and despite the fact the job satisfaction is distinct from motivation. Moreover, job design is targeted towards improving performance and job satisfaction via job enlargement, job rotation and job enhancement, with other satisfaction effects being styles of management, employee involvement, empowerment, culture and autonomous work teams.

2.6.5.5 Interpersonal Relationship

In the working life, employees spend most of their time at work and this develop interpersonal relationship over the time. Interpersonal relationship at the work enhance day by day with increase in interaction among the employees. Such interactions fundamental part of the workplace and act as a supportive relationship but in some case employee suffers too. In a situations where employees have a considerable

manners to work with others, this relationship go smooth and they work closely with each other. At the point when these employees appreciate their cooperation of others, they work place tend to provide many benefits to employees and they desire to have this relationship for long term. One reason for support of interpersonal relationship is that the employees make relationship within their organisation and do not have relationship with outsiders (Morrison & Nolan, 2007).

The work environment where there is interpersonal relationship is strong, it bring positive results when there is open communication between employees to share their issues about work and life. Those employees who have interpersonal relationship and communication within their colleagues tend to perform better to accomplish their work (Krueger & Schkade, 2008). Ahuja, Chudoba, Kacmar, McKnight, and George (2007) have documented that the work place where employees do not have interpersonal relationship with managers and co-workers, they have high level of disappointment and less productivity as compared to those have strong interpersonal relationship. On the basis of the Maslow theory, this is considered as their level of need, where human need to have association with others. This association reflect how well co-workers support others and work together as team for the betterment of the organisation. It can be argued that in a work place interpersonal relationship is very important aspect, which allow co-workers to support each other in time of need and to have clear communication with co-workers and managers. In case of academic staff, the open communication between academicians can bring useful results. Academicians can discuss related issues with their colleagues and get their valuable opinion especially the guidance from the senior academicians.

2.6.6 Internal Factors of Job Satisfaction

This section discusses the internal job satisfaction factors that affect job satisfaction.

The detail discussion has been carried to explain the Work Autonomy, growth and development and job contents.

2.6.6.1 Work Autonomy

Among the factors influence job satisfaction, work autonomy is regarded as most critical factor (Nguyen, Taylor, & Bradley, 2003). Hackman and Oldham (1975) mention that work autonomy is “ the extent to which the occupation gives considerable flexibility, freedom and caution in booking the work and in deciding the methods to be utilized as a part of doing it”.

Work autonomy is the extent to which employees have control over their activities which are scheduling, work procedures, pace of work, method of doing it, work criteria, work goals, work evaluation, working hours, amount of work and type of work. Work autonomy refers to the control of employee over few or all work related activities (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Control over these activities provide employees with ability to manage their work efficiently and effectively.

In addition to that, Smith, Organ and Near (1983) mentioned that flexibility in working provides employees an better opportunity to accomplish task in their own preferred way and complete targeted tasks in a good manner. This work flexibility empowers employees to complete the task in their best ways and provide them more job fulfilment. In view of the Maslow theory, work autonomy is the accomplishment of self-actualisation need. Unsatisfied self-actualisation need bring down the level of

satisfaction and job performance. The fulfilled needs bring sense of freedom among the employees and make them able to think creatively to accomplish the given task. It can be argued that work autonomy is important aspect of employees' life, if they are provided with this autonomy their productivity level can be increase due to independence and accomplishment. In case of KSA academicians, the fulfilment of such need can feel them more independent in designing class activities and delivering knowledge in an innovative way. The work autonomy will also bring positive changes in their academic and administrative dealings which will ultimately enhance level of job satisfaction and performance.

2.6.6.2 Growth and Development

In all types of organisations, organisations provide opportunities to employees for their skill development and career growth (Gilley et al., 2008). High achievers always get chance for promotion for their career growth and self-actualisation. The work place where the employees get career advancement opportunities, this opportunity exert positive impact on their performance (Robbins & Coulter, 2012). On the other hand, a work place where the employees feel constrained over promotion and growth opportunities tend to have poor performance at job. This provide them lower level of satisfaction or cause dissatisfaction from their job. Moreover, the employees do not feel fulfilment and self-actualisation need remain unfulfilled.

Employees are encourage to attend training and workshops that sharpen their work skills and contribute in advancement of their skills. These skill development opportunities are workshops, trainings, seminars, communication courses, specific job related skill development and on job training by getting additional assignments. The

development and growth opportunities provide chance to employees for learning skills to handle current job tasks and prepare them for future job responsibilities. These opportunities provides chance to learn how to handle potential new responsibilities, future roles and enhance level of employee engagement. This higher level of engagement provide more satisfaction to employees and enhance their job performance.

2.6.6.3 Content of the Job

Job contents used to measure or quantify the job requests made by employer to the employees. These includes variety of task, task difficulty, time and how well an employee handle the job (Grobler, 2005). When these requests are arranged and organized appropriately, they have positive results in terms of job accomplishment.

Job content is influence by the organisational goals, how the request has been made to the employee and reason for the job assignment. The procedures of organisation also have significant role for example how the innovativeness is challenges or supported by the organisation and the nature of organisation. The contents of the job are based on the way how the job contents are designed and their appropriateness to employees job role (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Work environment also determine the way in which the given task will be performed and the time allocated to the task; in this step the level of job satisfaction sometimes in question. Employees response to the assigned task reflects the plan how the job will be accomplished (Grobler, 2005).

There is relationship between following work procedures based on the organisational goals to organise the work as per job contents because satisfaction arises from the

elements of job. The performance improves with pay extra attention to task, showing care to work and motive to learn during the task (Cummings & Worley, 2001). Job contents provide opportunity to employees to perform the task using the skills and work under improve work conditions (Cummings & Worley, 2001). It can be argued that appropriate job contents helps employees to feel more satisfied and accomplished which improves their performance. Based on the past literature, it can be inferred that both internal and external job satisfaction factors are important in determining the overall satisfaction. Thus, the current study includes the internal and external job satisfaction factors to study job satisfaction of academic staff working at KSA universities. The next section provides model of job satisfaction in details.

2.6.7 Models of Job Satisfaction

Factors that have an impact on model of job satisfaction level are pay, promotion, co-workers and supervision. Locke's Range of Affect Theory (1976) is debatably the most important model of Job Satisfaction. The theory is based on the idea that satisfaction can be measured from the inconsistency between what one's desires from the job and what he/she gets from it. It also describe how some aspects of the job are worth compromising for a person, besides what leads him or her to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Satisfaction level is deeply associated with the job aspects which a person appreciate. The job satisfaction can be turned into dissatisfaction when the expectation of the employees does not fulfilled. It can be exemplified as if an employee likes to work in a free environment in which he/she would be more satisfied. If the desired environment is provided to him/her, the employee will feel satisfied in case of mismatch between expected outcomes and actual the employee will feel less satisfied.

This theory also describe that if a worker values a specific aspect of job too much, it will result in stronger feelings of dissatisfaction.

A popular theory employed to examine job satisfaction is the Dispositional Theory. This theory posits that individuals have natural inclination that urge to a specific satisfaction level regardless of the type of their jobs. This idea highlights that job satisfaction is primarily balance over time and throughout jobs and their careers success. In relation to this theory, Judge (1998) brought forward the core self-evaluation Model that has narrowed down the possibility of dispositional theory. According to Judge, 1998), the four core self-evaluations criterion for job satisfaction are self-efficacy, self-esteem, neuroticism and locus of control and concluded that they are an individual's disposition towards job satisfaction. This model states that when self-esteem and self-efficacy increases, work satisfaction also increases. In this regard, the two-factor theory or motivation-hygiene theory proposed by Herzberg (1959) attempted to shed a light on the relationship between work satisfaction and motivation. It provides a description of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction that are induced by various factors such as hygiene aspects and motivational aspects. Specifically, variables that motivate individuals to perform the task and achieve satisfaction are recognition, work achievement and promotional opportunities. Such motivation factors are considered to be very crucial in job satisfaction. Hygiene factors are related to the work environment such as salary, corporate policy, supervisors and other working aspects.

The model presented by Herzberg provide avenue for further research to be carried out in order to confirm the unconfirmed aspects of job satisfaction. This model contain

shortcoming and criticised by various researchers for example, Hackman and Oldham (1975) recommended that original model by Herzberg contain some limitation in methodological terms. In addition to that, the theory fails to differentiate between satisfied and dissatisfied employees and take all employees into consideration based on their hygiene/ motivation factors. This indicates the model's shortcomings that stem from its failure to identify the appropriate way of motivating employees and measurement of hygiene/ motivation factors. The current research extended the model by incorporating other related aspects and use external and internal satisfaction factors to examine job satisfaction and its impact on job performance.

2.6.8 Dimensions of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has always been a variable of significant interest to the researchers (McCormick & Ilgen, 1985). From the study of Hoppock (1935), it has been observed that more than 3,000 published researches have explored job satisfaction. As indicated by McCormick and Ilgen (1985), the complicated notion typified in the activity idea comes from different variables including work, promotion opportunities, colleagues and compensation. Even though earlier authors uncovered different measurements related with the job satisfaction, Locke (1976) featured an arrangement of shared characteristics in the measurements, which portray many of the anticipated factors combined in order to assess job satisfaction. Moreover, they included that the basic measurement is a record of employment satisfaction over a broad array of the jobs, and as indicated by Locke (1976), it can be classified into agents and events.

Events comprises variety, intrinsic interest, difficulty, chances for success, rewards, learning opportunity and control over work flow among others. On the other hand,

rewards, salary, promotion, acknowledgment, equity or fairness, basis for pay, appreciation, criticism, credit for work and others are also considered. While work context includes working conditions, benefits, working hours, breaks, quality of working environment, equipment, temperature, ventilation, plant location, pension, insurance (both medical and life), annual vacations and other vacations, skills, abilities and self-values. However, others in the company include supervisors-colleagues, approach and power of supervision, technical sufficiency, administrative skills, capability, sociability, cooperation, and technical competence. External includes customers, family members, friendliness, job knowledge, time demand, position, students, parents and voters.

In short, job satisfaction infers the satisfaction based on the individual's attitude towards distinct aspects of the job he or she is doing in the organizations. It is therefore possible for an individual to be highly satisfied with his job considering even a single aspect, or to be less satisfied considering another aspects. According to the employee perception of the job characteristic and the level of satisfaction obtained from a specific job aspect. There are several job satisfaction aspect, the present study focuses on five job aspects which are; work, pay, promotion, colleagues and supervision. The association between the above aspects and performance is discussed in the next sections.

Judge and Bono (2001) in their study used the theory of core self-evaluations given by Judge, Locke and Durham (1997) as a framework for justifying four traits namely; "self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability" and their relationship with job satisfaction and performance. The study showed that four

traits of core self-evaluation are strongly linked with the job satisfaction and job performance. Further, job satisfaction ultimately leads to the higher job performance.

In another research conducted by Judge et al. (2001) have provided mixed-method “qualitative and quantitative” review of relationship between satisfaction and job performance. They have reviewed seven models that describe job satisfaction and job performance in qualitative research approach. In quantitative research approach, they have studied sample of 312 with population of 54,417. The finding shows that though some of the models have acknowledged great provision than the others, study did not run definite validation or suspension of the model, partially due to lack of integration and incorporation in literature review. This shows that the work in this filed contains avenue for further researcher to explore the aspects of job satisfaction. The next section discuss the important aspects of the job satisfaction.

2.6.8.1 Work

Work is explained as working atmosphere of employees and the beliefs about the jobs they handle. The Oxford advanced dictionary of learner’s (1995) explained work as “what is done by a person”. This definition of the work itself for the research deals with the individual’s perceptions on their current task, whether it is a source of comfort, fun, respect or challenging. The work or job provides individual a sense of attainment.

Job satisfaction and job performance emphasise on the job-related tasks which have to be done by employees. Undoubtedly, the construct of job satisfaction and task performance are conceptually related and those can be measured through the same

behaviours. In other words, employees who experience work enjoyment demonstrate a higher level of job performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Luthans (1998) described work motivation as a process of arousing, energizing, directing and sustaining behaviour of employee and performance. It can be referred to as a way of encouraging workers to act and achieve a goal or a task. A way to encourage workers is to apply an effective motivation that enhance employees' satisfaction, commitment and performance at job. However, it is noted that payment salary is not only motivating factor for the employees.

There are many other non- monetary incentives that motivate employees to perform better. Unique employee attitudes that relate to the job satisfaction and organizational commitment are of great interests for researchers in field of organizational behaviours and HRM. Attitude directly impacts job satisfaction, while the organizational commitment stresses on behaviours of the employees towards the organizations as a whole (Tella et al., 2007).

Literature concerning work motivation appears to be consistent with the notion that it enhances performance of employees and their satisfaction. For instance, Brown and Shepherd (1997) studied work qualities of the teacher-librarians in terms of four main aspects: technical skills, knowledge base, beliefs and values. The results indicates that success in meeting the challenges employee motivation by deeply-held beliefs and values concerning the progress of a shared vision. In addition, Vinokur, Jayarantne and Chess (1994) investigated the agency-affected task and their employment conditions, evaluation of their effect on the satisfaction of employees. Motivation issues include; pay, job security, fringe benefits, safety and physical environment.

Moreover, specific motivational factors and environment predicts job satisfaction. In contrast, financial incentives are contended by Colvin (1998), as motivators for people to do more of what they are doing. In an associated study, Silverthorne (1996) examined managerial style and motivation in both public and private sectors. Findings revealed little difference among motivational requirements of both the sectors exhibited by employees, managers and non-managers. Work act as a stronger motivators that keep employee working for the organisation. The work often regarded as source of motivation for the employees and create satisfaction. This satisfaction from the work leads to higher level of commitment and superior job performance.

2.6.8.2 Pay

Pay is characterised as employee's compensation, which is sufficient for their typical expenses. The employee is happy with his salary that is paid as per the working experience and equivalent to the work done (Hussin, 2011). To date, most broadly utilised methods for looking at the association between job satisfaction and performance involves the utilization of different factors with pay among them. Different researches speculated that the job performance could affect work fulfilment to the level that individuals are compensated as per their performance. The justification behind the argument is that if employees value payment, high performance should be satisfying to the level that pay is related to performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton, 2001).

Over the last few years, there is an increasing attention of scholars to study pay for the performance. People are paid according to their performance as per the rule, hence employee behaviour motivated with improved rewards which foster the individual and organizational performance. Nevertheless, the implementation of pay-for-performance

in an effective manner remain challenging aspect for employers and employees. An effective system calls for two processes: performance management and compensation management, they not only work well on their own, but they are also effective when integrated together. Compensation management is not strong if the performance management system do not evaluate the employees work properly and without a well-administered compensation system. On the other hand, it can be effective when performance evaluation of employees is strong and the compensation system also well-administered. In this case, it is implied that pay and performance are much inter-dependent and/or interrelated. It can be argued that proper pay system motivated employee to work with full dedication to perform their organisation. A proper pay system can lead to higher performance as employees will be more satisfied their level of commitment will be high which in turn raise the performance.

2.6.8.3 Promotion

Promotion is explained as an employee's upgradation to a better position in a firm (Monday and Noe, 1990). Conceptually, it can be explained as the assignment of an individual to a senior job position in an organization (Carrell et al., 1992). A significant aspect that influences employee's job perception is the opportunity for promotion and advancement in career. A firm concentrating on promotion and career advancement provide employees with a sense of value in the organizations, which results in better performance at work. Employees can only be motivated if they are capable of doing the job and if they are adequate opportunities of promotion and development (Al-Harthy, 2008).

Motivation of employees can be improved by offering opportunities career advancement and skill development. Many individuals are motivated by the provision of professional development and promotion opportunities, including; mentoring, attending training programs and on-the-job training. These activities allow staff to perform their work related and professional goals such as work towards the better of organisation, to extend or enrich their work roles and functions, achieve a more significant responsibility and to obtain recognition and show more interest in their work. European Foundation report on the development of working and living conditions (2007), on “Quality of Working life in the Czech Republic”, showed that two-thirds of participants surveyed reported opportunities for promotion and personal growth are extremely important motivational factors for them. Employees thrive on opportunities to develop and to acquire new skills. Ali and Ahmed (2008) studied employees’ motivation and satisfaction among 80 employees of Unilever companies, which indicated that the lowest mean values for payment, promotion, recognition and benefits indicating that employees were more likely to lose their motivation which results in poor performance. Malik and Naeem (2009) ranked the promotion opportunities as the third top factor that motivate the employees to perform better for the organization. However, promotion leads to motivation that results in job satisfaction and ultimately job satisfaction designates superior job performance.

Review of the relevant literature showed that job satisfaction is significantly associated in with promotional opportunities (Pergamit & Veum, 1999; Peterson et al., 2003; Sclafane, 1999). For instance Ellickson and Logsdon (2002), studies this concept using municipal government workers, and supported the notion that promotion opportunities influence job performance. Kreitner and Kinicki (2001) also revealed same

relationship and added that such relationship depends on equity as perceived by the employees. In addition, Khan, Farooq, and Ullah (2010) showed that promotion and employee performance are positively related. Promotion has a powerful effect on the job satisfaction in contrast with achievement and recognition. Promotion results in positive modifications in the pay, supervision and autonomy, which act as source increase in job satisfaction (Arnold & Feldman, 1996).

Hoy and Miskel (1991) highlighted that top achievers those were promoted speedily negatively effect on other staff members. They stated that this type of promotion may lead to dissatisfaction among those who were loyal to the company but were found less creative for senior job roles. It is often claimed that the human resource department questions: “does the job position require prospects for advancement (promotion)?” According to Lock (1976), this desire to be promoted stems from psychological growth, fairness and status in society. Thus, management should understand that promotion can be a positive motivating mechanism that ensures employees achieve organizational goals and perform significant better. In light of the above discussion and review of literature, it can be argued that promotional opportunities significantly enhance the employee job satisfaction and job performance ultimately.

2.6.8.4 Co-Worker

The co-worker is characterised as someone who is thoughtful, comprehension and indicating concern for representatives; sometimes, they provide supportive data, help and advice at work. Co-workers are supportive, friendly and contributes in decision making process and work efficiency. Hussin (2011) explained that co-workers are persons who work with you and has a comparative position. Constructive relationship

between co-workers bring positive outcome for individual employees and organisation. Past studies have investigated demographic and contextual antecedents of friendship at the workplace that sets up relational associations with solid dispositional roots (Dachner, 2011). Peer relationship and its importance have been highlighted within social psychological literature. A strong and productive relationship between co-workers significantly influence on job performance (Fernet, Gagné & Austin, 2010). The research shows that peers or co-workers can lay down behavioural norms, which can exhibit positive or negative role in the firm performance. Their influence, either positive or negative, is widely considered as significant in shaping individual and organisational performance. Regardless of the considerable research dedicated to explaining general relationships between co-workers, the specific type of peer relationships that takes place among co-workers has received less attention as compared to other workplace settings. The importance of co-worker relationships has been moved aside by the hierarchical relationships between supervisors and subordinates. The inclusion of co-worker relationships in research is sometimes evidence in studies focused on other forms of interpersonal workplace relationships. Basford and Offermann (2008) has focused on negative workplace relationships and it tend to reveal the level to of negative interactions between co-workers. In contrast, friendly co-workers are more capable of helping an individual as compared to unfriendly work mates. Moreover, friendships may automatically develop owing to the close proximity in work, interactions and shared experiences which would lead to the improvement of job performance (Lu, 1999; Berman et al., 2002). Rousseau (1995) recommended that supervisors might be solicited to empower an environment of transparency and friendly relations amongst their employees in order to provide positive working environment to employees. In an investigation of senior supervisors,

Berman et al. (2002) perceived basic procedures for advancing an atmosphere of companionship. These strategies included giving representatives the chance to socialize; urging them to be well disposed toward each other, to help each other and train managers to develop positive associations with workers. In light of the above cited literature, the relationship between co-workers is of significant important to reduce workplace complexities and to foster individual and organisational performance.

2.6.8.5 Supervision

Supervision can be defined as how supervisors treat workers /subordinates in appreciating their good work, seeking the advice of employees, comprehending the nature of employees' tasks as well as giving them enough assistance and at the same time describing good examples to the employees.

Interaction between supervisor and employee includes supervisors dealing with unhappy or dissatisfied employees. The question arises, if employees are problematic or the supervisor are troublemakers, it is often, the supervisor's behaviour towards the perceived weak performers that leads to adverse performance. Many employees basically underperform owing to their supervisor's efforts or lack of it, which is described as a dysfunctional boss-subordinate relationship (Elisa & Topper, 2007). Managing people at work is a core element of supervisors and proper management can bring better performance. In order to understand the crucial significance of people in organizations, it is important to consider the human factor as synonymous to the organizations. This is the reason, why organizations consider an average employee as a source of productivity and quality gains and improvement opposed to capital

investment. An organization is effective to the level it reaches its set targets and successful supervisor should ensure the good will of cooperation and commitment exist among the employees. To gain the satisfaction and job commitment of employees, they should be effectively motivated to perform (Robert & Verner, 2011).

The review of literature suggested that relationship between employees and supervisors act as an important aspect in achieving the required level of performance for the organisation. The fair treatment will all employees and proper guidance in problematic situation is main responsibility of the supervisors. The supervisor should take immediate action on the issues raised by the employees and put efforts to resolve them at earliest. The proper functioning of supervisor will foster the individual job performance as well as overall organisational performance.

2.6.8.6 Theory of Job Satisfaction

Motivation theory is a theory that mainly explains the job satisfaction. As explained by Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000), motivation is an individual force that denotes the path, persistence and level of one's effort spent at the work. Gomez-Meija, Balkin and Cardy (2007) defined motivation as "an individual's wish to do the best at their jobs and put all effort to do the given task". People are also motivated through getting rewards (extrinsic or intrinsic), but the situation can turn reverse if the reward are not justified. This shows unfair treatment will employees and lowers the level of satisfaction among employees. The related theories in context of jobs satisfaction are given in section below:

2.6.9 Two-Factor Theory and Job Satisfaction

Frederick Herzberg posited that satisfaction of employee is depend on two aspects which named as namely motivator and hygiene factors (Schermerhorn et al., 2000). The theory includes the hygiene factors namely; quality of supervision, organizational policies, base wage, relationship with the peers, status, relationship with subordinates, working environment and security and organizational policies. And motivator factors are work itself, recognition, responsibility, growth and progress. Based on the theory, hygiene factors are viewed as the bases of job satisfaction and they are linked to the work environment. The enhancement of hygiene factors not only lead to the prevention of dissatisfaction but enhance the productivity. According to Herzberg, among the factors organizational policies is one of the leading factor. These policies drive people in the organizations towards achievement of organisational goals. With ambiguous and irrelevant policies, employees will be frustrated and feel dissatisfied (Syptak, Marsland & Ulmer, 1999).

With regards to the quality of supervision factor, according to Syptak et al. (1999), the organizations needs to be thorough when appointing a supervisor as the position entails working with subordinates at a regular basis. The dealing criteria is the efficiency and attitude of supervisor which influence the workers' satisfaction. As for the pay factor, according to Herzberg, low salary often leads to workers' dissatisfaction but high wages does not necessarily lead to satisfaction or motivation. In addition, peer relationship is also among the hygiene factors and if an organization is eager of strengthening its relationship with its employees and the teamwork among them, they should provide opportunities to employees for socialisation during break hours.

Moreover, inter and intra-departmental group tasks can also be helpful for creating a high level of socialisation among them.

Comfortable and conducive working condition is one of the hygiene factors. Organizations must maintain the equipment, facilities and necessary working tools for smooth working. Management should also provide every worker with his/her own personal place for their work. Most studies have only mentioned five factors but Schermerhorn et al. (2000) further added three hygiene factors i.e., subordinates' relationship, status and security; and in order to enhance worker satisfaction, motivator factors have to be stressed by the organizations as these factors are related to job content. Job content refers to the tasks that people must perform in their job. According to Syptak et al. (1999), the organizations have to help employees in believing that their work is important to the organizations in order to motivate them for making quality contribution for their organisation. By these efforts from organisation side, the employees will be more interested in their work. A sense of achievement is also among the six factors comprising job content. The supervisor has a key role in motivating people through their sense of achievement. Workers may be allocated to the suitable tasks so that they can use their skills to efficiently complete their work. It is also the responsibility of the supervisor to help workers to achieve their professional goals and provide timely feedback about their performance. These efforts on employees keep them motivated to put their best efforts for their individual and organisational goals.

Furthermore, recognition is also another factor which considered to be important for employee motivation. Syptak et al. (1999) stated that every employee in every level of the organizations would be partial to it, particularly, those who are good workers.

Acknowledging these workers will help in maintaining their level of satisfaction. Another factor that could motivate people is responsibility, which encourages work ownership. When employees are provided with more responsibility, they are encouraged to do their work in an efficient manner and they feel more confident in themselves (Syptak et al., 1999).

Moreover, advancement is one of the six factors. It is important for the organizations to motivate workers' performance by providing them new titles reflecting their level and what they have achieved. The organizations may also offer to help workers in furthering their education, which will benefit not only the workers but also the organizations. The career development and advancement enhance the professional skills of the employees and make them beneficial for the organisation (Syptak et al., 1999).

The last factor in the theory is growth factor (Schermerhorn et al., 2000). Creativity and innovation are both important for the organization in the hope of motivating the workers. The organization may also expend efforts to maintain and allocate a library, which can encourage workers to learn more from the books or check out available published data or material to support their work activities. These all factors play important role in increasing the level of motivation and satisfaction among the employees which ultimately enhance the job performance. In context of the academician working at KSA universities, two-factor theory is more relevant and supporting the underlying mechanism of job satisfaction and job performance with mediating and moderating variables.

2.7 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is the “degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organization and employee wishes to maintain membership in that organization” (Robbins & Coulter, 2012). Another definition “organizational commitment is the attitude and involvement of employees in an organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Then their definition revised to “a psychological state that characterizes an employee’s relationship with the organization and reduces the likelihood that he/she will leave it” Allen and Meyer (1990). O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) defines organizational commitment as “an individual’s psychological bond to the organization, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty and belief in the values of the organization”.

Organizational commitment leads to decrease turnover intentions and absenteeism. Both turnover and absenteeism are the factors that affected by job satisfaction. However, organizational commitment is in lower level of importance compared with job satisfaction when considering the factors that affect the performance (Robbins & Coulter, 2012). Meyer and Allen (1997) detailed the definition of organizational commitment from perspective of employees’ behaviours into three types of commitment: effective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment (Tong et al. 2017; Lutfie, Prasetio, & Alamanda, 2014; Abedini, 2015; Gangai & Agrawal, 2015). Affective commitment is based individual’s emotional attachment to the organization. High level of affective commitment helps the employees to be active participants and highly involved in the organizations’ activities. Continuance commitment is the degree that employee stay with the organization

because they believe they have to stay with organisation. High normative commitment generates and support the urge to keep attached to the organization.

2.7.1 Theories of Organizational Commitment

Mowday, Koberg and McArthur (1984) developed a framework model that employee's organizational commitment is based on their personality and characteristics within an organization. Mowday et al. (1984) argue that the commitment is related to the level of which organizational goals and values believed by the employee, employee's extra effort to provision the organization, and employees' retention. Allen and Meyer (1990) developed organizational commitment framework model that includes many factors that influence employee's commitment. They argue that the factors influencing the employees' commitment involved anticipation about rewards, employee's attitude, the level of employees understanding and sharing the organizational goals, and the cost of leaving the organization. Allen and Meyer (1990) found that employees' commitment to organisation is linked with their level of turnover. This model signifies that employee's mental attitudes have strong impact on their commitment with their organisations.

Mowday et al. (1984) asserted that the organizational commitment is identified by their attitude and identity within an organisation. In their claim, Mowday et al. (1984) argue that the commitment was based on three factors which are:

- Employees' support to their organizational values and goals.
- The extent of employee's additional effort in supporting the organizational needs.

- The level of employees' willing to stay in the organisation.

This model is significant as it combines the behaviour and the attitude of the employees. They further asserted that the employee's attitudes determine the level of the alignment between their personal goals and organizational goal. In contrast, commitment that based on behaviour is determined by employees' experiences which leads to involvement in the organisation.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggest that identification, internalization, and compliance are the factors that determine employee commitment with an organization. When employees seek particular rewards, they adopt proper behaviour and attitudes that show compliance with organisational rules. However, when employees are recognized by the organization, they show a desire to keep associated with that organisation and put efforts to strengthen the relationship (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Research findings come to an agreement that organisational commitment is a multi-dimensional factor that includes practical aspect also. Examples of these issues are the costs of leaving the organization and employees' attitudes and behaviour. Thus, organizational commitment takes several forms during employment lifecycle in an organisation. These forms could arise concurrently or at different stages of employment. Therefore, positive commitment is related to the feel of staying with an organisation, rather than need to stay. Employees with affective commitment greatly contribute to their organisations than low committed employees (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

Meyer and Allen (1990) suggested that organizational commitment includes three main behaviour and attitude factors. They asserted that an employee's desire to leave or stay in an organisation is depends on relationship between employees and organisation. This is determined by the psychological state of the employee which is continuance commitment, normative commitment, and affective commitment. The normative commitment is based on the level of sharing employee's norms that lead to employee's sense of obligation to the organisation. Employees with strong normative commitment lean keep with the organization that they feel obliged to (Allen and Meyer, 1996). The continuance commitment is the accumulation of benefits and interests within an organization.

An employee ties to an organization because of the further interests such as seniority, apprehensions about family and pensions rather than the only positive approaches toward the organization (Rahman, Ferdausy, & Karan, 2015; Yeh & Hong, 2012). This type of commitment embodies the employees' understanding of costs of staying or leaving the organisation that means they stay with their organization because they have to (Allen & Meyer, 1991). These employees work in organisation for their own benefits rather working on mutual benefits which will ultimately benefit the individuals.

Affective commitment is an employee's emotional faithfulness to the organisation (Mowday et al., 1984). Employees are keenly involved with the organization by contributing to the betterment of the organization and their employers (Mowday et al., 1979). Affective commitment involves three factors that related an employee to an organization: strongly supporting organisation's values and goals, the willingness to

do an extra effort to the organisation, and a strong feel of retaining membership in an organisation (Mowday et al., 1984).

The model of Allen and Meyer (1990) is described and used as the most widely accepted conceptualization of organisational commitment (Akhtar et al., 2015; Hakim, 2015; Hashim, 2015; Kalkavan & Katrinli, 2014b; Rumawas, 2015; Tolentino, 2013). This model is widely popular because when employees are emotionally linked to an organisation, they show significant affective commitment (Tong et al., 2017). Factors that impact affective commitment are group management relationships, personal profiles, job role, characteristics of the organization and job characteristic. Attendance is described as a positive work behaviour that helps the affective commitment and linked to job commitment and involvement, leadership and organizational support. Allen and Meyer (1990) contended that when an organisation has many employees display significant continuance commitment, the negative attitudes may occur because of the poor employees' performance.

As per the reviewed literature, it can be argued that organisational commitment is significant determinant of employees' job performance. Organisational commitment reflected in the employees work for the organisation, the more committed employee work for organisation and less focus on personal interest. Committed employees work for mutual benefit and consider organisational benefit as their own benefit. More satisfied employee will be committed to the organisation and this commitment lead to higher level of job performance.

2.7.2 Elements of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has a multi-dimensional approach. Allen and Meyer (1990) have documented that significant determinants of commitment vary across its dimensions. Organizational commitment is believed as a psychological relationship between employees and their organisation that reduce turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The three dimensions of organisational commitment are related to the intention of an employee to stay with the organisation. The intention is linked to their difference in obligations and desire (Abedini, 2015; Memari et al., 2013; Tong et al., 2017).

Employee's desires and obligations influence their behaviour. The three components were examined in the previous studies and showed variation in regards to their relationships with employees' job behaviour (Akhtar et al., 2015; Thay, Othman, Siong, & Sheilla, 2013). The common factor across the three components of commitment is the psychological situation of organizational commitment. This has significant indication of employee turnover or intention to stay. This common factor is linked to the idea that employees who have strong normative commitment tend to stay. They tend to stay because they must do, employees who have strong continuance commitment tend to stay because they need to while employees who have strong affective commitment tend to stay because they want to do so. These constructs are linked because they are all components of organizational commitment (Rahman et al., 2015; Tong et al., 2017).

As a result of the increase in recognizing the multi-dimensional factors of organizational commitment, scholars have tried to show the differences between these various dimensions. Scholars also try to discover their relationship with determinants

and effects. Therefore, many trends have been showed in the theoretical studies. The difference in the results includes clarity of employee role, goal expectations, job challenges, equity, approach of the colleague, level of education, participation, variety of the skills, personal importance, organisation dependability, pension, feedback, commitment norm, alternatives, relocation and community (Allen and Meyer, 1990). These factors are reported to have significant influence in organisational commitment of employees towards their organisation.

Earlier studies on the antecedents and determinants of commitment generally showed consistent results. When employees tend to stay with their organization, they show significant normative commitment which often linked to affective commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). These factors impacting both commitments are related, however affective commitment shows a stronger relationship compared to normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Normative commitment has a strong relationship with employees' experience and time spent within an organisation. Normative commitment refers to that employees would be unlikely to leave their organization because they appreciate their belongingness to the organisation. The obligation help the employees to work harder to achieve organizational goals. Therefore, the employees show the behaviour that benefits their organization (Tong et al., 2017).

It is characterized as “an effective attitude or response resulting because of an assessment of the work circumstance which attaches or links the persons to an organization” (Mottaz, 1988, p. 468). There is far reaching agreement in literature that organizational commitment depends on the attitude of employees (Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe, 2008). Moreover, it can be assessed from the action of the employees

for their organisation (Becker, 1960). Porter et al. (1974) mentioned that organizational commitment is portrayed by three components; strong trust in organizational values, goals, ability to apply exertion in the interest of the association and a powerful urge to be an employee of that organization.

Meyer and Allen (1991) translate organizational commitment as a psychological expression that comprises of three variables called three-component model (TCM). The TCM bonds three psychological situations that depict the representative's relationship with the organization, and they are conclusive results when employees are choosing whether to stay or to leave the organization (Meyer et al., 2002; Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe, 2008). Every component vary its power after some time, contingent upon the work conditions.

The principal segment, affective commitment is related to the individual's emotional involvement and relationship with the organizations (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The components of the organizational commitment clarified by Porter et al. (1974) as indicated in (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) traits of affective commitment. However, if employees have a solid affective commitment, then he or she will remain in an organization since he or she needs individual qualities and working experience which are elements of the affective commitment. The previous literature comprises mainly of the demographic features and later is estimated by elements that includes organizational support, job challenges, transformational leadership, role clarity, job importance and empowerment (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Effective commitment likewise related with the job satisfaction, and more satisfied employee will be more committed to their organisation.

The second factor which is called continuance commitment, identifies with the attention to costs related with quitting an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). If continuance commitment is strong, the employees will remain in an organization since he or she needs to. Continuance commitment depends on individual attributes, investments and other job opportunities available for example, transferable aptitudes, self-investment, formal education and pension (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The third factor, normative commitment duplicates a sentiment of responsibility to proceed with the organisation that is the choice of the employee to stay in the organisation due to feeling of being indebted to the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). If normative commitment is powerful, employee choose to stay in the organization. The components of the normative commitment are socialization experience, organization's investment and personal traits. The TCM is thought to be the main model of the organizational commitment, yet a few authors have criticised the model due to unconfirmed results. Solinger et al. (2008) failed to confirm the organizational commitment in a model as they emphasised that it is an indicator of turnover in the organization than serving in as a model of the organizational commitment.

Besides, it is opposed that the normative commitment has been discovered to connect firmly with the affective commitment and there is vulnerability of the validity of the continuation commitment. Additionally, Meyer et al. (2002) discovered predictors that corresponded with the affective commitment and continuance commitment, while no factors were found to associate particularly with the normative commitment.

Hence, researchers have proposed that the principal factor, affective commitment, ought to be utilised to examine the organizational commitment as it corresponds with

underlying variables of the organizational commitment and has strong validity of three segments (Ko, Price, and Mueller, 1997). Affective organizational commitment is additionally characterized as concept of trade, also called reward-value based model (Mottaz, 1988). The current research used this component to determine organisational commitment of the employees.

Similarly, as employers are anxious about the individual's contribution and loyalty to the organization, Wiesenberger et al. (1986) find proof that the employees are anxious about how the organization values their commitments and care for their prosperity through a system of reward. An individual with specific desires, skills and needs joins the company where he or she can utilize his or her capacities and fulfil one's fundamental needs that employers accommodates (Kalleberg, 1977). Different rewards can be connected with the task itself, for instance through work responsibilities, work challenges and supportive co-workers (Katz and Van Maanen, 1977).

Moreover, if the company fails to meet an employee needs, employer should expect that job performance and organizational commitment of the worker will weaken, and there will be increase in the absenteeism. Different studies have been conducted on the organizational commitment includes predictors and they are named either individual or organizational traits (Mottaz, 1988). The prior studies comprise of demographic factors, for example, age, gender, education, and personality and religion components. For instance, Mottaz (1988) correlated working experiences, pay, task attributes and social conditions. The findings showed that the factors effect on the organizational commitment are uncertain. The purpose behind the study irregularity is that the

researches underline distinctive factors or traits and in this manner, it is hard to compare different studies on organization's commitment (Mottaz, 1988). Some propose that both individual and organizational qualities have important effect on employee's organizational commitment. Other proposes that only individuals or organizational attributes are noteworthy. For instance, Mottaz (1988) proposes that demographic qualities may not be represented, despite the fact that they are positively connected with the organizational commitment, since they do not clarify why an employee is dedicated. Like job satisfaction, organizational commitment has been depicted in different areas because of its multifaceted nature. Nonetheless, researchers concur that it depends on the employee's values and attitudes. Then again, there is much inconsistency with respect to the predictors that depict organizational commitment, as it is a generally new field of research of organizational theory.

On the other hand, organizational commitment is measured as the most essential concept which impacts job performance and turnover of employees (Chen & Francesco, 2003). The research of Chen and Aryee (2007) documented that individual's commitment is fundamental for the organizational execution. Organizational commitment is taken as a future statement for a particular job in exceptional time and conditions. A worker becomes dedicated when show sincerity with their assigned tasks, duties and innovative towards work (Riketta, 2002; .Clugston, 2000). Employee commitment with the organization is a colossal reward as in this situation they will fulfil their tasks for organizational goals and accomplish their objectives. Organizational commitment is reliant on internal motivation and individual's competence (Katz & Kahn1978). A stronger level of organizational

commitment increase with the time spent by an employee for their organisation (Mowday et al., 1982).

The research by Mathur and Vadera (2003) highlighted that accomplishment of the goals has an important connection with the organizational achievement. Employee's commitment need to make their company on top level (Kumar, 2006). Organizational commitment is the idea which has been emphasized by various researchers and practitioners of HRM since it impacts the employee's performance (Meyer JP, Allen NJ (1997). Individual's show commitment because of different reasons, for example, feeling of obligation, costs related with leaving the organization and association with the organizational standards (Robbins (2005). Organizational commitment is the global variable in which employees applies efforts, demonstrate congruency with goals and esteem of the organization and show desire for organizational involvement (Brown, 2003; Boehman, 2006). Organizational commitment is a type of bond among employees and organization in which they are working (Buchanan, 1974). The bond quality is subject to various components. Employees conduct has a strong link with the commitment. Committed individuals limits the chances of absenteeism and turnover (Igarria & Greenhaus, 1992). Commitment is said to be the willingness of worker to work for the organization and proceed with their task (Mowday et al., 1982). This commitment encourages the employees to perform better to show higher level of performance which leads to superior organisational performance.

Organizational commitment is a basic conduct for evaluating the aim of the employees to leave or stay with the organisation. Organizational goals can be accomplished because of good performance. Hence, more activities are required for the improvement

of organizational performance. Commitment enhances employee's performance and organizational competitiveness (Memari, Mahdieh, & Marnani, 2013). Bragg (2002) explained that organizational commitment is significant for employees. The organizational commitment is divided into four keen likes; first "need to" the organizational commitment. Sincere employees devote their efforts for enhancing organizational output or profitability. Employees are offered extra miles and overtime payment, however, they stayed motivated and work proficiently. Second discerning is "have to" commitment in which an individual has more awful mentality for organizational management or managers. Thirdly, understanding of the commitment is "ought to" which is measured as the feeling of commitment for the organization for development of organizational esteem system, for example, criteria, ethical values, standards, and norms. Fourth, commitment understanding is "have to leave" demonstrates weak organizational commitment. It can be argued that organisational commitment is an important construct which lead to higher organisational performance. Miller and Lee (2001) classified commitment into three types such as affective, normative and continuance commitment. The explanation of these three types is given in below section.

2.7.3 Affective Commitment

Bragg (2002) characterised affective commitment as a passionate belongingness towards the organization. In addition, Meyer and Allen (1997) explained affective commitment as attachment, involvement and positive emotions, for example, recognizable efforts of workers for the betterment of organization. In this circumstance, employees have set up strong relation and attachment with the organization. Emotional affiliation of employee increases sincerity for the

organization, acknowledge and follow rules of the organization in order to achieve the organizational objectives successfully. Beck and Wilson (2000) clarified that affective commitment is measured as emotional connection of an employee with the organization and with its principles and standards. This dimension served as an important aspect for the employees and organisation.

2.7.4 Continuance Commitment

Meyer and Allen (2005) characterize continuance commitment as a cost connected with quitting of an organization. In more extensive range, continuance commitment is considered as an individual's interest in the organization as it is portrayed by Allen and Meyer (1997) as an investment of worker implies his or her effort, money and time. It is taken as a cost if an individual wants to quit the organization. These sorts of projects included commitment to particular organizational development, status, skills, pension plans and utilization of organizational advantages like limiting home loan rates. The cost associated with leaving an organization can be reduced by absence of alternatives or replacement or make up of unavoidable speculations (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).

Meyer and Allen (1997) clarify normative commitment as the commitment to be with the employer or organisation. Normative commitment demonstrates that individuals would prefer not to leave the organization and have strong bond. Individuals have feelings of belongingness with the organization. An individual bares the concern with the organization since organization is loved by the employee. At the point when an individual look towards his or her status, rewards, supports, he or she demonstrates the feelings of sincere duty, attachment and feelings of commitment towards the

organisation. Normative commitment is expressed as commitment of individuals with the specific organization with status, moral improvement that is given by the organization in upcoming years (March & Mannari, 1977). Normative commitment energizes remaining with the organization for a longer time, job satisfaction and efficient performance (Aamodt, 2007). Moreover, dedicated employees demonstrate higher performance in their tasks as compared to the less dedicated employees (Adekola, 2012).

Review of the literature support the relationship of the organizational commitment and individual performance. For instance, Negin et al. (2013) clarify that organizational commitment impacts the job performance of bank representatives. The result demonstrated that measurements of the organizational commitment, for example, affective, normative and continuous commitment have association with job performance. Qaisar, Rehman, and Suffyan, (2012) showed the impact of organizational commitment (affective, normative and continual) on individual's performance. The findings revealed that organizational commitment (affective, normative and continual) collectively determine the organisational performance.

In addition to that, Suliman and Lles (2000) explored that organizational commitment and employee's performance in three industrial units. This findings showed that organizational commitment has a positive impact with the job satisfaction. Somers and Birnbanm (2014) explained that job commitment has relation with the job performance. However, organizational commitment and employee's performance have no significant association. Moreover, continuance commitment has a positive relation with work performance. Shore et al. (1995) conducted a study on managers

and subordinates in a multinational organization in the US and reported that affective commitment has a positive impact on job performance while normative and continuance commitment has no significant relationship with employee performance.

The review of the literature showed that organisational commitment serve as an important construct that enhance the job performance. It is critical to examine commitment and performance relationship especially in context of KSA university academicians. Therefore, current study aims to bridge this empirical and contextual gap by providing deep insights to relationship between organisational commitment and job performance in KSA universities.

2.8 Employee Empowerment

Employee empowerment is defined as “giving employees more authority (power) to make decisions” (Robbins & Coulter, 2012). In other view, empowerment has been defined from two main dimensions: “psychological empowerment dimension and structural empowerment dimension”. Psychological empowerment related to intrinsic motivation. “It creates and support self-efficiency that positively impacts the performance of an employee” (Mustafa & Bon, 2012; Patah et al., 2009; Spreitzer, 2007; Spreitzer, 1995). Based on this view, Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined “empowerment as the way of improving self-efficiency and performance of an employees and Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined employee empowerment as the feeling of high performing and achievement that supported by high obligation, motivation and commitment”. Brymer (1991) defined it as “a decision process of that managers give more autonomy to the employees”.

Definitions that focused on “structural empowerment dimension, on the other hand, view empowerment as management action guided by of organizational policies and organizational structure”. Kanter (1993) argues that empowerment is one of main factors that influence employee’s work and organization related behaviour. It further presented four main structural factors that influence empowerment in an organization: empowerment activities that included in job description, information accessibility, job responsibility and availability of job performance resources. Empowerment seems to be a useful management tool that used to exchange the shared vision to support achieving common goals. Most of empowerment definitions share the view that empowerment involves giving employees a discretion over their work activities. Empowerment is defines it as an exchange of power between the employers and their employees. Empowerment is the process to which employees should be directed in order for them and for the organizations to achieve their goals. Employers must empower their employees in order to motivated and assist the organization in achieving its goals (Meyerson & Dewettinck, 2012).

Employee empowerment leads to improving performance productivity, and job satisfaction (Meyerson & Dewettinck, 2012). Empowerment is increased intrinsic task motivation that showed in employee’s cognitions. The cognitions reflect an employees' direction to their job. The conditions are: competence, meaning, impact, and self-determination (Mir & Rainayee, 2015).

Malone defined the decentralization like “participation of the employees in making choices that matters to them” (P. 5). The idea of decentralization explained by Malone is much closer to another concept that deals with control, powers, and empowerment.

According to Liden and Tewksbury (1995) empowerment is a significant tool as it offered the potentials to positively influencing results, which will give advantage to both organizations' and the employees'. Moreover, Quinn and Spreitzer (1999) stated that there are increasing consensuses that the employee empowerment can be the resource of a competitive benefit for the modern organizations. The concept of empowerment is defined in a variety of ways, by a number of researchers.

2.8.1 Approaches of Employee Empowerment

The word empowerment is already used and spread in different range of contexts, for instance, liberation of women, social works, law, politics, psychology, education, and employment (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Lashley, 2001; FRIDE, 2006). This improvement into the various fields and directions of usage made sense of the words to become vague (Lashley, 2001).

As there is no universally established definition has existed, depending on the contexts, a number of explanations of the term empowerment can be seen: few people define it as “a substitute plan to the old method of promoting the development”, others as “the capability to make choices in queries that impact the life of the employees”, and still others merely as “a modification in relation to the power” (FRIDE, 2006, p. 4). The later definition is much close to how empowerment is understood by some in the context of employment.

Employee empowerment can be defined as “giving individuals more power to make choices” (Robbins and Coulter, 2012). In other views, empowerment has been defined from two major dimensions: structural empowerment dimensions and psychological

empowerment dimensions. Psychological empowerment is correlated to the intrinsic motivation. It has created and supported the self-efficiency that really affects the performances of employees' (Mustafa & Bon, 2012; Patah et al., 2009; Spreitzer, 2007; Spreitzer, 1995).

Depending on this point of view, Conger and Kanungo (1988) explained empowerment as the means of enhancing the performances and self-efficiency of the employees' and Thomas and Velthouse (1990) explained employee empowerment as a sense of high performance and achievements, which is supported by high commitments, incentives and dedication. Brymer (1991) narrated it as a decision process of the supervisors offer more self-sufficiency to the employees'. Malone defined the decentralization like "participation of the employees in making choices that matters to them" (P. 5).

The idea of decentralization explained by Malone is much closer to another concept that deals with control, powers, and empowerment. According to Liden & Tewksbury (1995) empowerment is a significant tool as it offered the potentials to positively influencing results, which will give advantage to both organizations' and the employees'. Moreover, Quinn and Spreitzer (1999) stated that there are increasing consensus that the employee empowerment can be the resource of a competitive benefit for the modern organizations'.

The basic idea of empowerment is defined in a number of manners, by several researchers. According to Rodwell (1996) the idea is generally used in society for a number of philosophies. In this investigation she explains that the idea of

empowerment would appear to be a process of facilitation or impartation of power transfer from one person or groups to another.

This means, for instance that somebody acquires the right to make the decisions at the same time as this right formerly belonged to somebody else. Spreitzer and Doneson (2005) defined the term with a focal point on employees', and broaden the definition of Rodwell (1996) by stating that empowering processes allowed the employees to make decisions on their own, and the way to handle the job related issues by their own. Definitions that paying attention on structural empowerment dimensions, conversely, view empowerment as a management act, guided by the organizational structures and organizational strategies.

Employee empowerment is “the allocation of authority and duty from top management levels in organizational hierarchy to the lower level employee’s, particularly the authority to make choices”. Employee empowerment directs to improve the performance productivity and job satisfactions (Meyerson & Dewettinck, 2012). Empowerment is the improved intrinsic task inspiration, which is showed in employee’s cognition. This cognition reflects an employee's directions to their jobs. The conditions are: self-determination, impact, meaning, and competence, (Mir & Rainayee, 2015). Employee empowerment is the method by which superiors fortify subordinates’ viewpoints of self-efficacy (Conger, 1989) and their abilities to implement choices (Velthouse, 1990), based on the certainty of having the decision-making controls (Parker & Price, 1994).

Zemke and Schaaf (1989) supported that this needs rewards and encouragements for individuals to create ideas' and utilize their ideas. Chiles and Zorn (1995) divided the idea of empowerment into two main groups: perceptions of control abilities or decision-making and the perceptions of self-efficacy or competency. Competence focuses on a person's sense of capability to do a job, while decision-making authorities focus on the communal freedom and powers to make choices. Theorists detained that the people will feel more empowered if they perceive the capabilities to execute a job efficiently, therefore empowerment have significant impact on work performance (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1995). Employees must have power to make the decision regarding job task in order to be called they are empowered (Albrecht, 1988; Kanter, 1983; Parker & Price, 1994). As per the review of above cited literature, it can be argued that employee empowerment served as important aspect that help to increase the level motivation and job performance.

2.8.1.1 Mechanistic Approach

Besides from various definitions of empowerment, the concept is also in a number of ways separated in literature. Quinn and Spreitzer (1999) revealed two very different viewpoints of empowerment during interviews in an organization that had begun an empowerment program. The researchers supported two approaches, a mechanistic approach, referred to a top down procedure in which empowerment is about to delegate decision making in a set of limitations, and an organic approach involve a bottom up procedure in which empowerment is taken as a process of individual development and risk taking.

Spreitzer and Doneson (2005) reviewed three perspectives being utilized by modern practitioners' and management scholars to appreciate the empowerment. Firstly, the

social structural perspectives emphasize on the significance of changing from the organizational strategies and structures that promote vulnerability, towards the high participation exercises. Secondly, the psychological perspectives refer to a set of psychological circumstances compulsory for employees to feel in control of their own fate and thirdly, the critical perspective argues that sense of being empowered is not the similar as being empowered. Considering these various perspectives, empowering individuals partially seems to be about the facilitating the individuals to make their independent decision related to their job task. The empowerment should be empowered in actual sense not only in words. The employers should allow the employees to take risk and handle their job related matter independently.

2.8.1.2 Psychological Perspective of Empowerment

In psychological perspectives of empowerment, which consider the internal process of the employees. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) mentioned the four dimensions of empowerment. Employees draw the opinions regarding different tasks and utilize them for the interpretation of their working conditions. The four dimensions stated by Thomas and Velthouse are impact, competence, meaning and self-determination.

The dimension in which the employee evaluates his working behaviours as meaningful, depending on the fitness with work roles, individual viewpoints, behaviours and values. Impact is about making a variation in one's working condition and the degree to which results in work can be affected. Competence refers to the belief of one's ability to execute work activities, also known as self-efficacy which is linked with self-esteem needs.

The dimension impact focuses on apparent control in the working atmosphere and competence focuses on control on one's work activities (Butts et al., 2009). Self-determination refers to the feeling of self-sufficiency and the degree to which choices can be made about how to perform the job. According to Stander and Rothman (2009) the four dimensions of psychological empowerment created a general construct of the empowerment. Empowerment demonstrated the improved levels in trust that in turn had a positive effect on emotional obligations. This study also showed empowerment improves job efficiency (Laschinger et al, 1999). Prior studies of Jun et al. (2006) and Spreitzer et al. (1997) showed that empowerment has an important effect on job's satisfactions.

In addition it has been found various contexts have been used to study the concept of employee empowerment. For instance, Spreitzer et al. (1997) studied the concept in manufacturing and services context, while few studied in context of offshore companies and educations sector among others. Lashley (2001) discussed that empowerment could take various forms, which also reflect several aspects of the empowerment. On the other hand, what various definitions in the employment fields have in common is that the managers used their authorities to empower other employees. This also means that the "empowerer" works on a superior position than the empowered, to which empowerment is given, occasionally without any negotiation (Lashley, 2001). With this description, empowerment is frequently defined as allocating or passing on the powers or authorities to subordinates or workers (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Bowen & Lawler III, 1992b, cited by Lashley, 2001). It is important for the managers to share their authorities to let the employees be innovative

is solving the issues related to their own work rather than dependent on managers for every single decision.

Other researchers focus on the possibilities of empowerment to intrinsically encourage the employees' and therefore, define it as "enabling" (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). It is widely agreed concept that employee empowerment can lead to an improved commitment to the business' success and that empowered employee will utilize their full potentials and expertise's in order to attain the organizational objectives (Lashley, 2001). For example, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) built on these suppositions and further took the characteristics of power taken as energy to define empowerment as "to energize" employees'. This concept can be summarised as a force that energise the employees within their domain to perform their tasks with more motivation in order to improve their individual and overall organisational performance.

2.8.2 Two-Factor Theory (Herzberg) and Employee Empowerment

This motivation and job satisfaction theory was developed by Frederick Herzberg in the 1960s. This theory argues that the completion of an individual's needs can have one of two outcomes: it produces job satisfaction, or it prevents from job dissatisfaction that means that those two feelings are not opposite (Go et al., 1996). Those factors stopping the workforce from being dissatisfied with their work are called as "hygiene factors", whereas those helping to make workforce satisfied are known as "motivators" (Weightman, 2004).

Motivators can be utilized to drive employee's behaviours into desired directions for organisational achievements (Go et al., 1996). In Herzberg's theory, first the hygiene

factors, such as relations with co-workers and supervisors, company strategy, security, working circumstances, salary, and need to be positive in order to avoid employees' to be discontented (Weightman, 2004). These factors work as force to not let the employees become dissatisfied (Go et al., 1996; Kantsperger, 2001). However, in order to generate job satisfaction, Herzberg's motivators can be used which are possibilities for promotion and career development, accountability, acknowledgment, achievement and the work itself (Go et al., 1996; Kantsperger, 2001; Weightman, 2004). If those motivators are not present in the job, the employees may not be dissatisfied but there will be lack of satisfaction among them. The same relates to the hygiene factors: if they are present, employees will not be satisfied, but it will not let them dissatisfied. (Manktelow, 2002). Herzberg's theory showed some similarities with Maslow's hierarchy of needs 1943.

The hygiene components that shape the base for applying motivators in order to get job satisfaction are like Maslow's lower-level needs. Those requirements first have to be satisfied in order to move to higher-level requirements, such as self-respect and self-actualization that corresponds to Herzberg's motivators (Go et al., 1996; Tesone, 2005).

Furthermore, theory states that individual requirements can be attained through the work itself that reflects the intrinsic motivation of employees', for example through accomplishment and acknowledgment that strongly effect on job satisfaction (Go et al., 1996; Rosenstiel et al., 2000, cited by Kantsperger, 2001). Rosenstiel et al. (2000, cited by Kantsperger, 2001) applied Herzberg's theory in order to recognize and

generate working environments that help to motivate the employees and suggest few points to give as follows:

- Performance: Employees' should concentrate on accomplishing the specific and clear goals. Those goals ought to be determined by the managers and subordinates. Response according to the level of success should be provided.
- The work itself: The work for every worker should be planned according to the person's abilities and should assess the employees properly. This means that individuals would need to be provided with proper scopes of their jobs.
- Recognition of performance: Feedback from the supervisor, in form of appreciation or criticism should be a significant element of leadership.
- Possibilities for growth: Providing possibilities for development does not only mean allowing employees' more opportunities, but also providing possibilities to continually be trained and increase their expertise within the job in order to be eligible for potential tasks (cross job trainings).
- Responsibility: To delegate the tasks, each person should also be responsible of carrying out the tasks adequately.
- Promotion: Employees' should be capable to achieve higher positions, in order to get greater job satisfactions as well as to be able to handle more responsibilities.

Such an encouraging environment for employees', which is based on Herzberg's two-factor theory, demonstrates similarities to the implementation of empowerment. As a result of this, empowerment can raise the intrinsic motivation of employees (Kantsperger, 2001). The Hawthorne effect states that the performance of employees is influenced by the group influence, for example, group norms and standards, which

reflects that necessities of individual employees may not be only satisfied with monetary rewards (Go et al., 1996). The theory believed that people are best encouraged through the social needs that can be fulfilled by their relationship with colleagues (Weinert, 1984, referred to by Kantsperger, 2001; Go et al., 1996) and affected through the conduct of their workplace or co-workers (Weinert, 1984, referred to by Kantsperger, 2001).

As per Go et al. (1996) two essential implications of the Hawthorne studies can be connected to the motivation of individuals. In the first place, it ought to be remembered that intrinsic needs of workers should be fulfilled to motivate the employees for example social needs. Second, manager should identify impact of teamwork on employee motivation. Subsequently, the formation of work groups, communication systems and sophisticated information (Ulich, 2002 referred to by Kantsperger, 2001), gained a lot of consideration as an additional part of the empowerment theory.

In addition to that managers should put their efforts to listen and support the subordinates and understand their needs rather just focusing on way how to control them (Schein, 1980, referred to by Kantsperger, 2001). These arguments are in accordance with the theory of self-actualisation where empowerment regarded as self actualisation need. Theory of the empowerment emphasis frequently on communication and team work among individuals. Besides, managers serve more as a function of the training and guiding employees towards organisational goals as opposed to controlling (Kantsperger, 2001). Hence, likewise this motivation theory has likenesses with empowerment theory, which support the idea of using employee empowerment and relationship with co-workers as a factors to motivate employees.

2.8.3 Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory was proposed by Victor Vroom of Yale School of Management in 1964. This theory has significant contribution in the management field especially human resource management. Expectancy theory incorporates three segments of performance, effort and outcome, and the link between these segments (DeNisi & Griffin, 2008). Figure 2.1:

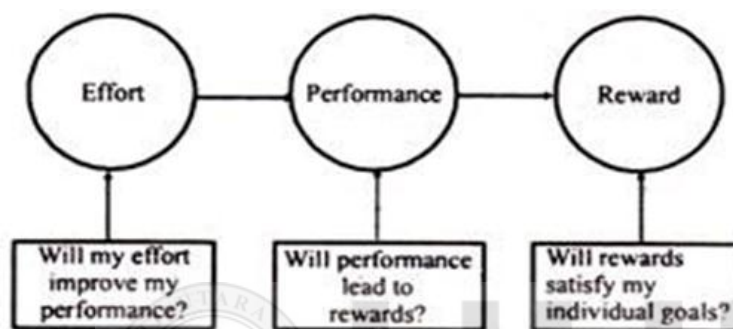


Figure 2.1 Expectancy Theory

The illustration of expectancy theory is given in the below section in detail to support the constructs used in the current research.

2.8.3.1 Model of Expectancy Theory

As appeared in Figure 2.1, the principal interface in this theory is between employees' efforts in performing the work and level of performance (Go et al., 1996). This theory presented that effort to performance is the perception of employee that the more effort will bring superior outcomes (DeNisi & Griffin, 2008). Therefore, the initial step for an employee is to put maximum level of efforts in order to achieve the targeted goal (Go et al., 1996).

The second relationship is, the one amongst performance and outcomes, likewise called performance to outcome expectancy, depicts an individual's impression of the probability that enhanced the performance will prompt certain result (DeNisi & Griffin, 2008). The valence of effort performance outcomes is another critical perspective to consider in this theory. The result that is made after performance of acceptably needs and to have high values to the individual worker with a specific end goal to serve as a motivation tool. It is the importance that the individual places upon the expected outcome. For the valence to be positive, the person must prefer attaining the outcome to not attaining it. For example, if someone is mainly motivated by money, he or she might not value offers of additional time off.

Subsequently, to encourage individuals have to put efforts into work, they should trust that the result at last will be appealing to them (Go et al., 1996; DeNisi & Griffin, 2008). Expectancy theory is based on the essential assumption that individuals tend to act unquestionably to be compensated, which recommends that individuals carry on more calculating and rational than they are in actuality (DeNisi & Griffin, 2008). Besides, this theory is frequently connected with material results, for example, a raise in salary for example (Tesone, 2005; DeNisi & Griffin, 2008). What is not considered is that additionally intrinsic needs and emotions can activate employee's behaviours (Go et al., 1996). Conger and Kanungo (1988) argued that empowerment can be related as to reinforce employees feeling of self-efficacy. Making an interpretation of this to expectancy theory. Bandura (1986), referred to by Conger and Kanungo, 1988) clarified the relationship between desired level and effort as self-efficacy. Through empowerment process, workers put effort to excel in the task and skill to complete the job efficiently. It also improve their faith in their own ability and effectiveness to

perform to the desired level of job. Empowerment experience prompts employee's feelings of having the capacity to finish their tasks and enhance the level of performance if adequate level of efforts being used. As indicated by Oldham's (1975), the performance of an individual will be increased as the positive emotions, arise from the employee empowerment. Additionally, the more internal motivated individual is, greater will be the nature of his or her performance and more efforts will be devoted by employees to achieve the desired level of performance. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) contended that four intrinsic needs are meaningfulness, impact, choice and competence can work as reward for individual employees during their job, which employees can handle themselves and which will prompt proceeded with desire. In light of the above, the feeling of empowerment increase the efforts by employees towards their job performance.

2.8.3.2 Thomas and Velthouse Model

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) expanded on Conger and Kanungo's (1998) research with the cognitive model of the empowerment. They characterize empowerment as intrinsic motivation. The concept is further explained as empowerer intends to give power to employees. Power is defined as authority given an employee to perform their work independently. Power additionally maybe used to portray capacity, as a sense of self-efficacy or control over job activities (Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

Researchers show that they enhance Conger and Kanungo's model in three different ways. The empowerment idea is explained as a motivation; secondly, they detail an entire arrangement of work assessments. Thirdly, their model is worked in a way that it can mirror the procedure that individuals use for their task evaluation. Thomas and

Velthouse (1990) distinguished four task evaluations to make the employees feel they are empowered. Those assignments are competence, impact, choice and meaningfulness which are individual's judgments with respect to task assessment they are performing.

The researchers characterize the task assessment as follows:

- Impact refers to “The degree of how much performance is viewed as making a difference as far as completing the task or purpose, that is, creating the future impacts in one's errand condition”.
- Meaningfulness refers to “The anxiety the importance of task purpose or goals analyst in connection to the employee's own standards or ideas”.
- Competence refers to “The degree to how much an employee can execute task behaviour skilfully when he or she try”.
- Choice refers to “Engage casual daily undertakings of an employee's activities”. Notwithstanding the task evaluation, extend the model that keep the method by which individuals land at task appraisal.

The components of this procedure are:

- Environmental proceedings: “A wellspring of information about the results of the person's continuous behaviour and about the conditions pertinent to that individual's future behaviour.
- Task assessment, as specified prior, are choice, impact, meaningfulness and competence.
- Behaviour incorporates concentration, activity, initiative, flexibility and resiliency.
- Global Assessment “Are a person's globalized mentality about competence, impact, choice and meaningfulness. These are unique convictions rather than the

particular assessment that persuade an individual's conduct in a given undertaking circumstance”.

- Interpretative style incorporate evaluation, attribution and imagining.
- Intervention refers to “Deliberate endeavours to create empowerment (expanded intrinsic errand motivation) through the changes in the ecological events that encroach upon employees and through changes in people's way of interpreting those occasions”.

In their interpretation, environmental procedures give data to employee about the results of continuous task conduct and about circumstances and events significant to prospect performance”. This information, together with universal appraisal standards, influences and shapes the individual's task evaluations relative to competence, impact, choice and meaningfulness. Extra data is added to the task evaluation by the interpretive style through the external occasions. This interpretive style gives data concerning “how well events are going and what might have caused past events and what can happen in future”. Global estimation is “aggregate learning from the past tasks appraisal utilised to support in surveying a novel conditions” (Thomas and Velthouse 1990). Through the mediation components, changes occurred to encourage actualizing of empowerment. In the nutshell, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) expand model of (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). They perceived four tasks evaluations and they thought of a model that imitate the procedure by which individuals achieve the task appraisal that is in charge of motivation. Thus, the sense of empowerment can be said to be a tool that motivate and derive the performance of the individual employees. Their individual efforts impact on overall organisational performance and productivity.

2.8.3.3 The Altizer Model

Four Steps to Empowerment are recognised by Altizer (1993). Altizer (1993) stressed the importance of empowerment and TQM. Besides, the research expressed that empowerment is not discretionary; it is an absolute necessity if an organization expects to enhance its quality framework. In explanation of the concept, Altizer (1993) discussed four steps these steps are:

- **Review Employee Authority Level**

In this process, it is contended that there is no requirement for high procedural control in an organization, if individuals are all around educated and trained. Moreover, Altizer (1993) explains: Authority limits serves an important purpose, yet when the conditions that encouraged their utilization have changed, the empowering supervisor evacuates them for the three reasons: 1. to permit the employees the flexibility to meet client prerequisites, 2. to completely develops employee's different skills, and 3. to show the developing trust in employee capacities.

- **Delegate**

Altizer (1993) underlines that organizations should enable their employees to find different solutions for issues they experience. The researcher added that individuals regularly face issues without arrangements since: "they sense their own particular solutions have been or (would be) ignored, or in light of the fact that it is only less demanding to get the supervisor to make decisions" (Altizer 1993). Moreover, the empowering supervisor gives solution resources and parameters, yet expects from the employees to resolve the issues" (Altizer1993). In this regards, employees should be encouraged to solve the issue in their own way depending on the situation.

- **Encourage Innovation**

Altizer (1993) focused on that individual innovation and initiatives should be appreciated for the quality change. It is further argued that the quality enhancement, employee innovation and initiatives are crushed while overseeing employees with limited guidelines. The employees should be given chance to bring innovative solution to solve the challenges the face. This encourages employees to solve their issues in their own domain with their own way depending on nature of problem. This concept can enhance the level of confidence of employees on their ability to handle and also increase their level of performance.

- **Recognize and Reward Empowered Actions**

Altizer (1993) stressed the significance of reward system for the empowerment, and stated that the objective for this action is to support empowered activities. Furthermore, Altizer (1993) distinguish the components that extend the concept of empowerment. These components are building blocks for the research.

For different building block, the researchers set up two different arrangements of activities: the main records move the manager can make to empower his or her employees and these actions are called group activities; the second records activities that the individuals can take to empower themselves, these actions are called individual activities.

To review, Thomas and Tymon continued work by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) by distinguishing building block for everything about four ideas. Besides, they thought of two sorts of activities for the building blocks. These activities are marked as individual

and team actions that can be made by the two individuals and managers to expand empowerment.

2.8.3.4 The Spreitzer Model

Spreitzer in her work named as "Psychological Empowerment in the Workplace," develops and validates a multidimensional scale of the empowerment in the working environment. In her model, she bolsters the theme of Thomas and Velthouse (1990) that four unique measurements of empowerment. Those measurements are competence, impact, choice and meaning, which she calls self-assurance. She additionally finds that each measurement consolidates to deliver a general measure of psychological empowerment. In this setting, she explains (Spreitzer 1995) that four measurements are contended to join additive to make a general variable of the psychological empowerment. Hence, the absence of any single measurement will fall, however not eliminate, the general level of felt empowerment.

Besides, Spreitzer (1995) built up a mild nomological system of the psychological empowerment in the work environment. In this system, the researcher recognized and affirmed consequences and antecedents of the psychological empowerment and also social support qualities of work unit. These antecedents are self-efficacy, locus of control, rewards and access to data. Two results of the empowerment are indicated as innovation and effectiveness. To outline, Spreitzer (1995) considers empowerment to be a constant construct, where individuals can be seen as being empowered to a lesser or greater degree, not just regardless of whether they are empowered.

She validated and developed a multidimensional scale of the empowerment in the work environment alongside a nominal nomological system of the psychological empowerment in the working environment. Workplace Psychological Empowerment Source from the (Spreitzer, 1995). The model joins ideas from the greater part of the models audited, counting, Conger and Konungo (1988), Thomas and Velthouse (1990), Altizer (1993), Thomas and Tymon (1993) and Spritzer (1995). Nonetheless; this model proposed is more comprehensive than any of the evaluated model shared cooperation between the principle segments of the association, the HR (employees), the work structure (the management practice) and the workplace. Then again, each of the observed model consider just a few sections of organizational parts.

2.9 Conceptual Framework

This section presents the theoretical framework to justify the job performance model to comprehend the knowledge in the field of job satisfaction and job performance.

2.9.1 Job Satisfaction

A job satisfaction framework developed by Akyol (2014) to conceptualize and assess academic staff job satisfaction was adopted to support the current research framework. It includes internal job satisfaction and external job satisfaction as two dimensions of job satisfaction. Thus, the model was originally used to test academic staff job satisfaction in academic organization. The model was based on the theory of vroom (1964) theory of expectancy Herzberg two-factor theory. This model was selected because it deals job performance and satisfaction from perspective of cultural and related to the personality and trait. As the current study also intended to assess job performance of academic staff from a cultural perspective that significantly affects

personality traits especially while the academic staff in KSA universities is in a unique Arab Islamic culture. This model provide sufficient support to test the job satisfaction effect on job performance with employee empowerment, organisational commitment and Islamic culture as moderator.

2.9.2 Islamic Culture

The movement of Muslim community towards western countries is an issue of interest for the western countries. In the Middle East region there has been an emergent concern in defining Islamic management concept, Islamic management styles and Islamic work ethic (Hills & Atkins, 2013; Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2007; Kumar & Che Rose, 2010). There seems to have been no many studies examining changing Arab culture and the effect of immigration, most of the studies examine the influence of western business culture and practices in the Middle East region to study overall culture. There is a high percentage of workforce of KSA and gulf countries like UAE is from other non-Arab countries. The workforce majorly belongs to countries such as India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. The literature on these countries has examined their cultures such Hindu and Muslim culture and its influence on the region in a comparison with Western management style (Ahmed & Salas, 2008; Sen & Wagner, 2009). But the concept of Islamic culture and its impact on the workforce is still remained under studied. Education sector is an important sector that helps the community to be knowledgeable and provide society with base to survive locally and globally. Thus, studying education sector and impact of Islamic culture is worthwhile. The subsections provide details on the topic of culture, workplace and management implications and role of Islamic culture in Saudi education system.

2.9.2.1 Culture, Workplace and Management Implications

There are very few studies conducted on the influence of the multicultural Gulf countries workplace. Including research on multicultural Gulf countries workplace and job satisfaction (Elamin, 2011), multicultural Gulf countries workplace and the impact of Islam (Hillman, 2007), multicultural Gulf countries workplace and Arab culture (Hutchings & Weir, 2006) and multicultural Gulf countries workplace and changing role of women (Al-Lamky, 2007). The studies suggest that the multicultural Gulf countries workplace sometimes cause a decrease of trust at workplace. For instance, managers from Western culture sometimes give comments to their non-Western colleagues to adjust their behaviour at workplace, language at workplace and values at workplace. In contrast, non-Western managers sometimes comment that Western managers were intolerant, inflexible, and unwilling to adjust their behaviour to local culture conditions. Therefore, the loss of the trust resulting from the cultural ambiguity affects the employee performance and overall organisational productivity.

In addition, culture in Islamic countries (Including Middle East region) in most cases is linked to the work ethics drawn based on Islamic guidance. This realised the important of developing and fixing the concept of Islamic Work ethics at work place. The concept of Islamic Work Ethics is derived from Al Quran and Prophet Muhammad guides (Peace Be Upon Him and His Family). The concept emphasizes that “the dedication to work is a virtue and highlight the importance of creative work as a source of happiness and accomplishment for the employees” as stated by Ahmed (2014), it considers that the value of work is also influenced by person’s actual intentions rather than only focusing on the final outcomes (Ahmed, 2014; Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2007). Muslim staff working in education institutes try to show an example for other people

by reflecting and giving good views and application of Islamic work ethics. The Quran support dedication and involvement in work rather wasting time other unrelated activities. Islam prohibit wastage of time during the working time on idol and un-useful things (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2007). It can be argued that Islamic work principles support and working environment where the employees work with dedication and involvement and on other hand the employer should treat the workers in an adequate manner. The application of this concept in education system is of worth, because education system serves as base for development of the societies.

2.9.2.2 Islamic Culture Saudi Education System and Globalization

Islamic Arab Culture in Saudi Arabia higher education is influenced by the local culture and by the modern structure with an attempt to import western management and education style in Saudi education system. The adoption of western culture in Saudi Arabian top universities is also way to excel globally. However, it remains to be understood that whether Saudi Arabia actually anticipates to import Western education style especially while considering the significant difference in Arab culture and Western culture (Pavan, 2016).

The topic of national Islamic based Arab culture sovereignty in KSA is significant in perspective of education system. Even more open minded Saudis have arisen out to defend Saudi higher education system, by saying that education is a subject of national sovereignty and Saudis should proper in this without intervention from outsider countries. This perhaps shows that Saudis do not discard criticism, but rather proclaim the right to manage and control their educational system without intervention from others. Saudi Arabia is not the only country or nation in claiming national culture sovereignty over education system and education policy, actually most of countries try

to implement the national culture in their education system to prepare future leaders (Pavan, 2016). However, with concern on the part that globalization and revelation to different cultures might compromise Saudi Islamic Arab culture and Saudi traditions and beliefs.

Currently Saudi higher education system is experiencing challenges between globalization and local tradition culture. The concern is not simply a matter of introducing or not introducing Western higher education style into the KSA education system. In wider view, KSA is facing competitive rivalry in education system globally, while keeping its freedom to decide what is best for their education system for human capital development. Thus, developing educational system that best suits county and global challenges is very critical. This struggle of balancing traditions Islamic Arab culture and globalization could impact not only on KSA but on overall Gulf region. Especially when considering that structure of controlling the educational support; state of financing the education, and a gender separation policy for education system (Pavan, 2016; Smith & Abouammoh, 2013).

Saudi scholars focus on complexity of Saudi Arab culture as compared to other cultures. Hamdan (2005) draws consideration to the issues of complex spiritual and ideological environment of Saudi Arabian culture. While Alfawaz, Hilal, and Alghannam (2014) argued that Saudi Arabia has an exclusive society due to its obedience to inherited values. Therefore, it is challenging for the Saudi government to provide best education solutions without considering the Arab culture. The government face great challenges which cause hindrance in way of developing human capital. Thus, when Saudi researchers try to unveil reasonable desires for their

education system, they show deep concern at the outside pressure for transformation imposed by the appealing impact of globalization. This cultural consideration often make complex the education policy revision to meet the global challenges. This academic and social argument in the KSA reveals the Saudis are aware of the globalization and its impact (Pavan, 2016), impact of these changes on Saudi culture, societies and beliefs which is a matter of national interest. Any proposed plans to be implemented for betterment should consider Saudi culture and at the same time there is need to cooperate on a global rule on innovation and entrepreneurship.

According to Murtaza et al., (2016), there are many studies have viewed the Islamic values, beliefs, and principles from perspective of their influence on workplace and performance of Muslim employees. From perspective of organizational culture, Islam provides a method of life that is contain ethics and a way of life that should be implemented in all aspects of life (Murtaza et al., 2016). Therefore, Islamic culture requires to follow the Islamic system of life, as stated by the Islamic Law. In which followers have to relate all their life and deeds completely to Allah's or God's will. In addition, the culture has its roots in Islamic Law, this law consider all equally and not only for a particular group or individual.

Saudi scholars studied Saudi higher educational system often mention the link between Islamic culture and education system in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia adopt an Islamic way of education and the base for this system is laid according to Islam. For instance, the first verse of the holy Quran is a demanding prophet Mohamed (Peace Be Upon Him and His Family) to read and write. Therefore, Islamic culture encourages the

concept of seeking knowledge and make it compulsory to get education. Thus, Islam support the concepts of education and values educated over uneducated individuals.

The importance of education and seeking human development by education is fixed in Al Saudis' educational strategy since the earliest of 1920s (Pavan, 2016). After establishing the first "General Directorate for Education" in KSA in 1925, King Abdul Aziz Ibn Saud reacted to the request that submitted by a group in written form of proposal calls for the development of education in KSA. The proposal was examined and assessed with the assistance of three respected advisors of King and after evaluation the proposal was approved. He directed that the Saudi mission members to be sent to Egypt immediately as first step to implement the approved order on educational development. Thus, first educational mission members were eligible to study universities outside KSA. They were sent to universities at Egypt and other places to study different types of sciences. The second mission consisted of ten members which were sent to Egypt to study the Islamic law and sciences (Sharia sciences), Principles of Education and Arabic language. The third mission members were sent to United States to study medical treatment and other social sciences (Tufail et al., 2016).

Islamic cultural values and norms should reflect Islamic principles, rather than only Arab culture. According to Islamic culture, working harder is necessary for the desired social welfare. Prophet Muhammad (Peace Be Upon Him and His Family) stated in his say, hard work clears the sins of and the best food an individual can eat is that which he gained by his own hard work. The Holly Quran stated "*man has nothing except that for which he strives*" (Quran, Soura Al-Nagm 53:39). Additionally, Islamic

instructions discourage laziness and wasting time while sitting idle or doing and involving in unproductive activities. Islamic culture also emphasizes cooperation at workplace and discussion as sources of success for the members (co-workers). Therefore, within an organizational, employees who adhere Islamic moral ethics are not expected to engage in unproductive activities and cooperate with others at workplace and show decent working behaviour.

The Islamic organizational culture is considered as advantageous and supporting working environment by proving work motivation, optimistic relationship between employees and managers. The culture is also encouraged the good relationship among co-workers. In addition, Islamic culture seeks for providing convenient workplace and atmosphere. Such above conditions can allow opportunities for managers to run their organizations in a desired way and to achieve organisational goals effectively (Hakim, 2012). Muslims motivational spirit is developed from three aspects: motivation of faith, motivation of devote, and motivation of act and behaviour. The purpose the motivation of faith is a claim originates from heart. The motivation comes from the inner and derived by the strength of the belief. The motivation of devote showed how significant the Muslim faith toward Islamic guides and teachings that based on the holy Al-Quran and respected Sunnah. A strict Muslim will do the required five prayer times as one of the main Islamic pillars. The demonstration of becoming a devote Muslim individual is that the understanding of relationship among the people (Hakim, 2012). Therefore, Islamic Organizational culture influence employee's performance and increases their productivity by providing them suitable work place that oblige employee and employers to be fair with each other.

2.9.3 Organizational Commitment

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed organizational commitment model with three main behaviour and attitude factors. The model argued that employees' desire to leave or stay with an organisation is related on the relationship between the employees and their organisation. This relationship is defined by the psychological states of the employees which is commitment. Commitment is determined by continuance commitment, normative commitment and affective commitment. The normative commitment is related to the level of share of employee's norms that lead to the level of obligation to the organisation. Employees that have strong normative commitment keep with the organization that they feel obliged to (Allen and Meyer, 1990). The continuance commitment is the level of benefits and interests within an organisation. This means that employees link them self to their organisations because of specific interests such as seniority an apprehensions about family rather than the only the positive approaches toward the organization (Rahman et al., 2015; Yeh & Hong, 2012). This type of commitment embodies the employees' understanding of costs of staying or leaving the organisation that means they stay with their organization because they have to (Allen and Meyer, 1990).

Affective commitment is an employee's emotional satisfaction and involvement in an organisation (Mowday et al., 1984). Employees are keenly involved with the organization by contributing to the enhancement of the wellbeing of their employers (Mowday et al., 1984). Affective commitment involves three factors that connect employees to their organizations: strongly supporting organisation's values and goals, the willingness to do more effort for the organisation and a strong feeling of retaining membership in an organisation (Mowday et al., 1979).

The model of Meyer and Allen's (1990) has been used widely to conceptualize commitment to the organisations (Akhtar et al., 2015; Adnan Hakim, 2015; Hashim, 2015; Kalkavan & Katrinli, 2014b; Rumawas, 2015; Tolentino, 2013). This model is widely popular because when employees are emotionally linked to an organisation, they show high affective commitment (Tong et al., 2017). Factors that impact affective commitment are group management relationships, personal profiles, role states, characteristics of the organizational and job characteristic. In addition, employee's attendance is an important factor too in order to know their level of commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Attendance is described as a positive work behaviour that helps the affective commitment and linked to job commitment and involvement, leadership, and organizational support. Meyer et al. (2002) argue that the major factor that influence the continuance commitment is the employees' perceptions. Van Breugel, Van Olffen, and Ollie (2005) argue that temporary employees showed stronger affective commitment than continuance commitment. It can be argued that commitment is a stronger factor that shows good relationship between employee and organisation. This organisational commitment urges employees to work for their organisational benefits.

2.9.4 Employees Empowerment

Employee empowerment is defined as giving employees a discretion (or latitude) over certain task related activities (Meyerson & Dewettinck, 2012). Spreitzer (1995) developed a model to conceptualize and measure employee empowerment at workplace. The model represents employee empowerment in four conditions that are competence, meaning, impact and self-determination. Competence refers to self-efficiency and employee's feelings about his capability to perform and deliver his work

perfectly while condition refers to “the value of goal or purpose, judged in relation to individual’s own ideals or standards”. Impact condition refers to the extent of which employee can influence the outcomes of the work, the administrative activities of the work and the strategy of the work, self-determinant refers to state of behaviour mastery that enable the employee to initiate and innovate (Spreitzer, 1995).

There are many studies have been using Spreitzer’s model to conceptualize and measure employees empowerment. The study of Mir and Rainayee (2015) used Spreitzer’s model to examine the relationship between employee empowerment, job satisfaction and job performance. The findings showed that employee’s empowerment has positive influence on job performance. Employee empowerment provide positive vibes to employee that increase motivation to work hard for individual and overall organisational performance. This empowerment gives employees decision to achieve the targeted goals using their own plan in daily routine activities. Thus, empowerment considered as an important factors for superior job performance.

Based on the cited literature and discussion the current research proposed the model shown in Figure 2.1. In which job satisfaction (internal job satisfaction, external job satisfaction) have direct impact on job performance. While job satisfaction proposed to have impact on organisational commitment and employee empowerment. Moreover, the mediating role of organisational commitment and employee empowerment has been proposed between job satisfaction and job performance. In addition to the above Islamic culture proposed to have moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Figure 2.2 shows conceptual framework of the study.

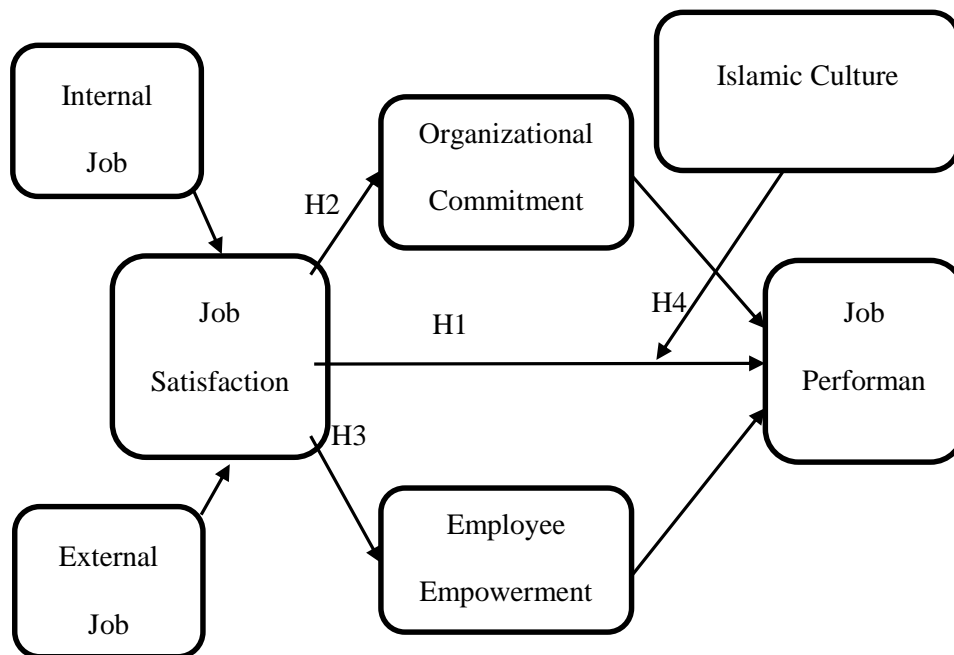


Figure 2.2 *Conceptual framework of the study*

2.10 Empirical Studies and Hypotheses Development

This section provides review of literature and discussion to formulate hypothesis for the proposed relationships. The detailed review and discussion on each relationship is given in the following section.

2.10.1 The Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

In review of the previous research it has been observed that many studies attempt to explore the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance by using various intervening variables to explain the phenomenon more comprehensively. However the best word to describe the findings is the inconsistency between the results of various studies that open avenue for further research to comprehend the subject knowledge. Some empirical studies followed the same theoretical and came out with different results either and does not provide an agreed finding. Some of studies used intervening

variables for further explanation while other notable number of studies has examined the direct impact. These all efforts does not provide a final conclusion, so the current research in continuation of previous studies to explore further on relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance by adding intervening and moderating variables.

As per review of the previous research studies, the mostly used intervening variable between job satisfaction and job performance is organizational commitment (Masihabadi, Rajaei, Koloukhi, & Parsian, 2015; Met, Ali, & Ali, 2015; Ntisa, 2015; Salehi & Gholtash, 2011; Tsai et al., 2010). In addition to organizational commitment, there are many are many other variables that used such as structural empowerment (Wong & Laschinger, 2013), work moral (Betaubun, Redan, & Rahail, 2015), leadership (Riana, 2015). Most of the previous research studies conducted using mediating variables or direct relationship, reported positive relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance has been studied by many scholars from different perspectives. The results showed different trends and different explanation in various contexts. However, most of the results agreed on the positive association between job satisfaction and job performance. In addition to job satisfaction, most those studies have involved other variables and factors tested along together with job satisfaction for their impact on job performance. Factors such as organizational commitment, external job stress, internal job stress, employee empowerment, leadership, self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, employee characteristics

have been used in this context (Olusola, 2011; Tsai, Cheng, & Chang, 2010; Wong & Laschinger, 2013; Betaubun, Redan, & Rahail, 2015).

Tsai et al., (2010) examined the impact of job satisfaction on job performance by combining job satisfaction, organizational commitment empowerment, leadership and job stress to provide more comprehensive model on job performance. The results showed that employees' job satisfaction does not directly influence job performance but it is directly and positively influences organizational commitment. Further analysis showed that employees' job satisfaction enhances job performance only through organizational commitment. The findings does not provide evidence on direct relationship between job satisfaction and job performance but using intervention of organisational commitment.

In addition, Olusola (2011) conducted a study to examine the impact of job satisfaction on job performance. The objective of the study to predict job performance using job satisfaction, self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation. The study involved also additionally use self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation apart from job satisfaction. The results indicated that job satisfaction significantly predicts job performance. In addition the study showed that self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation also significant in explaining job performance.

Moreover, Akyol (2014) also provide evidence that in context of academic staff, job satisfaction has an effect on the employees' job performance . Job satisfaction was categorized into internal job satisfaction and external job satisfaction. The results of the study indicated that job satisfaction have an effect on employees' performance.

Additionally the study pointed out that the external job satisfaction level has positive impact on the job performance.

Brooks (2014) has explored the relationship between job satisfaction and financial performance in context of banking sector. This study using distinctive approach of measuring job satisfaction effect on organizational function and outcomes as it tend to examine the effect of job satisfaction on financial performance. The study explored the details of the job satisfaction on the basis of work on present job, pay, and opportunities for promotion, supervision and people on present job. The findings showed that firms with higher level of satisfaction are usually associated with higher financial performance. In addition, differences in levels of employee satisfaction were noted for the variables work on present job, opportunities for promotion, and people at work (co-workers). In line with Brooks (2014), Akhtar, Hassan, and Ahmad (2015) conducted a study to examine the relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance. However, this study has used only organizational commitment to be examined for its impact on both job satisfaction and job performance. The results showed that organizational commitment has a positive effect on job satisfaction and job performance.

Shalaby (2015) studied the impact of job satisfaction and organizational citizenship on the job performance. The study examined the relationship among the three factors job satisfaction, organizational citizenship and job performance. The findings indicated a positive relationship between job satisfaction, organizational citizenship and job performance. The findings revealed direct impact of job satisfaction on organizational citizenship and job performance.

Betaubun et al. (2015) also examined the impact of job satisfaction on job performance. The purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of job satisfaction, individual characteristics, and teachers' work morale on teachers' job performance. The study has used teachers' work morale as an intervening variable only. The findings have indicated that there is a significant impact between teachers' job satisfaction on teacher's job performance.

Khan and Afzal (2014) have conducted a study to examine the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee perceived performance. Their study aimed to find out the relationship between rewards, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, resource allocation, job decisions and interpersonal treatment, organizational justice on employee's perceived performance. The combination of factors that used were procedural justice, distributive justice, organizational commitment, reward system, organizational justice, job satisfaction and interactional justice. The results showed that a strong and positive relationship among procedural justice, distributive justice, organizational commitment, reward system, organizational justice, job satisfaction, interactional justice and employed perceived performance. The main findings indicated that job satisfaction has significant positive relationship with perceived performance.

Riyadi (2015) conducted a study that aims to determine the impact of job satisfaction, work motivation and job stress on job performance. The results of the analysis indicated that job satisfaction has positive effect on teachers' performance. Also, Wardoyo (2016) has examined the effect of job performance in the academic organization context on work performance. Approach of the study was to examine the

impact of each of job satisfaction, education and training, and discipline on work performance. Model of the study involved the variables job satisfaction, education and training, and discipline as independent variable and work performance as dependent variable. The findings of the analysis indicated that job satisfaction has impact on work performance. Table 2.2 presents the summary of the review of related literature.



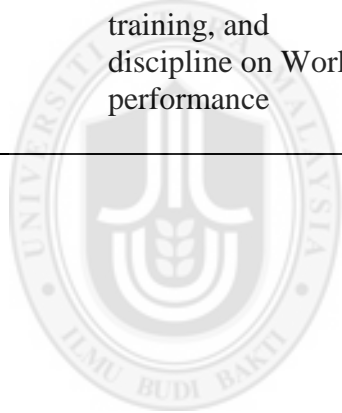
Table 2.2

Studies on Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

Study	Purpose/Objective	Independent variable (if available)	Mediator	Dependent variable (if available)	Findings/factors
1- Tsai et al., (2010)	To combine job satisfaction, organizational commitment empowerment, leadership and job stress to propose an integrated model of hospitality industry employees' internal marketing, and job performance.	External job stress, Internal job stress Empowerment Internal marketing Leadership	Employees' job satisfaction Organizational Commitment	Job performance	Employees' job satisfaction directly and positively influences organizational commitment, but does not directly influence job performance. Employees' job satisfaction enhances job performance only through organizational commitment.
2- Riyadi (2015) Betaubun et al., (2015)	To investigated the variables of self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction as predictors of job performance	job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and intrinsic motivation		job performance	- Job satisfaction, self-efficacy, and intrinsic motivation will predict the job performance of industrial workers. -each of these variables will predict the job performance of workers.
3- Akyol (2014)	To examine the impact of academic staff job satisfaction on employees performance	academic staff internal job satisfaction and academic staff external		Job performance	Job satisfaction has an effect in the employees' performance. Additionally the study pointed out that the external Job satisfaction level has positive impact on the performance

4-	Brooks (2014)	To explore the relationship between job satisfaction and financial performance in banks	job satisfaction financial performance	job satisfaction: Work on present job, Pay, Opportunities for promotion, Supervision, People on present job	-Differences existed between job satisfaction and financial performance of the firm with higher satisfaction levels being associated with higher financial performance. - Differences in levels of employee satisfaction were noted for work on present job, opportunities for promotion, and people at work (co-workers)
5-	Khan and Afzal (2014)	-To find out the relationship between rewards, organizational commitment, experience on job satisfaction, resource allocation, job decisions and interpersonal treatment, organizational justice and employee's perceived performance	Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice, Organizational Commitment, Reward System, Organizational Justice, Job Satisfaction, Employee, Interactional Justice	Employee perceived performance	strong and positive relationship among Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice, Organizational Commitment, Reward System, Organizational Justice, Job Satisfaction, Interactional Justice and Employed perceived performance

6-	Akhtar, Hassan, and Ahmad (2015)	To understand the relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance	Organizational commitment	Job satisfaction and job performance	organizational commitment has a positive effect on Job satisfaction and Job Performance
7-	Wardoyo (2016)	To examine the impact of job satisfaction, Education and training, and discipline on Work performance	job satisfaction, Education and training, and discipline	Work performance	job satisfaction have an impact on Work performance



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The review of literature provide mix findings on the relationship between the job satisfaction and job performance. Majority of the studies favours the positive effect of job satisfaction on job performance. It can be argued that for KSA universities academic staff, the job satisfaction will have significant positive effect on their job performance. Based on the review of the literature and discussion, it can argued that job satisfaction has positive and significant effect on job performance. The following hypothesis has been

H1: Job satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on job performance

2.10.2 The Relationship among Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Job Performance

In review of the past literature, it has been discovered that many studies have been conducted to examine the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance (Khan, Masrek, & Nadzar, 2015; Khan & Afzal, 2014; Lutfie et al., 2014; Tsai et al., 2010). Studies such as the study of Tsai et al., (2010) was aimed to find out the relationship that involves rewards, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, resource allocation, job decisions, interpersonal treatment, organizational justice and their impact on employee's perceived performance. The study proved that elements of job satisfaction impact job performance only through organizational commitment. In addition to that Afzal (2014) studied organizational commitment as a main independent variable on job performance using job satisfaction, organizational justice and reward system. The findings showed that organizational commitment have significant positive impact on job performance.

Addition to that, Altinoz, Cakiroglu and Cop (2012) conducted a study to examine the impact of job satisfaction on organizational commitment. The study found that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction dimensions and affective organizational commitment. Memari et al. (2013) also reported similar results by investigating the impact of organizational commitment on employees' job performance using affective, continuant and normative commitment. The results showed that there is a positive relationship between organizational commitment and employees' job performance.

Moreover, Lutfie et al. (2014) investigated job satisfaction and family work conflict on organizational commitment (affective commitment, continuant commitment and normative commitment). The results indicated that organizational commitment is affected by job satisfaction in family work organization. While, Abedini (2015) has examined the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction by using organizational commitment as an independent variable that affect job satisfaction and found similar findings like Lutfie et al. (2014). Nath Gangai and Agrawal (2015) have also used organizational commitment as an independent variable that affect job satisfaction which was the dependent variable. The study involved organizational commitment using three dimensions affective commitment, continuant commitment and normative commitment and organizational justice. Their results showed the positive relationship exist between commitment and job satisfaction, however, the findings indicate only continuance commitment and normative commitment has significant correlation with job satisfaction.

Golghatmi et al. (2015) have examined the relationship between job satisfaction, organizational justice and organizational commitment. The findings indicated that job satisfaction is positively correlated with organizational justice and organization commitment. The impact of job satisfaction on organisational commitment was also examined by Hashim (2015). The results have indicated that job satisfaction has positive influence on each of organizational affective commitment, organizational continuance commitment, and organizational normative commitment.

Rumawas (2015) has studied the relationship between organizational commitment, human resource development, and compensation on employee performance. Their analysis showed that each of the three variables (human resource development, organizational commitment and compensation) have significant impact on the employee performance. Similarly, Akhtar et al. (2015) have also attempted to understand the relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction and job performance and reported that organizational commitment has a positive effect on job satisfaction and job performance. Table 2.3 provides summary of the reviewed literature.

Table 2.3

Studies on Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Job Performance

Study	Objective	Independent variable	Mediator	Dependent variable	Findings
1 Tsai et al. (2010)	To combine empowerment, internal marketing, leadership and job stress to propose an integrated model of hospitality industry employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance.	External job stress, Internal job stress Empowerment Internal marketing Leadership	Employees' job satisfaction Organizational Commitment	Job performance	Employees' job satisfaction directly and positively influences organizational commitment, but does not directly influence job performance. Employees' job satisfaction enhances job performance only through organizational commitment.
2 Khan and Afzal, (2014)	To find out the impact of rewards, organizational commitment and experience on job satisfaction. To find out the impact of job satisfaction, resource allocation, job decisions and interpersonal treatment on organizational justice. To see the impact of organizational justice on	Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice, Organizational Commitment, Reward System, Organizational Justice, Job Satisfaction, Employee, Interactional Justice		Employee perceived performance	Strong and positive relationship among Procedural Justice, Distributive Justice, Organizational Commitment, Reward System, Organizational Justice, Job Satisfaction, Employee, Interactional Justice and Employed perceived performance

		employee's perceived performance				
3	Lutfie et al. (2014)	To examine the effect of Job satisfaction and Family work conflict on Organizational commitment	Job satisfaction Family work conflict		Organizational commitment: affective, continuant, and normative commitment	job satisfaction found has effect on commitment
4	Aminikhah et al. (2016)	To assess the psychological capital and its relationship with organizational commitment and regard to job satisfaction as a mediator variable.	psychological capital	job satisfaction	organizational commitment	-psychological capital has highly correlated with organizational commitment. -job satisfaction can put the relative impact on the relationship between psychological capital on organizational commitment
5	Folorunso et al. (2014)	To examine the impact of organizational commitment dimensions on employees' performance	Organizational commitment: affective, continuant, and normative commitment		job performance	organizational commitment dimensions; affective, normative and continual were significantly joint predictors of employees' performance
6	Abedini, (2015)	To investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment	Organizational commitment		Job satisfaction	significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment components including continuance, affective, and

					normative commitment	
7	Akhtar et al. (2015)	To understand the possible impact of organizational commitment with job satisfaction and job performance	Organizational commitment	Job satisfaction and job performance	organizational commitment has a positive effect on Job satisfaction and Job Performance	
8	Nath Gangai, K., & Agrawal, R. (2015).	To examine the relationship between components of organizational commitment and job satisfaction	Job satisfaction	Organizational commitment: affective, continuant, and normative commitment	only continuance commitment and normative commitment is significant correlation with job satisfaction	
9	Golghatmi et al. (2015)	To the relationships between various dimensions of organizational justice with organizational commitment and job satisfaction	Job satisfaction	Organizational commitment and organizational justice	Job satisfaction, organizational justice, organization commitment, were all positively correlated	
10	Ibrahim, (2015)	To develop an interaction model of collective efficacy, organizational commitment and job performance	collective efficacy	organizational commitment	job performance	Organizational commitment had fully-mediated to the relationship between collective efficacy and job performance
11	Masihabadi et al., (2015)	To contribute to the understanding of the development of	job stress	organizational commitment	job satisfaction	-Negative impact between job stress and

		organizational commitment and to explore the relations among psychological contract fulfilment, organizational commitment, and job performance.			and job performance	organizational commitment via job satisfaction - Negative impact between job stress and job performance - Negative impact between job stress and job satisfaction
12	Memari et al. (2013)	To investigate the relationship between organizational commitment and employees' job performance	Organizational commitment: affective, continuant, and normative commitment		employees' job performance	positive relationship between organizational commitment and employees' job performance
13	Hakim (2015)	To investigate the relationship between organizational culture, organizational commitment and employees' job performance	organizational culture	organizational commitment	employees performance	-organizational culture has a positive and significant impact on organizational commitment and employee performance. - organizational commitment has a positive and significant impact on employee performance -organizational commitment mediates organizational culture and employee performance.

14	Yeh and Hong, (2012)	To examine the relationship between leadership style, organizational commitment and job performance	Leadership style	Organizational commitment	Job performance	<p>-Leadership style is positively and significantly affect organizational commitment</p> <p>-organizational commitment has a positive effect on job performance</p> <p>-organizational commitment holds a partial mediating effect between the relationship of leadership style and job performance</p>
15	Rumawas, (2015)	To investigate the impact of human resource development, organizational commitment and compensation on employee performance	human resource development, organizational commitment and compensation		employee performance	<p>human resource development has impact on the employee performance</p> <p>-organizational commitment has significant impact on employee performance,</p> <p>- compensation has significant impact on the employee performance</p>
16	Tolentino, (2013)	To investigated the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance among the academic and administrative personnel	organizational commitment		job performance	<p>Only affective commitment correlates significantly with job performance among the academic,</p> <p>- there is no correlation between commitment dimension and job</p>

					performance among administrative staff	
17	Hashim (2015)	to examines the organizational commitment among engineers in order to find out the levels of engineers' job satisfaction	Job satisfaction		organizational commitment: Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment	Job satisfaction contributes to organizational commitment
18	Salehi and Gholtash, (2011)	To examine the relationship between job satisfaction, job burnout and organizational commitment with the organizational citizenship behaviour	job satisfaction	organizational commitment and job burnout	organizational citizenship behaviour	Job satisfaction has an indirect and positive influence on the organizational citizenship behaviour through job burnout and organizational commitment. -Organizational commitment has a direct and positive influence on the organizational citizenship behaviour
19	Zehir, Muceldili and Zehir (2012)	To measure the correlation between job satisfaction and organizational Commitment and to explore the moderating effect of ethical climate	job satisfaction	Ethical Climate	affective commitment and Continuance Commitment	There is a positive relation between job satisfaction dimensions and affective commitment and continuance commitment

		on satisfaction and commitment.				
20	Altinoz, Cakiroglu, and Cop (2012)	effect of job satisfaction of the talented employees on organizational commitment	job satisfaction		organizational commitment	There is a positive relation between job satisfaction dimensions and affective organizational commitment
21	Hayati and Caniogo (2012)	Investigate the influence of Islamic work ethic on intrinsic motivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance	Islamic work ethic	Intrinsic Motivation and Job Satisfaction	Organizational commitment and job performance	Islamic work ethic has greater effect on intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment than their effects on job satisfaction and job performance. -job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation moderates the relationship of the Islamic work ethic on organizational commitment and job performance.

In the review of literature, it has been found that there is strong relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It can be argued that satisfied academicians will tend to have more organisational commitment. The satisfaction among the academic staff act as source of motivation and encouragement that create a sense of commitment among the academicians to remain associate with their universities. Based on the above, it can be stated that job satisfaction positively enhance commitment and commitment lead to higher performance. The ability of commitment to explain the job performance act as motivation of this study to examine the mediating role of commitment to enhance performance. Thus, current study proposed that organisational commitment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

H2: Organizational commitment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

2.10.3 The Relationship among Job Satisfaction, Employee Empowerment and Job Performance

Wong and Laschinger (2013) conducted a study to examine the link among job satisfaction, empowerment, performance, authentic leadership of managers. The study found that there is significant and positive relationship between structural empowerment, job satisfaction and self-rated performance. Empowerment seems to be a useful management tool that used to exchange the shared vision to support the efforts towards achieving a common organisational goal. Most of empowerment definitions share the view that empowerment involves giving employees a discretion to make decision.

Employee empowerment is defined as an exchange of power between the employers and their employees (subordinates) (Meyerson & Dewettinck, 2012). This definition suggested that employers must empower their employees in order to motivated and assist the organization in achieving targeted goals. Moreover, “employee empowerment is the process in which employees should be directed towards the goals and allowed to choose strategies to achieve that goal. Employee empowerment is “the delegation of power and responsibility from higher levels to lower level employees under a hierarchy, especially the power to make decisions about daily routine tasks. Employee empowerment leads to improving performance productivity and job satisfaction by providing confidence and authority to work (Meyerson & Dewettinck, 2012).

Mir and Rainayee (2015) examined the relationship among employee empowerment, job satisfaction and job performance. Findings showed that employee empowerment has positive influence on job performance. They postulated that is increased intrinsic task motivation that showed in employee’s cognitions. The cognitions reflect an employees' direction to their job and help them to perform better at their job (Mir & Rainayee, 2015). In light of the previous literature, it can be argued that employees empowerment has significant relationship with job satisfaction and job performance. This more satisfaction will also feeling of being empowered and employees when they feel more motivated and empowered they tend to perform better. Employee empowerment also provide a positive feeling of being able to manage task independently and this feeling directs the employees towards the organisational goal. Based on the theoretical literature and the empirical studies that reviewed, hypothesis

of the relationship among job satisfaction, employees' empowerment and job performance was developed as follow:

H3: Employees empowerment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

2.10.4 The Moderation Role of Islamic Culture

Islamic culture influence job performance of employees and increases their productivity (Hakim, 2012). Islamic culture is the organizational culture which is supportive work culture and provide sense of accomplishment and fulfilment to workers. It motivates and optimizes the relationship between employees their superiors, colleagues and customers (students in current research). The Islamic culture also encourages the good relationship among the working staff. In addition, Islamic culture seeks for providing and sustaining convenient and comfortable workplace and atmosphere within the organization. Muslims spirit is developed from three Islamic principles: motivation of faith, motivation of devote, and motivation of act and behaviour. Such conditions allow good opportunities for managers to manage their organizations and lead employees towards achieving high level of performance (Hakim, 2012).

Islamic culture has its own influence on the performance of individuals in Islamic countries more specifically in Saudi Arabia. The Islamic Arab Culture in Saudi higher education system is influenced by the local national culture which is based on the Islamic values. Meanwhile, under the challenges of the globalization and seeking world class ranking, the educational system tries to import some aspects of the modern

structure of the western management and education style. This is obvious in the top Saudi universities such as King Abdullah University and King Fahad University, Umm Al-Qura University, King Khalid University (3,660) and King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals there are some adoption to get benefits from the globally available good practices. However, the Islamic culture is dominant over the western culture and employees in KSA universities practices Islamic culture in the universities. Therefore, it remains to be understood that the local Arab culture still has its significant influence on the organizational culture in Saudi higher education system specially when considering the significant differences in the context of education in Arab culture and Western culture (Pavan, 2016).

There are many studies examined the culture of these countries workers as migrants into the West countries (Budhwar, Woldu, & Ogbonna, 2008). These studies have moved to becoming more interested in examining the culture of same workforce in the Middle East (Hills & Atkins, 2013). There is also a noteworthy literature on Westerners and their requisite to adjust in foreign and different work environments. Cross-cultural management literature examines these extents from difference perspective of that in western region, but very few studies have focused on the Islamic and Arab world culture (Al-Omari, 2003).

Currently, KSA education faces the challenge of open education system under the fast growing of the globalization and its effect on the culture including Islamic culture. This appears especially in the multicultural education environment that starts to develop in the Saudi higher education universities, such as King Abdullah University and King Fahad University, by welcoming and encouraging overseas students and

scholars. For example the total number of non-Saudi staff in 2013 was 26,933. However, Islamic and Arabic culture is presented in the fact that most of overseas staff and overseas students in Saudi universities are from Arab and Muslim countries (Ministry of Higher Education, 2014). In review of literature, the Islamic culture has been found as a stronger factor that influence the performance and moreover, most of the studies they used general organisational culture as a moderator. The roots of Islamic culture are stronger than the western culture in KSA universities, thus the Islamic culture can be argued as stronger factor that can enhance the job performance of the academicians at KSA. This culture combine with job satisfaction of employees can significantly determine the job performance. A satisfied employee and Islamic culture which provide conducive environment to employees to work earn their bread by following Islamic virtue and values can bring positive impact on job performance. It can be argued that there are very few studies available that assessed the Islamic culture as moderator on job satisfaction and job performance. Based on the current discussion and available literature, the current study proposed that Islamic culture will moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance. The following hypothesis has been formulated to test the proposed relationship:

H4: Islamic organizational culture moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance.

2.11 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature related to job satisfaction and performance. Both theoretical and empirical literature were reviewed in order to comprehend the available literature on the topic. The chapter started with context of the importance of

higher education and higher education and the role of academic staff in the development of higher education institutes. The chapter has reviewed and presented the theoretical literature of job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, employees' empowerment and Islamic culture. Then the empirical studies that proved the theoretical relationships between the four variables of the studies were reviewed to highlight the empirical work done in the related topics. Hypotheses were developed to be tested based on the findings of the theoretical and empirical studies. In the last section, conceptual framework of the study was developed and explained.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter provides details on the research design and methodology used to achieve the research objectives, i.e: (i) to examine the impact of job satisfaction on job performance among the academicians working in KSA universities; (ii) to examine the mediating role of organizational commitment in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among the academicians working in KSA universities; (iii) to examine the mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among the academicians working in KSA universities; and (v) to assess the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. In addition, the chapter discusses the population of the study, sampling techniques, instrumentation, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques and tools selected for this research.

3.1 Research Design Overview

Cooper and Schindler (2008) mentioned that research design is a pathway to carry out research in order to achieve the research objectives. The research design helps researchers to use the methodology which is widely accepted (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). The research design consists of steps, like measurement, data collection procedures and data analysis procedures and techniques. In addition, the research design assists the researcher to follow recognized methodology. The research design

is a main aspect of research that shows the steps for data collection and data analysis and the general steps to be followed to achieve the stated objectives of a study (Zikmund, 2003).

This study used four constructs (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, employee empowerment and job performance). The proposed relationships is the impact of job satisfaction on job performance with the mediating role of organizational commitment and employee empowerment. A quantitative research design using cross-sectional survey was used in this study. The reasons to select quantitative research design are: first, quantitative research design uses a deductive rational approach which is aim of current research; second, quantitative research design is common for analysing cross-sectional data using quantitative analysis and making the results quantifiable (Zikmund, 2003); and third, it is appropriate to be used in empirical studies (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). The quantitative method creates evidences based on statistical analysis to explain the relationships between the different variables (i.e., independent variable, dependent variable and mediator or moderator variable) to draw inferences (Creswell, 2012; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Therefore, the quantitative method is used in the current research by keeping in mind suggestions from the past literature and objectives of the current research.

The survey research method is common in social sciences, business and management research. The survey method usually uses a deductive approach to collect data (Saunders et al., 2009). This research also used survey questionnaire as a tool to collect data from the respondents. There are few reasons for adopting the survey design, which includes: first, the deductive design involves developing the theoretical and conceptual

frameworks, hypothesizing relationships and testing the hypotheses to verify the theoretical framework; second, the questionnaire helps to obtain precise and clear information from the respondents (Saunders et al., 2009); third, the questionnaire enables researchers to effectively obtain a large amount of data from a diversified sample at a low cost (Denscombe, 2010). The population of the present study is academicians from KSA universities; and fourth, the responses obtained from the questionnaires are easy to explain and evaluate quantitatively (Denscombe, 2010). Paper-based and online questionnaires were used in this study. The questionnaire comprises two main parts: demographic information of respondents and items related to each variable. To analyse the data, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Structural Equation Modelling-Partial Least Squares (SEM-PLS) was used. SPSS was used in the first stage to conduct the descriptive analysis and assumption testing, while SEM-PLS was used to test the proposed hypothesis, as suggested by Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010). The general steps of research methodology followed in the current research are as shown in Figure 3.1.

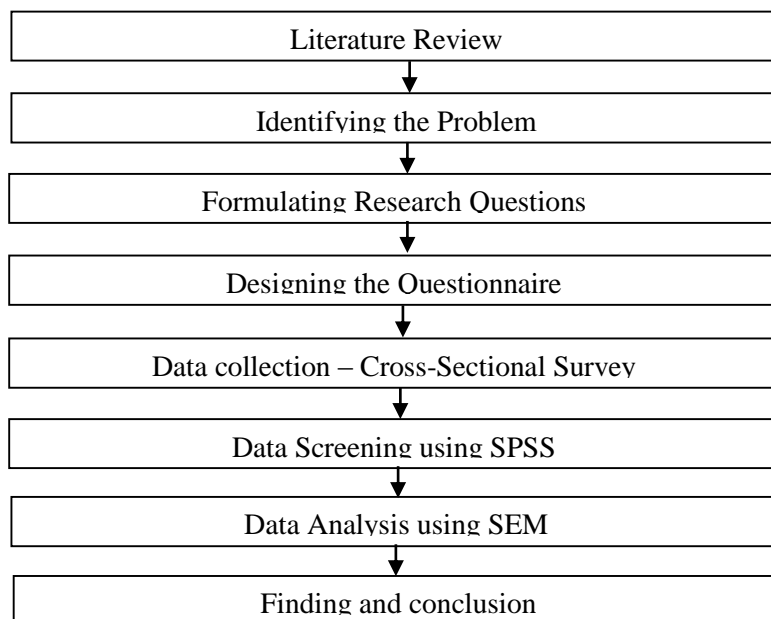


Figure 3.1 The process of the research

3.2 Population and Sampling

Population is an entire group about which some information is required to be ascertained. In the current research, the population is academic staff working in KSA universities (Banerjee & Chaudhury, 2010). Sampling is the process of identifying and selecting the respondents of the questionnaire and the techniques that follow during the process. The selected respondents should represent the population (Sekaran, 2003; Zikmund, 2003). Identifying the sample size generally follows the main recommendation as follows: the larger the sample size, the more accurate the expected results (Hair, 2010; Kumar et al., 2010). For sample specifications, Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, and Kuppelwieser (2014) indicated that the minimum sample size should be 10 times the number of variables, especially when SEM is used (Hair et al., 2014). In this study, five variables exist in the model. Therefore, the minimum required number of the sample should be 50. However, the study followed the recommendation of Sekaran (2003) regarding the use of Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) sample size table, whereby the total sample size required for a population of 63,648 is 382.

The unit of analysis in this study is individual academicians. Academicians who are working in universities in KSA are the target population as shown in Table 3.1. However, the focus is only on academic staff of the top five universities, namely Umm Al-Qura University, King Saud University, King Abdulaziz University, King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals and King Khalid University (QS World Universities Ranking, 2016; The Times Higher Education World University Rankings, 2016 - refer to Tables 3.2 and 3.3 for the general and classified list of the universities). These five universities were selected because they are among the top universities in KSA as per the QS universities ranking. Moreover, these five universities have the

majority of the academicians in KSA. In addition, the top five universities follow the international standards and requirements for hiring academicians which would significantly support the generalizability of the findings of the current study. Moreover, the top five universities can reduce the cost and time by reducing the geographical scope of data collection, as the distribution of KSA universities covers a very vast geographical area, thus making it difficult to collect the data. By keeping in mind the ranking and number of academicians, the top five universities were selected for the current research. The geographical details of the universities based on their geographical areas are given in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

KSA universities according to administrative area in 2013

Administrative area	Public	private
Riyadh	8	5
Makkah	4	2
Madinah	2	
Eastern Area	6	1
Asir	1	-
Jazan	1	-
Qassim	1	-
Najran	1	-
Al-Baha	1	-
Tabuk	1	1
Hail	1	-
Northern Borders	1	-
Al-Jouf	1	-
Total	29	9

3.2.1 Sampling and Sample Size

Sampling is the process of selecting the respondents from the target population. This process is very important in data collection as it assists the researcher to get the right respondents for the questionnaire. In literature, it is emphasized that selected respondents in sampling should represent the whole population of the study and contain similar characteristics as the population of study (Sekaran, 2012). A sample from the academic staff of each university was selected based on random sampling technique. Using random sampling technique ensures that the sample selected contains the characteristics of the population and generalizability of the results is possible. This technique provides equal chance to all the participants to be selected as a respondent. A large sample tends to provide more accurate and generalizable results (Kumar et al., 2010). A homogenous population is appropriate for applying the random sampling technique. The process of random sampling starts with making the population homogenous, and for this, the non-homogenous population is mixed with the homogenous population. This process should be carried out by stratified random sampling, by which there is a sub-group of homogenous population called strata, but this subdivision is made before the sample taking (Remenyi, Williams, Money, & Swartz, 1998).

In the current study, the random sampling selection is based on the recommendation of Sekaran (2003) and follows Krejcie and Morgan (1970) for sample size decision. According to the Saudi MOHE, the total number of academic staff in the KSA's five top universities is 25,087. Based on Sekaran (2003) and Krejcie and Morgan (1970), a sample size of 379 academicians is appropriate. The sample was selected randomly from the top five public universities. This number of 379 was divided among the five

universities based on the high number of academic staff in each university. Table 3.2 provides number of academic staff at public universities in KSA.

Table 3.2
Academic Staff at Public Universities

University	Number of staff
King Abdulaziz University	7,889
King Saud University	7,614
Umm Al-Qura University	4,898
Qassim University	3,768
King Khalid University	3,660
Jazan University	3,500
Imam Muhammad bin Saud Islamic University	3,387
Taibah University	2,842
University of Dammam	2,828
Taif University	2,766
University of Hail	2,121
Princess Nora bint Abdul Rahman University	2,099
Sattam bin Abdulaziz University	1,964
Shaqra University	1,803
King Faisal University	1,763
Tabuk University	1,677
Najran University	1,375
Al Baha University	1,313
Al Jawf University	1,264

Northern Borders University	1,255
Majmaah University	1,225
King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals	1,026
Islamic University	734
King Saud bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences	451
Saudi Electronic University	141
King Abdullah University of Science and Technology	125
Total	63,488

Source: MOHE report 2015; Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) web site, 2016

The sample selection followed a random approach to draw a random sample of 379 academic staff from the above mentioned top five universities (QS ranking). Moreover, these top five universities also have the major proportion of academic staff out of the total academic staff in all KSA universities as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3
Sampling from the Top Five Universities

Top 5 Universities	Number of staff	Percentage from 379	Number of sample
King Abdulaziz University	7,889	31.45%	119
King Saud University	7,614	30.35%	115
Umm Al-Qura University	4,898	19.53%	74
King Khalid University	3,660	14.59%	55
King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals	1,026	4.08%	16
Total	25,087	100%	379

This made it more suitable for the researcher to use these universities to collect the data. The details of the number of academic staff in top five public universities KSA is given in the Table 3.3.

3.3 Data Collection

The survey questionnaire method was used to collect the data from the academic staff working in KSA universities. The self-administered questionnaire was found to be more suitable to get adequate response from the respondents. For the self-administered questionnaire, the participants fill in the answers without any help from the researcher (Denscombe, 2010). The level of clarity in this type of questionnaire depends on the clarity of the included questions. This method can cover a big geographical area (Zikmund, 2003). The questionnaire was given to the academic staff working in KSA universities. Academic staff includes Professors, Associate Professors, Assistant Professors and Lecturers who work full-time in the top five KSA universities.

3.3.1 The Questionnaire

The instruments used in the current study were carefully selected from the past literature based on the reported reliability and validity of the instruments. The details of each instrument used in the current study are given in the sections below.

3.3.1.1 Measuring Job Satisfaction

To operationalize the variables, different measurement items were used to put the variable in an empirical form. Job satisfaction measurement was developed by Akyol (2014) from previous theoretical frameworks to conceptualize and assess academic staff's job satisfaction. This instrument was used for many reasons. First, it includes

two dimensional evaluation elements, i.e., internal job satisfaction and external job satisfaction. Second, the measurement was originally used to test academic staff's job satisfaction in the academic context. Third, the instrument is suitable for studies that aim to measure the overall job satisfaction. Fourth, the instrument was already tested for validity and reliability by the previous researchers and the pilot study also provided an acceptable level of reliability and validity. The items used to measure job satisfaction are given in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Job Satisfaction Scale

Code	Item	Source
External job satisfaction		
EJS1	I am satisfied with my superior's way of treating me	Akyol (2014)
EJS2	I am satisfied with quality at my superior's decisions	
EJS3	I am satisfied with promotion possibility in my employment	
EJS4	I am satisfied with working conditions	
EJS5	I am satisfied with appreciating in return for a good job	
EJS6	I am satisfied with my wage	
EJS7	I am satisfied with dealings with my colleagues in workplace	
Internal job satisfaction		
IJS1	I have a chance to make achievements by using my qualities	

IJS2	I have ability and willingness to help others	
IJS3	I have a chance to use my own methods while doing my job	Akyol
IJS4	I have a chance to sometimes make different things	(2014)
IJS5	I have a chance to give decisions independently	
IJS6	I feel I am busy all the time	
IJS7	I feel I did accomplishment on the job	
IJS8	I can work alone to accomplish my tasks	

3.3.1.2 Measuring Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment variable measurement was taken from the study of Allen and Meyer (1990). Allen and Meyer's (1990) measurement instrument contains 18 items with three components (affective commitment, continuant commitment and normative commitment). The 18 items were measured on a five-point Likert scale. This scale has been used by many past studies and they have reported acceptable reliability and validity of the instrument (Lutfie, Prasetio, & Alamanda, 2014; Abedini, 2015; Nath Gangai & Agrawal, 2015). Therefore, the scale is valid to be used in the current study. In addition, this scale has been used to measure organizational commitment among university staff by Ntisa (2015). Based on the above discussion, the scale fulfils the criteria of adequate reliability and validity, and has been used by previous researchers in the context of academic staff. The details of items and there dimensions of the measurement scale are given in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5

Organizational Commitment Scale

Code	Item	
Affective commitment		
AFC1	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now even if I wanted to	
AFC2	I feel an obligation to remain with my current employer	
AFC3	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this university	Allen and Meyer (1990)
AFC4	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this university would be the scarcity of available alternatives	
AFC5	Even if it was to my advantage, I do not feel it is right to leave this university now	
AFC6	I really feel as if this university's problems are my own	
Continuance commitment		
COC1	Right now, staying with my employer is a matter of necessity as much as a desire	
COC2	I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to this university	

COC3	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this university	
COC4	I feel emotionally attached to this university	Allen and Meyer (1990)
COC5	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	
COC6	I feel like “part of family” at my organization	
Normative commitment		
NOC1	This university deserves my loyalty	
NOC2	If I had not already put so much of myself into this university, I might consider working somewhere else	
NOC3	I would not leave this university right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	
NOC4	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	Allen and Meyer (1990)
NOC5	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave this university now	
NOC6	I owe a great deal to this university	

3.3.1.3 Measuring Employee Empowerment

Employee empowerment variable was operationalized by using the measurement items of Hayes & Lunsford (1994). This model is one of the most used models to measure employee empowerment in different types of organizations (Mir & Rainayee,

2015). The measurement comprises five items to measure employee empowerment from different aspects. This scale was earlier tested by Mir and Rainayee (2015) and they reported an adequate level of reliability and validity of the instrument. The details of items is given in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6

Employee Empowerment Scale

Code	Item
EMP1	I have the authority to correct students' problems when they occur.
EMP2	I am encouraged to handle students' problems by myself.
EMP3	I do not have to get management's approval before I handle students' problems. Hayes and Lunsford (1994)
EMP4	I am allowed to do almost anything to solve students' problems.
EMP5	I have control over how I solve students' problems.

3.3.1.4 Measuring Islamic Organizational Culture

In this study, the variable of Islamic organizational culture was measured using the instrument developed by Hakim (2012). It includes six items measured on a five-point Likert scale. This scale was adopted because it was developed to assess the relationship between Islamic organizational culture and performance of the employees in the Islamic organizational context. It has already been tested for reliability and validated by many studies. The detailed items are given in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7

Islamic Culture Scale

Code	Item
ISC1	In our university staff members always smile to each other to create the atmosphere of good attention.
ISC2	In our university staff members always greet each other to create welfare atmosphere. Hakim (2012).
ISC3	In our university staff members have good friendship with each other to develop good relationship.
ISC4	In our university staff members always help each other and have good cooperation.
ISC5	In our university staff members always try to never telling lies
ISC6	In our university staff members always try to be discipline so they can use the time effectively.

3.3.1.5 Measuring Job Performance

The job performance variable was measured using the scale of Koopmans et al. (2012). The scale was designed to measure individual job performance for a generic population. This scale is based on a three-dimensional framework of job performance. The three dimensions are: contextual performance, task performance and adaptive performance (Koopmans et al., 2012). The justification of using the scale is that it has been already used by previous research studies and bears an adequate level of validity and reliability. The 14 items measure Islamic culture using a five point Likert scale are given in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8

Job Performance Scale

Code	Item	Source
Task Performance		
TAP1	I manage to plan my work so that it is done on time	Koopmans et al. (2012)
TAP2	I work towards the end results of my work	
TAP3	I keep in mind the results that I have to achieve in my work	
TAP4	I am able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort	
Contextual Performance		
COP1	I was able to meet my appointments	Koopmans et al. (2012)
COP2	I came up with creative ideas at work	
COP3	I took the initiative when there was a problem to be solve	
COP4	I tried to learn from the feedback I got from others on my work	
CO5	I took into account the wishes of the customer /client/ patient in my work	
COP6	I think customers/clients/patients were satisfied with my work	
Adaptive Performance		
ADP1	was able to cope well with difficult situations and setbacks at work	Koopmans et al., 2012
ADP2	I easily adjusted to changes in my work	
ADP3	I came up with creative solutions to new problems	
ADP4	I actively participate in work meeting	

The selected measurements have sufficient reliability and validity as reported by the previous researchers. Moreover, these instruments have been used earlier by various

researchers. The full versions of the questionnaire in English with the Arabic translation are in Appendices A and B, respectively.

3.4 Pilot Study

In order to verify and enhance the measurements of the study, an experimental study or pilot study should be conducted (Zikmund, 2003). The first draft of the questionnaire was reviewed following many steps to recognize the issues and make clarifications if there is any ambiguity in the questionnaire. The questionnaire was reviewed by four experts from COLGIS, UUM. The four academicians have more than 10 years of academic and research experience and they supervise many research students. The instrument was reviewed by the experts for face validity of the instrument and in next stage, the instrument was piloted to know the level of reliability and validity of the modified version. After the necessary revision, the survey questionnaire was sent to 50 academicians to get data for pilot testing of the instruments. These 50 academicians work in the KSA universities.

In quantitative research design, it is recommended that the level of internal consistency among the measurements of a construct be evaluated to establish its reliability (Hair et al., 2010). Sekaran (2003) stated that several methods can be employed to estimate the reliability of the construct; however Cronbach's Alpha coefficient method is regarded as the most widely used method. Therefore, the current study utilized Cronbach's Alpha method to evaluate the reliability of the scales for each construct in pilot testing. According to Tenenhaus, Esposito, Chatelin, and Lauro (2005), the cut-off point value of Cronbach's Alpha should be more than 0.70 to assure the reliability of the measurement scale. However, the Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.60 is a minimum

acceptable level for an exploratory research (Hair et al., 2010). The results of the pilot analysis indicated that values of Cronbach's Alpha of all the measurements are in the acceptable range of 0.7512 to 0.917 as given in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9

Summary Statistics of Pilot Analysis

Construct	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
External Job Satisfaction	7	0.917
Internal Job Satisfaction	8	0.751
Affective Commitment	6	0.766
Continuance Commitment	6	0.797
Normative Commitment	6	0.899
Employee Empowerment	5	0.870
Islamic Organizational Culture	6	0.877
Task Performance	4	0.818
Contextual Performance	6	0.837
Adaptive Performance	4	0.768

3.5 Data Analysis

This study employed SPSS to key-in the data and to perform preliminary data analysis, such as data screening, missing value, normality, multicollinearity, linearity, outlier detection and descriptive statistics. The advantage of SPSS is that it performs statistical analysis by entering the data in terms of numbers into simple columns and rows (Pallant, 2011). SPSS is recommended and commonly used in business and management and overall social sciences data analysis (Saunders et al., 2009).

However, SEM SmartPLS was employed to test the measurement and structural models. The self-administered survey was used to collect data from the respondents and this way of collecting data is effective to get a reasonable response rate (Denscombe, 2010). The clarity of the questions in the self-administered survey decide the quality of the data (Zikmund, 2003). This method is more suitable with a large population number compared to other methods because the former covers a broad geographical area where the participants are distributed (Zikmund, 2003). Accordingly, this study utilized the self-administered survey questionnaire for data collection. The data was entered into SPSS for further process. In the data analysis, SEM is a widely accepted and useful technique for testing the relationship between variables. (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). SEM has the ability to run and test complicated relationships within a model. The model of this study is also complicated because it involves four constructs, and each of the four constructs has a number of measurement items. Two of the constructs are mediators and one is a moderator. In addition, SEM can measure the errors which increases the precision of the findings.

The current research followed a two-step approach in which the first step confirmed the measurement model and reported the reliability and validity of the constructs. This step ensures that the measurements used in the current study are adequate to test the hypothesized relationship. In the second step, all the hypothesized relationships were tested using path modelling. This technique provides the hypothesis testing results. The SEM-PLS in Appendix C provides more details about the pilot study.

3.6 Translation of the Questionnaire

The respondents of the current study were Arabic language speakers. To get more meaningful answers from the respondents, the questionnaire items were translated into the Arabic language. In the past literature, there are several techniques proposed by researchers for translation of the questionnaire that includes back-to back translation technique, direct translation technique, mixed technique and parallel translation technique (Saunders et al., 2009). The mixed translation technique was found to be more suitable for the current study over others because it ensures a high level of matching of the original text with the translated text. Based on the suitability of mixed translation technique, the current research used mixed translation technique to translate the English version of the questionnaire to the Arabic language.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents the research design as well as the population and sampling procedures. Moreover, it highlights the data collection method utilized by the researcher. The design of the questionnaire, including the measurements of the constructs of the study are provided. The pilot study and its results are presented in order to establish the reliability of the scales of the measurements. It also highlights the methods of translation of the questionnaire and the method employed by the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

The current chapter explains the data analysis procedures and results of data analysis. The chapter reports the demographic information of the respondents using descriptive statistics. It also presents the data screening and the preliminary data analysis. In addition, it discusses the measurement model results using Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) to evaluate the reliability and validity of the measurement and structural model results to test the proposed model.

In PLS-SEM, the outer model (measurement model) reports the indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. The structural one shows the criterion of the quality model including chi-square value, effect size, predictive relevance of the model and testing of the hypothesized relationships between the variables used in the current research. The path coefficients include the parameter approximations of the structural model, while the factors weights and loadings involve the parameter estimates of PLS-SEM outer model. In this study, SEM-PLS was used to confirm the validity of the model in the measurement model and to test the hypothesized relationship using structural model.

4.1 Analysis of Questionnaire Response

4.1.1 Response Rates

The questionnaire were distributed to the 768 respondents. The returned useable questionnaires were 384 representing 50% response rate. The sample comprised of the academicians from top five universities in KSA. These universities include Umm Al-Qura University, King Saud University, King Abdulaziz University, King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals, and King Khalid University. These universities are best top five universities in KSA as per QS ranking. Table 4.1 shows the details of the questionnaire distributed and received in data collection process.

Table 4.1

Distribution and Collection of the Questionnaire

Top 5 universities	No. of staff	% from the total	No. sample	Distributed	Received
Umm Al-Qura University	4,898	19.53%	75	150	75
King Saud University	7,614	30.35%	116	232	116
King Abdulaziz University	7,889	31.45%	121	242	121
King Fahd University for Petroleum and Minerals	1,026	4.08%	16	32	16
King Khalid University	3,660	14.59%	56	112	56
Total	25,087	100%	384	768	384

As a result of questionnaire distribution this study got 384 responses which accounts for 50% of response rate which is adequate with Jobber (1989) which reported a response rate of 40% as adequate and acceptable.

4.1.2 The Demographic Characteristics of the Questionnaire Respondents

In the current research, information on five demographic characteristics such as gender, age, working experience, qualification and monthly income level was collected from the respondents. In descriptive analysis of the demographic information of the respondents, it has been found that there were 52.1% male respondents and 47.9% female respondents who filled the questionnaire. The age related data showed that academic staff with age between 31 and 39 years were highest in number among other respondents with a percentage of 42.7%, while 27.9% belongs to age category less than 30 years. The respondents with the age between 40-49 years were 20.6%, and 5.7% of them were having age between 50-59 years, only 1.3% of the respondents were above 60 years old.

In analysing the qualification related data, it has been found that majority (40.6%) of the respondents had a master degree as their qualification, while bachelor degree holders were 26.8. There were 26% respondents hold a PhD degree and 6.5% among them were post-doctorate. In analysing the working experience of the respondents, it has been noted that majority of the respondents (38.8%) have working experience between 5 to 9 years, while 35.2% of the respondents have working experience of less than 5 years. Among the respondents 13.3% have working experience between 10 to 14 years while 6.5% have working experience between 15-19 years.

Table 4.2

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (N=384)

Variables	Category	N	%
Gender	Male	200	52.1
	Female	184	47.9
Age	< 30 years	114	29.7
	between 31– 39	164	42.7
	between 40 – 49	79	20.6
	between 50– 59	22	5.7
	60 and above	5	1.3
Qualification	Bachelor	103	26.8
	Master	156	40.6
	PhD	100	26.0
	Post-doctorate	25	6.5
Experience	< 5 years	135	35.2
	between 5-9	149	38.8
	between 10-14	51	13.3
	between 15-19	25	6.5
Income	< RS 10,000	136	35.4
	between RS 10,000 - 15,000	120	31.3
	between RS 15,001- 20,000	54	14.1
	between RS 20,001 - 25,000	31	8.1
	> RS 25,000	43	11.2

The descriptive statistics on level of income showed that most of the respondents earn less than SR 10,000 which means 35.4%. Among the 31.3% earn between SR 10,000 to SR 15,000 and 14.1% of the respondents earn between SR 15,001- SR 20,000. Moreover, 11.2% earn more than SR 25,000 and 8.1% earn between RS 20,001 - 25,000. Table 4.2 provides details on the demographic information of the respondents with frequency and percentage.

4.2 Data Screening and Preliminary Analysis

This section provides detailed data screening and preliminary analysis. In which data screening includes missing values analysis and common method bias. While outliers detection, assessment of normality, linearity and multicollinearity are under preliminary data analysis. This step ensures that the data is normal and meet the assumptions of multivariate data analysis.

4.2.1 Missing Data

In multivariate data analysis, missing data is a major concern of the researchers and exert negative effect on the findings (Sekaran, 2003). The missing data is very crucial in the PLS-SEM, the program do not run algorithm in case of any missing values. In the missing value analysis, few cases were found missing values which account for 0.02% of the whole data which is under the acceptable range. However, researchers agree that 5% or less missing rate is non-significant (Schafer, 1999; Tabachnic & Fidell, 2007). Moreover, it is also suggested that if the total percentage of missing data is 5% or less then, the mean 142 substitution should be used (Tabachnic & Fidell, 2007; Little & Rubin, 1987; Raymond, 1986). As the missing values are less than 5%, the mean value replacing is best suitable method for replacing the missing entries (Pallant, 2011). The current research used the mean replacement method for treating the missing value.

4.2.2 Common Method Bias Test

None-response bias is an important aspect of data screening which affect the validity of the questionnaire and the results of the data analysis (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). There are several types of biasness including none-response bias

in the data, such as, the sample bias, the measurement bias, non-response bias, observer bias, response bias, interviewee bias, and interviewer bias (Saunders, et al., 2009). All these types are under two approach: the first is statistical methods of none-response and the second is procedural and methods of none-response (Podsakoff, et al., 2003). The procedural method is used during the first phase of the research design whereas the statistical method of none-response used after gathering the data from the sample respondents.

In the current study the procedural bias has been met by using the recommendations of Saunders, et al., (2009) that adapting all of the measurement instruments which previously used by other studies. To assure the sample none-response bias issue, the recommendations of Denscombe (2010) were followed by verifying that the sample selection done with sampling technique and the sample is relevant to the scope of the research.

In addition, an independent sample t-test including descriptive and Levene's test was conducted to ensure that there were no differences between the early and late responses received during data collection process. It is argued that the late respondents could be considered as no-respondents because they would not have likely responded the questionnaire without follow up by the researcher (Malhotra, Hall, Shaw, & Oppenheim, 2006). Therefore, the sample of the study was grouped into two main calcifications: early respondents, who responded within one month after distributing the survey, and late respondents, who responded after one month from distribution the survey. The majority of respondents were grouped as the early respondents, a total of

315 respondents, and the remaining 69 respondents were grouped as the late respondents.

The results of the analysis showed that equal variance significance values for all the variables of the study were not significant, which were higher than 0.05, indicating that the variances were approximately homogeneous across the two groups. This indicates that the sample of the study is out of the on-response bias as there were no significant between the early and late respondents. Appendix D provide details of non-response bias based on early and late response using on independent sample t-test.

4.2.3 Statistical Techniques of Common Method Variance

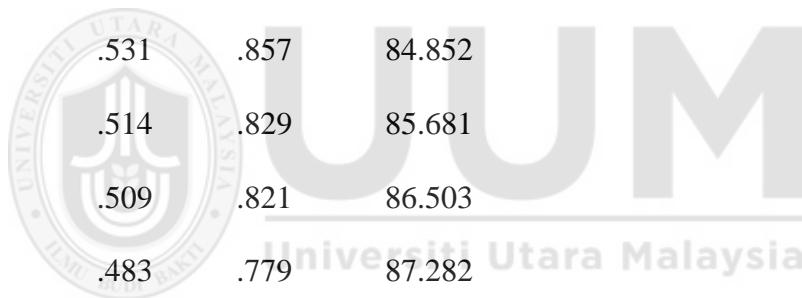
To verify the common bias or none-response bias, Harman single factor test is commonly used by business and management researchers (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Harman single factor test is run by implementing single factor analysis. Single factor analysis is run by loading all measurement items into one single exploratory factor. If the result of single factor variance explained is higher than 50%, there is bias problem in the data. This study also used Herman single factor analysis to assess common method variance bias. The test resulted showed that variance explained by single factor is 20.152% which is under acceptable range and not more than 50%. The findings revealed that there is common method variance issue in the data, and data is adequate to use for further analysis. The details of Herman Single factors with factor loadings is given in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

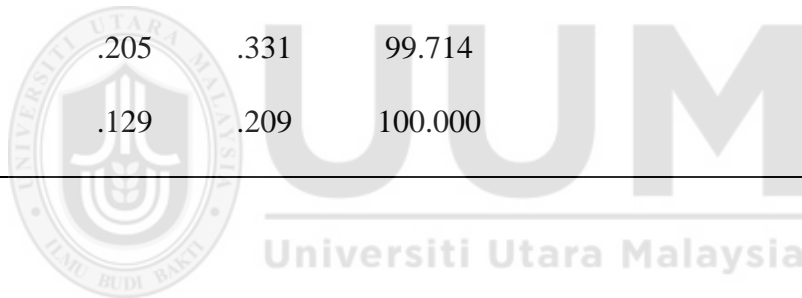
Single Factor Test for Common Method Bias

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Loadings		
				Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.495	20.152	20.152	12.495	20.152	20.152
2	5.602	9.036	29.188			
3	3.415	5.508	34.696			
4	2.790	4.499	39.196			
5	2.426	3.912	43.108			
6	1.939	3.127	46.236			
7	1.861	3.002	49.238			
8	1.614	2.603	51.841			
9	1.407	2.269	54.110			
10	1.320	2.128	56.239			
11	1.260	2.033	58.272			
12	1.199	1.934	60.206			
13	1.089	1.756	61.962			
14	1.035	1.670	63.632			
15	.990	1.597	65.230			
16	.939	1.515	66.745			
17	.927	1.495	68.239			
18	.912	1.471	69.710			
19	.871	1.405	71.115			
20	.815	1.315	72.429			

21	.770	1.242	73.671
22	.759	1.223	74.895
23	.737	1.188	76.083
24	.714	1.151	77.234
25	.675	1.089	78.324
26	.649	1.047	79.370
27	.615	.992	80.362
28	.596	.961	81.324
29	.561	.904	82.228
30	.552	.891	83.119
31	.543	.876	83.995
32	.531	.857	84.852
33	.514	.829	85.681
34	.509	.821	86.503
35	.483	.779	87.282
36	.456	.735	88.017
37	.451	.727	88.744
38	.432	.697	89.441
39	.411	.663	90.105
40	.388	.626	90.731
41	.385	.621	91.351
42	.373	.601	91.952
43	.363	.585	92.537
44	.351	.566	93.103
45	.345	.557	93.660



46	.324	.522	94.183
47	.315	.508	94.691
48	.298	.481	95.172
49	.289	.467	95.638
50	.286	.461	96.099
51	.257	.415	96.514
52	.252	.407	96.921
53	.241	.388	97.309
54	.231	.372	97.681
55	.226	.364	98.045
56	.210	.338	98.383
57	.205	.331	99.714
58	.129	.209	100.000



4.2.4 Outliers

Outliers are the values that are numerically distant if matched to the rest of the values (Byrne, 2010). There are different ways of identifying outliers within a given dataset, among which the famous is Mahalanobis distance method which classify data points based on the distance from the expected values (Hair et al., 2010). Part of the practical arguments in favour of outlier handlings based on Mahalanobis distance is that this method is most effective way of identifying outliers based on a given threshold. However, in this study, the outliers were verified by using the output of descriptive statistics including Histogram and statistics of each indicator. The results showed that there are no outliers in the data that can be considered as a potential threat for the data

analysis procedures. The data was found to be usable for further analysis using PLS-SEM.

4.2.5 Normality

The normality assumption is considered as an important in multivariate data analysis, as it may lead to unreliable results data do not follow normal distribution (Hair et al., 2010). According to Pallant (2005), normality can be seen as the symmetrical distribution of data, forming the greatest frequency around the mean that shape the data plot as bell shape. It is recommended to assess the normality utilising the values of skewness and kurtosis (Pallant, 2005). The cut-off point in evaluating the values of skewness was between +1 and -1 in order to be considered as normal data (Hair et al. 2010). Based on the results shown in Table 4.4, the skewness values of the constructs of the study are between the range of +1 and -1, indicating that data follows normal distribution.

The criterion of Kurtosis employed to detect whether the data set are peaked or flat relative to a normal distribution (George & Mallery, 2006). The threshold values of Kurtosis are recommended to be within +3 and -3 (Coakes & Steed, 2003). The results of the normality test showed that all kurtosis values are within the range +3 and -3 and suggest that there is no problem with kurtosis. Based on the results of skewness and kurtosis, it can be said that the data follows a normal distribution and hold the data normality assumption which is an important assumption in multivariate data analysis. This also ensures that the data can be used for further analysis. The detailed explanation on normality of the data is given in Appendix E and values of skewness and kurtosis are given in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

Normality Test

Construct	Dimension	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
External Job satisfaction	EJS	.205	.125	-.157-	.248
Internal Job satisfaction	IJS	.661	.125	1.461	.248
Affective commitment	AFC	.279	.125	.052	.248
Continuance commitment	COC	.372	.125	.057	.248
Normative commitment	NOC	.331	.125	.128	.248
Empowerment	EMP	.205	.125	-.114-	.248
Islamic Culture	ISC	.324	.125	-.134-	.248
Task Performance	TAP	.257	.125	.121	.248
Continuance Performance	COP	.054	.125	-.108-	.248
Adaptive Performance	ADP	.319	.125	.206	.248

4.2.6 Linearity

The linearity assumption is also considered important for predicting the right direction of hypotheses, when the residuals have a straight line association with dependent variables (Pallant, 2005). The positive value shows that there is a positive relationship between the independent variables and dependent variables. It is required for the independent variable's relationship to be linear in order to guarantee the best representation in the equation and obtain the objective of homoscedasticity of the data. (Hair, Black, Babin, Andersen & Tatham, 2006). This study used the normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual plot method to evaluate the independent variable's

relationship with the dependent variable. Moreover, the scatter plots of these relationships were also presented. The result of linearity test shows that the linear pattern to the residuals, the histograms and scatter plot diagrams graphically (See Appendix F). It is clear that there is no U-shaped or other curvilinear relationship indicating that the linearity assumption is established.

4.2.7 Multicollinearity

Testing multicollinearity among the independent variables is crucial before testing the hypothesized relationships in a research model (Hair et al., 2010). When there is a higher linear correlation between two variables, it is called collinearity and if it is among three or more, it is called multicollinearity (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014). It is argued that the existence of multicollinearity among the exogenous latent variables produce poor estimation of the regression coefficient and mislead the results (Hayes, 2013). In order test the multicollinearity, the Pearson correlation was employed in the current research. It is recommended by Hair et al. (2010) that correlation between the independent variables should be less than 0.90 to ensure the non-existence of multicollinearity. In case of correlation is more than 0.90, there is high probability of multicollinearity. The results of correlation analysis indicates that there is no issue of multicollinearity. Appendix J provides more details about the results of the multicollinearity and Table 4.5 provide values of correlation.

Table 4.5

Pearson Correlations of the Study Variables

Construct	JOS	EMP	ORC	ISC
Job satisfaction	1			
Empowerment	.487**	1		
Organizational Commitment	.353**	.225**	1	
Islamic Culture	.505**	.380**	.212**	1

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

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics was used in the form of minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation to know about the nature of the data. These criteria were utilized to describe the constructs of the study namely, Job Satisfaction (JOS), Organizational Commitment (ORC), Empowerment (EMP), Job Performance (JOP), and Islamic Culture (ISC). The constructs of the study were measured using a five point Likert scale where '1' represents strongly disagree (the minimum value) and '5' represents strongly agree (the maximum value). To make the interpretation of this scale clearer, three categories were employed low (when the mean less than 2.33), high (When the mean less than 3.67) and moderate when the values of the between 2.33 and 3.67.

The mean of all the constructs ranged between 2.943 to 1.990 indicates that all the dimensions they were in the moderate and low level as displayed in Table 4.6. Specifically, the results show that External Job satisfaction had the maximum mean value among all the constructs of the study with 2.943 and 0.787 standard deviation though it is in the moderate level. With regard to Internal Job satisfaction, the mean value was 2.189 with low standard deviation of 0.555. This suggests that the perception

of the academic staff about external job satisfaction Internal Job satisfaction and are in the moderate and low level respectively. The low standard deviation value suggests that their perceptions about job satisfaction were not significantly different.

The results also showed that the mean values of the Organizational Commitment dimensions were 2.649, 2.758 and 2.771 with standard deviation values of 0.733, 0.823 and 0.792 respectively. This suggests that the perceptions about the Organizational Commitment among the academicians are in the moderate level. Similarly, the mean values of both Empowerment and Islamic Culture were 2.581 and 2.757 with standard deviation values of 0.745 and 0.851 indicating that the perceptions of the academicians about Empowerment and Islamic Culture were in the moderate level.

Finally, the outcomes of the descriptive analysis show that the mean values of the Job Performance dimensions were 1.990, 2.284 and 2.681 with standard deviation values of 0.485, 0.602 and 0.625 indication that the perceptions of the academicians about the Job Performance level were in the low level except adaptive performance was in the moderate level. This ensures that there are issues regarding the job performance of the academicians which supports the problem of the study.

Table 4.6
Descriptive Statistics for the Variables

Construct	Dimension	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
External Job satisfaction	EJS	384	1.00	5.00	2.943	0.787
Internal Job satisfaction	IJS	384	1.00	4.50	2.189	0.555
Affective commitment	AFC	384	1.00	5.00	2.649	0.733
Continuance commitment	COC	384	1.00	5.00	2.758	0.823
Normative commitment	NOC	384	1.00	5.00	2.771	0.792
Empowerment	EMP	384	1.00	4.50	2.581	0.745
Islamic Culture	ISC	384	1.00	5.00	2.757	0.851
Task Performance	TAP	384	1.00	3.50	1.990	0.485
Continuance Performance	COP	384	1.00	4.00	2.284	0.602
Adaptive Performance	ADP	384	1.00	4.75	2.681	0.625

4.4 Quality Model Assessment

To accomplish the objectives of this study, the researcher used SPSS 24 as discussed earlier and SmartPLS version 3 as statistical tool to analyse the collected data. PLS-SEM application has been successfully used in different areas of scientific research such as marketing research, management research and social science (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & Kuppelwieser, 2014). Many PLS-SEM enhancements have been made recently to improve the capacity of PLS to analysing the moderating effects (Hair et al., 2014), using of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) for insuring and validating of the measurement model as well as structural model assessment. In addition, PLS has the ability to analyse the complex models and non-normal distributed data model. Therefore, the justifications of using PLS in the current study are as follows:

It is an appropriate statistical analysis that can be used for complex models as research model presented in the current research. The model of the current study has five main constructs, has two mediators and one moderator. The collected data was obtained from 384 respondents. The five constructs were measure by using 58 indicators. These constructs are connected through model including 8 different relationships. This study involved analysis for mediating and moderation effect. The use of PLS is appropriate because moderation analysis involves comparisons of model estimations with many observations which is one of the main characteristics of PLS-SEM. It offers estimates of the structural model (inner model) as well as the measurement model (outer model).

There are many previous studies in the field of management, marketing, and social science utilized PLS-SEM, in addition it was recommended by many well-known author in the field of research methodology (Hair et al., 2014; Hakim, 2012; Roldán,

Leal-Rodríguez, & Leal, 2012; Yusr, Othman, & Mokhtar, 2012). For analysing the study model, this study adopted the two-step approach as proposed by Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009). The step one includes measurement model assessment and step two structural model assessment to assess and interpret the results of the PLS path model. Figure 4.1 displayed the two-step approach proposed by Henseler et al. (2009).

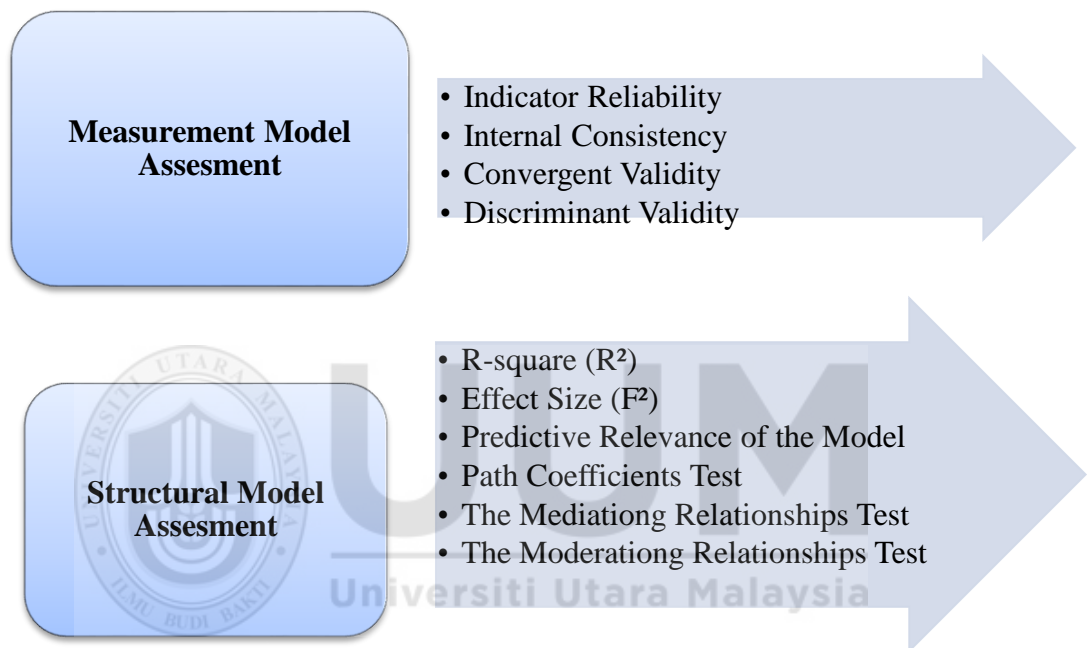


Figure 4.1 Two-step Approach of PLS-SEM Assessment

Source: Henseler *et al.* (2009)

In this two-step approach the measurement model assesses reliability, internal constancy, convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement. The data fulfil the suggested threshold found to be useful for further analysis which is hypothesis testing. In the structural model assessment, the overall model related statistics such as R^2 , F^2 , predictive relevance of the model, path coefficient test, mediating and moderating effects. The next subsections discuss the results of measurement model test and structural model test.

4.4.1 Measurement Model Assessment

The goodness of the measurement can be assessed based on two key benchmarks named validity and reliability. Reliability is defined as the consistency of the measurements, whereas the validity is the extent of which the instrument measures what it was intended to measure (Sekaran, 2003). To assess validity of a model first, indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity should be assessed based on the recommendations of Hair et al. (2014) and Henseler et al. (2009). Figure 4.2 presents measurement model of the current research.

4.3.1.1 Indicator Reliability

The indicator reliability was tested based on the outer loadings of each item, where the items loading greater than 0.70 should be retained (Hair et al., 2014; Valerie, 2012). However, Hair et al. (2014) stated that “rather than automatically eliminating indicators when their outer loading is below 0.70, researchers should carefully examine the effects of item removal on the composite reliability (CR), as well as on the constructs’ content validity. Generally, indicators with outer loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 should be considered for removal from the scale only when deleting the indicator leads to an increase in the CR or the average variance extracted above the suggested threshold value” (Hair et al., 2014). Following this suggestion, the measurement results showed that out of 58 measures, 16 items were deleted due to poor loadings below 0.70. This number of items deleting is 27.5% of the total items and fall within acceptable threshold of items deletion. The retained items were above 0.70 and the measurement also shows acceptable level of factor loadings, CR and average variance extracted. Table 4.7 provides more details about the measurement model results.

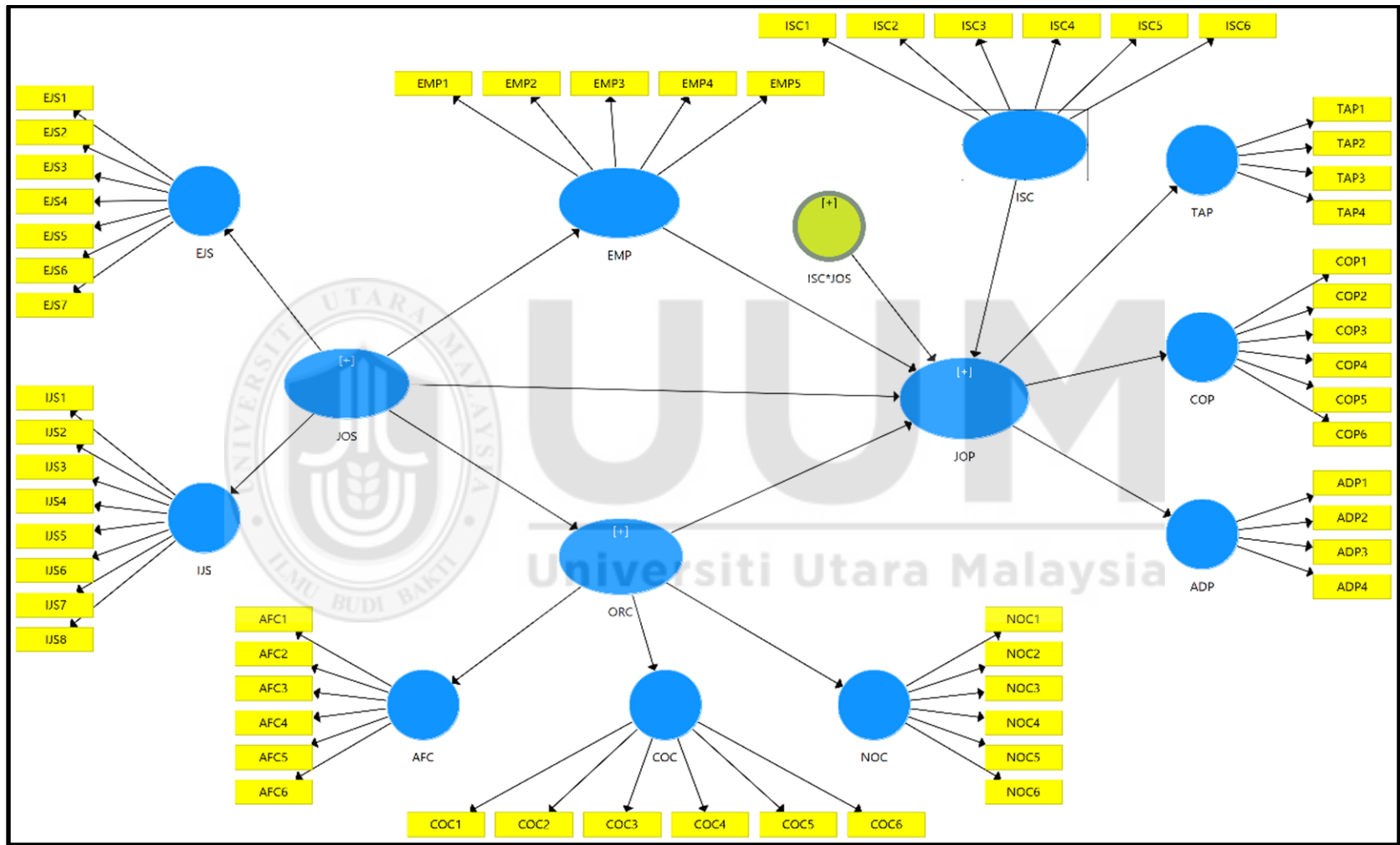


Figure 4.2 Measurement Model

4.3.1.2 Internal Consistency Reliability

To test the internal consistency reliability, Cronbach's alpha and CR are the most popular criteria used as mentioned by Peterson and Kim (2013). However, it is argued that the Cronbach's alpha is very sensitive to the number of items in the measure so it tends to underestimate the internal consistency of the measures so it is recommended to use CR (Hair et al., 2014). The values of CR should exceed the threshold level which is 0.70 (Hair et al., 2011; Valerie, 2012). The results in Table 4.7 showed that the CR values of all the constructs exceeded the minimum acceptable value of 0.70; specifically, the values for all constructs ranged between 0.776 and 0.922. This confirms that the internal consistency reliability of the measures was established and measures are suitable for hypothesis testing.

4.3.1.3 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is another criteria to assess the measurements used to measure the focal constructs. Hair et al. (2014) suggested that to assess the convergent validity, researchers should assess the average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability as it is a common indicator utilized by researchers. The cut off value for the AVE of each construct should be greater than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2014, Valerie, 2012). In this study, as shown in table 4.7 all AVEs are greater than 0.5, ranged from 0.532 to 0.664, indicating that all the constructs have good convergent validity. The measurement model results indicates that the measurement used in the current research are standardized and above the minimum required threshold. Based on the results of measurement model, the measurements are suitable for hypotheses testing.

Table 4.7

Measurement Results

Construct	Items	Loadings	CR^a	AVE^b
	ADP2	0.523		
Adaptive Performance	ADP3	0.858	0.786	0.571
	ADP4	0.893		
Affective Commitment	AFC5	0.747	0.776	0.635
	AFC6	0.843		
	COC1	0.604		
	COC2	0.882		
Continuance commitment	COC4	0.792	0.900	0.647
	COC5	0.834		
	COC6	0.877		
	COP1	0.784		
Contextual Performance	COP2	0.718	0.848	0.583
	COP3	0.812		
	COP4	0.735		
	EJS1	0.764		
	EJS2	0.783		
External Job Satisfaction	EJS3	0.673	0.871	0.532
	EJS4	0.729		
	EJS5	0.791		
	EJS6	0.621		

Empowerment	EMP1	0.697	0.841	0.576
	EMP2	0.849		
	EMP4	0.873		
	EMP5	0.579		
	IJS1	0.722		
	IJS2	0.802		
Internal Job Satisfaction	IJS5	0.745	0.856	0.543
	IJS6	0.708		
	IJS7	0.704		
	ISC1	0.812		
	ISC2	0.742		
	Islamic Culture	ISC3	0.829	
ISC4		0.865	0.922	0.664
ISC5		0.848		
ISC6		0.788		
NOC2		0.789		
Normative Commitment		NOC3	0.805	
	NOC4	0.516	0.835	0.566
	NOC5	0.852		
	TAP1	0.837		
Task Performance	TAP2	0.776	0.776	0.542
	TAP4	0.569		

4.3.1.4 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity of the indicators is the degree to which the indicators are differentiating among model constructs (Hair et al., 2010). For testing the discriminant validity, the cross loadings of the items and Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion were used as recommended by Hair et al. (2014). The cross loadings of the indicators, an items' outer loading on the related construct should be higher than all of its loadings on other constructs. Table 4.8 showed that all the items' loadings were higher than cross loadings which confirmed the goodness of discriminant validity. The results supports that the measurement establish discriminant validity.

Table 4.8

Factor Analysis and Item Loadings

	ADP	AFC	COC	COP	EJS	EMP	IJS	ISC	NOC	TAP
ADP2	0.423	0.044	0.085	0.046	-0.104	-0.067	-0.109	0.083	-0.016	0.208
ADP3	0.858	0.044	-0.093	0.277	-0.064	0.171	-0.010	0.058	-0.037	0.401
ADP4	0.893	0.002	0.017	0.575	-0.034	0.191	0.166	0.060	0.004	0.591
AFC5	0.123	0.747	0.426	-0.073	0.119	-0.040	-0.033	0.122	0.369	-0.074
AFC6	0.058	0.843	0.564	0.220	0.255	0.190	0.142	0.207	0.500	0.230
COC1	0.024	0.471	0.604	0.038	0.231	0.085	0.026	0.173	0.429	0.101
COC2	0.013	0.549	0.882	0.274	0.501	0.210	0.282	0.345	0.762	0.226
COC4	0.057	0.535	0.792	0.071	0.379	0.136	0.204	0.315	0.662	0.146
COC5	0.037	0.477	0.834	0.316	0.591	0.289	0.381	0.545	0.730	0.255
COC6	0.124	0.505	0.877	0.169	0.550	0.257	0.352	0.417	0.734	0.112
COP1	0.334	0.044	0.094	0.784	0.134	0.282	0.321	0.123	0.085	0.513
COP2	0.108	0.110	0.297	0.718	0.274	0.246	0.331	0.154	0.263	0.308
COP3	0.594	0.066	0.084	0.812	0.029	0.259	0.212	0.092	0.043	0.553

COP4	0.340	0.134	0.274	0.735	0.218	0.262	0.280	0.182	0.243	0.408
EJS1	-0.039	0.234	0.429	0.141	0.764	0.128	0.195	0.362	0.368	0.144
EJS2	-0.044	0.214	0.416	0.178	0.783	0.168	0.205	0.362	0.372	0.109
EJS3	-0.035	0.136	0.373	0.157	0.673	0.170	0.247	0.292	0.321	0.088
EJS4	-0.118	0.196	0.498	0.143	0.729	0.171	0.334	0.357	0.453	0.020
EJS5	-0.059	0.136	0.436	0.096	0.791	0.166	0.301	0.384	0.411	0.110
EJS6	0.011	0.144	0.346	0.146	0.621	0.217	0.239	0.399	0.363	0.093
EMP1	0.140	0.071	0.115	0.264	0.100	0.697	0.295	0.078	0.135	0.219
EMP2	0.103	0.046	0.230	0.278	0.250	0.849	0.363	0.253	0.215	0.137
EMP4	0.113	0.116	0.286	0.258	0.284	0.873	0.333	0.249	0.295	0.182
EMP5	0.224	0.105	0.086	0.250	0.001	0.579	0.119	0.049	0.080	0.343
IJS1	-0.001	0.036	0.243	0.224	0.281	0.218	0.722	0.193	0.195	0.132
IJS2	-0.007	0.025	0.218	0.151	0.288	0.281	0.802	0.185	0.166	0.125
IJS5	0.068	0.087	0.259	0.281	0.187	0.212	0.745	0.072	0.181	0.188
IJS6	0.015	0.054	0.229	0.218	0.212	0.351	0.708	0.122	0.204	0.144
IJS7	0.201	0.094	0.253	0.464	0.304	0.330	0.704	0.260	0.250	0.287
ISC1	0.082	0.116	0.298	0.079	0.326	0.142	0.159	0.812	0.303	0.141
ISC2	0.060	0.119	0.312	0.081	0.313	0.102	0.134	0.742	0.278	0.162
ISC3	0.086	0.144	0.357	0.106	0.380	0.168	0.175	0.829	0.319	0.220
ISC4	0.090	0.211	0.411	0.186	0.437	0.201	0.171	0.865	0.422	0.206
ISC5	0.023	0.196	0.417	0.191	0.471	0.257	0.244	0.848	0.387	0.157
ISC6	0.036	0.219	0.411	0.171	0.444	0.196	0.234	0.788	0.445	0.154
NOC2	-0.038	0.366	0.622	0.144	0.423	0.136	0.226	0.363	0.789	0.149
NOC3	0.005	0.442	0.711	0.256	0.533	0.355	0.368	0.393	0.805	0.211
NOC4	-0.111	0.353	0.387	-0.149	0.160	-0.024	-0.143	0.102	0.516	-0.035

NOC5	0.050	0.493	0.737	0.210	0.398	0.215	0.241	0.417	0.852	0.154
TAP1	0.544	0.067	0.101	0.525	0.030	0.257	0.194	0.129	0.057	0.837
TAP2	0.421	0.114	0.142	0.378	0.015	0.152	0.086	0.107	0.127	0.776
TAP4	0.269	0.084	0.259	0.410	0.285	0.182	0.265	0.269	0.248	0.569

For the Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion, the AVE of each construct should be higher than its corresponding squared correlations. In this study all the AVEs are greater than their corresponding squared correlations indicating that the Discriminant validity is achieved as displayed in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9

Correlation and Discriminant Validity

	ADP	AFC	COC	COP	EJS	EMP	IJS	ISC	NOC	TAP
ADP	0.756									
AFC	0.029	0.797								
COC	0.046	0.628	0.805							
COP	0.481	0.111	0.227	0.763						
EJS	0.068	0.243	0.574	0.195	0.730					
EMP	0.179	0.109	0.250	0.343	0.231	0.759				
IJS	0.077	0.080	0.326	0.365	0.349	0.379	0.737			
ISC	0.078	0.211	0.457	0.174	0.492	0.224	0.231	0.815		
NOC	0.016	0.552	0.837	0.189	0.525	0.253	0.271	0.448	0.752	
TAP	0.575	0.117	0.213	0.599	0.128	0.271	0.239	0.215	0.178	0.736

ADP=Adaptive Performance, AFC=Affective Commitment, COC=Continuance commitment, COP=Contextual Performance, EJS=External Job Satisfaction, EMP= Empowerment, IJS=Internal Job Satisfaction, ISC=Islamic Culture, NOC=Normative Commitment, TAP=Task Performance

4.4.2 Structural Model Assessment

After ensuring the validity of measurement model, the structural model should be examined through (R^2) values, effect size (f^2) and the predictive relevance of the model (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2014). The bootstrapping was run to test the significance level of the hypothesized relationships of current research model.

4.3.2.1 Path Coefficients Significance Testing

Upon establishment the measurement model and structural model, the hypothesized relationships were tested using structural model. The standard bootstrapping procedure with a number of 5000 bootstrap samples and 384 were used in evaluating the path coefficients as per suggestions of Hair et al. (2014); Hair et al. (2011) and Henseler et al. (2009). The results shown in Table 4.10 and Figure 4.3 presents the paths coefficient values, t-values and p-values as criterion for making decision about hypothesis testing.

Table 4.10 and Figure 4.3 and show the result of direct relationship between job satisfaction and job performance in Saudi public universities which was positively significant ($\beta = 0.144$, $t = 2.027$, $p < 0.05$), hence the hypothesis (H1) was supported.

Table 4.10

The Results of Direct Hypotheses Testing

No	Hypo.	Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	T value	P value	Decision
1	H1	Job Satisfaction => Job Performance	0.144**	2.027	0.043	Supported

Note: ***: $p < 0.01$; **: $p < 0.05$; *: $p < 0.1$.

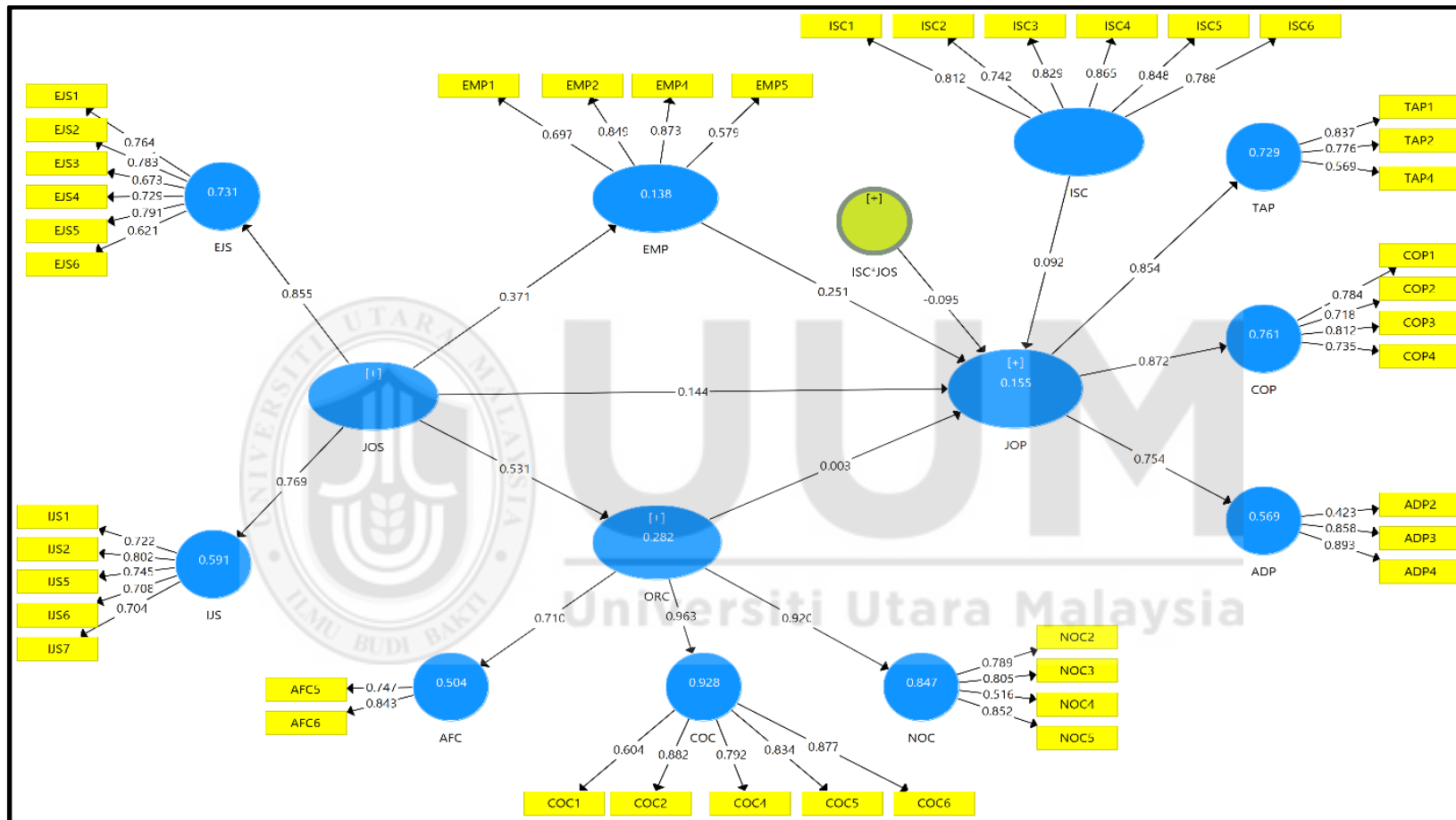


Figure 4.3 Items Loading, Path Coefficient and R² Values

4.3.2.2 The Mediating Relationships Testing

Hair et al. (2014) states that “Mediation: represents a situation in which a mediator variable to some extent absorbs the effect of an exogenous on an endogenous latent variable in the PLS path model”. Therefore, a mediating testing was utilized to examine the existence of a mediating effect (or indirect effect) of an exogenous variable X on an endogenous latent variable Y through a mediator variable M. Figure 4.4 shows the paths related to the mediation where path “a” refers to the relationship between the independent variable X and the mediator M, path “b” refers to the relationship between the mediator M and the dependent variable Y, the path “c” refers to the relationship between the independent variable X and the dependent variable Y when the mediator M does not exist and path “c’” refers to the relationship between the independent variable X and the dependent variable Y when the mediator M is available.

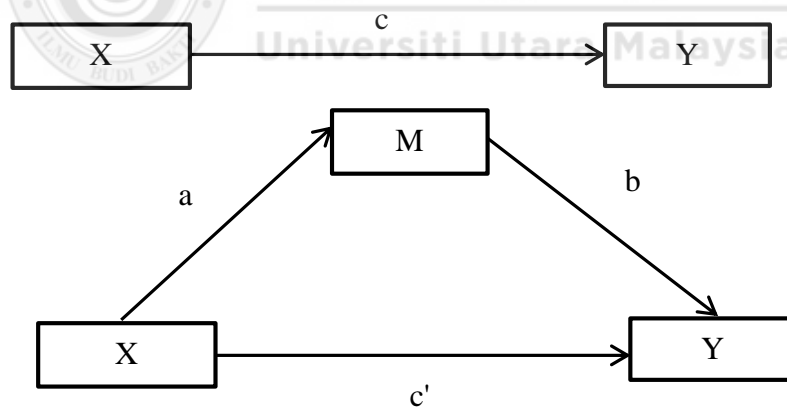


Figure 4.4 Simple Mediation Model

Source: Hayes and Preacher (2014)

Preacher and Hayes (2008) stated that there are several methods to examine mediation in multivariate analysis such as the causal step method (Baron & Kenny, 1986), the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982), the product of coefficients method; and bootstrapping method (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). This study utilized the bootstrapping

method to test the mediating effects as it is more powerful and accurate than other methods (Zhao, Lynch, & Chen; 2010; Hayes, Preacher, & Myers, 2011; Hayes, 2013; Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, the bootstrapping method with 5000 samples and 95% confidence intervals (CI) was used to estimate the indirect effects based on Preachers and Hayes (2008) suggestions. The outcomes of PLS provide the CI values of the indirect effect $a*b$, and when a 95% CI excludes zero, there is evidence of an indirect effect linking X and Y via mediator with 95% confidence and then the mediation is established. According to Preachers and Hayes (2008) strategy, the effect of the independent variable X on the dependent variable in the absence of the mediator M “c” path is not a necessary requirement for mediation. The mediation strength should be tested by the significance of the indirect effect paths $a*b$, and not by the insignificant direct effect of path c (Zhao et al., 2010; Hayes, 2013).

Moreover, in order to state whether the type of mediation is full mediation or partial the criterion used by Zhao et al. (2010) was employed. Based on Zhao et al. (2010) criterion, the main requirement to decide about the mediation is that the indirect effect “ $a*b$ ” must be significant. When the path c' is not significant, a full mediation can be concluded. On the other hand, when the path c' is significant, a partial meditation exists. In addition, when the paths a, b and c' have similar signs, it can be concluded as a complementary partial mediation and when the paths a, b and c have different signs, a competitive partial mediation exists. Figure 4.5 explains the criteria of identifying mediation type.

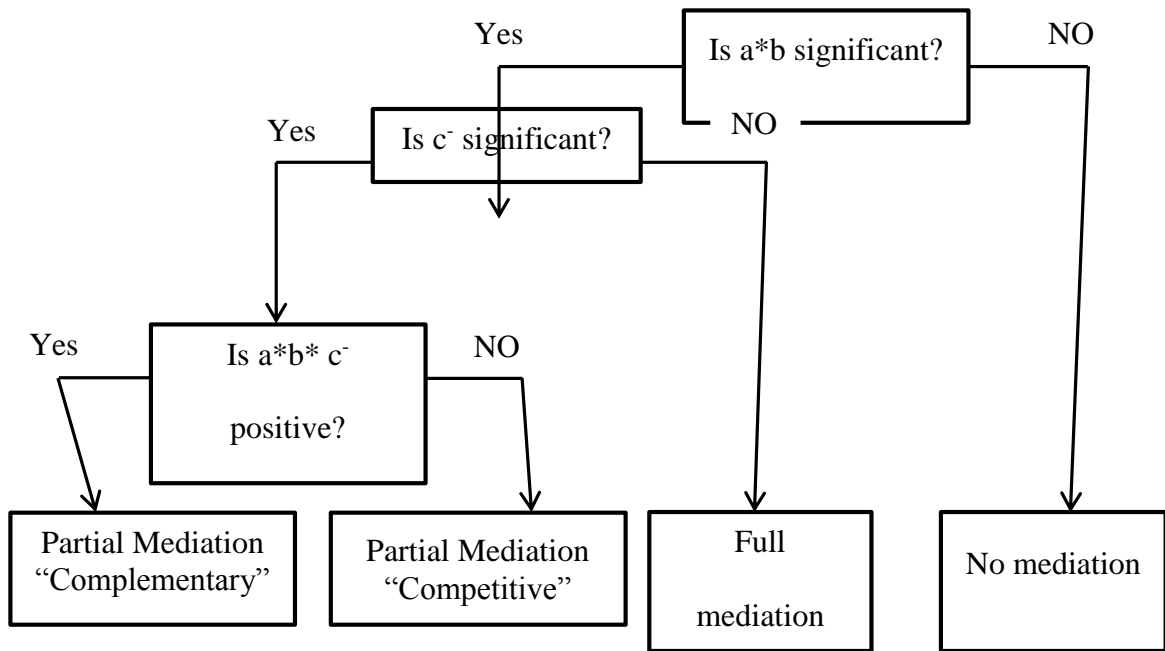


Figure 4.5 Criteria of Identifying Mediation Type

Source: Zhao et al. (2010)

The current research model stated Organizational Commitment as a mediator in relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance. The results of bootstrapping shown in Table 4.11 suggested that the confidence interval of the indirect effect of Organizational Commitment on the Job performance ($\beta = 0.531$, 95% CI = -0.094 to 0.128) includes zero indicating that Organizational Commitment is not a significant mediator in relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance. Thus, hypothesis 2 (H2) is not supported.

Table 4.11

The Results of the Mediating Role of Organizational Commitment between Job satisfaction and Job Performance

No.	Variable	a	b	c-	Point estimate (a*b)	Indirect Effect 95% CI		Decision
						Lower	Upper	
H2	JOP	0.531***	0.003 NS	0.144**	0.0015	-0.094	0.128	No Mediation

Note: ***: $p < 0.01$; **: $p < 0.05$; *: $p < 0.1$. NS=Not significant, Lower and upper levels of 95% confidence interval

With regard to testing the mediating effect of employee empowerment on the relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance of academicians in Saudi public universities. The mediation analysis was carried out to find out whether empowerment mediates the relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance or not. The results of bootstrapping presented in Table 4.12 showed that the confidence interval of the indirect effect of employee empowerment on the Job performance of academicians in Saudi public universities is ($\beta = 0.093$, 95% CI= 0.044 to 0.147) does not include zero which indicates that employee empowerment significantly mediates the relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance.

In addition, the results showed that the direct effect c' was significant and the signs of the paths a , b and c' were positive. On the basis of findings it can be concluded that employee empowerment partially mediates (complementary) the relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance. Thus, hypothesis 3 (H3) is supported.

Table 4.12

The Results of the Mediating Role of Empowerment between Job satisfaction and Job Performance

No.	Variable	a	b	c'	Point estimate (a*b)	Indirect Effect 95% CI		Decision
						Lower	Upper	
H3	JOP	0.371***	0.251***	0.144**	0.093	0.044	0.147	Partial Mediation "Complementary"

Note: ***: $p < 0.01$; **: $p < 0.05$; *: $p < 0.1$. NS=Not significant, Lower and upper levels of 95% confidence interval

In summary, the study employed the bootstrapping method with minimum of 5000 bootstrap samples and 95% confidence interval values to test the mediating effects of both Organizational Commitment and employee empowerment on the relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance of academicians in Saudi public universities. The results proved that employee empowerment is a significant mediator between Job satisfaction and Job performance, while Organizational Commitment do not mediates the relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance.



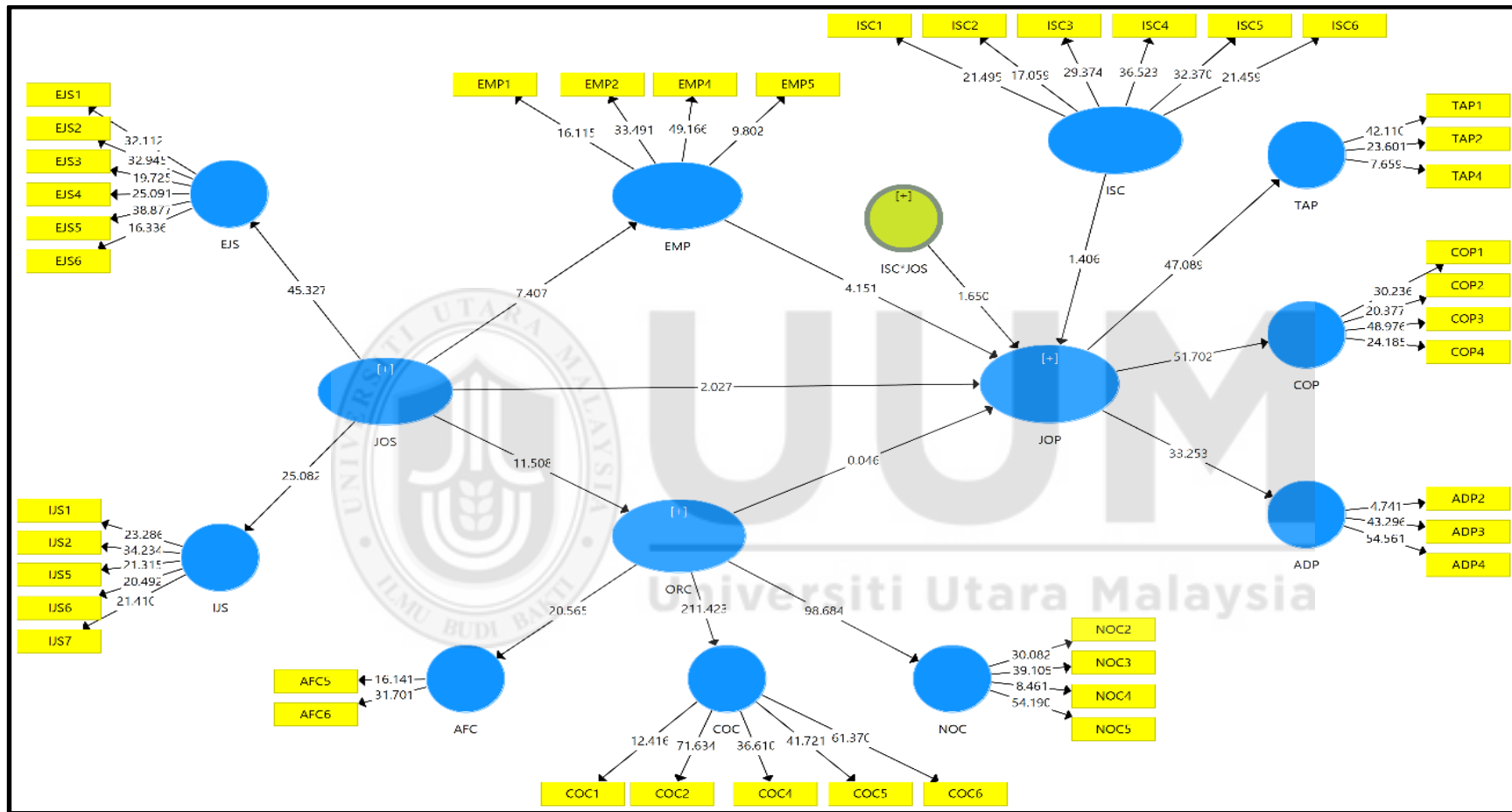


Figure 4.6 Results of Bootstrapping

4.3.2.3 The Moderating Relationships Testing

Hair et al. (2014) states that “moderation occurs when the effect of an exogenous latent variable on an endogenous latent variable depends on the values of another variable, which moderates the relationship”. The moderation effect of Islamic culture on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance was assessed using moderation analysis. Moderation analysis was conducted to ensure whether Islamic Culture is a significant moderator on the relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance of academicians in Saudi public universities. The results of the bootstrapping presented in Table 4.13 showed that Islamic Culture is a significant moderator ($\beta = 0.090$, $t = 1.650$, $p > 0.1$) on the relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance of academicians in Saudi public universities with 0.90 confidence level. Thus, hypothesis 4 (H4) is supported.

Table 4.13

The Results of Moderating Effect of Islamic Culture on the relationship between Job satisfaction and Job performance

No	Hypo.	Hypothesis	Path Coefficient	T value	P value	Decision
1	H4	ISC*JOS => JOP	0.095	1.650	0.100	Supported

Note: ***: $p < 0.01$; **: $p < 0.05$; *: $p < 0.1$.

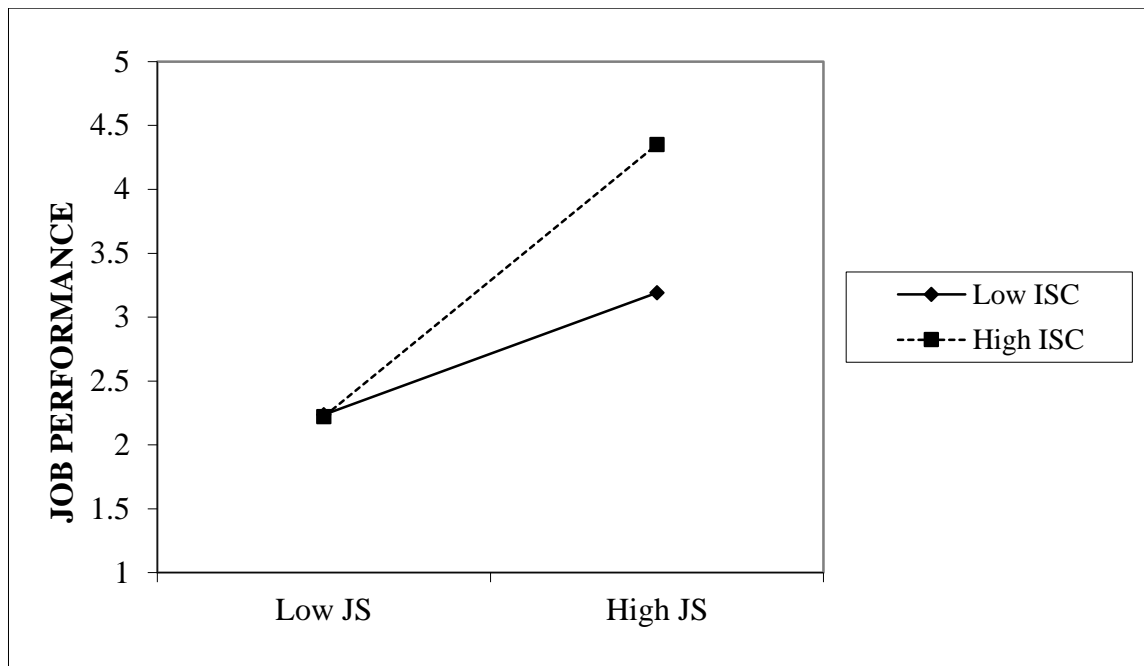


Figure 4.7 Moderating Effects

4.3.2.4 The Additional Analysis of the Effect of External and Internal Job Satisfaction on Job Performance

As presented earlier in Table 4.13, the results proved that Job satisfaction as a composite variable is significantly related to Job performance in the context of Saudi public universities. However, this study conducted additional analysis to get new insights and to understand the effect of job satisfaction dimensions namely, External Job satisfaction and Internal Job satisfaction on Job performance in a detailed way. Therefore, the research framework of the study provides a good opportunity to test the following two additional hypotheses:

H5: External Job satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on job performance.

H6: Internal Job satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on job performance.

Table 4.14 presents the results of the effect of both External Job satisfaction and Internal Job satisfaction on Job performance of the academicians in Saudi public universities. The results show that External Job Satisfaction do not have a significant effect on the Job Performance ($\beta = -0.066$, $t = 0.323$, $p > 0.1$). Thus, Hypothesis 5 is not supported. However, Internal Job Satisfaction has a significant effect on Job Performance in the context of Saudi public universities ($\beta = 0.457$, $t = 3.597$, $p < 0.05$). Thus, Hypothesis 6 is supported

Table 4.14

The Results of External and Internal Job Satisfaction on Job Performance

No.	Hypo.	Hypothesis	Path	T	P	Decision
			Coefficient	value	value	
5	H5	EJS > JOP	-0.066	0.323	0.747	Not Supported
6	H6	IJS > JOP	0.457	3.597	0.000	Supported

Note: ***: $p < 0.01$; **: $p < 0.05$; *: $p < 0.1$.

4.4 R-square (R^2)

The R^2 indicator is a major criterion to assess the structural model when using PLS-SEM (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). The R-square identifies the amount of variance in the dependent variable in question explained by one or more predicting variables (Hair et al., 2010). According to Falk and Miller (1992), the cut-off point of 0.10 value for R^2 is considered as a minimum acceptable level. While Cohen (1988) suggested that R-square values of 0.26, 0.13 and 0.02 for the endogenous constructs can be interpreted as substantial, moderate and weak effects respectively.

For the current study, the R-square values of the three endogenous latent variables namely, Job Performance, Empowerment and Organizational Commitment displayed are presented in Figure 4.6. The values suggested that the study model explains 15.5% of the total variance in Job Performance, 13.8 % of the total variance in employee empowerment and 28.2% of the total variance in Organizational Commitment. This suggests that the four exogenous latent variables (i.e., Job Satisfaction, employee empowerment and Islamic Culture) explain 15.5% of variance of Job Performance. Moreover, Job satisfaction as an exogenous latent variable explains 13.8 % of the variance in employee empowerment and 28.2% of the variance in Organizational Commitment. The results showed that the levels of R-square values were acceptable based on the criterion of Falk and Miller (1992) and they were in the moderate and substantial levels based on the Cohen (1988) criterion.

4.5 Effect Size (f^2)

The effect size (f^2) refers to the relative effect of a specific exogenous latent variable on endogenous latent variable(s) by means of changes in the R-square value called effect size as explained by Chin (1998). The effect size (f^2) can be calculated using the formula given by Cohen (1988) as follows:

$$\text{Effect size } (f^2) = \frac{R_{\text{included}}^2 - R_{\text{excluded}}^2}{1 - R_{\text{included}}^2} \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

Where R^2 included is the R-square obtained on the endogenous latent variable when the predictor exogenous latent variable is used in the structural model. While R^2 excluded is the R-square obtained on the endogenous latent variable when the predictor exogenous latent variable is not used in the structural model. Based on the suggestion

made by Cohen (1988), the f^2 values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 represents small, medium and large effects in the structural model respectively.

As illustrated in Table 4.15 below, the effect size for the Job satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, employee empowerment and Islamic Culture were 0.005, 0.065, 0.000 and 0.017 respectively. Therefore, the effect sizes of all these four exogenous latent variables namely Job satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Employee Empowerment and Islamic Culture on Job Performance can be described as weak, small, weak and weak respectively.

Table 4.15

The Effect Size of the Job Performance and the Interaction Term

Construct	R ² included	R ² excluded	R ² included - R ² excluded	1- R ² included	Effect Size	Result
Job satisfaction	0.155	0.151	0.004	0.845	0.005	Weak
Organizational Commitment	0.155	0.155	0.000	0.845	0.000	Weak
Empowerment	0.155	0.100	0.055	0.845	0.065	Small
Islamic Culture	0.155	0.140	0.014	0.845	0.017	Weak

4.6 Predictive Relevance of the Model (Q²)

The predictive relevance (Q²) is considered as one of the main requirements for predicting the quality of the model (Hair et al., 2014). The Blindfolding technique is designed to remove certain amounts of the data and consider them as missing values in order to estimate the model parameters. Then, the estimated parameters are utilized

to reconstruct the raw data that are supposed missing previously. Moreover, it is argued that the blindfolding procedure was only applied to endogenous latent variables that have a reflective measurement model (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2014). Thus, this study utilized the blindfolding technique to the endogenous latent variables as all the endogenous latent variables of the study were reflective in nature.

According to Hair et al. (2014), the predictive relevance (Q^2) is used, in which cross validated redundancy and cross validated communality are the two measures of the predictive relevance (Q^2). However, it is argued that the cross-validated redundancy is preferable than cross validated communality as it includes structural model and the measurement models for data prediction, while cross validated communality only includes the measurement model, which fits the PLS-SEM approach perfectly (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2014).

It is suggested that the cross redundancy value should be greater than zero to be described as predictive relevance (Fornell & Cha, 1994; Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2014). Based on the results of blindfolding displayed in Table 4.11, the cross-validated redundancy values of Job Performance, Organizational Commitment, and Employee Empowerment were 0.044, 0.091 and 0.77 respectively. These results confirmed the predictive relevance of the model as the cross redundancy values of the three endogenous variables of the study are greater than zero as given in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16

The Predictive Relevance of the Endogenous Construct

Endogenous Construct	R-square	Cross validated	Cross validated
		Redundancy	Communality
Job Performance	0.155	0.044	0.201
Organizational Commitment	0.282	0.091	0.291
Employee Empowerment	0.138	0.077	0.311

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter presented the detailed analysis including the description of all procedures that have been used to achieve the stated research objective of the study. The first section includes response rate and demographic information of the respondents. The second section focused on data screening (missing value and common method bias) and preliminary analysis (outlier detection, normality assessment, linearity and multicollinearity assessment). The descriptive analysis has been presented to give a view on nature of the data. The next section assessed the measurement model which includes, reliability, internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Moreover, the assessment of structural model has been conducted to test the proposed hypotheses, including direct, indirect, mediating and moderating effects in the model. The model assessment was done in the last part of the chapter which consist of r-square, effect size and predictive relevance of model in order to ensure that research model test is a valid and acceptable model. The analysis depicts that the measurement hold adequate level of reliability and consistency, and predicted model fulfil all the criteria of a good and acceptable research model.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

In the preceding chapter, the outcomes of PLS-SEM analysis show that job satisfaction has a positive impact on job performance of staff in Saudi universities. The results show that the mediating role of commitment is not proven while the mediating role of employee empowerment shows partial mediation effect of employee commitment on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Finally, the findings of the analysis show that Islamic culture moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance.

This study has four objectives as mentioned in chapter 1: to examine the impact of job satisfaction on job performance among the academicians working in KSA universities; to examine the intervening role of organizational commitment in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among the academicians working in KSA universities; to examine the intervening role of employee empowerment in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among the academicians working in KSA universities; and finally, to examine the moderating role of Islamic culture in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance among the academic staff working in KSA universities. After the analysis was done using SEM-PLS, all objectives of the study are achieved. The hypotheses testing summary is given in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

Summary of the Hypotheses Testing

Objective	Hypothesis	Statement	Decision
No.	No.		
1	H1	The effect of Job Satisfaction on Job Performance	Supported
2	H2	The mediation role of Commitment in the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Job Performance	Unsupported
3	H3	The mediation role of empowerment in the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Job Performance	Supported
4	H4	The moderation role of Islamic culture in the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Job Performance	Supported
5	H5	The effect of External Job Satisfaction on Job Performance	Unsupported
6	H6	The effect of Internal Job Satisfaction on Job Performance	Supported

5.2 Discussion

This section provides a discussion on the findings reported in chapter four. It basically discusses the questions and the objectives of the study stated previously, while offering some generalizations. The findings of the current study are discussed based on previous literature and theories.

5.2.1 Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

The findings of this study show that job satisfaction influences job performance in the public universities in KSA. This findings support the main findings of studies that have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Previous studies have reported that satisfied employees have better job performance (Brooks, 2014; Olusola, 2011; Riyadi, 2015; Betaubun, Redan, & Rahail, 2015; Khan & Afzal, 2014; Shalaby, 2015). For example, the result of this study is supported by the study of Olusola (2011), which looked into the predictors of job performance and reported job satisfaction as a predictor of job performance. Moreover, Riyadi (2015) examined the impact of job satisfaction on job performance of teachers. The result indicates that job performance has a significantly positive impact on job performance of the teachers. The results of the current study are in line with previous studies cited above.

In the Saudi Arabian context, the impact of job satisfaction on job performance of academic staff in the public universities, especially the top five universities, indicates strong support of the government for higher education. The public expenditure on higher education has been increased to more than 80,000 million SR and that represents 8.6% of the total public expenditure of the government in the country in year 2013. Another indicator of the high and strong support is that the number of universities has increased to 34 universities and there is tough competition. In addition, the salaries provide sufficient motivation to academicians to perform well in terms of teaching and research. Further, student administration is efficient (Fite, 2006). All these factors provide academic staff a high level of satisfaction in their work which results in high level of job performance (Mazi & Altbach, 2013). The current research results found support based on Maslow need hierarchy and Herzberg tow factor theory.

Where satisfaction from the job can be considered as need of the employee and once their need is fulfilled they perform better. Moreover, job satisfaction is a strong factor that results in motivation and satisfied employees are more motivated to work hard and they perform better than other employees. Based on the current research results, previous literature and government strategy to improve the level of higher education in KSA, it can be argued that highly satisfied academic staff can provide higher level of job performance which can improve the overall quality of education in KSA, especially at university level.

5.2.2 External Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

The findings on the impact of external job satisfaction on job performance show that the external factors have no impact on job performance in KSA public universities. This finding contradicts the theoretical argument of Grobler (2005), where job satisfaction factors, especially high salaries, creates a feeling of satisfaction with the job, which lead to superior job performance. These workers are outwardly inspired because their performance increases in terms of output and quality.

In the past literature, there are evidences available where employees consider their compensation is not sufficient to cover their essential needs, and thus, their performance is affected (Dieleman, Toonen, Touré, & Martineau, 2006). Salary is an important aspect for higher education employees and is used as a tool for the desired job performance. Employees who are paid well often perform better, while employees with low salaries get disappointed, and as a result, deliver poor job performance (Armstrong 2003).

As per Hellriegel et al. (2007), the main reason for low level of satisfaction among the employees is low salary. Employees with low salary feel under-appreciated or under-rewarded for their work and engage in actions which impact their job performance. These include engaging in actions to raise salaries by negotiating with management, comparing with other employees at the same job level in the industry, taking industrial actions or resigning from the job when the matter cannot be resolved. Of the factors that affect job satisfaction, salary is considered as the most important (Clark, Kristensen, & Westergård- Nielsen, 2009). It can be argued that the salaries of academicians can be a reason for their low level of job satisfaction. Their salaries could be lower than the academicians working in other universities or they perceive their salaries are not compatible with their work. This perceived undervaluation of the work can be a cause of low job satisfaction which can also impact on their level of job performance. It is suggested that KSA university management pays attention towards the feelings of their employees regarding their salaries and take appropriate action that is a win-win situation for both the universities and academicians. This revision of salaries may not be a burden for universities but a source of motivation for academicians to exert greater effort in their jobs and perform better.

In past literature, it is mentioned that poor work conditions affect employees' level of job satisfaction, which in turn, affect their job performance (Moyes & Redd, 2008). Organizations that avail good work conditions, provide a platform for the employees to deliver high job performance outcomes (Mokaya, Musau, Wagoki, & Karanja, 2013). Thus, low levels of job satisfaction caused by external factors, like work conditions and salary, have a negative impact on job performance. In this research, one factor is the work conditions of KSA public universities. The work conditions may not

be conducive for the academicians working in KSA public universities. The long working hours or extra burden on academic staff may be one of the reasons why the academicians in KSA universities are not satisfied. Poor work conditions impact negatively on the job performance of the academicians in KSA universities. The KSA universities should therefore pay attention to improving the work conditions, where the employees can work with more motivation and dedication. Good work conditions can improve the level of job satisfaction and overall job performance.

Among the external job satisfaction factors, leadership and management are also considered as important factors that potentially impact on job satisfaction. Leaders and top management must ensure the participation of the employees in setting goals and provide support to their employees to get high levels of job performance (Northouse, 2011). In line with the above, Hofstede (2017) stated that “Saudi Arabia scores high on this dimension (score of 95) which means that people accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place and which needs no further justification. Hierarchy in an organization is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities, centralization is popular, subordinates expect to be told what to do and the ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat”¹. Several studies have mentioned that the distance between the boss and subordinates is too wide and this can be the cause of low communication between management and academicians. These results does not confirmed with the Maslow Hierarchy where social needs remain unmet and unmet expectations of the employees lead to low level of motivation among employees and result in low performance. Moreover, as per Herzberg two-factor theory when if hygiene factors are not met the employee may feel less satisfied with the work and working conditions. The presence of hygiene factors

¹ <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country/saudi-arabia/>

is quite important for the job satisfaction of employees as Herzberg proposed that these motivational and hygiene factors are interlinked. Thus, the current research failed to support the relationship between external factor and job satisfaction. In the context of KSA, it can be argued that the academicians are not valued and allowed by management to participate in decision-making. Based on the above literature, it is suggested that KSA universities should involve academicians in decision-making and recognize them as an important part of the university. This feeling of being valued can elevate their level of satisfaction and also boost their job performance.

5.2.3 Internal Job Satisfaction and Job Performance

In analysing the effect of the dimensions of job satisfaction on job performance of academicians working in KSA universities, internal job satisfaction factors are found to have an impact on job performance. On the other hand, previous studies, such as Akyol (2014), found that external job factors positively influence job performance. Moreover, Armstrong (1999) commented that external job satisfaction factors enhance job performance.

The results of the current study support the view that internal job satisfaction factors significantly influence job performance. In the review of literature, there are evidences that internal job satisfaction factors, like interpersonal connection between colleagues, are helpful in enhancing job performance. The positive relationship with colleagues assists in achieving the job tasks and also creates an environment which is conducive for the employees to perform better. In a team project, collaboration with other colleagues can also boost the morale of the employees to outperform the group and create a sense of positive teamwork overall (Morrison & Nolan, 2007). This internal

collaboration changes the level of satisfaction and enhances overall job performance of employees. In the context of the academicians working in KSA universities, the relationship between the academicians can assist them to learn new things from each other and also group research projects can enhance overall job performance of both individuals and the team. It is suggested that KSA universities can enhance the collaboration between the academicians by involving them in activities which require teamwork. This can enhance internal satisfaction of the academicians with their work and also their job performance. This argument is supported by the third level need alluded to as “social association” in Maslow’s theory of motivation, which clarifies how well workers relate and coexist with each other.

Nguyen, Taylor and Bradley (2003) argued that work autonomy is one of the important factors among the internal factors of job satisfaction. Such flexibility empowers academicians to accomplish their job tasks in an effective way. In KSA universities, academicians seem to have considerable flexibility and freedom in managing their tasks. Moreover, they are satisfied with their work and independence. From the point of Maslow's theory of needs, work autonomy contributes towards the self-actualization need. If this need is satisfied, a higher level of job satisfaction can be achieved.

In addition to that, this finding implies that the universities in KSA provide the required avenues for advancement for their academic staff. Employees who are regarded as achievers usually work in occupations where they find chances for career development opportunities and such opportunities encourage them to enhance their performance. In the context of academicians, they prefer to work in places where they have sufficient opportunities for self-development and career progression (Robbins &

Coulter, 2012). On the other hand, when employees feel there are less opportunities for development and progression, this will negatively impact on their level of satisfaction and often leads to dissatisfaction among them. This low satisfaction or dissatisfaction hinders their job performance and they do not perform up to expectations of the employers.

Moreover, job contents play an important role in internal job satisfaction of employees. Academicians of the KSA universities have direct and specific work content that is suitable with their desire and self-motivation. In this case, their performance is enhanced because of their level of comfort with work content, as discussed by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006). When the level of job satisfaction is high, job performance will be high also. Work content that upgrades inclusion empowers representatives to be satisfied and perform their obligations under improved conditions (Cummings & Worley, 2001). These results are in line with Herzberg two-factor theory and Maslow Hierarchy of needs. These internal job satisfaction factors are important for satisfaction. Baah and Amoako (2011) stated that motivational factors regarding organization such as work itself, achievement sensation, sense of responsibility, recognition, career growth, advancement, and development opportunities help employees recognise their value and worth within organization. They consider that motivators are a source of internal (inner) satisfaction which leads to higher satisfaction. In the context of KSA universities, the academic staff have internal job satisfaction which encourages them to perform better at their work. Based on the above discussion, it can be argued that KSA universities' academic staff are internally satisfied with their jobs and their job satisfaction results in higher job performance. It is suggested that universities in KSA should improve the internal job satisfaction

factors in order to increase the level of satisfaction among the academicians. This high level of satisfaction can be a source of enhanced job performance of academicians working in KSA universities.

5.2.4 The Mediation Role of Organizational Commitment

The mediation analysis reveals that organizational commitment fails to mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. These results contradict previous studies, such as Tsai et al. (2010), in which employee satisfaction enhances employee job performance through organizational commitment. The study fails to establish a link between job satisfaction and employee performance by using organizational commitment as a mediator. On the other hand, an interesting result is found, where employee job satisfaction exerts strong effect on organizational commitment. The results show that high level of satisfaction can create strong organizational commitment. The current research results support the previously published studies in the field, for instance Tsai et al. (2010) and Akhtar, Hassan, and Ahmad (2015). These studies have reported that employee job satisfaction significantly impacts on organizational commitment.

In further explanation of this phenomenon, “organizational commitment is the degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in that organization” as per Robbins and Coulter (2012). The insignificant role of organizational commitment between job satisfaction and job performance could be due to the low level of organizational commitment among the academic staff working in KSA universities. The academicians at KSA universities are not highly committed to their universities and they always seek opportunities to move

to other good universities. They seek better opportunities in other universities, especially foreign academicians, in order to get higher salaries and other related benefits. These are all associated with low involvement in and commitment to the organization that make academicians want to move to other universities. This idea is supported by Allen and Meyer (1996), where low involvement in the organization results in low level of organizational commitment. Moreover, as per explanation given by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), organizational commitment is the psychological bond between employees and the organization, which includes job involvement, loyalty and beliefs in the values of the organization. The result is not align with previous theory, where commitment lead to performance. In Vroom expectancy theory, the more efforts from the employees tend to bring positive outcome in terms of superior work performance. Where job satisfaction serves as important factors that lead to performance. In current research, when job satisfaction act as factor to motivate the employees and enhance their level of commitment, the study failed to establish a link between job satisfaction and job performance through organisational commitment. In the case of KSA universities, it can be argued that academicians have low involvement and less loyalty towards their universities. This creates a vacuum between KSA universities and academicians, which results in low level of commitment and this insignificant level of commitment cannot lead to superior job performance. On the basis of cited literature and arguments, it is suggested that KSA universities must increase the level of commitment among employees by giving them a feeling of how important they are, involving them in activities which make them feel they are part and parcel of university goals and providing better compensation for their work in monetary and non-monetary forms.

5.2.5 The Mediation Role of Employee Empowerment

The findings from the mediation analysis show that employee empowerment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. In previous literature, Wong and Laschinger (2013) also found a positive and significant influence of employees' structural empowerment in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The findings are also in line with the views of Meyerson and Dewettinck (2012), where they argued that employers should empower their employees in order to motivate, encourage and assist them to be part of organizational goal development and achievement.

From the context of the academicians, the academicians must be provided with enough empowerment to manage their own work, like lecture material and courses and their students in an effective manner. This daily life empowerment will enable the academicians to strive hard to achieve overall university goals, which are quality of education for students and being the best in teaching and research among the competitors.

In addition to that, Mir and Rainayee (2015) and Hechanova, Alampay and Franco (2006) supported the current findings. They mentioned that empowerment makes the employees feel independent and provides them the ability to make their own decisions within their given domains. Greater satisfaction is when employees feel empowered to manage their work-related matters in their own way. In the case of academicians in KSA universities, the satisfied employees feel more empowered in their jobs and in dealing with teaching, research and student-related matters. This satisfaction and empowerment provide them encouragement to perform better in their work. A feeling

of empowerment also leads to being more innovative in teaching, research and other academic matters as it gives the chance to academicians to make their own decisions. Innovative ways and decision-making power exert a positive influence on job performance and results in superior work performance. The result find support from the Herzberg two factor theory and Maslow Hierarchy of need, need for power serves as an important self-actualisation need and as an motivation factor. The fulfilment of the need bring positive impact on employees attitude towards their work which can be observed through innovativeness, involvement and dedication towards work. The more motivated employee tend to perform better at their job. The sense of empowerment bring feeling of important which is under self actualisation. As employee feel they are important for their organisation, they tend to work more to improve their individual performance and overall organisational performance. Based on the above arguments and cited literature, it is suggested that KSA universities should work on providing more job satisfaction and empowerment to their academicians. This gives room for making independent decisions and can lead to superior job performance.

5.2.6 The Moderation Role of Islamic Culture

In moderation analysis, the findings reveal that Islamic culture significantly moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. In the literature, studies have used a similar context and found that work morale, which is a part of Islamic culture in the current study, moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. In previous studies, organizational culture or work ethics, has been used as moderator. The current study used Islamic culture which is a comprehensive construct to measure cultural values and ethics as provided by Islam and should be

complied with in daily work life. The results of the current research are supported by the findings of Betaubun et al. (2015), where morale of the teachers moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. In addition, Pavan (2016) mentioned that KSA universities have a national Islamic culture sovereignty which has a significant role in shaping higher education institutions. Under the modern education system, efforts have been made to present outside influence into the Saudi educational system, but Saudi has proclaimed that they have the right to control their educational system with Islamic cultural interventions which are a part of the overall society. The results reveal that Islamic culture in KSA universities assists the academicians to achieve a higher level of job satisfaction and job performance. These cultural values also allow academicians to remain within the boundary of ethical and cultural values and avoid any action that can cause deterioration in their work and job performance. Moreover, the findings are endorsed by a study conducted in the UAE which claims that Islamic culture moderates career-related outcomes (Al-Akwa'a, 2012).

Past studies have claimed that Islamic values, beliefs and principles have strong influence on the workplace and performance of Muslim employees. The plausible justification could be that Islamic culture provides a way of life that is embedded in ethics; it guides its groups in all scopes of life, including job performance (Murtaza et al., 2016). Islamic culture requires following the Islamic teachings as stated by Islamic Law that followers have to relate all their life and deeds completely to Allah's will; these include their work life and performance at work. In addition, Islamic culture is in accordance with the Islamic Law and this law is applicable to all in all aspects of life. On the other hand, a good explanation for the significant result is that Islamic Culture is inherited by the Saudi society and people's daily lives and routines are

connected to Islamic culture and values. These values are a source of motivation, inspiration and energy for the academicians to perform better at their jobs. Moreover, KSA is has been rooted strongly in Islamic culture and values since the last 1,400 years. The past studies, which were conducted in different contexts, have been proven significant and similar results have been obtained using various aspects of Islamic culture (Hayya & Montaser, 2017; Javed, Bashir, Rawwas, & Arjoon, 2017; Yousef, 2001).

In light of the above cited studies and discussion, it can be argued that academicians at KSA universities consider Islamic culture as an important aspect in their daily work life. Islamic culture, including values, ethics and principles, acts as a guide to academicians in their teaching, research and other administrative duties. Islamic cultural values keep them motivated and satisfied with their job, which result in higher level of job performance. It can be argued that proper implementation of Islamic culture and adoption by academicians and university management can enhance the level of job satisfaction and overall job performance of academicians.

5.3 Contributions of the Study

This section explains the theoretical, methodological and practical contributions of the current research as below:

5.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

The empirical testing of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance with the mediating role of organizational commitment and employee empowerment and the moderating role of Islamic culture, is the major theoretical contribution of this

research, particularly in the public universities. This research enhances the understanding of job satisfaction, employee empowerment, employee commitment and job performance and extends the application of Herzberg's two-factor theory and the Expectancy theory. This research extends the existing research and theoretical knowledge by adding employee empowerment and organizational commitment as main variables that explain the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The results also support the mediating effect of organizational commitment in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance of academicians working in KSA universities.

In addition, the theoretical contribution of this study is that it provides an explanation for the complexity of job satisfaction and job performance by testing and analysing the intervention of organizational commitment and employee empowerment. The analysis involved using the statistical technique of PLS-SEM to examine the direct link between job satisfaction and job performance, the link between external job satisfaction and job performance, the link between internal job satisfaction and job performance, the mediating role of organizational commitment, the mediating role of employee empowerment and the moderating role of Islamic culture.

The study shows there is a positive link between job satisfaction and job performance in the universities in KSA. However, only internal job satisfaction factors show a positive relationship with the level of job performance. The internal factors used in the analysis are work environment, interpersonal relationships, work autonomy, growth and development and content of the job. These factors are explained in detail and their

effect on job performance is discussed, which is another contribution of the current study.

The current research also contributes by presenting the findings on the impact of external job satisfaction factors (work conditions, wages, leaders and job security) on job performance. The study shows this group of factors does not play a role in the performance of academic staff in the public universities in KSA, more specifically the top five universities. This contribution adds to the literature by upgrading the theoretical knowledge on the relationship between job satisfaction and performance in higher education institutions/universities.

Another contribution that can be drawn from the study is the mediating role of organizational commitment in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Organizational commitment is the main indicator that enhances the level of job performance and job satisfaction. This contribution helps to focus on why commitment has no effect on the relationship that involves satisfaction with job and performance in universities. The role of commitment can be also used as a base for a conceptual framework to study the level of job performance.

Another contribution of the study is the mediating role of employee empowerment in the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Employee empowerment acts as a significant factor in determining the performance level. This contribution is helpful for the universities and suggests the degree of empowerment that is needed to have an effect on a relationship that involves job satisfaction and job

performance. The role of empowerment can be a base for a conceptual framework to study issues related to job performance.

Finally, the study contributes to the literature by analysing the moderating role of Islamic culture on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. This contribution is related to the overall organizational culture, which is Islamic culture in Saudi Arabia or other Muslim countries. This contribution can be utilized effectively to explain the impact of culture on the different aspects of organizational activities, especially in an Islamic workplace. This contribution shows that level of satisfaction and job performance can be enhanced with the help of Islamic culture.

5.3.1 Methodological Contributions

This study contributes methodologically by measuring the independent variable (job satisfaction), the dependent variable (job performance) and mediating variables (organizational commitment and employee empowerment) in addition to the moderating variable (Islamic culture) in the KSA universities. All the variables were validated and verified using the PLS-SEM statistical technique. The psychometric properties of the measurements were assessed and confirmed. The results indicate that all measurements used hold adequate level of reliability and validity. It can be inferred that this study contributes to research methodology by validating these variables to be used in future studies in the same field. Moreover, the research model assessed for model fit, shows adequate level of explanation and fit, which shows that the current research model is a valid research model and can be further expanded by future researchers.

5.3.2 Practical Contributions

This study has results and findings that can be helpful to the management of universities and higher education institutions, practitioners and policymakers. The results can be used to deal with employees' performance issues and low level of job satisfaction. The way employee commitment and empowerment can be used to enhance performance can be implemented on academicians to improve their research, teaching and overall performance. Moreover, university management can emphasize on the proper implementation of Islamic culture among the academicians to make them more satisfied and better performers. The first outcome that managers can use is focusing on increasing job satisfaction of their employees through internal and external job satisfaction factors, rather than only on internal job satisfaction factors. The impact of job satisfaction on increasing the performance is proven in this study. The management of higher education institutions should look for all the possible ways and apply them in order to achieve higher levels of job satisfaction of their academic staff; by doing so, the staff will return the satisfactions in terms of enhanced performance that will be helpful for the universities to improve their overall ranking locally and internationally, especially in KSA universities.

Another practical contribution of this study is that managers and practitioners can use the outcomes that indicate only internal job satisfaction factors (work environment, interpersonal relationships, work autonomy, growth and development and content of the job) have an impact on academic staff performance at KSA universities. This finding can be utilized by managers and practitioners to increase the sense of unity and good relationships among academic staff members with a proper and encouraging

work environment. Satisfied individuals align their efforts to not only achieve their individual goals but also contribute towards the organizational goals.

In addition, the practical contribution of this study can be used by the managers and practitioners at HEIs, in terms of support for the external job satisfaction factors (work conditions, wages, leaders and job security). This study shows that these factors have no impact on job performance. Therefore, management in universities should use the result to enhance, support and practice these factors in order to enhance performance together with the internal factors. Managers and practitioners can also support these external factors by increasing, enhancing and revising them for the sake of obtaining better job satisfaction and performance outcomes.

The managers and practitioners in universities also can implement more procedures and play a greater role to increase commitment. Although commitment is important and significant for the stability and development of the organization, this study shows that organizational commitment does not mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. However, from a practical view, commitment can be utilized effectively by staff to increase their performance. When commitment has no effect on employees' performance, managers need to reinforce and innovate their managerial methods in a way that commitment can positively affect the performance of their employees.

Moreover, managers of KSA universities can increase their efforts to use employee empowerment to enhance performance. This study shows that employee empowerment has an impact on the relationship between job satisfaction and job

performance. However, the impact is very weak. It is the role of management to effectively use empowerment. This can be implemented by giving the academic staff more autonomy and freedom to carry out their tasks. By doing this, the managers will benefit from a higher empowerment than what this study has found.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

The current research has limitations like other research studies. The limitations are worth mentioning for the consideration of the generalizability of results and extending the research using the research model presented in the current research. First, this study analysed data collected from employees of only public universities to represent the HEIs in KSA and did not involve other types of universities and colleges. Second, this study only used the cross-sectional data collection method to collect the data. The characteristics of cross-sectional studies is that it explains only the relationship at one point in time and does not explain the relationship over a long-term or over a period of time. The impact of job satisfaction on employees' performance may have different effects in different times under different circumstances. The study fails to confirm the effects of external job satisfaction factors and mediating role of organizational commitment. Finally, the study was conducted in only one country.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the limitations of the current research, research directions are presented in this section to guide future researchers to extend the current research by trying to overcome the limitations. Future studies may collect data and information from both the managers and individuals in order to compare the opinions of the two groups or to enrich the insights of the study by extending the scope.

Future studies may also use the qualitative research approach and research design to come up with further results and different findings based on interviews and observations or other qualitative methods. Furthermore, future studies can use the findings of this study to extend the research by implementing a longitudinal study. Longitudinal studies can examine the effect of job satisfaction on performance in the universities over a period of time. A longitudinal study can usually overcome the limitations of using only the cross-sectional method. Future researchers may reassess the non-confirmed results of the current research to either confirm or refute the present findings. Finally, future research can include other regions, areas or countries, rather than that included in the scope of the current study. The current study finds that there is an impact on the job satisfaction-performance relationship in the public universities in KSA. Future research can also focus on other aspects of job satisfaction and try to bring the approaches of job satisfaction discussed in this study to be implemented directly in the practical operations of the universities.

5.6 Conclusion

The present study endeavours to provide empirical evidence on the joint effects of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, employee empowerment and Islamic culture on job performance of the academicians in Saudi public universities. Specifically, it examined the direct effect of job satisfaction as a composite variable and a multidimensional construct on employee job performance. Moreover, it examined the mediating role of both organizational commitment and employee empowerment on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. It also tested the moderating role of Islamic culture on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance in KSA public universities.

The results of the study support the proposed hypotheses: job satisfaction has a strong effect on the job performance of academicians in Saudi public universities. The mediating effect of employee empowerment is supported by the collected data. However, additional analysis fails to prove the effect of external job satisfaction factors on job performance, while internal job satisfaction has a significant effect on job performance. The result supports the moderating effect of Islamic culture on the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. These results are valuable for researchers, policymakers and practitioners.



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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire (English)



University Utara Malaysia

Saudi Universities Job Performance Survey (2016)

Dear Respondent,

I am a PhD student at University Utara Malaysia, conducting a research on the job performance of academicians in Saudi Universities. My research is pertaining to the Effects of Organizational Commitment, Employee Empowerment and Islamic and Arab organizational cultures on the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Job Performance in Saudi Universities.

The research is to be submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Doctorate of Public Management. Thus, please answer the questions as accurately as possible. For your information, the information provided will be treated confidentially and strictly used for purely academic purposes only. Attached hereto is the questionnaire. Thank you very much again for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

Alqahtani Mnahi Mutlaq

Doctor of Public Management candidate
School of Government
University Utara Malaysia
Mobile: 00966555101211 (Saudi Arabia)
Mobile: 00601112144751 (Malaysia)
Email: mnahi4@hotmail.com

Section 1: Personal Information

In this section, these questions are mainly related to personal information. Kindly tick (✓) in the appropriate answer.

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Age: < 30 30-39 40-49
 50-59 > 60
3. Qualification:
 Undergraduate Master PhD Post
Doctorate
4. Income Level
 < SR10,000 SR10,000-15,000 SR15,000-20,000
SR20,000-
25,000
 > SR25,000
5. Experience
 < 5 year 5 - 10years 10 - 15years 15 -
20years
 < 20 year

Section 2: Job Satisfaction

In this section, there are statements about the Job Satisfaction in your university.

Kindly read these statements and circle the number that most appropriately reflects your perception.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

No.	Statements	Scale				
1	I am satisfied with my superior's way of treating me	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am satisfied with quality at my superior's decisions	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am satisfied with promotion possibility in my employment	1	2	3	4	5
4	I am satisfied with working conditions	1	2	3	4	5
5	I am satisfied with appreciating in return for a good job	1	2	3	4	5
6	I am satisfied with my wage	1	2	3	4	5
7	I am satisfied with dealings with my colleagues in workplace	1	2	3	4	5
8	I have a chance to make achievements by using my qualities	1	2	3	4	5
9	I have ability and willingness to help others	1	2	3	4	5
10	I have a chance to use my own methods while doing my job	1	2	3	4	5
11	I have a chance to sometimes make different things	1	2	3	4	5
12	I have a chance to give decisions independently	1	2	3	4	5
13	I feel I am busy all the time	1	2	3	4	5
14	I feel I did accomplishment on the job	1	2	3	4	5
15	I can work alone to accomplish my tasks	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3: Organization commitment

In this section, there are statements about Organization commitment in your university. Kindly read these statements carefully and circle the number that most appropriately reflects your perception.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

No.	Statements	Scale				
1	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5
2	I feel an obligation to remain with my current employer	1	2	3	4	5
3	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this university	1	2	3	4	5
4	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this university would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5
5	Even if it was to my advantage, I do not feel it is right to leave this university now	1	2	3	4	5
6	I really feel as if this university's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
7	Right now, staying with my employer is a matter of necessity as much as a desire	1	2	3	4	5
8	I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to this university	1	2	3	4	5
9	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this university	1	2	3	4	5
10	I feel emotionally attached to this university	1	2	3	4	5
11	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	1	2	3	4	5
12	I feel like "part of family" at my organization	1	2	3	4	5
13	This university deserves my loyalty	1	2	3	4	5

14	If I had not already put so much of myself into this university, I might consider working somewhere else	1	2	3	4	5
15	I would not leave this university right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	1	2	3	4	5
16	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
17	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave this university now	1	2	3	4	5
18	I owe a great deal to this university	1	2	3	4	5

Section 4: Employee empowerment

In this section, there are statements about Employee empowerment in your university. Kindly read these statements carefully and circle the number that most appropriately reflects your perception.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

No.	Statements	Scale				
1	I have the authority to correct students' problems when they occur.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I am encouraged to handle students' problems by myself.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I do not have to get management's approval before I handle students' problems.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I am allowed to do almost anything to solve students' problems.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I have control over how I solve students' problems.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 5: Islamic culture

In this section, there are statements about Organizational Culture in your university.

Kindly read these statements carefully and circle the number that most appropriately reflects your perception.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

No.	Statements	Scale				
1	In our university staff members always smile to each other to create the atmosphere of good attention.	1	2	3	4	5
2	In our university staff members always greet each other to create welfare atmosphere.	1	2	3	4	5
3	In our university staff members have good friendship with each other to develop good relationship.	1	2	3	4	5
4	In our university staff members always help each other and have good cooperation.	1	2	3	4	5
5	In our university staff members always try to never telling lies	1	2	3	4	5
6	In our university staff members always try to be discipline so they can use the time effectively.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 6: Job Performance

In this section, there are statements about Academicians Job Performance in your university. Kindly read these statements carefully and circle the number that most appropriately reflects your perception.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

No.	Statements	Scale				
1	I manage to plan my work so that it is done on time	1	2	3	4	5
2	I work towards the end results of my work	1	2	3	4	5
3	I keep in mind the results that I have to achieve in my work	1	2	3	4	5
4	I am able to perform my work well with minimal time and effort	1	2	3	4	5
5	I was able to meet my appointments	1	2	3	4	5
6	I came up with creative ideas at work	1	2	3	4	5
7	I took the initiative when there was a problem to be solve					
8	I tried to learn from the feedback I got from others on my work	1	2	3	4	5
9	I took into account the wishes of the customer/client/patient in my work	1	2	3	4	5
10	I think customers/clients/patients were satisfied with my work					
11	I was able to cope well with difficult situations and setbacks at work	1	2	3	4	5
12	I easily adjusted to changes in my work					
13	I came up with creative solutions to new problems	1	2	3	4	5
14	I actively participate in work meeting	1	2	3	4	5

THANK VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PATIENCE IN FILLING UP THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix B Questionnaire (Arabic)



السيد المكرم السلام عليكم ورحمة الله

تحية طيبة

أنا طالب دكتوراه في جامعة اوتارا الماليزية. اقوم بإجراء بحث حول العلاقة بين الرضاء الوظيفي و الأداء الوظيفي للأكاديميين في الجامعات السعودية. البحث يهتم أيضا بدراسة تاثير كل من الالتزام التنظيمي وتمكين الموظف والثقافة الإسلامية على العلاقة بين الرضاء والأداء الوظيفي. هذا البحث سيقدم كجزء من متطلبات منح درجة الدكتوراه في الإدارة العامة. ولهذا أرجو شاكرا تخصيص جزء من وقتكم الثمين والإجابة على الأسئلة المدرجة في هذا الاستبيان. سيتم التعامل مع المحتوى والمعلومات في هذا الاستبيان بحرص شديد وبسريرة تامة وسوف تستخدم للأغراض العلمية والأكاديمية فقط. جزيل الشكر وفائق التقدير لتعاونكم.

تقبلوا فائق الاحترام

الباحث: مناحى مطلق القحطاني

مرشح للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه - جامعة اوتارا - ماليزيا

هاتف محمول: : 00966555101211 (السعودية)

00601112144751 (ماليزيا)

بريد الكتروني: mnahi4@hotmail.com

القسم الاول

يحتوى هذا القسم على اسئلة خاصة بك، يرجى وضع دائرة حول الحرف للإجابة المناسبة

1. النوع:

أ. ذكر ب. انثى

2. العمر:

أ. اقل من 30 سنة ب. 31 - 39 ج. 40 - 49 د. 50 - 59 هـ. 60 فاكبر

3. المؤهل العلمي:

- أ. بكالوريوس
ب. ماجستير
ج. دكتوراه
د. فوق الدكتوراه

4. الدخل الشهري:

- أ. بكالوريوس
ب. ماجستير
ج. دكتوراه
د. فوق الدكتوراه
- أ. أقل من 10,000 ريال
ب. 10,000-15,000
ج. 15,000-20,000
د. 20,000-25,000
هـ. أكثر من 25,000

5. سنوات الخبرة :

- أ. أقل من 5 سنوات
ب. 5 – 10
ج. 10 – 15
د. 15 – 20
هـ. أكثر من 20

القسم الثاني: الرضاء الوظيفي

يتعلق هذا الجزء بقياس الرضاء الوظيفي. ارجو وضع علامة (√) في الخانة المناسبة لاي من الاجابات: لا اوافق بشدة، لا اوافق، محايد، اوافق، اوافق بشدة.

Item	لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	محايد	اوافق	اوافق بشدة
الرضاء الوظيفي	1	2	3	4	5
1 أنا راض عن الطريقة التي يعاملني بها مديري	1	2	3	4	5
2 أنا راض عن جودة قرارات مديري	1	2	3	4	5
3 أنا راض عن إمكانية الترقية في العمل	1	2	3	4	5
4 أنا راض عن ظروف العمل	1	2	3	4	5
5 أنا راض عن التقدير الذي اتلقاه مقابل ادائي الجيد	1	2	3	4	5
6 أنا راض عن الأجر المالى الذى اتلقاه	1	2	3	4	5
7 أنا راض عن طريقة التعامل مع زملائي في مكان العمل	1	2	3	4	5

5	4	3	2	1	لدي فرصة لتحقيق انجازات عن طريق استخدام قدراتي الخاصة	8
5	4	3	2	1	لدي القدرة والرغبة في مساعدة الآخرين	9
5	4	3	2	1	لدي الفرصة لاستخدام أساليبى الخاصة أثناء القيام بعملى	10
5	4	3	2	1	لدي فرصة فى القيام بعملى بشكل مختلف وخلاق	11
5	4	3	2	1	لدي فرصة فى اتخاذ القرارات بشكل مستقل	12
5	4	3	2	1	أشعر انى مشغول كل الوقت	13
5	4	3	2	1	أشعر أنني انجزت في العمل	14
5	4	3	2	1	يمكننى العمل لوحدى لإنجاز المهام الموكلة لى	15

القسم الثاني: الإلتزام الوظيفي

يتعلق هذا الجزء بقياس الإلتزام الوظيفي. ارجو وضع علامة (√) فى الخانة المناسبة لاي من الاجابات: لا اوافق بشدة، لا اوافق، محايد، اوافق، اوافق بشدة.

السؤال	لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	محايد	اوافق	اوافق بشدة
1 سيكون من الصعب جدا بالنسبة لي ترك جامعتى الآن حتى لو أردت	1	2	3	4	5
2 أشعر بالالتزام بالبقاء والعمل مع جامعتى الحالية	1	2	3	4	5
3 سأكون سعيدا جدا لقضاء بقية حياتي المهنية مع هذه الجامعة	1	2	3	4	5
4 واحدة من الآثار السلبية لترك هذه الجامعة أنه لا توجد بدائل كثيرة متاحة	1	2	3	4	5
5 أشعر أنه ليس من الصواب ترك هذه الجامعة الآن حتى لو كان ذلك لمصلحتى	1	2	3	4	5
6 أشعر واتعامل مع مشاكل هذه الجامعة كأنها مشاكلى	1	2	3	4	5

5	4	3	2	1	البقاء مع الجامعة الآن هو مسألة ملحة ورغبة ضرورية بالنسبة لى	7
5	4	3	2	1	لدى احساسا قويا بالانتماء لهذه الجامعة	8
5	4	3	2	1	أشعر أن لدي عدد قليل جدا من الخيارات تدفعني لترك هذه الجامعة	9
5	4	3	2	1	اشعر انى مرتبطا عاطفيا بهذه الجامعة	10
5	4	3	2	1	ساشعر بالذنب إذا غادرت هذه الجامعة	11
5	4	3	2	1	أشعر داخل الجامعة بانى جزء من أسرة كبيرة	12
5	4	3	2	1	هذه الجامعة تستحق ولائى	13
5	4	3	2	1	لم اندمج كلياً فى هذه الجامعة بعد و قد افكر فى العمل فى مكان آخر	14
5	4	3	2	1	لا اريد ترك هذه الجامعة الآن لأن لدي شعور بالارتباط تجاه الاخرين فى الجامعة	15
5	4	3	2	1	احقق فى هذه الجامعة شخصيتى وذاتى	16
5	4	3	2	1	الكثير من حياتى سوف يتعطل إذا قررت ترك هذه الجامعة الآن	17
5	4	3	2	1	أنا مدين بالكثير لهذه الجامعة	18

القسم الثالث : تمكين الموظف

يتعلق هذا الجزء بقياس تمكين الموظف. ارجو وضع علامة (√) فى الخانة المناسبة لاي من الاجابات: لا اوافق بشدة، لا اوافق، محايد، اوافق، اوافق بشدة.

السؤال	لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	محايد	اوافق	اوافق بشدة	
1	5	4	3	2	1	لدى الصلاحية لتصحيح مشاكل الطلاب عند حدوثها
2	5	4	3	2	1	انا دائما متشجع على التعامل مع مشاكل العملاء/الطلاب بنفسى
3	5	4	3	2	1	انا احتاج الى الحصول على موافقة الإدارة قبل أن التعامل مع مشاكل الطلاب

4	لدى الصلاحية لفعل أي شيء تقريبا لحل مشاكل العملاء\الطلاب	1	2	3	4	5
5	لدي التحكم على كيفية حل مشاكل الطلاب	1	2	3	4	5

القسم الرابع: الثقافة الإسلامية

يتعلق هذا الجزء بقياس الثقافة الإسلامية. ارجو وضع علامة (√) في الخانة المناسبة لاي من الاجابات: لا اوافق بشدة، لا اوافق، محايد، اوافق، اوافق بشدة.

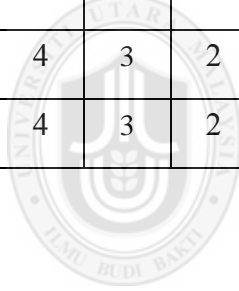
السؤال	لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	محايد	اوافق	اوافق بشدة
1 في جامعتنا يبتسم الموظفون دائما في وجوه بعضهم البعض لخلق جو من الالفة والمحبة	1	2	3	4	5
2 في جامعتنا دائما يلقي الموظفون على بعضهم التحية	1	2	3	4	5
3 توجد علاقة صداقة جيدة بين الموظفين في الجامعة	1	2	3	4	5
4 في جامعتنا يساعد الموظفون دائما بعضهم البعض و يتعاونون بصورة جيدة	1	2	3	4	5
5 في جامعتنا يحاول الموظفون دائما تحري الصدق	1	2	3	4	5
6 يحاول الموظفون في جامعاتنا دائما الانضباط من اجل الاستفادة من الوقت بشكل فعال	1	2	3	4	5

القسم الرابع: الأداء الوظيفي

يتعلق هذا الجزء بقياس الأداء الوظيفي. ارجو وضع علامة (√) في الخانة المناسبة لاي من الاجابات: لا اوافق بشدة، لا اوافق، محايد، اوافق، اوافق بشدة.

السؤال	لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	محايد	اوافق	اوافق بشدة
1 أدير عملي بحيث يتم في الوقت المحدد	1	2	3	4	5
2 اعمل واركنز على النتائج النهائية في عملي	1	2	3	4	5

5	4	3	2	1	أظل دائما مركزا على النتائج النهائية التي تدل على اني انجزت عملي	3
5	4	3	2	1	استطيع أداء عملي بشكل جيد بادننى وقت وجهد	4
5	4	3	2	1	استطيع الوفاء بمسؤولياتى و التزاماتى	5
5	4	3	2	1	لقد جننت بأفكار خلاقة في العمل	6
5	4	3	2	1	اكون مبادرا عندما يكون هناك مشكلة يجب حلها	7
5	4	3	2	1	أحاول أن اتعلم من ردود الفعل والملاحظات من الآخرين فى عملي	8
5	4	3	2	1	اخذ بعين الاعتبار رغبات رؤسائى في العمل	9
5	4	3	2	1	اعتقد رؤسائى راضون عملي	10
5	4	3	2	1	أنا قادر على التعامل بشكل جيد مع الصعوبات في العمل	11
5	4	3	2	1	اتاقلم بسهولة مع التغيرات في العمل	12
5	4	3	2	1	لقد جننت بأفكار مبدعة في العمل	13
5	4	3	2	1	انا اشارك بفعالية فى كل الاجتماعات التي تعقد	14



Appendix C

Pilot Test

External Job Satisfaction

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.917	6

Internal Job Satisfaction

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.751	7

Affective Commitment

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.766	8

Continuance Commitment

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.797	6

Normative Commitment

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.886	6

Employee Empowerment

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.870	5

Islamic Organizational Culture

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.877	5

Task Performance

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.818	6

Contextual Performance

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.837	4

Adaptive Performance

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	50	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	50	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.768	6

Appendix D

Non Response Bias

Group Statistics

ID	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EJS 1	315	2.9651	.79246	.04465
EJS 2	69	2.8406	.75892	.09136
IJS 1	315	2.1893	.55125	.03106
IJS 2	69	2.1848	.57626	.06937
AFC 1	315	2.6423	.74294	.04186
AFC 2	69	2.6787	.69034	.08311
COC 1	315	2.7582	.83746	.04719
COC 2	69	2.7585	.76030	.09153
NOC 1	315	2.7486	.81547	.04595
NOC 2	69	2.8754	.67310	.08103
TAP 1	315	1.9944	.50017	.02818
TAP 2	69	1.9674	.41327	.04975
COP 1	315	2.2844	.61601	.03471
COP 2	69	2.2812	.53503	.06441
ADP 1	315	2.6968	.64355	.03626
ADP 2	69	2.6087	.53116	.06394
CWP 1	315	3.9937	.57170	.03221
CWP 2	69	3.8754	.66253	.07976
EMP 1	315	2.5794	.74390	.04191
EMP 2	69	2.5870	.75467	.09085
ISC 1	315	2.7831	.86563	.04877
ISC 2	69	2.6377	.77752	.09360

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
EJS	Equal variances assumed	.552	.458	1.191	382	.234	.12450	.10455	-.08107-	.33007
	Equal variances not assumed			1.224	103.087	.224	.12450	.10169	-.07718-	.32617
IJS	Equal variances assumed	.372	.542	.061	382	.951	.00450	.07387	-.14075-	.14975
	Equal variances not assumed			.059	97.147	.953	.00450	.07601	-.14635-	.15536
AFC	Equal variances assumed	1.516	.219	-.373-	382	.709	-.03642-	.09754	-.22820-	.15537
	Equal variances not assumed			-.391-	105.410	.696	-.03642-	.09305	-.22092-	.14808
COC	Equal variances assumed	1.420	.234	-.002-	382	.998	-.00025-	.10956	-.21567-	.21516
	Equal variances not assumed			-.002-	107.306	.998	-.00025-	.10298	-.20438-	.20388
NOC	Equal variances assumed	3.137	.077	-1.204-	382	.229	-.12679-	.10527	-.33378-	.08019
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.361-	116.155	.176	-.12679-	.09315	-.31129-	.05770
TAP	Equal variances assumed	2.952	.087	.419	382	.676	.02705	.06458	-.09992-	.15402

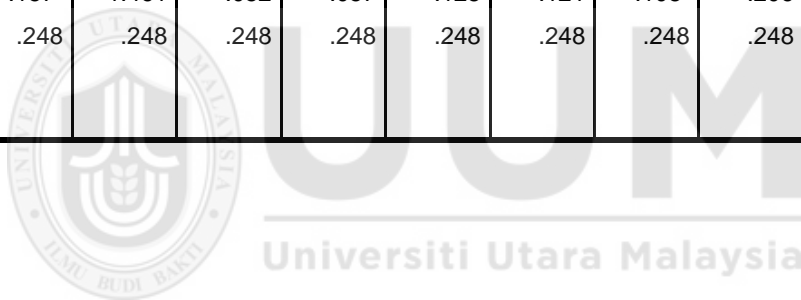
	Equal variances not assumed			.473	116.048	.637	.02705	.05718	-.08620-	.14030
COP	Equal variances assumed	7.271	.007	.041	382	.967	.00329	.08007	-.15415-	.16072
	Equal variances not assumed			.045	111.194	.964	.00329	.07317	-.14170-	.14827
ADP	Equal variances assumed	1.897	.169	1.061	382	.289	.08813	.08308	-.07522-	.25148
	Equal variances not assumed			1.199	116.162	.233	.08813	.07351	-.05746-	.23372
CWP	Equal variances assumed	.002	.964	1.511	382	.132	.11829	.07827	-.03561-	.27219
	Equal variances not assumed			1.375	91.464	.172	.11829	.08602	-.05256-	.28914
EMP	Equal variances assumed	.233	.629	-.077-	382	.939	-.00759-	.09914	-.20251-	.18733
	Equal variances not assumed			-.076-	99.055	.940	-.00759-	.10005	-.20612-	.19094
ISC	Equal variances assumed	.902	.343	1.286	382	.199	.14539	.11306	-.07692-	.36769
	Equal variances not assumed			1.377	108.210	.171	.14539	.10555	-.06382-	.35460

Appendix E

Normality Test

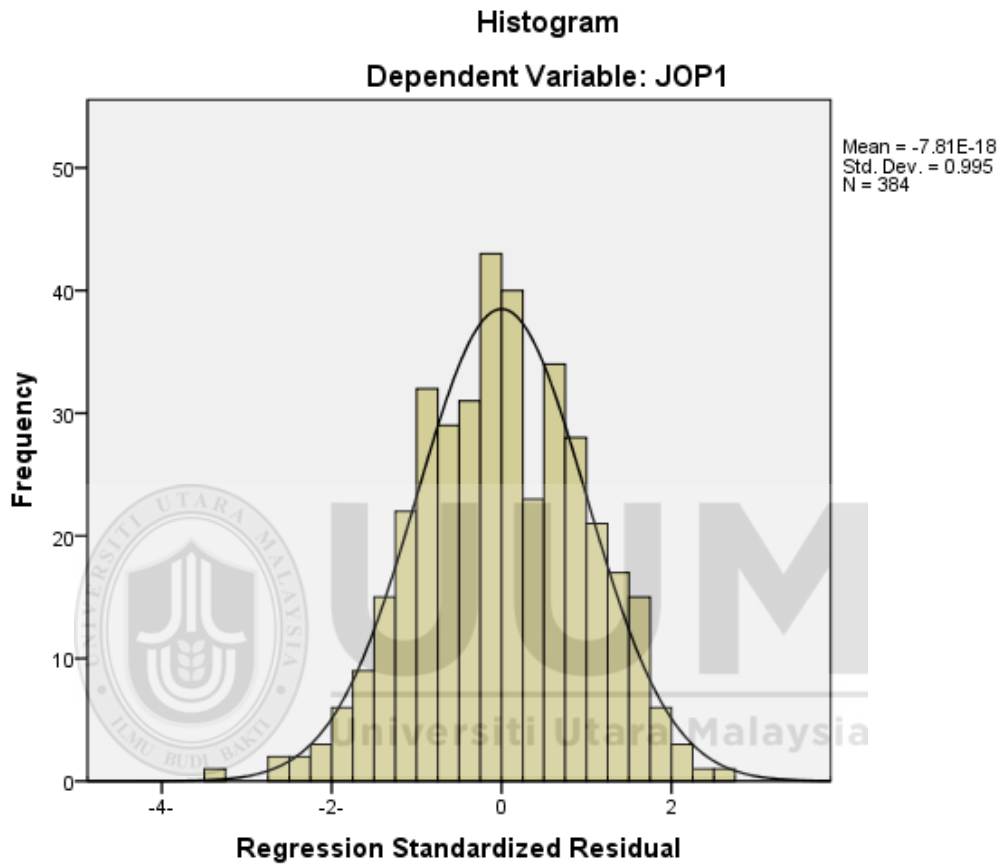
Statistics

		EJS	IJS	AFC	COC	NOC	TAP	COP	ADP	CWP	EMP	ISC
N	Valid	384	384	384	384	384	384	384	384	384	384	384
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Std. Deviation		.78702	.55506	.73302	.82318	.79247	.48532	.60161	.62513	.58988	.74486	.85134
Skewness		.205	.661	.279	.372	.331	.257	.054	.319	-.419-	.205	.324
Std. Error of Skewness		.125	.125	.125	.125	.125	.125	.125	.125	.125	.125	.125
Kurtosis		-.157-	1.461	.052	.057	.128	.121	-.108-	.206	1.108	-.114-	-.134-
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.248	.248	.248	.248	.248	.248	.248	.248	.248	.248	.248



Appendix F

Linearity



Appendix J

Multicollinearity

Correlations

		JOS	ORC	EMP	ISC
JOS	Pearson Correlation	1	.487**	.353**	.505**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	384	384	384	384
ORC	Pearson Correlation	.487**	1	.225**	.380**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	384	384	384	384
EMP	Pearson Correlation	.353**	.225**	1	.212**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	384	384	384	384
ISC	Pearson Correlation	.505**	.380**	.212**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	384	384	384	384

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