Motivation and Leader-Member-Exchange Theories applied to the General Authority of Civil Aviation in Saudi Arabia and their Effect on Employees' Job Performance

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Abstract

Motivation and its effect on employees' performance is a broad, interesting, and important issue particularly for Human Resources Management (HRM). Motivation is the power behind individuals' actions. For organisations' high performance and maximum productivity motivation, programmes should be efficiently utilized. Leader Member Exchange (LMX) which is employed as a mediator in this empirical study between employees' motivation and job performance has also its influence on employees' job performance. Researchers have investigated motivation and its effect on job performance and developed theories which indicate and reflect the importance of these topics to organisations. The General Authority of Civil Aviation (GACA) is the organization of concern in this study. GACA is a public sector organisation which is located in Saudi Arabia. It has about 2500 employees. A quantitative methodology was employed to collect data from GACA's employees where 480 questionnaires were administered to all sectors of GACA in the headquarters in Jeddah, of which 319 were usable to be analysed. Exploratory factor analysis was employed to purify the refine factors of the main constructs, followed by confirmatory factor analysis to verify the factors and determine the constructs' psychometric properties. The hypothesised relationships were tested by employing structural equation modelling based on partial least square procedures. Mediation effects were examined using the Sobel test.

The findings indicate that factors were reliable, valid and consistent with the employed motivation and LMX theories. Details of the nineteen factors produced from the five constructs and four dimensions of the conceptual model Figure 3.2 are presented in chapters five and six. All but two hypotheses of this study were supported, the exceptions being (*H4*: Job security and LMX are positively related, and *H8*, Work

environment and LMX are positively related) which were rejected, as the relationships were not significant. This implies that employees' motivation in its all different forms has strong influence on employees' job performance when properly implemented and utilized. However in regard to GACA, which is a public sector organisation, the respondents' responses suggest that employees are not influenced by the motivation system as there is strong concern about, for example, the opportunities for training and development courses, rewards, incentives, allowances, promotion, HRM practices, etc., which imply that reform is needed and consequently job performance is not high. In reform of the motivation system, the administration or top management should take a strategic approach that is factual, effective and efficient, which would reflect on HRM practices, human resource development, LMX and all related parties. This would structure and constitute a much better and more constructive work environment, conductive to high job performance.

Dedication

In the name of God the most gracious the most merciful and peace and blessings be upon his prophet Muhammad. I am very thankful to my God Almighty Allah, without whose help I would not have been able to achieve this study. I dedicate this study to my parents for their love, prayers and unlimited and unconditional support, to my beloved wife Esmeralda Vrapi who has been very patient and supportive, my sons and daughters who were very understanding when I was busy and involved in accomplishing this research, also my uncle Khalid Basalamah and my sisters and brothers. Thank you and God bless you all.

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List of Abbreviations

AGFI Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index

AMOS Analysis of Moment Structures

AR Accomplishments and results

ARF Accomplishments a Results Factor

AVE Average Variance Extracted

CBSEM Covariance-based Structural Equation Modeling

CF Communication and Feedback

CFA Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFF Communication and Feedback Factor

CFI Comparative Fit Index

CMB Common Method Bias

CMV Common method variance

CR Composite reliability

CV Cross-Validation

CWB Counterproductive Work Behaviour

DR Duties and Responsibilities

DRF Duties and Responsibilities Factor

DV Dependent Variable

E Expectancy

EFA Exploratory Factor Analysis

EMPA Employee Motivation and Performance Assessment

EP Employment Period

ERG Relatedness, and Growth needs

F Force

FA Factor Analysis

FL Factor Loading

GACA General Authority of Civil Aviation

GCC Gulf Cooperation Council

GFI Goodness of Fit Index

GoF Goodness of Fit

HRD Human Resources Development

HRM Human Resources Management

I Instrumentality

IV Independent Variable

JS Job Security

JSF Job Security Factor

KMO Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

KSA Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

K-S Kolmogorov-Smirnov

LISREL Linear Structural Relations

LMX Leader Member Exchange

MAR Missing At Random

MCAR Missing Completely At Random

MG Management

MGF Management Factor

MNAR Missing Not At Random

MTMM MultiTrait-MultiMethod

OLS Ordinary Least Squares

PA Performance Appraisal

PB Pay and Benefits

PBF Pay and Benefits Factor

PCA Principal Component Analysis

PFR Pay for Performance

PLS	Partial Least Squares
PR	Job Performance
PRP	Pay Related Performance
PS	Public Sector
PSM	Public Sector Motivation
SE	Standard Errors
SEM	Structure Equation Modeling
SK	Skills and Knowledge
SKF	Skills and Knowledge Factor
SON	Social and Organisational Network
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
S-W	Shapiro-Wilks
TAT	Thematic Apperception Test
V	Valance
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
WE	Work Environment
WEF	Work Environment Factor
B	Path Coefficient
F^2	CV-redundancy
f^2	Effect Size
H^2	CV-communality
q^2	Prediction Relevance
R^2	Determination of Coefficient

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Overview

Motivation and its effect on employees' job performance is a broad, interesting, and important issue. Motivation is the power behind people's or individuals' actions. To achieve organisations' high performance and maximum productivity, motivation programmes, Leader Member Exchange (LMX), Human Resources Management (HRM) and Human Resources Development (HRD) should be properly implemented, efficiently and effectively employed and exploited. Scholars and researchers have investigated motivation and employees' job performance and developed theories which indicate and reflect the importance of these topics to organisations. The General Authority of Civil Aviation (GACA) in Saudi Arabia is the organisation of concern in this study. This research will examine and measure GACA's motivation system, LMX and their effect on employees' job performance. The nature of the utilised incentives and their effectiveness will also be measured in the light of various scholars' theories, i.e. Herzberg's motivators-hygiene (intrinsic-extrinsic) theory and Adams' Equity theory, which are widely applied to organisations. Also, previous writing on motivation and job performance in the public and private sectors will be discussed in order to observe differences in employees' perceptions. Motivation in Saudi Arabia and Arab countries will be highlighted as well, ending with discussion of organisation and performance.

1.2. Rationale of the Study

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is one of the few remaining absolute monarchies in the world. It is one of the Middle East, Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries that is known for its enormous oil resources and financial wealth. Except in the oil sector, public services and modern public organisations are new to this country and were almost unknown before World War II. During the last four to five decades, government

ministries and public sector organisations and services, which are described as bureaucratic and over-centralized, have grown both in functions and size. The number of ministries has increased over time from seven ministries, e.g. the ministries of Health, Education, Defence, Commerce, and Finance in 1954 to 24 ministries in 2010, as new ministries were established to implement the development plans set by the Saudi government to steer socio-economic development. Under these ministries there are a number of public sector organisations, and each ministry has administrative and financial control of the public sector organisations affiliated to it, whether in the capital city, Riyadh, or in other cities of the kingdom (KSA, Central Department of Statistics and Information, 2014). The number of public sector employees was 607,489 in 2000 and it increased to 1,352,915 in 2013 (KSA, Ministry of Civil Service, 2014). The Saudi government has spent billions of dollars from oil revenues on these organisations' development projects and the improvement of public services (Ali, 2009).

An important consideration in investigating work-related benefits and practices in any society is culture. According to Hofstede (2001:9) culture was defined as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another". Compared to Western public organisations and international companies, cultural dimensions, the society and work practices in Saudi Arabia have been identified as challenges that limit organisations' productivity and employees' levels of performance (Idris, 2007). Saudi employees are strongly motivated by status and position (Bell, 2005; Idris, 2007). Saudi Arabian culture is characterised by high power distance, high collectivism, high uncertainty avoidance and high masculinity (Cassell and Blake, 2012; Hofstede et al., 2010). The Saudi culture is relatively homogeneous; thus an understanding of and familiarisation with the Saudi's culture is imperative to have a clearer perception and appreciation of the business and legal environment (Cassell and Blake, 2012; Idris, 2007). For example, Arabs' sociability is well known. Saudi

employees live in a society where family, friendship, and relations remain important and influential factors in the functioning of organisations, institutions and groups. Such characteristics have an influence on employees' attitudes, perceptions and performance in the workplace (Idris, 2007). It is not surprising that Saudi employees rely on family and friendship ties for getting things done within their organisation (Idris, 2007). Gambrel and Cianci (2003) confirmed that in collectivist cultures, individuals tend to search for belonging, and self actualisation is valued in terms of social culture which will, if matched, increase job satisfaction and performance. In contrast to individualist cultures, for example Western Europe and USA, which emphasize the importance of personal achievement, individuals in collectivist cultures view themselves as interdependent with others (Branine and Pollard, 2010). They respond to authority figures based on role-based commitments or obligations, personal liking and relationships (Dickson et al., 2003). In vertical collectivistic cultures, individuals tend to attach greater importance and attention to authority, with reference to their higher power distance orientation (Shavitt et al., 2006).

There is no doubt that every organisation is influenced by its country's national culture (Peretz and Fried, 2012). Religion and cultural factors evidently embody a great influence in shaping HRM practices, e.g. motivation, in the Arab and Middle East countries such as Saudi Arabia (Branine and Pollard, 2010; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007; Metcalfe, 2007). The Saudi culture is closely attached to and influenced by the Islamic religion, which is the state's official religion. Islam is an Arabic word which literally means submission to the will of God (Allah) in all aspects of life. Studies about Muslim managers and employees report that Islamic beliefs, instructions and religious recommendations have influence on management practices (Abuznaid, 2006; Ali, 2009; Ali and Al-Owaihan, 2008; Bouma et al., 2003; Randeree and El-Faramawy, 2011). It is worth mentioning that the key sources of Islamic beliefs and instructions are the Holy

book, the Quran, which is considered by Muslims as the verbatim word of God; and the Sunnah, demonstrations and real life examples from the sayings and actions of the Prophet Mohammed, God's peace and blessings be upon him. Islam teaches that work is a virtue in the light of human needs and a necessity for establishing equilibrium and prosperity in individual and social life. A faith orientation seems to prevail in Saudi organisations without engendering resentment. In other words faith orientation is commonly accepted and there is no opposition or confrontation. Generally, the instructions and teachings of Islam do not conflict with contemporary methods of Human Resources Management (HRM), and employees' performance; rather, they encourage the principles of high personnel skills and merit when people are selected for various positions (Ali, 2009). While Islam teaches that the ultimate control is in the hands of God, and God is the supreme power, it also teaches that people should exert their utmost efforts to better their lives in all aspects. In fact some instructions and teachings of the Islamic religion highlight the importance of developing human resources and setting the required rules to secure equality for all. Islam encourages followers to be active, honest, and loyal in their jobs and faithful to their employers. It regards the process of selecting the right person for a post, that is, the best qualified, as a function of serving the community (Ali, 2009). The Quran praises the hired worker who is strong and honest ". --truly the best of men for thee to employ is the (man) who is strong and trusty" (the Holy Quran 28: 26 cited in Ali, 1998). Prophet Muhammad (God's peace and blessings be upon him) urged Muslims to be skilled in performing their duties, and work is considered a trust and responsibility which should be performed with honesty and without bias. The Islamic work ethic presents a coherent and critical treatment for aspects such as economic, moral, social, and business dimensions (Ali and Al-Owaihan, 2008).

Nonetheless there are some traditions and affiliations, such as tribalistic values, norms, and family relationships, which have a strong negative influence on both organisational

and employee performance. It should be noted, however, that the issue is not with Islamic belief or the instructions and teachings of Islam, but rather national culture, people's behaviour, practices, misguided interpretations and implementations of Islamic instructions and teachings (Branine and Pollard, 2010). Misguided interpretations and practices have a strong impact on the business environment and the commitment to setting and meeting goals and targets in the kingdom. Accountability in running businesses is low or weak, and it is not uncommon to attribute business and technical blunders to fate or destiny, even though managers did not take precautionary regulations or steps in the first place (Bhuian et al., 2001; Branine and Pollard, 2010).

This important role of religion is a distinctive feature of the Saudi context that distinguishes it from Western societies, where religion is not generally regarded as an important issue in the workplace; in Western individualist cultures, religion is mostly a personal matter. This distinction raises questions as to the appropriateness of applying Western models or theories in a non-Western, collectivist culture, as many of key theories of motivation, HRM, HRD, etc were established and developed in a Western cultural context.

Not withstanding such concerns, there is widespread agreement among both Western and Arab authors that public organisations' executives and managers in Saudi Arabia face great challenges in their endeavour to improve the performance and productivity of their employees and organisations. Culture and work practices are considered as some of the great challenges facing organisations, which cause low performance and ultimately low productivity (Idris, 2007; Mellahi, 2006; Wilson, 2001). With regard to public organisational effectiveness, the case of Saudi Arabia has its distinctive features. The growing affluence of the GCC countries, particularly the oil-rich ones such as Saudi Arabia, has allowed faster growth in all aspects of organisational and business life.

However, in an oil-rich developing country with a relatively sparse population, like the KSA, the importance of effective financial exploitation may not be fully appreciated and acknowledged. The concept of effectiveness basically derives its significance from the fact that resources are scarce and must be exploited and employed effectively and efficiently (Allinson and Hayes, 2000; Beblawi, 2011; El-Kharouf et al., 2010). Compared to other developing countries Saudi Arabia's public organisations are highly effective. Abundant financial resources have made it possible for the KSA authorities to import and employ the country's requirement of technology and manpower or human resources. The problem is not solely one of resources as such, because the KSA has abundant financial resources, but of management, development, and organisation in its broader sense. Organisations' performance and productivity may not be efficient, even if they acquire their full requirements of resources. Optimal acquisition of resources does not always imply optimal allocation, effective use and efficient utilization (Allinson and Hayes, 2000; Beblawi, 2011; El-Kharouf et al., 2010). Arab management studies have enumerated widespread inadequacies in administrative practices in the kingdom, which have significantly hampered the country's development efforts. Economic development programmes in Saudi Arabia have enlarged organisational size, authority, and functions. New ministries and public organisations have also been established to achieve and accomplish the objectives and programmes of the developing nation. These organisations, however, face problems typical of many developing nations, and as an outcome of modern industrial life which can occur in any organisational and business environment, where formalisation, centralisation of authority and unhealthy environment and conditions of work and business life are to be found. These organisations suffer from the existence of administrative problems that lead to low organisational performance and productivity, at both structural and behavioural levels. These include lack of management skills, misfit between job assignments and employees' education and

qualifications, lack of clear task-definition and overlapping of job responsibilities, absenteeism, corruption, a high level of bureaucracy, poor or insufficient communication, lack of punctuality, the practice of favouritism and exploitation of Social and Organisational Networks (SON) in hiring, training, development and promotion, unrealistic performance issues such as unsatisfactory responsiveness to clients and the prioritizing of personal factors over the needs of the organisation and public welfare (Weir, 2000; Assad, 2002; Idris, 2007). Such structural and behavioural issues will be further discussed in the literature chapter.

1.3. The Research Context

The General Authority of Civil Aviation (GACA) is a public sector organisation. The emergence of civil aviation in Saudi Arabia goes back to 1934. The DC-3 Dakota was the first civil aircraft owned by KSA in 1945. KSA issued its first civil aviation statute in 1953 upon the separation of Civil Aviation from the Saudi Royal Air Force. It was overseen by the Presidency of Civil Aviation, which used to have the Saudi Arabian Airlines and the Meteorology Department under its remit. Saudi Arabian Airlines was separated from the Presidency of Civil Aviation in 1960, and in 1963 the Presidency of Civil Aviation was transformed to an independent public institution. The name of the institution was changed to the General Authority of Civil Aviation in 1977.

GACA is responsible for civil aviation in Saudi Arabia. It manages all the airports in Saudi Arabia, domestic, regional, and international, located in five regions: central, east, west, north, and south. See, for example, figure 1.1, Jeddah's international airport. GACA's key functions include Air Navigation Services, Safety and Economic Regulation, Information Technology, Finance & Administration, Human Resources, Corporate Core, International Organisation, and the Saudi Academy of Civil Aviation. It has about 2500 employees. Since it was established GACA has achieved unprecedented

growth and quality leaps in the civil aviation domain and industry, including major developments in passengers' transportation, air cargo, airport construction and equipment, air navigation and control. Continuous learning and development of its personnel is one of GACA's objectives (GACA website, 2014).

Figure 1.1 Expansion of Jeddah International Airport

Figure 1.2 Air Navigation Services, Jeddah International Airport

As GACA is a public sector organisation, its efficient and effective performance is important for the country's image and development. In an attempt to optimize performance, GACA, like most other public sector organisations in KSA operates a motivation programme, in which employee performance is regularly evaluated and linked to training and development and promotion opportunities. The programme is a typical example of how HRM and HRD practices are implemented in Saudi public sector. Evaluating the impact of these practices on employees' motivation and, in turn, performance, is the focus of this study. Accordingly, some key aspects of the programme are introduced below.

1.3.1. Some Elements of GACA's Motivation Programme

1) Evaluation

A yearly performance appraisal is conducted by the employee's manager or supervisor and the department or sector manager to evaluate the employee's behaviour and job performance. It is reviewed by the employee and his supervisor and the employee is informed of the grade he was awarded.

2) Training and Developmental courses

Personnel development and training courses are held in the training centre in the headquarters in Jeddah or abroad to enhance employees' knowledge, skill and ability, with the aim of improving their job performance and productivity.

3) Promotion

Theoretically, employees are entitled to promotion every four years, but often it is delayed for long time with no clear justification. This may happen due to the unavailability of higher level grades, or because the numbers of employees who are entitled to be promoted are too many for the small number of higher grades available. Also the public sector ladder applies to all public sector employees, and it is limited to fifteen steps, so if the employee is not promoted by the end of the public sector ladder he will remain with the same status or position, sometimes for several years, until he is promoted. This is quite discouraging, disappointing and can be considered as a demotivator.

1.4. Research Aim and Objectives

The aim of this empirical study is to investigate the nature of GACA's motivation programme, its effectiveness and effect on employees' job performance. This aim was translated into five research objectives. In accordance with motivation and job performance literature and in order to accomplish the study's objectives four research questions were generated. These objectives and research questions were as follows:

1.4.1. Research objectives

1) To explore and explain in what ways GACA's motivation system and employees' performance are managed in GACA.

2) To investigate to what extent GACA's employees are influenced by GACA's motivation system.

3) To explore if GACA's motivation system contributes to better work performance.

4) To identify the key steps to improve the motivation system to contribute to high job performance.

5) To shed light on the relevance of applying Western motivation theories in a Middle Eastern context.

1.4.2. Research Questions

1) Does GACA's motivation system contribute to better work performance?
2) In what ways are motivation and employees' performance managed in GACA?
3) To what extent are GACA's employees influenced by its motivation system?
4) What are the key steps to improve GACA's motivation system to contribute to high job performance?

HRM and its practices are very active and effective functions in business administration or organisation management. It is observable that employees' motivation and employees' job performance are dominant and substantial issues in HRM practices and HRD, as employees performance is the outcome and a fundamental way of measuring how successful, effective and efficient HRM practices and HRD are in an organisation. It is a contributor to and indication of the organisation performance and productivity. Moreover employees' motivation is widely regarded as one of the most important and essential factors for employees' performance or achievement, which is ultimately one of the organisational targets and goals (Berman et al., 2012). Thus we need to explore and investigate how employees' motivation affects employees' performance in the organisation of concern, GACA, whether directly or indirectly.

In addressing the way in which employee motivation and performance are managed in GACA, consideration will be given to a number of aspects of the motivation programme and general work environment assumed in Western motivation theories to affect motivation, namely, pay and benefits, job security, management and work environment. Attention will also be paid to Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX), a measure of the

quality of the relationship between managers and subordinates. This may be of particular interest in Saudi Arabia, in view of the cultural characteristics noted earlier, particularly the high power distance, on the one hand, and the importance attached to social relationships on the other. In order to investigate the impact of motivation on performance, employees' job performance is interpreted in terms of four dimensions. Duties and responsibilities, accomplishments and results, skills and knowledge, and communication and feedback, to capture a range of behavioural outcomes that the motivation programme in GACA is intended to promote. These are of interests in GACA because in the public sector organisations, employees' motivation has been criticized and said to be not as high as in the privet sector. Such an investigation may shed light on how motivation practices are implemented. Moreover, since the concepts and included theories adopted have their roots in Western HRM, their adoption in this study provides an opportunity to test the applicability of Western theories and practices to the Saudi context, thereby fulfilling the last objective of the research.

Accordingly, the study's objectives were investigated through the generated research questions, which were then translated into nine hypotheses developed with reference to the literature about employees' motivation and job performance. This empirical study consists of three types of variables: the independent, mediator, and dependent, and their interdependence or integration based on the theoretical background presented in the literature review. Chapter Two, i.e. Motivation, reflecting Herzberg's motivators-hygiene (intrinsic-extrinsic) theory and Adams' Equity theory, as an independent variable, such theories are well known and widely applied to organisations, LMX as a mediator, and Job Performance as the dependent variable, to explore and explain the correlational effect and linkage or relationships between them (Bordens and Abbott, 2013; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). The proposed hypotheses (*H1-H9*) represent nine paths among the constructs of the conceptual framework in chapter three Figure 3.2. Motivation

encompasses four constructs, i.e. Pay and Benefits (PB) with its financial e.g. reward and bonuses, and non-financial e.g. training and healthcare, benefits, Job Security (JS), Management (MG), and Work Environment (WE). LMX is suggested to be a mediator construct. The Dependent Variable (DV), Job Performance (PR), which commonly refers to how successfully and efficiently an employee performs his job, is represented by four dimensions, Duties and Responsibilities (DR), Accomplishments and Results (AR), Skills and Knowledge (SK), Communication and Feedback (CF). Each construct will be defined and elaborated on with regard to its correlation to other aspects in that context.

1.5. Significance of the Study

Job performance is an important and influential issue to all organisations in the public and private sectors. It leads to better organisational performance and greater productivity, which is the ultimate goal for all working parties (Pfeffer and Veiga, 1999). Motivation has a strong influence on job performance and so should be employed to achieve that goal (Fort and Voltero, 2004; Jackson and Carter, 2007; Reio and Callahan, 2004). It is a very active and effective factor of HRM practices, which are a very substantial and effective part of organisational life, not just theoretically, but pragmatically and in all aspects of organisation's activities (Crook et al., 2008; Reid et al., 2002; Tessema and Soeters, 2006; Tsaur and Lin, 2004).

In organisation and management literature, managers or leaders are key factors in determining organisational effectiveness, performance and productivity. Management is about developing personnel, working with them, achieving results and accomplishing organisational objectives (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2013; Mullins and Christy, 2013). It is a critical, determining factor of any organisation's success. Employees depend on management for their livelihoods and their ability to contribute and achieve (Drucker, 2008). Making employees exert more effort for better job performance is one of the aims

of HRM practices. Adequate HRM practices are well documented to affect employee performance. This study seeks to increase theoretical and practical knowledge of the implementation of HRM practices, i.e. motivation, organisational justice, workplace environment, LMX, HRD, in achieving high employees' job performance. Nonetheless, in order to understand people's behaviour at work, managers or leaders must be aware of the concept of needs or motives, which will help 'move' the organisation's employees to act (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2013; Schulze and Steyn, 2003). Motivation is a desire or needs-satisfying process which signifies that when employee's needs are fulfilled or motivated by certain factors, the individual will exert additional effort toward attaining organisational goals (Robbins and Judge, 2014). Thus, this research will contribute to a deeper exploration, investigation and analytical results in the field of motivation, HRM, LMX, HRD and employees' performance in the Middle East region, particularly Saudi Arabia where this study was conducted. This research can be of practical benefit in contributing to add more theoretical and practical knowledge to indicate how the aforementioned issues can be achieved with relevance to the Middle Eastern countries, particularly Saudi Arabia. It will also shed light on the relevance of applying Western motivation theories in a Middle Eastern context. Furthermore the findings, recommendations, and conclusion of the study can be generalized and applied to other public and private sector organisations to make good use of them if possible.

1.6. Gap of Knowledge

Many researchers have stressed the significant role of employees' attitude and behaviour in transforming HRM practices into employees' job performance (e.g. Nishii and Wright, 2007). Despite the substantial importance of HR practices and job performance, relatively few researchers have examined the relationship between the two (Ferguson and Reio, 2010). According to Pinder (2014) motivational forces can be described as either

intrinsic or extrinsic. It is clearly manifested in work motivation that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors have the potential to influence and enhance employee performance at different levels in both private and public sector organisations. Such factors can guide or derive the direction, intensity, and persistence of individuals' performance behaviours (Kanfer et al., 2012). Yet, despite its importance in employees' job performance contexts (Frey, 1997) the question remains. What is the interactive impact of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors on performance? "Clearly, this question reveals a major gap in the motivation literature" (Cerasoli et al., 2014:981). In particular, the impact of Public Service Motivation (PSM) on work motivation remains clearly under-studied (Anderfuhren-Biget et al., 2010). Even though researchers (e.g. Alonso and Lewis, 2001) have found significant relationships among variables such as PSM, leadership and job performance, there remains a need for more research to explore, investigate and evaluate the linkage between antecedents, mediators, and consequences of such variables in public organisations (Anderfuhren-Biget et al., 2010; Park and Rainey, 2008).

It has also been argued that the influence of national culture and human resource development on work values had received little attention in management literature in the Arab countries in general, despite its important role in shaping employees' values and attitudes towards job performance and organisation productivity (Giangreco et al., 2010; Mellahi (2006).

HRD is a key function in employees' high performance; it plays a significant role in boosting employees' job performance (Hamlin and Stewart, 2011). Lee and Bruvold (2003:994) have proposed that "investing in employee development may create a dynamic relationship where employees may work harder" and called for research on "other important organisational outcomes such as in-role performance and helping

behavior". Budhwar and Mellahi (2007) stated that knowledge and information are relatively inadequate and limited concerning HRM practices in the Middle Eastern region and how such practices are being influenced by culture, society, religion, their interaction, and other internal and external factors, nonetheless HRD studies for the Middle East region were also scarce. Providing employees with HRD programmes, e.g. learning opportunities, is a significant motivational factor for improving employees' job performance. HRM ought to implement strategic plans to set up job motivators through HRD, e.g. training programmes to improve employees' job performance (Haiping and Min, 2006; Roca et al., 2006; Zapata-Phelan, 2009). While there are many researchers focusing on the role of national culture on performance quality, there is still a lack of understanding regarding the relationships between national culture, organisational culture, and HRD related to service or performance quality (Hsieh and Tsai, 2009).

Although relationships between LMX quality and individual employees' outcomes were established by many LMX researchers (e.g. Liden et al., 2000; Zhou et al., 2012) yet not much is known about the process or mechanisms by which LMX's high or low quality relationships affect employees' job performance (Kim et al. 2014). In this empirical study LMX plays the mediator role between work motivation and employees job performance as aforementioned. Although such variables are important in the HRM and HRD fields due to their influence on employees' performance and outcomes, according to Joo (2012) more research is needed to explore their relationships. Even though many studies have explored LMX quality (e.g. Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995) yet little research has identified the influence of LMX quality as it relates to individual employees' characteristics and its different influences on in-role job performance (Joo, 2012). Moving beyond the studies of LMX as an independent or dependent variable, Avolio et al. (2009) have called for more research to support recent endeavours that have investigated LMX quality as a mediator of workplace outcomes. Nonetheless, with the

exception of a few studies (e.g., Vigoda-Gadot 2007; Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri 2012) "limited research in public administration has examined the relationship between LMX and employee performance". Moreover, such studies "did not explore how characteristics of the LMX relationship may influence behavior of public employees" (Hassan and Hatmaker, 2014). If such issues are under-researched in the HRM domain in general, they are still more neglected in Saudi Arabia, where writers have made assertions about motivation and performance, but detailed exploration of specific practices and mechanisms has been neglected.

1.7. Linking Methodology to Practice

Metaphysics is the philosophical study of being and knowing; it is the branch of philosophy that deals with the first principles of things, including abstract concepts such as being, knowing, substance, cause, identity, time, and space. Ontology is a central branch of metaphysics; it is concerned with assumptions that we make about the nature of reality. It is an important emerging discipline that has a huge potential to improve information organisation, management and understanding. It is an investigation into the existence of the fundamental nature of being and reality.

Epistemology on the other hand defines how we can know and reason realities. It is the investigation of what distinguishes justified belief from opinion. It is concerned with the study of knowledge and what we accept as being valid knowledge, its methods and scope. It profoundly considers what constitutes acceptable knowledge in the field of study. Epistemology studies the nature of knowledge, which actually means how we conceive our surroundings and which tools we apply for this purpose, e.g. rational and irrational thoughts or senses (physiology), to ensure research has a sound base (Collis and Hussey, 2013). Every science has its own ontology, epistemology and consequently its own methodologies (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012).

This study investigates and explains GACA's employees' behaviour to describe the influence of the utilized motivation system and its effect on employees' job performance level, aiming to improve the performance level, which is influenced by the motivation programme, HRM, LMX, HRD and the work environment. Therefore the positivistic paradigm was applied to examine theories and propose and test hypotheses regarding elements of the motivation programme and whether or how they may contribute to better job performance (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Positivist research seeks through observation and measurement to deduce causal relationship between variables. In this research it was appropriate to use explanatory research, to examine, measure, and explain cause and effect relationships among the employed variables. Characterisation of GACA's employees' opinions, attitudes and perceptions was conducted to illustrate and reflect their behaviour towards GACA's motivation system, which in turn affects personnel job performance. The research adopted a deductive approach, beginning with the general and ending with the specific, because arguments based on laws, rules, or other widely accepted principles are best expressed deductively. Such research begins with an understanding of a theory (in this case, theories of motivation) and continues with forming hypotheses and collection of data to examine the theory (Becker et al., 2012).

1.7.1. Contributions to Knowledge and practice

The thesis contributes to knowledge in a number of ways:

1) It will provide more knowledge and understanding of motivation within the context of Saudi Arabia, which is a Middle Eastern collectivist cultural context, and with reference to other variables, notably LMX as a mediator.
2) It will contribute to deeper understanding of the concept of intrinsic, extrinsic and justice motivation and how their implementation through HRM, HRD and LMX may influence employees' job performance.

3) The findings of the study will help formulate recommendations that will contribute to more effective HRM, improved motivation and better job performance and productivity on both personal and organisational levels, for GACA as a major contributor to the Saudi economy, and potentially to other public and private sector organisations.
4) It will shed light on the relevance of applying Western motivation and LMX theories in a Middle Eastern context, especially Saudi Arabia, which will enrich the literature of HRM, HRD and organisation behaviour.

1.8. Thesis Structure

The thesis consists of eight chapters, including this introduction chapter. Chapter two is a literature review which focuses on definitions of motivation, LMX theories and job performance. It also provides an overview of job performance causes and variables, the relationship between motivation and job performance, motivation and job performance in the public sector and motivation and job performance in Saudi Arabia and Arab countries, describing some cultural and social dimensions and their influence on employees' performance. Chapter three explains the hypothesis and development conceptual framework. Chapter four explains the research methodology. It provides the rationale and justification for employing quantitative methods in this study, after which the questions and questionnaire design, target population, sample size, procedure and mechanism of data collection and analysis are explained. Chapter five presents the data analysis and findings of the research. Chapter six contains the outcomes of hypothesis testing. Chapter seven contains a discussion of the research results, the findings of the hypotheses, and the research objectives, in relation to GACA and the theories applied in the research, i.e. Herzberg, Adams and LMX. It provides answers to the research questions to fulfil the main aim of the study and arrive at a pragmatic conclusion and

recommendations. Finally, chapter eight contains the conclusions, the study's limitations and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

Organisations recognize and identify motivation as one of the important functions that they employ to achieve their strategic goals. Researchers have defined motivation in different ways, although some of the definitions have similar contents. Nonetheless the study of motivation has led to the development of many theories which interpret the subject and its different relationships with human behaviour, employees' and organisations' performance. This chapter will examine definitions and theories of motivation and job performance, through some of the important and widely-applied content and process motivation theories. It will also discuss LMX and will focus on job performance causes and variables. The relationship between motivation and job performance will be discussed. Finally, consideration will be given to motivation and job performance in the public sector and culture of the Arab countries, with reference to some previous studies in these fields.

2.2. Definition of Motivation

Motivation is a broad research area, due to its importance in every human activity. Motivation is concerned with people’s behaviours and actions to attain their goals and purposes in order to satisfy their needs and desires. It is the result of an unpredictable desire which can affect human behaviour (Jackson and Carter, 2007). It can be defined or characterised as the forces acting on or within a human being that cause him/her to behave or act in a specific goal-directed manner; it is an inner drive or an external inducement to behave or act in some particular way, typically a way that will lead to rewards and would reflect on the individual's outcomes (Taghipour and Dejban, 2013). Work motivation is one of the most important used tools to induce employees to achieve an efficient and effective result. In many respects it is the job of management or HRM to effectively channel employees' motivation towards achieving the organisation's goals. It

can be employed to create a positive work environment and to successfully execute the organisation's intended programmes (Bessell et al, 2009).

According to Burney and Widener (2007) employees' performance level relies not only on their actual knowledge and skills but also on the type and extent of motivation each person exhibits. Employee motivation is one of the strategies of managers to enhance the effective job performance of the workforce in organisations (Taghipour and Dejban, 2013). Vroom (1964), as cited by Kreitner and Kinicki (2007:247), declared that "motivation boils down to the decision of how much effort to exert in a specific task situation". Work motivation is the process that links strategic goals with the effort made by the directed manpower or human resources. It is a set of energetic forces that originate within as well as beyond an individual's being, and determines the form, direction, intensity and duration of a work-related behavior (Latham and Pinder, 2005).

Beck (2004) stated that motivation leads people to approach goals or participate in different activities that achieve wanted objectives or results and prevent undesirable events which can cause unwanted outcomes. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2012) motivation is a psychological operation that leads to desired, directed, and voluntary behaviour to reach a specific target. It could include compulsion, desire, fear, influence and need. Scholars and practitioners have suggested that external controls, incentives, punishments, and rewards are necessary to motivate job performance, persistence, and productivity. However, work on operant conditioning and behaviour modification has shown that rewards are more influential and effective in producing lasting changes in individuals's behaviour than punishments, especially when the behaviour involves simple, routine steps (Heath, 1999; Steers et al., 2004).

Organisational scholars and researchers have argued that motivation facilitates enhanced persistence, performance, and productivity by enabling dedication to motives or reasons.

Motivation to work can be regarded as the willingness to exert high levels of effort to reach organisational goals, or a particular task conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy a certain employee's needs or desire. Motivation is the set of forces that cause individuals to behave in a certain manner or way (Griffin, 2012). Knights and Willmott (2012) found that highly motivated workers are satisfied and highly productive. Motivation is strongly associated with behaviour. It is concerned with providing positive emotional experiences and avoiding negative ones.

Due to the trend among organisations and companies to implement a downsizing strategy aiming to increasing cost efficiency and operational effectiveness, in other words reducing overheads and operational cost, accompanied with managing their goals, a successful programme of managing personnel motivation is becoming more difficult. Motivation depends on enthusiasm and directs employees to better performance, resulting in enhanced organisational performance and productivity. Thus employees' motivation plays a fundamental role in organisations and companies. It is important and difficult, and it should take a priority position in management strategy (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012).

From the previous definitions and interpretations it is clear that motivation performs an influential role in promoting employees' job performance and productivity. It is also to some extent the way that managers evaluate employees' effort, behaviour, performance, productivity and efficiency. Managers therefore need knowledge about its different goals, types, situations, circumstances, and methods of utilizing and controlling it. To set up a realistic, appropriate motivation programme, managers should study the situation of the employees, production levels, workplace climate and other important elements which contribute in establishing an effective and efficient organisation motivation system. Choosing the right time and methods to motivate the employees to achieve what the

managers are looking for, in order to achieve the organisation's strategic goals is an important task in an organisation's strategic plan (Boswell et al., 2006; Marginson and Ogden, 2005).

2.3. Motivation Theories

In this section we will discuss various motivation theories that have been proposed by researchers. Some scholars and researchers call them organisational behavior theories. Motivation theories are categorized into two major groups. The first are content or need theories of motivation, which identify internal factors such as instincts, satisfaction need and job features, e.g. Maslow's Hierarchy. The second are process theories, also called cognitive theories, which aim to clarify the process by which internal factors and cognition influence employee motivation, e.g. Equity Theory (Rainey, 2014). Figure 2.1 highlights some of the common contemporary, widely used theories of motivation, which are reviewed below.

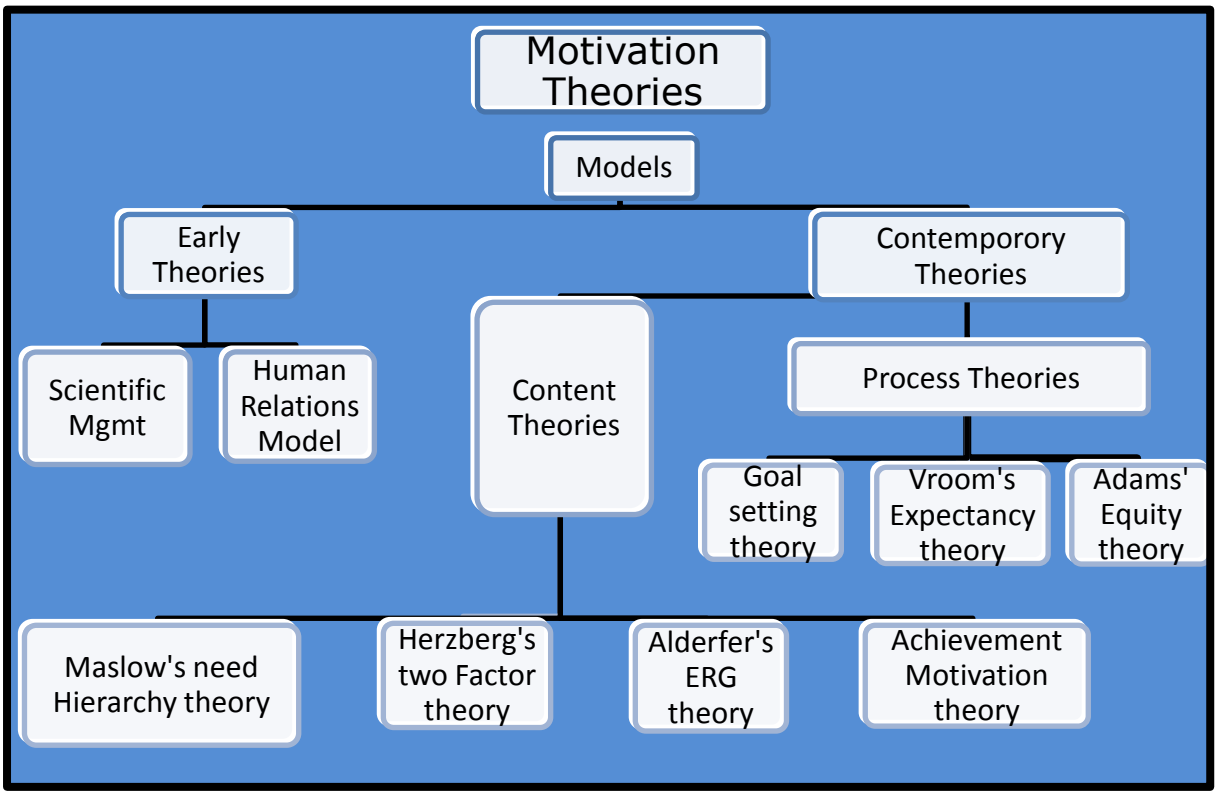

Figure 2.1 Models and Motivation Theories

2.3.1. Content Theories

Content theories focus on the specific factors that motivate individuals. They answer the question, what drives individuals' behaviour? Content theories tend to focus on the needs and desires of the individual, trying to identify and explain the different factors that contribute to either encouraging or pausing or halting a behaviour within that individual. Primarily they focus on individual needs and desires that activate tensions, which influence satisfaction and eventual behaviour. Such needs and desires include physiological or psychological deficiencies that individuals or employees feel a compulsion to reduce or eliminate. Content theories lead to the suggestion that creating a work environment that responds positively to individuals' needs is part of the organisation management's responsibilities. Such theories are also appropriately known as 'need-based theories' (Hunsaker, 2009).

2.3.1.1. Maslow's Hierarchy Theory

Maslow's hierarchy theory, first published in 1943, is one of the most popular theories in this category. The main conception of this theory is that unmet needs encourage and motivate people to satisfy them, and once a need is satisfied, it no longer motivates. Maslow proposed that human needs are classified into five categories (Fincham and Rhodes, 2012; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012), arranged hierarchically (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2007, p237)

As each is met, the next is activated in a stepwise manner until the last one is obtained. Thus the order is very important when applying this theory. The first need is physiological, and includes the essential necessities for survival, e.g. food, water and shelter etc. Safety and security needs are the next category, which depends on being safe from any damage and danger, living and working in a safe atmosphere, secure from both psychological and physical harm. They include, for example, health, safety, and job security. The third need is the need for love and emotion, which represent the sense of belonging, affection, and affiliation. This would include relationships and social activities. The need for esteem is the fourth need, which involves the human desire for

self-confidence, recognition, prestige, reputation, and freedom (Gibson et al., 2011). At the top of the pyramid we have self-actualization, which refers to growth, self-fulfilment and the desire to achieve one's potential abilities and capabilities. It has been suggested that higher level needs could have more ways of being satisfied than lower level needs (Robbins and Judge, 2014). Maslow readily concedes that self-actualization needs will vary greatly from individual to individual. He also observed that the emergence of self-actualization needs rests upon the prior satisfaction of the physiological, safety, love, and esteem needs (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012).

According to Gandalf (2005) employees' needs and desires are ever-changing, as different individuals or groups have different needs at different times. Therefore it is a huge challenge to undertake a mapping of what these needs are. For example, evidence differs as to the effect of age; the most controversial notions about age and work pertain to the popular belief that there is a normative age-related decline in work-related growth motivation and intrinsic motivation. It is reported that older employees have more experience and as employees get older, no matter how interesting or not their jobs are, work will not be as prominent as at some earlier times. In other words, older workers are less eager and interested in learning and accomplishing job activities as they were at a younger age, they are less concerned about the job enjoyment than younger workers, and their level of enthusiasm is not the same (Kooij et al., 2011).

Maslow's theory conveys a message to HRM that they should find out what motivates their employees and what level they are at, and should design a flexible, efficient and effective motivational programme accordingly. According to Gibson et al. (2011), Maslow's theory paved the way to an improved management sense of reward and motivation. Many organisations have acknowledged the relationship between behaviour and a number of different motives. This theory has also influenced different areas of

HRM, especially ideas about rewards and incentives, job design, satisfaction and organisational structure, which will help to satisfy different individuals' needs, desires and strengthens organisational performance. Maslow's work was highly influential and this is reflected in the writing of such thinkers as Argyris, Likert, Herzberg, and McGregor. The work of Maslow has drawn attention to a number of different motivators and stimulated study and research. Maslow's work and theory of motivation is pervasive, practically accepted in management education and has an apparent "face-validity" from the practitioner's perspective. The need hierarchy model provides a useful base for the evaluation of motivation at work (Dye et al., 2005).

An understanding of motivation is central to explain both individual and organisational behaviour. It is a foundational topic in psychology and organisational studies. It describes the reasons that drive actions. Maslow's theory implies that motivating individuals to perform better is not a trick; identifying employees' concerns and solving them effectively is the best way of motivating employees. Individuals who are eager and determined to provide a prosperous and secure life for themselves and their families (reflecting the first two levels of Maslow's hierarchy) will evaluate their work accomplishments and are more likely to work harder for better outcome (Mitchell and Daniels, 2003; Spector, 2011a). Other factors that should be considered in order to create motivation include spending fair time with personnel, advising employees what ought to be done, suggesting, guiding, counselling, exploring what outcome standards are expected, training, working on their problems and concerns and helping them to succeed. The social influence of motivation is considered as a required desire to achieve fulfilment (Latham and Pinder, 2005). Robertson (2002) asserted the need to harmonize and unify the organisation's and employees' targets, and to determine the means by which employees can attain these targets, which are influenced by many factors such as the work environment, the relationship between managers and employees (LMX), the

financial circumstances and values of both parties, organisation and employees. From social psychology and organisational psychology perspectives, organisations' objectives and meeting individuals' needs should be integrated (Grant, 2008b; Kuvaas and Dysvik, 2009; Martin and Fellenz, 2010).

Despite its influence and benefits, however, as a theory, Maslow's hierarchy of needs presents a number of problems. One of them is that the number and nature of needs might differ from the five suggested.

> Maslow himself considered that, in addition to the five basic needs, there might also be an aesthetic need. Moreover, Kakabadse, Ludlow, and Vinnicombe, in their consideration of group dynamics, assert that individuals possess a need for power and this can be facilitated through participation in the group. As they put it, 'one more need can be added to the needs identified by Maslow. Needs for power can… be satisfied in groups: either power over the other members of the group, or by using the power leverage of the group to effect the changes in organization which individual members, by themselves, cannot achieve (Sheldrake, 1996, p.141).

Maslow's theory of needs was difficult for researchers to test due to the lack of concrete definitions of the needs, for example the meaning of safety, security, esteem (Gambrel and Cianci, 2003). Another criticism is that people who are satisfied in these needs are regarded as basically satisfied people, from whom we may expect the fullest (and healthiest) creativeness. However, in our society, basically satisfied people are the exception; therefore, we actually know little about self-actualization, either experimentally or clinically. This remains a challenging problem for research (Sheldrake, 1996). One problem with the theory is that it does not account for behaviour that is outside the norm of what is expected by the hierarchy to attain a higher-level need. For example, why would someone sacrifice their family in order to grow closer to self-actualization? Greenberg and Baron (2008) in their research testing Maslow's theory applications, have supported a distinction between deficiencies and growth needs. They

indicated that not all individuals are able to satisfy their higher-order needs on the job. According to the results of the research, managers from higher echelons of organisations were able to satisfy both their growth and deficiency needs, whereas lower level managers were able to satisfy only their deficiency needs on the job. This may reflect that the theory is more effective in describing behaviours of individuals who are high in growth need strength, because employees who are indifferent to the idea of increasing their growth will not experience any psychological reaction to their jobs. It also indicates why the need theory has not received a great deal of support with respect to the specific notions it proposes, especially attaining high order growth (Greenberg and Baron, 2008). Motivational factors such as esteem and self-actualization may also have vastly different meanings across cultures, making it problematic to generalise the theory. Thus with cultural differences such as collectivism and individualism in mind, many theorists challenge the idea that Maslow's theory is successful across cultures, particularly the order of the needs in the theory, as preferences differ from person to person and across cultures (Gambrel and Cianci, 2003). Thus the universal applicability of the theory was challenged; just as norms differ or fluctuate among individuals, so do norms between cultures.

Although Maslow conceded that the ordering of needs might vary between individuals and across cultures, Maslow nevertheless insisted that the hierarchy was valid for most people, in most places, for most of the time. However, others have found his claims for universalism or cross-culture generalisability less convincing, in particular suggesting that the behaviour patterns described are those of middle class American men in the mid-twentieth century (Fincham and Rhodes, 2012; Sheldrake, 1996). As a result of these challenges, there is little empirical evidence that supports Maslow's theory. Acknowledging all the above, the author believes that the priority of needs varies from individual to individual and from one culture to another. Individual priorities ought to be

taken into consideration. Maslow's assertions may be less valid in non-Western contexts, such as that of the present study.

2.3.1.2. Frederick Herzberg's Hygiene Theory

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory explores employees' motivators at work. It was associated with an interview study which was performed on about 200 engineers and accountants in the USA. It indicates two main factors: motivation and hygiene, which are related to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors that are created in the workplace. Herzberg was a supporter or advocate for job enrichment and encouraged people to build motivational factors into jobs (Bassett-Jones and Lloyd, 2005). Herzberg stated that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite phenomena (Herzberg et al., 1959) According to him the opposite of satisfaction is rather no satisfaction and the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction. Herzberg suggests that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are produced by different factors. Motivator factors are intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and growth. They help to increase satisfaction but have little effect on dissatisfaction. Herzberg declared that promoting employees' satisfaction is very much influenced by and associated with motivating factors which would reflect on more effective performance (Deci and Ryan, 2008; Gagne and Deci, 2005; Herzberg, 1968; Kunz and Pfaff, 2002). Hygiene factors, on the other hand, are extrinsic factors such as pay, benefits, material possessions, company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships at work, work environment, status, prestige, job security, etc (Van Herpen et al., 2005). These factors have little effect on long-term motivation, but their absence or inadequacy causes dissatisfaction. Motivation factors are associated with employees' experiences and the way they are permitted to perform their jobs. The theory concludes that individuals will be motivated if their intrinsic achievement, work motivators, relationship, and

advancement needs are satisfied (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012). It is clear that both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation predict important organisational outcomes like job performance (Reio and Callahan, 2004).

Nonetheless applying intrinsic motivation factors alone does not generate and maintain a high level of preferred employee's behaviour; therefore hygiene or extrinsic factors are essential and imperative (Agarwal, 1998). Hygiene factors reflect the dominant view in the human resource management literature that Pay-For- Performance (PFP) or Performance-Related Pay (PRP) incentive systems have a motivational effect. The link between pay-for-performance and extrinsic motivation is explicit, e.g. rewards, such as bonuses and benefits (Van Herpen et al., 2005). In his study Agarwal (1998) concluded that in order for most employees to perform at their maximum or peak performance, they must be promised some form of extrinsic rewards. In fact, many scholars and practitioners assert that the primary goal of incentives and reward programmes is to enhance extrinsic motivation by satisfying the employee's needs or desires indirectly through means of pay, benefits, bonuses, status, job security etc. Most employees would prefer to acquire more incentives, e.g. the ability to receive cash bonus as well as having a percentage of their total pay in flexible bonuses. It is worth mentioning that the most important motivators to employees are those things that they value and do not have (Wiley, 1997). Hygiene factors can structure an appropriate work environment for employees and help to avoid unfairness and unpleasantness at work (Anthony et al., 2014; Kunz and Pfaff, 2002). According to Fincham and Rhodes (2012), Herzberg's theory is mostly associated with and applicable to organisations due to its results, which come from a dual character of his work. The theory does not only describe employees' needs but also goes further and presents how to enrich jobs and make the human resource or manpower more motivated, which is one of the reasons for so much interest in the theory.

While there has been support for Herzberg's theory by many scholars and practitioners, Herzberg's perception of motivations and job satisfaction is simplistic and does not account for employees' difficulties and complications at the workplace. Most empirical studies refute predictions based on this theory. Needs for income or pay, recognition and responsibility, for example, have been shown to operate both as motivators and as hygiene factors (Maidani, 1991). According to Wiley (1997) employees' motivational preferences changed over time. He indicated that extrinsic motivation rewards or factors are preferred by many employees. He concluded that good wages or high income was most selected as the top motivator (Wiley, 1997). For employees, an effective compensation programme is quite important and helps in providing a positive psychological effect. This is due not only to the material value of the financial compensation or the reward but rather the public recognition that is associated with it. The theory was only one of many outcomes which could have been inferred from Herzberg's study. Also, his theory was based on a limited sample consisting of engineers and accountants drawn from the American population. Thus, it was criticized for biases caused by selection of just two occupational categories (Fincham and Rhodes, 2012). Indeed Herzberg's is the most criticized theory among content theories (Gibson et al., 2011). A significant criticism of Herzberg's theory is that individual difference such as manipulation to allow or refuse direct supervision was not taken into consideration (Martin, 2001; Martin and Fellenz, 2010).

2.3.1.3. Alderfer's ERG Theory

Alderfer's (1972) theory is derived from Maslow's theory, but involves three sets of needs, which are: Existence, Relatedness, and Growth needs (ERG).

> Existence needs (E)[are] the desire for physiological and materialistic well being; relatedness needs (R)[are] the desire to have meaningful relationships with significant others; and growth needs (G)[are] the desire to grow as a

> human being and use ones abilities to their fullest potential, hence, the label ERG theory (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2007:238).

Alferfer's ERG theory differs from Maslow's theory, in suggesting that one or more needs can be achieved at the same time, whereas Maslow's theory assumes that each need is succeeded by the next need in a hierarchy (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012). Alderfer also proposed a regression theory, to go along with the ERG theory. He declared that failure to satisfy a higher need will lead to a frustration-regression response which will cause a regression to the already satisfied need. Taking the frustration-regression process one step further, the ERG theory acknowledges that if a higher category need seems to be too difficult to reach for some reason, an individual may regress to lower level needs and redouble the efforts invested in the lower level need. For instance if a growth (self-actualization or self esteem) need is not met, then individuals will invest more effort in the relatedness category, hoping to achieve the higher need (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012). ERG theory is beneficial to managers, to redirect employees' attention, interest, and efforts to concentrate on existence and relatedness needs and postpone satisfying higher needs which are blocked for any reason, such as lack of resources, to avoid frustration (Arnolds and Boshoff, 2002).

Porter et al. (2003) declared that although there are many differences between Alderfer's and Maslow's theories, the reduction in the number of needs is the most noticeable one. Nevertheless both of them affirmed that opportunities for satisfying needs constitute an important concept in individual motivation. However, the ERG theory was more of an organisational theory, and is supported by many researches, which show its flexibility in reflecting human behaviour. Alderfer's explanation of motivation provided managers with useful perceptions about employees' behaviour (Arnolds and Boshoff, 2002).

Nevertheless, ERG theory was based on assumptions about motivations and human behaviours which are not always predictable; they vary and cannot always be explained. In organisational measures, satisfying more than one need is possible. Moreover the involvement of managerial perspectives has led to limitation of the theory, for instance, employing money to satisfy different needs at different levels, which is classified as an indirect motivational process. Moreover, the nature of the culture may decrease ERG's effectiveness when it is utilized in modern organisations or different countries (Martin 2001; Martin and Fellenz, 2010).

2.3.1.4. Achievement Motivation Theory

McClelland (1961) proposed that people can be motivated according to the strength of their desires to achieve better performance or to reach success. He indicated that people have three important needs. The need for achievement is the desire to do something difficult and reach the level of success. The second one is the need for affiliation, which is to have more social interaction. The need for power is the last and it shows the need to be in a desired, powerful, and influential position. McClelland used the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) to measure individuals' motivation, on the assumption that motivation was a more efficient predictor of achievement than intelligence. In the TAT, subjects are shown pictures of ambiguous scenes and asked to create a story based on the pictures. The theory underlying the TAT is that the content of the subject's story will reveal the individual's needs, attitudes, and behavioural patterns. In McClelland's view, achievement-motivated people prefer to attribute credit for outcomes to their own efforts rather than to chance or luck. He believed that achievement-motivated people in general are those who can make things happen and get results, even through other people, the organisation and resources. Thus, they require a lot of their staff, due to the priorities of achieving their goals. McClelland stated some characteristics and attitudes of

achievement-motivated people. Achieving the aim or task gives greater personal satisfaction than receiving praise or recognition and it is more important than material or financial reward; therefore financial reward is considered as a measure of success and not the target. He added that achievement-motivated people constantly seek improvements and ways of performing things better. Thus, feedback is essential, because it enables measurement of success, not for reasons of praise or recognition. Implicitly, feedback has to be reliable, quantifiable and factual. Logically, achievement-motivated people favour jobs and responsibilities that naturally satisfy their needs (for example, for flexibility and opportunity to set and achieve goals), such as business management, and entrepreneurial roles (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012).

General critiques of content theories

Employees' motivation is a very substantial and dominant topic. Thus, evaluation or criticism of its theories would highlight the shortcomings, with a view to overcoming them. Such theories have however been questioned or criticised because of a lack of research on the causal relationship between need satisfaction and job performance. Generally the content theories restrict explanation of motivation to a particular set of factors. They are largely based on the U.S. culture, with no cross-cultural findings and so may not account for all relevant cultural variables, even though they provide a valuable starting point for examining cultural and individual differences in motivation. The difficulty in using content theories, such as those created by Maslow and Herzberg, for cross-cultural research is the assumption of their universal application. Because they were developed in the United States, even the concepts, such as achievement or esteem, may have different meanings in other societies, resulting in a non-comparable basis of research. Also, there is a lack of conclusive research support. None of the content

theories have been shown to have conclusive, overarching validity, even though they are helpful in providing a contextual framework for dealing with individuals (Beck, 2004).

Looking at some of the controversies of the most known content motivation theories, for example, the validity of Maslow theory is still questionable, despite its popularity in the motivation field, and it has been criticised for being presented in an oversimplified way (Pinder, 2014). Furthermore Maslow's originally did not intend to create a theory that would focus on explaining organisational behaviour. Also his hierarchy of needs does not seem to be sufficiently comprehensive to contain or accommodate most circumstances; thus, it not easy to generalise (Fincham and Rhodes, 2012).

Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory was criticised for biases due to his selection of only two occupational groups i.e. engineers and accountants. The fact that employees tend to relate and justify their success due to internal factors and attribute their failure to external reasons is another reason for scepticism, as this could also sway employees' choices of intrinsic motivators in relation to satisfaction and external motivation factors in relation to dissatisfaction (Fincham and Rhodes, 2012). According to Armstrong (2012) the outcome of Herzberg's two factor theory was also criticised because he did not try to measure the relationship between satisfaction and job performance. Furthermore the model disregards the individual differences. It is claimed to be applicable regardless of gender, age, occupational level and so on.

According to Alderfer's theory, employees can simultaneously satisfy more than one need. Unfortunately this resilience or flexibility is also considered as a drawback, especially in the light of the lack of research. Measurement of simultaneously satisfying more than one need could be difficult to obtain due to the long time required to be spent on the subject. It is clear that time is a limitation of this theory, because much time is required by management to obtain a comprehensive and thorough understanding of their

employees' needs levels and how changes made within the organisation can interact with changes going on the employees' personal lives, which could negatively affect their motivation and performance. Furthermore, the freedom for individuals to move amongst the needs could lead to frustration-regression, due to employees' needs not being met, which would yield negative action toward a lower need, with less productivity. The scant research on this theory led to scepticism as to the actual worth of the theory, as in any science, critics want to see facts based on research outcomes (Fincham and Rhodes, 2012).

In regard to McClelland's achievement theory, many researches and studies have been conducted to verify the theory, and researchers have pointed out that their results were not always completely supportive of the theory model (e.g. Rauch and Frese, 2000; Aditya et al., 2000; Vecchio, 2003). Criticism concerning the validity of the TAT projection utilised to determine the level of individual needs was raised, indicating that the outcome of the utilised TAT projection was disintegrated or not significant, even with adequate scorer reliability, the TAT approach or test reliability was inadequate, in addition Miner and Raju (2004) revealed that dealing with the same construct which is the Self-report indicators or indexes and projectives which measures the motives of role motivation theory did not produce the same results; rather they could produce directly opposite or contradictory results. The theory was also criticised for its lack of predictive power (Hansemark, 2000; Kapp et al., 2003). Furthermore, cultural differences play a significant role in how achievement is viewed, as some cultures focus on the descending or regressive side of failing to succeed and achieve, while others regard unsuccessfulness as a learning experience to provide a second chance or opportunity to grow, achieve and become better and stronger in areas that caused the setback. Thus cross-cultural difference is another factor to take into consideration (Aditya, et al., 2000; Vecchio, 2003).

2.3.2. Process Theories

Process theories describe the process through which needs are translated and transmitted into behaviour. It looks at the process of motivation and how the motivation process takes place. They attempt to identify the variables that go into motivation and their relationship to each other. Fairness and justice are two important factors in all aspects of our life. The main idea in these theories is the understanding and implementation of fairness and justice. This category of theories focuses on how to cause behaviour changes. It focuses on the thoughts or cognitive processes that take place within the intellect of people or individuals and act to influence their behaviour relative to fairness, rewards, and equivalencies of work opportunities. Employees often make equity judgments based on comparisons with others who may be co-workers, or based on other similarities, such as organisational status (Fortin, 2008; Greenberg et al., 2007; Milkovich et al., 2011; Siegrist et al., 2004).

2.3.2.1. Adams' Equity Theory

The equity theory, published by John Adams (1963) is one of the most popular and important theories in organisational justice and explanation of motivation and human behaviour in organisations. It is concerned with how employees struggle to be treated fairly (Greenberg et al., 2007; Milkovich et al., 2011; Siegrist et al., 2004). Equity theory is based on an investment and assessment process which gives wide opportunities for comparison. It concerns the comparison employees make between themselves and their colleagues within the same or in other organisations or companies and also between the efforts they make and the outcomes they receive (Fortin, 2008; Greenberg et al., 2007; Martin and Fellenz, 2010).

The foundation of equity theory was derived from the expectancy model of Porter and Lawler, which indicates that equitable rewards are a major satisfaction variable. Organisational justice is as important to management in general and HRM in particular as to employees with regard to its motivation effect characteristics. Employees try to achieve a fair balance between inputs, which include for example education, trust, hard work, and flexibility between employees and their superiors, and outputs such as salaries, commissions, and bonuses as well as intangibles, e.g. sense of achievement, responsibility, appreciation, reputation, and thanks. Management must be perceived as fair with regard to outcomes, particularly to processes that serve an important psychological need. HRM ought to consider that an individual's perceptions of inequities, e.g. in wages, can have a detrimental and undesirable impact on an individual's motivation and job performance (Fortin, 2008; Merchant et al., 2003; Ryan and Deci, 2000). If the inputs and outputs of an employee are equal, an employee will be motivated and perform at the same level, while if the inputs are higher, the result will be a demotivated employee (Brooks, 2007; Milkovich et al., 2011; Siegrist et al., 2004).

Adams argues that individuals are motivated to act in inequitable cases, which occur when they receive less than they deserve or anticipate; thus, individuals' behaviour is adjusted in response to perceived inequities, in several ways. He suggested six different behavioural mechanisms available to individuals, which employees may adopt, to reduce the psychological discomfort associated with perceptions of inequity, when an imbalance between inputs and outcomes is perceived. These are: modify or cut back on inputs; seek to modify or vary the outcomes; modify perception of self or cognitive dissonance; modify perception of comparator; change the comparison; end or leave affiliation.

Adopting some of these options can help employees to accept their current situations and be less tense by choosing one or two of these elements to make a balanced result. The

different behaviours mentioned above reflect social comparisons. Managers should be very much concerned about dealing fairly with their staff. When individuals feel unfairly treated they respond both affectively e.g., low commitment, and behaviourally e.g., low job performance, turnover. Management's capability to predict accurately which specific behaviour an individual will adopt to restore equity in a given situation is difficult at best. Dissatisfied employees can add more burden on the managers (De Cremer and Van Knippenberg 2002; Fortin, 2008; Skarlicki and Latham 1997). Under rewarded employees might reduce their efforts and job performance to reach equity, whereas over rewarded employees are expected to be motivated to increase their job performance (Milkovich et al., 2011; Spector, 2011a).

The equity theory is a widespread theory of distributive justice that is introduced in most management and nearly all organisational behaviour academic publications as a major theory of work motivation. Thus it is useful for managers and supervisor to understand the equity theory and apply organisational justice to prevent any performance-damaging effect caused by inequalities in the promotional and reward system (Greenberg et al., 2007; Mullins and Christy, 2013). Furthermore Siegrist et al. (2004) identified the imbalance employees experience between high work effort and low rewards, lack of promotional opportunities, and job insecurity as important sources of stress and other negative health effects.

2.3.2.2. Victor Vroom's Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) is concerned with people's motivation to act according to multi choices and choose the best way to achieve their desires or rewards. Academic research on expectancy-based motivation of a global workforce has also been documented (Benkhoff 1996; Chang 2003; Huddleston et al., 2002). Expectancy-based motivation has been widely researched as an attitudinal variable that serves as a predictor

of effort and performance (Gray and Gray, 1999). Porter et al. (2003) stated that description of individuals' understanding of the relationship between the required efforts, anticipated levels of performance, and the expected rewards are the fundamentals of this theory. They added that the employee's enthusiasm depends on his or her beliefs and desires related to outcome achievement. Expectancy-based motivation clearly presumes that employees' effort will increase when meaningful rewards are offered.

Motivating employees by using performance-contingent rewards is a long established management practice in Europe, USA, and many other countries. Motivation of workers from Germany (Benkhoff 1996), Russia (Huddleston et al., 2002) and Korea (Chang, 2003) has been examined. Vroom (1964) suggested that the opportunities and promotions given to employees can affect their motivation, because of the different outcomes of success and achieving targeted performance. Among motivation models, expectancy-based motivation has been widely practised and accepted as a conceptual model for defining employee motivation. It offers the most appealing basis for distinction with commitment due to its instrumentality-oriented approach in defining motivation.

According to the expectancy theory, motivation is a function of three components-expectancy, instrumentality, and valence. This theory predicts a motivation force by a mathematical equation using the three components as follows:

$$\mathbf{F = V \times I \times E}$$

Force (F): It is the energy provided by individuals' performance, which can be estimated and reflects the degree of motivation.

Valance (V): It refers to the way people evaluate outcomes, whether it is positive or negative. In Vroom's theory, outcomes refer to several consequences that affect performance, such as bonuses, appraisals, etc.

Instrumentality (I): It indicates that a specific outcome is conditional on a particular performance level.

Expectancy (E): It represents the belief that any effort is likely to lead to a particular performance level (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012).

The expectancy theory argues that linking incentives and rewards to performance motivates employees to increase their effort and performance. Goal clarity is another important factor in the design of Pay-For-Performance (PFP) processes. Goal clarity has been held to be important, as it leads to increase motivation. The theory reflects that behaviour is directed by expectations that are transmitted by individuals' actions, to achieve the desired outcome (Jenkins et al., 1998). It also connects individuals' behaviour and their motivation level to their future perceptions of what they desire. It is based on the following two expectation stages: **(Effort → Job Performance and Job Performance → Outcomes)**. The first one shows that in individuals' expectations, a certain level of effort will lead to fulfilment of the required performance objective, which is influenced by motivation. The second one is that individuals' needs and expectations can be met by the achieved performance, which will lead to obtaining the desired outcomes (Kreitner and Kinicki 2012). While expectancy is the perceived connection between the effort and the outcome, instrumentality is the perceived linkage between the outcome and the reward. Valence represents the perceived desirability of the reward. In line with the theory, PFP programmes are evolving and increasing, and there is a trend to increasing variable pay as a percentage of the total income. PFP will encourage individuals to be more efficient and productive, attract and retain highly valued employees and to generate constructive attitudes toward the organisation (employee's commitment) (Bonner and Sprinkle, 2002).

2.3.2.3. Motivation through Goal Setting

Goal setting is a powerful way of motivating people. This theory depends on the positive relationship between performance and targeted goals (Locke and Latham, 2002). Locke, who presented this theory, argued that goals enhance motivation and performance in several ways; they give direction and indicate what needs to be accomplished. They increase effort, persistence, and the quality of performance (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012). Working toward a goal provides a major source of motivation to actually reach the goal, which in turn, improves performance. In the setting of PFP systems, goal clarity is an important element. Financial incentives, according to this theory, can increase efficiency and productivity by setting a higher level goal so that employees will increase their effort to achieve that target by accomplishing the desired performance. Thus, it is important to have a clear goal, as it leads to increase motivation (Emmanuel et al., 2008). It is an approach called Management by Objectives; a process that seeks to align employees' goals with well-specified organisational goals. It is been suggested that goal setting is an effectively influential method for public organisations' managers to motivate the public sector employees and enhance their performance (Durant et al., 2006). The alignment of employee-organisational goals is important, as employees who are associated with strategic organisational goals are psychologically motivated to increase organisational performance and productivity (Boswell et al., 2006; Marginson and Ogden, 2005).

Critiques of process theories

Despite the useful insights and dimensions they offer, process theories have some limitations and have been criticised by various scholars. For example, the equity theory neglects some social and organisational circumstances, e.g. it overlooks the social context of systemic inequities among the capitalist economies. The current expression of inequity is a normal feature of capitalist society, where the exploitation of wealth, power,

and influence are invisibly utilized, or it even can be called the hidden power and therefore it is not easy to challenge. People might perceive equity or inequity not only in terms of the specific inputs and outcomes of a relationship, but also in terms of the overarching system that determines those inputs and outputs. Thus, in a business setting, one might feel that his or her compensation is comparable with that of other employees, but one might view the entire compensation system as unfair. Furthermore, the basis of social comparisons can vary and are difficult to specify (Cropanzano and Rupp, 2003). It has been argued that the theory represents only one dimension of many important dimensions of workplace equity and justice. Moreover, it is unable to predict individuals' responses to perceiving inequity (Porter et al., 2003), since the response of employees will differ from one to another, if the reward does not have any importance to the employee, it will not motivate him/her. Nevertheless managers' behaviour and responses to their subordinates are recognised as important (Bamberger et al., 2014).

Expectancy theory has several weaknesses. The theory's exploration has no systematic approach to specifying particular outcomes, which are related to a specific situation for a specific individual. Also specific recommendations on what are the elements that stimulate organisational members are not available (Porter et al., 2003). The theory is limited in discussing perceptual processes and individuals' motivation expectations, which are not always conscious, as the theory implies. Individuals cannot always determine their goals or what they expect to get or avoid, so that they can make a decision (Gibson et al., 2011). Moreover, Expectancy theory is too complex to direct management action, due to the variations between individuals' evaluation of action, and their different connection between rewards and achievements, and target success (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000).

2.4. Leader Member Exchange (LMX7)

Leader Member Exchange (LMX7) (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995), also known as Vertical Dyad Linkage theory, was first developed by Dansereau et al. (1975). Over the last several decades, studies and concerns about LMX theory have led to a more developed understanding of the powerful influence that leaders can have on employee attitudes, work outcomes and work behaviours beneficial to the superior, immediate work subordinate, and the organisation (Campbell and Swift, 2006; Chen et al., 2007). LMX theory focuses on a dyad, that is, the relationship between a leader and each subordinate considered independently, rather than on the relationship between the superior and the group. LMX has been defined as the quality of the relationship between a superior and a subordinate; it is a system of components involving both members of a dyad superior-subordinate and the formed relationship. Thus the stronger the leader-subordinate relationship, the higher the quality of the exchange; on the other hand the weaker the leader-subordinate relationship, the more formal and instrumental the quality of the exchange (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Superior leadership is one of the extrinsic factors that have a significant impact on employees' work attitudes and performance. A superior's positive attitude toward personnel improves employee attitudes toward work, their leader, and the organisation. In turn, members develop intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. A good match between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation results in a much better employee outcome (Liden and Maslyn, 1998; Morrow et al., 2005). LMX focuses on the quality of the superior-subordinate relationship, and how reciprocal social exchanges develop, enhance, and sustain that relationship. It can be described as an "in-group" where the superior has high-quality relationships that are characterised by exchange of quality resources e.g. information, support, mutual trust, respect, rewards and effort with some subordinates. Members of the in-group are also invited to participate in decision making and are given additional responsibilities. The leader

allows these members some latitude in their roles (Liden, et al., 2000). In contrast the "out-group" or low-quality relationships are characterised with formal reciprocal trust, respect, support, and few rewards (Truckenbrodt, 2000). Out-group members receive minimum requirements when it comes to employment privileges; thus, it is a formal limited relationship. Low-quality LMX relationships members are supervised within the narrow limits of their formal employment contract. They are likely to be given mundane assignments to accomplish. The leader will provide support, consideration, and assistance obligatory or mandated by duty, but will not go beyond such limits. In return, out-group members will achieve what they have to do according to the contract and little beyond that (Bolino and Turnley, 2009; Morrow et al., 2005).

The relationships within pairings, or dyads, may be of a predominantly high-quality or low-quality nature. Each relationship, or linkage, is likely to differ in quality, which will means the same leader could form low-quality or poor interpersonal relationships with some subordinates and high-quality, rich, trusting relationships with others. Thus the nature or quality of the LMX relationships has a distinctive impact on the subordinate outcomes, e.g. organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance (Deluga, 1998; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Hung et al., 2004; Ilies et al., 2007). LMX has been shown to be positively related to task performance (Campbell and Swift, 2006; Chen et al., 2007; Lam et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2007; Vecchio and Brazil, 2007; Wakabayashi et al., 2005). According to Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri (2012) the quality of the relationship between an employee and his/her manager is particularly an influential factor in enhancing employee performance. LMX theory offers a mechanism to gauge or assess the quality of the relationship rooted in the day-to-day exchanges between a manager and employee that shape the nature of their relationship (Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri 2012). Furthermore Yukl (2012) stated that a sharp distinction between the high-quality LMX relationship and the low-quality LMX relationship may

be undesirable, because subordinates in the out-group might resent their relatively inferior status and differential treatment. Nevertheless evidence indicates that members of the high-quality relationship with the leader assume greater job responsibility, contribute more to the organisation, and are rated higher in performance evaluation (Schreisheim et al., 1998). However stress emanates from the additional responsibilities given to them by the leader, whereas for members who report low-quality relationships with the leader stress emanates from being left out of the communication loop. Thus, the type of stress varies by the group to which a subordinate belongs (Nelson et al., 1998). Nonetheless, there is a strong argument that a positive ethical climate could boost and promote leader-subordinate relationships, as an ethical climate embodies norms and patterns of typical interaction, which would consequently impact important organisational outcomes (Brown et al., 2005). However Wayne et al. (2002) proposed a high-conceptual overlap between interactional justice and LMX.

2.5. Job Performance Definitions

Job performance is a common area of interest for organisations and HR researchers. It could very well be the most important construct in HR studies. It is one of the substantial factors that affect organisational profitability (Bevan, 2012; Muchhal, 2014; Reio and Wiswell, 2000; Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000). A simple definition of job performance was established as the compatibility between the employees and their current jobs. “Job attitude” and “job performance” are two terms which refer to the previous definition (Vroom, 1964). Davoudi and Allahyari (2013) and Motowidlo et al. (1997) defined individual performance in terms of job goals and employees’ output. Goals should be set according to performance standards, made clear to employees and considered to be achievable. Individual performance originates or emanates from the performer and transforms to accomplishment or performance, i.e. it transforms from abstraction into

action (Armstrong, 2006). Job performance is the value an organisation can expect from specific behaviours performed by employees over time. In other words it is the accomplishment of a given task measured against preset standards of accuracy, completeness, cost, and speed. It is widely known to reflect job attitude, which is people's favourable or unfavourable perception towards their job (Moyle et al., 2003). The concept of job performance has many definitions, and a considerable amount of literature has been published leading to a wide view of this topic. These studies provide different meanings of job performance, reflecting the various experiences, knowledge and perceptions of researchers. Having a positive feeling towards the individual's job is the notion of these definitions. This means, for example, whether or not it meets the desires of employees, and whether the employees' physical and sociological needs can be achieved by work. Job performance refers to various attitudes and emotions of the employees toward their job functions (Raza et al., 2014; Spector, 1997).

However individual's performance is the result of both behaviour and accomplishment. The behaviour is also an outcome in itself, it is the product of mental and physical effort applied to the task, which can be judged apart from the outcome or result (Armstrong, 2006). The implication of this conceptualization is that behaviour alone is not sufficient to cause high performance. Therefore, performance has two parts, an activity (behaviour) and the outcome of the activity. Job performance, thus, is not just a matter of output, but also an internal state. It could, for instance, be associated with personal feelings of achievement, either qualitative or quantitative. It is also associated with other management factors such as motivation and work environment. The nature of job performance and its influence on work efficiency and productivity are difficult and complex issues; thus, its meaning can be interpreted differently, reflecting different individuals' perspectives. Individuals' needs, expectations, and norms are different.

Consequently their job performance perspectives will vary accordingly (Locke and Latham, 2002). According to Comm and Mathaisel (2000) job performance can be seen as the difference between the process of achieving the job and the perception or expectation of how it should be performed. The complexities of job performance can be divided into different factors, e.g. management or supervision, job environment, and different types of motivations associated with the employee's workplace climate to determine whether the employees are motivated or not, and to what extent that is. To achieve the desired level of performance, individuals' behaviour needs to be channelled towards specified goals in order to produce the desired and useful level of accomplishments (performance). It is also important that the employee expects that a specific effort will result in achieving a particular level of performance. This expectation is important for employees to be motivated to exert much effort towards achieving better performance. Researchers and theoreticians from the previously discussed motivation theories' perspective, would appear to agree that employee work motivation leads to higher individual performance when compensation is contingent upon a measure of performance (Locke and Latham, 2002; Taghipour and Dejban, 2013).

Nowadays, groups and organisations are using a variety of methods to measure employees' performance and thereby determine the level of motivation of certain individuals or groups, for example the Employee Motivation and Performance Assessment (EMPA). Job performance levels can vary as many personal factors can cause different positive and negative reactions, towards employees' tasks (Moyle et al., 2003). EMPA is designed to measure the relationship between motivation and performance. It has been in use since 1988. The critical role of motivation is to provide survival (Smith, 1999). Achieving the objectives of any organisation can reflect the effectiveness of employees in accomplishing these objectives. It has been perceived that specific explicit goals positively affect employees' job performance. The improvement

of job performance is an objective for any employee motivation programme. Commonly it refers to whether a person performs his job well. A motivation system should be employed to increase the efficiency, productivity, and outcomes of any organisation. To measure the system's effectiveness, a performance evaluation should be factually and effectively executed. Most of the employee's life time is spent at work, so it is advised for organisations' management to have motivated, satisfied, and happy employees, which will reflect on the employees' performance and the organisational performance and productivity. The process of performance improvement ought to be compatible with the organisational vision and missions, support the organisation's strategy, meet external needs, and maintain a competitive advantage (Collis and Montgomery, 1995; Armstrong and Baron, 2004).

2.5.1. Job Performance Causes and Variables

Job performance may very well be the most important construct in HR studies, as aforementioned, so it is a common area of interest for business organisations and HR researchers (Reio and Wiswell, 2000). Improving employees' job performance has been the focus of many motivation theories, especially the need theories. Job performance is a key indicator of the effectiveness of the HRM system and may also influence firm performance. According to Robbins and Judge (2014) job performance, employees' attitude, or individuals' feelings, regarding what they do at work are issues of concern in studying organisation's behaviour. Development strategies in many organisations were based on the work environment and the employees' affective responses to it. Job performance is one of the significant topics that have been studied. Employees' motivation is obviously one of the most important and essential influential factors for employees' performance or achievement (Berman et al., 2012).

Nevertheless there are several job performance models, which consider different causes that affect job performance, as follows:

Discrepancies: This model represents job performance as an outcome of fulfilled expectation of a job. Met expectation is the difference between what the employees expect to get from work and what they achieve, for example, the opportunities for promotion and rewards.

Equity: It suggests that job performance results from employees being treated fairly. This performance proceeds from the employees' perceptions of a balance between their job inputs and outputs, and that their ratio compares favourably with those of others.

Value Attainment: It defines that job performance proceeds from the perception of the work which allows employees to fulfil their work values (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012).

Job performance and productivity are influenced by many factors. For instance, if the employees believe that the management exhibits appreciation of employees' responsibilities towards their families and work commitment, personnel development is supported, they are fair, and encourage participation, this will enhance employees' loyalty and commitment, which in turn will reflect on better job performance. In work domains, the stability or balance of work and family life is associated with boosting job satisfaction, organisational commitment and improvement of organisational performance, whereas the absence of work-life balance was indicated to cause poor employees' performance and more employees' absenteeism (Carlson et al., 2008; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Wayne et al., 2004). Several empirical studies regarding this concept have indicated its positive relationship to employees' and organisational performance as well (e.g., Harrington and Ladge, 2009; Parkes and Langford, 2008). Thus when employees perceive a caring and supportive climate, it discloses that the

organisation's ethical policies and practices are based on an overarching concern for its members or personnel.

Job performance is a complex issue. It is difficult to measure it objectively because its levels can be influenced by a range of variables. Organisations are impacted by several, varied environments e.g. legal, technological, training, cultural, industrial, economic, and political, in which they operate (De Rosa et al., 2004). Individuals are no different. Employees are also influenced by a multitude of the same and different external forces or factors.

Fort and Voltero (2004) outlined some key factors believed to influence employees' performance outcomes:

1) Clear job expectations, e.g. whether the employees were told what they were expected to achieve. 2) Motivation and incentives, e.g. promotions, bonuses or raises, non-monetary incentives, verbal recognition from manager or supervisor for good performance and training courses. 3) Immediate performance feedback. 4) Environment and tools and qualifications, knowledge, and skills.

Tessema and Soeters (2006) have studied eight HRM practices and their relationship with perceived employee performance. Such practices include recruitment and selection, training, placement, job performance evaluation, compensation, promotion, grievance procedure and pension plan. Richey (2000) stated that training enables employees to learn and enhance their knowledge and skills. It also enables personnel to achieve positive changes in their on-job behaviour and job performance (Elnaga, 2013; Garvin et al., 2008). Hence, personnel training is a significant motivating factor; adopting sufficient, up to date and effective training programmes will benefit the employees to enrich their knowledge and enhance their skills and job performance. Thus, many studies (e.g. Arthur et al., 2003; Burke et al., 2006) have emphasized the importance of training

contents e.g. related to the topic and up to date, and teaching methodology. In addition, promotions and incentives are very influential motivating factors. Furthermore justice is another strong motivator that is very pertinent to organisation life, whether on a day to day interaction basis or in relation to PA and it is very much linked to Adams' equity theory. These motivating factors could help strongly to address problems of lack of management skills, inadequate promotion, and unrealistic employee performance evaluation. Several studies regarding employees' performance and motivation, reward and bonus pay (e.g., Banker et al., 2000; Bloom and Milkovich, 1998; Park and Sturman, 2012) revealed evidence supportive of the supposition that rewards and bonus payments are positively related to employees' performance. Harrison and Novak (2006) found in their empirical research that efforts by an organisation's or firm's management to establish promotion opportunities contributes to employees' job dedication and acts as a motivator for better job performance. It is important for management to recognise employees' willingness to work for available incentives and rewards, or Pay-For Performance (PFP). According to Fisher (2008), money is considered to be the key motivator for most employees. Such motivating and hygiene factors have been mentioned in Herzberg's theory and their implementation will have a beneficial influence on employees' satisfaction, commitment, and job performance.

2.6. Relationship between Motivation and Job Performance

Motivation has its influence and effect on employees' job performance. The relationship between motivation and job performance has been examined by many researchers and there is a growing body of literature which explains how motivation can contribute to accomplishing high job performance, and observes the nature of their relationship (Burney and Widener, 2007; Reio and Callahan, 2004). Motivation and job performance are two different concepts. Motivation is a process which can provide or lead to high job

performance, while job performance is likely to be an outcome, associated with personal feelings, behaviour and achievements. Process theories of motivation consider the difficulty and complexity of employees' motivation, and acknowledge the relationship between motivation and job performance, whereas content theories tend to propose that motivation is directly related to satisfaction and job performance (Burney and Widener, 2007). From either perspective, motivation is considered influential in reaching high performance levels, although the job performance is likely to be affected by the strength and types of motivation.

The availability of different motivator factors supports action and leads over time to better job performance. They lead to positive job response due to the developed satisfaction of self-actualization for the employees, which is the ultimate desire in Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Nonetheless, it was argued by Herzberg that dissatisfaction would not appear as a result of the unavailability of motivators. Similarly hygiene factors will cause conditional satisfaction and lead to better job performance, but their absence will decrease the level satisfaction (Tietjen and Myers, 1998).

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2012) managers should consider how their behaviour influences employees' performance, as there is a strong correlation between management or supervision manner and practices and employees' job performance. It was found that attributions about a manager's or supervisor's behaviour influence subordinates' performance (Dasborough and Ashkanasy, 2004). Motivation is important to managers for its influence on subordinates' performance, their work quality, and the effectiveness of the managerial process. Attempts to improve motivational programmes can enhance job performance as well; the proposition that the quality of HRM critically affects organisatinal performance is a self-evident truth.

According to Houldsworth and Jirasinghe (2006) measuring employees' performance can be used as a motivation tool (Fletcher, 2004), and from an organisational perspective performance evaluation is considered as a substantial system (Biron et al., 2011). Performance evaluation or appraisal can show the strengths and weaknesses in the employee's performance; on this basis, some motivator factors can be established to improve the weaknesses and reward the strengths. Therefore these factors can be useful when implemented to enhance motivational programmes for better employees' performance. Performance evaluation and the ratings of employees' performance represent critical decisions that highly influence a variety of subsequent human resources actions and outcomes, e.g. training courses, rewards, promotions (Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007; Nurse, 2005; Peretz and Fried, 2012; Reb and Greguras, 2010; Smith and Rupp, 2003; Taylor, 2005; Youngcourt et al., 2007).

Motivation has been identified to significantly improve employee performance, especially when it is properly utilized (Reio and Callahan, 2004). Investing in employees' development is vital in maintaining and developing the skills, knowledge and abilities of both individuals and the organisation as a whole (Lee and Bruvold, 2003).

The relationship between motivation and job performance is linked with internal and external motivation factors that can identify the state of this relationship. Internal motivations normally lead to, for example less employee absenteeism and better job performance. Internally motivated employees are proud of their work and achievement, satisfied with their jobs and have good relationships with their managers and colleagues. On the other hand, external factors which drive the employees to accomplish their work and responsibilities, to some extent influence most employees, but if they are their only motivators it could cause problems and lead to low job performance. Such factors

include wages, commission, training, rewards, etc (Houldsworth and Jirasinghe, 2006). Motivation reflects feelings of self-recognition, achievement, and responsibility which contribute implicitly and explicitly in achieving better job performance. The relationship between motivation and job performance includes some elements whose unavailability causes low job performance, e.g. incentives, interpersonal relationships (Thiedke, 2004).

Furthermore a positive relationship was found between compensation practices and employees' job performance (Tessema and Soeters, 2006). In this context, many researchers have indicated that there is an impact and a positive relationship between HRM practices and employees' performance (Gould-Williams, 2003; Park et al., 2003; Tessema and Soeters, 2006; Wright et al., 2003) and organisational performance (Quresh et al., 2010). Also other recent studies have acknowledged that HRM practices play a significant role in influencing employees' performance (Shahzad et al., 2008; Tessema and Soeters, 2006). Macky and Boxall (2007) for example found that HRM practices are normatively associated with high job performance work systems. Another research conducted by Shahzad et al. (2008) disclosed positive correlations between compensation practices and employees' performance, and between promotion practices and the performance of university lecturers.

2.7. Motivation and Job Performance in the Public Sector

Motivated employees are the cornerstones of all organisations. In the public sector, a specific kind of motivation has been identified as salient, Public Service Motivation (PSM). PSM was described by Brewer and Selden (1998:417) as “the motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful public service”. It was identified to be correlated with organisational citizenship, and is claimed to promote characteristics like commitment to the public interest with the intention and compassion to help, do good for

others, and shape the wellbeing of society, e.g. ‘ethical’ behaviour, working in excess of contracted hours, or the provision of additional consideration and support to colleagues with work tasks, or that is not coerced or rewarded extrinsically (Pandey et al., 2008).

The importance of PSM in particular and work motivation in general, job performance and their relationship have been discussed by many scholars and researchers who introduced a variety of administrative and management activities to explore and investigate their real effects, work motivation is one crucial determinant of individual and organisational performance. This holds true for all organisations, public and private. Having motivated public sector employees is anticipated to make public organisations perform better. Thus, scholars, researchers and organisations' administrations have devoted great concern toward such influential issues (e.g. Brewer, 2010; Petrovsky, 2009; Warren and Chen, 2013). Public Sector (PS) employees are mostly motivated by stability and job security. Stability refers to the harmonization between employee and job duration, and it is more related to job content and style of work. Job security is related to internal and external economic factors. It refers to the employee’s capability to keep a desirable job. A supportive work climate acts as a motivator which promotes feelings of security towards one’s role, and reveals that job security is broader than stability. Public sector employees are more motivated by job security, intrinsic motivators, as well as working in a supportive environment compared to the private sector, due to the harmony, friendliness, respect, and stability they can find (Buelens and Broeck, 2007).

Public administration scholars have long considered the effective implementation of managerial practices as an important factor for high quality performance (Andrews and Boyne, 2010; Brewer and Selden, 2000; Meier and O’Toole, 2002; Rainey, 2014; Rainey and Steinbauer, 1999; Van Wart, 2003). Public sector organisations often strive for multiple goals (Dixit, 2002), and this multitude and vagueness of goals are also reflected in the ways of which employees' job performance is assessed as compared to the

employees' evaluation in the private sector. PA in the public sector has been criticised as relatively ineffective and even if it was reasonably effective and reliable, it is often linked to weaker motivation incentives. That might be why the relationship between motivation incentives and employees' job performance in the public sector is inefficient or weak (Besley and Ghatak 2005; Burgess and Metcalfe, 1999; Delfgaauw and Dur, 2007; Francois 2007). As a result, employees' job performance in the PS relies more on intrinsic motivation factors than on extrinsic incentive factors.

Public and private sector motivations, job satisfaction, and performance have been compared using Herzberg's hygiene theory. The results show that in both sectors, motivation to work will probably emphasise motivating factors (intrinsic). Public sector employees are more inclined to focus on the meaning, significance, and purpose of tasks which are intrinsic motivation factors that would lead to autonomous work situations and results in more positive attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (Grant, 2008a; Perry et al., 2010). As public sector employees are less motivated extrinsically, they tend to be interested in extrinsic motivation factors or external interventions such as rewards, performance related pay and characteristics of the work situation, which will crowd in intrinsic motivation factors when perceived as supportive and would enhance employees' performance and effort (Crewson, 1997; Moynihan, 2008; Durant et al., 2006; Weibel et al., 2010). Empirical studies in the UK, Canada, and other countries have found evidence of this motivation among public employees (Houston, 2000; Lyons, et al., 2006), indicating that employees who possess PSM have greater job satisfaction and better job performance (Grant, 2008a). Naff and Crum (1999) found that employees with high public service values are less likely to leave public employment and more likely to receive better performance evaluations. Moreover, employees were more interested in high level motivation needs such as self-esteem, and self-actualization, which were considered as important needs (Linz, 2003). Nevertheless, adoption of the concept of

PFP and monetary incentives in the public sector do not seem to be declining; rather it seems to have enjoyed a recent resurgence in interest and popularity (Belle and Cantarelli 2014; Belle and Ongaro 2014; Perry et al., 2009).

Job performance levels have also been examined in both sectors to discover the response of employees towards their job environment and its importance in achieving and maintaining their duties. It was found that the levels of job performance efficiency vary between the two sectors. Unless the disconnected link between extrinsic motivation factors and employees' performance is connected, public sector efforts to employ PRP might not work as well as expected, due to the fact that public managers are not much motivated by pay and economic factors (Moon, 2000). Positive relationships between intrinsic motivation and job performance as well as between intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction have been found by several studies. They examined different employees' job performance levels, and found that on the whole, employees were satisfied with their jobs for different reasons. Highly motivated employees performed better and this refers to intrinsic factors, in relation to the job condition, and extrinsic factors in relation to the job environment (Linz, 2003).

Regarding continuation in the job, public sector managers have been found to remain in their jobs due to employment location considerations, family responsibility, or departmental loyalty, which were considerable environmental issues for them. Unlike private sector managers, public sector managers are not strongly motivated by pay expectancy. Pay and direct economic benefits were found to be less important for public sector employees and supervisors (Moon, 2000). In contrast, private sector managers stayed in their jobs due to the work environment or job conditions or both. Pay is of much greater concern and a motivator for private sector employees and managers or supervisors. Low-skilled manufacturing employees stayed in their job due to income

concerns or environmental factors, e.g. benefits, relationships, and financial pressures (Jurkiewicz et al., 1998).

There was no evidence that the relation between material rewards and performance mattered any less to those with high PSM. According to most literature PSM had a strong positive effect on job satisfaction and performance ratings and a weaker negative effect on plans for individuals with high PSM to leave the public sector (Alonso and Lewis, 2001; Frank and Lewis, 2004; Naff and Crum, 1999). PSM can be expected to have a significant impact on various aspects of HRM such as engagement, employee satisfaction or the receipt of promotions, rewards, or incentives (Brewer et al., 2000; Alonso and Lewis, 2001; Kim, 2005; Mann, 2006; Moynihan and Pandey, 2007a, 2007b) A direct association between PSM and job satisfaction and organisational commitment was found by (Taylor, 2008).

2.8. Motivation and Job Performance in Arab Countries

Generally speaking, one might argue that in many Arab, including GCC countries, expectations are very high and far from what could be actual and realistic. GCC countries are no different. The only distinction between them is that some of them are oil-rich countries with abundant financial resources, which are not always effectively and efficiently employed for the sake of the country's development, prosperity and the wellbeing of its population; rather, they are wasted and misused. Arab culture is considered as a traditional, collectivist and affiliative culture, in which religion, society and family relationships are major influences on most aspects of life, e.g. economy, business management, HRM, etc. Culture and work practices are considered as a great challenge countering organisations' progress, which causes low organisational performance, when compared to Western countries; some of the existing organisational

structure and behaviour problems will be discussed later in this section. Such problems lie in the complexity of interaction between cultural practices, dominant social values, employment and utilization of technology, and level of development achieved (Assad, 2002; Branine and Pollard, 2010; Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007; Metcalfe, 2007; Weir, 2000). Management of motivation and its utilization and effectiveness differ from other cultures. The outcomes of a research about employees' motivation and performance in Arab countries showed a considerable effect of justice on employees' motivation and their performance. Highly motivated employees were highly productive and less motivated employees performed less well. Managers had a limited range of influence on employees' behaviour and attitudes. The countries' general economy led to variations in motivation and job performance (Suliman, 2007). A study examining managerial motivational effectiveness in Arab countries (Idris, 2007) found that first and middle level managers are motivated by affiliation and accomplishment, more than power, while top level managers are likely to have a balance between both. Nonetheless employees' motivations are different. For example in Saudi Arabia, employees are motivated by position and status, which are significant to them and they are of great importance to most employees and the community in general; thus employees' motivation is affected accordingly (Idris, 2007). Al-Kibsi et al. (2007) confirmed that for Saudi employees, the private sector culture does not provide attractive motivators, due to their high demands, such as salaries and other privileges. Furthermore, it was noted that Saudi employees are not motivated to stay in low-rank jobs.

Saudi female personnel are often engaged in public and private sectors that are traditionally regarded as suitable for them, such as medical fields, health care, and female education, as there are separate schools for girls starting from primary and up to high school, college level, and even in universities (Gallant and Pounder, 2008; Sidani, 2005). These occupations are preferred because work activities are carried out in an all-female

setting, in line with Saudi Arabia's strict rules of gender segregation at work and in life in general (Guthrie, 2013). As it was declared by Abdulaziz BinBaz (1912-1999), who was the Grand mufti (principal religious scholar) or religious dignitary of Saudi Arabia, women could work in fields that are "women's domain". The interrelation of national and business cultures is particularly significant within the Middle East context, particularly in the Arabian peninsula where the influence of religion on politics, economics, and organisation is particularly predominant and pronounced (Gallant and Pounder, 2008; Sidani, 2005; Al-Hamadi et al., 2007). The rate of Saudi women's participation in the workforce or employment is indicated to be around 16.4% according to the labour force survey report dated 2014 (KSA, Central Department of Statistics and Information, 2015) compared to 10% in 2001 (Winckler, 2002). These figures indicate a progress of about 6.4% in a period of more than 12 years. This has been ascribed to a lack of employment opportunities (Al-Mandhry, 2000).

Barriers to Arab Middle Eastern (including Saudi) women's career advancement have been elaborated on previously. Work-family conflict, lack of diversity or equality in organisational structure and limited organisational and training support were identified as significant barriers that impede women's career mobility (Metcalfe, 2006). Obstacles commonly cited by female administrators as having an adverse impact on their efficiency and job performance include poor preparation and selection of women for positions, particularly those requiring administrative and supervisory responsibilities (Acker, 2006). Personnel are often hired based on family, social, or personal considerations rather than on possessing the requisite skills, qualifications, or education. Opportunities for training are also limited for women; such obstacles and training limitations apply to most public sector organisations (Assad 2002; Hutchings and Weir, 2006b). Negative social stereotypes directed at women have negative employment implications and block women's advancement in organisational hierarchies; furthermore differences in

motivation, promotions, and work environment were found which were reflected in low performance and organisational commitment compared to male personnel (Hutchings et al., 2012; Mehdizadeh, 2011; Milkie et al., 2010; Rhode and Kellerman, 2007).

Structural organisation problems include functional overlap and over-centralisation of authority. Public sector organisations in developing countries are highly dependent, their independence or autonomy being limited or constrained due to the civil service rules, regulations and procedures. Decisions are generally highly centralized, uniform, and rigid, limiting the extent to which public sector organisations can innovate or even motivate and discipline their employees (Bhuiyan and Amagoh, 2010; Caiden, 2007; Fawzi, 2015; Iles et al., 2012). Daft (2014) defined leadership as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purposes. Centralization of authority tells subordinates exactly what they are supposed to do. This leadership behaviour is similar to the initiating structure or task-oriented leadership style. No one leadership style is ideal for every situation (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006).

Lack of management skills and inadequate communication has also been highlighted. Low management skills can impact employee morale and pride of the team spirit. Managers, supervisors, or superiors can appeal to employees' intrinsic characteristics such as trust, recognition, achievement, and respect as well as their ambitions for position, power and financial or non-financial rewards (Bhuiyan and Amagoh, 2010; Caiden, 2007; Fawzi, 2015; Gerstner and Day, 1997). Management learning should be distinguished from HRM. Management learning and management development involve developing analytical skills in academic disciplines relevant to management, taking into consideration personal knowledge, qualifications and skills. Thus management development has a wider scope in the sense that the learning and development processes

are more pervasive human processes than employees' management in large organisations (Bhuiyan and Amagoh, 2010; Caiden, 2007; Fawzi, 2015; Fox, 1997; Leslie and Canwell, 2010).

It is critical for both management and subordinates to engage in open communication to share their views on the job design and process. Managers or supervisors should bear in mind that individual subordinates may have their own idiosyncratic ways of doing their job on a day-to-day basis, as well as performing tasks to the documented departmental design. The valuable role that communication and immediate feedback plays in organisational functioning and effectiveness is acknowledged by management and organisational communication scholars and practitioners. Supportive leader communication has a positive intervening influence on the relationship between leader-subordinate 'LMX' and employee job performance, and it has been shown to relate to enhanced employee job performance (Andrews and Kacmar, 2001; Den Hartog et al., 2013; Goris et al., 2000).

Communication skills are necessary to be able to convey meaning when conveying and receiving feedback. This activity cannot be left to chance or likelihood or assumed to occur in the everyday course of events. Specific activities need to occur to ensure communication is carried out meaningfully, messages are conveyed and feedback is recorded. Excellent relations on a day-to-day basis help identify unique inefficiencies inherent leadership style such as managing by walking around. There is also need for agreement on job requirements which is obtained through a continuous two-way consultation between managers or supervisors and subordinates (Brown et al., 2008; Chiu et al., 1997; Den Hartog et al., 2013). When managers and supervisors are able to provide employees with accurate and useful job, procedural and organisational information, this supports employees' sense to perform their duties properly and reduces

uncertainty (Brown et al., 2008; Den Hartog et al., 2013; Kernan and Hanges, 2002). In contrast, when managers or supervisors are inconsistent or confused about the message or instructions they deliver, regarding the job or organisational issues, employees may then rely on their own subjective perceptions when interpreting HR practices (Nishii et al., 2008). Accurate, high quality communication aids employees to understand and perform their job duties, to know what is expected of them and to understand the reasons behind organisational decisions. This confirms the importance of the quality of managers' and supervisors' communication and is in line with Bowen and Ostroff (2004: 208) statement that "in order to function effectively in a social context and make accurate attributions about a situation, an employee must have adequate and unambiguous information." They argue that proper, high-quality communication is required in order to create a strong situation in which the HR system has the desired effect on employees' performance.

Mismatch between employees' educational qualifications, and/or job training and job requirements is a commonly-cited problem. Task structure, role ambiguity and the type of task undertaken by an employee will determine his/her performance (Mahy et al., 2013). Organisations that assign technical, measurable, and specific tasks to their employees or personnel will perform well, while those with less technical and specific assignments will perform less well. The more complex and multi-functional or multi-task goals of service processes would make it more difficult for personnel to perform well. Nonetheless employees' roles should be clearly defined (Silverthorne, 2004). HRM ought to consider the dominant features of any job description in terms of being able to successfully perform certain key activities within certain time frames and achieve certain desired outcomes (Davoudi and Allahyari, 2013).

According to Robst (2007) and Van de Werfhorst (2002) there are two types of education-job mismatch: vertical, which is the mismatch of level of education and job and horizontal, which is the mismatch of field of study and job. Over-education or under-education are also viewed as education-job mismatch (Kampelmann and Rycx, 2012). Education-job mismatch is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore. Thus, paying attention to the field of study is significant because it allows for analysing different types of skills; not only does education provide general human capital, but particular fields of study provide occupation specific skills (Dolton and Silles, 2008; Lamo and Messina, 2010; McGuinness and Sloane, 2011; Robst, 2007; Van der Meer, 2006; Van de Werfhorst, 2002). Garcia-Espejo and Ibanez (2006) stated that job mismatches are an important cause of job dissatisfaction. Moreover education-job mismatches lead to employee turnover (Wolbers, 2003; Kampelmann and Rycx, 2012). Furthermore education-job mismatch has demonstrated a clear negative effect on wages and job status (Boudarbat and Montmarquette, 2009; Heijke et al., 2003; Kampelmann and Rycx, 2012; Robst, 2007; Wolbers, 2003). Conversely Garcia-Espejo and Ibanez (2006) argue that for society at large, a proper job-education match "leads to social benefits, such as productivity increase and welfare, which derive from an efficient use of the active population's human capital" (p. 141). It was noted that a society's economic development depends upon a proper match with its educational system. Furthermore it was shown that a proper match between education and employment reduces the need for further training within the organisation or firm (Kampelmann and Rycx, 2012; Van Smoorenburg and Van der Velden, 2000).

Another of the identified problems is unrealistic employee performance evaluation or Performance Appraisal (PA) (Idris, 2007). PA forms the core of performance management systems; the PA system is considered as a significant part in the success of organisations (Bernardin et al., 1998; Biron et al., 2011; Fletcher, 2001; Smith and Rupp,

2003). It is a formal process for assessing employees' performance. PA is one of the significant roles of management in relation to defining and measuring employees' behaviour and job performance, it is a formal and systematic process of identifying, observing, measuring, recording, promoting and developing the job-relevant strengths and weaknesses of employees (Fletcher, 2001; Youngcourt et al., 2007). In most organisations PA is an annual process. An accurate performance appraisal system articulates and expresses to employees that top management has the important and essential managerial skills needed to manage the organisation's personnel or manpower. It aims to improve and develop employees' knowledge, skills and competencies in order to improve organisations' performance and ultimately productivity (Fletcher, 2001; Jawahar, 2007; Peretz and Fried, 2012). The annual performance evaluation received by the employee affects the employee's feelings on whether or not he/she received a fair and just evaluation. Therefore implementing an accurate, fair and reliable performance appraisal system to measure employees' behaviour and job performance should enable top management's capacity to have a salient impact. HRM should enhance their managing skills to make good use of the PA (Fletcher, 2004; Peretz and Fried, 2012; Smith and Rupp, 2003; Spears and Parker, 2002; Taylor, 2005). For optimal effectiveness, PA should comprise a strategic approach and integrate organisational policies and human resource activities (Fletcher, 2001). The implementation of a fair PA process will allow and enable HRM to employ formal influence based on the PA grades in relation to the employee's skills, competencies, characteristics, etc, which will provide top management or the administrative department with a better perception of personnel's performance and that of the organisation in general (Chen and Kuo, 2004). Chen and Kuo (2004) characterise PA as an indispensable process for an organisation. An accurate system in assessing employees' performance is likely to be acknowledged as a sign or indication that the organisation's top management cares about its workforce as well as the

organisation's interests. In turn it will be reflected in financial and economic profit (Fletcher, 2004).

Personnel perception about top management's benevolence or goodwill, namely, the extent to which top management is believed to understand the employees' needs and desires to do good to employees, aside from an egoistic profit perspective, is likely to be positively affected by a more accurate job performance appraisal system. An ideal PA process offers clear guidelines and guidance to improve the performance of low performance employees and reward and maintain high performance individuals (Smith and Rupp, 2003). An accurate evaluation system will provide developmental feedback to evaluate, and allow employees greater potential for growth and advancement within the firm. In addition to financial benefits for the employee such as pay and promotion potential (Abu-Doleh and Weir, 2007), an accurate appraisal system affords employees a greater opportunity for psychological success or the feeling that they are successful at what they achieve, which will reflect a strong organisational commitment (Swanepoel et al., 2009). The process of PA should involve implementation, communications, observation of behaviour and managing actions of personnel (Jawahar, 2007; Peretz and Fried, 2012; Smith and Rupp, 2003; Taylor, 2005).

Also criticised in the Arab organisation context are inadequate promotion and/or incentive systems (Al-Dalan, 1995; Idris, 2007). The desire to be promoted and earn enhanced pay is an external motivator. Promotion and incentive systems play a crucial role when it comes to capacity development by motivating employees and targeting organisational performance (Fuller and Farrington, 1999; Gilbert, 2013; Harrison and Novak, 2006; Stolovitch and Keeps, 1999). Incentive issues recently have been given more and more intention by academics and practitioners, and this has been presented by many authors as the missing link in development. The influence of finance in the form of

promotions or incentives is not hidden and thus it has the power to entice, retain and motivate individuals toward high job performance (Banker et al., 2000; Bloom and Milkovich, 1998; Park and Sturman, 2012). It demonstrates the motivational power of money, promotions, or incentives through the process of job choice. For example, if an employee or a professional has another occupational offer which has identical job characteristics to those of his current job, but greater financial reward, that employee would logically and in all probability be motivated to accept the new post offer. In many cases managers or supervisors employ promotions or incentives to reward or punish employees. This is done through the process of rewarding employees for higher job performance and by instilling the fear of losing promotion or incentives (Sinclair et al., 2005).

In addition to structural problems, there are also behavioural organisational problems. Employees' behaviour in the workplace is a very important issue for both the organisation and the individual employee. This is due to the existence of Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB), which at the most general level refers to any intentional behaviour to harm or intended to harm the organisation or people in the organisation, and it is viewed as contrary volition to its legitimate interests (Fox and Spector 2005; Gruys and Sackett, 2003; Spector 2011b; Spector et al. 2006, 2010).

CWB encompasses a broad number of domains, including property, production, and interpersonal deviance. Property deviance may involve misuse of employer assets, e.g. theft, property damage, and misuse of discount privileges, whereas production deviance can include violating norms about how work is to be accomplished, e.g. not being on the job as scheduled, absence, tardiness, and long breaks, as well as behaviours that hinder production or service when on the job, drug and alcohol use, and intentionally slow or poor performance. Interpersonal behaviours include sexual harassment and verbal or

physical assaults (Penney and Spector, 2005; Spector et al. 2006). Such CWB can have a substantial destructive effect that will cost organisations valuable time, resources and money, and will ultimately affect the organisation's performance and productivity (Aube et al., 2009; Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Glomb et al., 1997).

Ineffective use of duty hours and intrusion of personal and family affairs while on duty are often reported in the Arab context (Assad, 2002). It can be defined "as the propensity of employees to engage in unsanctioned non-work related activities during work time, including off-task activities in the workplace and coming to work late" (Martin et al., 2010:27). Time at work is one of the most precious, valuable and fundamental components of occupational exposure. For instance, coming to work late, leaving early, intrusion of personal or family matters and utilizing the internet and social media on the job would be considered to be engaging in time banditry/waste, as would an employee working on job tasks but intentionally or purposefully working slow or not to their full capacity. Duty or official working hours, both in their length and structure, are one of the most important aspects of an entire class of occupational exposures involving the work process itself, the way in which work is structured and organised at the level of the worksite, the organisation and even the labour market. Thus addressing and resolving such ineffective or misuse of duty hours may bring about positive organisational outcomes but left unimpeded, will probably eventually become an organisational dilemma (Assad, 2002; Brock et al., 2013; Idris, 2007).

Another behavioural problem is low employee commitment and frequent absenteeism from duties. Absenteeism is a large problem faced by organisations and a great expense to the economy. Absence is not showing up for work; it is a habitual pattern of absence from a duty or obligation. It is typically measured by time lost measures and frequency measures. Traditionally, absenteeism is viewed as an indicator of poor individual or

employee performance, as well as a breach of an implicit contract between employee and employer; it has been seen as a management problem, and framed in economic or quasi-economic terms (Demby, 2004). A large part of the problem is employees calling in sick or having family related problems when they are anything but sick.

Absences fit into two categories: involuntary or excused absences, which are those due to personal or family illness or related problems and are beyond the employee's immediate control; and voluntary or unexcused absences, including employees who do not come to work in order to achieve personal aims, perform another preferred activity, or neglect to inform the manager or supervisor and are under the direct control of the employee. Absenteeism and tardiness are related to employees' counterproductive behaviour. Voluntary rather than involuntary absences may reflect job dissatisfaction and lack of commitment to the organisation. Consequently, one may expect that employees' behaviour will be more negatively related to voluntary absence than involuntary absence. The top three reasons behind absenteeism and tardiness according to a human resource planning study, Gurchiek (2005) are doing personal errands, catching up on sleep and relaxing.

Delays of work completion, low desire for hard work, challenge, and responsibilities are other areas of complaint. Public sector organisations have a hierarchical nature, in both structure and culture. The result is frustrated front-line employees who rarely get to see the outcomes of their work, which serves top level management and high political echelons; thus they exhibit low desire for hard work, challenge, and responsibilities. Tasks are often submitted late, or require major revision because they are incomplete or inaccurate. Despite training, the knowledge applied does not produce the needed results (Assad, 2002). Inappropriate variations from policies, procedures, and instructions get in the way of completing the employee's own work. This is an inadequate level of

performance. The quality and quantity of the employee's work often do not meet the assigned work requirements of the position.

Moreover feelings of helplessness and fatalism are common public organisation cultural traits. Hierarchical organisations foster a patronizing management approach in which individuals are coerced, rather than persuaded, to work (Gallup, 2009). Individuals who have low self-efficacy have a tendency to attribute causes to external reasons. Sometimes this is used as a way to avoid responsibility for making long-term plans, meeting deadlines and setting goals. Because interdependence is fostered as a firm cultural value, self-reliance may have a negative connotation. Due to low self-efficacy belief, individuals refrain from being proactive, taking initiatives and they show less commitment to their organisation. All those traits and behaviours give a strong indication that the organisation's performance and productivity are not on the right track (Buelens and Van den Broeck, 2007).

A problem particularly noted in the public sector is unsatisfactory responsiveness to public clients and low job performance (Assad, 2002; Ali, 2009). The use of client service ideas in government continues to be widespread although the concept and its implications for public sector service production and delivery remain poorly developed. Services play an important role in the competitive strategy definition and the identification systems for the management of service performance. In fact, researchers believe that high levels of quality and client satisfaction are necessary to maintain clients and public trustworthiness, especially in service industries (Hossain and Leo, 2009). Client satisfaction is the new criterion for measuring organisational performance in the public sector. The normative force of the notion that clients should be served resonates strongly with the desire to help the public. At the same time, demands of citizens have risen: they are less likely to accept suboptimal quality, even in public services. This

situation can be exacerbated by bureaucratic and political sluggishness, which may be related to a loss of credibility of administrative officials (Korunka et al., 2007). No rational philosophy would mount an argument against the importance of efficiency, effectiveness, and responsiveness in the public organisations. The challenge is to increase efficiency and responsiveness in ways that strengthen, rather than weaken, organisation performance. This challenge is particularly important in the context of declining civic engagement. Nonetheless surveillance and other control processes are structurally absent from the service production process (Hossain and Leo, 2009).

Culturally, managerial favouritism, personal relations, and nepotism are rife. Throughout the Arab region, Social and Organisational Networks (SON) are built on family, friends, tribal ties and connections. SON represents a significant and influential force in all aspects of decision-making and thus plays a significant role in the career advancement of individuals. SON is an important component of the Middle Eastern culture and is reflected strongly in the influence of social, family, and tribal ties and connections that are carried over to the workplace. In collectivist cultures such as the GCC countries, individuals emphasize aligning goals with collective interests, and stress perceived duties and obligations in social behavior (Shavitt et al., 2006). SONs do not pervade business activities only in the Arab world; they do so in other parts of the world, for example China (Hutchings and Weir, 2006a, b). Managerial favouritism, personal relations, and nepotism, involving social and organisational networks of interpersonal connections based on family, friends, or kinship ties, imply the exercise of power and influence through social and political-business networks. Therefore, individuals with substantial wealth or with influential occupational roles in either private or public institutions use such connections extensively in order to get things accomplished (Hutchings and Weir, 2006b). SON in the workplace is one of the key determinants of the recruitment and promotion of an individual and thus of career success.

According to Whiteoak et al. (2006), SON is the process of using help, which might not be available to other candidates competing for the same job or promotion, to move forward and to fulfil objectives. The process of SON involves more or less the intervention of a central character or protagonist in favour of a certain individual with the aim of gaining an advantage for that individual, e.g. obtaining a job, gaining admission to a hospital, or securing a promotion (Hutchings and Weir, 2006b). The usage of SON fosters the progress of a group of people who have reached their positions through befriending influential people. Such individuals feel an obligation to help and support family, relatives and friends, which is also considered as a hindrance for those who struggle to get things achieved according to the rules (Branine and Pollard, 2010). In a sense, this destroys any form of equity and equality by providing undue advantages to a group of individuals who may not necessarily merit them. For example training and development opportunities, in addition to managerial recruitment, promotions, and many other aspects of management or decision making, end up being based on individual relations and family networks and not on an individual's abilities, education, or skills. The dominance of SON in the Middle Eastern culture is evolving and it effectively emphasizes the informality of work relations and supports strong family and friendship connections, which make career progression easier regardless of qualifications, skills, or experience (Al-Kibsi et al., 2007; Metcalfe, 2007). Understanding the origin, changes, and impacts of culture is an important concept of organisational research, as cultures have a great influence on organisational functions (Alvesson, 2012; Branine and Pollard, 2010; Cassell and Blake, 2012; Peretz and Fried, 2012).

Obviously, such structural and behavioural organisation problems can reduce organisational performance effectiveness and ultimately organisational productivity. Despite several public sector authority reforms toward bureaucracy, the Saudi public

sector's bureaucratic rules and regulations remain more of a hindrance than a help to the country's economic growth.

Creating a proper, healthy, motivating environment, in addition to responsive communication and feedback channels at work, will eliminate most of such behavioural problems, e.g. unsatisfactory responsiveness to public clients, feelings of helplessness and fatalism, CWB, etc, which would be reflected in better job performance. When organisation standards and values are truly and consistently applied, enacted and supported with organisational processes, rules, regulations and procedures, they can become an integral aspect of the organisation's culture (Ambrose and Cropanzano, 2003). Ambrose and Cropanzano (2003) stated that HRM and leaders in general ought to create an atmosphere or workplace climate of fairness and trust, because such aspects or organisational issues can result in positive organisational outcomes, e.g. high job performance, reduced personnel behavioural problems and increased organisational commitment, performance and productivity. Many studies have linked organisational performance to a strong culture (Hofstede et al., 2010; Mellahi, 2006). Chandrasekar (2011) argues that the workplace environment is an integral part of the work itself.

The work environment or workplace climate plays a significant role in employees' performance. It can be described more specifically as employees' perceptions of the formal and informal policies, practices, communication and procedures in their organisation (Schneider, 2008). Scholars have long argued that organisational climate is an important construct, because it impacts employee performance and satisfaction (e.g. Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Collins and Smith, 2006). Job aid, management e.g. manager, supervisor relationship and support, opportunity for promotion, communication, performance feedback, goal setting, workplace incentives, mentoring or coaching and also physical work environment, are some factors of the workplace environment

(Chandrasekar, 2011). The workplace environment touches nearly every aspect of organisational life (Kuenzi and Schminke, 2009). In their empirical studies Kangis and Williams (2000) indicated that there is indeed a statistically significant positive link between organisational climate and performance. Employees' perception of the workplace environment has significant consequences on both individuals and organisational level. Work environment has its impact on employees' motivation, behaviour, attitude, performance and potentials, which in turn is predicted to influence organisational productivity (Adenike, 2011).

Compelling evidence presented by Harter et al. (2002) indicates that positive employee perceptions of the workplace environment are linked to improved organisational performance. Previous studies have investigated the construct of workplace climate extensively and it has proven useful in capturing perceptions of the work context (Parker et al., 2003). Several other studies have been conducted to test the theoretical link between workplace climate and job performance. The results indicate that perception of employees was positive in terms of greater information sharing, increased participation in decision making, job performance and management support, which would also reflect positively on increased firm's effectiveness (Kangis and Williams, 2000). A friendly workplace environment is another factor which influences employees at work. It was found to have a significant direct impact on employees' job performance, particularly in service organisations (Chen and Lien, 2008).

Earlier studies suggested that the social climate or atmosphere created in a workplace had significant consequences on employees' perceptions of the work context; its influence manifested the extent to which individuals were contented and performed up to their potential, which in turn was predicted to influence organisational productivity (e.g. Katz, 2008). In contrast, a large number of employees are likely to change their jobs or

workplaces when they are stressed or under pressure (Chen and Lien, 2008). This implies that if the workplace environment seems stressful, management must make effort to develop and implement programmes that can foster a friendly job environment to motivate the employees to perform better (Hourani et al, 2006). According to Halbesleben et al. (2007) a friendly work environment was found to stimulate employees to commit themselves to carry out their tasks and duties effectively. Roca et al. (2006) found a significant correlation between a friendly workplace environment and job performance. Similarly, support, respect among colleagues and managements will assist in creating a healthy motivating work environment, which serves as a strong catalyst or incentive for employees in their workplaces.

Ensuring adequate facilities are provided to employees is critical to generate greater employee commitment, enhances their performance level and increases productivity. The provision of adequate equipment and a healthy workplace environment has been noted to affect employees' performance, commitment and intention to stay with the organisation (Chandrasekar, 2011; Haynes, 2008; Weiss, 1999). An extensive research conducted by Roelofsen (2002) has also revealed that improving the workplace environment reduces employees' complaints and absenteeism, which in turn would enhance employees' performance and increase organisation productivity. The workplace environment is perhaps a key factor causing employees' engagement or disengagement (Boles et al. 2004). In recent years, workplace physical and psychological environment has been recognised as an important factor for measuring employees' performance and productivity. It also determines employees' comfort on the job. In the last couple of decades, therefore organisations have implemented a more imperative strategic approach to environmental management to enhance productivity through improving employees' performance level (Chandrasekar, 2011; Govindarajulu, 2004).

2.9. Conclusion

In this chapter, motivation and job performance were discussed on the basis of previous studies and theoretical literature in this field. Common motivation theories have been discussed according to different perspectives. These theories are concerned with individuals' behaviour, how motivation can be secured, and how it leads to high job performance. Herzberg, Adams and LMX will be examined and conclusions will be drown. Such theories are very much related to business organistion and have strong influence on employees' job performance. According to Fincham and Rhodes (2012), Herzberg's theory is mostly associated with and applicable to organisations due to its results, which come from the intrinsic/extrinsic the dual character of his work. The theory does not only describe employees' needs but also goes further and presents how to enrich jobs and make the human resource or manpower more motivated, which is one of the reasons for so much interest in the theory. Nonetheless Adams' equity theory is a widespread theory of distributive justice that is introduced in most management and nearly all organisational behaviour academic publications as a major theory of work motivation. Thus it is useful for managers and supervisor to understand the equity theory and apply organisational justice to prevent any performance-damaging effect caused by inequalities in the promotional and reward system (Greenberg et al., 2007; Mullins and Christy, 2013). Also the causes and variables of job performance were highlighted. A strong relationship was shown between motivation and job performance. This was followed by a comparison of motivation and job performance in the public and private sectors. Finally, motivation and job performance in Arab countries were highlighted, to explain the influential role of culture in those countries. The next chapter will explain the development of the research hypotheses employed to examine the motivation influence on employees' job performance in GACA in Saudi Arabia including LMX as a mediator.

Chapter 3: Development of Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the development of the conceptual framework (independent, mediator, and dependent variables) and their integration based on the theoretical background mentioned in the literature review chapter two, i.e. Herzberg's motivators-hygiene (intrinsic-extrinsic) theory and Adams' Equity theory, which are widely applied to organisations, LMX7 as a mediator, and job performance to explore and explain the correlational effect and linkage between employees' motivation. The independent variable is represented by four constructs, LMX7 is the mediator, and the dependent variable, job performance, is represented by four dimensions to identify important relationships between the constructs associated with certain problems of domain (Bordens and Abbott, 2013; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Each construct will be identified and elaborated on with regard to its correlation to other aspects in that context. Moreover, this chapter proposes hypotheses relating to the synthesised conceptual framework, to be investigated.

As stated previously the aim of this study is to investigate the nature of GACA's motivation programme, its effectiveness and effect on employees' job performance. This aim was translated into five research objectives. In accordance with the motivation content and process theories and job performance literature. In order to accomplish the study's objectives four research questions were generated, to fulfil these objectives and answer the research questions, a conceptual framework or model was formed, which is presented in this chapter Figure, 3.2. The study objectives were investigated through the generated research questions, which were then translated into nine hypotheses developed with reference to the literature. In this empirical study, three theories were employed based on the theoretical background mentioned in the literature review, i.e. Herzberg's motivators-hygiene (intrinsic-extrinsic) theory and Adams' Equity theory, which are

widely applied to organisations, and are presented in the independent variable, motivation. LMX7 was implemented as a mediator variable, and the dependent variable was job performance. Such theories were utilized as follows; some of Hezberg's extrinsic motivation factors were represented by three constructs of the independent variable 'motivation' i.e. pay and benefits, job security and workplace environment. The management construct represents Adams' equity theory and supervision. Performance, which is the dependent variable, is divided into four dimensions, that will be discussed in details in this chapter. LMX theory was introduced as a mediator in this study. The study sought to investigate and explain the correlational effect and linkage between employees' motivation, the independent variable, LMX7 the mediator, and the dependent variable, job performance (Bordens and Abbott, 2013; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013), as presented in the conceptual framework Figure 3.2. The proposed hypotheses (H1-H9) represent 9 paths among the constructs of the conceptual framework, which will be highlighted in the conceptual framework section. In addition to the aforementioned theories, the literature also contributes to the conceptual framework by defining employees' job performance and the related aspects, i.e. its causes and variables, as well as suggesting the influence of motivation and its relationship with job performance, HRM practices, HRD and PSM (as GACA is a public sector organisation). Also, motivation and job performance in the Arab countries is relevent as SA a Middle East Arab country. Such issues reflect different dimensions in regard to the collectivist culture, and its expected effect on employees' motivation and job performance.

3.2. Independent and Dependent Variables

This section identifies the research variables and proposed relationships to be measured Figure 3.2. Variables are properties or characteristics of some event, object, or person that can take on different values or amounts. A variable is something that can be

changed. It is anything that can take on differing or varying values, e.g. motivation, production units, performance, or absenteeism. Values can differ at various times for the same person or object or at the same time for different persons or objects. When conducting a research or a study, we merely observe and investigate how variables are related to each other, also their influence, and different effects. For this purpose data were collected on independent, mediator, and dependent variables (Collis and Hussey, 2013). An Independent Variable (IV) is what a researcher observes or manipulates, to influence or have some effect on another variable, known as the Dependent Variable (DV). It is the variable that influences the dependent variable in either positive or negative direction.

The dependent or (outcome) variable is the primary interest to the researcher, which can be observed and measured to determine the effect of the independent variable. It is the variable that lends itself to be examined, as a viable factor. It is the consequent variable that is presumed to be affected by one or more independent variables that are either manipulated or observed by the researcher. The researcher's goal is to observe, understand, and explain the dependent variable, and its variability. It is possible to find solutions, answers, or explanations to the investigated phenomenon through the analysis of the dependent variable, i.e. finding what variables influence it, the influence strength, and if the effect is positive or negative. The dependent variable is the outcome. In a research, it may be what was changed as a result of the study. Therefore the researcher will be interested in measuring and quantifying both the dependent variable and the other variable or variables that influence this variable (Barab and Squir, 2004).

3.3. Mediation

Mediation refers to the process or transmission of the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable through one or more other variables, such variable/s are called

mediator or intervening variables. While moderators address when or for whom an independent variable is more strongly related to an outcome, mediators establish how or why an independent variable correlates with or causes changes on an outcome or dependent variable. More specifically, a mediator is defined as a variable that explains the relation between an independent variable or a predictor and an outcome (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Holmbeck, 1997; James and Brett, 1984). For example mediators explain how or why variation in the independent motivation variable via LMX has an influence on subordinate outcomes, or external physical events take on internal psychological significance. A variable can function as a mediator when; a variation in the independent variable yields a variation in the mediator, which in turn would influence the outcome or the dependent variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986). In statistical or path analysis language, mediation corresponds to an indirect effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable that passes through one or more mediator variables (Figure 3.1). Mediation can be either full or partial. With complete or full mediation, the entire or total effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable is transmitted through one or more mediator variables, e.g. with no mediator the relation or correlation between the independent and dependent variables is zero or controlled by the mediator, therefore the data are consistent with a complete mediation model. Thus, the independent variable has no direct effect on the dependent variable; rather, its entire effect is indirect, and we have strong evidence for a dominant mediator (MacKinnon et al., 2002). In the case of partial mediation, an independent variable has both direct and indirect effects on a dependent variable. It implies that there is a significant correlation or relation between the mediator and the dependent variable, also there is some direct correlation between the independent and dependent variable. The direct effect is not mediated, whereas the indirect effect is transmitted through one or more mediator variables; thus the data suggest partial mediation, so one of several methods for testing the significance of the mediated effect

should be used, e.g. Sobel test (MacKinnon et al., 2002). In this study LMX was considered as a mediator between motivation as an independent variable and job performance as a dependent variable.

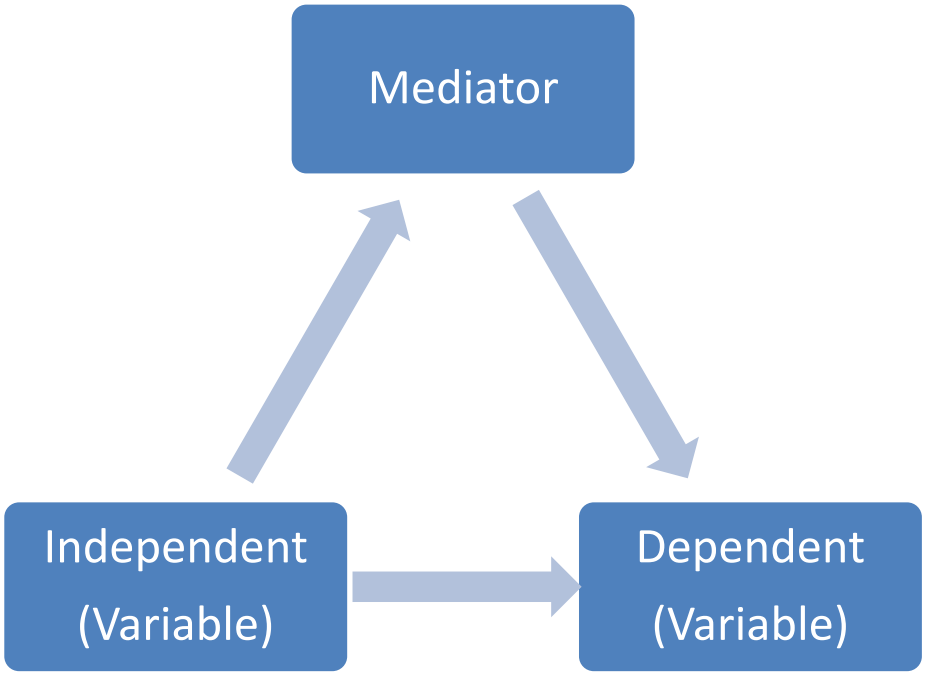

Figure 3.1 Mediation relationships

3.4. Conceptual Framework

Contemporary motivation theories have been mainly categorised into content and process theories. Content theories focus on specific factors that motivate people, e.g. Herzberg's theory. They answer the question, what drives individuals' behaviour? Primarily they focus on individual needs and desires that activate tensions which influence satisfaction and eventual behaviour. Such needs and desires include physiological or psychological deficiencies that we feel a compulsion to reduce or eliminate. On the other hand process theories describe the process through which needs are translated into behaviour. They look at the process of motivation and how it takes

place. They attempt to identify the variables that go into motivation and their relationship to each other, e.g. Adams' Equity theory.

The conceptual framework developed in this present study, Figure 3.2, was based on the theoretical background of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1968), which explores employees' motivators at work. Hygiene factors are extrinsic factors such as pay, benefits, material possessions, company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships at work, work environment, status, prestige, job security, etc (Van Herpen et al., 2005). Extrinsically motivated behaviours are actions that result in the attainment of externally administered rewards. Hygiene factors can structure the appropriate work environment for employees and help to avoid unfairness and unpleasantness at work; they generally increase perceived self-determination (Anthony et al., 2014; Kunz and Pfaff, 2002). Hygiene factors reflect the dominant view in the human resource management literature, e.g. pay-for-performance incentive systems have a motivational effect. The link between pay-for-performance and extrinsic motivation is explicit (Van Herpen et al., 2005). Also Adams' equity theory (1963), was down on, as it too makes a strong link between employees' motivation, behaviour, employees' and organisation performance. Based on those theories, motivation, as the Independent Variable (IV), is represented with four constructs, i.e. Pay and Benefits (PB) with its financial e.g. reward, bonuses, and none financial e.g. training, healthcare, benefits, Job Security (JS), Management (MG), and Work Environment (WE). LMX is represented as the mediator construct.

The Dependent Variable (DV) in this study is Job Performance (PR), which commonly refers to how successfully and efficiently an employee performs his job. It is represented by four dimensions, i.e. Duties and Responsibilities (DR), Accomplishments and Results (AR), Skills and Knowledge (SK), and Communication and Feedback (CF) (Figure 3.2).

A motivation programme can be employed to increase the efficiency, productivity, and outcomes of any organisation. To measure the system's effectiveness a performance evaluation should be implemented. Monitoring or measuring the organisation's and its employees' performance on a regular basis is important for its effectiveness and goal accomplishment. Measuring employee performance is the basis of the performance appraisal processes and performance management. It should include timely feedback and reviews to employees for their work and performance. Accurate and efficient performance measurement not only forms the basis of an accurate performance evaluation, but also provides a technique for judging, measuring, and improving employees' potential and accomplishment. Timely acknowledgement and feedback of accomplishments also motivates employees and helps to improve performance. Job performance is not an easy issue. It is difficult to measure it objectively because its levels can be influenced by a range of variables. All the aforementioned constructs, dimensions and sub dimensions under each one will be thoroughly explained in the coming sections.

Hypotheses

H1: Pay and benefits and job performance are positively related.
H2: Pay and benefits and LMX are positively related.
H3: Job security and job performance are positively related.
H4: Job security and LMX are positively related.
H5: Management and job performance are positively related.
H6: Management and LMX are positively related.
H7: Work environment and job performance are positively related.
H8: Work environment and LMX are positively related.
H9: LMX and job performance are positively related.
H10: LMX will mediate the relationship between motivation and job performance.

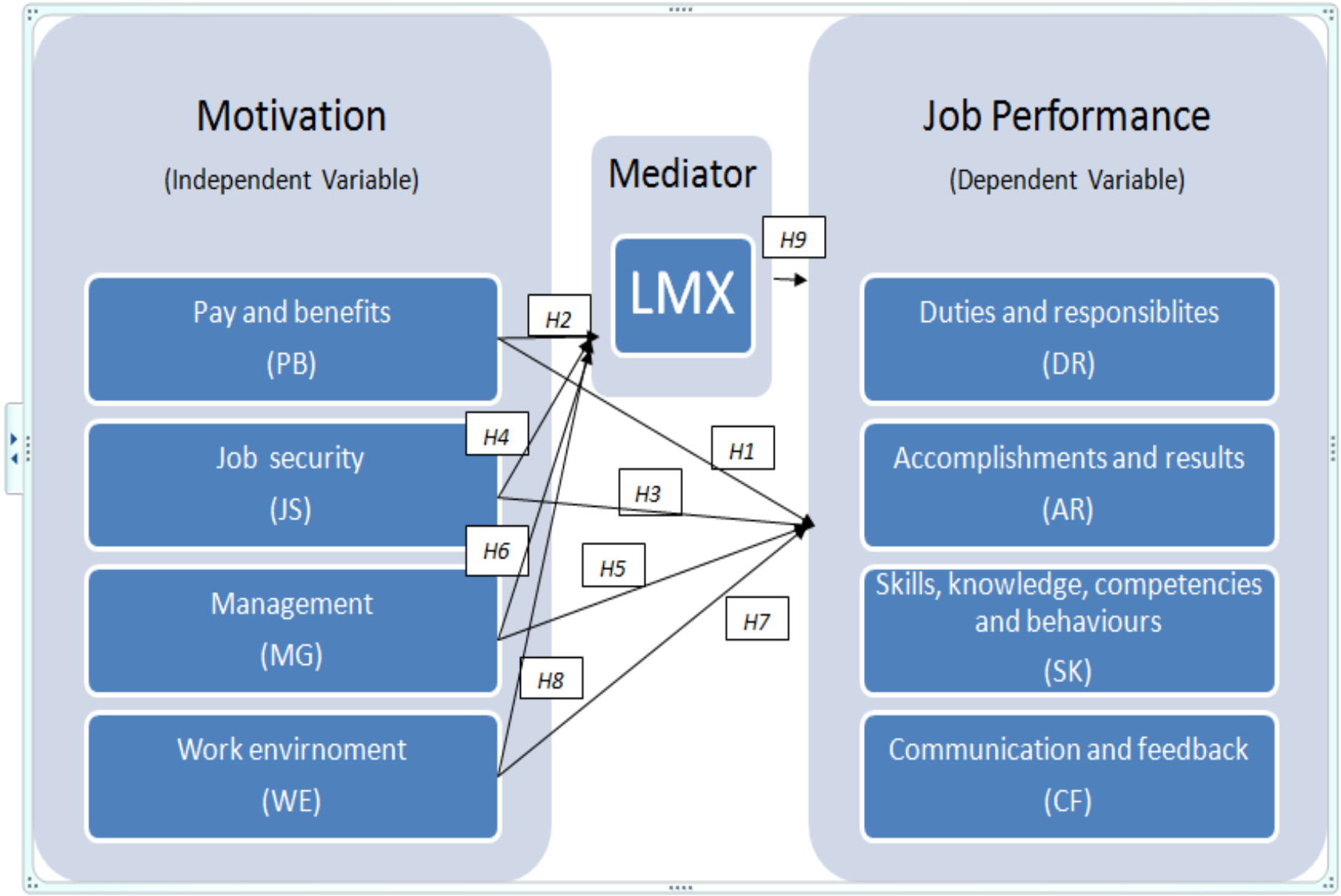

Figure 3.2 Conceptual Framework

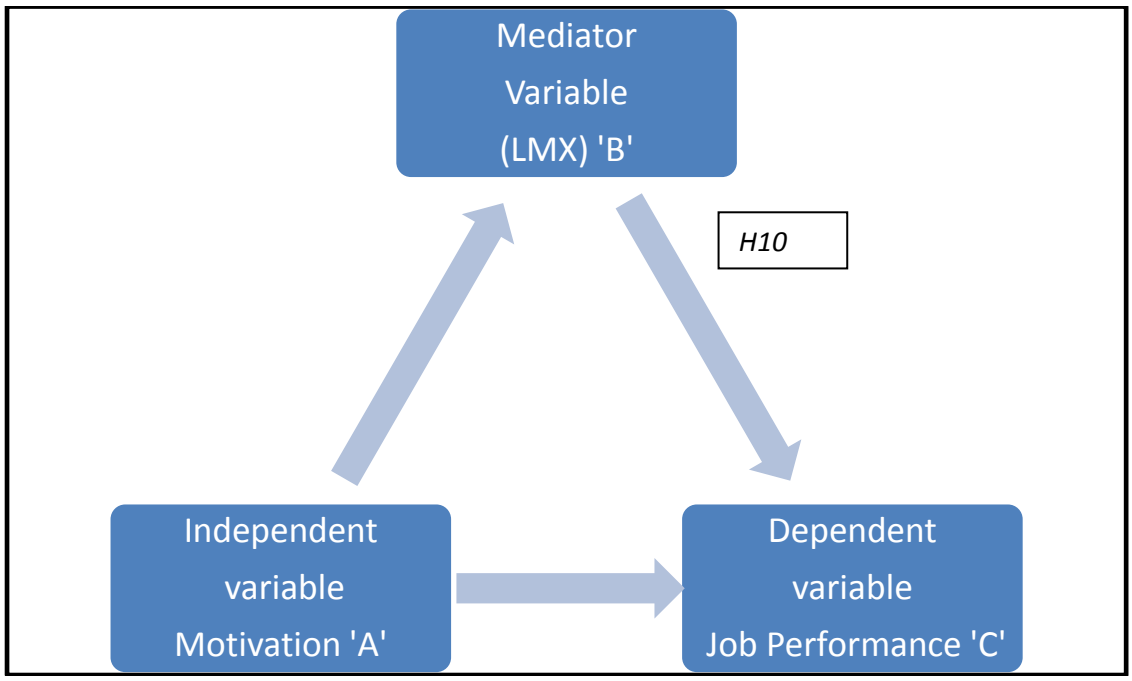

Figure 3.3 Structure Diagram of Mediation

3.5. Independent Variable: Motivation

3.5.1. Pay and benefits

Performance based monetary incentives are one of the key system factors that affect employee performance in the workplace. It is important that management recognise employees' willingness to work for available incentives and rewards. Reward and promotions, wages and incentives, and allowances and facilities are dimensions of the pay and benefits construct (Fisher, 2008; Gilbert, 2013; Harrison and Novak, 2006)

Reward and promotions:

Efforts by management to establish promotion opportunities for personnel act as a strong motivator for employees' job performance (Harrison and Novak, 2006). Motivational incentive, reward and promotion interventions include design/redesign of reward systems, such as gain-sharing (Fort and Voltero, 2004).

Promotion and advancement opportunities were found to be among the best tools to motivate employees (Arthur et al., 2003; Burke et al., 2006; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012; Wiley, 1997). It is important that personnel acknowledge that the achieved performance will result in some valued reward (Vroom, 1964). Pay is considered as one of the basic physiological needs that should be satisfied (Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1954).

Pay-for-performance incentive systems have a motivational effect. The link between pay-for-performance and extrinsic motivation is explicit (Van Herpen et al., 2005). If the employee perceives a positive relationship between improved performance and some valued reward, this will result in some motivation status to exert more effort towards performance enhancement. Rewards refer to the extent to which employees perceive their organisation as providing benefits to employees that are contingent upon performance. Performance-based rewards are known to be an important element that influences employee behaviour in the workplace (Banker et al., 2000; Bloom and Milkovich, 1998; Park and Sturman, 2012). It is also important that employees perceive that rewards, in general, are set and provided in a fair manner amongst them (Adams, 1963, 1965). Receiving rewards that personnel have earned means that they are no longer at the sympathy or mercy of a capricious or over controlling environment, and employees have gained control over their outcomes. Therefore extrinsic rewards should increase perceived autonomy and personal control (Eisenberger et al., 1999). Furthermore strong positive connections have been reported between PSM and monetary and non-monetary work preferences of public sector employees (Brewer et al., 2000; Bright, 2005).

Wages and incentives:

The motivational influence of monetary incentives in increasing performance has been documented by many researchers (e.g., Banker et al., 2000; Bloom and Milkovich, 1998; Park and Sturman, 2012). Income is a very influential motivator factor, because it satisfies many needs; it is an indispensable factor in life, which is necessary to fulfil the basic needs of survival and security (Armstrong, 2012). It is a fundamental inducement, as employees want to earn a reasonable income to maintain a decent and respectable way of living, for themselves and their loved ones or families. Hence, income is considered as one of the basic physiological needs that should be satisfied (Alderfer, 1972; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1954). It is one of the extrinsic factors of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory.

Income is a necessity; no other incentive or motivational technique comes even close to it with respect to its influential value. Evidence from the field has been found to generally support a positive relationship between performance-based financial incentives and personnel job performance (Agarwal, 2010; Prendergast, 1999). Bonner et al. (2000) also found that the type of task and type of performance-based financial incentive interact to affect task performance. The existing evidence confirms that when there are proper performance measures, PFP can be a very influential tool in enhancing employee performance, productivity and improve match quality (Lemieux et al., 2009). PFP can direct action (Shaw and Gupta, 2007) and attitudes (Fulmer et al., 2003). Another study by Lazear (2000) revealed that employees who received an income increase from their organisation or firm were dedicated to their tasks, duties and performed their responsibilities diligently.

Allowances and facilities:

However money is not the only remedy or the panacea for employees' motivation because different employees are motivated by different motivators. Non-financial motivators could include, for example, training courses, skills improvement, facilities, health care, allowances, improved working conditions, career development opportunities, etc. Non-financial motivators play important role in employees' motivation (Gilbert, 2013; Herzberg et al., 1959; Mathauer and Imhoff, 2006; Maslow, 1954; Thiagarajan et al., 1999). They are as important as rewards and recognition for employee performance (Dewhurst et al., 2009; Qayum et al., 2014).

Status and promotions need to be significantly considered and satisfying (Deming, 2013). It is very important that employees perceive their organisation as one that recognises their efforts, needs, achievement and well being. Gilbert (2013) declared that linking employee incentives with organisational goals and communicating these goals with their aligned incentives to the employees helps in achieving the competitiveness and success of the organisation.

H1: Pay and benefits and job performance are positively related.

The second hypothesis of this empirical study is about pay and benefits and their influence on LMX. Merits, bonuses and promotions are widely used motivation components which are closely linked to reward individual performance, reflecting the more direct line-of-sight between job performance and reward (Cohen, 2006; Gerhart and Rynes, 2003; Gerhart et al., 2009). Monetary incentives such as merit pay and bonuses are employed to reward past performance and set future expectations. Merit pay is acknowledged as an incremental increase in base salary used to recognise past performance which presumably should be based on the performance evaluation or

appraisal (Milkovich et al., 2011), whereas bonus pay is a lump sum of cash payment used to recognise past performance (Milkovich et al., 2011).

Previous studies employing work motivation have found a positive influence of work motivation on LMX (Steers et al., 2003). They also revealed that work motivation allows employees to focus energies and efforts on improving organisational existence, which includes relationships between leaders or superiors and subordinates. Examining the type of work motivation of both leaders and followers in conjunction with quality of LMX should provide additional dimensions or insight into the effect of motivation on LMX quality. It is presumed that an organisation represented in the leader or manager and employees enter into reciprocal or exchange relationships where external factors such as money, reward or promotion drive employee motivation to perform a task (Leonard et al., 1999). Pay-for-performance incentive systems have a motivational effect. The link between pay-for-performance and extrinsic motivation is explicit (Van Herpen et al., 2005). Leonard et al. (1999) stated that work motivation e.g. incentives, rewards, promotions, etc have been found to be antecedents to LMX and transformational leadership behaviours (Barbuto et al., 2000). Extrinsically motivated leaders observe and evaluate the value in a reward and promotion system of the organisation for employees (Barbuto et al., 2002). Work motivation also influences tactics (Barbuto et al., 2002) and organisational citizenship behaviours (Barbuto et al., 2003). Barbuto and Scholl (1999) and Barbuto et al. (2000) examined the relationship between work motivation and influence tactics used, and found significant correlations between the two. Moreover intrinsically motivated leaders find enjoyment, pleasure and satisfaction in the work they perform (Barbuto et al., 2002). Work motivation also has an influence on transformational, transactional and charismatic leadership (Barbuto et al., 2005). Leaders' enjoyment of their work environment and job performance could inspire the subordinates to emulate the leaders' behaviour and initiatives and incorporate enjoyment in achieving

job performance (Dvir et al., 2002). Avolio et al. (1999) stated that leaders' contingent reward behaviour, which could involve providing rewards, performance feedback, support and recognition to followers for accomplishments, has an influence on LMX, as such reward behaviour would embody to subordinates how they will be rewarded if they meet leaders' expectations (Avolio et al., 2009). Work motivation also influences triggers (Barbuto, 2000), locus of control (Barbuto and Story, 2008), and mental boundaries (Barbuto and Story, 2007).

Employees' motivation is one of the policies of managers or supervisors to increase effectual job management and performance amongst employees in organisations (Oluseyi and Ayo, 2009). According to Leonard et al. (1999) work motivation will be internal when personnel are inner-directed. In this type of motivation, the employees set internal standards or paradigms for traits, competencies and values that would become the basis for their ideal selves. Personnel then would be motivated to engage in positive work related behaviours that reinforce these paradigms and later achieve higher levels of competency and job performance.

H2: Pay and benefits and LMX are positively related.

3.5.2. Job Security

Job security (or in practice, job insecurity) has been recognized as one of the major employment issues during the past couple of decades (Sverke et al., 2002). Organisation goal achievement and organisation orientation are dimensions of the job security construct. The concept of job security has emerged with the aim of assuring continuity of employment and avoiding or preventing arbitrary layoffs or terminations. Job security is generally the concern of an individual employee about the continuation of his/her existence or current job in the future (Cheng and Chan, 2008; Davy et al., 1997). Many researchers consider job insecurity as a hindrance or stressor, that is an undesirable work-

related demand that interferes with personnel's work achievement (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; De Witte, 1999; LePine et al., 2005). It is the result of the organisation's own practices and policies with the employees which makes them more secure or insecure towards their jobs (Burchell, 2002; De Witte, 1999; Sverke et al., 2002, Tsui et al., 1997).

Phenomena such as merging, downsizing and reorganisation have emerged and become widely deployed in organisations' terminology. This transformation has changed the nature of work culture and caused feelings of uncertainty, stress, and anxiety for many employees about the existence and the features of their jobs (Burke and Cooper, 2000). Previous research indicated that high levels of job insecurity exert a negative impact on employees' psychological well-being and work behaviours (De Witte, 1999; Sverke et al., 2002) and performance (LePine et al., 2005). Furthermore, job insecurity was also found to affect employees' outcomes related to safety and task performance: in fact, insecure personnel are reported to show reduced or impaired job performance (Chirumbolo and Areni, 2005; De Cuyper and De Witte, 2006), as well as experience a higher ratio of workplace injuries and accidents (Probst and Brubaker, 2001).

Organisation goals achievement

In order to improve performance, the change process must be compatible with the organisation's mission and vision, clarify organisational goals, support the organisation's strategic orientation, increase the congruence or compatibility between organisational and employees' values and thereby positively affect motivation, meet external needs, and maintain a competitive advantage (Paarlberg and Lavigna 2010; Ritz 2009; Bass and Riggio 2006). As indicated in the literature review earlier, Herzberg's theory proposes intrinsic factors or key job characteristics, e.g. task identity, task significance, autonomy,

and feedback that will affect employees' behavioral and psychological outcomes. The positive effect of these job characteristics on work outcomes will, however, only occur when the employees' concerns with external factors, e.g. job security, pay, superiors, or co-workers are satisfied. For example, if employees perform their jobs in order to obtain some outcomes, e.g. income, job security or promotion, this means that they are influenced by external motivational factors (Murphy and Alexander, 2000). Therefore, when employees are worried about job security or other extrinsic factors in that context, they are most likely to be less motivated, worried, and psychologically less capable to take advantage of the challenging and fulfilling aspects of job characteristics (Brislin et al., 2005; LePine et al., 2005).

Job insecurity is one of the most investigated job stressors, since as aforementioned many researchers consider it as a hindrance that can induce undesirable behavioural reactions or outcomes (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; De Witte, 1999; LePine et al., 2005; Sverke et al., 2004). In fact job security is one of the influential means of motivating employees, particularly in times of economic downturn. Job insecurity can be classified into quantitative, when one is worried about losing the job itself (De Witte, 2010; Hellgren et al., 1999), and is related to the comprehensive operationalisation of the construct, or qualitative, where the concern is about the loss of important job merits or features (De Witte, 2010; Hellgren et al., 1999), e.g. feelings of potential loss in the quality of organisational position, which would be reflected in lack of career opportunities, development, or decreasing financial development (Sverke and Hellgren, 2002). With regard to job insecurity's consequences for employees, higher feelings of job insecurity have been found to correlate with poorer psychic, disappointment and low job accomplishment, absenteeism, employees' belief that losing their jobs is a significant reason to be demotivated (Chirumbolo and Hellgren, 2003; De Witte, 1999; Ferrie et al., 2005; Hellgren and Sverke, 2003; Hellgren et al., 1999; LePine et al., 2005; Strazdins et

al., 2004; Sverke et al., 2004). Thus, job security is a significant variable for employees' satisfaction which would have a strong positive or negative influence on the general attitude of the employees towards their jobs.

Organisation Orientation:

Organisational orientation depends on the type of organisation's administration or top management. Thus, for an organisation to meet external needs and maintain competitive advantages, its administration or top management should focus appropriately on internal as well as external issues and go for a structure that is stable yet but flexible (Paarlberg and Lavigna 2010; Ritz 2009; Bass and Riggio 2006; Shim et al., 2002). Nevertheless job insecurity's consequences with regard to organisation orientation were found to be related to low organisation trust (Sverke et al., 2002), strong intention of finding another job (Chirumbolo and Hellgren, 2003; Davy et al., 1997) and poor job performance (Lim, 1997; Probst, 2002a). Other studies also found a significant negative effect of job insecurity on employees' work performance (e.g. Probst and Brubaker, 2001), cooperative and compliant job behaviours and significant positive relationships between job insecurity and counterproductive and work withdrawal behaviour e.g. absenteeism, tardiness and task avoidance (Podsakoff et al., 2007; Probst, 2002b). Employees who perceive high level job insecurity feel more risks and uncertainties in their future employment (Lee and Peccei, 2007).

H3: Job security and job performance are positively related.

As aforementioned in the literature, job security is one of the hygiene or extrinsic factors (Van Herpen et al., 2005), it is one of the major employment issues (Sverke et al., 2002). In the current hypothesis we examine the influence of job security on LMX. Job security can be defined as the perceived stability and continuance of one's employment with an

organisation (Probst, 2003). It can be characterised as a state of mind in which an employee observes and focus more on his stability with an organisation in the near future (Pearce, 1998).

Low job security for employees was frequently found to predict higher rates of psychological stress and strain, physical complaints, 'injuries' and poor mental health (Chirumbolo and Hellgren, 2003; De Witte, 1999; Hellgren and Sverke, 2003), lower self-esteem (Kinnunen et al., 2003), ruined family relationships and lower life satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Law et al. (2009) stated that, to relieve such a psychological state of stressful job insecurity, employees may pay more attention to 'in-group' or high quality LMX relationships where an employee would gain and retain more job resources provided by the leader or manager which represents the firm or organisation.

In HRM practices job resources pertain to the physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job or duty that are functional to achieve the organisation's goals and motivate employees' growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). In organisations, the superior, manager or supervisor is a key job resources provider, e.g. work-related information, training, job autonomy, communication, performance feedback and emotional support, promotion. Such job resources were shown to have motivating potentials that leads to employees' excellent work performance (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007).

Employees who perceive low job security tend to be more sensitive to any support and resources obtained from their superior via LMX. In such a situation, employees may react more positively to their established relationship with the manager or supervisor by performing better at work and exhibiting more devoted and altruistic behaviours (De Witte, 1999). In such cases, leader member exchange in particular constitutes a relevant

and valuable job resource, where an employee could obtain more career enhancement opportunities, rewards, and have more access to key personnel and job related information. High-quality LMX can be characterised as a leader or superior sponsorship process or reciprocation for favourable treatment, through which an employee can enhance his developmental opportunities and career advancement within the firm. Thus, a high-quality LMX relationship would function as a significant job resource for employees to reduce uncertainties in their future careers.

In a high quality LMX or in-group circle, superiors invest more resources in those they expect to perform well. High-quality LMX supports insecure employees to cope with the feeling of powerlessness and uncontrollability at work (De Witte, 1999). Conversely, an uncomfortable or poor leader member exchange environment or atmosphere has been perceived as an undesirable attribute or a type of person-environment misfit or incongruence and it has been observed to explain employees' strong and persistent intentions of leaving the job or turnover decisions (Griffeth and Hom, 2001; Morrow et al., 2005).

A weak statistical relationship between job security and LMX was indicated by Gerstner and Day (1997) in their meta-analysis study. Other researchers have found that the path from LMX to job insecurity was not significant (e.g. Wayne et al., 1997). A more recent meta-analysis by Griffeth et al. (2000) also revealed a weak relationship between the two. Studies about the relationship between job insecurity and LMX have reported that, generally, ‘out-group’ members who had poor or low quality LMX relationships with their superiors were more likely to show greater intention of turnover than those who had high quality LMX relationship with their superiors ‘in-group’ (Bauer et al., 2006; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Schyns et al., 2007).

Organisations have therefore sought to maximize high quality LMX among subordinates as an approach to minimize feelings of job insecurity, e.g. combat turnover (Morrow et al., 2005). Clearly, the conclusions drawn about the relationship between job insecurity and low quality LMX relationships have not been consistent, as some studies found weak relationships between the two (e.g. Gerstner and Day, 1997; Griffeth et al., 2000), whereas others found an insignificant correlation (e.g. Wayne et al., 1997). Thus, and as suggested by Griffeth and Hom (2001), more research is needed to investigate the relationship between job insecurity and LMX to shed light on such contradictory findings.

H4: Job security and LMX are positively related.

3.5.3. Management

Whether you work as a supervisor with supervision responsibility, manager, general manager, or the director of an organisation, you will be responsible for managing individuals or personnel, an understanding of the structures and climate in which people can perform, developed, and be rewarded is imperative for managers, and management in general (Alas et al., 2007; Hunt, 1999).

Supervision:

Management is the integrating force in all organised activity. Whenever two or more people work together to attain a common objective, they have to coordinate their activities. HRM is commonly defined as a "process of acquiring, training, appraising, and compensation employees, and attending to their labor relations, health and safety, and fairness concerns" (Dessler, 2005:4).

Effective HRM practices and management in general retain the characteristics of motivating/reinforcing, disciplining, managing conflict, staffing, and personnel

development. The observed behaviours for this activity include allocating formal rewards, asking for input, conveying thanks and appreciation, giving credit where appropriate, listening to suggestions, giving frequent positive feedback, group support, resolving conflict between subordinates, appealing to higher authorities or third parties to resolve a dispute or convey employees' concerns, developing job descriptions, reviewing applications, filling in where needed, orienting employees, arranging for training and skills improvement, clarifying roles, coaching, mentoring, and walking subordinates through a task (Dessler, 2010; Pinto and Trailer (1998).

A better understanding of what and how to motivate people contributes to better management/supervision. It will help managers to get the most out of those who work for them, and it is essential for achieving organisational objectives. Effective superior-subordinate relations are very significant for high employees' performance and should be established and perceived as positive and confident relationship between superior and subordinates (Gottschalg and Zollo, 2007; Herzberg et al., 1959; Nishii and Wright, 2007). Nonetheless such relations should adopt other characteristics such as superior's feedback to subordinates (Gilbert, 2013; Tosti and Jackson, 1997), and the ability to guide and counsel (Crawford, 2007; Pinto and Trailer, 1998).

Encouraging and assisting employees to put their ideas into action is a major step that will motivate them toward achieving work aims in a creative manner. Management should be encouraged and supported to view their role as colleagues to their subordinates, counselling and guiding them on a day-to-day basis. Conversely employees should be encouraged to communicate obstacles to management openly; the importance of good communication cannot be underestimated. Being a good communicator means much more than talking, it also means being a good listener (Crawford, 2007; Kondo, 1996; Pinto and Trailer, 1998)

Fairness and trust:

Fairness and trust are very dominant attributes in organisational literature (Boyd, 2004). Such characteristics are very influential with regard to employees' attitude and behaviour which would reflect on their performance. The importance of perceived fairness for personnel is indisputable. Thus, HRM and management in general should create an atmosphere or workplace climate of fairness and trust (Ambrose and Cropanzano, 2003; De Cremer, 2005). Effective managers and great bosses should possess the abilities of developing positive personal and management qualities e.g. fairness, resilience, pragmatism, practicality and instilling trust and confidence in their team which will motivate them to put in their best efforts at work (Schuler et al., 2001, Ulrich, 1998), ensuring that employees get appropriate rewards, recognition, favourable workers' compensation and incentives for their good performance; evaluating team members based on their performance and ability to work in a team; and knowing that praise should be done in public while criticisms should always be kept private. Such practice will drive out fear and build trust and confidence among organisational members. Maintaining positive healthy relations with and establishing trust amongst superiors, peers and subordinates is significant in enhancing job satisfaction and it will reflect strongly on individual performance (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Herzberg et al., 1959; Kernan and Hanges, 2002; Schuler et al., 2001; Sharbrough et al., 2006; Ulrich, 1998).

Many previous studies have argued that HRM practices can be classified into three categories: training e.g., training-oriented, skills improvement and development programmes, which affect employees’ skill and ability; Employees’ motivation, e.g. incentive compensation, rewards, promotions, etc; and structure of work, e.g. employees' empowerment, participation in decision making, evaluation. These practices are often referred to as ' high involvement or high performance work practices' (Delaney and

Huselid 1996; Guest 1997; Lawson and Hepp, 2001). HRM practices can be viewed as organisational competencies, because of their ability to influence employee behaviours, e.g. the ability to motivate and generate loyalty (Barney, 2010; Narasimha, 2000; Oinas and Van Gils, 2001). This means that human resources are dominant contributors to the success of an organisation, and that the use of a greater number of human resources practices would be manifested in and associated with better employees' and organisation performance.

Such HRM practices should enhance employee motivation and performance, and in return, these more motivated and better performing employees would contribute to improve overall organisation's performance (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Guest, 1999; Nishii and Wright, 2007). Based on the function and implementation of HRM practices, and according to Crook et al. (2008), human resources management is considered to be the most important means of improving job performance. Such practices are the basic functions of an organisation (Tsaur and Lin, 2004; Reid et al., 2002).

Furthermore Lee and Bruvold (2003) stated that investing in employee development is imperative and vital in maintaining and developing the skills, knowledge and abilities of both individual employees and the organisation as a whole. Human resources are considered as one group of key success factors in organisations (Barney et al., 2001; Dessler, 2010).

It is worth mentioning that according to Brown and Heywood (2005) performance appraisal is a management tool that is intended to improve employees' performance and productivity. It functions as a formalized process of worker monitoring and evaluation. They indicated that enhancing the performance appraisal by complementary HRM practices such as formal training programmes and incentive pay would result in greater influence on employees' performance and productivity. Thus, employee commitment,

performance and productivity can be improved by the implementation of a consistent performance appraisal system (Brown and Benson, 2003). Tessema and Soeters (2006) found a significantly positive relationship between promotion practices and perceived employee job performance. An extensive research conducted by Chand (2010) has proved a positive correlation between HRM practices and organisation, unit, department, and team performance. Furthermore a positive relationship was found between compensation practices and perceived employee job performance (Tessema and Soeters, 2006).

H5: Management and job performance are positively related.

Previous academic studies indicated that managers' expectations of employees' success, contingent reward behaviour, trust and transformational leadership are some of the dominant management factors which have high correlations with LMX (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Such correlations toward LMX reflect the strong positive influence of management on LMX, which means developing a strong LMX relationship can be affected by management more than by employees or subordinates (Dulebohn et al., 2012). From the aforementioned evidence, it becomes obvious that management has a strong positive influence on LMX.

Findings of a meta-analysis regarding employees forming high-quality relationship status with their manager or leader and engagement in more supportive, helping behaviours and commitment at work revealed a moderately strong positive relationship (Ilies et al., 2007). Other evidence suggests that members with a high-quality relationship status assume greater job responsibility, contribute more to the organisation, and attain higher performance grades or ratings than those members with a low-quality relationship with the leaders (Chen et al., 2007; Schreisheim et al., 1998).

These positive research findings for high-quality relationship members are expected, considering our knowledge that leaders invest more resources in those they expect to

perform well and treat them differently than they do the low-quality relationship members (Ilies et al., 2007). Moreover, leaders believe that high-quality relationship members are the most competent, skillful and loyal therefore; they treat them as reliable and valuable employees (George and Jones, 2012).

LMX theory has reflected some significant implication related to the quality of the relationship between the leader and each group member, which have important job consequences. Specifically, findings supporting the LMX theory indicate that subordinates who developed high-quality relationship status with their leaders will have improved motivation, higher performance level and engage in more supportive and cooperative behaviours at work (Ilies et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2007). This reflects that, as management is a key provider of job resources, management has a positive influence on LMX, which is examined in testing this hypothsis.

H6: Management and LMX are positively related.

3.5.4. Work environment

Workplace climate can be generally defined as individuals' perceptions of their workplace environment. It can be measured via individual employees' harmony with their workplace environment (Moghimi and Subramaniam, 2013). It is important that the workplace environment should be perceived as interesting, just, healthy, motivating and satisfying for individuals. Personnel behaviours do not occur in a vacuum, but in a specific and unique work environment (Choudhury, 2011; Dawis, 1994; Giles, 2010). Workplace climate concerns how the environment meets employees' needs, desires and preferences. Needs and desires are matters that are necessary for employees to perform well. Preferences are issues that cause happiness and satisfaction, things that personnel would like to have if they had the choice, but are not necessarily needed to perform a

task. Workplace climate represents how the employees feel about the atmosphere of the organisation (Choudhury, 2011; Giles, 2010).

Workplace climate:

It is well known that variables such as justice, trust, friendly workplace environment impact employee behaviour and performance (Ahmad et al., 2012; Bellou and Andronikidis, 2009; Dickson et al., 2006; Zhang and Liu, 2010; Roca et al., 2006; Kyriakidou and Ozbilgin, 2004; Niles and Harris-Bowlsbey, 2013). Below average or below expectations employee performance is often the result of psychological problems that are characteristic of a mismatch between an employee and the work environment, providing that physical workplace conditions are fulfilled, employees have what they need to perform their duties, including for example tools and equipment (Lubinsky and Benbow, 2000). Recent research has, however, brought to attention the employees' physical, human, and psychological needs (Brunia and Hartjes-Gosselink, 2009; Oseland, 2009). Individuals cannot perform to their maximum potential if basic physical and/or psychological needs such as comfort, sense of belonging, safety, and security are not satisfied (Oseland, 2009). A healthy work environment will have a positive impact on employees' motivation, satisfaction and performance (Giles, 2010; Newman, 1997). "Employee satisfaction refers to the degree to which the working environment meets the wishes and the needs of the employees" (Voordt, 2004:139).

Employee-organisation fit:

A constructive work environment can be characterised by a person-organisation fit or match (Sims and Keon, 1997), superior-subordinate relations, relations with colleagues, and teamwork (Dickson et al., 2006; Roca et al., 2006), satisfaction with working conditions (Cooper and Dewe, 2004; Herzberg et al., 1959), and open communication

(Den Hartog et al., 2013; Giri and Kumar, 2010). An open flow of communication is known to assist employees in accomplishing their duties (Giunipero and Vogt, 1997). Personnel placed in work environments that "fit" are more likely to be intrinsically motivated, enjoy their work, and perform well and conversely for those placed in work environments that do not "fit". For these employees, normal daily work occurrences may be unpleasant and interpreted more negatively, thus resulting in negative outcomes such as boredom, lack of satisfaction, and poor work performance (Lubinsky and Benbow, 2000).

Relations with colleagues & team:

An enhanced working environment would include constructive interpersonal relationship, stronger teamwork, leadership and personnel communication skills, which will significantly reflect on personnel inspiration, greater quality consciousness among employees, and better job performance (Goh, 2000). According to Hasun and Makhbul (2005), over the last two decades, factors such as information technology, communication, social environment and flexible ways of organising work processes have made a great impact and caused transformation of the work environment factors. In keeping with the above argument, it was found that psychological climate or employees' perceptions and interpretations of their day-to-day workplace environment is a proximal contingent factor that has a considerable impact on employees' level of performance and productivity (Griffith, 2006; Perryer and Jordan, 2005; Tordera et al., 2008). Giri and Kumar (2007) also acknowledged in their investigation that organisational climate had a significant effect on job satisfaction and job performance. As knowledge regarding HRM increases, most organisations accept that employees are their most important assets and valuable resource. Thus employees' performance, productivity and well being are becoming even more crucial for organisations that want to achieve high profitability and

competitive advantage in today's knowledge intense business environment, and it is recognised that HRM makes a difference to organisations' performance and productivity (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Collins and Smith, 2006; Patterson et al., 1997).

H7: Work environment and job performance are positively related.

A positive ethical workplace climate was found to motivate and promote employee engagement and enhance employee-manager relationships (Ghoshal et al., 1999). According to Stansfield, et al. (1997) social interaction at work (in terms of relationships between coworkers as well as between employees and their superiors or supervisors) is becoming increasingly a significant issue for most organistions. A workplace environment with high social support was found to notably lower levels of psychiatric disturbance and absenteeism. In this domain, evidence supporting the influence of organisational climate on a variety of organisational variables, e.g. turnover intention, work efficacy, LMX and organisation effectiveness was found by a number of previous researchers (Dean 2004; Hemingway and Smith 1999; Mulki et al., 2006; Ryan et al., 1996; Zhang and Liu, 2010). In their team-level investigation, Cogliser and Schriesheim (2000) found that LMX was positively related to workplace climate, which they defined as a perception of less conflict and more cooperation within work units. Paglis and Green (2002) found that when both parties in a dyad relationship reported high-quality LMX status, there would be more job interaction and harmony. They noticed that in such dyadic relationships, there is more frequent or effective communication, and therefore fewer misinterpretations and less misunderstanding.

According to Sparrowe and Liden (1997, 2005) and Cole et al., (2002) interpersonal relationships between leaders or supervisors and subordinates, also among coworkers embody or constitute an interconnected social system that operates in teams and organisations. They argue that LMX is not only influenced by workplace environment,

but may also influence other exchange relationships within the organisation as a whole. In line with the aforementioned facts, Berman et al. (2002) revealed that in the workplace climate, friendship nourishes high-quality relationships because team members can trust and value each other, share interests, and view the emotional and instrumental support as valuable means of growth and dependence. Such a relationship serves as a motivational force to engage in high-quality LMX relationship development because team members see each other as friends rather than formal colleagues at work. Evidence supporting this claim can be found in the empirical study conducted by Morrison (2004) who found that workplace friendship accounted for substantial variance in team cohesion. Based on this, it was noticed that workplace friendship may be a necessary condition for high-quality LMX, and it works as a conduction tool to form such high-quality relationships. Nonetheless formal and informal networks of communication are an integrated part of workplace climate. Thus, communication formalization ought to be encouraged and promoted; according to Maurer et al. (2002) communication formalization can provide more friendship opportunity and could lead to closer and better relationships between superior and subordinate.

H8: Work environment and LMX are positively related.

In relation to LMX, high levels of superior-subordinate social exchange, through the use of motivating language and key job resources were found to have a positive impact on employee performance as well as employee productivity (Avery, 2004; Cogliser et al., 2009; Griffith, 2006; Mayfield et al., 1998). In addition, workplace friendship and a friendly environment were found to create a more supportive and innovative climate within the organisation, which would lead to increased productivity and goal achievement (Berman et al, 2002; Ellingwood, 2001).

According to the LMX theory, leaders or managers often engage in continuous role-making processes and resource exchanges with their subordinates. In organisations, the superior or manager is a key factor in determining organisational effectiveness and providing key job resources, e.g. job-related information, communication, performance feedback, training which were found to be motivating factors that lead to employees' high job performance (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007).

Given that the accumulation of job resources is one of the prime human motivations (Hobfoll, 2001), recent studies showed that the quality of superior–subordinate relationships, in particular leader–member exchange, had a strong relationship to important work outcomes (Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri 2012). In this context, other evidence indicated that LMX has a substantially positive influence on employees' task performance and helping behaviours (Cogliser et al., 2009; Gerstner and Day, 1997). The quality of the relationship between an employee and his manager was a dominant influential factor in enhancing employee performance (Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri 2012). Furthermore job resources availability was found to activate and trigger the motivational potential of the employees to perform extra-role behaviours (Bakker et al., 2004). Employees possessing job resources, e.g. work-related information, autonomy, manager support and growth opportunities, tend to walk the extra mile beyond their job requirement roles and engage in pro-organisational duties or activities. As mentioned previously, high-quality relationship subordinates perceive more emotional support and developmental resources offered by their supervisor. Their high-quality relationship with the leader may establish reciprocity rules or resources exchange, e.g. any extra effort they make is further rewarded (Bakker et al., 2004).

Employees are aware of the differential LMX quality relationships in their workplace environments and are likely to compare themselves with other group members in this

regard (Lam and Huang, 2012). Another study conducted by Naidoo et al. (2011) indicated the positive effects of LMX differentiation on employees' work outcomes, e.g. it was found that LMX differentiation was positively related to job performance. Consistent with previous studies that revealed a positive relationship between LMX and subordinates' work performance (Gerstner and Day, 1997), other meta- analyses of LMX effect found that LMX quality is positively related to work attitudes and behaviours, e.g. organisational commitment, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviours (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007). According to Liden et al. (2006) LMX differentiation was positively related to group performance, even for groups with a low-quality relationship.

According to Gerstner and Day (1997) in a high-quality relationship, subordinates experience less role conflict, and receive more emotional support and direction in their daily job performance compared to their colleagues. They are assigned more challenging job duties and given greater latitude of decision-making responsibility (Liden et al., 2000), which enables them to climb the advancement or career ladder faster than others (Sparrowe and Liden, 2005; Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994). In a high quality relationship, both members engage in a social exchange relationship which is characterised by trust, respect, and mutual obligations. They benefit from the dyadic relationship and reciprocate by fulfilling each other's expectations. Presumably, employees who have a high-quality relationship with their superiors or supervisors can obtain abundant resources and support from their superiors (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007). On the other hand, subordinates with a low quality relationship are likely to be assigned routine or mundane duties to work on as a daily schedule. Thus, they perform fundamentally according to the book or the work contract and do what is required by the formal job descriptions (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). They receive less

superior's support, less reward and obtain fewer career or advancement opportunities (Bolino and Turnley, 2009).

H9: LMX and job performance positively related.

3.6. Mediator: Leader Member Exchange (LMX7)

In this study LMX7 (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995) was considered as a mediator variable between motivation as an independent variable and job performance as a dependent variable. LMX theory makes the dyadic relationship between leaders and subordinates the focal point of the leadership process (Northouse, 2010). LMX has been defined as the quality of the relationship between a superior and a subordinate. It is the relationship between a leader or superior and an employee that develops as a result of work-related exchanges. Such a relationship can be characterized as a high quality or in-group relationship i.e. reflecting trust, respect, high reward, and loyalty, or a low quality or out-group relationship i.e. reflecting formal reciprocal trust, respect, loyalty, support, and few rewards (Morrow et al., 2005). The nature of LMX impacts subordinate outcomes, e.g. job satisfaction, supervisory ratings of job performance (Murphy and Ensher, 1999). Also there has been strong empirical support for LMX and work outcomes, including job performance (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Wang et al., 2005), leader evaluations of job performance, employees' promotions (Wakabayashi et al., 1988), organisational commitment (Gerstner and Day, 1997), unrestricted behaviours, or behaviours that go beyond formal task requirements (Ilies et al., 2007). Leadership behaviour including communication, feedback delivery, and fair treatment has been shown to have influence on employees' job performance (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Hung et al., 2004; Ilies et al., 2007), also on employee well-being (Van Dierendonck et al., 2004). Thus it is expected that LMX differentiation may affect employee reactions due to the relative advantage afforded to in-group employees, and involve more tangible and

intangible resources being exchanged within the leader–employee dyad, but not to out-group employees (Yukl, 2012; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Thus, the nature or quality of the LMX relationship has a distinctive impact on the subordinate outcomes, e.g. organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance (Deluga, 1998; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Hung et al., 2004; Ilies et al., 2007). LMX has been shown to be positively related to task performance (Campbell and Swift, 2006; Chen et al., 2007; Lam et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2007; Vecchio and Brazil, 2007; Wakabayashi et al., 2005). According to Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri (2012) the quality of the relationship between an employee and his/her manager is particularly an influential factor in enhancing employee performance. LMX theory offers a mechanism to gauge or assess the quality of the relationship rooted in the day-to-day exchanges between a manager and employee that shape the nature of their relationship (Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri 2012). It could strongly influence employees' loyalty, commitment, job performance and professional respect (Deluga, 1998; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Hung et al., 2004; Ilies et al., 2007; Liden and Maslyn, 1998), information and support (Yrle et al., 2002), performance appraisals and career advancement (Chen et al., 2007; Schreisheim et al., 1998). Several authors highlighted that inequalities in reward distribution may negatively affect the work environment and team members' relations (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden et al., 1997; Yukl, 2012).

H 10: LMX will mediate the relationship between motivation and job performance.

3.7. Dependent Variable: Job Performance

The job performance construct consists of four dimensions as mentioned earlier. Each dimension consists of two sub dimensions. The positive influences of the relationships

between the independent and mediator on the dependant construct job performance will be investigated based on the conceptual framework relationships as aforementioned. In industrial and organisational psychology job performance is an important dependent variable (Borman, 2004). It is a multidimensional construct (Griffin et al., 2007), which can be measured differently depending on a variety of factors (Armstrong, 2006). For example, productivity is one of the job performance measures (Borman, 2004).

3.7.1. Duties and responsibilities

Different job responsibilities and designs provide higher levels of employee control and also provide increased opportunities for the development and exercise of skill (Morrison et al., 2005).

Clarity of systems and standards:

Clarity of roles, systems and standards is the first sub dimension of DR. Determining job duties and responsibilities will demand a job analysis. This will require headquarters, departments, sectors, etc to identify and acknowledge individuals' job duties and responsibilities. These responsibilities will identify where the employee is expected to spend time, exert energy, talent and other resources during the estimated period of performance. At the time the description of duties and responsibilities is being compiled, some thought should be given as to how performance of each can be measured. In other words, what is the expected quality of performance? Perceived work demands, job control and social support through job responsibilities lead to high productivity (Love and Edwards, 2005). Rotating managers or superiors to different jobs adds the benefit of task variety, resulting in increased performance of employees. Superior-subordinate prior agreement ensures better cognition or perception and more commitment towards performance of duties and responsibilities. The level of job satisfaction and quality

performance is determined by a combination of knowledge, potential, and personal traits (Sokoya, 2000). Personnel empowerment, especially those who are at higher hierarchical level and holding a job with more autonomy and responsibilities, can have a higher potential to impact the system and work performance (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Waldman, 1994).

Clarity of Processes; process management and control are considered to be important in the management of quality. Managing processes effectively requires that these processes to be clear to employees and their superiors. Clarity of processes is operationalised here as the extent to which employees perceive standards, systems, roles and procedures in their workplace to be clear, which would reflect on performance (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004).

Self efficacy:

Self-efficacy can also be characterised as a function of an individual's beliefs about how he/she can accomplish a task or duty. It has an impact on an individual's thought patterns and behaviour. Self-efficacy is associated with perseverance and it will mostly lead to high job performance and productivity (Judge and Bono, 2001; Robbins et al., 2004). The implication of having clear standards is that employees will feel fair treatment by their manager and discrimination is removed in the organisation which would reflect positively on their confidence and self-efficacy. This also has a positive impact on employee satisfaction and motivation (Eyres, 1999). Moreover, it is expected that employees will perform their tasks very easily and hence improve their efficiency and effectiveness at work (self efficacy). Work methods and procedures are seen to be system factors that affect human performance in the workplace (Spitzer, 1999; Gilbert, 2013). Giving employees a strong sense of responsibility towards their work is a major step in motivating them toward achieving work aims in a creative manner (Judge and Bono,

2001; Kondo, 1996; Robbins et al., 2004). Therefore, it is important for organisation workforce management, managers, or supervisors to instill and develop the sense of success in their personnel, they feel that they can accomplish their duties and carry out the responsibilities, rather than a feeling that they cannot (Maurer and Tarulli, 1996; Maurer et al., 2002).

In this context, at the individual level, LMX is reported to be positively related to occupational self-efficacy, in other words, belief in the capacity to achieve success in the job (Schyns et al., 2005). Other empirical evidence indicated that LMX is related to self-efficacy at both the individual and dyad level (Gomez and Rosen, 2001). High-quality LMX relationships are characterised by empowering dimensions, e.g. respect, trust and mutual obligation (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). In turn, this may influence individuals' sense of self-efficacy.

3.7.2. Accomplishments and results

Individuals' performance is concerned with the tasks they carry out. Performance is referred to as “accomplishment”; it is the outcomes of behaviour and achievement (Gilbert, 2013). A comprehensive definition of performance is that it should be achieved by implementing both behaviour and outcomes (Armstrong, 2000).

Capacity to perform:

Employees' training and development have been considered to be indispensable components of strategic human resource management. Organisational personnel who perform their designated parts of a core process contribute to the work of others and to the organisation as a whole. Capacity building to perform in its broad sense refers to improvement in the ability of employees to perform appropriate tasks and duties within

the broader set of performance standards of the organisation (Enemark and Williamson, 2004; Fullan, 2007). Human capacity to perform is characterised in terms of self-efficacy (Locke, 1996; Kondo, 1996), cognitive ability, knowledge and skills (Gilbert, 2013). Organisations should ensure that there is a match between individual skills and the requirements of the job. Employees must have the required aptitudes, verbal skills, manual dexterity, cognitive ability, and so on, to perform in an acceptable manner (Gilbert, 2013). Individuals' performance evaluation should have as its primary goal the development of the individual and objectives or results-oriented system are often considered the best strategy for employees' accomplishments (Marchington and Wilkinson, 2000). "People's level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively true" (Bandura, 1997:2). Rummler and Brache (2012) pointed out five components in their human performance system that would affect employees' performance: the individual, inputs, outputs, consequences and feedback. The performer should have the appropriate skills, knowledge and capacity or ability to process the inputs given to him/her and convert them into desired outputs, which would result in accomplishment and consequences that are aligned to support the performer into producing the desired performance or outputs. The outputs and consequences are transmitted back to the employee as feedback, so the employee would know if the desired output is achieved or not, and if not, how it should be accomplished.

Sufficiency of systems and standards:

Nonetheless there are internal and external elements that would affect individual performance. Internal elements include knowledge, skills, attitude, and personal traits, whereas the external ones are expectations, work methods and procedures, measurements, tools, resources and feedback (Spitzer, 1999). Employees' self-esteem and confidence in their ability to accomplish the work affects their performance.

Considering the alignment of personnel and organisational performance is considerably significant, it can be achieved by defining, designing, and managing the levels of performance for both parties, individuals and organisation (Rummler and Brache, 2012). Organisations should provide inputs to their personnel in terms of what results the employees are expected to accomplish in their jobs as well as the organisational culture, which identifies how personnel at all levels should interact and communicate respectfully with one another and perform their duties and responsibilities within the organisation (Maurer and Tarulli, 1996; Maurer et al., 2002). Personnel ought to utilize the organisational inputs along with their knowledge, skills, and attitudes in job related behaviours to accomplish the desired performance in terms of outcomes or results desired by the organisation (Fuller and Farrington, 1999).

3.7.3. Skills, Knowledge and competencies and behaviour

To improve employees' job performance, the skills and behaviours learned and practised during training have to be transferred to the workplace, maintained over time, and generalised across contexts. Investments in training and development of employees can make them more productive or more effective in performing their jobs (Holton and Baldwin, 2003; Holton et al., 2003).

Training and development opportunities:

Management learning and management development involve developing analytical skills in academic disciplines relevant to personnel job description and requirements, taking into consideration personal knowledge, qualifications and skills. Thus it has a wider scope in the sense that the learning and development processes are more pervasive human processes than employees' management in large organisations (Fox, 1997). Establishing and implementing system activities that are oriented toward continuous

personnel training and development is very important. Personnel development programmes should provide individuals with the necessary knowledge and skills required to perform their jobs successfully. Even a moderately effective training programme can have a substantial effect (Collins and Holton, 2004). Jobs' required knowledge and skills are acknowledged to be ever changing at increasing rates. Thus, in addition to transmission of knowledge, training is also a process of updating, revision and systematisation of personnel's knowledge, skills and abilities (Easterby-Smith, 1995).

Employees' training and development falls under the HRD function, which has been argued to be an important function of HRM, that focuses on improving employees' capacity to perform, self-awareness, removing managerial deficiencies and increasing individuals' competencies in one or more areas of expertise (Pynes, 2013; Weil and Woodall 2005). Training and skills development were found by many researchers (e.g. Blandy et al., 2000; Campbell, 2006; Hansen, 1999; Gupta and Govindarajan, 2000; Lane et al., 2001; Lyles and Salk, 2007; Minbaeva, 2005; Vyas, 2010) to improve employees' flexibility, eagerness to work and performance. Nonetheless training and development programmes should be based on job requirements that are identified by the training needs analysis (Forrest and Peterson, 2006; Watad and Ospina, 1999). Reasonable job satisfaction and high performance are found to be significantly affected by job dimensions such as skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and performance feedback. Opportunities for training and development should be available for all oranisation's employees (Dechawatanapaisal and Siengthai, 2006). Knowledge and skills are some of the substantial factors that affect job performance. Obtaining the required knowledge and skills will reflect on enhanced performance capacity. Thus job-related competencies can best be retained over time by continuous human resource

development (Fuller and Farrington, 1999; Gilbert, 2013; Rosenberg et al, 1999; Rummler and Brache, 2012; Spitzer, 1999).

Task requirement:

Information and data availability is considered as a critical factor that influences human performance in the workplace (Fuller and Farrington, 1999; Gilbert, 2013; Rosenberg et al., 1999; Stolovitch and Keeps, 1999). Organisations' investment in improving employees' knowledge and skills will be returned in the form of improved employees' capabilities, effective performance, and high employee and organisation productivity (Watad and Ospina, 1999).

While skills and knowledge refer to the employees' ability in undertaking and performing practical tasks, personnel feel more efficient and confident in performing their tasks when the data needed is available, so it also raises the issue of how the data needed to perform a particular task is collected and interpreted (Armstrong and Appelbaum, 2003). Personnel of business organisations should commonly receive training and developmental courses related to performing specific job tasks. Job specific training has long been credited for being able to increase capabilities of employees' performance (Arthur et al., 2003).

3.7.4. Communication and Feedback

In our contemporary era communication and feedback are significantly important; an efficient method of communication between superior and subordinate that provides developmental feedback offers and allows employees greater potential for growth and advancement, thereby contributing to organisation performance. The communication flow or loop ought to be consistent, clear, complete and accurate to be effective (Chiang et al., 2008). Communication is the basis of organisational activities (Cooren, 2006;

Mumby and Ashcraft, 2006). As a manager or employees' leader or supervisor, opening the means or medium of communication will make employees feel more comfortable (Den Hartog et al., 2013).

Relations and Supervision practices:

Providing feedback to employees is believed to be essential for maintaining and increasing employee motivation and satisfaction (Northcraft et al., 2011; Steelman et al., 2004). Communication and feedback environment can be acknowledged as "the contextual aspects of day-to-day supervisor–subordinate and coworker–coworker feedback processes rather than to the formal appraisal feedback session" (Steelman et al., 2004:166). In addition to tangible benefits such as personnel pay and promotion potential, sufficient and efficient feedback would also afford employees a greater opportunity for psychological success or the feeling that they are successful at what they do, which will be reflected in a strong organisational commitment (Swanepoel et al., 2009). More recent conceptualisations of the feedback environment have abandoned traditional means of feedback and have put more emphasis on the development of an organisational environment that is supportive of feedback interactions and processes in an organisation (Levy and Williams, 2004; London, 2003; McCarthy and Caravan, 2001; Northcraft et al., 2011; Smither and London, 2003).

Evaluation:

The substantial importance of superior-subordinate feedback, i.e., giving them information about how their performance is evaluated and its effect on job performance and job satisfaction has been well documented (Leung et al., 2001; Spitzer, 1999; Wiley, 1997; Yukl, 2012). Fort and Voltero (2004) outlined five key factors believed to influence employees' performance and outcomes: job expectations, performance feedback, environment and tools, motivation and incentives, qualifications, knowledge,

and skills. Superior-subordinate performance feedback represents a strong means and guidance to better performance. Researchers have found communication skills and job performance feedback to enhance performance (Rummler and Brache, 2012; Steelman et al., 2004).

Feedback is classified into internal and external feedback; internal feedback is about personnel's performance, team performance, or processes, whereas external feedback is concerned about clients and external sources (Brethower, 1995). Follow-up and feedback are significantly important regarding performance improvement interventions (Steelman et al., 2004). Researchers have suggested that changes and enhancement of the organisational communication system would ensure proper feedback on performance and it has been shown to enhance employees' outcomes (e.g. Andrews and Kacmar, 2001; Goris et al., 2000).

Moreover, the significant impact of the feedback on task performance has been indicated by Stajkovic and Luthans (2003). Feedback is an important component for performance management, which has been found to moderate the difficulty-performance relationship. Thus, management and superior-subordinate's frequent and timely feedback on the adequacy of performance is very essential (Fedor et al., 2001; Tosti and Jackson, 1997). Leader-subordinate feedback was acknowledged as a developmental instrument to help employees learn and develop. Leader-subordinate feedback to enhance performance gains remains important (De Stobbeleir et al., 2011; Northcraft et al., 2011). Therefore, performance feedback plays an important role in numerous organisational activities, such as career development and advancement, personnel and organisational performance (McCarthy and Caravan, 2001). Some previous studies (e.g. Huang, 2012; Lam et al., 2007; Whitaker and Levy, 2012) have disclosed a strong relationship between feedback and employees' job performance.

Referring to Herzberg's two-factor and Adams' equity theories and LMX, it can be acknowledged that all the mentioned variables or constructs are very closely linked and associated with the theories, due to their dominance in the motivation, behaviour and job performance fields. Moreover, they were supported by previous studies in the related fields. For example, a distinction can be established between needs and preferences and their contribution to employees' satisfaction and job performance. If an employee is placed in a workplace environments that "fits", he/she is more likely to be intrinsically motivated, satisfied, and performing well. On the other hand when an employee is placed in a workplace environment that does not "fit", her/his normal daily work occurrences may be unpleasant and interpreted more negatively, thus resulting in negative outcomes such as boredom, poor work performance, and lack of satisfaction (Lubinsky and Benbow, 2000). This very much matches Herzberg's two-factor theory.

3.8. Conclusion

This chapter started with the independent and dependent variables, moving on to the development of the conceptual framework with the theoretical background, i.e. Herzberg's motivators-hygiene (intrinsic-extrinsic) theory and Adams' Equity theory, then to the mediation variable represented by the LMX7. Next, the hypotheses were introduced. Each construct of the independent variable was identified (pay and benefits, job security, management, and work environment), as were those of the dependent job performance construct represented by four dimensions (duties and responsibilities, accomplishments and results, skills and knowledge, and communication and feedback) and sub dimensions. The next chapter will explain the research methodology.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

4.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on methodological issues and approaches. It outlines the methodology that was employed to achieve the aim of this study. The research design for this study includes the research philosophy describing different assumptions of research paradigm, and the research methodology. The chapter explores the research approach followed by the research strategy, the choice between mono- and mixed methods, and time horizon. It introduces the research population and sample. The research instrument (a questionnaire) is introduced, with discussion of its design, questionnaire development and structure, including translation issues. The data collection process is outlined, followed by discussion of validity and reliability, statistical data analysis methods, and ethical issues.

4.2. Research Design

A research design is a detailed outline of how a research or study investigation will take place. It refers to the overall strategy chosen to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way. Thus it should ensure that the researcher will effectively address the research problem, how data will be collected, what instruments will be employed, how the instruments will be used, and the intended means for analysing the collected data. Therefore the research problem determines the type of design that can be used (Creswell, 2013; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2014). A research design provides general guidelines for the data gathering and analysis of a study (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2014). Figure 4.1 outlines the research design for this study to assist in examining and explaining motivation, LMX, and their effect on employees' job performance.

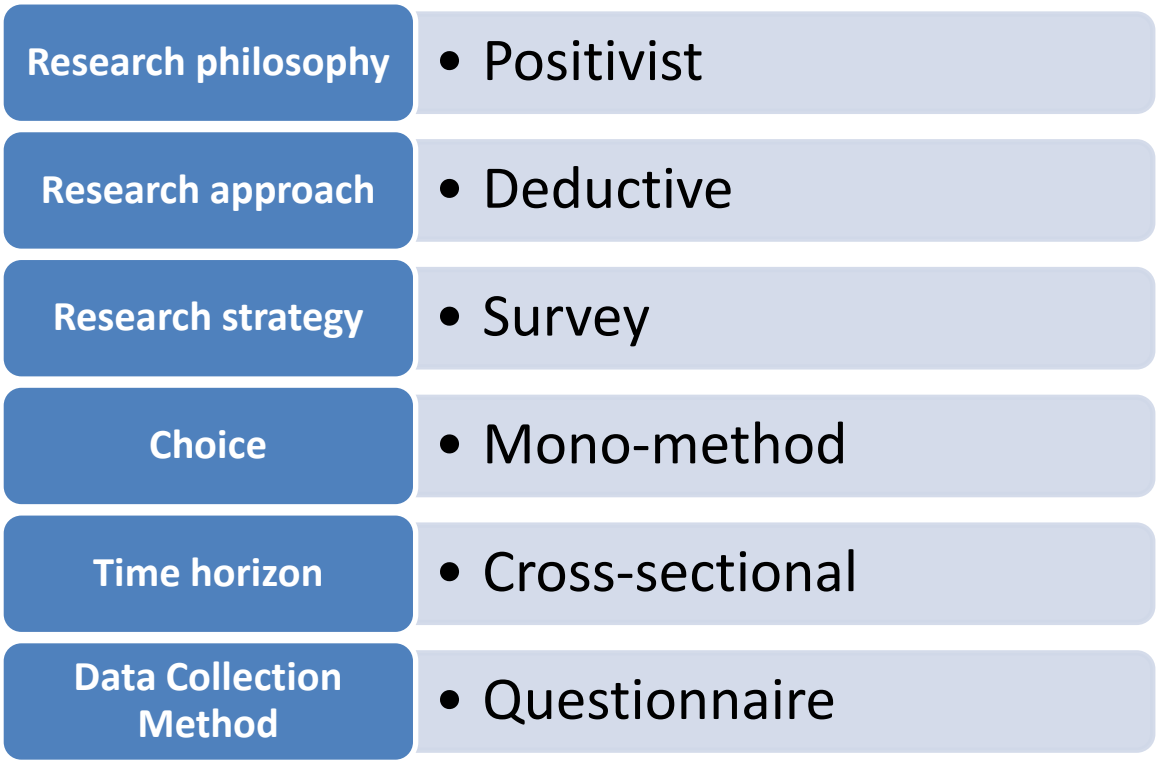

Figure 4.1 Choices of the research methodology process,
adapted from Saunders et al. (2009)

4.3. Research philosophy

The way research is carried out depends on underpinning philosophical assumptions with their roots in metaphysics as explained in p.30 in regard to Metaphysics, Ontology and Epistemology “The research philosophy you adopt contains important assumptions about the way in which you view the world. These assumptions will underpin your research strategy and the method you choose". Thus, "The philosophy you adopt will be influenced by practical considerations” (Saunders et al., 2009:108).

Also important in influencing research conduct is axiology, the science of moral choice, of fundamental values. The axiological assumption is related to the ontological assumption (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Creswell, 2013; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). It is an assumption that explores the researcher’s values and the roles adopted towards the research type, methods, and results (Heron, 1996). Axiology is divided into two main

perspectives, the value-involvement and value-free perspectives. The former reflects the involvement of the researcher's values in the research and interpretation of the results, and it is compatible with the subjectivist and interpretivist point of view, as subjectivism is highly characterised by the involvement of the researcher's values in the research process. In contrast, the value-free perspective means that the researcher's values are not involved in the research process and interpretation of the results, and it matches the objectivist and positivist point of view (Saunders et al., 2012).

4.4. Selection of Research Paradigm (Philosophy)

A research can be based on a philosophy of positivism or phenomenology (interpretivism). Some authors prefer to use the term interpretivist rather than phenomenological, because it suggests a broader philosophical perspective and prevents confusion with the methodology known as phenomenology (Collis and Hussey, 2013). The positivist philosophy assumes that science is objective and emphasizes replicable procedures, rigorous measurement, and hypothesis testing. Positivism is regarded as a one-way mirror of inquiry in which researcher and researched object are presumed to be independent entities; in other words there is no influence from either side (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Positivism refers to the assumption that all phenomena, whether physical, natural, social, or psychological, exhibit persistent rhythms or regularities that can be studied. It belongs to the school of thought that predominantly advocates value-free (i.e., objective) natural sciences methods to study social reality and beyond (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Positivism refers to a set of epistemological perspectives and philosophies of science which hold that the scientific method is the best approach to uncovering the processes by which both physical and human events occur. According to logical positivism, there are only two sources of knowledge: logical reasoning and empirical experience (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). The basic concept of positivism is

that the social world exists externally. Therefore, its properties should be examined and measured through objective methods, rather than being inferred subjectively through reflection, sensation, or intuition. Positivism's advocates believe that scientific research starts with hypotheses, to be tested to prove if they are supported or not. This is known as the hypothetic-deductive model (Collis and Hussey, 2013).

Positivism looks at the institutions in society at macro level. Positivists are concerned that sociology is scientific and analyse social facts. They presume that social facts affect individuals' behaviour and can be easily measured. These factors are external, for example, laws and rules. Positivist researchers look for what has caused a particular relationship or phenomenon and what are the effects of this relationship or phenomenon. They favour quantitative data which can be easily turned into numbers and statistics. Hence, they prefer using official statistics, structured interviews and questionnaires with closed-ended questions. The theory and practice correlation in the positivist philosophy is mostly technical. Positivists generally believe that scientific inquiry is value-free and that researchers are neutral observers of phenomena. In general, positivists believe in the empirical testability of theories and that data provide objective independent benchmarks for examining theories; measurement procedures have no influence over what is being measured (Creswell, 2013).

Positivism remains the dominant paradigm in business research, as it does in other social science fields, especially as small qualitative studies are not generalizable in the traditional sense, and in order to guide the research in a particular course, the selection of the positivist approach ought to be based on the nature of the problem addressed and previous literature in a similar domain. Methodologically the positivist approach endeavours to examine reasoning using a deductive process (Hirschheim and Klein, 1992). The following outline briefly illustrates its characteristics: A) the formulation of

hypotheses, models, or assumptions of causal relationship among constructs; B) the probable use of quantitative methods to test relationships; C) the researcher's value-free interpretation objective (Chen and Hirschheim, 2004).

In contrast, advocates of the phenomenological or interpretivist paradigm refer to the way in which we as humans make sense of the world around us (Saunders et al., 2012). The interpretive notion contends that science is an ongoing social process and that the full epistemic understanding of scientific theories can only be achieved through observation of the dynamics of theory development. Nonetheless the interpretive philosophy is based on the belief that science is subjective and therefore allows alternative models of reality. It emphasizes the creative aspects of science, and it is in many ways the polar opposite of the positivist philosophy (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). While the positivist model dismisses factors such as social interaction and influence among researchers, the idiosyncrasies of individual researchers, and the researcher's subjective interpretations considers them as being irrelevant to the research process, the interpretive perspective emphasizes the importance of such factors for an understanding of how scientific knowledge develops.

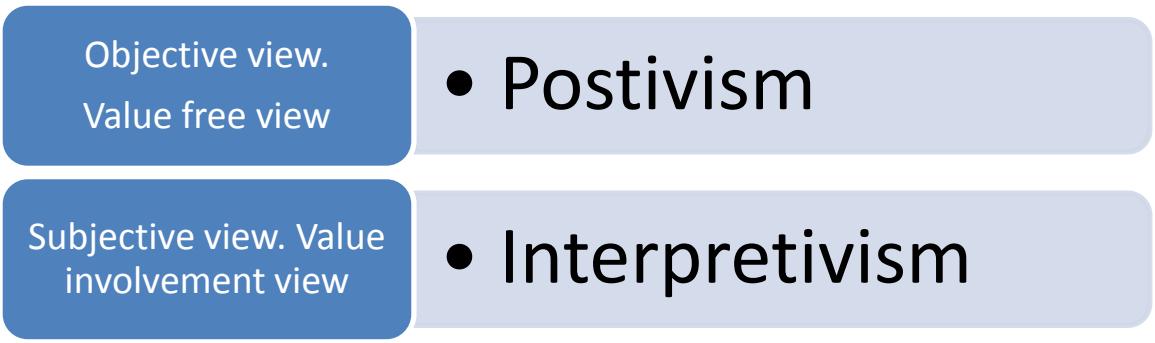

Figure 4.2 Types of Research Paradigm (Philosophy)

The positivist approach has the advantage of clearly distinguishing objective and subjective data interpretation (McKensie et al., 1997). This paradigm enables social

phenomena to be scientifically observed and measured, and it is claimed that the collected data has the merit of reliability; moreover the collected data and statistical results produced by such an approach have been characterised as unbiased or value-free. Since the author aims to produce reliable, objective and value-free manner of data interpretation, the positivist paradigm is appropriate and was adopted. According to Collis and Hussey (2009:73) "a paradigm is more than just a philosophical framework; it also guides how research should be conducted".

As a factor in the choice of paradigm, it is worth mentioning different types of research which can be used depending on the nature and purpose of the research. Exploratory research is preferred when new dimensions are required for exploration. It intends to collect information to explain the dimensions of difficult or unclear problems. It requires clarity and ease of analysis too. Descriptive research is suitable in situations when certain characteristics of the research need to be described. It characterises individual perspectives and people's opinions to determine differences between them in needs and attitudes. Hypothesis testing, also known as explanatory research, aims to investigate, measure, and explain the corrolational relationships between the independent and dependent variables' hypotheses (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Becker et al., 2012).

Therefore after choosing the paradigm the researcher ought to identify the appropriate type of research based on the purpose or rationality of the study. It was appropriate to use a hypothesis testing (explanatory) type of research, as this study will measure and explain the relationship between the important factors of the independent, mediator, and dependent variables (Figure 3.1) to illustrate GACA's employees' opinions, attitudes and perceptions, and reflect and explain their behaviour towards the utilized motivation system, LMX which will consequently affect job performance. Choosing the proper type of research according to its purpose or function makes it easy to understand how the

selection of the research method is affected by the nature and rationale of the problem (Zikmund et al., 2012). However, the selected research paradigm and research type should be manifested into an appropriate research methodology for achieving the research objectives. The following paragraphs discuss the types of research methodology.

This is an explanatory study to investigate, measure, and explain the influence of the motivation system utilised in GACA, LMX and their effect on GACA's employees' behaviour and job performance level. The ultimate aim is to improve employees' performance level, which is assumed to be influenced by the motivation programme, HRD, LMX, and work environment. It draws on some existing, well established, and tested theories, i.e. Herzberg's motivators-hygiene (intrinsic-extrinsic) theory, Adams' Equity theory, and LMX, which are widely applied to organisations to explain the corrolational links between employees' motivation, LMX, and job performance. Therefore the positivistic paradigm was adopted and employed to examine the previous mentioned theories, to propose the fundamentals for enhancing the motivation programme to contribute to better job performance (Bryman and Bell, 2011). It has been said that "a theory is a set of interrelated variables, definitions and propositions that present a systemic view of phenomena by specifying relationships among variables with the purpose of explaining natural phenomena"(Collis and Hussey, 2003:53).

4.4.1. Type of investigation: Correlational study

Hypothesis testing investigations are mostly categorised into causal or correlational study (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Causal investigation is to examine the best or most appropriate cause and effect relationship or impact of one variable directly or indirectly over another. In addition the role of the researcher (interverance) in causal studies is considered to be higher, meaning the researcher can make some changes or manipulation

in one or more variable(s) to see the effect on the other variable(s). In contrast, the purpose of a correlational investigation is to identify important relationships between variables (constructs) associated with certain problems of domain (Bordens and Abbott, 2013; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). This means to investigate whether an increase or decrease in one variable corresponds to an increase or decrease in the other variable. Furthermore, in a correlational study the researcher has no or minimal interference in the phenomenon, meaning the research is conducted in a natural setting of the phenomenon (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Correlational study results are divided into three types: positive correlation, when an increase in one variable leads to an increase in the other and a decrease in one leads to a decrease in the other; negative correlation, when an increase in one variable leads to a decrease in another and vice versa, and no correlation: which occurs when there is no correlation between two variables, meaning a change in one does not lead to a change in the other (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013).

This study was designed to investigate and explain the association and influence between motivation (independent variables), LMX (mediating variable), and job performance (dependent variables), based on theoretical context (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Collis and Hussey, 2013; Neuman, 2014; Punch, 2014). In addition this study sought to measure the significance of the hypothetical relationships between the constructs presented in the conceptual framework (Figure 3.2) by employing a variety of parametric tests, i.e. correlation, regression, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Structural Equation Modeling using Partial Least Square PLS-SEM. The researcher has no interference in the natural setting of the phenomenon. Therefore such an investigation is a correlational investigation, which examines and measures relationships between different variables.

4.5. Research Approach

A research approach focuses on how the research project will interact with the use of theory or theories (Collis and Hussey, 2013; Creswell, 2013; Saunders et al., 2012). A review of the literature identifies two main research approaches, deductive and inductive; therefore a decision must also be taken whether to apply a deductive or an inductive research approach or technique. The inductive approach is usually described as moving from the specific to the general. Thus, discussions based on experience or observations are best expressed inductively, beginning with observation and cases, and progressing to theory. According to Collis and Hussey (2003:15) inductive research is "the study, in which theory is developed from the observation of empirical reality". In this approach, the researcher collects the primary data through interviews or other means of observation and after data analysis the researcher presumably will be able to initially build a theory; it is a theory developing approach. Qualitative strategy uses methods to derive hypotheses and develop theories by emphasising description and understanding the situations behind the factors (Creswell, 2013; Klein and Myers, 1999). Qualitative studies tend to be associated with the inductive approach due to its flexibility, where the researcher can interact and engage with the respondents and discuss with them issues that are of importance to the researcher, the organisation, or the society, for the researcher to investigate and interpret them for the rationale of research results. The inductive approach is more flexible than the deductive approach due to the latter's characteristic of employing rigid methodology that would not allow alternative explanations or interpretations to the phenomena (Saunders et al., 2012).

In contrast, the deductive approach is known as testing a theory. A deductive research approach allows the researcher to establish a hypothesis by using theory or theories. A variety of data and information is collected by the researcher to confirm or reject the

hypothesis to resolve the research issue (Gill and Johnson, 2010). Deductive research begins with the general and ends with the specific; therefore arguments based on laws, rules, or other widely accepted principles are best expressed deductively. The deductive approach has been defined as ”an approach to data analysis, explanation and theory that sees empirical social research as conducted on the basis of a hypothesis derived from social theory which is then tested against empirical observation and the subsequently used to confirm or refute the original theoretical proposition” (Miller and Brewer, 2003:67). Such an approach has some predominant characteristics. For example, it aims to explain the causal relationships between variables, it collects quantifiable data, and its results can be generalisable (Saunders et al., 2012). On the other hand, the deductive approach can be criticised. For example, it is a fixed and rigid design. It seeks to understand the facts or causes of phenomena and does not regard the subjective states of a situation or individuals, as scientific research principles should be applied to all phenomena that are the focus of investigation. It does not account for the subjective nature of the researcher’s decisions made throughout the stages of the research process (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005). It relies on instruments and procedures which could hinder the connection between research and daily life, as it holds reality to be independent of personal experience (Gall et al., 2006). The analysis of relationships between variables creates a static view of social life that is independent of people’s lives (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

With regard to this research, the deductive approach was appropriate to choose and implement as this study began with theories, e.g. Herzberg and LMX, which were mentioned and elaborated on in the literature review chapter (chapter two). It then proceeded with developing hypotheses, followed by formulating the research instrument, which is a questionnaire, to collect primary data. Analysis of the data was performed in order to test the hypotheses and examine theories.

4.6. Research Methodology (quantitative)

Selecting the appropriate methodology to use is an important step. Research methodologies can broadly be classified into qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative research is described as thick, deep, and holistic, and usually associated with an inductive approach and interpretive philosophy. It "usually emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data" (Bryman and Bell 2007:731). Qualitative researches are greatly influenced by different intellectual traditions. In contrast quantitative research is described as thin, narrow but generalizable. Quantitative methodology is based on objectivist ontology, positivist epistemology, and unbiased or value-free axiology (Creswell, 2013). It assists the researcher to measure variables and tends to be associated with a deductive approach, which typically uses scientific procedures and numerical analysis to illustrate the relationship(s) among the factors in the phenomenon studied. Quantitative researchers are profoundly influenced by a natural rational approach to what should count as acceptable knowledge (Bryman and Bell, 2011). "The quantitative research can be characterized as a linear series of steps moving from theory to conclusions" (Bryman and Bell 2007:26). "Quantitative variables are divided into discrete quantitative variables and continuous quantitative variables" (Collis and Hussey, 2003:153). Continuous quantitative variables help in measuring different variables of data and indicate exactly where the result or percentage of the variable should be located. Causality, corrolational, measurement, replication, and generalisation are some of the predominant characteristics of quantitative method; Table 4.1 presents some differences of methodological assumptions between quantitative and qualitative research.

Causality is the relationship between the cause (independent) and the effect (dependent variables), where the second event is a direct consequence of the first. As a phenomenon

the causes and effect should be examined and explained by the researcher. Measurement is the process of measuring the variables of concepts and effects and their relationship, in addition to examining their reliability and validity. A quantitative research attempts to fragment and delimit phenomena into measurable or common categories that can be applied to all of the subjects and/or similar situations. With regard to replication, the research findings and descriptions of variables must be sufficiently specific so that another researcher could replicate the study for other cases or situations. Confirmation of findings through replication is an important method of increasing the findings' power, or certainty. Generalization is the degree to which the findings can be generalized from the research sample to the entire population by random samples which will support the generalization reliability (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

Due to the nature of this research a quantitative approach was regarded as an appropriate choice, as this research is investigating GACA's motivation programme, LMX, and their effect on employees' job performance. In this context, it is one of the objectives to generalise the findings of this research. The "quantitative approach is designed to provide conclusions of statistics that support generalisability about the phenomenon under examination since it is dealing with a representative sample of the research population" (Bryman and Bell, 2007: 132).

Table 4.1 (Differences of Assumptions) Adapted from Creswell (1994)

Assumption	Question	Quantitative	qualitative
Ontological	What is the nature of reality?	Reality is objective and singular, apart from the researcher.	Reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participant in a study.
Epistemological	What is the relationship of	Researcher is independent	Researcher interacts with that being

	the researcher to that researched?	from that being researched.	researched.
Axiological	What is the role of value?	Value-free and unbiased.	Value-laden and biased.
Rhetorical	What is the language of the research?	Formal. Based on set definitions. Use of accepted quantitative words.	Informal. Evolving decisions. Use accept qualitative words.
Methodological	What is the process of research?	Deductive process. Causal relationship. Static design categories isolated before study. Context-free. Generalizations leading to prediction. Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability.	Inductive process. Context-bound. Emerging design-categories identified during research process. Accurate and reliable through verification.

4.7. Research strategy

In a research process selecting an appropriate method or strategy is considered to be a critical decision to make to avoid contentious decisions. Research strategy is a "general plan of how the researcher will go about answering the research question(s)." (Saunders et al., 2009:600). Strategies of inquiry, or as others have called them "approaches to inquiry" (Creswell, 2013) or "research methodologies" (Mertens, 2010), provide the researcher with a specific direction for procedures to conduct the research (Creswell, 2013). Chen and Hirschheim (2004), Creswell (2013), Crotty (1998) and Myers (1997) highlighted several research strategies that have been devised and developed in the field of social sciences, e.g. laboratory experimental research, field experiment research, survey methods, case studies, action research, grounded theory, ethnography, phenomenology, numerical methods such as mathematical modelling etc.

This study can be classified as a survey strategy study. A survey can be defined as "a research technique in which information is gathered from a sample of people by use of questionnaire or interview; a method of data collection based on communication with representative sample of individuals" (Zikmund, 2003:175). Saunders et al. (2012) and Zikmund et al. (2012) mentioned that low cost, time saving, efficient and accurate means of assessing information about the targeted population, and standardisation are predominant attributes of survey studies. The survey research approach was the appropriate choice for the present context of this study among these research strategies. The limited range of the collected data, interview bias, low response rate, and questionnaire errors are the major drawbacks of survey strategy compared to other research strategies e.g. case studies. Nevertheless, it has important advantages that made it the strategy of choice for this study.

4.7.1. Rationales for selecting survey strategy

Survey strategy has the merit of enabling the researcher to examine a phenomenon in its natural setting while covering a large population; it also gives the researcher more control of the research process (Pinsonneault and Kraemer, 1993). It facilitates the collection of primary data from a sample of people by using questionnaires or interviews as the source of information (Zikmund et al., 2012). Matching the research purposes with the appropriate strategy is very important, in other words the research objectives and questions should guide the researcher to select the appropriate strategy.

The research strategy should be properly developed to ensure that the research meets it objectives (Collis and Hussey, 2013). The nature of the research, philosophical assumptions, and time availability for the research are significant issues to be carefully considered and managed, meaning the researcher ought to be aware and precise about the

adopted strategy and how it will be managed. The measures or criteria that need to be underlined when choosing survey strategy are; first if the study requires a quantitative method of inquiry with standardised information (e.g., hypothesis and relationship between variables) about a subject (i.e., individuals, groups, organisations, or communities, systems etc). The next one is if the study requires the collection of data by asking questions with a pre-defined structured instrument (e.g. questionnaire), and finally if the study requires the ability to generalise the findings about a whole population's attitude, behaviour or characteristic of individuals and groups through a fraction of the sample (Pinsonneault and Kraemer, 1993).

In this context, this study adopted a positivist research philosophy with a deductive approach, via a survey strategy, using a quantitative method of inquiry (questionnaire) to obtain employees' opinions on the factors investigated, and it is clear that this research defined hypotheses and tested the relationships among the (independent, mediator, and dependent) variables. These characteristics meet Pinsonneault and Kraemer's (1993) criteria and are in line with the survey strategy. The use of survey strategy for this study was based on several reasons. One of them is that it sought to examine the relevance of applying known, existing, and tested Western motivation theories i.e. Herzberg's motivators-hygiene, Adams' equity, and LMX theories in a Middle Eastern context, and explaining how motivation would contribute to better work performance. Secondly this study adopts a cross-sectional design for primary data collection by using a questionnaire to collect primary data from GACA's employees (target population), which is very much appropriate to a survey strategy (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Third, this study investigates the influence of the (independent) motivation variables and LMX (mediator) on employees' performance (dependent variables). Such investigation is at the crux of correlational surveys, which search for relationships between different variables based on a theoretical framework (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Collis and Hussey, 2013; Neuman,

2014; Punch, 2014). Furthermore, a survey research strategy was used in previous studies in the motivation and employee performance domains, which enables this study to be compared with others.

To overcome the survey method drawbacks mentioned previously this study sets the questionnaire questions in a way that makes it clear, understandable, and easy to answer for the respondents, and prevents bias. Furthermore, a pilot study was conducted to eliminate errors that may have occurred in the questionnaire design. In addition, the questionnaire was translated into Arabic, the native language of the research sample.

4.8. Research Choice

Research choices are classified into three choices; mono method, multi-methods, and mixed methods (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). A research choice is described as the appropriate method of collecting and analysing data (Saunders et al., 2012). A mono method study uses only a single type of method, either quantitative or qualitative. Such an approach is used exclusively within only one specific paradigm (positivism or interpretivism) and using a single source of data. In quantitative study, data is generally in numerical form and is analysed using quantitative data analysis techniques or programmes such as Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Analysis of Moment Structures AMOS, Partial Least Squares (PLS), etc., whereas in a qualitative study, the data is mainly in textual form, and is analysed by using qualitative data analysis themes and techniques. Multi-method research can use more than one research method or data collection technique (i.e. multiple quantitative or multiple qualitative strands) in one study to achieve the research objectives (Creswell and Clark, 2010). Drawing an initial distinction between mono method research and multi-method research may be helpful to determine what is understood as mixed methods. Mixed methods

research is a research that combines quantitative and qualitative data collection and data analysis within a single study (Creswell and Clark, 2010).

As a result of adopting the positivist paradigm with a deductive approach, a mono quantitative method was appropriate for this study. Thus, a questionnaire was employed as a survey instrument to collect data from GACA's employees about GACA's motivation programme and its effect on employees' job performance, with LMX implemented as a mediator between motivation and performance variables.

4.9. Time horizon: Cross-sectional

Time is an important factor in life, and it is one of the most important matters when setting a research plan, to collect data that is relevant and sufficient to answer the research questions. According to the literature, there are two types of research plan or design; cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. Collis and Hussey (2003:67) indicated that longitudinal study "is a study of variable or a group of subjects over time". It is the type of plan that is used to collect data over a long period of time, perhaps months or years depending on the nature of the study and the research questions, which may require the study of people or phenomena at more than one point of time in order to answer the research questions. The rationale of longitudinal studies is to investigate continuity of response and to monitor changes that occur over a period of time (Smoekh and Lewin, 2005; Zikmund et al., 2012). Experimental research is a longitudinal research design which investigates cause (the independent variables) and effect (the dependent variables) relationships between interventions and outcomes, but it is difficult to use due to its requirement of group behaviour control. It is useful in situations such as identifying patterns of change in relation to time and in collecting factual data on a continuous basis (Kumar, 2014). Furthermore, collecting data at more than one point of time may be considered the best method to answer some research questions (Bryman and Bell 2011,

Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). However an experimental design was not appropriate for this research, due to the researcher's inability to change conditions, such as the organisation's motivation system, employees' work environment, or conditions.

A cross-sectional design, on the other hand, is usually more convenient for studies that examine groups of different people who belong to different cases and variables, to measure the relationship between variables, for example, using statistical methods as a means to study behaviour changes, the prevalence of a phenomenon, situation, problem, or attitude for part or all the cases, by taking a cross-section of the population of study (Kumar, 2014). Such studies are most commonly used in social sciences. This design is related particularly to the survey strategy. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013) a cross-sectional study is a one-shot study, as a type of research that needs to be conducted just once to collect data, and might last for weeks or months. Cross-sectional design is more suitable for obtaining data about variables in different contexts but at the same time (Smoekh and Lewin, 2005). These studies can usually be achieved more easily and quickly than longitudinal ones, but the resulting data may be of a lower quality. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2014) highlighted that cross-sectional design is characterised by weak internal validity, and high variation of the collected data but strong relations are identified between the investigated constructs. Such issues about the cross-sectional data and high correlation between the investigated constructs are far from problematic (Geyskens et al., 1998). The term cross-sectional may be used to describe studies which examine segments of the society based on variables such as income, educational level, performance, etc (Becker et al., 2012). Cross-sectional samples are frequently used in research efforts to generalise research findings (e.g. Eid, 2007; Merlo et al., 2006).

This cross-sectional study was based on social survey strategy in which questionnaire items were employed to represent nine variables: four independent, four dependent, and a mediator (Figure 3.2) to collect data at one time using a cross-sectional plan. This approach aimed to measure and explain the effect of the independent motivation variables on employees' job performance directly and via the LMX as a mediator in a snapshot of time to reflect individuals' perceptions of the situation, and the accompanying reasons and circumstances. This was done through a self-completion questionnaire which addressed several themes, e.g. respondents' demographic data and education level, organisation policies, rules, and regulations, GACA's motivation programme, lack of opportunities for growth and personnel development, supervision quality and fairness, job security, etc. in order to collect primary data to fulfil the research objectives and answer its questions. Such data were analysed by statistical parametric tests, e.g. correlation, multi-regression, factor analysis.

The setting of the cross-section plan or design does not require manipulation (Bryman and Bell, 2011), and in this study, it was not possible for the researcher to manipulate variables for ethical and practical reasons. Thus, this research is considered to be correlational survey study. Time constraint is another reason for choosing a cross-sectional plan, as a limited period of time was available in which to collect data and complete the research (Saunders et al., 2012). Furthermore the cross sectional plan was selected because it facilitates application to a large sample within a short period of time (Bordens and Abbott, 2013). In this study data was collected within three months of time from December 2012 to February 2013.

4.10. Population and Research Sample

Choosing the research population is very important because part of that population is the research sample, which is the source of data that the researcher required for the research

findings. The term population is defined as "the universe of units from which the sample is to be selected" (Bryman and Bell, 2007:182). According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013) a population is a group of people or human beings that share common predetermined features or characteristics which the researcher wishes to examine with respect to the research context. "It is vitally important to carefully define the target population, so the proper source from which the data are to be collected can be identified" (Zikmund, 2000:342). Selecting the proper population can be potentially supportive for the generalisability of the research, which in turn is considered as a solid foundation for the hypotheses generated within the conceptual framework. Thus, selecting the appropriate population would assist the researcher to find the most effective way to confidently examine the proposed theories and hypotheses and draw constructive conclusions about the findings (Eisenhardt, 1989). In the present case, the research population is all the Saudi employees in GACA, which is about 2500 employees.

A sample is defined as a selected segment of the population which is utilized by the researcher to estimate some unknown population characteristics (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Cooper and Schindler, 2010; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013; Zikmund et al., 2012). There are two categories or methods of sampling, probability and non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling gives some members of the population more chances to be selected than others. It includes sampling methods such as snowball sampling and convenience sampling. In contrast, probability sampling methods involve selecting members of the population randomly, giving an equal chance for any member of the population to be selected (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2014; Kumar, 2014; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Thus, probability sampling was chosen for the present context of the study, which would yield an equal opportunity for any Saudi employee in GACA to be selected, and to enable a large sample to be covered within a short period of time. Probability sampling methods include simple random sampling, stratified random

sampling, systematic sampling, cluster random sampling, and multi-stage random sampling (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Simple random sampling processes have two benefits; first, that this method does not depend on the availability of particular employees or a specific person, so all the targeted sample will have the opportunity to respond on an equal basis; secondly human bias is minimal or avoided. Such characteristics are the rationale behind utilizing a simple random sampling process. A good representative sample should avoid bias, and must be large enough to cover the research target and serve the study objectives. Thus, implementing simple random sampling was considered suitable for this research, allowing any Saudi employee in GACA to be randomly selected, which would yield outcomes that could represent the whole population and it would have high potential to be generalised (Bryman and Bell, 2011). In addition, this technique was adopted to ensure that all GACA's sectors had an equal opportunity to participate in answering the questionnaire. All eight sectors, i.e. navigation services, finance and admin, HRM, safety and economic regulations, information technology, international organisation affairs, corporate core, and Saudi Academy of Civil Aviation, were included, to facilitate collection of sufficient, valid and reliable data, with a high response rate.

4.10.1. Sample Size

A large and adequate sample size should be executed to ensure that the data collected is reliable and decrease chances of sample error (Bryman and Cramer, 2011; De Vaus, 2014), A large sample size would also minimize or eliminate researcher bias and meet the criteria of analytical methods (Field, 2013; Hair et al.,2013). A reliable and valid sample would enable the research findings to be generalised, and would betters represent the population under investigation. "The larger your sample size the lower the likely error in generalising to the population" (Saunders et al., 2007:217). Thus, findings from

an adequate sample size would provide a solid basis for drawing assumptions, supportive decisions, and making recommendations.

However there is little consensus on the recommended sample size for PLS-SEM (Sivo et al., 2006). PLS-SEM is an expected multivariate procedure to test the significance of correlation between constructs. Theoretically PLS-SEM allows the structural relations between the latent variables to be accurately estimated. For PLS-SEM to provide valid findings at least 150 cases are required (Hair et al., 2006). Determining the sample size required is important to achieve the desired level of statistical power in a given conceptual framework (model) which will yield reliable and trustworthy findings (McQuitty, 2004). The sample size required is affected by the estimation method that a researcher intends to employ and the normality of the data (Schreiber et al., 2006). Comrey and Lee (1992) categorised sample sizes as: 50 is very poor, 100 is poor, 200 is fair, 300 is good, 500 is very good, and 1,000 is excellent. A 'critical sample size' of 200 was proposed by Hoelter (1983) and Garver and Mentzer (1999), meaning any sample size above 200 cases is understood to provide sufficient statistical power for data analysis. Nonetheless Roscoe (1975) suggested that a sample size of $n>30$ and $n<500$ cases would be appropriate for most research. It has been suggested that when employing CFA with models of 2 or 4 factors, at least 100 cases are needed, and 200 would be even better (Loehlin, 1998). A large sample size is required for convariances like correlation to be stable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Stevens (2009) also mentioned that 15 cases per construct are sufficient when least square multiple regression analysis is required. However this study's sample size was 319 cases, that were valid and entered into the SPSS program to be analysed.

4.11. Research instrument (Questionnaire)

Collection of primary data from a research sample (individuals) is one of the requirements for research projects. Choosing the appropriate instrument for collecting the required data is very important and considered to be essential to accomplish the research goals and objectives. The chosen instrument ought to be capable of answering the research question(s) about what is to be measured, that is, have construct validity, and how it is going to be measured, that is, construct reliability (Edwards, 2003; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013; Zikmund et al., 2012).

In this study, a questionnaire was used for data collection. A questionnaire is considered to be a scientific instrument for collecting reliable and valid data or information for a particular purpose(s). It is an efficient way of collecting responses from a large sample to be quantitatively analysised (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2014; Punch, 2014).

Due to the data required, data sources, and for accomplishing the research aims and objectives, a self-completion questionnaire was selected as a survey instrument for this study, for its objectivity, low cost, time saving, and high response rate. In quantitative studies, questionnaires are often a preferable way of collecting such data and information. A questionnaire allows data to be collected from a large sample size. Self-completion questionnaires usually have the advantages of being the cheapest and quickest method of data collection for most surveys, compared to other survey methods, e.g. face to face interviews, over the phone, fax. It is more convenient for the respondents to fill them in when and where they want. The risk of researcher bias is minimal or almost none. For most respondents it is probably the least intrusive and most anonymous way of being surveyed. Nevertheless there are some disadvantages for using such a method. For example, people tend to make a quick judgement about how time consuming the questionnaire is, and how long it will take to fill in, based on a

combination of the questionnaire's length and its perceived difficulty. Thus, questions have to be short, simple, and straightforward. Low response rates, abdication of control, where the researcher loses control over who fills it in and how it is filled in, time constraint, non-response bias where the researcher does not know what the non-responders think, and cost are some of the main drawbacks (Bryman and Bell, 2011). However the appropriate steps were taken to surmount those drawbacks. The questionnaire was clearly designed and straightforward. Also a note was included in the cover page to encourage the respondents not to hesitate to contact the researcher by phone or e-mail, in the event of any inquiries. Respondents were assured that they would be anonymous and all the data and information would be kept totally confidential, and used solely for this academic research.

4.11.1. Questionnaire Design

Designing a questionnaire that best captures the constructs which should be measured is a process that includes many steps for the researcher to take, to obtain the required data from the targeted sample. Questionnaire content should be clear, simple, reliable, and valid (De Vaus, 2014; Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2014; Hair et al., 2011a Neuman, 2014; Punch, 2014). Thus a questionnaire should be designed with relevance and accuracy. Relevance means the data collected should serve the required purpose only to solve the research objectives. Accuracy means the collected data ought to be reliable and valid, to achieve the study requirements, particularly answering the research questions (Zikmund et al., 2012). It should cover all the dimensions of the construct that is intended to be measured, meaning that no important qualities of that construct are omitted by the questionnaire, this is concerned with the content validity of the questionnaire; the degree to which the measure captures the full range of the construct. Criticisms of content validity are about what has been left out of a measure (Sekaran and

Bougie, 2013). Also items specific to the intended construct should not be interpreted as referring to other related constructs, which is known as discriminant validity, (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Thus, the collected data should be valid, reliable, replicable, and comparable so it can be examined and analysed (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

Also a covering letter should be included to entice the respondents and persuade them to answer the questionnaire; it should also assure them of confidentiality of data and anonymity of identity if possible, so they will feel psychologically comfortable, which would have a great impact on response rate. Clear and precise instructions should be provided for the respondent to follow. Jargon terms, leading, and double-barreled questions, i.e. questions that ask about two separate issues but permit only one answer should be avoided. Also it is preferable to phrase some items in reverse order to make sure the respondent is reading the question and answering accordingly and not answering blindly. Furthermore the questionnaire should be consistent (Neuman, 2014). Wording of questions or items, completion instructions, and layout of a questionnaire play an influential role in attracting the respondent's attention to answer the questions until the end of the questionnaire, which would reflect positively on precise answers and higher response rate if properly managed. Thus, items wording and level of language sophistication, type and form of question, appropriateness of content, sequence of questions, personal data sought from the respondents, clarity, and preciseness of completion instructions are important characteristics to be attained in questionnaire design (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). As the response rate is influenced by the questionnaire design (Saunders et al., 2012). Respondents' culture and educational background should also be considered (De Vaus, 2014). It is suggested that personal and demographic items should be presented at the start or end of the survey instrument, depending on the layout of the instrument and objectives of the study (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013).

Different types of questions format can be presented in a survey instrument, e.g. open-ended format questions, where the respondents can freely express their opinions, and closed-ended format questions, which are questions with a limited choice of answers for the respondents to choose from, but the research targets respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order. Closed-ended questions have the merit of being more applicable to quantitative method research type, but they need to be coded and obviously analysed. It should retain the trait of having simple questions, as there is no opportunity for probing (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013; Zikmund et al., 2012). Thus designing a relevant and accurate questionnaire is not an easy task (Collis and Hussey, 2013; Zikmund et al., 2012).

4.11.2. Questionnaire Development and Constructs

The research instrument or self-completion questionnaire of this research was developed based on an intensive study of the literature, which was carried out to identify existing measures of the developed constructs. Items of the questionnaire were developed and designed by adapting validated measures from previously PHD studies: Employee motivation, performance and well-being: The role of managerial support for autonomy, competence and relatedness needs (Parfyonova, 2009). And Antecedents and Consequences of Motivation: An Examination of Motivation as Mediator to Human and Organizational Performance (Talaq, 2004). Items of the current questionnaire were adapted and modified to fit the context and objectives of this study. In addition, academics, practitioners, and PhD alumni in the fields of human resource management and organisational behaviour were consulted. The original sources and scales of the questionnaire are presented in Table 4.2; it also illustrates all constructs and dimensions of the conceptual framework. The questionnaire items represent the objectives of the research and reflect dimensions of the conceptual framework constructs shown in Figure

3.2, grounded on content and process motivation theories explained in chapter two, i.e. Herzberg's motivators and hygiene factors and Adams' equity theories, as they are dominant in the motivation and organisation fields; also previous studies of employees' job performance, and LMX as a mediator. Nine variables were developed, four independent, four dependent variables, and a mediator. The domain of each construct was defined. They are respectively; pay and benefits, job security, management, and work environment for the independent variable, while the dependent variable domains are duties and responsibilities, accomplishment and results, skills, knowledge, competences and behaviour, and communication and feedback. LMX is the mediator variable between the independent and dependent variables. The dimensions of the constructs were thoroughly elaborated on in chapter three.

Table 4.2 Scales and Sources Utilised for Questionnaire Development

No	Construct	Dimensions	Scale/Measure /Model Utilised	Source
1	Pay and Benefits	- Reward and Promotion -Wages and incentives -Allowances	Behaviour Engineering Model	(Gilbert, 1978)
			Incentives scale	(Spreitzear and Mishra, 1999)
			Organisational Scan Model	(Tosti and Jackson, 1996)
			Individual needs and values measure	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)
2	Job security	- Organisational goals achievement - Organisational Orientation	Organisational Performance Measure	(Richard and Marilyn, 2002)
			Individual needs and values measure	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)
			Organisation identity scale	(Lehr and Rice, 2002)
3	Management	- Supervision - Fairness and trust	Management practices	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)
			Strategy Scale	(Richard and Marilyn, 2002)
			Mission and strategy measure	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)
			Leadership measure	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)
			Organisational Scan Model	(Tosti and Jackson, 1996)

4	Work Environment	-Workplace Climate - Person-Organisation fit - Relations with colleagues & team	Work Environment Scale (WES)	(Moos, 1986)
			Person-organisation scale	(Netemeyer et al., 1997)
			Work group climate	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)
			External environment measure	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)
5	Leader Member Exchange (LMX-7)	- LMX	LMX-7	(Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995)
	Dimension	Sub dimension		
6	Duties and responsibilities	- Self efficacy - Cognitive ability - Clarity of systems and standards	Behaviour Engineering Model	(Gilbert, 1978)
			Task requirement and individual skills	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)
			Gilbert's PROBE Model	(Gilbert, 1978)
7	Accomplishments and results	- Capacity to perform - Sufficiency of systems and standard	Individual needs and values measure	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)
			Job performance measure	(Mahoney et al, 1965
			Organisational Scan Model	(Tosti and Jackson, 1996)
8	Skills, Knowledge, Competences and behaviour	- Training and development opportunity - Task requirement	Task requirement and individual skills	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)
			Behaviour Engineering Model	(Gilbert, 1978)
9	Communication and feedback	- Supervision practice -Evaluation	Organisational Communication Scale	(House and Rizzo, 1972
			Management practices	(Burke and Litwin, 1992)

4.11.2.1. Scale used

Rating and ranking scales are two categories of scaling (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). For collecting opinion data, where people express their attitudes or other responses in terms of ordinal order along a continuum rating scales are commonly employed, as they are easy to comprehend, complete, analyse, and useful for respondents' attitude measurement (Neuman, 2014; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013; Viswanathan et al., 2004). Saunders et al (2009:378) stated that "rating questions most frequently use the Likert-

style rating scale in which the respondent is asked how strongly she or he agrees or disagrees with a statement or series of statements, usually on a four-, five-, six- or seven-point rating scale". Such justifications were the rationale behind employing a Likert scale. Moreover, most quantitative previous studies of motivation, satisfaction, employees performance, have employed Likert-style rating scales (e.g. Champoux, 1991; Chiu, et al,. 2002; Ebrahimi, 1999; Kamdron, 2005; Wang, 2001). According to Neuman (2014), the five-point Likert scale is preferable because it is easy to construct, administer, and for the respondents to comprehend and answer. Regarding Herzberg's motivators and hygiene factors, Adams' equity theories, LMX, and measuring performance, the instrument's set of items were very consistent and developed to reflect an effective and adequate representation and connectivity between the instrument's items and the constructs. Nonetheless constructs in the conceptual framework represents dominant dimensions of the concept intended focus. Some items were adapted to fit the GACA organisation and study background. Part A of the questionnaire is about employees' demographic factors, e.g. employment period, age, and level of education. In part B respondents' were asked to evaluate GACA's on variety of elements measured on 6-1 scale, the scale rates respectively are, Very good, Good, Neither good nor bad, Poor, Very poor, and Not applicable. Part C is about employees' motivation, it was measured on a 5-1 Likert scale as, agree, slightly agree, neither agree or disagree, slightly disagree, and disagree. Part D is the LMX and was measured with a 5-1 rating scale and it has different words for the respondents to choose from. Part E is about employees' performance, presented as 5-1 scale ranging from very important (5) to less important (1) depending on the respondent's perception of the statement. The full questionnaires with its Arabic and English versions are presented in Appendix 7.

4.11.3. Questionnaire Structure

This questionnaire started with a covering letter to entice and convince the respondents to answer the included items. It stated that the research aimed to improve GACA's employees' job performance and wellbeing, and assured respondents of anonymity and data confidentiality. Questionnaire items reflected the dimensions of the conceptual framework and were asked in a simple form with an easy expression of vocabulary or terms made easy for the respondents to focus on and answer in a short time. Ambiguity, leading questions, researcher bias, etc were avoided. There are different types of questions, e.g. open format questions, closed format questions (Zikmund et al., 2012; Saunders et al., 2012). Closed format questions are more applicable to the positivist approach. "The strength of closed questions is that they are quick to complete and analyse" (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002:133). This questionnaire contained two open ended questions, and the rest were closed ended format questions, in a five-point Likert scale form, that were employed to obtain relevant, valid, and reliable data and information about the organisation, GACA's motivation system, and the respondents' functional characteristics. The definitive questionnaire represents the proposed dimensions of the conceptual framework, with a total number of 137 questionnaire items that were designed to investigate the direct influence of motivation on employees' job performance and through the mediating role of LMX.

The questionnaire consisted of five parts. part (A) consisted of five questions that elicited demographic data, to gather general information about the employees, such as respondents' position, level of education, gross salary per month, age, period of employment, etc. They were categorical type items, except for employment period and age, which were scale type items. Part (B) was about evaluating GACA on different aspects such as health care, personnel development availability, fairness of performance

evaluation, etc, with a total number of nine questions. Part (C) consisted of 92 questions related to many dimensions about the employee and the organisation characteristics, employees' motivation and job performance. It aimed to investigate, for example, to what extent financial and non-financial incentives are employed and utilized in GACA's motivation system, and to what extent employees are influenced by GACA's motivation system. The items of each independent construct are presented in Tables 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, and 4.6 respectively. Part (D) was about leader member exchange and it contained seven questions that asked the respondents to describe their relationship with the leader. The items of LMX are presented in Table 4.7. Part (E) consisted of 24 items of performance measures and their degree of importance to the respondent. Tables 4.8, 4.9, 4.10, and 4.11 presents the items of each dependent sub variable. Table 4.12 illustrates all 33 performance measures used in this research. Two open questions were also included in part (E) to give the respondents freedom to express their opinions, reflect their perspectives, and raise issues and comments that were not addressed in the questionnaire. Such questions can enrich the research and enhance the research outcomes (Bryman and Bell 2011). The answers to the questionnaire would reflect on the research problem, objectives, significance of the hypotheses, and answer the research questions. They would also provide the effective indications of what respondents value more about employees' motivation and clarify and explain how the enhancement of GACA's motivation programme would improve employees performance, and what are the key steps to accomplish that. This would enable the findings to be utilized to motivate them and improve their performance, which will reflect on the organisation performance and productivity. They would also be useful for planning further research which can present recommendations to promote motivation aspects and job performance levels in GACA and other public sector organisations when generalised.

Nonetheless to avoid Common Method Bias (CMB) questionnaire items were not formed in the same order also they were mixed meaning items of one construct were inserted and mixed with items of other constructs to check and ensure that the respondents are reading the questions and answering accordingly, which would help to acknowledge any CMB.

4.11.4. Translation Technique

The questionnaire was developed in the English language, and thus it had to be translated into Arabic, as GACA is located in Saudi Arabia and the respondents' native language is Arabic. The issue of translating the questionnaire from English into Arabic is an important step. According to Bulmer and Warwick (1993) great care must be taken in translating a questionnaire from one language to another, so the translation does not affect its concepts and meaning. Therefore, they suggest a technique which they called "back-translation". The back-translation technique is one of the important and popular methods in equivalent translation (Usunier and Lee, 2013). Thus it was implemented to help eradicate errors of translation and so yield an equivalent translation. First the questionnaire was translated into Arabic. Then, the Arabic version was translated back to the English language independently by another translator from Hull University's languages department. The result was then compared with the original version to identify, correct and eradicate any semantic error, reaching for a final version. Help was sought from Hull University's modern languages department for the final equivalent translation version.

4.12. Reliability and Validity

Questionnaire design and development should serve two basic targets. The first is to obtain information and data that are relevant to the purposes of the survey, in other words the questionnaire should measure what it is supposed to measure, and this should be done in a consistent manner. The second is to collect this data/information with

maximal validity and reliability. Reliability has to do with the quality of measurement. In a research context the term reliability means repeatability or consistency. It is the extent to which an experiment, instrument, or any measuring mechanism yields the same result on repeated trials. A measure or an instrument is considered reliable if it would give us the same result over and over again, assuming that what we are measuring is not changing (Pallant, 2013). Punch (2014) stated that equivalency, stability, and internal consistency are types of reliability. Reliability over time means stability of measurements over time, in other words the same results can be accomplished with the same instrument under the same conditions or circumstances at different times.

Reliability testing is about testing an instrument or application so that failures are discovered and removed before the instrument or questionnaire is officially administrated and it is a precursor to testing validity. The purpose of reliability testing is to determine how consistently a measuring instrument measures whatever concept it is measuring. Technically it can be defined as the proportion of "true" variation in scores derived from a particular measure. The total variation in any given score may be thought of as consisting of true variation (the variation of interest) and error variation (which could include random or/and systematic errors). Systematic error refers to bias that influences scores in a specific direction in a fairly consistent way. True variation is a variation which actually reflects differences in the constructs under study. Internal consistency, test-retest, inter-rater reliability and split halves methods are common types of reliability measure or evaluation (Pallant, 2013).

A test-retest is a technique of estimating the reliability of a measuring instrument in which respondents are exposed to the same questionnaire or instrument on two different occasions and then the two scores are assessed for consistency. This method of reliability evaluation is appropriate only if the phenomenon that the instrument measures is known

to be stable over the period of time between assessments. The researcher or practitioner needs, however, to take into consideration the possibility of practice effects, which can artificially inflate the estimate of reliability (Field, 2013). Another method of measuring or evaluating reliability is inter-rater reliability, which determines the extent to which two or more raters obtain the same result when using the same instrument to measure a concept. Some authors call it the gold standard (Field, 2013). Cronbach's alpha is a popular index and the one reported in evaluating item analysis. It is a measure of internal consistency reliability that is the average of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different splittings of the scale items. It is employed to test the internal consistency (item homogeneity) of a questionnaire or instrument items (De Vaus, 2014; Hair et al., 2011a; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Most measurement experts agree that, if an instrument has a strong internal consistency, it should demonstrate only moderate or reasonable correlation among items (0.70 to 0.90). Hair et al (2006) stated that the lower limit for Cronbach‘s alpha is 0.70, although others argue 0.60 is acceptable (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1978). Cronbach‘s alpha test was employed to test the reliability of all constructs and factors of this study, results of those tests are presented in chapter five.

Validity is the extent or degree to which a concept, instrument or measurement corresponds accurately to what is suppose to measure or what it is designed to measure, e.g. knowledge, abilities, or behaviour.

It is a psychometric property; thus, reliability analysis is often viewed as a first step in the validity test process (Punch, 2014). Validity is arguably the most important or second central concept in measurement criteria for the quality of a measuring instrument. For an instrument with high validity the items will be closely linked to the concept under study. There are several types of validity, such as face, content, concurrent, construct, criterion, convergent and discriminant, etc.

Face validity is the type of validity that can be determined by a review of the instrument's items and not through the use of statistical analyses. Face validity does not require a formal investigation procedure and is not determined by subject matter experts, unlike content validity. Instead, anyone who is relatively familiar with the investigated concept could examine the instrument and develop an informal judgment as to whether or not the instrument is measuring what it is supposed to measure. Face validity aims to ensure that the research instrument has an appropriate articulation, format, and flow as seen by the respondent.

Content validity is a logical process where connections between the instrument's items and the concept's related constructs are established (De Vaus, 2014; Hair et al., 2011a; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). It is defined as "face validity and the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content of a measuring instrument." (Byrne, 2001:82). It ensures that the instrument, in our case the questionnaire, includes an adequate representative set of items that exploit and reflect the concept. The more the instrument items represent the domain and dimensions of the concept being measured, the greater the content validity. It refers to the extent to which an instrument represents all aspects of a given concept (Field, 2013). For the content validity of an instrument to be strong, it requires a thorough test development process, an appropriate set of test specifications to be developed, and items writing guidelines should be carefully followed. A good questionnaire or instrument is one that assesses different aspects of the concept being studied (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013).

In this research all the constructs were developed based on and linked to Herzberg's two factors content theory, Adams' equity process theory, LMX and employees' performance from previous studies as mentioned in section 3.4. To examine the concept under investigation, connections between the instrument's items and the concept's related

constructs are established. If the questionnaire's items represent the concept's constructs sufficiently, this would reflect the content validity of the instrument's items as they represent the constructs. In other words, content validity is employed to ensure that the instrument is appropriate and sufficient to examine the constructs under investigation. It would also reflect the assessment of the concept it is intended to measure. Face and content validities of the questionnaire of this study were confirmed by a focus group consists of academics who have experience in designing questionnaires and many PhD alumni who are competent in the fields of human resource management and organisational behavior.

Construct validity refers to the extent to which items representative of a construct do actually reflect and measure the theoretical latent variable or construct those items are designed or presumed to measure (i.e., practical tests developed from a theory) (Edwards, 2003; Hair et al., 2006). According to Netemeyer et al. (2003:8) construct validity is "the assessment of the degree to which a measure actually measures the latent construct it is intended to measure." It refers to the degree to which theoretically the constructs of a conceptual model do actually vary or do not highly correlate to each other (Hair et al., 2006; Bagozzi and Foxall, 1996). Construct validity can be examined through convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity (Campbell and Fiske, 1959; Peter, 1981).

Convergent and discriminant validity are both considered subcategories or subtypes of construct validity. The important thing to acknowledge is that they work together. Convergent validity means that measures of constructs that are theoretically related to each other ought to be observed as related to each other in practice, whereas in the case of discriminant validity, measures of constructs that are theoretically not related to each other should in practice be proven not to relate to each other (De Vaus, 2014; Hair et al.,

2011a; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). Both convergent and discrmenant validities were tested via PLS-SEM, findings will be presented and discussed in detail in the findings chapter.

Criterion validity examines the extent to which a measure or an instrument provides results that are consistent with other measures or outcomes that already proven to be valid (the criteria), known as "a gold standard". Criterion validity may be quantified by the correlation coefficient between the two sets of measurements. It is typically divided into concurrent validity, when the test data and criterion data are collected at the same time, and predictive validity, when the test data are collected first and criterion data collected at a later point in time for comparison (De Vaus, 2014; Hair et al., 2011a; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013).

4.12.1. Questionnaire Pre-Test

Consultations of academics who have experience in designing questionnaires and many PhD alumni who are competent in the fields of human resource management and organisational behavior (which can be considered as a focus group) were sought to conduct a preliminary questionnaire review, checking the scale indicators, face and content validity, the general layout of the questionnaire, items representation of the concept's constructs, comprehension, design, arrangement, flow, appropriateness and sufficiency. Helpful comments were provided leading to some modifications to provide better wordings to avoid ambiguity, clarify meanings, modifying and paraphrasing some items to avoid double-barreled items, and combining other items that were asking similar questions, in order to reduce the number of the questionnaire items. This yielded a total of 137 items, which were further refined after the pilot study.

4.12.2. Pilot Study

A pilot study is a preliminary respondent trial that should be conducted to check the validity, feasibility, and clarity, of the initial version of the questionnaire. It is a feasibility study undertaken to test the validity and reliability of the survey instrument in order to improve the final version (Zikmund et al., 2012). It would allow for instrument purification and make its items more relevant to the research context before the final version of the questionnaire is administered. It helps in examining the items for problems in, for example, wording, phrasing, understandability, or any other inquires or comments that the pilot test respondents would like to raise. Thus, when the final version of the questionnaire is distributed the respondents will have no problems in answering the questionnaire and there will be no problems in analysing the data. In addition, it will enable the researcher to obtain an adequate assessment of the questionnaire's items' validity and likely reliability of the data collected (Zikmund, 2003). Pilot study has been recommended by many scholars (Baker, 2003; Bryman and Bell, 2011; Cheung and Rensvold, 2000; Dillman et al., 2014; Saunders et al., 2012), and some have emphasized its importance (Veal, 2005). Fifty questionnaires were distributed randomly to GACA's employees in different departments in the headquarters in Jeddah, which is relevant to the study population sample, 35 were collected back, this was accomplished about five months before the final version of the questionnaire was distributed. A page was assigned for the pilot study respondents' comments about the questionnaire. Respondents of the piloting provided relevant feedback to clarify and improve items of the questionnaire, also regarding the face and content validity of the instrument, length, layout, and instructions for completion.

4.12.3. Questionnaire's Constructs and Items

- Independent Variables' (Motivation) Constructs

Table 4.3 Items for Pay and Benefits (PB) Construct

Item No in Questionnaire	Item Code	Item
6	PB1	Health care quality.
7	PB2	Personnel development (training) availability.
9	PB3	Transportation or transportation financial allowance
10	PB4	Accommodation or accommodation allowance.
11	PB5	Business trip allowance.
12	PB6	Vacation.
13	PB7	Salary/Wages.
14	PB8	Quality of retirement plan.
49	PB9	My salary is sufficient for the job I perform.
58	PB10	I am satisfied with the promotion(s) I have received in my organisation.
96	PB11	My organisation uses financial incentives to improve personnel performance.
97	PB12	There are clear policies for paying salaries, raises and bonuses.
98	PB13	My organisation pays me fairly compared to other employees.
99	PB14	My annual pay raise is based on my annual performance evaluation.
100	PB15	My organisation provides non-financial incentives (e. g., appreciation certificates, rewards, time off, ... etc) based on employees' performance.
101	PB16	My organisation sanctions employees who achieve unsatisfactory performance.
102	PB17	There are enough promotion opportunities to motivate me to enhance my job performance.
105	PB18	My organisation pays salaries that are comparable to other organisations in this sector.
106	PB19	My organisation provides sufficient benefits compared to other organisations.

Note: The highlighted items have been deleted after the preliminary run on SPSS programme to improve the reliability, except items No 1&4 of the PB construct they are not applicable N/A.

Table 4.4 Items of Job Security construct

Item No in Questionnaire	Item Code	Item
21	JS1	Overall, my organisation achieves its goals and objectives.
50	JS2	I feel my job is secure
51	JS3	I expect my organisation to announce job redundancy within the next 12 months.

52	JS4	I expect still to have my job in a year's time.
53	JS5	I expect GACA to perform reorganisation that will affect the workplace within the next 12 months.
54	JS6	I have often considered quitting and finding a job elsewhere
57	JS7	I am satisfied with the level of clarity about my career advancement.
66	JS8	Overall, I am satisfied with my organisation
69	JS9	My organisation's top management has a clear vision of the future.
70	JS10	My organisation's top management has made changes that are positive for organisation performance.
81	JS11	I know and understand the long-term goals and objectives of my organisation.
90	JS12	The rules, and regulations related to my job are sufficient.
91	JS13	The existing procedures, rules and regulations are easy to follow.
103	JS14	I have a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.

Table 4.5 Items of Management construct

Item No in Questionnaire	Item Code	Item
8	MG1	Fairness of performance evaluation.
24	MG2	My manager (supervisor) has the ability to provide me with feedback about how to improve my knowledge and skills to enhance my job performance.
26	MG3	My manager (supervisor) is open and listens to my ideas and suggestions
27	MG4	Normally, my manager (supervisor) guides me to enhance my job performance.
28	MG5	Normally, my manager (supervisor) helps in removing the obstacles and barriers that I face in my work.
29	MG6	I feel free to say what I think is right when communicating with my manager (supervisor).
30	MG7	My manager (supervisor) identifies with us the training and personal development opportunities require the job fairly.
32	MG8	My manager (supervisor) communicates with me openly.
33	MG9	My manager (supervisor) is fair regarding promotions opportunities.
34	MG10	My manager (supervisor) is fair regarding training opportunities.
47	MG11	My Organisation’s management has a lot of concern towards external demands.
72	MG12	Top management of my organisation possesses good leadership skills

Table 4.6 Items of Work Environment construct

Item No in Questionnaire	Item Code	Item
17	WE1	My organisation’s goals and objectives motivate my willingness to maintain a good effort
18	WE2	Overall, I am highly motivated at my work
25	WE3	I communicate easily with my manager (supervisor).
39	WE4	My organisation's goals, and orientation are in accordance with my personality preferences
40	WE5	My job and working conditions match with my preferences
42	WE6	My organisation arranges sufficient social events
43	WE7	I like to participate with my colleagues in the social events they attend
44	WE8	I socialise with my colleagues inside our organisation
45	WE9	I socialise with my colleagues outside our organisation
46	WE10	The working conditions allow me to accomplish my job tasks within the deadline and in an acceptable manner.
48	WE11	I have good relationships with my colleagues
59	WE12	My work environment is free from too many interferences and disruptions.
60	WE13	My work environment is constructive and helps personnel to perform their duties and responsibilities.
61	WE14	My work conditions are optimistic and motivating
63	WE15	In my department, my colleagues and I cooperate to get the job done.
64	WE16	I really feel that I belong to a working team.
65	WE17	I feel highly satisfied with my work environment.
67	WE18	The long-term goals and objectives of my organisation fit and match with the requirements of the external environment and industry
68	WE19	My organisation analyses and interacts with regional and international changes
71	WE20	My organisation's top management responds to important internal issues
73	WE21	My department has written plans to achieve the short-term goals for the current year
76	WE22	I do my job tasks and responsibilities in an autonomous and free way.
85	WE23	The necessary equipment, tools, and materials that I need to perform my job are available
86	WE24	In our department we have the most modern sophisticated equipment and tools to perform our jobs duties and responsibilities
104	WE25	External people see my organisation as a prestigious organisation to work for

- Mediator Construct

Table 4.7 Items of Leader Member Exchange (LMX) construct

Item No in Questionnaire	Item Code	Item
107	LMX1	Do you know where you stand with this manager… Do you usually know how satisfied your manager is with what you do?
108	LMX2	How well does your manager understand your job problems and needs?
109	LMX3	How well does your manager recognize your potential?
110	LMX4	Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your manager would use his/her power to help you solve problems at work?
111	LMX5	Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your manager has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out," at his/her expense?
112	LMX6	I have enough confidence in my Manager that I would defend and justify his/her decisions if he/she were not present to do so.
113	LMX7	How would you characterize your working relationship with your manager?

- Dependent Variable (Job Performance) Construct

Table 4.8 Items of Duties and Responsibilities Dimension

Item No in Questionnaire	Item Code	Item
16	DR1	My job's duties and responsibilities stimulate me to dedicate my effort
62	DR2	My workload is very high and above the normal limit
74	DR3	My job description fits well with my preferences
75	DR4	In my department, employees are placed in positions that match their knowledge and ability
77	DR5	In my department, the processes and functions are well integrated with each other
93	DR6	My job duties and responsibilities are manageable
94	DR7	My job duties and responsibilities are designed in a systematic way that leads to high performance
118	DR8	Employee-organisation fit (match)
120	DR9	Employees' commitment
125	DR10	Effective utilisation of working hours to perform job's duties and responsibilities
126	DR11	Availability of long-term and short term plans
128	DR12	Responsibilities.

Table 4.9 Items of Accomplishments and Results Dimension

Item No in Questionnaire	Item Code	Item
19	AR1	The results I produce at my work are in accordance with the set and targeted standards
20	AR2	I am able to achieve my targeted performance level
31	AR3	My manager (supervisor) compares the actual job outcomes that I produce with the established standards
79	AR4	In my organisation, business processes are managed by using appropriate control procedures, systems, and standards.
80	AR5	The causes of performance problems in my department are identified and eliminated
92	AR6	The existing work processes and procedures are designed in a way that leads to achieving my job outcomes and objectives
123	AR7	Employees' satisfaction with the job
129	AR8	Integrated processes and functions
130	AR9	Availability of control mechanisms
134	AR10	Availability of sufficient tools and equipment
135	AR11	Availability of sufficient human resources
136	AR12	Availability of clear systems, rules and procedures

Table 4.10 Items of Skills, Knowledge, Competences, and Behaviour Dimension

Item No in Questionnaire	Item Code	Item
15	SK1	GACA's motivation system energizes me to put in extra effort to perform my job
22	SK2	I have a sufficient level of confidence that allows me to do my job properly
23	SK3	I feel confident about my ability to improve my knowledge and skills to meet with new requirements related to my job performance
35	SK4	Performing my job properly requires a high level of mental ability.
36	SK5	I find it very easy to comprehend (understand) how to perform my job.
37	SK6	I can do my job perfectly with very little help from others.
38	SK7	I have got a sufficient level of knowledge and skills to enable me to do my job in an acceptable way.
41	SK8	I am able to adapt and change when there are changes in my organisation
55	SK9	I feel highly satisfied when I can prove my ability to perform a challenging task
56	SK10	I am satisfied with the training, skills, and career development opportunities GACA provide.

82	SK11	The correct information/data that I require to do my job properly is available to me
87	SK12	In my department, there is a sufficient number of skillful personnel to perform the job
88	SK13	In my department, personnel possess the necessary knowledge and skills to perform the job
89	SK14	In my department, personnel have highly specialised skills and competencies that are valuable to the organisation
95	SK15	Since I joined my organisation, I have been given the training and development opportunities that I needed to perform my job
114	SK16	Employees' ability
115	SK17	Employees' confidence
116	SK18	Employees' intelligence
117	SK19	Employees' knowledge and skills
124	SK20	Career development opportunities
127	SK21	Person-job fit (match)
137	SK22	Training opportunities

Table 4.11 Items of Communication and Feedback Dimension

Item No in Questionnaire	Item Code	Item
78	CF1	The coordination between my department and other departments makes it easy to communicate the correct information/data and the necessary things that are required to accomplish the job
83	CF2	The availability of the correct information on time makes it easy for me to communicate with others and perform my job better.
84	CF3	I communicate easily and freely with my colleagues.
119	CF4	Measures of employee's outcomes
121	CF5	Openness between manager (supervisor) and employees
122	CF6	Communication between manager (supervisor) and employees
131	CF7	Availability of the necessary data/information
132	CF8	Job performance feedback
133	CF9	Open communication

Table 4.12 Items of Performance Measure (PM)

Item No in Questionnaire	Item	Code	PM No
16	My job's duties and responsibilities stimulate me to dedicate my effort	DR1	PM1
23	I feel confident about my ability to improve my knowledge and skills to meet with new requirements related to my job performance	SK3	PM2

35	Performing my job properly requires a high level of mental ability.	SK4	PM3
36	I find it very easy to comprehend (understand) how to perform my job.	SK5	PM4
37	I can do my job perfectly with very little help from others.	SK6	PM5
38	I have got a sufficient level of knowledge and skills to enable me to do my job in an acceptable way.	SK7	PM6
41	I am able to adapt and change when there are changes in my organisation	SK8	PM7
55	I feel highly satisfied when I can prove my ability to perform a challenging task	SK9	PM8
62	My workload is very high and above the normal limit	DR2	PM9
114	Employees' ability	SK16	PM10
115	Employees' confidence	SK17	PM11
116	Employees' intelligence	SK18	PM12
117	Employees' knowledge and skills	SK19	PM13
118	Employee-organisation fit (match)	DR8	PM14
119	Measures of employee's outcomes	CF4	PM15
120	Employees' commitment	DR9	PM16
121	Openness between manager (supervisor) and employees	CF5	PM17
122	Communication between manager (supervisor) and employees	CF6	PM18
123	Employees' satisfaction with the job	AR7	PM19
124	Career development opportunities	SK20	PM20
125	Effective utilisation of working hours to perform job's duties and responsibilities	DR10	PM21
126	Availability of long-term and short term plans	DR11	PM22
127	Person-job fit (match)	SK21	PM23
128	Responsibilities	DR12	PM24
129	Integrated processes and functions	AR8	PM25
130	Availability of control mechanisms	AR9	PM26
131	Availability of the necessary information	CF7	PM27
132	Job performance feedback	CF8	PM28
133	Open communication	CF9	PM29
134	Availability of sufficient tools and equipment	AR10	PM30
135	Availability of sufficient human resources	AR11	PM31
136	Availability of clear system's rules and procedures	AR12	PM32
137	Training opportunities	SK22	PM33

Note: The highlighted items have been deleted after the preliminary run on SPSS programme to improve the reliability, except items No 1&4 of the PB construct they are not applicable N/A.

4.13. Data Collection Process

Data collection can be achieved through a variety of methods or techniques, e.g. face to face or telephone interviews, postal or self administered questionnaires, E-mail, etc (Fowler, 2013; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013; Zikmund et al., 2012). Each method has its own advantages and drawbacks. Survey techniques can be selected based on the research method and criteria of survey, i.e. cost, speed, length of questionnaire, and response rate. Thus, regarding length and high response rate face-to-face interview is favourable, telephone interviews are fast in speed with a moderate response rate, E-mail survey is the cheapest, fastest but again with a moderate response rate. Postal questionnaires are cheap but with the lowest response rate, while self administered, which is the method utilised in this study, has the characteristic of being fast in speed and highest in response rate. Table 4.13 illustrates the main characteristics of different criteria of survey methods. Selecting one of those methods requires considering other constraints such as the research environment, sample size needed, length of the questionnaire, respondents' background, cost in terms of access to respondents and time, development of the country e.g. communication services, availability of the internet, and reliability of the postal system (Fowler, 2013).

In this research a self-completion questionnaire was used for data collection. The drop and collect self administered technique was employed as it has the advantages of distributing a large number of questionnaires quickly, safely, easy to collect back, and at relatively no cost, which would yield a high response rate, which was important for this study. Also the researcher is able to perform a quick answers check and avoid any basic problems such as missing values, and provide a quick response in case of any inquiry. Furthermore, the data collection was conducted in Saudi Arabia which is a developing country where communication and postal services are unreliable. Thus, it was

appropriate to select the drop and collect self administered technique as a means of distributing questionnaires to the targeted group of people in this research (Becker et al., 2012; Ibeh and Brock, 2004). Self-completion questionnaires were dropped and collected by hand for all research targets (respondents). The questionnaires were distributed to all different sectors of GACA's headquarters in Jeddah, where the researcher was granted a consent and access to distribute and collect the questionnaires.

Table 4.13 Characteristics of survey techniques or types, Adapted from Lancaster (2005) and Ibeh and Brock (2004)

Method	cost	speed	Length (number of questions)	Response rate
Face to face interview	Expensive	Slow to moderate	Longest	Highest
Telephone	Moderate	Fast	Short	Moderate
Postal	Cheap	Slowest	Moderate	Lowest
Self administrated	Moderate	Fast	Long	Highest
E-mail	Cheapest	Fastest	Moderate	Moderate

4.13.1. Questionnaire Administration

With respect to this study and after finalizing the questionnaire design, the definitive and final version of the questionnaire was administered. Questionnaires were distributed in GACA's headquarters in Jeddah, to all eight sectors, i.e. air navigation services, finance and admin, HRM, safety and economic regulations, information technology, international organisation affairs, corporate core and Saudi Academy of Civil Aviation, which would ensure all GACA's sectors were covered. The researcher was granted consent from GACA's authorities to access, administer, distribute and collect the research questionnaires. Also the questionnaire was approved by Hull University (Research Ethics Proforma Approval). In total, 480 questionnaires were distributed. Sixty questionnaires were handed to the information desk of each sector with the coordination of the manager of the sector. A total of 340 were collected back, of which 319 were valid, entered into the SPSS program and analysed, which was sufficient to

yield reliable findings. Only 21 questionnaires were excluded. This study's data was collected within three months from December 2012 to February 2013. Table 4.14 illustrates distribution of questionnaires to each sector in numbers, also Figure 4.3 presents administration of questionnaires in details.

Table 4.14 Questionnaire Administration to all GACA's Sectors

Item	Sector Name	Sum of questionnaires
1	Air navigation services	60
2	HRM	60
3	Safety and economic regulations	60
4	Finance and admin	60
5	Information technology	60
6	International Organisation Affairs	60
7	Corporate Core	60
8	Saudi Academy of Civil Aviation	60

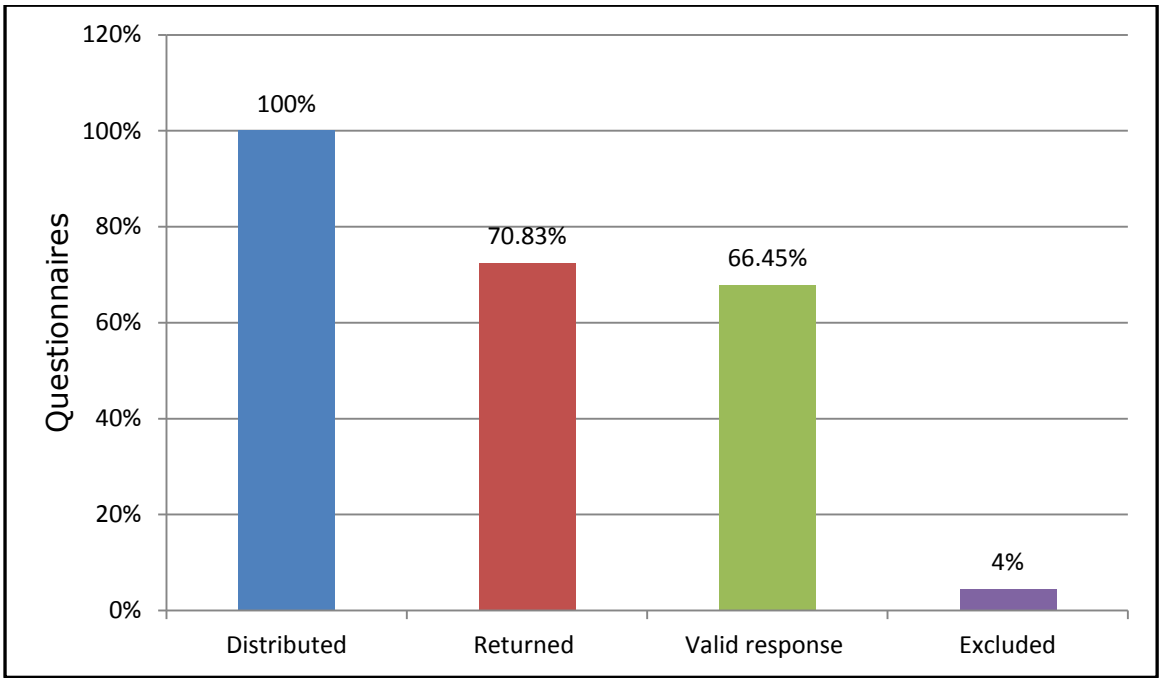

Figure 4.3 Questionnaire Administration

4.14. Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of inspecting, transforming, testing, and modelling the collected data with the aim of explaining and presenting useful data, suggesting conclusions and recommendations and supporting decision-making. Data analysis has multiple facets and approaches, encompassing diverse techniques under a variety of names, in different business, science and social science domains. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 and Partial Least Squares (PLS) which have been accredited by many scholars (Field, 2013; Henseler et al., 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012; Vinzi, 2010) were utilised for data analyses due to their relevance to the current study. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Cronbach's alpha test were performed on the data to investigate and confirm the constructs' factorability, dimensionality, discriminant validity, and reliability. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) itself is a set of statistical techniques that facilitates the establishment and evaluation of the relationships amongst many constructs simultaneously. PLS-SEM was used to test the inner-model, the 'measurement model', which links observed variables to their construct and an outer-model, the 'structural model', which links the dependent and independent constructs to each other based on the hypothesised direction of linkage. These steps were employed sequentially (Chin, 1998; Gefen and Straub, 2005; Hair et al., 2006). This analysis approach begins with the inner model stage through determining the reliability and validity of the measurement model's items. This measurement model is regarded as the CFA stage within the PLS-SEM method (Henseler et al., 2009; Vinzi et al., 2010). From the CFA step or 'Inner model' stage, vital indices are obtainable such as Composite reliability (CR), Cronbach's alpha reliability (α) and validities (e.g. discriminant, Average Variance Extracted (AVE)). In the second stage, the 'structural model' or outer-model provides very important

indicators by which the hypothesised relationships among endogenous and exogenous latent variables can be examined (Gotz et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2012a; Henseler et al., 2009). These indicators, which are produced by bootstrapping techniques, include path coefficients, significance of path coefficients and R^2.

Nonetheless some authors recommend splitting the dataset and then conducting EFA and CFA (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Churchill, 1979; Hair et al, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). However in this study the dataset was not split as a large sample size is preferred for data analysis, thus a large and adequate sample size should be executed to ensure that the data collected is reliable and decrease chances of sample error, it would also ensure the findings produced are reliable and valid (Bryman and Cramer, 2011; De Vaus, 2014), A large sample size would also minimize researcher bias and meet the criteria of analytical methods (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2013). In this study the sample size that was appropriate and was entered to SPSS and PLS to be analyze was N=319. All data findings and analyses will be discussed thoroughly in the next chapter.

4.15. Ethical Issues

Ethics are defined as "the norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and our relationship with others" (Cooper and Schindler, 2008:34). In business and social science research, when a study aims to examine human behaviour, ethical issues are considered to be a major issue. They are moral principles and values that influence the way a researcher or a group of researchers conduct their research process and activities (Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2010). Lack of ethical considerations prior to and during data collection process may yield lack of respondents' cooperation, which might result in unreliable data, and low response rate (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013; Zikmund et al., 2012). It is extremely important in any research, that in each step of the research process, the researcher conducts the research in a responsible manner. A formal

consent to fulfil ethical values is a prerequisite; care ought to be taken to protect participants' rights. For example privacy, anonymity and confidentiality have to be maintained with no deception. Personal information or any other data should not be misused or harm the respondents or their career at any time, and the self-esteem and self-respect of the respondents should not be violated. The disclosed data should be held in strict confidence and used for academic research purposes only, and any risk should be explained to the participants, as well as the research aims and nature (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). The researcher was committed to ensuring that the findings of the research would not harm the participants. Regarding this study, all the above mentioned conditions were considered and fulfilled. Also, approval from Hull University Business School to administer the questionnaire was obtained. A copy of the cover letter is presented along with the questionnaire, Appendix 7.

4.16. Conclusion

This chapter has indicated that the research was underpinned by the positivistic paradigm as its main philosophy and adopted a deductive approach to fulfil its explanatory purpose and answer the research questions. Justification of the employed philosophy of positivism and the research methodology was provided, followed by some critical stages of the research design and contextual settings. A survey strategy was implemented. Quantitative data was collected through a self-completion questionnaire. The cross-sectional methodology to examine the proposed hypothetical relationships between the constructs of the developed conceptual framework in Figure 3.2 was employed. Questionnaire development, structure, translation technique, and the pilot study were explained in details. The data collection process and questionnaire administration were described. The data analysis methods employed; namely, EFA, CFA, using the SPSS program, and PLS-SEM (PLS) were outlined. The university conditions of ethics were

carefully followed. The findings obtained from the quantitative data will be introduced in detail in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Findings and Analysis

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter identified and justified the methodological issues and approaches employed for evaluating the proposed research model, to achieve the aim of this study. This chapter sets out the findings by presenting the quantitative analysis of the data obtained from the research sample. This analysis starts with data screening via the essential statistical techniques, e.g. data cleaning, dealing with missing data, outliers, multicollinearity, normality and data preparation. This is followed by analysis of the respondents' demographic characteristics. Then, multivariate analyses of the conceptual framework e.g. EFA, CFA, SEM are reported, including the constructs' dimensionality, reliability and validity, findings of the EFA, and criteria applied for CFA and SEM. The findings of the data analyses were obtained via the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Partial Least Square (PLS) statistical programs.

5.2. Data Screening

5.2.1. Cleaning and Checking Accuracy of Data Coding

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 20) was employed to analyse the collected data to present respondent characteristics and statistical findings and to draw conclusions based on the sample analysis, starting with demographic information. A descriptive analysis is suggested by (Hair et al., 2011a). The SPSS program links variables in order to perform many statistical tests, and it is able to give indications and outcomes about issues that can affect the quality of multivariate tests, e.g. missing values, outliers, linearity, normality, multicollinearity and reliability (Hair et al., 2013). 340 questionnaires were collected back from the respondents in GACA's headquarters in Jeddah. Out of those, 21 questionnaires were excluded due to too much missing data (more than the half of the questionnaire), and the obvious carelessness in completing the questionnaire (e.g. participants checked the same response number for numerous items)

which caused strong contradictions of the participants' opinions from one item to another. Hence, there were 319 usable questionnaires. Responses were encoded in a codebook designed by the author and entered into the SPSS program. The coded data results from the collected usable questionnaires were carefully reviewed and compared with the original hardcopies, as the first stage of data cleaning. In the second stage, the raw data was screened by using descriptive analysis via the SPSS 20 to examine the means, standard deviations, missing data and ranges. This data screening, which is advised by Field (2013), helped in detecting values that fell out of the coding range and spotting any missing values. It also provided indications about the existence of outliers, multicollinearity, and normality. Such assessments and analyses provided a good starting point to understand the characteristics of the research sample and to organise the research data to be suitable for multivariate tests, such as EFA, CFA, SEM and regression analysis.

5.2.2. Missing Values Assessment

Satisfactory statistical findings can only be derived from high quality data. Data quality could be violated by some issues such as missing values, outliers, linearity, normality and multicollinearity. Such issues can be detected and assessed by performing data screening (Field, 2013). Missing data is considered as one of most pervasive issues or problems in data analysis, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2012), who also highlighted that the pattern of the missing data is more important than the amount missing. Therefore, when exploring missing data, it is important to come to a conclusion about the mechanism of missingness, that is the hypothesised reason for why data is missing. This can range from arbitrary or random influences to purposeful patterns of nonresponse, i.e. Missing Completely At Random (MCAR), Missing At Random (MAR), or Missing Not At Random (MNAR).

Determination of the mechanism is important. If we can infer the data are missing at random i.e., MCAR or MAR, then the nonresponse is deemed ignorable; randomly missing data is less problematic than non-randomly missing (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). In other words, random missing values can be problematic from a power perspective, they often reduce sample size or degrees of freedom for an analysis, but they would not potentially bias the results. However, MNAR data could potentially be a strong biasing influence (Rubin, 1976). With regard to the amount of the missing data, Hair et al. (2006) suggested that under 10% of missing data for an individual case or observation can generally be ignored if it is randomly missing.

Although simple random sampling was adopted via a drop and collect self administered technique, with the aim of collecting sufficient, valid and reliable data, the missing data procedure was conducted for more accurate and statistically valid data. Missing data issues could be found due to, for example, the probability sample approach and/or the use of Likert scale rated items (Sterner, 2011). The 319 usable questionnaires were evaluated using both exclude cases list wise and exclude cases pair wise methods separately to check the percentage of missing values and the result in both cases was zero per cent. This is due to the utilization of the drop and collect method, hard, careful work and the time put into collecting usable questionnaires, as the researcher was able to answer queries and check questionnaires during the collection stage and this helped in minimizing the amount of missing data. Appendix 1, Table 1.1 illustrates details of the missing data analysis findings by questionnaire items, which indicates the completeness of data within useable responses. After ensuring the data entered to SPSS had no missing values, the next step was to proceed with more descriptive analysis dealing with outliers' assessment.

5.2.3. Outliers' Assessment

Outliers refer to abnormal data behaviour, i.e. data which deviate from the natural data variability. They are cases that have data values which are very different from the data values for the majority of cases in the data set; outlying observations with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as definitely different from the other observations (Hair et al., 2006). Outliers' findings are categorised into two types; univariate outliers, which are cases that have an unusual value for a single variable, and multivariate outliers, which are cases that have an unusual combination of values for a number of variables. The value for any of the individual variables may not be a univariate outlier, but, in combination with other variables, is a case that occurs very rarely (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2013). According to Hair et al. (2006) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2012), there are four reasons that could lead to outliers: missing values specification, error when entering data, observations that fall within the ordinary range of values on each of the variables and extraordinary observations for which the researcher has no explanation.

Frequently, outliers are removed to improve the accuracy of the estimators. However, this practice is not recommended because sometimes outliers can have very useful information. The presence of outliers can indicate individuals or groups that have behaviour very different from a standard situation, but they have the right to express their opinions and ideas. Thus, outliers can be retained unless there is proof that they are truly deviated and are not signifying any observation in the dataset (Hair et al., 2006). Even if outliers are found to be problematic, they can still be accommodated in a way that will not seriously distort the results (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012).

In a univariate context and to detect the univariate outliers using SPSS function of descriptive statistics, the data values of each observation were converted to standardised scores also known as z-scores (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012).

With regard to the current study, the results of performing the z-score technique, which is recommended by Tinsely and Brown (2000), indicated that the dataset contained fewer outlying items then the recommended range of (±3.29) standard deviation, and they constituted less than 2% of the dataset, which indicated no serious problem with outliers (Hair et al., 2006). Based on the findings obtained, all observations were retained and no case has been excluded. Tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 present details of work environment, skills and knowledge, and communication and feedback variables respectively along with the number of cases for each item. More details of the z-score test for all the items are presented in Appendix 2, Table 2.1.

Table 5.1 Summary of Outliers Found in the Data Related to Work Envirnoment (WE) Variable

Item No in	Item Code in SPSS	Outlier cases Found
17	WE 1	3 cases
18	WE 2	4 cases
42	WE 5	2 cases
44	WE 7	2 cases
71	WE 18	4 cases
73	WE 19	4 cases

Table 5.2 Summary of Outliers Found in the Data Related to Skills and Knowledge (SK) Variable

Item No in questionnaire	Item Code in SPSS	Outlier cases Found
35	SK 4	2 cases
36	SK 5	3 cases
37	SK 6	3 cases
55	SK 9	4 cases
114	SK 14	4 cases
115	SK 15	4 cases
116	SK 16	3 cases
117	SK 17	4 cases
124	SK 18	3 cases
127	SK 19	5 cases
137	SK 20	5 cases

Table 5.3 Summary of Outliers Found in the Data Related to Communication and Feedback (CF) Variable

Item No in questionnaire	Item Code in SPSS	Outlier cases Found
84	CF3	4 cases
119	CF4	4 cases
131	CF7	4 cases

For an additional assessment of outliers, the Mahalanobis D^2 measure was employed to examine multivariate outliers. Mahalanobis D^2 is a multidimensional version of a z-score. Such an approach has been proposed as the most robust method available. It measures the distance of a case from the centroid (multidimensional mean) of a distribution, given the covariance (multidimensional variance) of the distribution (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). This method helps to measure each observation's distance in multidimensional space from the mean of centre of all observations and provides a single value (Hair et al., 2006). According to Hair et al. (2006) the mean of D^2/number of variables or items should be less than 2.5% in small samples, e.g. 80 cases or less, and from 3% to 4% for large samples, greater than 200. Larger D^2 is considered to reflect possible outliers.

In the current study, descriptive statistics were applied to calculate the Mahalanobis D^2 values, i.e. minimum, maximum, sum and mean, and the number of variables/items were used for this calculation was 131. The result obtained was 0.8827, which is very much less than 2.5%, the threshold recommended by Hair et al. (2006). Thus, such findings indicated that the value of multivariate outliers is within the recommended range as outlined earlier and outliers do not present an issue for this study. Table 5.5 presents details of mulitivariate outliers results, while Table 5.4 presents statistical details of Mahalanobis D^2 findings.

Table 5.4 Descriptives of Mahalanobis Distance

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean
Mahalanobis Distance	319	62.17290	187.06430	36888.00000	115.6363636
Valid N (listwise)	319				

Table 5.5 Result of Multivariate outliers

Mahalanobis Distance Mean	No of Variables	Result
115.6363636	131	0.88272

5.2.4. Multicollinearity Assessment

After accomplishing the outliers' assessment for this study's sample, the status of any possible multicollinearity was a significant step to perform before proceeding with more statistical tests, e.g. EFA, CFA and hypothesis testing of the conceptual framework (Banerjee et al., 2008; Hair et al., 2006). Multicollinearity refers to the relationship among the independent variables. It exists when the independent variables are highly correlated (r=0.9 and above). Thus items with multicollinearilty regularly produce correlations higher than 0.9. "Singularity occurs when one independent variable is actually a combination of other independent variables (e.g. when both subscale scores and the total score of a scale are included)" (Pallant, 2005:143). Therefore singular items frequently produce correlations less than 0.20 (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2013). According to Hair et al. (2006) the degree of multicollinearity can be indicated by examining the *R*-matrix, and the Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) averages (Field, 2013). An *R*-matrix is "a correlation matrix: a table of correlation coefficients between variables" (Field, 2009:628). Such an inspectional step derives its importance from the possible undesirable effects of multiconllinearity on estimated coefficients produced via regression (Gorsuch, 1990). Thus it was a fundamental step to implement such a test

before proceeding to more statistical analyses, as such a problem does not contribute to a good regression model (Pallant, 2013). To address this issue, an R-Matrix table was produced by performing a Spearman's correlation test, as variables with frequently extremely high correlations indicate multicollinearity, whereas variables with frequently extremely low correlations indicate singularity. Such a test is usually conducted when data are non-normally distributed, as it was the case in this study, which will be reported in (section 5.2.5). R-Matrix analysis was conducted in previous research that produced scale measurements (e.g. Coleman, 2011)

Tolerance can be referred to as an "indicator of how much of the variability of the specified independent variable is not explained by the other independent variables" (Pallant, 2010:158). When the tolerance value is less than 0.10, it is an indication of high correlation, and hence the possibility of multicollinearity cases, but with regard to VIF which is the inverse of Tolerance, when the VIF average exceeds 10 it indicates multicollinearity (Costello and Osborne, 2005; Pallant, 2010).

An R-Matrix, collinearity statistics between variables and collinearity diagnostic via regression analysis were performed using SPSS 20. Based on the obtained *R*-Matrix findings (Table 5.6) no multicollinearity was found. Also findings obtained from the regression statistical analysis revealed that the results of the VIF and Tolerance were as follows: the tolerance values ranged between 0.548 and 0.783, which is more than 0.10, and the VIF values ranged between 1.27 and 1.82, which are below the benchmark value that indicates multicollinearity, 10.00. Based on the aforementioned findings, multicollinearity was not regarded as a problematic issue for this study, and thus it was concluded that no multicollinearity was present in the dataset. Tables 5.6 and 5.7 present more detailed statistics about the performed test.

Table 5.6 Correlations between the constructs

Correlations

			PB	JS	MG	WE	LMX	Performance
Spearman's rho	PB	Correlation Coefficient	1.000					
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.					
		N	319					
	JS	Correlation Coefficient	.486**	1.000				
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.				
		N	319	319				
	MG	Correlation Coefficient	.574**	.418**	1.000			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.			
		N	319	319	319			
	WE	Correlation Coefficient	.272**	.461**	.339**	1.000		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.		
		N	319	319	319	319		
	LMX	Correlation Coefficient	.463**	.419**	.601**	.270**	1.000	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	
		N	319	319	319	319	319	
	Performance	Correlation Coefficient	.488**	.579**	.411**	.361**	.407**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
		N	319	319	319	319	319	319

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

Table 5.7 The Values of VIF and Tolerance

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.451	.159		9.140	.000	1.139	1.763		
	PB	.117	.053	.124	2.193	.029	.012	.222	.562	1.778
	JS	.291	.052	.318	5.644	.000	.190	.393	.568	1.759
	MG	.109	.048	.132	2.305	.022	.016	.203	.548	1.824
	WE	.194	.053	.175	3.645	.000	.089	.299	.783	1.277
	LMX	.125	.047	.143	2.633	.009	.032	.218	.612	1.634

a. Dependent Variable: Performance

5.2.5. Normality of Data Assessment

Normality refers to the assumption that the data distribution in each item and in all linear combination of items is normally distributed (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). According to Hurley et al. (1997) it is advised to explore the data before exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis are conducted. The normality assumption for the data entered on the basis of each individual items of the questionnaire was addressed through an examination of Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilks (S-W) analysis and normality Boxplot of the theoretical framework's constructs via SPSS 20. Field (2009) highlighted that the S-W test provides more accurate results than K-S. Similarly, Barnes (2001) argued that the S-W test is considered to be more reflective on normality analysis than the K-S test is. The two tests were conducted on all items of the questionnaire and the findings of the two tests were significant (i.e. $p<0.000$). Furthermore the normality results obtained were compared against the histograms and the Q-Q plots of the items, which also revealed non-normal distribution of data and that values did not fall in a direct line. According to Hair et al. (2006) and Field (2009) such results are expected and likely to be obtained. Therefore, it can be determined that the

data was non-normally distributed, Appendix 3, Table 3.1 provides findings of K-S and S-W normality tests of all items.

Sample size is another factor that could affect the normal distribution of data (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012): "However, K-S and S-W have their limitations because with large sample size it is easy to get significant results from small deviations from normality, and so a significant test doesn't necessarily tell us whether the deviation from normality is enough to bias any statistical procedures that we apply to the data." (Field, 2009:144). In relation to the rarity with which insignificant normality findings are obtained, "Virtually no variable follows a normal distribution" (Barnes et al., 2001:80).

Hair et al. (2006:80) also mentioned that sample size can affect normality as "what might be considered unacceptable at small sample sizes will have a negligible effect at larger sample size". They highlighted that small significant departures from normality can be neglected with a sample size of 200 or more. Hair et al. (1998) regarded samples that exceeded 200 as large sample sizes. This indicates that it is common to obtain non-normally distributed data with a large sample size such as the present sample (N=319). Furthermore, it was stated by a number of documented scholars such as Barnes et al. (2001) that it is unlikely to obtain normally distributed data results when employing Likert scales, which were used in this research.

Skeweness and Kurtosis are considered to be more accurate tests of normality. Skewness is a statistical test which is implemented to determine the degree to which a distribution of cases approximates a normal curve, since it measures deviations from symmetry, whereas Kurtosis is a statistical test that is carried out to identify the peakedness of data distribution (too peaked or too flat). Kline (2010) recommended that Skewness and Kurtosis values should range between +/- 3.0 and +/- 10.0. However, Hair et al. (1998)

recommended Skewness and Kurtosis values should range between 2.00 and 7.00. To assure more accurate results of normality, the two tests were performed. Such tests were conducted in similar previous studies (e.g. Tay, 2006) in order to calculate the normality of the raw data. In the light of what is stated above, also with regard to Hair et al. (1998) and Kline's (2010) recommendations about Skewness and Kurtosis values range, and as the findings of data of the present study ranged between 3.48 and 14.25 (see Appendix 4, Table 4.1.) the findings of the data of this research can be regarded as non-normally distributed. However, "exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis, in practice, are relatively robust against violations of normality." (Coleman, 2011: 255).

5.3. Demographic Factors

Demographic factors are personal characteristics which are employed to collect and evaluate data on individuals in a given population. While demographic factors have been found to be correlated to behaviour, this relationship is generally not interpreted in a causal sense (Serenko, 2006; Warr, 2008). In this research demographic factors were not linked to any variable, i.e. independent, mediator or dependent. They were analysed as they are part of the questionnaire and they may be of a good use and can be utilized in future studies.

5.3.1. Employment Period (EP)

The employment period of the sample was evaluated via the SPSS program and the analytical assessment was as follows: 36 (11.3%) and 23 (7.2%) of respondents, respectively, reported employment periods of 25 and 24 years, which represent the highest percentages. The frequency of 20 (6.3%) for employment of 5 years came next, followed 19 (6.0%) respondents with an employment period of 26 years, then the 18 (5.6%) with 6 years, 17 (5.3%) with 27 years and 15 (4.7%) with 23 years employment.

Other employment periods accounted for smaller frequencies and percentages of the sample. Table 5.8 illustrates descriptive statistics about the employment period of the participants. The total variable of employment period produced a mean of 19.64, standard deviation of 9.046 and a minimum of 3 years and maximum of 40 years of employment.

Table 5.8 Statistics of Employment Period of the Participants

Statistics

EP

N	Valid	319
	Missing	0
Mean		19.64
Std. Deviation		9.046
Variance		81.834
Minimum		3
Maximum		40

5.3.2. Age

The distribution of respondents' age was as follows: 28 (8.8%) for the age of 47 years old was the largest category. Next came 48 year-olds (21, 6.6%), followed by 46 years (20, 6.3%) then 45 and 50 years, both with 16 (5.0%) of the sample, and ages 30, 39, 51 and 53, each with 12 respondents (3.8%). Other ages showed lower frequencies and percentages. The total variable of age as presented in Table 5.9 produced a mean of 43.45, standard deviation of 8.438, a minimum of 25 years and a maximum of 59 years old.

Table 5.9 Statistics of Employment Period of the Participants

Statistics

Age

N	Valid	319
	Missing	0
Mean		43.45
Std. Deviation		8.483
Variance		71.959
Minimum		25
Maximum		59

5.3.3. Level of Education

Tables 5.10 and 5.11 display the statistical data regarding the educational level distribution among the total sample of this study. It can be observed that employees with a bachelor degree was the largest category (132, 41.4%), with employees who held diplomas came next (127, 39.8%), then postgraduate degree holders (34, 10.7%) and employees with high school or lower (26, 8.2%). The standard deviation was 0.791. The data indicate that in total, 81.2%, more than three quarters of the sample held diplomas and bachelor degrees.

Table 5.10 Statistics of Level of Education

Statistics

Education

N	Valid	319
	Missing	0
Mean		2.55
Std. Deviation		.791
Variance		.626
Minimum		1
Maximum		4

Table 5.11 Frequencies & Percentages of Level of Education

Education Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High school or lower	26	8.2	8.2	8.2
	Diploma	127	39.8	39.8	48.0
	Bachelor Degree	132	41.4	41.4	89.3
	Postgraduate	34	10.7	10.7	100.0
	Total	319	100.0	100.0	

5.3.4. Position

Participants' position: Tables 5.12 and 5.13 display the statistical data regarding the positions that employees held in GACA, distributed among the total sample of this study. Employees who worked as technicians were the largest group, with 102 (32.0%). "Others" e.g. secretaries and clerks, came next with 92 (28.8%), followed by engineers (47, 14.7%), then supervisors (46, 14.4%), senior managers (27, 8.5%) and general managers (5, 1.6%). The findings indicate that more than half of the total examined sample were working as technicians and engineers.

Table 5.12 Statistics of Participants' Position

Statistics

Position

N	Valid	319
	Missing	0
Mean		4.53
Std. Deviation		1.350
Variance		1.822
Minimum		1
Maximum		6

Table 5.13 Frequencies & Percentages of Participants' Position

Position

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	General Manager	5	1.6	1.6	1.6
	Senior Manager	27	8.5	8.5	10.0
	Engineer	47	14.7	14.7	24.8
	Supervisor	46	14.4	14.4	39.2
	Technician	102	32.0	32.0	71.2
	Others	92	28.8	28.8	100.0
	Total	319	100.0	100.0	

5.3.5. Gross salary per month

Tables 5.14 and 5.15 display the statistical data regarding the participants' monthly income, distributed among the total sample of this study. Employees who earned between 15,001-25,000 SR were the majority, with 180 (56.4%), followed by employees who earned between 10,001-15,000 SR (81, 25.4%) and employees who earned between 5,000-10,000 SR, (46, 14.4%). Then came employees who earned more the 25,000 SR (12, 3.8%).

Table 5.14 Statistics of Pertecepents' gross salary per month

Statistics

Income

N	Valid	319
	Missing	0
Mean		3.50
Std. Deviation		.785
Variance		.616
Minimum		2
Maximum		5

Table 5.15 Frequencies & Percentages of gross salary per month

Income

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	5,001-10,000 SR	46	14.4	14.4	14.4
	10,001-15,000 SR	81	25.4	25.4	39.8
	15,001-25,000 SR	180	56.4	56.4	96.2
	25,001 SR and above	12	3.8	3.8	100.0
	Total	319	100.0	100.0	

5.4. Multivariate Analysis of the Research Variables

Following data screening and the analytical assessment of the participants' demographic factors, the main data analyses, i.e. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation modelling (SEM), etc, were implemented on the constructs of the conceptual framework of this study. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2012) Factor Analysis (FA) is the best way to understand the underlying structure about a particular theory and the analysis of its variables. FA is generally performed to reduce the information contained in a number of measuring items into a smaller set of new composite dimensions or factors (Gorsuch, 2014; Rummel, 1970). According to Hair et al. (2006), FA helps to specify the unit of analysis by identifying the structure of relationship (i.e. correlation) between variables or respondents. It is also conducted to combine individual variables grouped together so they represent collectively the underlying dimensions or factors. In other words, FA makes it possible to reduce a large set of variables or scale items down to a smaller, more manageable number of dimensions/factors, which empirically represent specific variables from a much large number of variables to be used in multivariate analysis. Therefore, factor analysis is the proper way to examine the potential underlying dimensions that can be

identified through the characteristics of variables which are grouped together in a meaningful way (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012).

Hair et al. (2006) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2012) stated that exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factory analysis are two techniques of factor analysis which can be employed to discover the variable of interest from the set of coherent subsets that are relatively independent from each other. EFA is a statistical approach that can be used to analyse interrelationships among a large number of variables. In other words EFA is a method of data reduction which infers presence of latent factors that are responsible for the shared variance in a set of observed items. Whereas, CFA "is a more complex and sophisticated set of techniques used later in the research process to test (confirm) specific hypotheses or theories concerning the structure underlying a set of variables" (Pallant, 2005:172). In other words it is conducted to validate/confirm the measurement factors that exists within set of variables involved in theoretical model (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012).

5.4.1. Appropriateness of Data for EFA

The appropriate number of items for each proposed factor and the sample size are two important issues that affect EFA's results (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). With regard to the number of items, it should be at least five items for each construct. Field (2009) and Pallant (2013) recommended that prior to conducting exploratory factor analysis, the factorability (suitability) of the examined sample size should be assessed. Thus, the factorability of the examined sample was investigated based on related literature. As outlined in the related literature, the most appropriate sizes of collected sample that would produce valuable findings via exploratory factor analysis are as follows: The sample size should be about 300 as advised by Field (2009), or about

200 as advised by Ferguson and Cox (2007). The sample size for this study was N=319 cases, which comfortably meets both criteria.

5.5. Exploratory Factor Analysis (Data's Factorability)

With regard to this study the first analytical step of this stage was to perform exploratory factor analysis. EFA is "often used in the early stages of research to gather information about (explore) the interrelationships among a set of variables" (Pallant, 2005:172). It provides information to the researcher about the number of possible factors that best represent the data (Hair et al., 2006). It examines the structure of the measurement items corresponding to the constructs presented in the conceptual model, in order to determine the measurement dimensionality assumptions (DeVellis, 2012; Hurley et al., 1997). It explains those constructs in terms of their common underlying dimensions, sub dimensions or factors. EFA is mainly used to identify and factorize the structure of a set of variables, construct a questionnaire to measure underlying constructs and reduce a dataset to a more manageable size while retaining as much of the original information as possible (Field, 2013). It achieves two main outcomes: data summarising which aims to set the appropriate structure of research variables under specific logic factors, and data reduction, which is a process of eliminating uncorrelated items and reduces the number of items within each construct (Hair et al., 2006).

Among the various methods of extraction, such as Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Principal Factors, Maximum Likelihood, Image Factoring, Alpha Factoring, etc (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012), principal components analysis and principal factors analysis are the most commonly employed methods (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell 2012). PCA is implemented when the objective is to summarise most of the original information (variance) in the minimum manageable number of factors for

prediction purposes, whereas principal factors is utilised primarily to identify underlying factors or dimensions that reflect what the variables share in common (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). With regard to principal factors analysis, there are two issues of concern. The first is factor indeterminacy, i.e. several different scores can be calculated from a single factor model result, which leads to difficulty in obtaining one single unique solution for this analysis, and sometimes the communalities (shared variance) are not estimable or may be invalid, requiring item deletion from the analysis. The second one is that when the number of items exceeds 30 or the communality value exceeds 0.60 for most items, both PCA and principal factor analysis arrive at basically identical results (Hair et al., 2006).

Thus PCA was selected for factor extraction solutions throughout the EFA stage of this study, as it is the most commonly used approach for factor extraction (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012; Pallant, 2013). According to Netemeyer (2003) PCA is more suitable for data reduction, as it reduces the large set of variables into smaller number of components by transforming interrelated variables into new unrelated linear composite variables (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). It also helps in extracting the maximum variance from the data set in an organised way that starts with extracting the component with highest variance first and the component with least variance last (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Furthermore when the data obtained is non-normally distributed as it is the case in this study, it is best to employ the PCA method of EFA (Costello and Osborne, 2005; Fabrigar et al., 1999).

For rotation, the orthogonal varimax rotational method was selected due to its common variance maximizing procedure, high generalisabliity and replicability power compared to the oblique rotational method (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Also, results generated by selecting orthogonal rotations are best fitted with past and future

data (Rennie, 1997). In addition, the interpretation of the results obtained using orthogonal rotation is much easier compared to the oblique method (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). With regard to factor rotation it was set to items loading >0.50 which was advised by Hair et al. (1998, 2013) nonetheless items with loadings of 0.4 or lower are unlikely to contribute significantly to any factor (Churchill, 1979; Hurley et al., 1997).

According to Field (2009) and Pallant (2013) Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1974) are two statistical measures that can be generated by SPSS to help in assessing the factorability of the data. The KMO index ranges from 0 to 1, with 0.6 suggested as the minimum value for a good factor analysis. The KMO assessment result would indicate if the relationship between the items is statistically significant and if it is suitable for EFA to provide a parsimonious set of factors (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). The Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant at ($p<.05$). The significance of Bartlett's test of sphericity indicates that the correlation among the measurement items is higher than 0.3 and they are suitable for EFA. It simply investigates if the total set is an identity matrix or not, and it would provide an indication of whether or not the correlation among the measurement items is suitable for EFA (Hair et al., 2006). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were implemented for all constructs and dimensions of this study.

5.5.1. EFA of the Pay and Benefits Construct

When the data of this study was found to be ready for FA, EFA was performed on the Pay and Benefits construct as it is the first construct of motivation, the independent variable, with 17 items. The factorability of the pay and benefits construct was tested via SPSS 20. It produced three factors i.e. reward and promotions (PBF1), wages and incentives (PBF2) and allowances and facilities (PBF3). As shown in Table 5.16, the

result of the KMO test for the 17 items was 0.936 which is considered to be a 'Marvellous' result as argued by DeVellis (2012). The result of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was approx. Chi-Square = 2765.241 and Degree of Freedom *df*=136 (P<0.000), which is identified as a significant Chi-Square. In other words, the examined data reflected high factorability. Thus, it was expected that these data would result in unique factors with high reliability.

Table 5.16 Results of KMO and Bartlett's tests for PB Construct.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.936
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2765.241
	df	136
	Sig.	.000

Next, the Anti-image Matrix test which was suggested by Field (2009: 659) was performed, "It is important to examine the diagonal elements of the anti-image correlation matrix: the value should be above the bare minimum of 0.5 for all variables (and preferably higher)". The anti-image correlation matrix of the entire construct of 17 items was examined for each individual item. All examined items obtained diagonals higher than 0.5; indeed, most of them were higher than 0.7, which is preferred by Field (2009). According to the findings of KMO, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Anti-image correlations matrix, we could be confident that the dataset was appropriate for exploratory factor analysis to be conducted.

Based on the EFA's options mentioned earlier, varimax method factor rotation was conducted with items loading >0.50 as outlined earlier (Hair et al., 2006), extraction with Eigenvalue >1 and an unlimited number of factors, on the 17 items of the Pay and Benefits construct. Eigenvalue is the standard variability in the total dataset (equal to the numbers of variables included), which is accounted for by an extracted factor in factor

analysis. Only those factors that account for variances greater than 1 should be included (Norusis, 2008; Hair et al., 2006). Eigenvalues greater than 1 are considered significant. Using eigenvalue for establishing a cut-off is most reliable when the number of items is between 20 and 50 (Hair et al., 2006). According to Hair et al. (2006) Eigenvalues greater than one satisfy the latent root criterion and a solution that accounts 60% or above cumulative variance satisfies the criterion of variance percentage (variability in score). The percentage of variance criterion is an approach based on achieving a specified cumulative percentage of total variance extracted by successive factors (Hair et al., 2006). It is worth mentioning that in the natural sciences, 95% of the total cumulative variances represent a satisfactory threshold to accept an EFA solution, whereas in social sciences the satisfactory cut-off point is 60% or less (Hair et al., 2006).

This rotation setting of multiple options described above yielded a framework of three factors. Table 5.19 demonstrates the three factors/dimensions mentioned and their factor loadings. The Scree Plot solution Figure 5.1 display the cutoff or breaking point. The scree plot method also displays a descending graph, plotting the amount of variance accounted for (eigenvalues) by the factors initially extracted. According to Bryman and Cramer (2011) the plot usually shows two distinctive slopes, one steep slope of the initial factors and a gentle one of the subsequent factors. After extraction, factor rotation is used to improve the interpretability and scientific utility of the solution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). The three factors explained about 61% of the total variance (Table 5.18).

Communality is the total variance of an original variable shared with other variables included in the analysis (Field, 2013; Hair et al., 2006). According to Norusis (2008) and Hair et al. (2006) Communalities can range from (0) which indicates that the common variance factors explain none of the variance, to (1) which indicates that all the variance is explained by the common factors. Items that exhibit communality lower than 0.5

(50%) are considered to be weak items (Hair et al., 2006). In some cases, depending on the sample size, a 0.3 cut-off value of communality is also accepted (Pallant, 2013). The communality of all items in this framework exceeded 0.5, meaning the internal reliability of this framework is high. The existence of high communalities is a sign that a high degree of confidence can be placed in the factor solution. Table 5.17 illustrates the communality of all items of this construct. In addition, the EFA findings of the PB construct were supported by the results of the component correlation matrix, which indicates the relationship between factors that were produced by the EFA was also strong. It yielded significant correlations between the three factors, Pay and Benefits Factor1 (PBF1), PBF2 and PBF3. It is essential to point out that all produced factors items were accepted, because it was believed that they reflected the sample's view of how the factors of the construct are related to pay and benefits, which supports the conceptualisation of the construct, e.g. financial (monetary) and non-financial (non-monetary) incentives. Factors of the pay and benefits construct will be discussed in depth in the discussion chapter, with reference to the literature.

Table 5.17 Communalities of the PB Construct's Items

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
PB2	1.000	.505
PB3	1.000	.670
PB5	1.000	.564
PB6	1.000	.627
PB7	1.000	.765
PB8	1.000	.522
PB9	1.000	.647
PB10	1.000	.733
PB11	1.000	.608
PB12	1.000	.518
PB13	1.000	.540
PB14	1.000	.618
PB15	1.000	.675
PB16	1.000	.531

PB17	1.000	.709
PB18	1.000	.604
PB19	1.000	.701

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.18 Eigenvalues and variance extracted by each component of PB Construct

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.468	43.930	43.930	7.468	43.930	43.930	5.847	34.397	34.397
2	2.050	12.058	55.988	2.050	12.058	55.988	2.631	15.474	49.871
3	1.019	5.993	61.981	1.019	5.993	61.981	2.059	12.110	61.981
4	.780	4.586	66.567						
5	.683	4.018	70.585						
6	.611	3.596	74.181						
7	.571	3.358	77.539						
8	.529	3.113	80.652						
9	.488	2.873	83.524						
10	.466	2.742	86.267						
11	.419	2.462	88.729						
12	.381	2.239	90.968						
13	.370	2.175	93.144						
14	.338	1.988	95.132						
15	.325	1.914	97.046						
16	.288	1.696	98.742						
17	.214	1.258	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

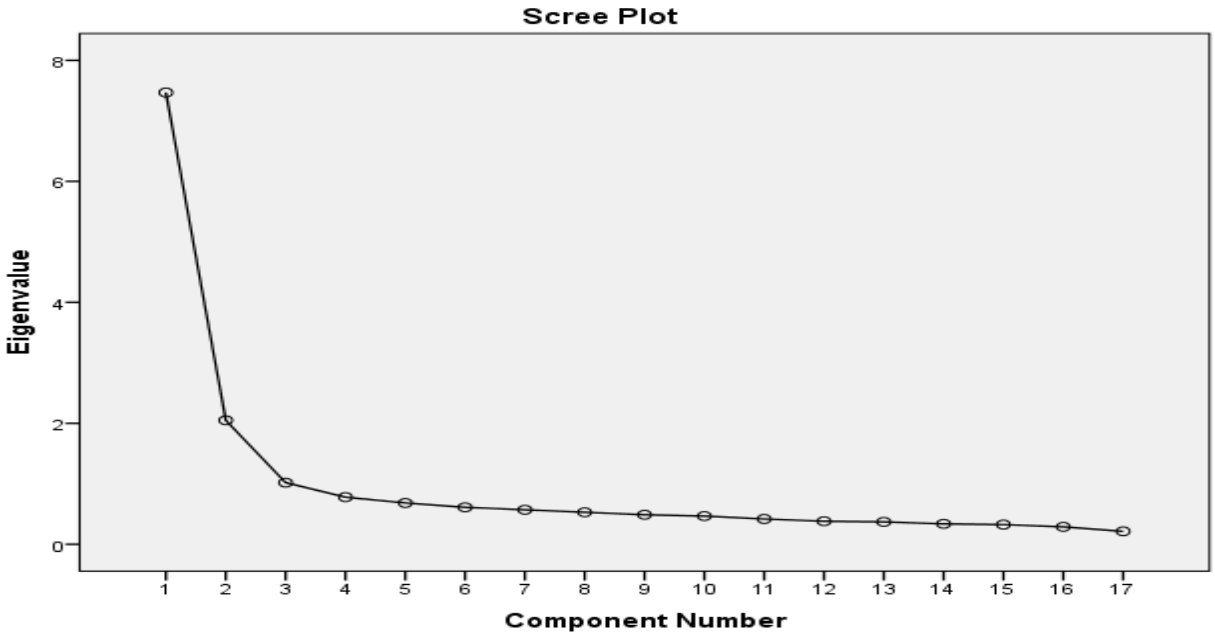

Figure 5.1 Scree Plot of all the PB dimensions.

Table 5.19 Pattern Matrix, Factor Loadings of (PB) Construct

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
PB19	.812		
PB10	.807		
PB17	.803		
PB15	.797		
PB14	.746		
PB11	.741		
PB16	.710		
PB18	.700		
PB12	.628		
PB8	.526		
PB7		.825	
PB9		.705	
PB2		.587	
PB13		.564	
PB3			.810
PB6			.780
PB5			.702

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

5.5.1.1. Reliability Analysis of the Three Factors of PB

It is vital to ensure that the produced scale measures the specific domain that it was designed to measure correctly (Field, 2009). Thus, reliability measuring techniques are always considered to be critical. According to Pallant (2010:97) "One of the most commonly used indicators of internal consistency is Cronbach's alpha coefficient." This claim is supported by DeVellis (2012), Field (2009) and Hair et al. (1998). Cronbach's alpha coefficient determines the degree to which a scale's items belong to each other, and strongly correlated items indicate their ability to measure the same latent variable (Pallant, 2010). Tables 5.20 and 5.21 illustrate the strong findings of Cronbach's Alpha test of the whole PB construct which was 0.91 and Cronbach's Alpha if items were deleted, which ranged from 0.899 to 0.918.

Table 5.20 Cronbach's Alpha of PB Construct

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.910	.911	17

N=319

Table 5.21 Reliability Analysis of PB Construct

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PB2	37.70	122.319	.530	.388	.906
PB3	36.99	125.355	.297	.345	.913
PB5	37.43	123.799	.377	.337	.910
PB6	36.53	127.829	.156	.312	.918
PB7	37.61	120.460	.537	.485	.906
PB8	38.00	119.830	.663	.475	.903
PB9	38.25	115.995	.608	.471	.904
PB10	38.70	113.543	.750	.700	.899

PB11	38.64	116.061	.664	.546	.902
PB12	38.38	116.646	.660	.491	.902
PB13	38.27	116.223	.620	.460	.903
PB14	38.61	117.082	.672	.564	.902
PB15	38.76	116.451	.711	.602	.901
PB16	38.44	119.561	.558	.396	.905
PB17	38.71	114.201	.744	.649	.899
PB18	38.53	117.432	.688	.554	.902
PB19	38.84	115.036	.706	.662	.901

With regard to the findings of the first factor of the PB construct obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the PB construct, the reliability result of this factor was 0.92. Table 5.22 shows that this factor produced a high Cronbach's α value, which slightly exceeded 0.90. According to DeVellis (2012), Hair et al. (1998) and Netemeyer et al. (2003), such a result is likely to be a feature of the factor's length and is not necessarily an alert for item removal. Cronbach's Alpha outcomes if item was deleted ranged between 0.914 and 0.924 (Table 5.23) which is comfortably strong and within the acceptable reliability range (Hair et al., 1998, 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). In order to further investigate the reliability of the purified factors, inter-item and item-to-total correlations statistical results were obtained as performed by Diamantopoulos and Souchon (1999) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Based on these indices, any item that is negative or near to zero is regarded as candidate for removal. The inter-item correlation findings ranged between 0.343 and 0.738, and the item-to-total correlation outcomes ranged between 0.591 and 0.810. Table 5.23 shows statistical details of the first factor and these findings are in accordance with the common recommendations (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Thus it was very satisfactory for the first factor to be regarded as reliable.

Table 5.22 Cronbach's Alpha of PB's first Dimension/Factor

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.926	.925	10

N=319

Table 5.23 Reliability Analysis of PB's first Dimension/Factor

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PB8	17.11	58.215	.606	.383	.924
PB10	17.81	52.243	.810	.693	.913
PB11	17.75	53.995	.721	.538	.918
PB12	17.49	55.439	.647	.438	.922
PB14	17.71	54.879	.722	.529	.918
PB15	17.87	54.571	.753	.581	.916
PB16	17.54	56.677	.597	.382	.924
PB17	17.82	52.925	.790	.641	.914
PB18	17.64	55.496	.713	.532	.918
PB19	17.94	53.053	.781	.651	.914

With respect to the findings of the second factor of the PB construct obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the PB construct, the reliability result of this factor was 0.761, which is a good outcome and in accordance with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 1998, 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.24 indicates Cronbach's Alpha value of the second dimension of the PB construct. The reliability outcomes of this factor if item was deleted, range from 0.675 to 0.744, the inter-item correlation values ranged between 0.303 and 0.534 and the item-to-total correlation findings ranged from 0.487 to 0.620. Table 5.25 presents more statistical details of the second factor. Such findings are in favour of the dimension under this

construct. Thus, this dimension was considered to be reliable according to the aforementioned common guidelines.

Table 5.24 Cronbach's Alpha of PB second Dimension/Factor.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.761	.765	4

N=319

Table 5.25 Reliability Analysis of PB second Dimension/Factor

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PB7	7.35	6.512	.620	.408	.675
PB9	8.00	5.698	.612	.384	.677
PB2	7.44	7.593	.487	.295	.744
PB13	8.02	6.129	.547	.329	.715

With regard to the findings of the third factor of the PB construct obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the PB construct, the Cronbach's Alpha value of this factor is 0.690, which is slightly lower that reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 1998, 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.26 presents the reliability of the third factor of the PB construct. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010:325) “Reliabilities less than 0.60 are considered to be poor". Thus, this factor's reliability is still within the acceptable level. The reliability findings of this factor if items were deleted ranged between 0.541 and 0.631, which means that removing any of them would not improve the factor reliability. The inter-item correlations’ statistical values ranged between 0.447 and 0.534 and the item-to-total correlation findings ranged from 0.478 to 0.551. Table 5.27 provides more statistical details about the third factor,

based on the previously mentioned statistical analyses and according to the earlier mentioned common guidelines, this dimension is considered to be reliable.

Table 5.26 Cronbach's Alpha of PB third Dimension/Factor

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.690	.693	3

N=319

Table 5.27 Reliability Analysis of the third Dimension/Factor of PB

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PB3	7.09	3.215	.551	.304	.541
PB5	7.53	3.489	.478	.236	.631
PB6	6.63	2.995	.493	.250	.619

5.5.2. EFA of the Job Security construct

Job Security is the second construct of the independent motivation variable. EFA was performed on the 12 items of the JS construct, and the factorability of the construct was examined via SPSS 20. It produced two factors i.e. Organisation goals achievement (JSF1) and Organisation orientation (JSF2). The result of the KMO test for the 12 items was 0.862, which is considered to be a very good result (DeVellis, 2012). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was approx. Chi-Square = 1564.882 and Degree of Freedom *df*=66 with significance at Sig 0.000, which was identified as a significant Chi-Square, meaning the examined data reflected high factorability. These indicators are satisfactory and in accordance with the recommended thresholds. This construct items' communalities all exceeded 0.4 except one, which was slightly lower at 0.314. This indicates that the

internal reliability of the construct is high. Thus, it was expected that these data would result in unique factors with high reliability. Tables 5.28 and 5.29 display statistical details for the JS construct.

Table 5.28 Results of KMO and Bartlett's tests for JS Construct

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.862
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1564.882
	df	66
	Sig.	.000

Table 5.29 Communalities of the JS Construct's Items

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
JS1	1.000	.526
JS2	1.000	.518
JS3	1.000	.314
JS4	1.000	.596
JS5	1.000	.474
JS6	1.000	.648
JS7	1.000	.755
JS8	1.000	.667
JS9	1.000	.676
JS10	1.000	.633
JS11	1.000	.468
JS12	1.000	.477

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Next, the Anti-image Matrix test, was conducted, for each of the 12 items. All items obtained diagonals higher than 0.5; rather most of them were higher than 0.7, which is preferred by Field (2009). Based on the KMO, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Anti-image correlation matrix findings, we can be confident that the dataset of this construct was appropriate for exploratory factor analysis to be conducted.

In line with the specified EFA settings, this rotation set of multiple options yielded a model of two factors; Table 5.31 illustrates the factor loadings of each item of the two factors. The two factors explained about 56% of the total variance. Tables 5.30 and 5.31 present more statistical details about the two factors, e.g. initial eigenvalues, number of factors, factor loadings. It is essential to highlight that all factor items were accepted, because it was obvious that they reflected the sample's view of how the factors of the construct are related to job security, e.g. the employee is worried about losing the job itself or about losing important job merits or features (Hellgren et al., 1999). Factors of the job security construct will be discussed in detail with reference to the literature in the discussion chapter.

Table 5.30 Eigenvalues and variance extracted by each component of JS Construct

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.657	38.805	38.805	4.657	38.805	38.805	4.281	35.677	35.677
2	2.095	17.461	56.266	2.095	17.461	56.266	2.471	20.589	56.266
3	.934	7.787	64.053						
4	.778	6.483	70.536						
5	.638	5.321	75.857						
6	.614	5.120	80.976						
7	.538	4.484	85.460						
8	.446	3.714	89.175						
9	.417	3.475	92.649						
10	.336	2.800	95.450						
11	.321	2.671	98.121						
12	.226	1.879	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.31 Pattern Matrix, Factor Loadings of (JS) Construct

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
JS7	.865	
JS9	.814	
JS8	.812	
JS6	.801	
JS10	.794	
JS1	.712	
JS3	.529	
JS4		.767
JS2		.712
JS5		.688
JS12		.641
JS11		.632

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

5.5.2.1. Reliability Analysis of the Two Factors of JS

Cronbach's Alpha result of the whole JS construct was 0.835 (Tables 5.32) and Cronbach's Alpha findings if item was deleted ranged from 0.810 to 0.839 (Table 5.33) but as this construct reliability was high which was an excellent outcome, there was no need for removing any item to improve its reliability.

Table 5.32 Cronbach's Alpha of JS Construct

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.835	.841	12

N=319

Table 5.33 Reliability Analysis of the JS Construct

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
JS1	29.24	58.643	.563	.453	.817
JS2	28.01	60.060	.395	.316	.832
JS3	29.04	60.851	.445	.243	.826
JS4	27.45	63.318	.278	.349	.839
JS5	27.80	62.262	.330	.268	.835
JS6	29.79	59.152	.600	.582	.815
JS7	29.77	57.995	.659	.681	.810
JS8	29.42	58.678	.615	.576	.813
JS9	29.76	59.190	.633	.590	.813
JS10	29.71	58.856	.573	.539	.816
JS11	28.28	59.414	.470	.389	.824
JS12	28.29	60.085	.470	.387	.824

With respect to the findings of the first factor of the JS construct obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the JS construct, the reliability test result of this factor was 0.885 (Table 5.34) which is in the excellent range and in accordance with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012), and Cronbach's Alpha test values if item was deleted ranged from 0.853 to 0.895 (Table 5.35). In order to further investigate the reliability of the purified factors, inter-item and item-to-total correlations were obtained as performed by Diamantopoulos and Souchon (1999) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Item-to-total correlation findings ranged between 0.460 and 0.793 (Table 5.35), and the inter-item correlations of this factor ranged from 0.324 to 0.710 (Table 5.36). Such findings are in accordance with the common recommendations (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), Table 5.36 presents more statistical details about the first factor and the findings are satisfactory for the first factor to be regarded as reliable.

Table 5.34 Cronbach's Alpha of the first Dimension/Factor of JS

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.885	.887	7

N=319

Table 5.35 Reliability Analysis of the first Dimension/Factor of JS

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
JS1	11.54	26.595	.635	.430	.874
JS3	11.34	28.685	.460	.225	.895
JS6	12.09	26.733	.706	.573	.865
JS7	12.07	25.683	.793	.680	.853
JS8	11.72	26.310	.729	.570	.861
JS9	12.06	26.918	.730	.577	.862
JS10	12.01	26.220	.699	.503	.865

Table 5.36 Statistical Analysis of Factor's Items

Summary Item Statistics

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Item Means	1.972	1.712	2.464	.752	1.440	.091	7
Item Variances	1.232	1.045	1.390	.344	1.329	.014	7
Inter-Item Covariances	.645	.382	.835	.453	2.184	.016	7
Inter-Item Correlations	.528	.324	.710	.386	2.191	.014	7

The result of the Cronbach's Alpha test result of the second factor of the JS construct obtained from the EFA rotation was 0.738 (Table 5.37), which is in accordance with the benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). The reliability test values of this factor if items were deleted ranged from 0.685 to 0.706, the inter-item correlations ranged between 0.259 and 0.541 and the item-to-total correlations ranged

from 0.467 to 0.522. Table 5.38 presents more statistical details of the second factor. Such findings are in favour of the dimension under this construct. Thus, this dimension was considered to be reliable according to the earlier mentioned common guidelines.

Table 5.37 Cronbach's Alpha of the second Dimension/Factor of JS

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.738	.739	5

N=319

Table 5.38 Reliability Analysis of the second Dimension/Factor of JS

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
JS2	14.20	12.471	.514	.284	.688
JS4	13.65	13.140	.522	.320	.685
JS5	13.99	13.503	.467	.249	.706
JS11	14.47	13.068	.499	.343	.694
JS12	14.48	13.420	.503	.338	.692

5.5.3. Exploratory Factor Analysis of the MG Construct

Management is the third construct of the independent motivation variable. EFA was executed on the 12 items of the MG construct, and factorability of the construct was examined via SPSS 20. It produced two factors, i.e. Supervision (MGF1) Fairness and trust (MGF2). The KMO's test result for the 12 items was 0.876, which is considered to be a high result (DeVellis, 2012). Second, the result of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was approx. Chi-Square = 1354.625 and Degree of Freedom *df*=66 with significance at Sig 0.000, which was identified as a significant Chi-Square, In other words the examined data reflected high factorability. These findings are satisfactory and in accordance with

the recommended thresholds. Communalities of the items of this construct all exceeded 0.4 except one, which was slightly lower, 0.373. This indicates that the internal reliability of the construct is high. Thus, it was expected that these data would result in unique factors with high reliability. Table 5.39 illustrates the aforementioned statistical details about the MG construct.

Table 5.39 Results of KMO and Bartlett's tests for MG Construct

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.876
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1354.625
	df	66
	Sig.	.000

The anti-image correlation matrix of the entire MG construct of 12 items was examined for each individual item. All items obtained diagonals higher than 0.5, and most of them were higher than 0.7, which is preferred by Field (2009). Based on the KMO, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Anti-image correlation matrix findings, we can be confident that the dataset was appropriate for exploratory factor analysis.

Applying the previously mentioned settings for EFA on the 12 items of the management construct, this rotation set of multiple options yielded a framework of two factors (Table 5.41). The two factors explained about 53% of the total variance (Table 5.40). Tables 5.40 and 5.41 present more statistical details about the two factors, e.g. initial eigenvalues, number of factors, factor loadings. It is essential to indicate that all factor items were accepted, because it was believed that they reflected the sample's view of how the factors of the construct are related to Management, e.g. ensuring that employees get appropriate rewards, recognition, favourable workers' compensation and incentives for their good performance; evaluating team members based on their performance and ability to work in a team; and knowing that praise should be done in public while

criticisms should always be kept private (Deming, 2013; Herzberg et al., 1959; Schuler et al., 2001, Ulrich, 1998). Based on the literature, the factors are logically related. The factors of the management construct will be discussed in detail with reference to the literature in the discussion chapter.

Table 5.40 Eigenvalues and variance extracted by each component of the MG Construct

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.750	39.580	39.580	4.750	39.580	39.580	3.649	30.411	30.411
2	1.657	13.807	53.387	1.657	13.807	53.387	2.757	22.977	53.387
3	.940	7.836	61.223						
4	.789	6.573	67.796						
5	.711	5.925	73.721						
6	.606	5.046	78.768						
7	.547	4.559	83.327						
8	.499	4.160	87.487						
9	.445	3.710	91.197						
10	.389	3.242	94.439						
11	.342	2.854	97.293						
12	.325	2.707	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.41 Pattern Matrix Factor Loadings of MG Construct

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
MG11	.820	
MG3	.760	
MG9	.743	
MG7	.738	
MG10	.725	
MG4	.715	
MG6		.691
MG12		.659
MG2		.659
MG5		.657
MG8		.621
MG1		.605

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

5.5.3.1. Reliability Analysis of the two factors of MG

Tables 5.42 and 5.43 indicate the reliability test findings of Cronbach's Alpha of the whole MG construct, which was 0.858 and Cronbach's Alpha test values if item was deleted, which ranged between 0.839 and 0.860. As the Cronbach's Alpha evaluation value for the MG construct was high and very close to 0.860, deleting any item to improve the reliability of the construct was not necessary.

Table 5.42 Cronbach's Alpha of MG Construct

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.858	.855	12

N=319

Table 5.43 Reliability Analysis of the MG Construct

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
MG1	30.72	78.453	.360	.210	.858
MG2	30.63	74.560	.461	.320	.852
MG3	29.61	69.944	.624	.481	.841
MG4	29.90	69.984	.658	.488	.839
MG5	30.55	72.795	.549	.462	.846
MG6	30.55	71.726	.599	.484	.843
MG7	29.82	71.793	.541	.403	.847
MG8	30.95	75.894	.425	.328	.854
MG9	29.96	70.932	.575	.446	.845
MG10	30.10	70.434	.642	.502	.840
MG11	29.85	71.181	.609	.535	.842
MG12	30.92	78.421	.325	.232	.860

With respect to the findings of the first factor of the MG construct obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the MG construct, the reliability of this factor was 0.865 (Table 5.44), which is in the excellent range and well above the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Cronbach's Alpha assessment values if item was deleted ranged from 0.833 to 0.850 (Table 5.45). In order to further investigate the reliability of the purified first MG factor, inter-item and item-to-total correlation findings were obtained as performed by Diamantopoulos and Souchon (1999) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). The inter-item correlation test outcomes of this factor ranged from 0.434 to 0.622, and the item-to-total correlation values ranged between 0.616 and 0.714. Such findings are in accordance with common recommendations (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), Table 5.45 presents more statistical details about the first factor and the findings are satisfactory for the first factor to be regarded as reliable.

Table 5.44 Cronbach's Alpha of the first Dimension/Factor of MG

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.865	.865	6

N=319

Table 5.45 Reliability Analysis of the first Dimension/Factor of MG

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
MG3	15.63	25.730	.679	.469	.839
MG4	15.93	26.413	.662	.446	.842
MG7	15.84	26.554	.616	.392	.850
MG9	15.99	26.182	.639	.413	.846
MG10	16.13	26.626	.650	.458	.844
MG11	15.87	25.978	.714	.530	.833

The result of the reliability test of the second factor of the MG construct obtained from the EFA rotation was 0.761, which is a good outcome and in accordance with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.46 illustrates the findings of the reliability test of the second dimension of the MG construct. The reliability of this factor if items were deleted ranges from 0.694 to 0.745, the inter-item correlations ranged between 0.208 and 0.593 and the item-to-total correlations ranged from 0.423 to 0.612. Table 5.47 presents more statistical details of the second factor. Such findings are in favour of the dimension under this construct. Thus, this factor was considered to be reliable according to the earlier mentioned common guidelines.

Table 5.46 Cronbach's Alpha of the second Dimension/Factor of MG

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.761	.758	6

N=319

Table 5.47 Reliability Analysis of the second Dimension/Factor of MG

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
MG1	11.64	17.381	.423	.203	.745
MG2	11.55	15.436	.515	.284	.723
MG5	11.47	15.011	.565	.435	.708
MG6	11.47	14.571	.612	.442	.694
MG8	11.87	16.179	.470	.285	.734
MG12	11.84	16.933	.427	.223	.745

5.5.4. Exploratory Factor Analysis of the WE construct

Work Environment is the fourth construct of the independent motivation variable. EFA was executed on the 17 items of the WE construct. It produced four factors, the first three were, Workplace climate (WEF1), Employee-organisation fit (WEF2), Relations with colleagues & team (WEF3). However, the fourth dimension was excluded due to its higher loading items on another factor, as will be explained in the CFA section (section 5.7.2). Table 5.107 presents all the deleted items. EFA of the WE construct yielded a KMO result for the 17 items of 0.794 which is considered to be a good result (DeVellis, 2012). The findings of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were approx. Chi-Square = 1862.609 and Degree of Freedom *df*=136 with significance at Sig 0.000. In other words the examined data reflected proper factorability. These findings are satisfactory and in

accordance with the recommended thresholds. Communalities of the items of this construct all exceeded 0.4, which indicates that the internal reliability of the construct is high. Thus, it was expected that these data would result in unique factors with high reliability. Table 5.48 presents the aforementioned statistical details for the WE construct.

Table 5.48 Results of KMO and Bartlett's tests for WE Construct

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.794
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1862.609
	df	136
	Sig.	.000

The anti-image correlation matrix of the entire WE construct of 17 items was examined for each individual item. All items obtained diagonals higher than 0.5; in fact most of them were higher than 0.7, which is preferred by Field (2009). Based on the KMO, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Anti-image correlations' matrix findings, we can be confident that the dataset was appropriate for exploratory factor analysis to be conducted.

Based on the EFA options that were previously mentioned, this rotation set of multiple options yielded a solution of four factors. Table 5.50 and the Scree Plot solution Figure 5.2 illustrate statistical details for the four factors, i.e. the break point, number of factors, factor loadings. The four factors explained about 60% of the total variance (Table 5.49). All factor items were accepted, because it was believed that they reflected the sample's view of how the factors of the construct are related to work environment, e.g. healthy work environment will reflect a positive impact on employees' motivation, satisfaction and performance (Giles, 2010; Newman, 1997). "Employee satisfaction refers to the degree to which the working environment meets the wishes and the needs of the

employees" (Voordt, 2004:139). With reference to the literature, factors of the work environment construct will be discussed in details in the discussion chapter.

Table 5.49 Eigenvalues and variance extracted by each component of the WE Construct

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.528	26.638	26.638	4.528	26.638	26.638	3.127	18.396	18.396
2	2.456	14.448	41.086	2.456	14.448	41.086	2.577	15.161	33.557
3	1.710	10.058	51.144	1.710	10.058	51.144	2.425	14.266	47.823
4	1.524	8.966	60.110	1.524	8.966	60.110	2.089	12.287	60.110
5	.930	5.470	65.580						
6	.764	4.495	70.075						
7	.666	3.920	73.995						
8	.645	3.797	77.792						
9	.598	3.519	81.311						
10	.500	2.940	84.251						
11	.492	2.896	87.147						
12	.459	2.699	89.845						
13	.448	2.637	92.482						
14	.418	2.459	94.941						
15	.355	2.088	97.030						
16	.266	1.564	98.594						
17	.239	1.406	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

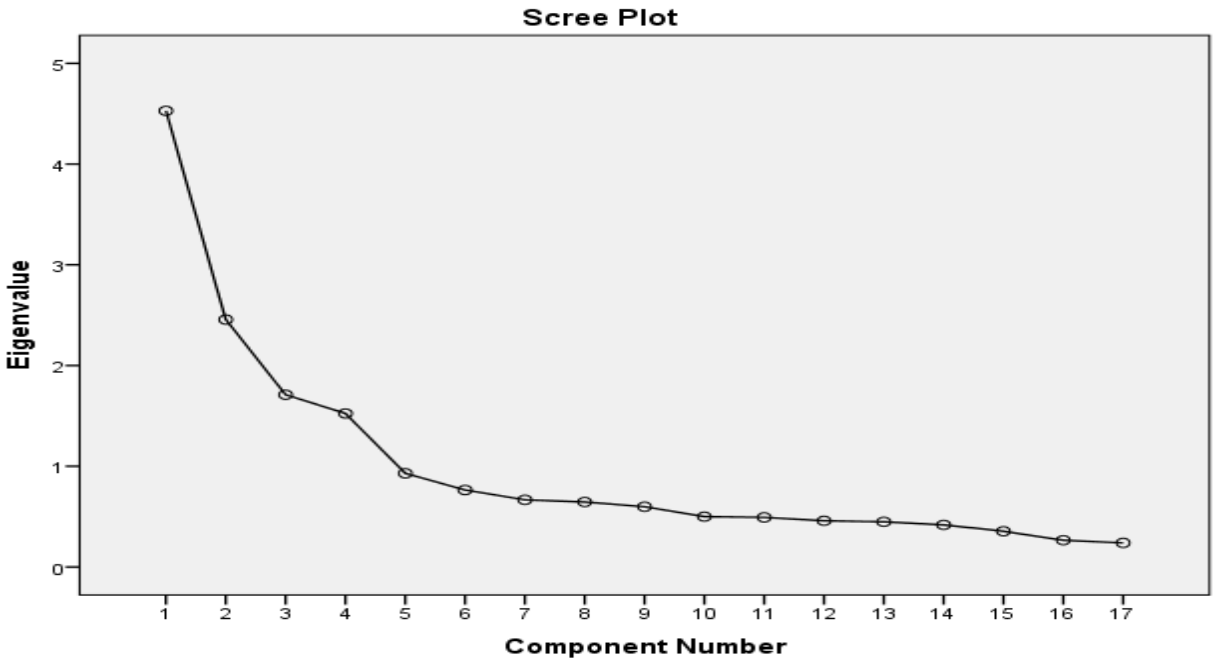

Figure 5.2 Scree Plot of all the WE dimensions.

Table 5.50 Pattern Matrix, Factor Loadings of WE Construct

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
WE2	.795			
WE1	.748			
WE15	.713			
WE14	.708			
WE3	.657			
WE17	.557			
WE9		.830		
WE10		.822		
WE11		.746		
WE7		.574		
WE4			.767	
WE6			.766	
WE5			.759	
WE8			.651	
WE12				.881
WE13				.845
WE16				.600

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

5.5.4.1. Reliability Analyses of the four factors of WE

Tables 5.51 and 5.52 indicate the reliability assessment outcome of Cronbach's Alpha of the whole WE construct, which was 0.818, and Cronbach's Alpha values if items were deleted, which ranged from 0.801 to 0.816. Thus there was no need to exclude any item to improve reliability, as the construct's reliability was already strong. Items that were removed after the preliminary run are reported in Table 5.100.

Table 5.51 Cronbach's Alpha of WE Construct

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.818	.825	17

N=319

Table 5.52 Reliability Analysis of WE Construct

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WE1	46.65	87.919	.435	.446	.809
WE2	46.92	89.869	.403	.476	.812
WE3	47.04	91.646	.279	.302	.816
WE4	44.50	86.288	.360	.364	.812
WE5	43.96	86.630	.464	.446	.807
WE6	44.75	85.542	.367	.347	.812
WE7	44.97	80.729	.519	.388	.802
WE8	43.63	88.346	.423	.411	.810
WE9	45.38	79.481	.533	.563	.801
WE10	45.52	80.433	.525	.545	.801
WE11	44.59	83.136	.471	.439	.805
WE12	45.07	83.640	.431	.583	.808
WE13	45.03	85.072	.379	.541	.812
WE14	46.78	89.631	.371	.395	.812
WE15	46.56	88.121	.359	.426	.812
WE16	44.94	83.512	.367	.307	.814
WE17	46.33	85.132	.433	.333	.808

With regard to the findings of the first factor of the WE construct obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the WE construct, the reliability test result was 0.788 (Table 5.53) which is a very satisfying result and in line with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Cronbach's Alpha test findings if items were deleted ranged between 0.732 and 0.792 (Table 5.54). In order to further investigate the reliability of the purified first WE factor, inter-item and item-to-total correlations were obtained as performed by Diamantopoulos and Souchon (1999) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). The inter-item correlations ranged from 0.237 to 0.573, and the item-to-total correlations ranged between 0.458 and 0.665. Such findings are in accordance with the common recommendations (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Table 5.54 presents more statistical details about the first factor and findings are satisfactory for the first factor to be regarded as reliable.

Table 5.53 Cronbach's Alpha of the first Dimension/Factor of WE

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.788	.806	6

N=319

Table 5.54 Reliability Analysis of the first Dimension/Factor of WE

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WE1	7.81	8.912	.635	.430	.732
WE2	8.08	9.569	.665	.461	.734
WE3	8.20	10.436	.470	.267	.772
WE14	7.93	9.603	.564	.338	.751
WE15	7.71	8.752	.554	.351	.752
WE17	7.48	8.496	.458	.242	.792

The result of the reliability test of the purified second factor of the WE construct obtained from the EFA rotation was 0.794, which was a good outcome and in accordance with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.55 illustrates the findings of the reliability test of the second factor or dimension of the WE construct. The alpha if items were deleted ranges between 0.707 and 0.790, the inter-item correlations ranged between 0.396 and 0.686 and the item-to-total correlations ranged from 0.508 to 0.674. Table 5.56 presents more statistical details of the second factor. Such findings are in favour of the dimension under this construct. Thus, this factor was considered to be reliable according to the earlier mentioned common guidelines.

Table 5.55 Cronbach's Alpha of the second Dimension/Factor of WE

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.794	.794	4

N=319

Table 5.56 Reliability Analysis of the second Dimension/Factor of WE

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WE7	9.38	12.016	.508	.280	.790
WE9	9.78	10.308	.674	.529	.707
WE10	9.92	10.852	.652	.498	.719
WE11	8.99	12.019	.594	.365	.750

With regard to the assessment findings of the purified third factor of the WE construct obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the WE construct, the reliability's test result of this factor was 0.750, which could be classified as a good outcome and in accordance with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.57 presents the reliability test findings of this factor. The factor reliability is strong and within the acceptable level. The reliability if items were deleted ranged between 0.664 and 0.715 which means that removing any of the items would not improve the factor reliability. The inter-item correlations ranged between 0.333 and 0.539 and the item-to-total correlations ranged from 0.519 to 0.611. Table 5.58 illustrates more statistical details about the third factor. Therefore, this factor is considered to be reliable according to the aforementioned common guidelines.

Table 5.57 Cronbach's Alpha of the third Dimension/Factor of WE

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.750	.763	4

N=319

Table 5.58 Reliability Analysis of the third Dimension/Factor of WE

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WE4	12.53	5.804	.539	.305	.700
WE5	11.99	6.475	.611	.405	.664
WE6	12.78	5.413	.566	.321	.689
WE8	11.66	7.274	.519	.324	.715

Reporting the findings of the purified forth factor of the WE construct obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the WE construct, the reliability test result of this factor was 0.728, which is in accordance with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 1998; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.59 presents the reliability test value of the fourth factor of the WE construct. The factor reliability is strong and within the acceptable level. The alpha if items were deleted ranged between 0.477 and 0.819 which means that removing item WE16 would improve the factor reliability, but as the factor consists of only three items and its reliability is within the acceptable level, there is no need to remove the item. Furthermore, retaining the item would furnish more depth and strength to the dimension of this construct. The inter-item correlation test results ranged between 0.317 and 0.693 and the item-to-total correlations ranged from 0.413 to 0.687. Table 5.60 presents more statistical details about the fourth factor. Therefore, this factor considered to be reliable according to the earlier mentioned common guidelines.

Table 5.59 Cronbach's Alpha of the fourth Dimension/Factor of WE

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.728	.738	3

N=319

Table 5.60 Reliability Analysis of the fourth Dimension/Factor of WE

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WE12	6.61	4.955	.687	.535	.477
WE13	6.57	5.535	.580	.480	.609
WE16	6.48	5.571	.413	.195	.819

5.5.5. EFA of the Leader Member Exchange (Mediator)

Leader member exchange is the mediator between the independent motivation variable and the dependent job performance. EFA was performed on the 7 items of the LMX construct, and the factorability of the construct was examined via SPSS 20. It produced one factor. The KMO test result for the 7 items was 0.882, which is considered to be a high result as argued by DeVellis (2012). The findings of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were approx. Chi-Square = 731.433 and Degree of Freedom *df*=21 with significance at Sig 0.000, which is identified as a significant Chi-Square. These indicators are satisfactory and in accordance with the recommended thresholds. This construct's communalities all exceeded 0.4. This indicates that the internal reliability of the construct is high. Thus, it was expected that these data would result in unique factor with high reliability. Table 5.61 presents the aforementioned statistical details about the LMX construct.

Table 5.61 Results of KMO and Bartlett's tests for LMX Construct

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.882
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	731.433
	Df	21
	Sig.	.000

The anti-image correlation matrix of the entire LMX construct of 7 items was examined for each individual item. All items obtained diagonals higher than 0.5; in fact most of them were higher than 0.7, which is preferred by Field (2009). Based on the KMO, Bartlett's test of Sphericity and the Anti-image correlations, we could be confident that the dataset was appropriate for exploratory factor analysis to be conducted.

Based on the EFA settings, i.e. PCA and Varimax, factor rotation was conducted with items loading >0.50 as outlined earlier (Hair et al., 2006), extraction with Eigenvalue >1

and an unlimited number of factors on the 7 items of the LMX construct. This rotation set of multiple options yielded a framework of one factor. Table 5.62 displays statistical details about this construct, e.g. the initial Eigenvalues, and total variance explained test result which was 52%. All items of the LMX construct were accepted, because it was apparent that they reflected the sample's view of how the items of the construct are related to LMX theory. LMX has been defined as the quality of the relationship between a superior and a subordinate. The nature of LMX impacts subordinate outcomes, e.g. in-role performance (Deluga, 1998), job satisfaction (Murphy and Ensher, 1999). Also there has been strong empirical support for LMX and work outcomes, including job performance (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Wang et al., 2005). The LMX factor will be discussed in depth in the discussion chapter.

Table 5.62 Eigenvalues and variance extracted by each component of the LMX Construct

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.650	52.145	52.145	3.650	52.145	52.145
2	.743	10.609	62.753			
3	.616	8.799	71.553			
4	.612	8.741	80.294			
5	.511	7.298	87.592			
6	.464	6.635	94.227			
7	.404	5.773	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

5.5.5.1. Reliability Analyses of the LMX construct

With regard to the findings of the LMX construct obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the construct, the reliability test result of this factor was 0.847 (Table 5.63), which would be classified as very good and in line with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 1998; Tabachnick and Fidell,

2012), and Cronbach's Alpha if items were deleted ranged from 0.822 to 0.829 (Table 5.64).

In order to further investigate the reliability of the LMX factor, inter-item and item-to-total correlations' evaluation findings were obtained as performed by Diamantopoulos and Souchon (1999) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). The inter-item correlations ranged from 0.346 to 0.528, and the item-to-total correlations ranged between 0.582 and 0.628. Such findings are in accordance with the common recommendations (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), Table 5.64 presents more statistical details about this factor and findings are satisfactory for it to be regarded as reliable.

Table 5.63 Cronbach's Alpha of LMX Construct

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.847	.847	7

N=319

Table 5.64 Reliability Analysis of LMX Construct

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
LMX1	16.08	19.032	.627	.418	.822
LMX2	16.13	19.955	.587	.373	.828
LMX3	16.11	19.498	.614	.391	.824
LMX4	16.20	20.188	.582	.362	.829
LMX5	16.55	19.720	.628	.421	.822
LMX6	16.39	19.911	.587	.375	.828
LMX7	15.93	20.180	.602	.380	.826

EFA of the Dependent Construct, Job Performance

5.5.6. Exploratory Factor Analysis of the DR Dimension

Duties and responsibilities is the first dimension of the job performance construct. EFA was executed on the 12 items of the DR dimension, and the factorability of the sub variable was examined via SPSS 20. It produced two factors/sub dimensions, i.e. Clarity of systems and standards (DRF1), and Self efficacy (DRF2). The KMO's test result for the 12 items was 0.884 which is considered to be a very good result as argued by DeVellis (2012). The findings of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were approx. Chi-Square = 1650.104 and Degree of Freedom *df*=66 with significance at Sig 0.000. In other words, the examined data reflected high factorability. These findings are satisfactory and in accordance with the recommended thresholds. Communalities all exceeded 0.4, except one, which was slightly lower, 0.333. This indicates that the internal reliability of the dimension is high. Thus, it was expected that these data would result in unique factors with high reliability. All aforementioned statistical analyses of the DR dimension are presented in Table 5.65.

Table 5.65 Results of KMO and Bartlett's tests for DR Dimension

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.884
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1650.104
	df	66
	Sig.	.000

The anti-image correlation matrix of the 12 items of the entire DR dimension was examined for each individual item. All items obtained diagonals higher than 0.5; in fact most of them were higher than 0.7, which is preferred by Field (2009). Based on the

KMO, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Anti-image correlation matrix, we could be confident that the dataset was appropriate for exploratory factor analysis to be conducted. Based on the EFA settings mentioned earlier, this rotation set of multiple options yielded a framework of two factors. Table 5.67 and the Scree Plot solution Figure 5.3 illustrate statistical details for the two factors i.e. the initial eigenvalues, factor loadings and cut-off point. The two sub dimensions explained about 56% of the total variance (Table 5.66). All factors' items were accepted, because it was apparent that they reflected the sample's view of how the factors of the dimension are related to job duties and responsibilities as different job responsibilities and designs provide higher levels of employee control and also provide increased opportunities for the development and exercise of skill (Morrison et al., 2005). Based on the literature, the factors are logically related.

Table 5.66 Eigenvalues and variance extracted by each component of the DR Dimension.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.356	44.633	44.633	5.356	44.633	44.633	3.979	33.160	33.160
2	1.393	11.610	56.243	1.393	11.610	56.243	2.770	23.083	56.243
3	.983	8.194	64.437						
4	.769	6.405	70.843						
5	.685	5.707	76.549						
6	.569	4.742	81.291						
7	.466	3.882	85.173						
8	.442	3.686	88.859						
9	.425	3.539	92.398						
10	.369	3.072	95.470						
11	.307	2.560	98.030						
12	.236	1.970	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

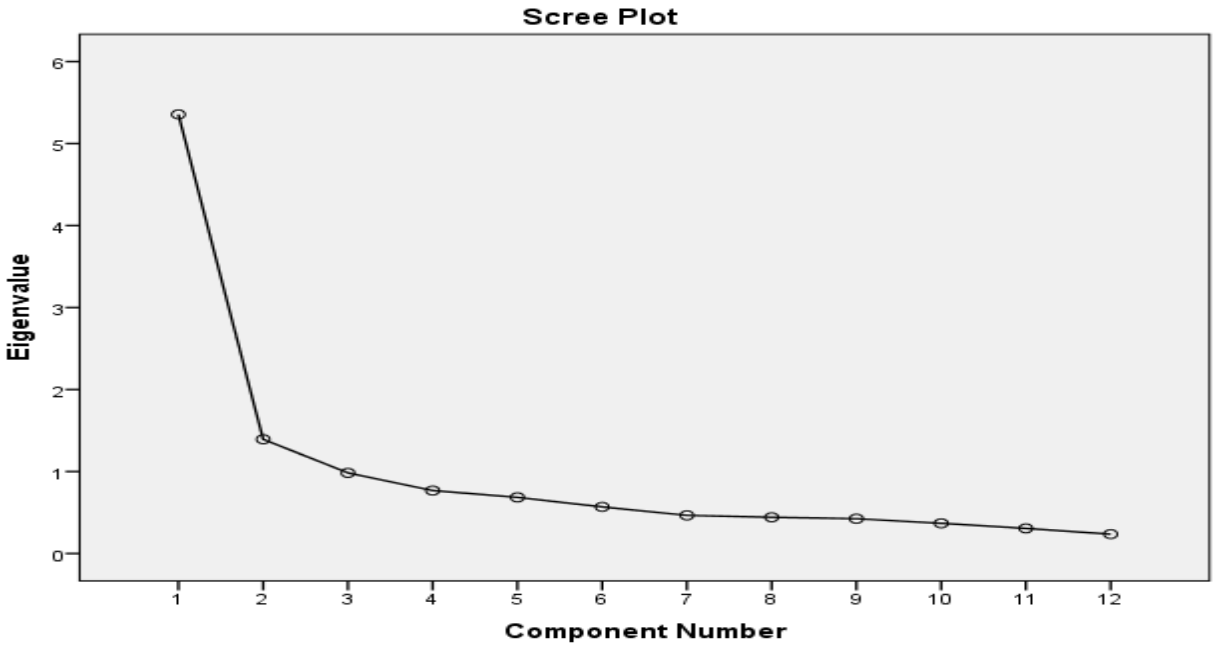

Figure 5.3 Scree Plot of the DR factors

Table 5.67 Pattern Matrix Factor Loadings of DR Dimension

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
DR9	.851	
DR8	.807	
DR1	.693	
DR4	.665	
DR12	.629	
DR6	.594	
DR5	.561	
DR3	.515	
DR2	.504	
DR10		.820
DR7		.809
DR11		.750

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

5.5.6.1. Reliability Analyses of the two factors of DR

Table 5.68 indicates the Cronbach's Alpha test result of the whole DR dimension which was 0.883. Cronbach's Alpha assessment findings if item deleted ranged between 0.870 and 0.880. Thus, deleting any item will not improve the dimension reliability as it is already high.

Table 5.68 Cronbach's Alpha of DR Dimension

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.883	.886	12

N=319

With regard to the findings of the purified first factor/sub dimension of the DR dimension obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the DR dimension, the reliability test value of this factor was 0.870 (Table 5.69), which would be regarded as excellent and in accordance with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012), and Cronbach's Alpha evaluation outcomes if items were deleted ranged between 0.846 and 0.868 (Table 5.70). For further statistical analyses to investigate the reliability of the first DR factor, inter-item and item-to-total correlations assessment findings were obtained as performed by Diamantopoulos and Souchon (1999) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). The inter-item correlations' test results of this factor ranged between 0.244 and 0.685, and the item-to-total correlation assessment outcomes ranged from 0.480 to 0.729. Such findings are in accordance with common recommendations (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Table 5.70 presents the

previously mentioned statistical details about the first factor, and the findings are considered to be satisfactory for the first factor to be regarded as reliable.

Table 5.69 Cronbach's Alpha of the first Sub Dimension/Factor of DR

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.870	.874	9

N=319

Table 5.70 Reliability Analysis of the first Sub Dimension/Factor of DR

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
DR1	29.04	51.143	.573	.390	.860
DR2	29.39	53.031	.480	.269	.868
DR3	29.67	49.896	.570	.366	.861
DR4	29.59	50.206	.627	.428	.855
DR5	29.52	50.835	.631	.467	.854
DR6	29.18	51.078	.594	.387	.858
DR8	28.91	50.450	.648	.565	.853
DR9	28.62	50.400	.729	.615	.846
DR12	29.25	52.677	.643	.485	.855

The result of the reliability test of the purified second factor of the DR dimension obtained from the EFA rotation was 0.767, which would be regarded as a good, reasonable outcome and in accordance with the benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.71 indicates the result of the reliability test of the second sub dimension or factor of the DR dimension. The reliability test results of this factor/sub dimension if items were deleted ranged between 0.608 and 0.753, the inter-item correlations ranged between 0.440 and 0.604 and the item-to-total correlations ranged from 0.547 to 0.670. Table 5.72 presents the aforementioned statistical details of the second factor. Such findings are in favour of the sub dimension under the DR

dimension. Thus, this factor was considered to be reliable according to the aforementioned common guidelines.

Table 5.71 Cronbach's Alpha of the second Sub Dimension/Factor of DR

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.767	.770	3

N=319

Table 5.72 Reliability Analysis of the second Sub Dimension/Factor of DR

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
DR7	5.80	4.553	.547	.310	.753
DR10	5.33	4.531	.670	.457	.608
DR11	5.08	4.983	.591	.384	.698

5.5.7. Exploratory Factor Analysis of the AR dimension

Accomplishments and results is the second dimension of the dependent job performance construct. EFA on the 11 items of the AR dimension produced two factors/sub dimensions, i.e. Capacity to perform (ARF1) and Sufficiency of systems and standard (ARF2). The KMO test result for the 11 items was 0.898, which is considered to be an excellent result (DeVellis, 2012). The outcome of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was approx. Chi-Square = 2352.075 and Degree of Freedom *df*=55 with significance at Sig 0.000. In other words, the examined data reflected high factorability. These findings are satisfactory and in accordance with the recommended thresholds. The communalities all exceeded 0.5, which indicates that the internal reliability of the dimension is high. Thus, it was expected that these data would result in unique factors with high reliability. Table 5.73 presents the previously mentioned statistical details for the AR dimension.

Table 5.73 Results of KMO and Bartlett's tests for AR Dimension

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.898
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2352.075
	df	55
	Sig.	.000

The anti-image correlation matrix of the entire AR dimension of 11 items was examined for each individual item. All items obtained diagonals higher than 0.5; rather, most of them were higher than 0.7, which is preferred by Field (2009). Based on the KMO, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Anti-image correlations' matrix findings, we could be confident that the dataset was appropriate for exploratory factor analysis to be conducted.

Based on the EFA options i.e. PCA and Varimax, factor rotation was conducted with items loading >0.50 as outlined earlier (Hair et al., 2006), extraction with Eigenvalue >1 and an unlimited number of factors on the 11 items of the Accomplishment and Results dimension. This rotation set of multiple options yielded a framework of two factors, which together explained about 69% of the total variance (Table 5.75). Initial eigenvalues, dimension's factor loadings and other statistical details for the two sub dimensions are presented in tables 5.74 and 5.75. All factors' items were accepted, because it was obvious that they reflected the sample's view of how the factors of the dimension are related to employees' accomplishments and results. Individual performance is concerned with the tasks they carry out. Performance is referred to as "accomplishment", it is the outcomes of behaviour and achievement (Gilbert, 2013). Organisation personnel who perform their designated parts of a core process contribute to the work of others and to the organisation as a whole (Langdon, 1991).

Table 5.74 Eigenvalues and variance extracted by each component of the AR Dimension

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.695	51.773	51.773	5.695	51.773	51.773	4.948	44.978	44.978
2	1.993	18.120	69.894	1.993	18.120	69.894	2.741	24.916	69.894
3	.654	5.947	75.840						
4	.560	5.087	80.927						
5	.486	4.417	85.344						
6	.406	3.690	89.035						
7	.351	3.192	92.227						
8	.280	2.549	94.776						
9	.227	2.065	96.842						
10	.183	1.665	98.506						
11	.164	1.494	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.75 Pattern Matrix, Factor Loadings of AR Dimension

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
AR11	.901	
AR10	.892	
AR2	.845	
AR7	.836	
AR9	.833	
AR8	.827	
AR1	.622	
AR4		.831
AR5		.814
AR3		.798
AR6		.649

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

5.5.7.1. Reliability Analyses of the two sub dimensions of AR

Tables 5.76 and 5.77 respectively indicate the reliability test result of the whole dimension of AR which was 0.894 and Cronbach's Alpha values if item were deleted, which ranged from 0.877 to 0.897. Based on these results, there was no need to delete any item, as the dimension is highly reliable.

Table 5.76 Cronbach's Alpha of AR Dimension/Factor

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.894	.900	11

N=319

Table 5.77 Reliability Analysis of AR Dimension/Factor

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
AR1	35.34	75.431	.691	.515	.880
AR2	34.87	76.421	.731	.715	.878
AR3	36.44	79.203	.435	.458	.897
AR4	36.52	78.741	.473	.495	.894
AR5	36.44	77.958	.479	.484	.894
AR6	35.98	77.113	.594	.435	.886
AR7	35.09	76.024	.724	.679	.878
AR8	35.20	77.156	.660	.660	.882
AR9	35.33	77.090	.661	.663	.882
AR10	34.87	75.356	.741	.765	.877
AR11	35.12	76.259	.749	.778	.877

With regard to the findings of the purified first factor of the AR dimension obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the AR dimension, the reliability test value of this factor was 0.932 which could be classified as an excellent outcome and in line with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006;

Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.78 shows that this factor produced a high Cronbach's α result, which slightly exceeded 0.90. According to DeVellis (2012), Hair et al. (1998) and Netemeyer et al. (2003), such a result is likely to be a feature of the model's or scale's length and is not necessarily an alert for item removal. Cronbach's Alpha if items were deleted ranged between 0.914 and 0.937 (Table 5.79). The inter-item correlations for this factor ranged between 0.474 and 0.806, and the item-to-total correlations ranged from 0.609 to 0.866. Such findings are in accordance with common recommendations (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), Table 5.79 presents more statistical details about the first factor and findings are satisfactory for the first factor to be regarded as reliable.

Table 5.78 Cronbach's Alpha of the first Sub Dimension/Factor of AR

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.932	.933	7

N=319

Table 5.79 Reliability Analysis of the first Sub Dimension/Factor of AR

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
AR1	24.23	36.908	.629	.426	.937
AR2	23.77	35.883	.810	.705	.919
AR7	23.98	35.670	.794	.658	.920
AR8	24.10	36.059	.759	.629	.923
AR9	24.23	35.888	.770	.645	.922
AR10	23.76	34.673	.856	.762	.914
AR11	24.02	35.352	.866	.777	.914

The result of the reliability test of the purified second factor of the AR dimension obtained from the EFA rotation, Cronbach's Alpha was 0.806, which is a very good score and in accordance with the benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.80 presents the findings of the reliability test of the second sub dimension or factor of the AR dimension. The reliability test results if items were deleted range between 0.729 and 0.793, the inter-item correlations ranged between 0.425 and 0.624, and the item-to-total correlations ranged from 0.541 to 0.680. Table 5.81 presents more statistical details of the second sub dimension. Such findings are in favour of the factor under the AR dimension. Thus, this factor was considered to be reliable according to the previously mentioned common guidelines.

Table 5.80 Cronbach's Alpha of the second Sub Dimension/Factor of AR

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.806	.805	4

N=319

Table 5.81 Reliability Analysis of the second Sub Dimension/Factor AR

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
AR3	8.42	11.351	.615	.379	.760
AR4	8.50	11.106	.680	.475	.729
AR5	8.42	10.943	.654	.456	.741
AR6	7.97	12.637	.541	.299	.793

5.5.8. Exploratory Factor Analyses of the SK dimension

Skills and knowledge is the third dimension of the dependent job performance construct. EFA produced three sub dimensions/factors, i.e. Training and development opportunities (SKF1), and Task requirement (SKF2), and a third sub dimension that was removed due to its items high loading on another factor, as reported and highlighted in the CFA section 5.7.2; also Table 5.107 presents all the deleted items. The KMO test result for the 20 items was 0.920, which is considered to be a remarkable result (DeVellis, 2012). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity yielded approx. Chi-Square = 4463.320 and Degree of Freedom *df*=190 with significance at Sig 0.000. In other words, the examined data reflected high factorability. These findings are satisfactory and in accordance with the recommended thresholds. The communalities all exceeded 0.5, which indicates that the internal reliability of the dimension is strong. Thus, it was expected that these data would result in unique factors with high reliability. Table 5.82 presents the aforementioned statistical details about the SK dimension.

Table 5.82 Results of KMO and Bartlett's tests for SK Dimension

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.920
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4463.320
	df	190
	Sig.	.000

The anti-image correlation matrix of the entire SK dimension of 20 items was examined for each individual item. All items obtained diagonals higher than 0.5; in fact most of them were higher than 0.7, which is preferred by Field (2009). Based on the KMO, Bartlett's test of Sphericity and the Anti-image correlations matrix findings, we could be confident that the dataset was appropriate for exploratory factor analysis to be conducted.

Based on the previously mentioned settings, this rotation set of multiple options yielded a platform of three sub dimensions, which together explained about 65% of the total variance (Table 5.83). Initial eigenvalues, number of factor, factor loadings and more statistical details about the three factors are displayed in Tables 5.83 and 5.84. All factors' items were accepted, because it was believed that they reflected the sample's view of how the factors of the dimension are related to employees' skills and knowledge as investments in training and that development of employees can make them more productive or more effective in performing their jobs (Holton and Baldwin, 2003; Holton et al., 2003).

Table 5.83 Eigenvalues and variance extracted by each component of the SK Dimension

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.986	44.929	44.929	8.986	44.929	44.929	8.230	41.152	41.152
2	2.962	14.812	59.742	2.962	14.812	59.742	3.134	15.672	56.823
3	1.129	5.644	65.386	1.129	5.644	65.386	1.712	8.562	65.386
4	.933	4.664	70.050						
5	.901	4.506	74.555						
6	.632	3.159	77.715						
7	.524	2.620	80.335						
8	.494	2.472	82.807						
9	.440	2.198	85.005						
10	.412	2.059	87.064						
11	.394	1.968	89.031						
12	.361	1.803	90.834						
13	.324	1.620	92.455						
14	.315	1.577	94.031						
15	.278	1.389	95.420						
16	.223	1.117	96.537						
17	.205	1.026	97.563						
18	.186	.929	98.492						
19	.173	.863	99.355						
20	.129	.645	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.84 Pattern Matrix, Factor Loadings of SK Dimension

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
SK14	.838		
SK18	.833		
SK20	.822		
SK16	.808		
SK17	.797		
SK15	.788		
SK5	.784		
SK6	.766		
SK19	.752		
SK4	.741		
SK9	.713		
SK7	.662		
SK8	.512		
SK11	.511		
SK10		.921	
SK13		.892	
SK1		.882	
SK12		.618	
SK3			.818
SK2			.763

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

5.5.8.1. Reliability Analyses of the three factors of SK dimension

Table 5.85 signifies the Cronbach's Alpha test result of the whole SK dimension, which was 0.915. Cronbach's Alpha assessment results if items were deleted ranged from 0.908 to 0.920. As the dimension reliability was already strong which was an excellent outcome, there was no need to delete any item.

Table 5.85 Cronbach's Alpha of SK Dimension/Factor

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.915	.925	20

N=319

Findings of the purified first factor of the SK dimension obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the SK dimension, yielded reliability of 0.939, which is in the excellent range and well above the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.86 signifies that this factor produced a high Cronbach's α result, which slightly exceeded 0.90. Based on DeVellis (2012), Hair et al. (1998) and Netemeyer et al. (2003), this can be explained by the scale's length and does not necessarily require item removal. Cronbach's Alpha assessment outcomes if item was deleted ranged between 0.932 and 0.943. The inter-item correlations ranged between 0.232 and 0.752, and the item-to-total correlations ranged from 0.454 to 0.813, which was a good outcome. Such findings are in accordance with the common recommendations (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The findings of this sub dimension are very satisfying and this factor would be regarded as reliable.

Table 5.86 Cronbach's Alpha of the first Sub Dimension/Factor of SK

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.939	.943	14

N=319

The result of the reliability test of the purified second factor of the SK dimension obtained from the EFA rotation was 0.857, which would be regarded as a very good outcome and in accordance with the benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.87 presents the findings of the reliability test of the second factor of the SK dimension. The reliability's test values of this factor if items were deleted ranged between 0.764 and 0.919, the inter-item correlations ranged between 0.389 and 0.812, and the item-to-total correlations ranged from 0.442 to 0.822. Table 5.88 illustrates more statistical details of the second factor. Such findings are in favour of the factor under the SK dimension. Thus, this factor was considered to be reliable according to the earlier mentioned common guidelines.

Table 5.87 Cronbach's Alpha of the second Sub Dimension/Factor of SK

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.857	.858	4

N=319

Table 5.88 Reliability Analysis of the second Sub Dimension/Factor of SK

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SK1	6.76	10.842	.779	.680	.788
SK10	6.80	9.878	.822	.742	.764
SK12	5.25	12.681	.442	.197	.919
SK13	6.79	9.976	.796	.699	.776

With regard to the findings of the purified third factor of the SK dimension obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the SK dimension, the reliability test result was 0.848, which would be considered as a very good outcome and comfortably above the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Table 5.89 indicates the reliability's test result of the third factor of the SK dimension. As this factor consisted of two items, no figure was indicated for Cronbach's Alpha findings if Item was deleted, the inter-item correlation was 0.737 and the item-to-total correlation was 0.737. Table 5.90 illustrates more statistical details about the third factor. Therefore, this factor is considered to be reliable according to the earlier mentioned common guidelines.

Table 5.89 Cronbach's Alpha of the third Sub Dimension/Factor of SK

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.848	.849	2

N=319

Table 5.90 Reliability Analysis of the third Sub Dimension/Factor of SK

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SK2	4.20	1.323	.737	.543	.
SK3	4.24	1.261	.737	.543	.

5.5.9. Exploratory Factor Analysis of the CF Dimension

Communication and feedback is the fourth dimension of the dependent job performance construct. EFA on the 8 items of the CF dimension produced two sub dimensions/factors, i.e. Relations and Supervision practices (CFF1), and Evaluation (CFF2). The KMO test result of the 8 items was 0.852, which is considered to be a very good outcome (DeVellis, 2012). The findings of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were approx. Chi-Square = 1045.164 and Degree of Freedom *df*=28 with significance at Sig 0.000. In other words, the examined data reflected high factorability. These findings are satisfactory and in accordance with the recommended thresholds. All communalities exceeded 0.4. This indicates that the internal reliability of the dimension is strong. Thus, it was expected that these data would result in unique factors with high reliability. Table 5.91 presents the aforementioned statistical details about the CF dimension.

Table 5.91 Results of KMO and Bartlett's tests for CF Dimension

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.852
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1045.164
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

The anti-image correlation matrix of the entire CF dimension of 8 items was examined for each individual item. All items obtained diagonals higher than 0.5; in fact most of them were higher than 0.7, which is preferred by Field (2009). Based on the KMO, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and the Anti-image correlation matrix, we could be confident that the dataset was appropriate for exploratory factor analysis to be conducted. Based on the EFA settings i.e. PCA and Varimax, factor rotation was conducted with items loading >0.50 as outlined earlier (Hair et al., 2006), extraction with Eigenvalue >1 and an unlimited number of factors on the 8 items of the communication and feedback

dimension. This rotation set of multiple options yielded a framework of two factors (Table 5.93). The two sub dimensions produced explained about 64% of the total variance (Table 5.92). Tables 5.92 and 5.93 display the initial eigenvalues, number of factors, number of items per factor, factor loadings and other statistical details for the two factors. All factors' items were accepted, because it was apparent that they reflected the sample's view of how the factors are related to the communication and feedback dimension. According to Steelman et al. (2004:166) communication and feedback environment can be acknowledged as "the contextual aspects of day-to-day supervisor–subordinate and coworker–coworker feedback processes rather than to the formal appraisal feedback session".

Table 5.92 Eigenvalues and variance extracted by each component of the CF Dimension

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.969	49.607	49.607	3.969	49.607	49.607	2.769	34.607	34.607
2	1.176	14.701	64.308	1.176	14.701	64.308	2.376	29.700	64.308
3	.765	9.558	73.865						
4	.649	8.110	81.976						
5	.469	5.867	87.842						
6	.377	4.715	92.557						
7	.325	4.057	96.614						
8	.271	3.386	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.93 Pattern Matrix, Factor Loadings of (CF) Dimension

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
CF5	.886	
CF6	.845	
CF4	.822	
CF8	.596	
CF3		.813
CF2		.715
CF1		.708
CF7		.678

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

5.5.9.1. Reliability Analyses of the two factors of CF

Tables 5.94 and 5.95 respectively indicate the reliability test result of the whole dimension of CF which was 0.844 and the Cronbach's Alpha test findings if items were deleted, which ranged from 0.815 to 0.852. Such an outcome signifies that removing any item would not improve the dimension reliability, as it is already high.

Table 5.94 Cronbach's Alpha of CF Dimension/Factor

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.844	.852	8

N=319

Table 5.95 Reliability Analysis of CF Dimension/Factor

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CF1	27.73	28.111	.441	.276	.852
CF2	27.07	27.678	.645	.456	.817
CF3	26.58	29.383	.600	.474	.823
CF4	27.37	27.931	.655	.563	.816
CF5	27.18	28.948	.628	.607	.820
CF6	27.08	28.695	.675	.598	.815
CF7	26.43	30.730	.513	.359	.833
CF8	27.18	29.866	.552	.336	.829

Regarding the findings of the purified first factor of the CF dimension obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the CF dimension, the reliability assessment was 0.845 (Table 5.96), which was an excellent outcome and above the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Cronbach's Alpha assessment outcomes if item was deleted ranged between 0.774 and 0.867 (Table 5.97). The inter-item correlations of this factor ranged between 0.440 and 0.711, and the item-to-total correlations ranged from 0.523 to 0.754. Such findings are in accordance with the common recommendations (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Table 5.97 presents more statistical details about the first factor. The findings are satisfactory for the first factor to be regarded as reliable.

Table 5.96 Cronbach's Alpha of the first Sub Dimension/Factor of CF

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.845	.846	4

N=319

Table 5.97 Reliability Analysis of the first Sub Dimension/Factor of CF

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CF4	11.39	6.496	.713	.543	.791
CF5	11.20	6.760	.751	.596	.774
CF6	11.10	6.870	.754	.584	.774
CF8	11.20	7.867	.523	.279	.867

With respect to the findings of the second factor of the CF dimension obtained from the EFA rotations, which supports the conceptualisation of the CF dimension, the reliability result was 0.746 (Table 5.98), which could be classified as a good outcome and in line with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Cronbach's Alpha findings if item was deleted ranged from 0.635 to 0.757 (Table 5.99). The inter-item correlations' ranged between 0.263 and 0.572, and the item-to-total correlations ranged between 0.467 and 0.654. Such findings are in accordance with the common recommendations (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Table 5.99 presents more statistical details about the second factor and findings are satisfactory for the second factor to be regarded as reliable.

Table 5.98 Cronbach's Alpha of the second Sub Dimension/Factor of CF

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.746	.764	4

N=319

Table 5.99 Reliability Analysis of the second Sub Dimension/Factor of CF

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CF1	12.76	6.566	.467	.243	.757
CF2	12.10	6.946	.618	.397	.642
CF3	11.61	7.490	.654	.463	.635
CF7	11.46	8.539	.490	.320	.718

According to the results of the above reliability analyses, for the final run all items of all the factors of the developed model were retained, and 'Adventurous' items were excluded after the preliminary run, as removing such items would improve the Cronbach's α value of the factor Table 5.100 shows the items that were deleted to improve reliability of factors. Consequently all factors/subscales resulted in a reliability over 0.7, except the third factor of the PB construct, which had a reliability of 6.9, Table 5.26. According to DeVellis (2012), Hair et al. (1998) and Netemeyer et al. (2003) a scale is regarded as reliable if it produces a Cronbach's α more than 0.7. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010:325) "Reliabilities less than 0.60 are considered to be poor". Thus, this factor reliability still within the acceptable level. The fact that several factors produced Cronbach's α over 0.90 was not viewed as an alert for item redundancy, because such Cronbach's α values are more likely to be caused by factor length, and their ability to correlate to each other, as highlighted earlier. In other words, these Cronbach's α values were interpreted as positive reliable outcomes and not negative (DeVellis, 2012; Netemeyer et al., 2003). This stage of analysis was guided by the criteria most widely employed and extensively recommended for studies by a number of documented researchers (e.g. Clark and Watson, 1995; Dawes, 2012; DeVellis, 2012; Malhotra et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Worthington and Whittaker, 2006), with the aim of

providing reliable and valid findings. With respect to addressing the factor/scale reliability, this study has followed the view of DeVellis (2012).

Table 5.100 Items deleted after the preliminary run

Name of Construct/Dimension	Item No in Questionnaire	Item Code
Pay and Benefits	6	PB1
	10	PB4
Job security	54	JS6
	103	JS14
Work Environment	18	WE2
	25	WE3
	46	WE10
	61	WE14
	63	WE15
	64	WE16
	76	WE22
	104	WE25
Accomplishments and Results	136	AR12
Skills and Knowledge	82	SK11
	87	SK12
Communication and feedback	132	CF8

5.5.10. CFA of the Job Performance Construct

To additionally confirm the job performance construct's factor analysis, an extra run on the PLS-SEM was executed separately from the conceptual model. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the job performance construct independently to prove its convergent and discriminant validates, as it can be acknowledged from the cross loading Table 5.101 of the job performance construct, that the items of each factor are highly loading on their designated factor. Table 5.102 indicates the Composite Reliability (CR) values. This assessment was suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) who declared that after the unidimensioality of a set of scales has been acceptably established, one would assess its reliability. Even a perfectly unidimensional scale will not be useful in practice if the resultant scale has unacceptably low reliability. The CR value of the measured factor should be equal or higher than the recommended value 0.7 (Bagozzi and

Yi, 1991; Hair et al., 2006). CR was calculated automatically via the Smart PLS 2.0 M3, for all the factors/sub dimensions of the job performance construct. All factors/sub dimensions of the job performance construct yielded values of 0.7 or higher for CR assessment. CR assessment findings for the job performance construct's factors ranged from 0.832 for Duties and Responsibilities Factor one (DRF1) which was the lowest to 0.942 for Accomplishments and Results Factor one (ARF1) which was the highest, such findings are in line with the recommended level. Cronbach's Alpha test results were also computed and all factors resulted in high reliability values of over 0.7 (Table 5.102) which was in line with the acceptable reliability benchmark of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). According to DeVellis (2012), Hair et al. (1998) and Netemeyer et al. (2003) a scale is regarded as reliable if it produces a Cronbach's α more than 0.7.

Tables 5.102 and 5.103 present the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) which is employed to assess the convergent validity. Convergent validity can be assessed by four criteria: i.e. factor loading for an item is at least 0.5 and significant, construct reliability is a minimum of 0.7, AVE for a construct was larger than 0.5 and by comparing the coefficient and standard error of each item in the model (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Chow and Chan, 2008; Fornell and Larcker 1981; Hair et al., 2006; Hooper et al., 2008; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Tables 5.101 and 5.103 therefore confirm that all items' Factor Loading (FL) were higher than 0.60. In fact the lowest FL's value for an item was 0.658. AVE findings for all factors/sub dimensions were greater than 0.5. The discriminant validity results for all the dimensions were as follows: AR=0.8093, CF=0.8661, DR=0.8850, and SK=0.7379; hence, they were proven to be high and well established. Such CFA assessments were established to confirm and solidify the EFA established by the SPSS statistical program for each factor or sub dimension of the job performance construct. Figure 5.4 displays all factors and factor loadings of the job

performance construct, which was performed independently on the PLS. Also Appendix 5 Table 5.1 presents all constructs, dimensions, factor names, and item codes.

Table 5.101 Cross Loading of Job Performance Construct's Sub dimensions

	ARF1	ARF2	CFF1	CFF2	DRF1	DRF2	SKF1	SKF2
AR11	0.94	0.32	0.28	0.27	0.51	0.27	0.55	0.40
AR9	0.94	0.27	0.20	0.24	0.46	0.32	0.49	0.41
AR3	0.15	0.77	0.00	0.17	0.34	0.13	0.18	0.28
AR4	0.23	0.83	0.09	0.30	0.38	0.28	0.21	0.38
AR5	0.25	0.81	0.07	0.24	0.39	0.22	0.21	0.36
AR6	0.35	0.75	0.08	0.33	0.43	0.25	0.34	0.41
CF4	0.23	0.08	0.88	0.47	0.10	0.15	0.40	0.06
CF5	0.21	0.05	0.89	0.41	0.05	0.17	0.36	0.06
CF6	0.25	0.08	0.89	0.45	0.09	0.08	0.40	0.08
CF1	0.10	0.37	0.28	0.72	0.12	0.10	0.28	0.20
CF2	0.21	0.18	0.49	0.85	0.18	0.08	0.45	0.22
CF3	0.33	0.29	0.41	0.83	0.33	0.16	0.61	0.32
DR2	0.34	0.34	0.02	0.12	0.65	0.34	0.24	0.24
DR3	0.38	0.28	0.14	0.16	0.72	0.47	0.29	0.31
DR4	0.40	0.37	0.04	0.21	0.77	0.36	0.33	0.40
DR5	0.40	0.45	0.07	0.28	0.81	0.50	0.40	0.51
DR10	0.28	0.22	0.14	0.07	0.49	0.87	0.23	0.34
DR11	0.33	0.18	0.27	0.19	0.44	0.81	0.26	0.32
DR7	0.18	0.30	-0.03	0.10	0.47	0.79	0.14	0.40
SK14	0.48	0.24	0.32	0.46	0.36	0.18	0.86	0.30
SK15	0.44	0.20	0.37	0.48	0.32	0.25	0.80	0.36
SK16	0.45	0.26	0.33	0.49	0.33	0.19	0.82	0.32
SK17	0.50	0.30	0.40	0.44	0.36	0.21	0.83	0.33
SK18	0.48	0.23	0.35	0.42	0.35	0.24	0.84	0.31
SK19	0.43	0.17	0.34	0.39	0.29	0.24	0.75	0.31
SK20	0.54	0.23	0.31	0.45	0.35	0.15	0.82	0.31
SK5	0.40	0.23	0.39	0.47	0.41	0.24	0.80	0.36
SK6	0.41	0.30	0.36	0.50	0.39	0.22	0.79	0.37
SK7	0.35	0.21	0.35	0.41	0.21	0.15	0.71	0.39
SK8	0.25	0.15	0.23	0.31	0.23	0.13	0.55	0.28
SK9	0.43	0.27	0.31	0.44	0.40	0.21	0.72	0.35
SK1	0.07	0.30	-0.09	0.04	0.19	0.29	0.09	0.71
SK10	0.02	0.31	-0.07	0.03	0.19	0.33	0.04	0.69
SK12	0.06	0.25	0.01	0.24	0.33	0.17	0.28	0.65
SK13	0.06	0.28	-0.00	0.05	0.18	0.33	0.08	0.70

Note: Accomplishment and Results Factor1&2 (ARF1) & (ARF2), Communication and Feedback Factor1&2 (CFF1) & (CFF2), Duties and Responsibilities Factor1&2 (DRF1) & (DRF2), Skills and Knowledge Factor1&2 (SKF1) & (SKF2). N=319.

Table 5.102 Quality Criteria of the Job Performance Dimensions and Sub dimensions

	AVE	Composite Reliability	R Square	Cronbachs Alpha
AR	0.65	0.84	0.52	0.78
ARF1	0.89	0.94	0.54	0.87
ARF2	0.63	0.87	0.76	0.80
CF	0.75	0.87	0.44	0.82
CFF1	0.79	0.91	0.78	0.86
CFF2	0.65	0.84	0.71	0.73
DR	0.78	0.86	0.42	0.81
DRF1	0.55	0.83	0.81	0.73
DRF2	0.68	0.86	0.75	0.77
Performance	0.56	0.93		0.92
SK	0.54	0.92	0.86	0.90
SKF1	0.61	0.94	0.97	0.94
SKF2	0.68	0.89	0.10	0.85

Table 5.103 of PR Dimensions' correlation, AVE and Discrimanat validity

Dimension	AVE	AR	CF	DR	SK
AR	0.65	0.80	0	0	0
CF	0.75	0.32	0.86	0	0
DR	0.78	0.56	0.21	0.88	0
SK	0.54	0.52	0.56	0.44	0.74

N=319

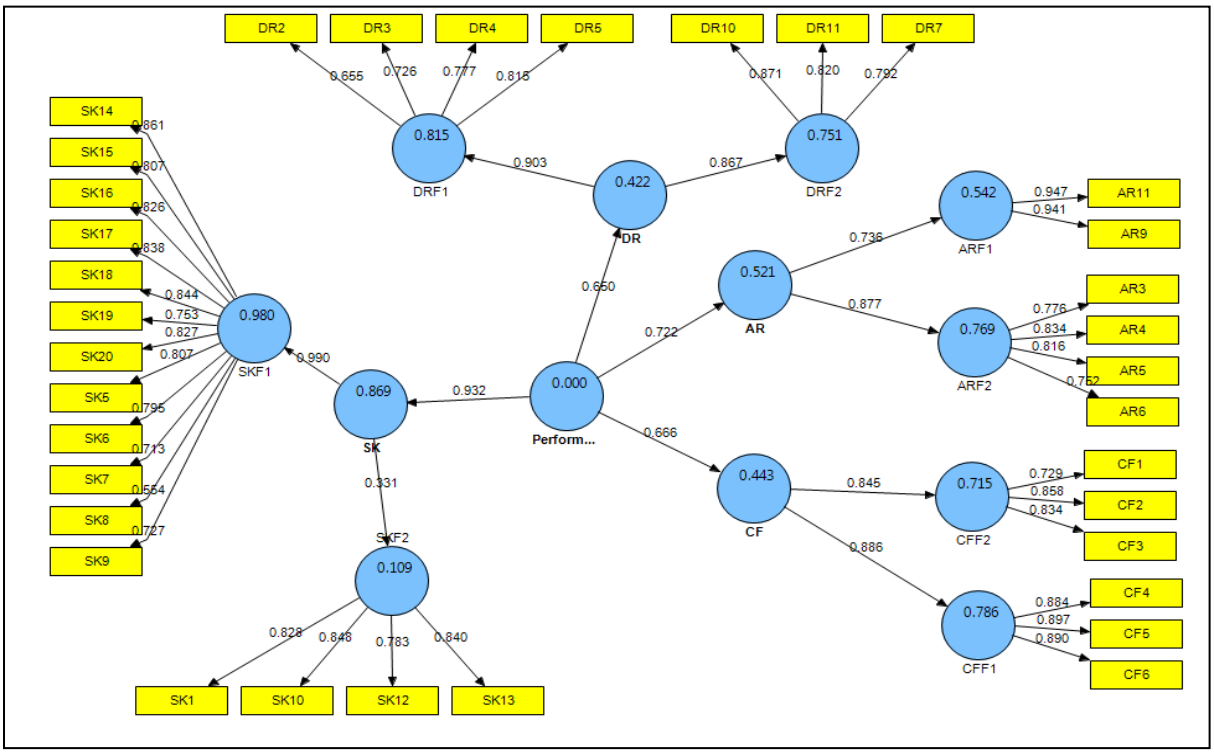

Figure 5.4 Factors of Job Performance Construct which was executed independently

5.6. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

SEM is a largely confirmatory, rather than exploratory, technique. A researcher is more likely to use SEM to determine whether a certain model is valid. It refers to the collection of statistical techniques which assists to bring the data and underlying theory together. It is also known as causal analysis, analysis of covariance structure, path analysis, or confirmatory factor analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012).

The rationale for employing SEM is that SEM is widely utilized and recommended by many scholars (e.g. DeVellis, 2012; Field, 2009; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Wood, 2008), unlike least squares regression, which was criticised by Coleman (2011:251) as basic least squares regression "makes no allowance for measurement (random and systematic) error given it is subsumed into the overall measurement term for each factor/construct." Iacobucci et al. (2007) highlighted that least squares regression measures individual items by taking one figure alone, either the mean or the sum. In addition, regression can

analyse only one type of relationship among variables, whereas SEM is capable of analysing multiple types of relationship between a large number of dependent and independent variables (Byrne, 2001; Chin, 1998; Gotz et al., 2010; Kline, 2010). For a framework with complex relationships and a large number of dependent and independent variables (more than 6), it is most appropriate to employ SEM analysis. SEM also estimates multiple and interrelated dependence relationships (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, it was the most appropriate technique to test the hypotheses, given the complex relationships among research variables.

The most important advantages of using SEM are its ability to examine the overall data fit to the hypothesised model and the advantage of considering measurement unreliability when estimating the relationships among variables (Iacobucci et al., 2007; Maruyama and McGarvey, 1980). SEM statistical technique can be selected based on either covariance-based (CBSEM) such as Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS), Linear Structural Relations (LISREL) or variance-based SEM such as Partial Least Squares PLS, depending on the goals of the research.

5.6.1. Rationale for Selecting PLS-SEM Approach

The Smart PLS Version 2.0 M3, PLS-SEM was employed for the assessment of the full conceptual model's SEM due to the following reasons. According to Gefen and Straub (2005), a component-based or variance-based technique, such as PLS-SEM applies ordinary least squares (OLS) as an estimation method to explain the total variance. Also in order for PLS to reduce the residual variance of the dependent variables and to result in a significant average of the determination of coefficient (R^2), it produces an iterative sequence of OLS, i.e. factor analysis combined with path difference. Thus, by performing the OLS in sequence for each construct, PLS-SEM would overcome the critical issues of inadmissible solutions and factor indeterminacy (Chin, 1998; Gefen et

al., 2000). In addition PLS-SEM is less concerned with sample size and multivariate normally distributed data (Chin, 1998; Gefen and Straub, 2005; Hair et al., 2006). Moreover, PLS-SEM has become widespread and more widely used method in social science studies (Hair et al., 2012a; Henseler et al., 2009; Hulland, 1999; Vinzi et al., 2010).

With regard to this study, the conceptual framework which was empirically investigated contained six constructs, five of which constructs were high-order. However, the dependent construct contained four dimensions, which made them third-order hierarchical or third-order latent variables, some of them with three sub-dimensions. Such factors/sub dimensions were designated by the EFA. Table 5.104 presents all the constructs, dimensions and factors/sub dimensions related to each one. Thus based on Hair et al.'s (2012a) explanation of theoretical model complexity, this study's conceptual model was perceived to be complex. Such a rationale would justify the employment of the PLS-SEM method as the most suitable for data analysis of this study. Also, for complex models with a large number of constructs, dimensions and measuring items, such as the current conceptual model, which has 113 items, PLS-SEM is regarded as the most appropriate processor due to its method's ability to estimate a complex model, avoiding problematical estimation issues (Hair et al., 2012b; Marcoulides, 1998; Vinzi et al., 2010; Wold, 1985). PLS-SEM would also facilitate to prediction of path relations and could help to build theories and validate them with confirmatory factor analysis Chin, 1998; Chin and Newsted, 1999; Gefen et al., 2000; Henseler et al., 2009; Tenenhaus et al., 2005). Moreover, PLS is a distribution-free method program that aims only at consistency (Dijkstra, 1983), which what was needed for this study in order to assess the hypothesised relationships, as this research's data was not normally distributed, and since the present research objective is predicting confirmed corrolational structural relationships, the PLS-SEM was the most appropriate statistical technique for analysis as

argued by Hair et al. (2012a). Furthermore, in the SEM domain, a two-step method is preferred to a one-step method (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988).

The two-step method starts with evaluating the "Inner-model" or measurement model, through psychometric tests for the measurement items used, which will yield essential findings, e.g. Composite reliability (CR), Cronbach's alpha reliability (α) unidimensionality, and validities (e.g. convergent and discriminate validity). These indices were used in the current study (first step). The estimation of the inner or measurement model is regarded as the CFA stage within the PLS-SEM method (Henseler et al., 2009; Vinzi et al., 2010), and the "Outer-model" or structural model involves examining the hypothesised relationships between constructs through multiple regression technique i.e. hypothetical relationships based over sign, magnitude and significance level (2^{nd} step). These steps were implemented sequentially (Chin, 2002; Gefen and Straub, 2005; Hair et al., 2006; Henseler et al., 2009). The two-step method is preferable for studies of a prediction and dimensionality developing nature (Hair et al., 2012a; Gefen and Straub, 2005; Chin, 1998). Based on all the above stated justifications for a study to employ PLS-SEM method, it was believed that PLS-SEM would yield the most beneficial, useful and accurate findings.

The settings used for the PLS-SEM algorithm were those recommended by Hair et al (2012a) Henseler et al. (2009) and Wold (1985). These settings according to Hair et al (2012a:429) were as follows: first, "Use a uniform value of 1 as an initial value for each of the outer weights". Second, "Use path weighting scheme" for the weighting scheme criterion. Third, "Sum of the outer weights' changes between two iterations <0.00001" for the stop criterion. Fourth, the maximum value of iterations should be 300.

5.7. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA is a more rigorous method to test the unidimensionality (how well the measured items represent the factor) and validity of factors (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Harrington, 2008; Marcoulides, 1998). It is the next set of analyses that ought to be implemented on the dataset after the accomplishment of the EFA stage, which was reported in section 5.5. EFA was employed to explore and identify the factors for each construct and dimension of the conceptual model, designate the items related to each factor along with the factor loading, and on which factor each item loaded highly, with other statistical findings, e.g. KMO and Cronbach's α results for each factor. EFA is often considered to be more appropriate than CFA in the early stages of scale development because CFA does not show how well items load on non-hypothesised factors (Kelloway, 1995). CFA defines which observed items are related to the specified constructs, factors or latent variables, based on a *priori* theory or the results of the EFA, it provides a confirmatory test of how well the obtained items logically and systematically represent the constructs involved in a theoretical model (Hair et al., 2006). It also investigates how well a specification of the factors matches reality (the actual data). Whilst EFA gives support for the reliability of the research factors, CFA supports the validation of those factors/constructs. Thus, it was important to perform CFA on the same dataset to be able to confirm the factors designated by the EFA (Hair et al., 2012b; Hurley et al., 1997; Marcoulides, 1998). CFA is also a required stage prior to SEM analysis, as the power of SEM is utalised most fully when multiple indicators for each latent variable are already tested and confirmed through CFA to establish the conceptual soundness of latent variables used in the final structural model (Byrne, 2001; Chen et al., 2008; Hair et al., 1998; Kline, 2010; Schreiber et al., 2006).

5.7.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Conceptual Model

CFA, as mentioned, was the first step in evaluating the conceptual framework. In the following sections the reliabilities, i.e. Cronbach's α and composite reliability, and validities, i.e. convergent and discriminant, of the measurement model or 'outer-model' in PLS based analysis, are reported according to the criteria presented in Table 5.105.

This will imply providing details about the CFA procedure and findings of analysing the nineteen factors produced from the five constructs and four dimensions of the conceptual model in Figure 3.2 via the SPSS program. Those factors respectively are Reward and promotions (PBF1), Wages and incentives (PBF2), Allowances (PBF3), Organisation goals achievement (JSF1), Organisation Orientation (JSF2), Supervision (MGF1), Fairness and trust (MGF2), Workplace climate (WEF1), Employee-organisation fit (WEF2), Relations with colleagues & team (WEF3), LMX, Clarity of systems and standards (DRF1), Self efficacy (DRF2), Capacity to perform (ARF1), Sufficiency of systems and standard (ARF2), Training and development opportunities (SKF1), Task requirements (SKF2), Relations and Supervision practices (CFF1) and Evaluation (CFF2). Table 5.104 presents all constructs, dimensions, and factor/sub dimension codes.

Table 5.104 Constructs, Dimensions and Factors/Sub dimensions of the study

Construct	Factor Code	Factor's Name
Pay and Benefits	PBF1	Reward and promotions
	PBF2	Wages and incentives
	PBF3	Allowances
Job Security	JSF1	Organisation goals achievement
	JSF2	Organisation Orientation
Management	MGF1	Supervision
	MGF2	Fairness and trust
Work Environment	WEF1	Workplace Climate
	WEF2	Employee-organisation fit
	WEF3	Relations with colleagues & team
Leader Member Exchange	LMX	LMX
Dimensions of PR Construct	**Factor Code**	**Factor's Name**
Duties and Responsibilities	DRF1	Clarity of systems and standards
	DRF2	Self efficacy
Accomplishments and	ARF1	Capacity to perform
	ARF2	Sufficiency of systems and standard
Skills and Knowledge	SKF1	Training and development
	SKF2	Task requirements
Communication and	CFF1	Relations and Supervision practices
	CFF2	Evaluation

Note: Pay and Benefits Factor 1 (PBF1), Job Security Factor 1 (JSF1) and so on.

Even though the theoretical model presented in Chapter Three was developed from well established and widely recognised theories, i.e. Herzberg's two factors content theory, Adams' equity process theory, LMX and employees' performance from previous studies, as mentioned in section 3.4, which does not require measurement re-assessment (Hair et al., 2006), still, implementing CFA on the outer model is recommended to confirm the underlying relationship of the observed items with the latent variables (Chin, 2010; Gotz et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2011; Reinartz et al., 2009).

Table 5.105 Criteria of Measurement or 'Outer-Model' Assessment

Criterion	Description	Acceptable fit
Construct or factor reliability Composite reliability	Is a measure of internal consistency and is calculated by formula $\rho c = (\Sigma\ \lambda\iota)^2 var\ F/(\Sigma\ \lambda\iota)^2 var\ F + \Sigma\Theta u$ Where $\lambda\iota$, F, and Θu are the factor loadings, factor variance, and error variance respectively (Werts et al., 1974)	Value > 0.6 (Hair et al., 2006; Bagozzi & Yi, 1991)
Construct or factor reliability Cronbach's α	Measures the indicators uni-dimensionality (inter-correlation) with their latent construct. It is calculated by $\alpha = \left(\frac{N}{N-1}\right) * \left(1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sigma_i^2}{\sigma_i^2}\right)$ Where, N is number of indicators indicates variance of indicator i, and represents the variance of the sum of all the indicators scores (Cronbach, 1951)	Value > 0.6 (Hair et al., 2006), and value > 0.8 or 0.9 is better (Nunnally & Bernsein, 1994)
Indicator reliability	Is absolute standardised outer loading. It indicates the variance explained by the observed variable towards underlying latent construct (Churchill, 1979)	Value > 0.7 ($\cong \sqrt{0.5}$) is better (Henseler et al., 2009), and value> 0.4 is acceptable (Hulland, 1999; Churchill, 1979)
Convergent validity	Is the degree to whic two measures of the same concepts are correlated. It is demonstrated by the uni-dimensionality using average variance extracted (AVE) = $(\Sigma\lambda\iota^2) var\ F/(\Sigma\lambda\iota^2) var\ F + \sum \Theta\, u$, Where, Where $\lambda\iota$, F, and Θu are the factor loadings, factor variance, and error variance respectively (Fornell and Larcker, 1981)	Value > 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981)
Discriminant validity Construct-level	Is the degree to which two conceptually similar concepts are distinct (Hair et al., 2006). It ensures that each latent variable shares more variance with its own block of indicators that with another latent variable	$\sqrt{AVE}$ > latent variable correlation (Fornell and Larcker, 1981)
Discriminant validity Item-level	Is the degree to which two conceptually similar concepts are distinct from each other (Hair et al., 2006)	Loading of each indicator > cross loadings (Chin, 1998; Gotz et al., 2010), and Cross loading <0.4 (Hair et al., 2006)

Source: Adopted from Abbasi (2011:228).

5.7.2. Reliability (Item-level) Measurement

Assessing the internal consistency of the measuring observed items with each other (Factor loading) was the first phase of the construct or factor reliability criterion 'composite reliability' of the measurement model assessment. Specifically, item-reliability indicates that which part of item's variance can be explained by the underlying

latent variable (Gotz et al., 2010). According to Hair et al. (2013) for reflective measurement models' indicator reliability, loadings ≥0.70 and no less than 0.40 are acceptable. A common assumption is that absolute correlation (i.e. standardised outer loadings) should be more than 50% explained by the latent variable (Chin, 1998). Based on PLS measurement analysis, Appendix 5 Table 5.106 shows that the absolute correlation between the factor and its measuring manifest items (i.e. factor loading/cross-loading) was above than the minimum threshold criterion 0.4. In fact the factor loadings ranged from 0.56 to 0.95, which satisfies the requirements of the psychometric reliability test (Churchill, 1979; Henseler et al., 2009; Hurley et al., 1997).

Table 5.107 shows the 23 items that were excluded due to their higher or stronger loading on another factor than their designated factor. Removing such items would confirm factor unidimensionality, increase construct validity and would reflect the best possible model fit for the PB, JS, WE, DR, AR, SK and CF factors/dimensions. According to Chin (1998) an indicator's loading on its underlying factor must be higher than its loading on all other factors. Removal of such items was based on three fundamental guidelines: factor loadings (FLs), cross-loading items (CL) and cross-loading value > 0.20 and in line with the theory (Segars and Grover, 1993). As stated by Hair et al. (2012a) the cross loading for items should be checked and items regarded as removable ought to be removed, if this is consistent with theory and CR or AVE improved. This tactic was practically supported by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) who argued that this approach is usually important. According to Byrne (2001) CFA can be employed in an exploratory manner. Hurley (1997) indicated that this approach is justifiable in CFA stages. By employing these three criteria before removing items, the finalised model would be acceptable for generalisation to a broader population (Hair et al., 1998). Due to removing the items mentioned earlier, WE's fourth dimension and SK's third sub dimension SKF3 were excluded.

5.7.3. Reliability (factor-level), Composite Reliability (CR) & Cronbach's α Assessments

The factor-level reliability ensures that items assigned to the same factor or sub-dimension reveal a strong relationship with each other. Even though the earlier calculated individual-level item reliability was adequate, according to Bagozzi and Foxall (1996) it is recommended to examine the reliability of the whole factor based on the complete set of indicators or items under each factor. This estimation can be implemented in two steps; first the composite reliability which measures the internal consistency of the factor/dimension, in other words how well the factor or dimension was measured by its assigned items (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Gotz et el., 2010).

CR which was calculated via the following equation:

$$CR = \frac{Squared\ \Sigma\ factor\ standarised\ loadings\ for\ construct\ items}{(Squared\ \Sigma\ factor\ standarised\ loadings\ for\ construct\ items) + \Sigma\ \text{estemation indicators error}}$$

(Hair et al., 2006)

The CR value of the measured factor should be equal or higher than the recommended value 0.7 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1978). CR was computed automatically via Smart PLS 2.0 M3, for all the factors/sub dimensions of this study, i.e. Reward and promotions, Wages and incentives, Allowances, Organisation goals achievement, Organisation Orientation, Supervision, Fairness and trust, Workplace climate, Employee-organisation fit, Relations with colleagues & team, LMX, Clarity of systems and standards, Self efficacy, Capacity to perform, Sufficiency of systems and standard, Training and development opportunities, Task requirements, Relations and Supervision practices and Evaluation. CR for all factors/sub dimensions ranged between 0.947 for Training and development opportunities (SKF1) which was the highest and 0.819 for Organisation orientation (JSF1) which was the lowest, other factors' CR were for example; 0.942 for

Capacity to perform (ARF1), 0.936 for Reward and promotions (PBF1), 0.899 for supervision (MGF1), 0.897 for Relations and Supervision practices (CFF1), 0.867 for Self-efficacy (DRF2), 0.866 for Employee-organisation fit (WEF2), and 0.883 for LMX, which indicate that all factors'/sub dimensions' CR outcomes were within the recommended level, Table 5.109 present CR outcomes for all factors/sub dimensions of this study.

The second step was Cronbach's α analysis, which is extensively used to indicate a scale's reliability. It measures the uni-dimensionality of multi-item scale's internal constancy. As advised by Churchill and Peter (1984) Cronbach's α for the outer-model's individual factors was tested as a further check of each factor or scale's reliability (Marcoulides, 1998; DeVellis, 2012). It was automatically calculated via Smart PLS 2.0 M3, Table 5.109 shows that the Cronbach's α findings, which were obtained for the outer-model factors/sub dimensions, were all higher than the required value of 0.6 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1978). It is worth mentioning that the Cronbach's Alpha values of all the factors/sub dimensions have already been examined, proven reliable and presented in the EFA section, but due to removing items from some factors as they were loading higher on other factors than their designated ones as explained previously, Cronbach's α outcomes for some dimension may have changed slightly. Thus Cronbach's α findings were confirmed reliable again, and the outcomes of all the factors/sub dimensions were as follows: the highest was for Training and development opportunities (0.938), followed by Reward and promotions (0.923), and the lowest were Organisation orientation (0.668) and Allowances (0.619). The rest of the dimension were as follows: Wages and incentives 0.765, Organisation goals achievement 0.886, Supervision 0.865, Fairness and trust 0.758, Workplace climate 0.805, Employee-organisation fit 0.794, Relations with colleagues & team 0.722, LMX 0.846, Clarity of systems and standards 0.731, Self efficacy 0.770, Capacity to perform 0.8785,

Sufficiency of systems and standard 0.805, Training and development opportunities 0.938, Task requirements 0.767, Relations and supervision practices 0.845, and Evaluation 0.735. Based on the CFA findings which were acquired via PLS-SEM (Table 5.109), therefore, it can be confidently declared that all factors investigated in this study were confirmed to be reliable. Next come the validity analysis of the measurement or outer-model.

Table 5.107 Items Deleted to Improve Dimensionality

Construct	Dimension/Factor No	Item Code
Pay and Benefits	PBF1	PB8
	PBF3	PB6
Job Security	JSF2	JS4
		JS5
Work Environment	WEF3	WE8
	WEF4	WE12
		WE13
		WE16
Duties and Responsibilities	DRF1	DR1
		DR6
		DR8
		DR9
		DR12
Accomplishments and Results	ARF1	AR1
		AR2
		AR7
		AR8
		AR10
Skills and Knowledge	SKF1	SK4
		SK11
	SKF3	SK2
		SK3
Communication and Feedback	CFF1	CF7

5.7.4. Convergent validity Assessment

Convergent and discriminant validities are both considered subcategories or subtypes of construct validity. They work together. Convergent validity is the extent to which a set of measuring items correctly represents the underlying theoretical proposed concept; it

describes the extent to which indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance. In other words to establish convergent validity, it is necessary to show that measures that should be related are in reality related (Hair et al., 2006). It signifies that a set of items should represent one and same underlying construct that can be demonstrated through their uni-dimensionality (Edwards, 2003; Hair et al., 2006; Henseler et al., 2009).

Convergent validity can be assessed by four criteria: factor loading for an item is at least 0.5 and significant, construct reliability is a minimum of 0.7, AVE for a construct is larger than 0.5 and by comparing the coefficient and standard error of each item in the model (Fornell and Larcker 1981; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012; Chow and Chan, 2008; Hooper et al., 2008).

With regard to this study convergent validity was estimated by two unique approaches for the conceptual model's constructs. First, according to Chen et al. (2008) an instrument with item loadings set to ≥ 0.50 is regarded as valid, it is even called the 'gold standard'. Therefore, since the FL cut-off point adopted by this study was set to 0.5, the produced outer-model can be regarded as valid. The second approach was to examine the convergent validity for each construct of the outer-model individually, using a widely accepted method, which is Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (e.g. Hair et al., 2006; Henseler et al., 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). This was originally introduced by Fornell and Larcker (1981) to attempt to measure the amount of variance that a construct captures from its measuring items relative to the amount due to measurement error (Edwards, 2003). As all our constructs except the LMX are second-order and third-order, High Order Constructs (HOC), the AVE was calculated manually because Smart PLS 2.0 M3 is unable to calculate AVE for HOC correctly. According to MacKenzie et al. (2011:A1) "the average variance extracted (AVE) could be calculated for the second order construct by averaging the squared multiple correlations for the first-order

indicators". Alternatively the validity of the set of sub-dimensions can be assessed using Edwards' (2001) multivariate coefficient of determination (R^2). "In either case, values greater than 0.50 would mean that, on average, a majority of the variance in the first-order sub-dimensions is shared with the second-order latent construct" (MacKenzie et al.,2011:A2). For example, (let us say we have three Low Order Constructs LOCs and the path coefficient between LOCs and HOC as follows: 0.75, 0.72, 0.65. Then the calculation will be like this: $((0.75)^2 + (0.72)^2 + (0.65)^2)/ 3 = 0.501$. Thus the calculation of AVE yielded the highest AVE value for management (0.7415). Job Security came next with 0.6493, followed by Pay and Benefits (0.5933), then Job performance (0.5647), and Work Environment (0.5233), ending with Leader Member Exchange construct (0.5207). Figure 5.5 displays all factors' path coefficient. Also Table 5.108 shows that the AVE result for each construct of the Outer-model was higher than the required value 0.5. These findings indicated that all the conceptual model's constructs showed remarkable convergent validity and were within the acceptable range (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 1998; McDonald and Ho, 2002).

5.7.5. Discriminant Validity Assessment

Discriminant validity is the subsequent or complementary concept of convergent validity. It implies that two conceptually different constructs should display differently. Discriminant validity occurs where constructs that are expected not to relate do not, i.e. a set of measuring items are expected not to be uni-dimensional (Edwards, 2003; Hair et al., 2006; Henseleret al., 2009). In this context, the discriminant validity of the outer-model, i.e. the conceptual framework, was examined at both the construct level implementing Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion, and at the items level, employing the cross loading approach of Chin (1998). Based on Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion, the square-root of AVE for each construct should be higher or greater than all other

construct correlations in row and column (i.e. inter-construct correlation), and if this has been established, it can be declared that discriminant validity is obtained (Byrne, 2001; DeVellis, 2012; Marcoulides, 1998).

Table 5.108 demonstrates the discrimenant validity findings of the outer-model which were as follows: JS √0.649= (0.805), LMX √0.520= (0.721), MG √0.741= (0.861), PB √0.593= (0.770), Performance √0.564= (0.751), WE √0.523= (0.723). With regard to the inter-correlation between outer-model constructs' results, the highest correlation between two constructs was 0.60, which is below the AVEs and AVEs roots which satisfied the criterion of the discriminant validity. Thus it can be concluded that the disrciminant validity of the outer-model's five constructs was confirmed as illustrated in Table 5.108. The discriminant validity was also established at the item-level according to Chin's (1998) approach of examining the cross-loading within factor loading. All measuring items within each factor were higher than all of its cross-loadings. In fact, all cross-loading items were within the values recommended by Hair et al. (2006). Appendix 5 Table 5.106 displays all cross-loading items for all the factors of the study.

Table 5.108 Inter-construct correlation, AVE and Discriminate Validity

Construct	Cronbachs Alpha	AVE	JS	LMX	MG	PB	Performance	WE
JS	0.85	0.64	0.80	0	0	0	0	0
LMX	0.84	0.52	0.30	0.72	0	0	0	0
MG	0.85	0.74	0.31	0.60	0.86	0	0	0
PB	0.91	0.59	0.55	0.37	0.43	0.77	0	0
Performance	0.92	0.56	0.40	0.39	0.40	0.37	0.75	0
WE	0.80	0.52	0.34	0.27	0.34	0.20	0.35	0.72

Note: Job Security 'JS', Leader Member Exchange 'LMX', Management 'MG', Pay and Benefits 'PB', Performance 'PR', Work Environment 'WE'. N=319.

Table 5.109 Quality Criteria of the measurement model Conceptual framework

	AVE	Composite Reliability	R Square	Cronbachs Alpha
AR	0.65	0.84	0.52	0.78
ARF1	0.89	0.94	0.53	0.87
ARF2	0.63	0.87	0.77	0.80
CF	0.76	0.88	0.43	0.84
CFF1	0.68	0.89	0.83	0.84
CFF2	0.65	0.85	0.69	0.73
DR	0.78	0.86	0.43	0.81
DRF1	0.55	0.83	0.81	0.73
DRF2	0.68	0.86	0.75	0.77
JS	0.65	0.88		0.85
JSF1	0.60	0.91	0.89	0.88
JSF2	0.60	0.82	0.39	0.66
LMX	0.52	0.88	0.38	0.84
MG	0.74	0.88		0.85
MGF1	0.59	0.89	0.82	0.86
MGF2	0.65	0.83	0.65	0.75
PB	0.59	0.92		0.91
PBF1	0.62	0.93	0.90	0.92
PBF2	0.58	0.85	0.69	0.76
PBF3	0.72	0.83	0.18	0.62
Performance	0.56	0.93	0.30	0.93
SK		0.92	0.86	0.91
SKF1	0.58	0.94	0.97	0.94
SKF2	0.68	0.89	0.13	0.85
WE	0.52	0.84		0.81
WEF1	0.51	0.86	0.53	0.80
WEF2	0.62	0.86	0.60	0.79
WEF3	0.64	0.84	0.42	0.72

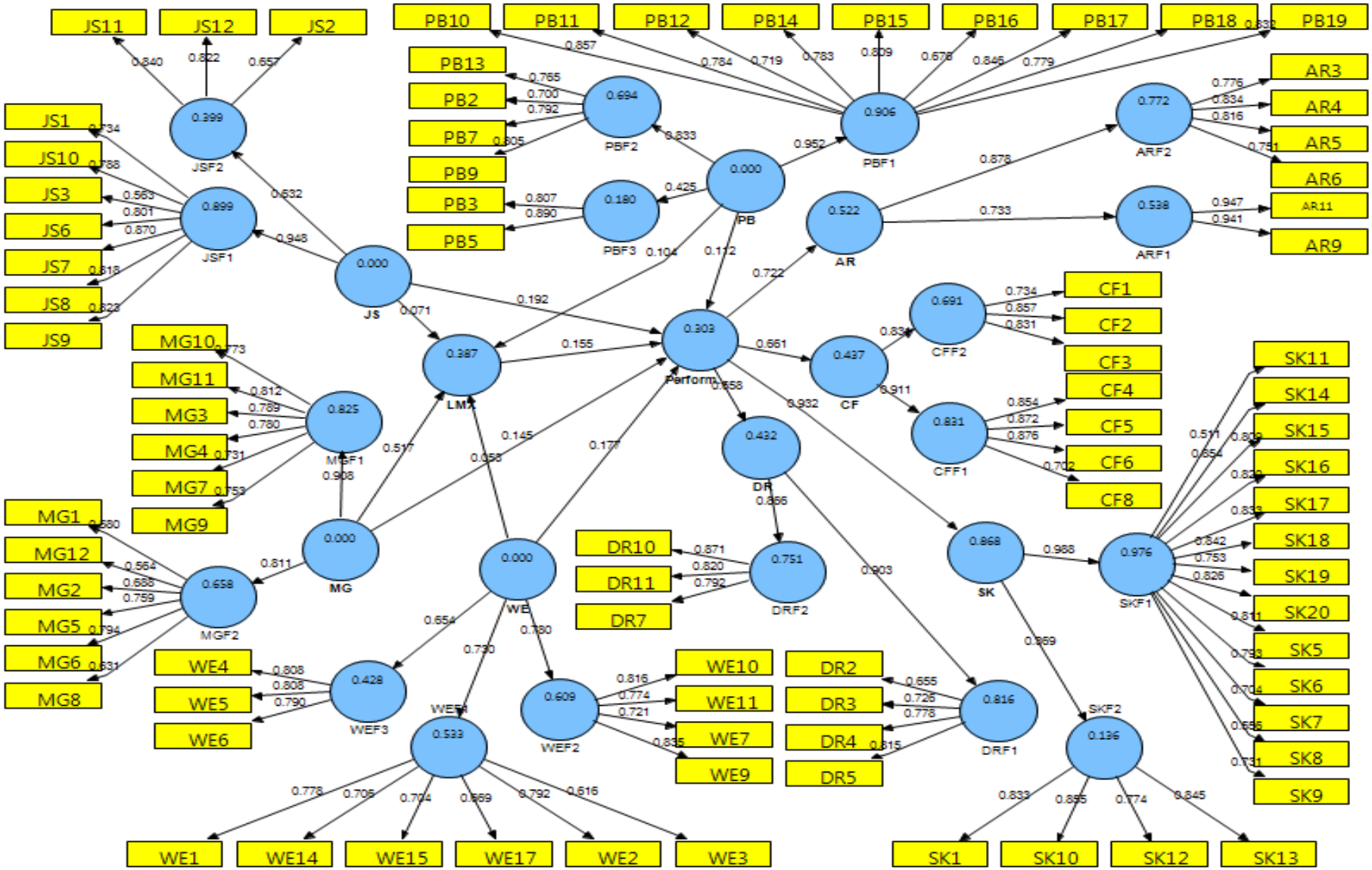

Figure 5.5 Path coefficients of Outer-model Constructs, Dimensions and Sub Dimensions with Measures Shown from PLS-SEM based on Original Dataset, N=319

5.8. Common Method Bias Assessment

Common method variance (CMV) was required to be implemented after accomplishing the confirmatory factor analysis stage. It is the "amount of spurious correlation between variables that is created by using the same method, often a survey, to measure each variable" (Craighead et al., 2011:578). As observed by Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Nandakumar et al. (2010) CMV causes systematic measurement error which would consequently bias the estimates of the true relationship among theoretical constructs. Such a problematic bias can be caused due to issues such as social desirability, which is generally viewed as the tendency of an individual to present him/her self in a favourable light, regardless of their true feelings about an issue or topic; consistency motif, which refers to the tendency of respondents to try to maintain consistency in their responses to similar questions or to organize information in consistent ways (Podsakoff et al., 2003); and knowledge deficiency or lack of self-knowledge, where individuals often fail to accurately assess their cognitive states, e.g. their level of attention (Burton-Jones, 2009; Nandakumar et al., 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Four common approaches are recommended to capture sources of common method variance, i.e. Haman's single factor test, the traditional MultiTrait-MultiMethod (MTMM) technique, the modern MTMM approach by CFA and the marker-variable technique (Malhotra et al., 2006). The marker variable technique has been criticised for its neglect of some powerful causes of method biases, e.g. the bias caused by implicit theories (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Also, sources of CMV are not indicated by a marker like age and gender of participants, because these markers are basically a similar instrument format (Sharma et al., 2009). "Although researchers generally agree that CMV has the potential to affect the results of a single-method study, no consensus exists about the seriousness of such biases" (Malhotra et al., 2006:1866). Also, commonly

employed surveys are usually rated at the same point of time, which makes them likely to be susceptible to CMV (Richardson et al., 2009; Sharma et al., 2009).

5.8.1. Harman's Single-factor test of CMV

With respect to this study, common method variance was regarded as an essential theoretical issue that ought to be assessed for further confirmation of the reliability and validity of this study's outcomes. CMV was implemented on the full hypothesised model, the Inner-model, to examine the level of the CMV influence on the produced measures, employing Harman's single-factor technique. Harman's single-factor "actually does nothing to statistically control for (or partial out) method effects" (Podsakoff et al., 2003:889). Nonetheless recognized scholars e.g. Bagozzi and Yi (1990), Malhotra et al. (2006) and Pavlou et al. (2007) recommended and regarded Harman's single-factor as the most widely implemented test to assess CMV. Thus Harmans' single-factor was executed as follows: the EFA was performed on the total items of the fitted hypothesised framework, all items of interest were entered into the SPSS for EFA, i.e. 93 items were entered into one single exploratory factor model, using the principal components method and the unrotated factor solution option was chosen to determine the number of factors that are necessary to account for the variance in the items. The EFA was executed on all the 93 items within the fitted hypothesised model. The outcome revealed, first, the presence of 20 distinct factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, rather than a single factor. The 20 factors together (Cumulative) accounted for 69.502% of the total variance, which gives a strong indication that there was no CMV influence on the model. Second the first (largest) of the twenty factors, accounted for only 19.426% of the total variance explained, which was not a large percentage of the total variance. Thus, no general factor is apparent. If there was a major CMV problem, the exploratory factor analysis would have yielded the result of only one single factor or a very small number of factors based on the unrotated factor solution assumptions, which means that the CMV has an

influence on the model and vice versa. Also, if the total variance explained table produced by the EFA suggested that the majority of the variance explained by the first factor alone was more than 50% of the explained variance, then we could declare that the CMV reflected a strong influence on the model and vice versa (Malhotra et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Based on the findings revealed by the total variance explained Appendix 6 Table 6.1, we could affirm that the CMV bias did not have an influence on the obtained findings and was not a problematic issue for the hypothesised model.

5.9. Conclusion

In this chapter the screening of the collected data was explained. The missing data was dealt with by excluding 21 questionnaires from being entered into the SPSS program. Outliers were evaluated using z-scores; the findings are presented in Appendix 2 Table 2.1. Also the Mahalanobis distance method (D^2) test was implemented for outlier assessment. The outcome was less than 3% as recommended by Hair et al. (2006) for a large sample, greater than 200 cases. Thus, no case was excluded. Multicollinearity and normality were tested and the outcomes revealed that no multicollinearity problematic issue was found. With regard to data normality, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov K-S and Shapiro-Wilk S-W tests, as well as skewness and kurtosis tests, were performed. The outcomes of the data normality analyses revealed that data was non-normally distributed. Appendix 3 Table 3.1, and Appendix 4 Table 4.1 present the findings from all analyses of data normality. The demographic characteristics of the participants were then analysed and reported, and data was then ready for exploratory factor analysis via the SPSS program for all constructs of the conceptual model. This revealed nineteen reliable factors. As a subsequent or supplementary step, the Job Performance construct was then tested independently for confirmatory factor analysis via PLS-SEM to prove its convergent and discriminant validities. The outcomes of the CFA for the Job

Performance construct revealed strong convergent and discriminant validities. CFA was then implemented on the measurement or outer-model as it is known by the PLS program, which was the first step of estimating the PLS-SEM, as which was established in two steps or stages. CFA was established according to Composite and Cronbach's α reliabilities for Construct or factor reliability, Indicator reliability, Convergent validity and Discriminant validity on both the Item and Construct levels (Table 5.105). All CFA findings were proven to be highly reliable, valid and met the criteria for acceptability. Assessment of common method bias (CMV) was implemented via Harman's Single-factor test of CMV and the analysis revealed that no common method bias was found (see Appendix 6 Table 6.1). The second stage was to evaluate the structural or Inner-model analysis, the findings of testing the hypothesised model will be reported in the next chapter.

Chapter 6: Findings of Hypothesised Model

6.1 Introduction

This chapter included the second step of the PLS-SEM, where all the criteria for evaluating the structural or Inner-model were implemented e.g. the determination of coefficient (R^2), and the assessment outcomes were reported. The hypothesis testing for this study was performed, followed by the testing of the mediation effect, types and methods of mediation assessment. The Sobel test was implemented on each independent construct individually. Leader member exchange as a mediator and all other relationships of the conceptual model were theoretically supported.

6.2. Structural Model 'Inner-Model' Assessment

Having established a reliable and validated measurement model or in PLS-SEM the Outer-model, the second step or stage of evaluating the conceptual model was to examine the structural model, or in PLS-SEM, the Inner-model or path model. This is established with the series of structural equations representing the theoretical model (Chin, 2010), which provides significant findings by which the hypothesised relationships among the exogenous or independent and endogenous or dependent latent variables would be evaluated (Gotz et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2012a; Henseler et al., 2009).

The essential criteria employed for the assessment of the structural model in this study were: determination of coefficient (R^2) for endogenous variable, evaluation of path coefficient (β), effect size (f^2) and prediction relevance (q^2). These criteria were recommended to be used in assessing the inner-model by a number of scholars (e.g. Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Chin 2010; Gefen and Straub, 2005; Gotz et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2012a; Henseler et al., 2009; Tenenhaus et al., 2005). They were utilised as PLS does not support statistical evaluation of the overall Goodness of Fit (GoF) of the model, i.e. covariance-based approaches (e.g. Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted

Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI)). Therefore, the aforementioned non-parametric statistical criteria were applied to evaluate the overall model fitting. They were executed via bootstrapping techniques. The description and threshold values of the employed criteria are presented in table 6.1, followed by stepwise assessment examination of the structural model.

6.2.1. Determination of coefficient (R^2)

The determination of coefficient (R^2) indicates the percentage of variation in a dependent variable explained by an independent variable. In other words it measures the percentage of variability of the results obtained by the independent latent variable/s (Hair et al., 2006; Gotz et al., 2010; Keil et al., 2000). It represents the level of the latent construct's explained variance and therefore measures the regression function's 'goodness of fit' against the empirically obtained observed items (Vinzi et al., 2010). According to Chin (1998) the more or higher the number of the independent variables, the higher the value of R^2 and it varies accordingly. R^2 values can be classified as: 0.67 substantial, 0.33 moderate and 0.19 weak (Chin, 1998). According to Hair et al. (2011b) the acceptance level of R^2 value depends on the study's context. Therefore there is no benchmark for the acceptable value of R^2 that is extensively accepted (Hair et al., 2011b). According to Vinzi et al. (2010) R^2 can be regarded as the main criterion for assessing the inner-model. However, it is widely admitted that R^2 on its own is not enough to assess a model's fit; therefore, additional criteria were applied. Table 6.1 presents all the criteria that were applied to the structural model. As this study contains a mediator LMX and four dimensions, i.e. DR, AR, SK and CF under the dependent construct job performance, and since the function of R^2 is to explain the relationships between the endogenous latent variable/s and the exogenous latent variable/s, the values of R^2 for the LMX and the dimensions under the dependent variable ranged from SK= 0.8812≈88% which was the

highest obtained shared variance of R^2 to LMX=0.3874≈39% which was the lowest. The other three dimensions obtained respectively AR=0.538≈54%, DR= 0.4403≈44% and CF=0.4263≈43%. The structural model of this study based on the R^2 values provided a high degree of variation explained via the four dimensions aforementioned and the LMX. Therefore, and based on Chin's (1998) classifications which were mentioned earlier, the structural model of this study was regarded to have a substantial level of fit. Table 6.3 demonstrates the R^2 values of mediator LMX and all the dimensions under the dependent latent variable.

Table 6.1 Criteria of Structural or Inner-Model Assessment

Criterion	Description	Acceptable fit
R^2 of endogenous (dependent) latent variable	Is coefficient of determination which is a measure of how much variability in outcome is accounted by the exogenous (independent) observed variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012; Hair et al., 2006). It is similar to squared multiple correlation (SMC) coefficient in the covariance-based approach	Values 0.67, 0.33, 0.19 are substantial, moderate, and weak respectively (Chin 1998)
β coefficient	Is a measure of multiple correlation coefficients between exogenous and endogenous variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012). Value evaluated in terms of sign, magnitude and significance (t-test).	Value t=2.58 p<0.01, t=1.96 p<0.05, and t=1.64 p<0.10(Hair et al., 2006, p.390), and t=2.326 p<0.01 (Keil et al., 2000, p.312)
Effect size f_2	Is a measure representing the ratio of the improvement in prediction that results from the fitting model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). It is calculated by $f^2 = (R^2_{incl} - R^2_{excl})/(1- R^2_{incl})$ (Cohen, 1988)	Values 0.02,0.15, and 0.35 are weak, medium and large effect respectively (Cohen, 1988; Chin, 1998)
Prediction relevance q^2	Is an assessment of a model's capability to predict R2 through sample reuse/cross-validation (Henseler et al., 2009). It is calculated using $q^2 = (F^2_{incl} - F^2_{excl})/(1- F^2_{incl})$	Values 0.02,0.15, and 0.35 are weak, medium and large effect respectively (Chin, 1998)

Goodness of fit (GoF)	It is a criterion of global goodness of fit, which is computed through the geometric mean of the average communality and average R^2. Formula Is $GoF = \sqrt{\overline{R^2} Average * Communalities\ Average}$	Value closer to 1 is better (Tenenhaus et al., 2005)

Source: Adopted from Abbasi (2011:233)

6.2.2. Path Estimations (β)

Path coefficient estimates 'β' are also referred to as hypothetical paths/ relationships of the inner-model (Henseler et al., 2009, Gotz et al., 2010). According to Hair et al. (2011b), the path coefficient estimates criterion is based on correlation coefficients among all types of latent variables of the conceptual model. It is also known as nomological validity, i.e. hypothetical relations, in which a measure correlates positively in the theoretically predicted way with measures of different but related constructs. It is the degree to which a measure/scale behaves according to the related theoretical prediction (Bagozzi et al., 1991; Hair et al., 2006; Netemeyer et al., 2003). According to Churchill (1979) and Harrington (2008) nomological validity represents the ability of an instrument to behave as theoretically predicted in relation to other theoretically related constructs. Path coefficient β is calculated via PLS-SEM which indicate the sign (positive/negative) and the strength of the relationship between exogenous and endogenous latent constructs. The path coefficients' values reflect the degree to which the independent and dependent latent constructs are related, and the sign of the path determines whether the two variables are positively or negatively related (Hair et al., 2011b).

With respect to this study, Path coefficient estimation β was conducted to examine the significance of the path relations of the inner-model (Chin, 1998). In other words each

path relationship presented in the conceptual framework was examined though the regression coefficient β. The significance of path coefficient β is assessed based on t-test values (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2012) which were obtained using the PLS-SEM Bootstrap process, since it was considered to be the most efficient method in PLS (Chin, 1998). The PLS bootstrapping method was executed with 5000 samples' setting, which is much greater than the number of valid observations of this study and as recommended by Hair et al. (2012a). The t-test value for each single coefficient is a critical criterion to evaluate the hypothesised relationship among the latent constructs of the structural model (Gotz et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2012a). The significance of the t-test values was evaluated in accordance with the recommended values of t= 2.326 at ***p<0.01, t= 1.96 at **p<0.05 and t= 1.64 at *p<0.10 (Hair et al., 2006:390; Keil et al., 2000:312). Based on the t-value findings obtained via the bootstrap method, the highest significant relationship was between Management toward Leader Member Exchange with β=0.517≈52% and t-value=10.795, followed by Job security toward Performance with β=0.192 ≈20% and t-value=3.608. Pay and benefits toward LMX was the lowest but significant with β= 0.104≈10% and t-value 1.978. Table 6.4 presents all paths' coefficients and t-values of all the hypothetical relationships between the constructs. Paths were all found to be positively correlated as expected by this study. It also indicates that out of nine path relations representing nine hypotheses, seven of them were statistically significant at ***p<0.01, and at **p<0.05, and two were insignificant. PLS-SEM graphical representations of all paths' coefficients and t-values are also presented Figures 6.1 and 6.2.

6.2.3. Effect Size 'f^2'

Effect size is a method to measure the effectiveness of a particular intervention. The f^2 effect size measures the change in the R^2 value when a specified exogenous construct is omitted from the model. It is used to evaluate whether the omitted predictor construct

has a substantive impact on the R^2 values of the endogenous construct(s). The effect size or total effect criterion was implemented in this study as an additional assessment of constructs' validity and model fit. It requires keeping the total effect, i.e. direct and indirect significant paths of the structural model, relatively constant, so that reasonable explanations for the proposed hypotheses may be justified (Henseler et al., 2009; Vinzi et al., 2010). It is worth mentioning that the degree of freedom is not required for effect size calculation, as the values of the f^2 are only produced based on the population of the examined data and not on the sample size of the study. As declared by Gotz et al. (2010) the effect size function f^2 is similar to the traditional partial F-test. It helps to examine the increase in R^2 relative to the proportion of variance of the dependent variable that remains unexplained.

The f^2 effect size was conducted based on the equation shown below (Cohen, 1988). In the formula R^2 included and R^2 excluded are the R^2 values of the endogenous latent variable when a selected exogenous latent variable is included or excluded from the model. The change in the R^2 values is calculated by estimating the PLS path model twice. It is estimated the first time with the exogenous latent variable included (yielding R^2included) and the second time with the exogenous latent variable excluded (yielding R^2excluded).

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2 included - R^2 excluded}{1 - R^2 included}$$

Within the context of this study, the computing of the effect size of the total paths starting from the independent latent variable 'Motivation' via the mediator LMX and ending at the dependent latent variable 'Job performance'. According to Cohen's (1988) suggestion the effect size criteria can be evaluated as follows: 0.02 weak, 0.15 moderate and 0.35 large. Graphical representation of all paths' coefficients of the structural model

is presented in figure 6.1. In light of the above, the findings of the total effect were as follows; Pay and benefits towards LMX towards Performance was f^2= 0. 0.0114 (weak), Job security towards LMX towards Performance f^2=0.0344 (weak), Management towards LMX towards Performance f^2=0.0186 (weak), Work environment towards LMX towards Performance f^2=0.0825 (weak). LMX toward Performance f^2=0.0258 (weak). This indicates that all the estimated f^2 findings were weak but significant at **p<0.05. Table 6.2 presents all outcomes of the Effect size f^2.

6.2.4. Prediction relevance

Prediction relevance or predictive capability q^2 is another statistical assessment of the structural model. According to Henseler et al. (2009) and Vinzi et al. (2010) Q^2 is meant to evaluate the ability of a model to indicate R^2 via Cross-Validation (CV). Q^2 is computed using the Stone-Geisser (Stone, 1974; Geisser, 1974) criterion, which suggests that a model should be able to provide a prediction of the dependent variable's measuring items. For SEM models, Q^2 values larger than zero for a specific reflective endogenous latent variable indicate the path model's predictive relevance for a particular construct. Q^2 values of zero or below indicate a lack of predictive relevance. As a relative measure of predictive relevance, benchmark values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 indicate that an exogenous construct has respectively a small, medium, or large predictive relevance for a selected endogenous construct (Chin, 1998; Vinzi et al., 2010).

In PLS, there are two kinds of predictive relevancy/validity estimations of Q^2 that can be produced via the blindfolding function, i.e. CV-communality (H^2) and CV-redundancy (F^2). CV-redundancy is like R^2 only computed for the path model to predict the endogenous or dependent variable (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). In this study, this statistic is provided as a result of a blindfolding algorithm (Chin 1998) where portions of the data for a particular construct block (i.e., indicators by cases for a specific construct) are omitted and cross-validated using the estimates obtained from the remaining data points.

The same procedure that was followed for the calculation of f^2 was applied to q^2 but instead of entering the R^2 (excluded and included), blindfolding was used to get the Q^2 values for the full model (included) and the reduced (construct/path deleted) model (excluded). Table 6.2 shows that all obtained findings of q^2 were in the small range. Work environment to Performance was the highest= 0.0223 followed by Management to Performance = 0.0214 then Pay and benefits to Performance = 0.0206. The other two were then a bit lower, with LMX to Performance= 0.0201 and Job security to Performance = 0.0194≈0.02. These findings indicate an acceptable prediction relevance except for Job security to Performance which was somewhat lower than the benchmark of 0.02 (small).

$$q^2 = \frac{Q^2 included - Q^2 excluded}{1 - Q^2 included}$$

Table 6.2 f^2 and Q^2 Values PLS-SEM Inner-model Assessment

Construct	f^2	Q^2
PB--PR	0.01	0.02
JS--PR	0.03	0.02
MG--PR	0.02	0.02
WE--PR	0.08	0.02
LMX--PR	0.02	0.02

6.2.5. Goodness-of-fit index (GoF)

The Goodness-of-fit was the last criterion remaining to evaluate the overall fit of the model after examining the effect size of path estimation. It measures the geometric mean of the average communality of the measurement or outer-model and the average of R^2, which is the variance of the dependent variable explained, in other words the explained variance based on dependent variable for a dependent latent variable of a model (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). As mentioned earlier, according to Chin (2010) and Tenenhaus et al. (2005) unlike covariance based structural equation model methods (e.g. LISREL,

AMOS), PLS cannot optimise global scalar function (e.g. chi-square X^2 in CBSEM) and, consequently, it cannot calculate the index which measures the overall validity/fitting of the model globally (Chin, 2010; Tenenhaus et al., 2005). It mainly reduces the standard errors or increases the R^2 values of the dependent latent variables (Hair et al., 2011b).

As mentioned previously, there is no overall fit index in PLS Path Modeling. To overcome this obstacle, a global criterion of goodness-of-fit (GoF) index, which is the geometric mean of the average communality and the average of R^2 as suggested by Tenenhaus et al. (2004) and Tenenhaus et al. (2005) was employed to evaluate the GoF criterion for the model. According to Henseler et al. (2009) the GoF should yield a result between 0 and 1, where the higher value represents a better evaluation of the model. The following benchmarks were suggested by Wetzels et al. (2009) for the GoF criterion: GoF $\geq$ 0.1 regarded as low, GoF $\geq$ 0.25 regarded as moderate, and GoF $\geq$ 0.36 regarded as high. Table 6.3 displays the communalities of all the four independent constructs, LMX and the four dimensions of the dependent construct. They range from CF= 0.7607 followed by MG=0.7411, which obtained the highest communality to LMX= 0.5207, which was the lowest. Other communality values ranged in between. R^2 average for the dependent construct's dimensions multiplied by the communality average were employed to compute the Goodness of Fit value for the structural model, using the following formula:

$$GoF = \sqrt{\overline{R^2 Average} * \overline{Communalities\ Average}}$$

The outcome revealed that the goodness of fit of the present study's model was in the high range with a value of 0.59=59% as shown in Table 6.3. Therefore the model of this study was accepted at high rank (Chin, 1998; Gotz et al., 2010; Wetzels et al., 2009).

To sum up, the fit of the obtained measurements and the model was assessed by employing the criteria most widely used with PLS-SEM, which are non-parametric statistical tests. Thus the model fit was obtained based on the values of determination of coefficient (R^2) estimation of path coefficient (β), effect size (f^2), predication relevance ($q2$) and goodness of fit (Gof) (Hair et al., 2012a; Sarstedt et al., 2011; Chin, 2010). However, it is important to point out that the determination of coefficient 'R^2', path coefficient estimates 'β', effect size 'f^2' and Goodness of fit 'GoF' are the main and most commonly used and accepted criteria for structural model assessment (Chin, 1998; Gotz et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2011b; Wetzels et al., 2009). By implementing the aforementioned criteria for the analysis of the conceptual model, a reliable, valid, generaliseable critical understanding of the relationship between motivation, LMX and performance was determined.

Table 6.3 R^2, Communality and GoF Values PLS-SEM Inner-model Assessment

I/V& D/V latent Variables	**R^2**	**Communalities**
PB	0.00	0.59
JS	0.00	0.64
MG	0.00	0.74
WE	0.00	0.52
LMX	0.38	0.52
DR	0.44	0.78
AR	0.53	0.65
SK	0.88	0.65
CF	0.42	0.76
Average	0.53	0.65
GoF	0.59 = 59%	

Note: Pay and Benefits 'PB', Performance 'PR', Job Security 'JS', Management 'MG', Work Environment 'WE', Leader Member Exchange 'LMX', Duties and Responsibilities 'DR', Accomplishments and Results 'AR', Skills and Knowledge 'SK', Communication and Feedback 'CF', N=319, $GoF = \sqrt{\overline{R^2}Average * Communalities\ Average}$

6.3. Hypothesis Testing

This section presents the findings from the analysis of the hypothesised relationships between the independent and dependent latent variables, which were assessed based on the findings obtained from the original dataset via PLS-SEM. The Smart PLS 2.0 M3 was employed to analyses the structural or Inner-model. Table 6.4, Figure 6.1 and Figure 6.2 present all outcomes of the structural model's data analysis, e.g. path coefficient values, T-test values, and decisions made about whether the hypothesised relationships between the constructs are significant or insignificant.

Hypotheses

H1: Pay and benefits and job performance are positively related.
H2: Pay and benefits and LMX are positively related.
H3: Job security and job performance are positively related.
H4: Job security and LMX are positively related.
H5: Management and job performance are positively related.
H6: Management and LMX are positively related.
H7: Work environment and job performance are positively related.
H8: Work environment and LMX are positively related.
H9: LMX and job performance are positively related.
H10: LMX will mediate the relationship between motivation and job performance.

As shown in Table 6.4, the proposed relationship between Pay and benefits and Job performance *H1*, indicated as PB toward PR, was determined to be statistically significant, as PB has a positive influential relationship with PR, where the statistical outcome was T-value 2.197 with **p<0.05. Thus based on the obtained findings the hypothesised influence of Pay and benefits on Job performance was accepted and the decision was supported. Next the proposed relationship between Pay and benefits and leader member exchange *H2*, denoted as PB toward LMX, was determined to be

statistically significant, as PB has a positive influential relationship with LMX, where the statistical outcome was T-value 1.978 with **p<0.05. Based on the original dataset the hypothesised influence of pay and benefits on leader member exchange was accepted.

H3 reflects the proposed relationship between Job security and Job performance, represented as JS toward PR, which was determined to be statistically significant, as JS has a positive influential relationship with PR, where the statistical outcome was T-value 3.608 with ***p<0.001. Based on the obtained findings, the hypothesised influence of Job security on Job performance was accepted and the decision was supported. *H4* reflects the proposed hypothesis between Job security and Leader Member Exchange, indicated as JS toward LMX, which was determined to be statistically insignificant, as JS has a positive relationship with LMX, but it was not influential, and the statistical result was T-value 1.444, not significant. Based on the obtained findings the hypothesised influence of Job security on Leader Member Exchange was rejected and the decision was not supported.

H5, which was the proposed hypothesis between Management and Job performance, denoted as MG toward PR, was determined to be statistically significant, as MG has a positive influential relationship with PR, where the statistical outcome was T-value 2.517 with ***p<0.001. Based on the acquired findings, the hypothesised influence of Management on Job performance was accepted. The proposed relationship between Management and Leader Member Exchange *H6,* abbreviated as MG toward LMX, was determined to be statistically significant, as MG has a positive influential relationship with LMX, where the statistical outcome was T-value 10.795 with ***p<0.001. Based on the acquired results, the hypothesised influence of Management on Leader Member Exchange was accepted.

The proposed relationship between Work environment and Job performance *H7*, indicated as WE toward PR, was determined to be statistically significant, as WE has a positive influential relationship with PR, where the statistical finding was T-value 2.327 with **p<0.05. Based on the obtained outcome, the hypothesised influence of Work environment on Job performance was accepted. *H8* reflect the proposed hypothesis between Work environment and Leader Member Exchange, indicated as WE toward LMX, which was determined to be statistically insignificant, as WE has a positive relationship with LMX, but it was not influential, and was statistically insignificant, as the result of T-value was 1.159. Based on the obtained findings, the hypothesised influence of Work environment on Leader Member Exchange was rejected.

The proposed relationship between Leader Member Exchange and Job performance *H9*, indicated as LMX toward PR, was determined to be statistically significant, as LMX has a positive influential relationship with PR, where the statistical finding was T-value 3.192 with ***p<0.001. Based on the obtained outcome, the hypothesised influence of Leader Member Exchange on Job performance was accepted. It should be that the path coefficients among the independent and dependent latent variables were regarded as significant for the T-values of these links with reference to, exceeding t= 2.326 at ***p<0.001, t= 1.96 at **p<0.05 and t= 1.64 at *p<0.10 (Hair et al., 2006:390; Gotz et al., 2010; Keil et al., 2000:312).

Table 6.4 Path Coefficients and Testing of Hypothesised Relationships of Conceptual Model

Hypothesis	Relationship/Direction	Path coefficients	T-Value	Significance	Decision
H1	PB→PR	0.11	2.19	**p<0.05	Supported
H2	PB→LMX	0.10	1.97	**p<0.05)	Supported
H3	JS→PR	0.19	3.61	***p<0.001	Supported
H4	JS→LMX	0.07	1.44	NS (insignificant)	Not supported
H5	MG→PR	0.15	2.51	***p<0.001	Supported
H6	MG→LMX	0.51	10.79	***p<0.001	Supported
H7	WE→PR	0.17	2.32	**p<0.05	Supported
H8	WE→LMX	0.05	1.15	NS (not significant)	Not supported
H9	LMX→PR	0.15	3.19	***p<0.001	Supported

Note: Pay and Benefits 'PB', Performance 'PR', Job Security 'JS', Management 'MG', Work Environment 'WE', Leader Member Exchange 'LMX', N=319.

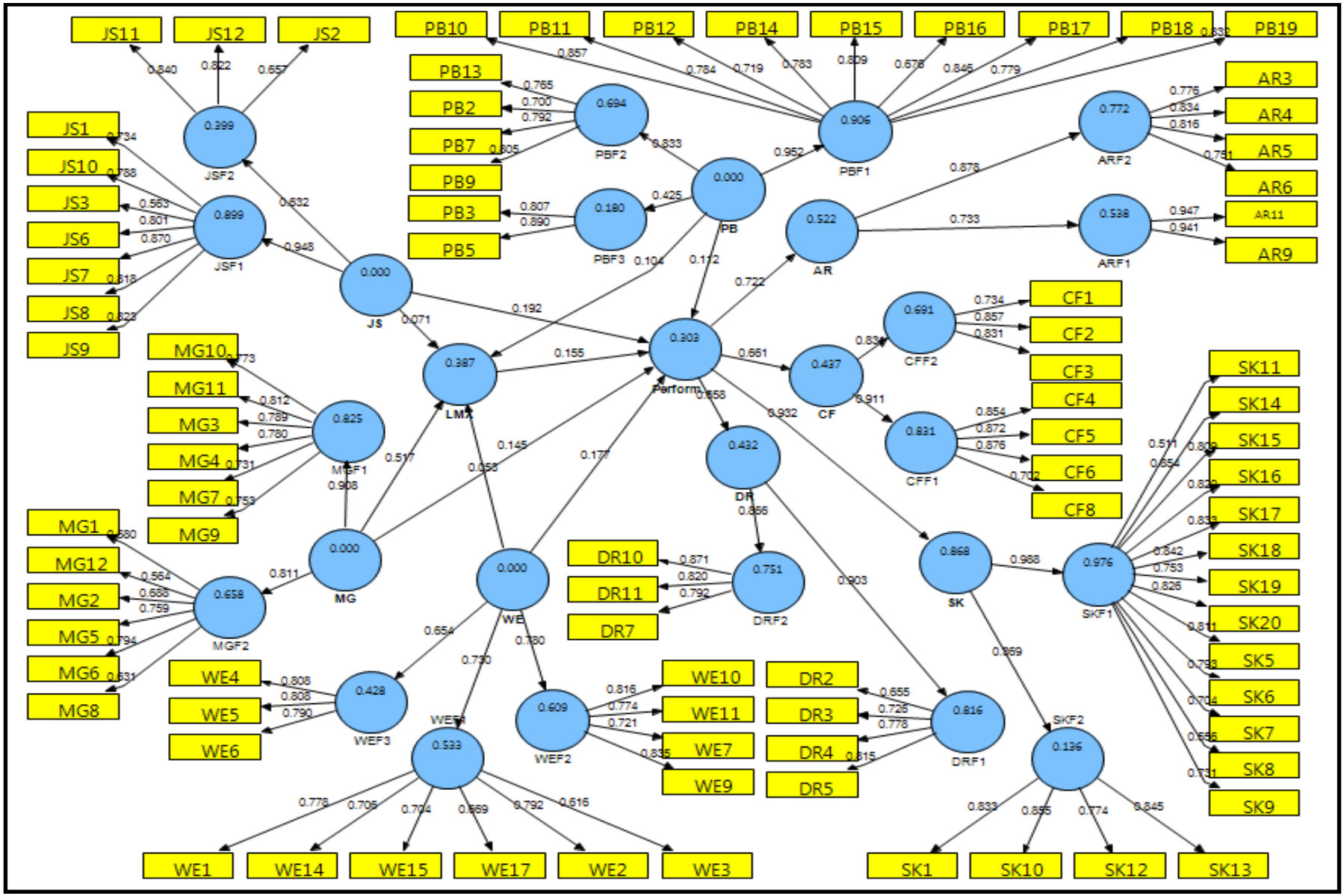

Figure 6.1 Illustration of Path Coefficient values based on the Conceptual Model.

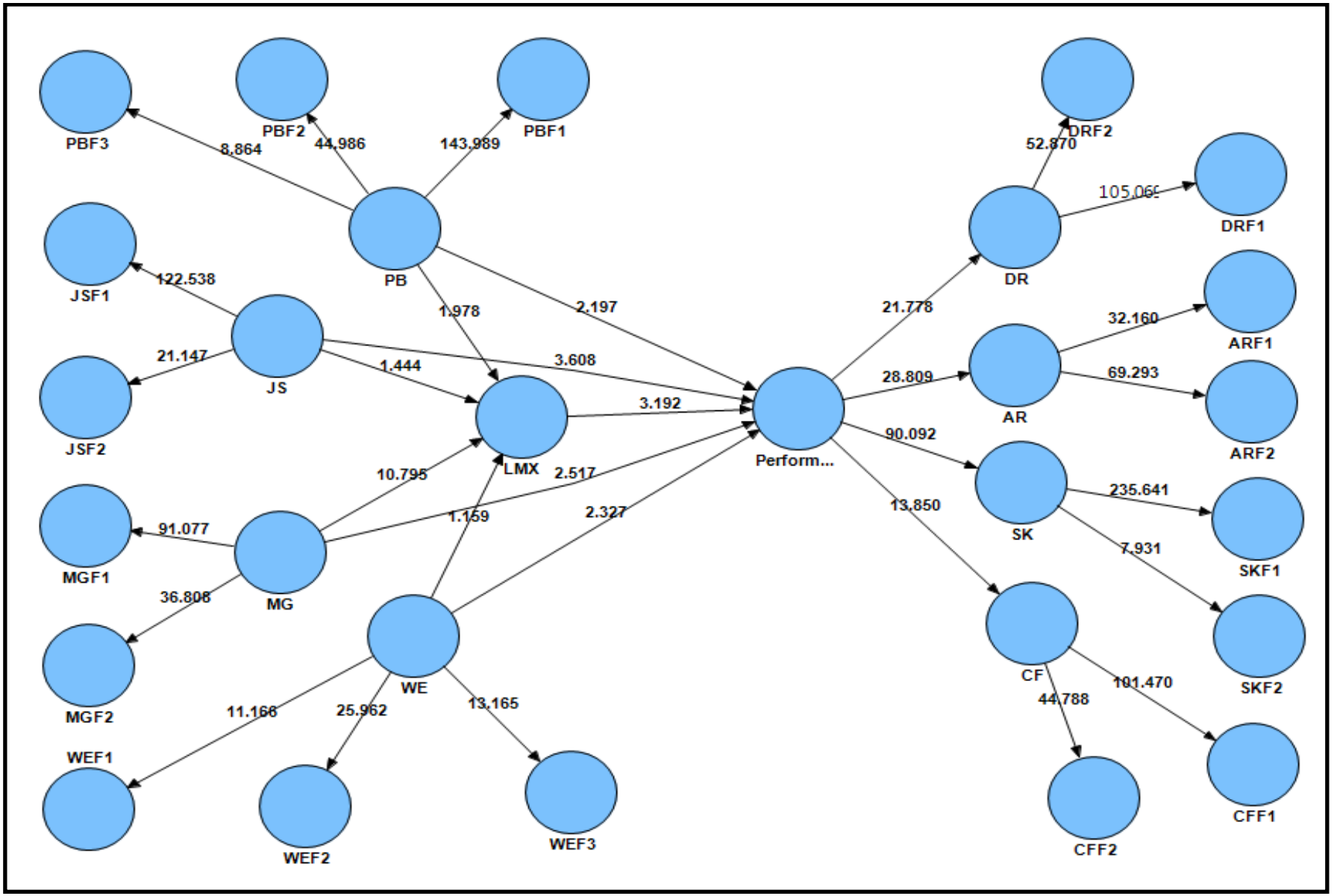

Figure 6.2 Illustration of t-test values of the Hypothesised Relationships of Conceptual Model.

6.4. Mediation Effects

Having accomplished the assessment of the hypothesised direct and indirect relationship paths, between the exogenous latent variable Motivation, the mediator LMX and the endogenous latent variable Job performance of the structural or Inner-Model, Figure 3.2, it was a logical and advisable step to assess the mediating influence of the hypothesised indirect relationship paths (Hayes, 2013), between the independent constructs representing Motivation, i.e. Pay and benefits, Job security, Management and Work environment, and the dependent construct Job performance through the mediator LMX, Figure 6.3. Mediation refers to the transmission of the influence of an exogenous latent variable on an endogenous latent variable through one or more other variables. These variables are called mediator or intervening variables (Hayes, 2013). In the language or terminology of path analysis, mediation corresponds to an indirect effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable that passes via one or more mediator variables (Hayes, 2013).

Mediation can be classified into full (or complete), or partial mediation effect. In the former, the entire effect of an exogenous latent variable on an endogenous latent variable is transmitted through one or more mediator variables, which will indicate that the independent latent variable has no direct effect on the dependent latent variable except through the mediator; rather its total effect is indirect (Cohen et al., 2003). Alternatively, with a partial mediation effect, the exogenous latent variable has both direct and indirect effects on the endogenous latent variable. The direct influence is not mediated, whereas the indirect effect is transmitted through one or more mediator variables (Cohen et al., 2003).

Before starting evaluation of the mediation effect, that is, to ensure the existence of a mediated relation, a direct hypothesised relationship must be established between the exogenous ‘A’ and endogenous ‘C’ latent variables, also between the exogenous latent variable ‘A’ and the mediator variable ‘B’, and between the mediator ‘B’ and the endogenous ‘C’ variables. These relations have to be present in the conceptual model. Also, such hypothesised relationships between the independent, mediator and dependent variables have to be theoretically supported by literature (Bontis et al., 2007).

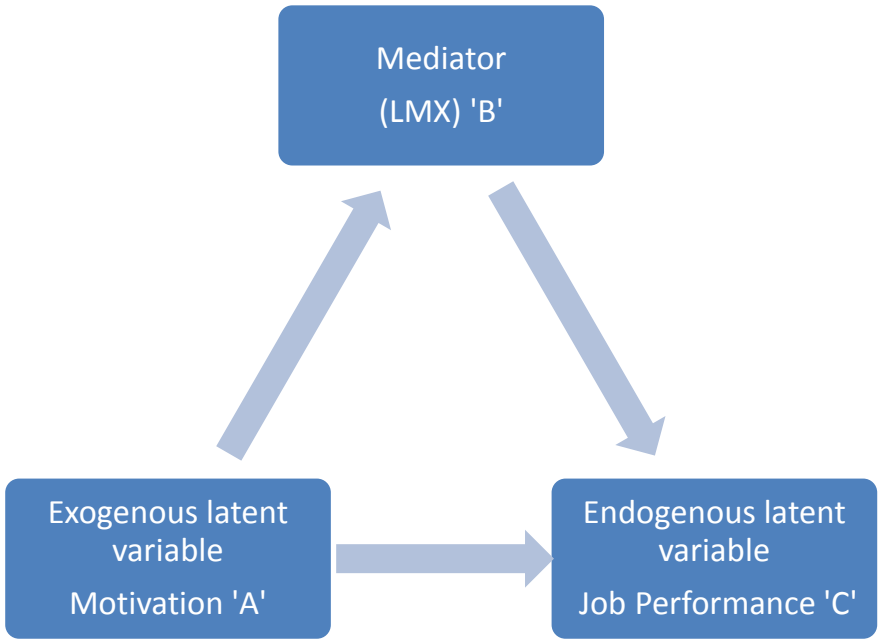

Figure 6.3 Mediation components

6.4.1 Mediation methods

Having established the aforementioned requirements, two formal and informal methods can be employed to assess such a mediation effect. In the current study both methods were implemented. The informal method is widely employed (Sosik et al., 2009). This method was explained by Cohen et al. (2003) who pointed out that a full mediation relationship or effect occurs when the paths from the independent variable ‘A’ to the dependent variable ‘B’ the mediator and from ‘B’ to the dependent variable at the end of

the hypothesised relationship ‘C’ are significant, but the path from ‘A’ to ‘C’, which is the direct link between the exogenous and endogenous latent variables, is insignificant. In other words, when the mediator is not present there will be no relationship, or a very poor and insignificant relation. A partially mediated relationship is observed when the paths from the independent variable ‘A’ to the dependent variable ‘B’ the mediator and from ‘B’ to the dependent variable at the end of the hypothesised relationship ‘C’ are significant, but the path from ‘A’ to ‘C’, which is the direct path in the absence of the mediator, is less significant, meaning not as high or strong as when the mediator was present. According to Bontis et al. (2007:1436) “Mediation exists if the coefficient of the direct path between the independent variable and the dependent variable is reduced when the indirect path via the mediator is introduced into the model”.

The Sobel test is regarded as the most employed formal method for mediation effect assessment (Sosik et al., 2009). It enables researchers to indicate the significance of the mediation and the confidence level. The following formula is used for mediation computing.

$$Z = \frac{ab}{\sqrt{(b^2SE_a^2) + (a^2SE_b^2)}}$$

Where A is the path coefficient for the link between the independent variable and the mediator, B is the path between the mediator and the dependent variable C, SE_a is the standard error of the path between A and B, and SE_b is the standard error of the path between B and C (Sobel, 1982; Soper, 2013). In the present study t= 1.96 at **p<0.05 was regarded as significant with a 95% level of confidence.

However The Sobel test has its drawback as it takes account of the Standard Error of the path coefficient (Pearl, 2011). Baron and Kenny (1986) is another method of testing mediation effect, it tests the mediation effect in terms of statistical significance but it is

not accurate as trivially small coefficients can be statistically significant with large sample sizes and very large coefficients can be insignificant with small sample sizes (Pearl, 2011). However an increasingly popular method of testing the indirect effect is bootstrapping. It is a non-parametric method based on resampling with replacement which is done many times, e.g., 5000 times. From each of these samples the indirect effect is computed and a sampling distribution can be empirically generated (Bollen and Stine, 1990; Shrout and Bolger, 2002). Bootstrapping was executed to test the mediation effect in this study along with the Sobel test to ensure accurate findings of the mediation effect are reported.

6.5. Assessments of Mediation Effect for Constructs

According to the techniques explained earlier, Smart PLS 2.0 M3 was employed for the analysis of the full hypothesised model using the original dataset. The Path coefficient (βs), beta, t-test and Standard Errors (SE) values were obtained for each individual path coefficient 'relationship' to be able to indicate the type of mediation and the differences between the direct and indirect paths' effects. Consequently, the PLS Algorithm function was repeatedly applied to evaluate the mediation effect of each individual hypothesised relationship and its independent construct in order to obtain the data needed to carry out the Sobel test via the website http://www.danielsoper.com/statcalc.

H10 reflects the mediation effect of LMX between the independent variable motivation represented be four constructs i.e. PB, JS, MG and WE and the dependent variable job performance.

The mediation effect assessment was carried out in two steps: First, the PLS algorithm function was implemented on each independent construct i.e. PB, JS, MG and WE individually, both with and without the mediator. This step provided the results of the

path coefficients for the direct link between the independent and dependent constructs with and without the mediator. Second, the PLS bootstrapping function was performed in order to obtain the beta and SE findings for the paths from 'A' to 'B' and from 'B' to 'C' (Sobel, 1982; Soper, 2013). Table 6.5 presents the findings of the mediation effect assessment. Details of the test conducted for each independent construct will be reported next.

6.5.1. Mediation Effect Assessment of the PB Construct

The results of assessment of the mediation effect of the independent construct PB on the dependent construct PR via the mediator LMX were as follows: first using PLS algorithm function was performed, the standardised β for the direct effect between Pay and benefits toward Job performance was 0.368 and for the same path result when the LMX was introduced as mediator β was 0.259. The Sobel test (z) result based on the PLS bootstrapping findings of Pay and benefits towards LMX beta was 0.385 with SE was 0.052. The result of LMX towards Job performance beta was 0.291 with SE 0.016. Thus, when the Sobel test was conducted, the outcomes were Z= 4.909 with two-tailed probability of 0.000. According to the Z findings, the LMX construct reflected a strong mediation effect between the Pay and benefits construct and Job performance because Z > 1.96 with two-tailed probability at the < 0.05 significant level. As the t-test value obtained from direct path between PB and PR was still significant with a value of 5.206, which is > 1.96, such a mediation effect can be acknowledged as direct and indirect mediation effect. Table 6.5, Figures 6.4 and 6.5 present β with and without the mediator LMX included, beta of the paths, Sobel test (z) result and the t-test findings obtained from PLS bootstrapping and two-tailed probability.

Table 6.5 Mediation Effect Assessment' Outcomes

	beta	Standard Error (STERR)	Sobel test statistic (z)	Two-tailed probability	β With Mediator	βWithout Mediator
PB➔ LMX	0.38	0.05	4.90	0.00	0.25	0.36
LMX➔PR	0.29	0.01				
JS ➔ LMX	0.31	0.05	4.40	0.00	0.32	0.41
LMX ➔	0.29	0.04				
MG➔	0.60	0.03	4.30	0.00	0.26	0.40
LMX➔PR	0.23	0.05				
WE➔LMX	0.27	0.06	3.38	0.00	0.27	0.35
LMX➔PR	0.31	0.04				

N=319

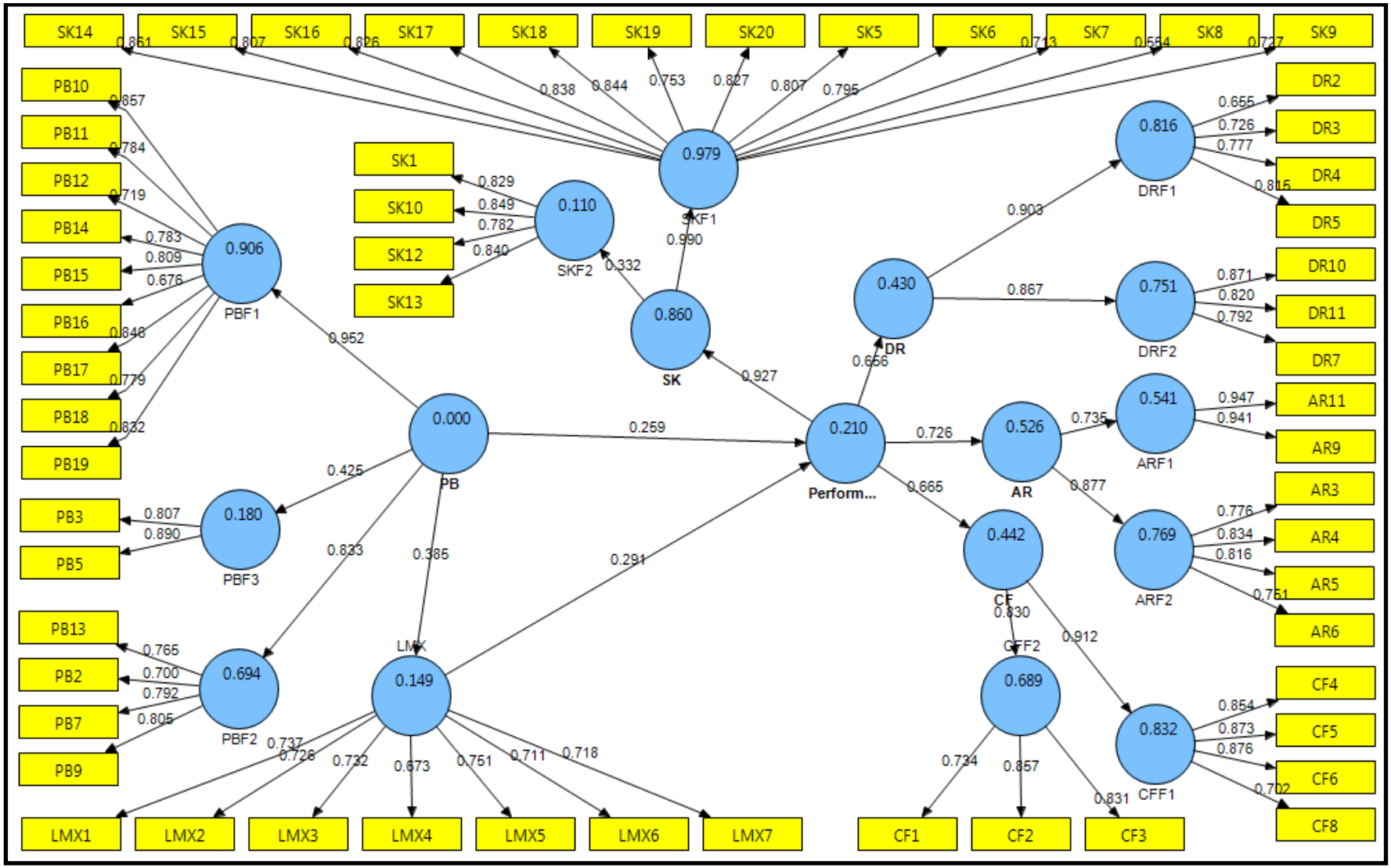

Figure 6.4 An Illustration of PLS Algorithm of PB Mediation Model

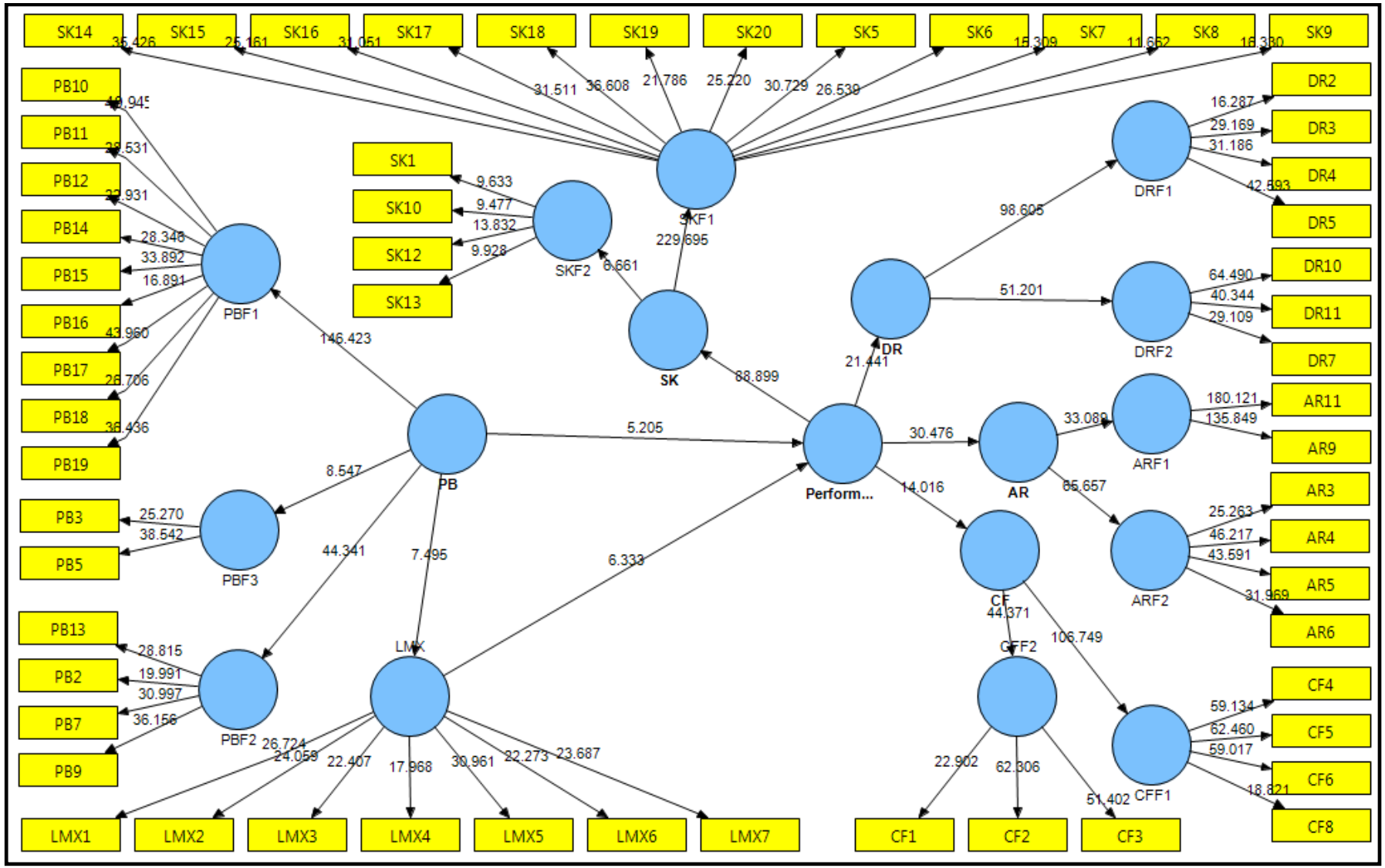

Figure 6.5 An Illustration of PLS Bootstrapping of PB Mediation Model.

6.5.2. Mediation Effect Assessment of the JS Construct

The findings of the mediation effect of the independent construct JS on the dependent construct PR via the mediator LMX were as follows. Starting with the results obtained from implementing the PLS algorithm function, the findings were, β for the direct effect between job security construct toward job performance was 0.412, and for the same path when the LMX was introduced as mediator β was 0.325. The Sobel test (z) result based on the PLS bootstrapping results of job security towards LMX beta was 0.311 with SE 0.053. For LMX towards Job performance, beta was 0.291 with SE 0.043. Thus, when the Sobel test was conducted the outcomes were Z= 4.406 with two-tailed probability of 0.000. According to the z findings, the LMX construct reflected a strong mediation effect between the Job security construct and Job performance as Z>1.96 with two-tailed probability at a <0.05 significant level. As the t-test value obtained from the direct path between JS and PR was still significant with a value of 7.244, which is > 1.96, such a mediation effect can be acknowledged as direct and indirect mediation effect. Table 6.5 and Figures 6.4 and 6.5 present β with and without the mediator LMX included, beta of the paths, Sobel test (z) and two-tailed probability results, and the t-test findings obtained from PLS bootstrapping.

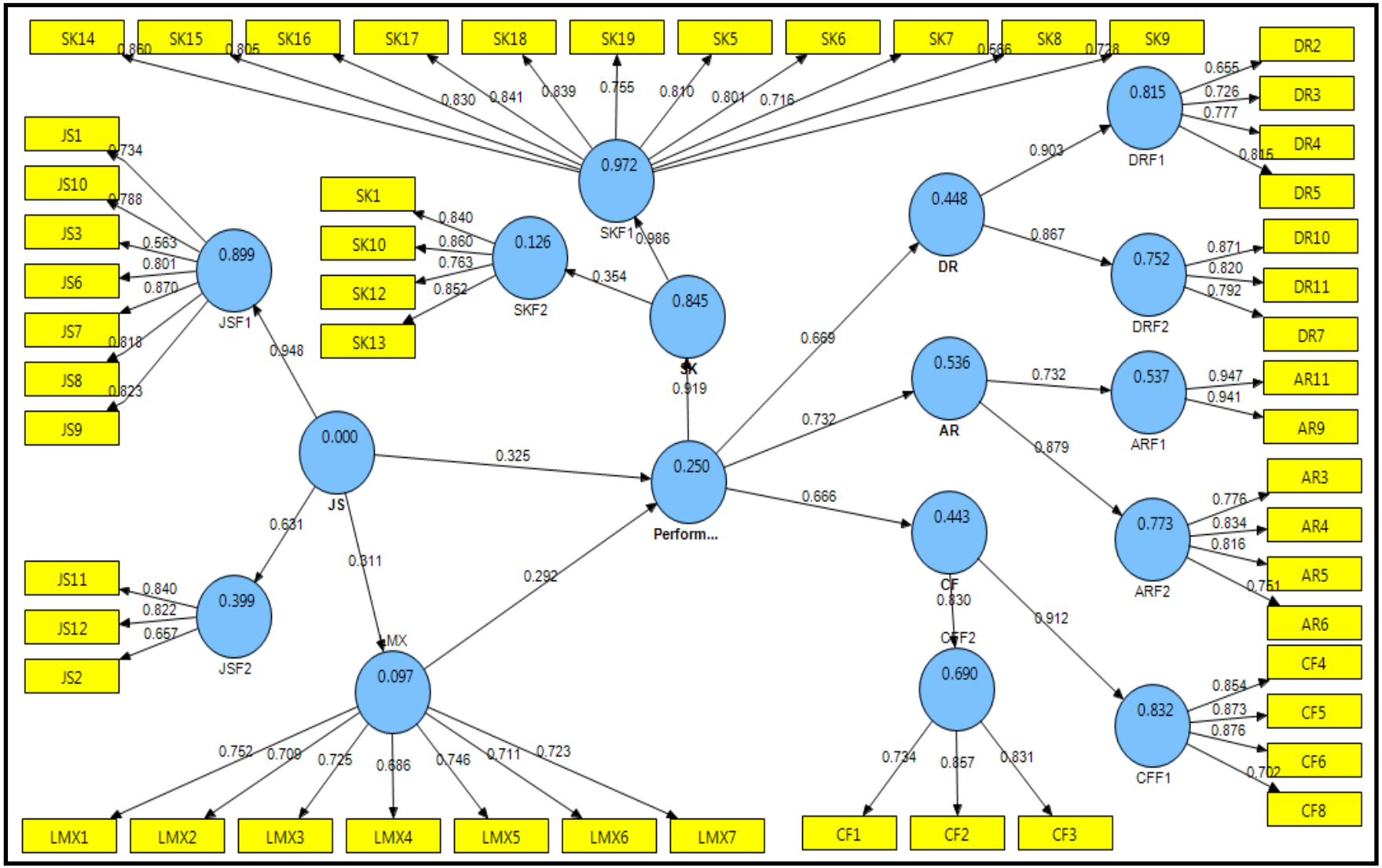

Figure 6.6 An Illustration of PLS Algorithm of JS Mediation Model

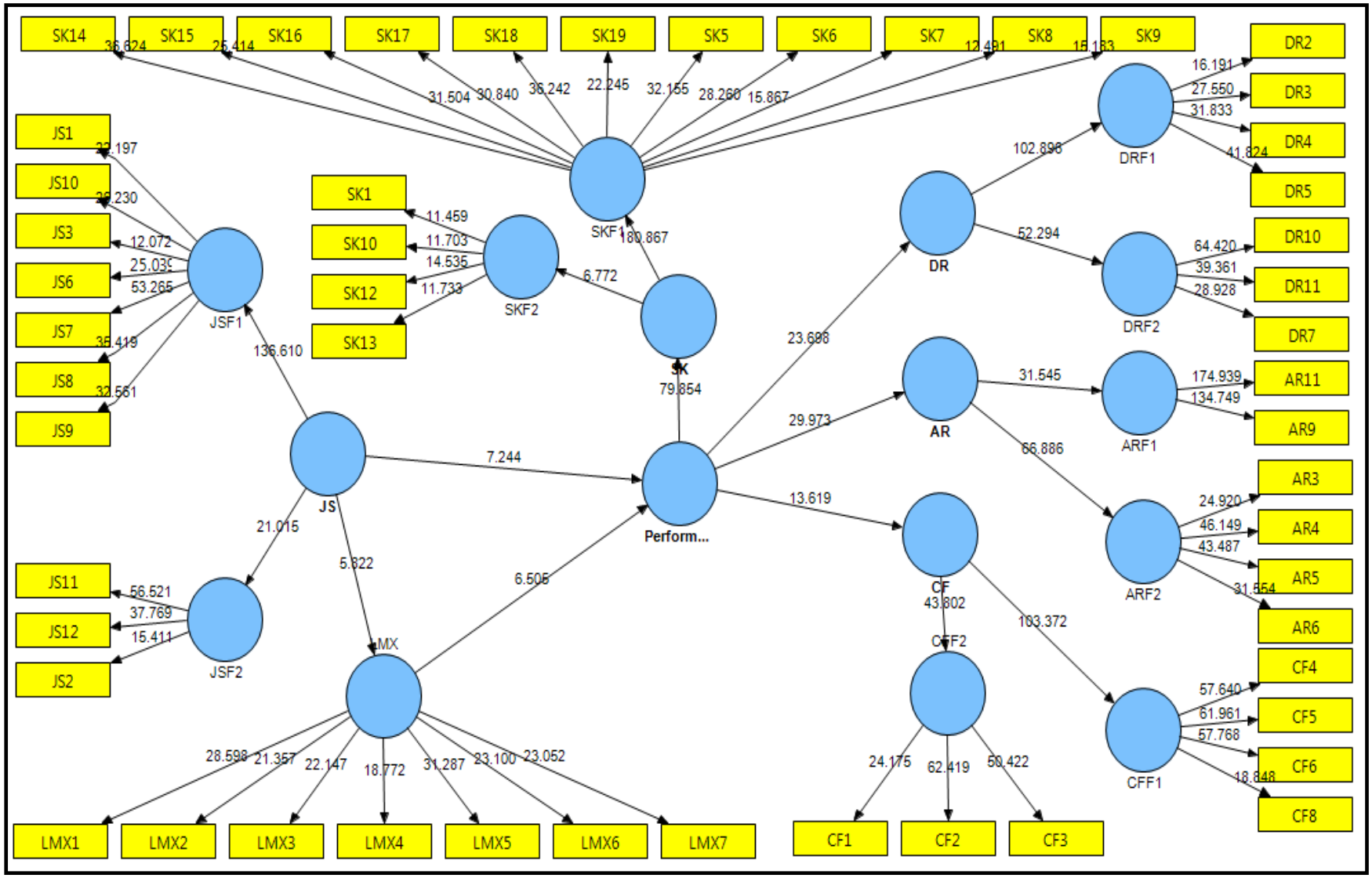

Figure 6.7 An Illustration of PLS Bootstrapping of JS Mediation Model

6.5.3. Mediation Effect Assessment of the MG Construct

The results of the mediation effect assessment of the independent construct Management on the dependent construct PR via the mediator LMX were as follows. First the PLS algorithm function was performed, and the findings obtained were, β for the direct effect from Management toward Job performance was 0.406, and the same path's β when the LMX was introduced as mediator was 0.267. The Sobel test (z) result based on the PLS bootstrapping findings of Management towards LMX beta was 0.603 with SE 0.036. The result of LMX towards Job performance beta was 0.230 with SE 0.051. Therefore when the Sobel test was conducted the outcomes were Z= 4.300 with two-tailed probability of 0.000. According to the Z findings, the LMX construct showed a moderate mediation effect between the Management construct and Job performance because Z > 1.96 with two-tailed probability at a < 0.05 significant level. Since the t-test value obtained from the direct path between MG and PR was still significant with a value of 4.945, which is > 1.96, such a mediation effect can be acknowledged as direct and indirect mediation effect. Table 6.5, Figures 6.4 and 6.5 present β with and without the mediator LMX included, beta of the paths, Sobel test (z), two-tailed probability results, and the t-test findings obtained from PLS bootstrapping.

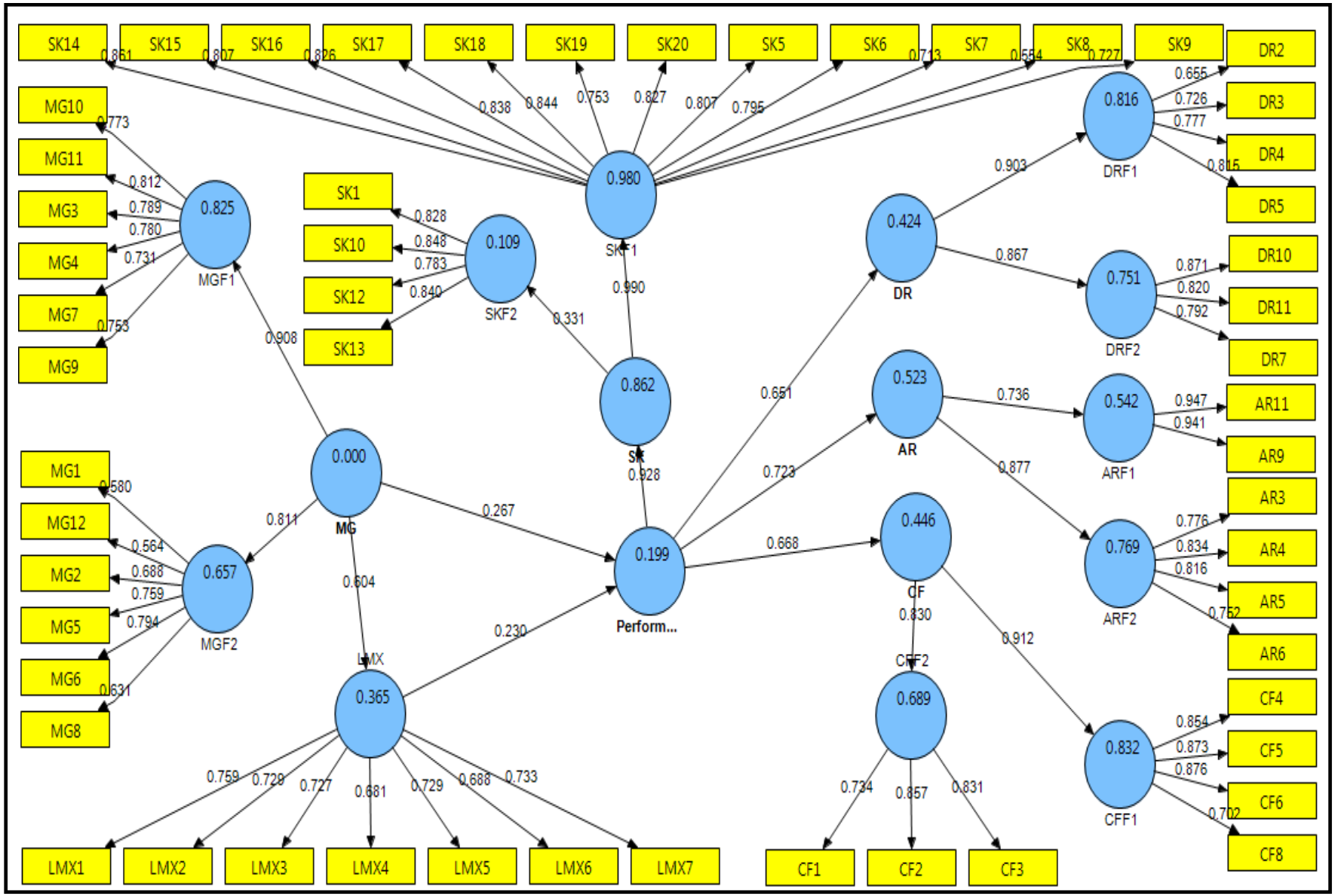

Figure 6.8 An Illustration of PLS Algorithm of MG Mediation Model.

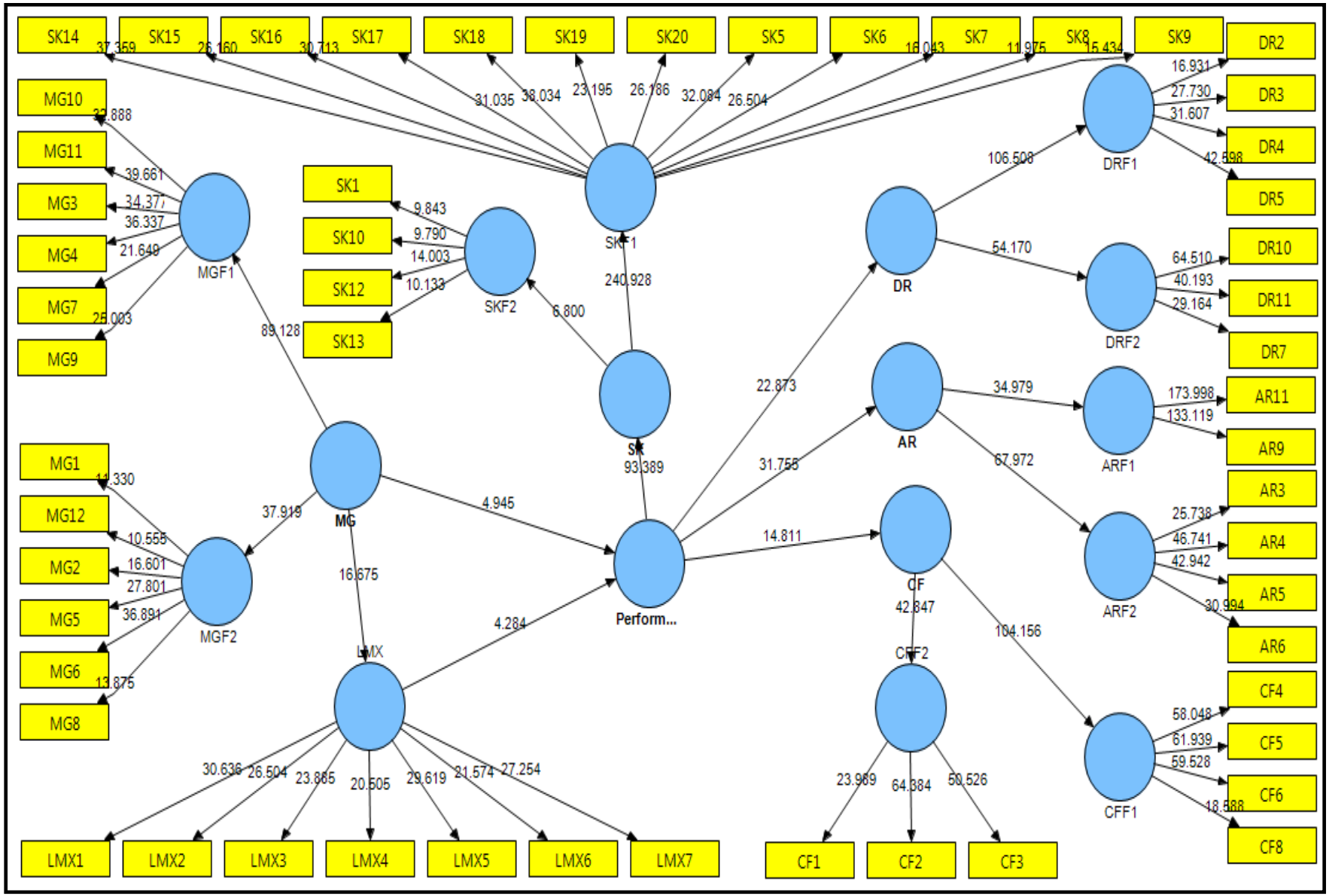

Figure 6.9 An Illustration of PLS Bootstrapping of MG Mediation Model.

6.5.4. Mediation Effect Assessment of the WE Construct

The results of mediation effect assessment of the independent construct WE on the dependent construct PR via the mediator LMX were as follows. First the PLS algorithm function was performed, and the findings obtained were, β for the direct effect between the Work environment construct toward Job performance was 0.352, and for the same path when the LMX was included as mediator β was 0.270. The Sobel test (z) result based on the PLS bootstrapping findings of work environment towards LMX beta was 0.275 with SE 0.069. The result of LMX towards Job performance was beta 0.314 and SE 0.048. Thus, when the Sobel test was implemented the outcomes were Z= 3.388 with two-tailed probability of 0.000. According to the Z findings, the LMX construct revealed a moderate mediation effect between the Work environment and Job performance constructs as $Z > 1.96$ with two-tailed probability at $a < 0.05$ significant level. Since the t-test value obtained for the direct path between WE and PR was still significant with a high value of 3.869, which is > 1.96, such a mediation effect can be confidently reported as direct and indirect mediation effect. Table 6.5, Figures 6.4 and 6.5 present β with and without the mediator LMX included, beta of the paths, Sobel test (Z) and two-tailed probability results, and the t-test findings obtained from PLS bootstrapping.

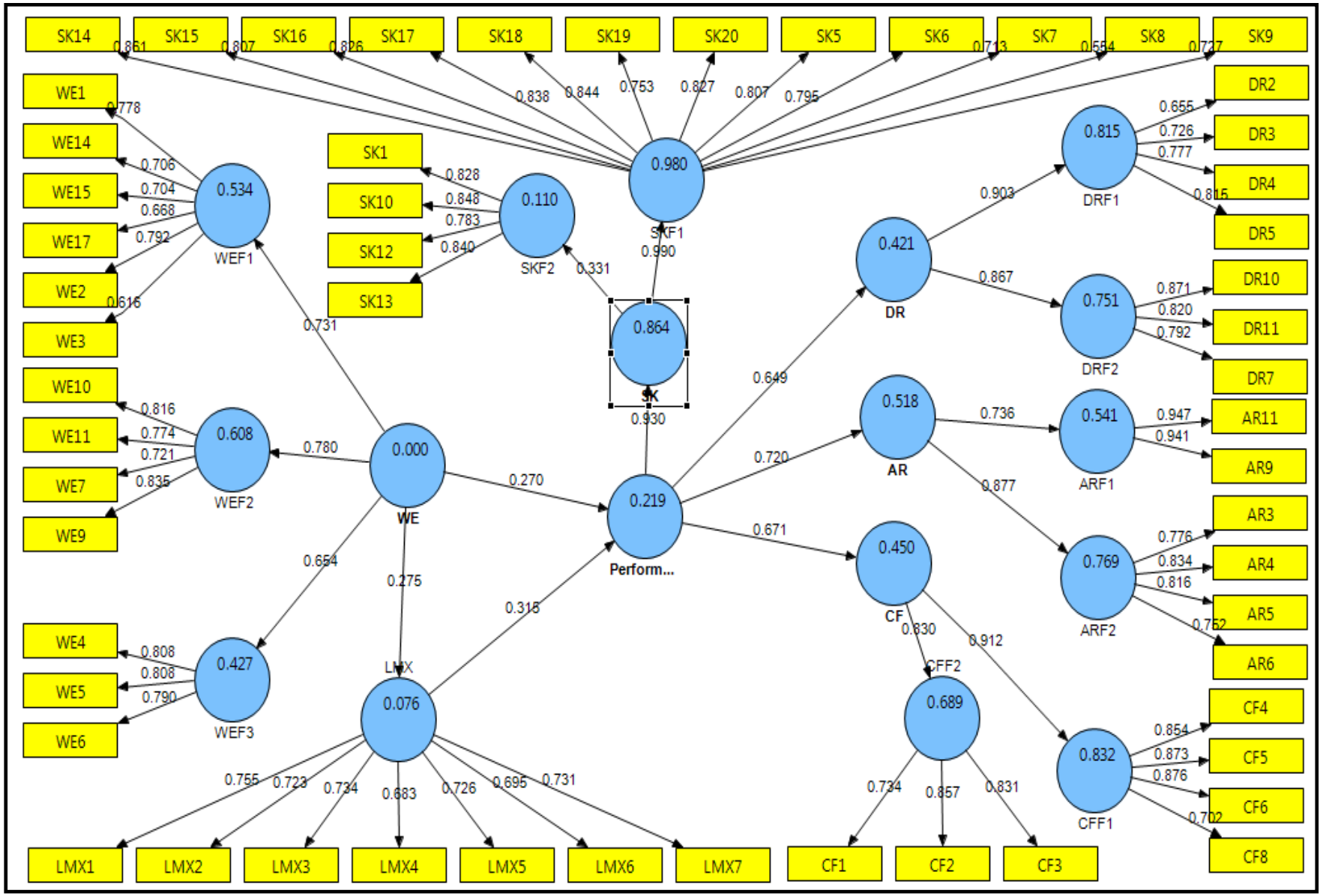

Figure 6.10 An Illustration of PLS Algorithm of WE Mediation Model.

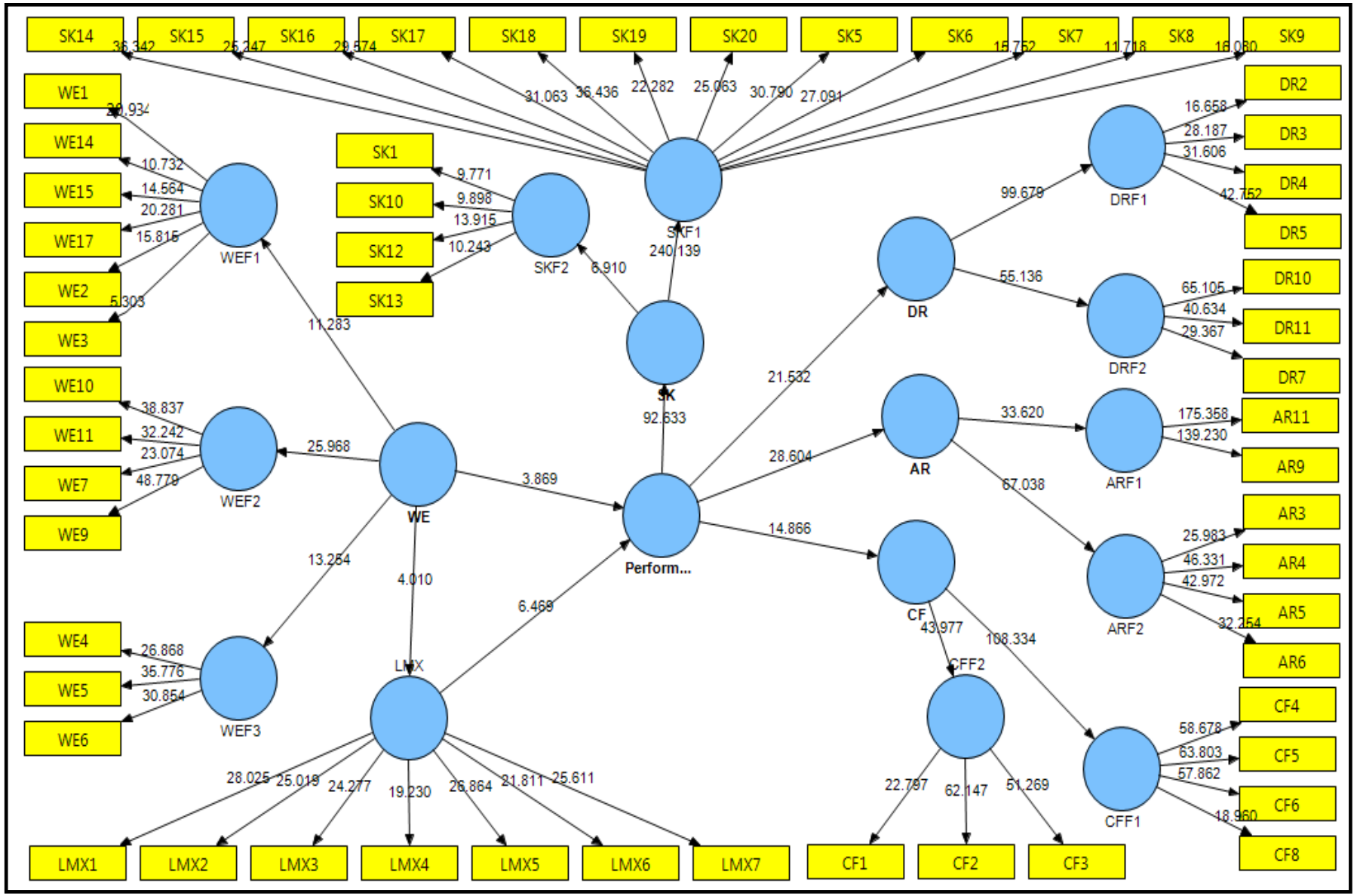

Figure 6.11 An Illustration of PLS Bootstrapping of WE Mediation Model

6.6. Conclusion

The second step of the PLS-SEM was conducted in order to evaluate the structural model. The Inner-model was assessed based on the most common and widely utilised criteria, i.e. the determination of coefficient (R^2), estimation of path coefficient (β), effect size (f^2), prediction relevance ($q2$) and goodness of fit (Gof) (Hair et al., 2012a; Sarstedt et al., 2011; Chin, 2010). The hypothesised relationships of the study were tested and findings were reported. Smart PLS 2.0 M3 was employed for the PLS-SEM assessment based on the above criteria, while for the hypothesis testing of mediation effect, the PLS Algorithm and PLS bootstrapping functions were utilised. Such findings indicated that out of nine hypotheses, two were insignificant and the other seven were determined to be statistically significant, with positive influential relationships, so the hypotheses were accepted and the decisions were supported, which was a good outcome. In this study, Leader Member Exchange was the mediator variable between the Motivation latent variable which has four constructs and Job performance, which consists of four dimensions. Thus, the mediation effect was tested via the Sobel test for each independent construct i.e. PB, JS, MG and WE. Based on the Sobel test findings, all hypothesised relationships were confidently reported as direct and indirect mediation effect. Next, Chapter will provide a logical discussion of the obtained findings, answer the research questions and explain the degree to which these findings are consistent with the related literature.

Chapter 7: Discussion of Results

7.1. Introduction

The previous chapter presented the statistical findings and analyses of the respondents' answers in this study, which was about motivation and LMX theories applied to GACA and their effect on employees' job performance. In alignment with the findings of the previous chapter, this chapter aims to discuss the quantitative findings obtained in relation to the relevant literature. It discusses the possible explanations for the significance or insignificance of the relationships proposed in the conceptual framework (Figure 7.1) based on the statistical analysis of the findings. It starts with an overview of the research aim, objectives and research questions, followed by an overview of the dataset and scale development, discussion of the findings related to the hypotheses in accordance with the relevant literature as aforementioned, answering the research questions and ending with a summary of the chapter.

7.2. Overview of the Aim, Objectives, Research Questions and Related Hypotheses

As presented in chapter one the aim of this study is:

> To investigate the nature of GACA's motivation programme, its effectiveness and effect on employees' job performance.

This aim was translated into five research objectives, as follows:

1) To explore and explain in what ways motivation and employees' performance are managed in GACA.
2) To investigate to what extent GACA's employees are influenced by GACA's motivation system.
3) To explore if GACA's motivation system contributes to better work performance.
4) To identify the key steps to improve the motivation system to contribute to high job performance.

5) To shed light on the relevance of applying Western motivation theories in a Middle Eastern context.

In order to accomplish these objectives four research questions were generated with reference to the literature.

1) Does GACA's motivation system contribute to better work performance?
2) In what ways are motivation and employees' performance managed in GACA?
3) To what extent are GACA's employees influenced by its motivation system?
4) What are the key steps to improve GACA's motivation system to contribute to high job performance?

The study objectives were investigated through the generated research questions, which were then translated into nine hypotheses developed with reference to the literature. In this empirical study, three theories were employed based on the theoretical background mentioned in the literature review in Chapter Two, i.e. Herzberg's motivators-hygiene (intrinsic-extrinsic) theory and Adams' Equity theory, which are widely applied to organisations, and are represented in the independent variable, Motivation, and LMX7 was implemented as a mediator variable. The dependent variable was job performance. The study sought to explore and explain the correlational effect and linkage between employees' motivation, the independent variable, LMX7 the mediator, and the dependent variable, job performance (Bordens and Abbott, 2013; Sekaran and Bougie, 2013), as presented in Chapter Three, the conceptual framework Figure 3.2. The proposed hypotheses (H1-H9) represent 9 paths among the constructs of the conceptual framework, i.e. Pay and Benefits (PB) both financial e.g. reward, bonuses, and nonfinancial e.g. training, healthcare, benefit, Job Security (JS), Management (MG), and Work Environment (WE) which represent the Independent Variable (IV) Motivation; LMX7 as the mediator construct, and the Dependent Variable (DV), Job Performance (PR) construct, which commonly refers to how successfully and efficiently an employee

performs his job and is represented by four dimensions: Duties and Responsibilities (DR), Accomplishments and Results (AR), Skills and Knowledge (SK), Communication and Feedback (CF). Next will be an overview of the dataset and scale development, hypotheses and discussion of the findings.

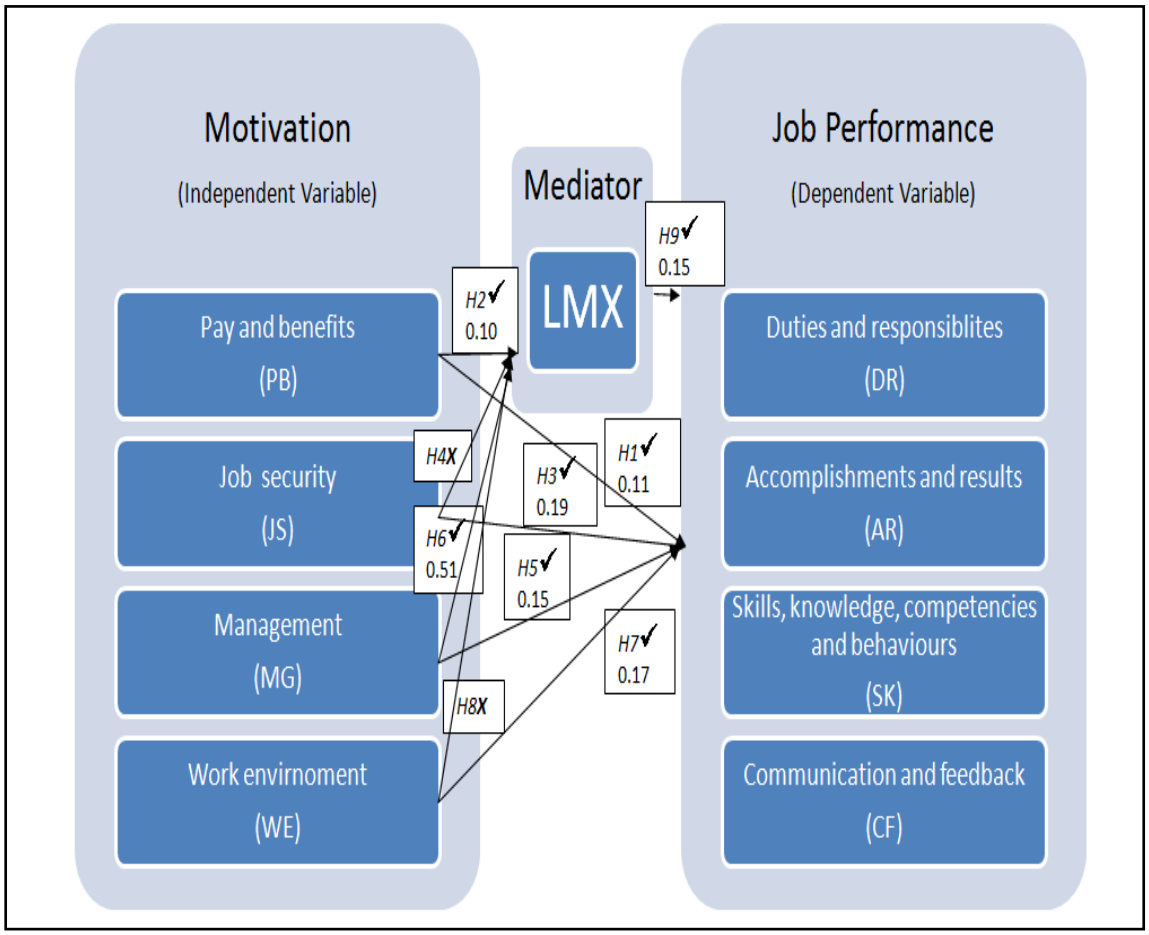

Figure 7.1 Conceptual Framework

7.3. Overview of Dataset and Scale Development

The study findings were obtained based on the analysis of 319 participants' opinions and guided by the widely-employed scale development process of DeVellis (2012) and Netemeyer et al. (2003). Items of the questionnaire were developed and designed by adapting validated measures of previous PHD studies, titled, "Employee motivation, performance and well-being: The role of managerial support for autonomy, competence and relatedness needs" (Parfyonova, 2009), and "Antecedents and Consequences of

Motivation: An Examination of Motivation as Mediator to Human and Organizational Performance" (Talaq, 2004). Items were modified to fit the context and objectives of this study. The original sources and scales of the questionnaire are presented in Table 4.2, which also illustrates all constructs and dimensions of the conceptual framework. By employing the extraction method in principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation, factor loadings and cross loadings ≥ 0.50, (EFA) was executed via SPSS 20 and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed via PLS-SEM. As stated in Chapter Five, all hypotheses were assessed via PLS-SEM according to the highlighted PLS-SEM selection logical settings (Hair et al., 2012a) and based on the dataset. As illustrated in Chapter Six, the path values of the coefficients and the t-test of each hypothesised relationship were evaluated prior to reaching a decision in the forms of "supported" or "not supported".

7.4. Hypotheses

Nine relationships were hypothesised in this study: four direct relationships between each construct of the independent variable, motivation and the dependent variable, job performance i.e. *H1, H3, H5 and H7*, four relationships between motivation's four constructs and job performance via the mediator variable LMX, i.e. *H2, H4, H6* and *H8* and one relationship between LMX and job performance i.e. *H9*. Table 7.1 illustrates the hypothesis number, t-value, Beta value and decision taken, while table 7.2 indicates the average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability of each construct. These relationships were proposed according to the existing literature related to the aforementioned variables:

H1: Pay and benefits and job performance are positively related.

H2: Pay and benefits and LMX are positively related.

H3: Job security and job performance are positively related.

H4: Job security and LMX are positively related.

H5: Management and job performance are positively related.

H6: Management and LMX are positively related.

H7: Work environment and job performance are positively related.

H8: Work environment and LMX are positively related.

H9: LMX and job performance are positively related.

H10: LMX will mediate the relationship between motivation and job performance.

Table 7.1 Path Coefficients and Testing of Hypothesised Relationships of Conceptual Model

Hypothesis	Relationship/Direction	Path coefficients	T-Value	Significance	Decision
H1	PB→PR	0.11	2.19	**p<0.05	Supported
H2	PB→LMX	0.10	1.97	**p<0.05	Supported
H3	JS→PR	0.19	3.60	***p<0.001	Supported
H4	JS→LMX	0.07	1.44	NS (insignificant)	Not supported
H5	MG→PR	0.15	2.51	***p<0.001	Supported
H6	MG→LMX	0.51	10.79	***p<0.001	Supported
H7	WE→PR	0.17	2.32	**p<0.05	Supported
H8	WE→LMX	0.05	1.15	NS (insignificant)	Not supported
H9	LMX→PR	0.15	3.19	***p<0.001	Supported

Note: ***H*** (hypothesis numbering code), pay and benefits (**PB**), job security (**JS**), management (**MG**), work environment (**WE**), leader member exchange (**LMX**), performance (**PR**), → direction of paths, (0.0) Beta values. p< 0.05 **, p<0.10 ***. Please note that the decision was taken in regard to the **T**-value. N=319.

Table 7.2 AVE and CR of the Conceptual Model

Construct	AVE	CR
JS	0.64	0.88
LMX	0.52	0.88
MG	0.74	0.88
PB	0.59	0.92
Performance	0.56	0.93
WE	0.52	0.84

7.5 Discussion and Justifications of the Proposed Hypotheses

H1: Pay and benefits and job performance are positively related.

Based on the dataset and according to the findings of the analyses, the first hypothesis of the current empirical study was determined to be statistically significant, as PB has a positive influential relationship with PR (T-value 2.197 with **p<0.05). Thus, the influence of pay and benefits on job performance was accepted and the hypothesis was supported.

This can be interpreted as, meaning that pay and benefits in their different forms e.g. rewards, promotions, wages and incentives, or allowances and non-financial benefits which include training courses, skills improvement, career development opportunities, health care, accommodation etc (Gilbert, 2013; Herzberg et al., 1959; Maslow, 1954; Thiagarajan et al., 1999, have a strong influence on job performance. Organisations or business firms employ various types of pay and benefits to motivate and encourage their employees for high level performance. Pay and benefits have the power to motivate, entice, magnetize, and maintain individuals' efforts towards high level performance. The findings support the widespread view that performance-based incentives are a critical factor that influences employees' performance in the workplace (Agarwal, 2010; Fuller and Farrington, 1999; Gilbert, 2013; Prendergast, 1999; Stolovitch and Keeps, 1999). This effect is in line with motivation and job performance theories such as Maslow's and Herzberg's who claim that income is one of the fundamental needs for employees. According to Maslow's hierarchy theory, the first need is physiological needs, which include the essential necessities for survival, e.g. food, water and shelter etc (Gibson et al., 2011). Thus, organisations ought to provide employees with income that enables

them to afford adequate living conditions, as with no income or with an inadequate income, individuals cannot sustain their necessities.

This indeed applies to GACA's employees, based on the respondents' replies. Promotions, which imply a pay rise, are exceptional, income is limited, the prices of commodities are increasing and employees have to pay for their health care, accommodation and other necessities. Under such conditions, employees' extra effort toward better job performance is not expected. Skilled employees will be limited if they are not motivated to perform the required jobs (Burney and Widener, 2007).

In terms of Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, extrinsic factors such as pay, benefits, supervision, etc (Van Herpen et al., 2005) are hygiene factors, which do not in themselves motivate, but their absence causes dissatisfaction. However the dominant view in the human resource management literature is that PFP incentive systems have a motivational effect, as expressed by GACA employees. In fact, many authors indicated that the primary goal of incentives and reward programmes is to enhance extrinsic motivation by satisfying employees' needs or desires indirectly through means of pay and benefits, e.g. bonuses, promotions, training, health care (Anthony et al., 2014; Kunz and Pfaff, 2002).

The finding related to the first hypothesis is consistent with the implemented theories and previous studies. The related literature suggests that pay and benefits have a positive influence on employees' job performance. According to the findings of the current hypothesis, PB were found to have effective positive influence on job performance. Thus, the first hypothesis corresponds with the related literature. From the author's point of view pay and benefits i.e. extrinsic motivation factors were found to motivate GACA's personnel. Such PB factors could be employed as motivators for better job performance. In relation to GACA, the implementation of such factors is what makes its effect on

GACA's employees' job performance limited or ineffective. It certainly appears that such an approach would very much reflect on GACA's employees' high performance if properly implemented and managed. It is imperative for management that personnel perceive and acknowledge that the achieved performance will result in some valued reward (Vroom, 1964), e.g. incentives or promotion, suggesting the value of interventions including design/redesign of reward systems, such as gain-sharing (Harrison and Novak, 2006).

H2 Pay and benefits and LMX are positively related

Based on the dataset and according to the findings of the analyses the second hypothesis was determined to be statistically significant, as PB has a positive relationship with LMX (T-value 1.978 with **$p<0.05$). Thus the relationship between pay and benefits and LMX was accepted and the hypothesis was supported.

This means that pay and benefits in their different forms, e.g. rewards, promotions, etc, have an influence on LMX, or to be more specific, on shaping the dyadic subordinate-leader relationship. Such a supposition is in line with the motivation, job performance and LMX literature. LMX is one of the theories employed in this empirical research. In this study LMX is the mediator variable between the IV motivation and the DV job performance. We have already seen that, according to Herzberg hygiene factors, which are extrinsic factors such as pay and benefits, are some of the many factors that would influence employees' motivation. However in practice in organisations, leaders are key factors in providing key job resources, e.g. work-related information, job autonomy, communication, performance feedback and emotional support, which were found to possess motivating potential that leads to employees' excellent work performance (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Thus, with regard to GACA, it can be suggested that employees will be keen on forming high-quality LMX relationships with their leaders in

order to have better access to key job resources, which in turn will enhance the opportunity to be promoted or nominated for developmental or training courses, through which an employee can enhance his developmental opportunities and career advancement within GACA. High-quality LMX is also important for leaders or supervisors as they may have some group members that are rational, ambitious, trustworthy and productive. Those team members are valuable, so leaders make an extra effort to send challenging projects and responsibilities their way, and consider them as in-group or high-quality relationship status (Golden and Veiga, 2008). Such high-quality LMX relationships are also important and beneficial to the organisation in terms of favourable employee attitudes and behaviours which will reflect on work related outcomes (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007).

The findings of this hypothesis are consistent with the employed theories and previous studies. The related literature suggests that pay and benefits have a positive influence on LMX. According to the present study, PB were found to have effective positive influence on LMX. LMX was also found to partially mediate the positive influence of pay and benefits on job performance, so it corresponds with the related literature. From the author's point of view, forming a high-quality LMX relationship with the manager or supervisor is a mutual benefit or mutual interest bond that would fulfil both parties' requirements.

H3: Job security and job performance are positively related.

Based on the dataset and according to the findings of the analyses, the third hypothesis of the current empirical study was determined to be statistically significant, as JS has a positive influential relationship with PR (T-value 3.608 with ***$p<0.001$). Thus the influence of job security on job performance was accepted and the hypothesis was supported.

Such an outcome of the third hypothesis means that job security has an influence and consequences on employees' performance. This hypothesis is consistent with the motivation literature, i.e. Maslow's Hierarchy and Herzberg's Hygiene theory. In Maslow's terms, for example, job security would be to satisfy safety needs. According to Herzberg's Hygiene-motivation theory, job security is one of the hygiene or extrinsic factors (Van Herpen et al., 2005). It can be categorised or typified to qualitative job insecurity, which refers to the continuation or otherwise of important job features and quantitative job insecurity, which pertains to retaining or losing one's job as a whole (Hellgren et al., 1999). In contemporary work life, job insecurity has been perceived as a major stressor (Sverke et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2008; Sverke et al., 2002). Job insecurity and its effects on employees' job performance appear relevant (Reisel et al., 2005). Perceiving high levels of job insecurity is as distressing as experiencing unemployment status (De Witte, 1999). Gilboa et al. (2008) conducted a meta-analyses study on job insecurity and its effect on employees' job performance. They disclose evidence indicating that job security and performance have a direct relationship. According to Sverke et al. (2002) when future job continuance becomes a prolonged uncertainty, it would lead to heightened anxiety and cumulative stressful mental status (Sverke et al., 2002). Other previous studies, e.g. Cavanaugh et al. (2000) indicated that job insecurity is worrying for employees and it acts as a hindrance stressor, which means that undesirable work-related demands interfere with an individual's work achievement. Another meta-analysis research conducted by Cheng and Chan (2008) revealed that employees who perceive a high level of job insecurity tend to have a lower level of work performance and undesirable work-related demands that interfere with work achievement. Job insecurity could cause negative stress reactions due to feelings of unpredictability of what will happen in the future and the uncontrollability toward the lack of control, or the feeling of powerlessness towards the threat or the situation, where

an employee could totally lose the job (quantitative job insecurity), or face potential loss of financial resources (qualitative job insecurity) (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; De Witte, 1999; King, 2000; LePine et al., 2005).

The finding related to this hypothesis confirms the applied theories and previous studies. The related literature indicates that job security has a positive influence on employees' job performance. According to the present study, JS was found to have a significant positive influence on job performance, so it is in line with the literature. The job security situation in GACA seems to be relatively stable, as GACA is a public sector organisation. Therefore, many respondents indicated that they did not fear losing their jobs as a quantitative loss. However they would fear losing some important job features, because GACA is restructuring its organisational structure, and employees' career advancement prospects are unclear. Hence, many respondents indicated a strong intention of leaving the organisation. In the author's view, as GACA is restructuring its organisational structure, HRM should make it an obligatory step in its strategy to have clear career advancement for all its personnel. Clear career advancement for personnel would function as a strong motivator for employees, as they could look forward to their progress within the organisation. It would be conducive to employees' better job performance and give personnel a perception of job security.

H4: Job security and LMX are positively related.

The fourth hypothesis, based on the dataset and according to the findings of the analyses, was determined to be statistically insignificant, as JS has a positive but not influential relationship with LMX, where the statistical outcome was T-value 1.444, insignificant. Thus, based on the obtained findings, the proposed influence of job security on LMX was rejected and the hypothesis was not supported.

As mentioned in relation to previous hypotheses, according to Herzberg's Hygiene-motivation theory, job security is one of the hygiene or extrinsic factors (Van Herpen et al., 2005). LMX theory, which is the mediator variable in this study, refers to the quality or characteristics of the relationship shared between leaders or supervisors and subordinates; an important implication of LMX theory is that the quality of the relationship between the leaders and each group members has important job consequences (Ilies et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2007). Job security is the result of the organisation's policies and management's practices toward the employees which makes them more secure or insecure with regard to their job in the near future (Burchell, 2002; De Witte, 1999; Sverke et al., 2002, Tsui et al., 1997).

GACA, as a public sector organisation, is more stable with regard to the job security issue in comparison to private sector organisations, so employees would not be worried about totally losing their jobs, as 'quantitative job insecurity', which may explain why the relationship between JS and LMX is not significant. Nevertheless, but still employees are susceptible to 'qualitative job insecurity' which means the loss of some important job features that are valuable to them. This could be due to GACA restructuring the organisational structure, reducing or minimizing capital or operational cost, etc. Thus, an employee would seek to be one of the in-group members, which would give him key job resources. Consequently, this would provide an employee with more support from his superior, better opportunities for promotion, training or developmental courses, higher ratings in PA and work-related information. Such resources are gained by securing or maintaining a high-quality relationship with the superior, which would boost the sense of job security, as superiors are considered as providers of key job resources. Such a perception is widely acknowledged in the organisational work climate and everyday life (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). As mentioned in chapter three, studies supporting the LMX theory indicate that subordinates who form high-quality LMX status with their

superiors will have more job resources than their counterparts with low-quality LMX status (Ilies et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2007).

Although the finding showed the fourth hypothesis to be empirically insignificant, which means it does not correspond with literature which indicates that job security has a positive influence on LMX, this could because GACA, as a public sector organisation, is governed by public sector rules and actual jobs are not in the hands of individual managers. An employee may seek good LMX for qualitative JS, but it makes no difference to quantitative JS. Still the finding supports previous studies which indicate that job security has insignificant influence on LMX and it is consistent with that part of the related literature. However the author is more inclined to the view that job insecurity and LMX are positively related, as it has a more logical sound base.

H5: Management and job performance are positively related.

The fifth hypothesis of the current study was determined to be statistically significant, as MG has a positive influential relationship with PR, where the statistical outcome was T-value 2.517 with ***p<0.001. Thus, based on the obtained findings, the influence of management on job performance was accepted and the hypothesis was supported.

Organisations' success is mostly reliant on the leaders' ability and managements' practices to enhance and optimise human resources. As mentioned in the literature, according to Herzberg's theory, motivator factors are intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and growth (Martin, 2001; Martin and Fellenz, 2010). Also with regard to Adams' equity theory (1963), which is concerned with how employees struggle to be treated fairly (Greenberg et al., 2007), if they perceive inequality in comparison between themselves and their colleagues within the same or in other organisations, also between the efforts they make and the outcomes they

receive (Martin 2001; Martin and Fellenz, 2010), which are the outcome of management policies and practices, they will adjust their performance to improve equity.

As mentioned in the literature, Tessema and Soeters (2006) have studied some HRM practices and their relationships with employee performance, e.g. training, job performance evaluation, promotion. A successful manager or supervisor ought to be mindful of the important role personnel play in achieving the organisation goals, and that motivating, encouraging and supporting employees are of paramount significance in achieving these goals. Thus, the level of employees' performance will be limited as it relies not only on their knowledge and actual skills but also on the type of motivation (Burney and Widener, 2007).

In regard to GACA, based on the respondents' feedback, the implementation of HRM practices is disappointing. Training and developmental courses are limited, and even when such courses are available they are not allocated on a just or fair basis, meaning whenever such courses are available, employees who should be eligible for these courses based on their PA are overlooked in favour of another employee with a high-quality LMX relationship, or some connection in the headquarters 'Social Organisation Network'. Incentives, e.g. overtime payments, or allowances for working during the holidays and business trips allowances take a long time to reach the employee. When an employee performs overtime duty, works during the holidays or goes on a business trip, he ought to be compensated as soon as possible, not after three or six months. When compensation or allowance is delayed, it demotivates and discourages the employee from performing such duties in the future.

Also, when an employee is awarded an appreciation certificate for his good work performance or any other good deed he accomplished, it would motivate him to keep up such behaviour. Promotions were also a source of disappointment and distress for the

same reasons applied to training courses. Such scenarios indicate an unjust implementation of HRM practices. Such issues are fundamental HRM practices, which can be considered influential motivational factors and if properly and effectively implemented and managed in GACA's motivation system, would yield better job performance.

The finding of the fifth hypothesis is consistent with the implemented theories and previous studies. The related literature confirms that management has a positive significant influence on employees' job performance (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Kernan and Hanges, 2002; Schuler et al., 2001; Sharbrough et al., 2006; Ulrich, 1998). Based on the respondents' responses and according to the findings of this hypothesis, MG was found to have a positive significant influence on job performance, so it corresponds with the related literature. However in the author's opinion GACA's HRM should establish equity and equality in all their HRM practices, e.g. PA, training courses, promotions, allowances, etc. GACA's management and management authorities in any organisation must be perceived as fair with regard to outcomes, particularly to processes that serve an important psychological need.

HRM ought to consider that an individual’s perceptions of inequities regarding, for example, training, incentives, promotions or pay can have a detrimental and undesirable impact on an individual’s motivation and job performance (Merchant et al., 2003; Ryan and Deci, 2000). It is clear that motivation, e.g. extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors, predicts important organisational outcomes, e.g. job performance (Reio and Callahan, 2004). GACA's employees' were very disappointed with the implementation of equity and equality in such issues, which if managed properly would be reflected in employees' better job performance.

H6: Management and LMX are positively related.

The sixth hypothesis of the current empirical study was determined to be statistically significant, as MG has a positive influential relationship with LMX, where the statistical outcome was T-value 10.795 with ***p<0.001. Thus based on the obtained findings, the influence of management on LMX was accepted and the hypothesis was supported.

This relationship can be better explained as follows. LMX is a relationship-based theory which explores the unique dyadic relationship that a leader forms with each subordinate. According to the theory, leaders or managers often engage in continuous role-making processes and resource exchanges with their subordinates. In HRM practices job resources, as mentioned in chapter three pertain to, for example, social, organisational aspects of the job that are functional to achieve employees' motivation, growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). Team members differ in their interest, skills, ambitions, intellectual abilities, trustworthiness, harmony, etc. Thus it is not the right practice for management, such as a leader or supervisor, to treat everyone in the team in the same way (Golden and Veiga, 2008).

As mentioned in previous academic studies, managers' expectations of employees' success, contingent reward behaviour, trust and transformational leadership are some of the dominant management factors which have high correlations with LMX (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Such correlations toward LMX reflect the strong positive influence of management on LMX, which means developing a strong LMX relationship can be affected by management more than by employees or subordinates (Dulebohn et al., 2012). From the aforementioned evidence, it becomes obvious that management has a strong positive influence on LMX.

The findings of the current hypothesis support the investigated theories and previous studies. The related literature indicates that management has a positive significant

relationship with LMX. According to the findings of this hypothesis, MG was found to have a positive significant influence on LMX. LMX was also found to partially mediate the positive influence of management on job performance, so it is in line with the related literature. However in the author's opinion and as mentioned earlier, developing high-quality LMX relationships can be affected by management more than by personnel or subordinates. This applies to GACA's management, as managers or supervisors may have some team members with whom they developed a great relationship, due to their intellect, rationality, high level of performance, trustworthiness, productivity and so on. They thus make extra effort to cultivate these members, and they are considered as the in-group or have high-quality relationship status (Golden and Veiga, 2008). However, management should not overlook or neglect the out-group members as they have the right to be treated fairly with regard to all aspects of Management practices e.g. PA, training courses, promotions, allowances and so on, as there is a high-conceptual overlapping between interactional justice and LMX (Wayne et al., 2002). Thus, applying justness and fairness is very important. Such employees ought to have their fair share in all HRM practices. HRM ought to consider that an individual’s perceptions of inequities can have a detrimental and undesirable impact on an individual’s job performance (Merchant et al., 2003; Ryan and Deci, 2000). However Wayne et al. (2002) proposed a high-conceptual overlap between interactional justice and LMX.

H7: Work environment and job performance are positively related.

According to GACA's respondents' replies and based on the dataset the seventh hypothesis of the current empirical study was determined to be statistically significant, as WE has a positive influential relationship with PR, where the statistical outcome was T-value 2.327 with ***$p<0.05$. Thus, based on the obtained findings, the influence of work environment on job performance was accepted and the hypothesis was supported.

Work environment or climate is one of the hygiene or extrinsic factors with reference to Herzberg's theory as stated previously (Van Herpen et al., 2005). Such extrinsic factors have reasonable and realistic influence on employees' job performance. Moreover Adams' equity theory (1963) suggests that organisational justice could prevent performance-damaging effect caused by the promotional and reward system (Greenberg et al., 2007; Mullins and Christy, 2013). Organisational justice is generally related to three specific components, which are distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Colquitt et al., 2002). According to the equity theory, Adams (1965) argues that individuals determine a value for the ratio between the outcomes of their work and the inputs they invest. The results are material or financial compensation manifested in income or wages and benefits as well as non-material compensation, such as social recognition, interest in work itself, and the ability to self fulfillment. The notion of distributive justice is based on a general theory of fairness, which offers a broad explanation of the motives underlying the actions of individuals.

With regard to organisation climate, many studies have examined organisational climate in various organisational contexts and related it to several outcomes at employee, group, and organisational level. Researchers have found links between organisational climate and employee performance, organisational effectiveness, productivity, organisational justice, work motivation, stress or anxiety, tendency to leave the organisation (Ahmad et al., 2012; Bellou and Andronikidis, 2009; Dickson et al., 2006; Heyart, 2011; Rahimic, 2013; Zhang and Liu, 2010). Thus when employees perceive their work climate as fair and just, they feel valued by the organisation, which would reflect significantly on their behaviour, job performance and work outcomes (Ambrose and Cropanzano, 2003; Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Collins and Smith, 2006; De Cremer, 2005; Schneider, 2008). In organisations, workplace climate or environment is affected and influenced by many

dynamic aspects and characteristics relevant to the organisation, e.g. ethics, justice, communication, performance feedback, HRM practices, incentives, physical work environment, etc, which in turn exert a strong influence on the behaviour of the organisation's members. Organisational climate and the way in which individuals respond to it continually interact. Over time, the organisational climate is said to have the capacity and potential to convey the general psychological atmosphere of an organisation, and consequently, would affect the satisfaction, motivation and behaviour patterns of individuals in the workplace (Lawler, 1992; Lawler, 2003; 2005).

With regard to GACA, based on the respondents' replies, GACA's work climate is not fair or just. When employees are dedicated to their jobs and provide inputs to their organisation, they expect outputs and some sort of consideration from their organisation in return. For example, they expect to be promoted, have an increase in their income, or some benefits from the organisation as 'outcome'. With regard to distributive justice, employees' perceptions of equity or inequity are based on the comparison they make between the 'input', e.g. the time they spent and effort they make and the 'output', e.g. income or wages they receive; also with reference to their colleague, e.g. person or group (DeConinck and Johnson, 2009). GACA's personnel also compare between themselves and their colleagues who have been promoted or selected for some training course because they have connections with the high authorities in the headquarters or somewhere else. For example, when two or more employees have the same qualifications, education level, seniority, and grades in the PA, but one is promoted or selected for a training course because he is connected somehow to SON, this does not reflect a fair or just work environment. Rather it would be perceived as iniquitous and unequal. When inequality or unfairness exist, personnel will experience a feeling of injustice and one or the other party will experience deprivation (Adams, 1965).

Distributive justice is about fairness of the outcome that one receives (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

As mentioned earlier in relation to GACA, the unfair or unjust climate has its effect on GACA's personnel outcomes, e.g. behaviour, job performance. The findings of this hypothesis are consistent with the applied theories and previous studies. The related literature suggests that work environment has a positive significant relationship with employees' job performance. According to the findings of this hypothesis, WE was found to have a positive significant influence on job performance; thus it corresponds with the related literature.

H8: Work environment and LMX are positively related.

Based on the dataset and according to the analysis of the findings the eighth hypothesis was determined to be statistically insignificant, as WE has a positive but not influential relationship with LMX, where the statistical outcome was T-value 1.159, insignificant. Thus based on the obtained findings, the influence of work environment on LMX was rejected and the hypothesis was not supported.

In organisational literature, workplace was always considered as an important function of people's life, simply because it is the place where they spend most of their working life. Workplace climate has been found to have a rational and realistic effect on various work outcomes, e.g. job performance (Baltes, 2001). Work environment is one of Herzberg's external motivation factors as stated earlier. Workplace climate has been acknowledged as individual descriptions of organisational practices and procedures that relate to organisational influences on all working parties' (e.g. subordinates, supervisors) motivation, performance and productivity (Baltes, 2001). A healthy ethical organisational climate is likely to generate feelings of trust in the organisation, as well as perceptions of organisational support that cause employees to perceive their

psychological well being as positive. Such an environment is considered to be an interpersonal atmosphere within the organisation that influences leaders-subordinates interaction (Erdogan and Bauer, 2010; Ghoshal et al., 1999; Parboteeah et al., 2010; Sturges and Guest, 2004). It was noticed by many researchers (e.g. Schuler et al., 2001, Ulrich, 1998) that the quality of leadership/ management can have a significant effect on employee well-being, behaviour and job performance. In this context LMX is considered to be particularly important as it addresses several dynamic factors on which relationships are formed. Such factors, e.g. perceived trust and reliability, can cause employees or subordinates to act and behave in certain ways (Bauer and Green, 1996; Erdogan and Bauer, 2010; Parboteeah et al., 2010).

With regard to GACA's workplace climate; based on the finding of the dataset analyses, there is evidence that issues of ethics, justice and trust are important and have a strong influence on GACA's workplace environment. Generally there is no trust between GACA's personnel and management authority, particularly HRM. GACA's administration or management ought to be reliable and establish a strong linkage or sense of trustworthiness with its personnel. GACA's employees are concerned about the PA process, training and developmental courses, respect and appreciation, promotions, motivation system, inequity or unfairness, inequality, career advancement, and other benefits which the high authorities of GACA promised to provide but did not, e.g. health care. Therefore GACA's administration credibility or it can be said, that the trust bond or relationship between the two is unreliable.

The finding of the eighth hypothesis was found to be empirically insignificant, which means it is not in line with the related literature, which indicate that work environment has a positive significant relationship with LMX. According to the findings of this hypothesis, WE was found to have an insignificant influence on LMX; thus it does not

correspond with the related literature. In the author's view, this could be due to the absence or partial absence of the issues that were mentioned earlier in relation to GACA's workplace climate, e.g. ethics, justice, respect and trust, which have a great effect on forming the dyad relationship of LMX. Management authority must be fair and apply justice in all aspects of organisational processes, e.g. distributive, procedural, and interactional justice, as stated earlier. When personnel feel sure about their organisation with regard to ethics, justice and trust, this would make a difference to workplace climate, employees' behaviour, job performance, loyalty, commitment, etc. It would also be expected to reflect on interaction with others, including manager and superiors, which is where LMX comes into play, because LMX is reciprocal or a relationship-based theory which explores the unique dyadic relationship that a leader forms with each subordinate.

In LMX trust or confidence, respect, loyalty and mutual obligations are substantial characteristics that will benefit both parties in the dyadic relationship. Therefore when employees perceive a caring and supportive climate, it reveals that the organisation’s ethical policies and practices are based on an overarching concern for its members or personnel. Consequently personnel are more likely to be persistent and helpful when the organisation is in need or faced with unexpected problems. Conversely, employees who perceive their work environments as being non supportive or unwelcoming, or unjust, are more likely to exhibit negative, withdrawal or counterproductive behaviours (Wolf et al., 2012). However the author is more inclined to the school of thought which states, that work environment or climate has an influence on LMX relationships, as it has a more logical sound base.

H9: LMX and job performance are positively related.

Based on the dataset and the statistical findings, the ninth hypothesis of the current empirical study was determined to be statistically significant, as LMX has a positive influential relationship with PR (T-value 3.192 with ***p<0.001). Thus based on the obtained findings, the influence of LMX on job performance was accepted and the hypothesis was supported.

Literature regarding LMX specifies the significant link between the relationship of superiors or managers with their subordinates and subordinates' outcomes. Effective leadership can significantly contribute to better job performance of followers as well as the performance of the whole organisation (Yukl, 2012). LMX is an effective substantial construct in this domain. It is a relationship-based theory and it explores the unique dyadic relationship that a leader forms with each subordinate. Recent studies of the quality of superior–subordinate relationships, in particular leader–member exchange, found that it has a strong relationship to important work outcomes (Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri 2012). In this context other evidence indicated that LMX has substantially positive influences on employees' task performance and helping behaviours (Gerstner and Day, 1997). The quality of the relationship between an employee and his manager was a dominant and an influential factor in enhancing employee performance (Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri 2012). Furthermore, job resources availability was found to activate and trigger the motivational potential of the employees to perform extra-role behaviours (Bakker et al., 2004).

Based on the findings of the dataset analyses, LMX with regard to GACA's employees means that an employee who is with the high-quality or in group would be granted privileges or merits, and in turn would exert more effort in their job performance and productivity, accept challenging responsibilities and be loyal to their superiors or leaders.

This would prove to their managers that they are trustworthy, committed, dedicated to work, and respectful, which will maintain such privileges or concessions for them. From the leaders or management perspective, LMX would add another dimension of influence or merit, which is the exercise of power or authority, because as noted earlier, leaders in organisation terminology are key job resources providers, so many employees would like to be members of the in-group, or at least on good interaction terms with the manager or the leader. Generally LMX would reflect a great deal on job performance if properly implemented and managed.

The findings of the ninth hypothesis support the investigated theories and previous studies. The related literature suggests that LMX has a positive influential relationship with employees' job performance. According to the findings of this hypothesis, LMX was found to have a positive significant influence on job performance; thus it is consistent with the related literature. In regard to GACA, this means many employees will exert much effort to have a high-quality LMX relationship, but and as pointed out earlier, in-group membership is the choice of a managers or superiors, as they have the authority to evaluate the employee, based on the employee's PA, behaviour, trustworthiness, competencies, etc (Golden and Veiga, 2008). However in the author's view, leaders should develop high-quality relationships with as many subordinates as possible. They should have as large an in-group and as small an out-group as possible (George and Jones, 2012). This would be beneficial for the interest of the employees as well as the organisation.

7.6. LMX Mediation Effects

H10: LMX will mediate the relationship between motivation and job performance.

This section of the discussion is concerned with the hypothesised relationships of the mediator construct LMX variable. According to Bontis et al. (2007:1436) "Mediation exists if the coefficient of the direct path between the independent variable and the dependent variable is reduced when the indirect path via the mediator is introduced into the model". The Sobel test is regarded as the most employed formal method for mediation effect assessment (Sosik et al., 2009). It enables researchers to indicate the significance of the mediation, and the confidence level. Hypotheses in relation to the LMX variable i.e. *H2*, *H4*, *H6* and *H8* have already been discussed in the previous sections, in which LMX was shown to mediate the influence of the motivation variable represented by four constructs PB, JS, MG and WE on job performance, as illustrated in the conceptual model of the present study Figure 7.1. These hypotheses were assessed via PLS 2.0 M3 and the Sobel test. Findings of the mediation tests are presented in Table 7.4. Based on the Sobel test results, LMX was found to indirectly mediate the influential relationships between the constructs of PB, JS, MG and WE, with Z-values of 4.909, 4.406, 4.30 and 3.388, respectively, and job performance. The Sobel test was employed to test the mediation effect of each independent construct independently. For example, the result of the influential effect of PB via LMX on PR was 4.909, with $Z > 1.96$ with two-tailed probability < 0.05. This means that LMX is conducting influential significant indirect mediation between each construct of the motivation variable, i.e. pay and benefits, job security, management and work environment and the dependent variable job performance, if each construct was independently applied to LMX.

Table 7.4 PLS and Sobel Test results of the mediation Hypothesised Relationships

Relationship/ Direction/ (Mediation)	Beta	Standard Error (STERR)	***Sobel test statistic***	***Two-tailed probability***	β With Mediator	β Without Mediator
PB➔ LMX➔PR	0.38	0.05	4.91	0.00	0.26	0.37
LMX➔PR	0.29	0.02				
JS ➔ LMX➔PR	0.31	0.05	4.41	0.00	0.32	0.41
LMX ➔ PR	0.29	0.04				
MG➔ LMX➔PR	0.60	0.04	4.30	0.00	0.27	0.41
LMX➔PR	0.23	0.05				
WE➔LMX➔PR	0.27	0.07	3.39	0.00	0.27	0.35
LMX➔PR	0.31	0.05				

N=319

7.7. Discussion and Answers of the Research Questions

1) Does GACA's motivation system contribute to better work performance?

The first research question was concerned with GACA's motivation programme and its contribution to enhance work performance. Motivation is the key for performance improvement. Thus, identifying individuals' needs and satisfying them, as a means of motivation, will contribute to better job performance. Employees' motivation is one of the policies of managers or supervisors to increase effectual job management and performance amongst employees in organisations (Oluseyi and Ayo, 2009). Motivation is an important function that organisations employ to achieve their strategic goals; it is even called the magic power behind people's action (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012). With regard to GACA's motivation system, theoretically it should be effective and contribute to better work performance on both the employee and the organisation level, but actually in practice it is not achieving what it should do. Participants' responses indicated that promotions take a long time, even though an employee is entitled to be promoted every four years, provided he has attained very good grades in his annual appraisal for the last two years. In practice, even with that condition fulfilled, promotions are very rare,

exceptional and very limited, and it takes much longer than four years for employees to be promoted. Rewards and other monitory and non-monitory incentives, e.g. bonuses, appreciation certificates for employee' initiative of good deeds or high performance are also rarely awarded to employees, training and developmental courses are limited, and payment of overtime or other allowances is delayed. Several employees spend extra time than the official duty hours at work for the sake of finishing a job or task, or carry on the job duties during holidays. Those employees are entitled to overtime allowance, but the allowances to which they are entitled often take more than three months to be paid.

With regard to business trips to remote locations that need to be visited on a regular basis for checking of equipment, engineers and technicians spend two or three days away to fulfil their responsibilities and are entitled to a trip allowance, but again payment does not come on time. And again, delays of up to six months were reported. Such allowances are strong motivators for the employees. Since employees' motivation is so important, it should take a priority position in management strategy (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2012). Otherwise if employees' inputs (efforts) are higher than their outputs (what they get in return), the result will be demotivated employees (Brooks, 2007; Fortin, 2008; Milkovich et al., 2011; Siegrist et al., 2004). Motivating employees is of paramount significance in achieving organisation goals. Thus the effectiveness of capable skilled employees will be restricted if they are not motivated to perform the required jobs (Burney and Widener, 2007).

In GACA's case, another source of concern is health care or health care allowance, which is not available for the employees and their family members. This creates difficulty for the employees, most of whom have families and children, and private health care services are very expensive. Also accommodation or accommodation allowances are not available and the cost of providing a dwelling is becoming very high. Personnel will

work hard if they expect their effort to be appreciated and lead to reward, meaning the outcomes they receive equal the efforts they make.

Developmental courses for employees to enhance their knowledge and improve their skills are limited, meaning an employee would not be nominated for a training course for a long time. Also, such developmental courses are not very sophisticated or up to date. Training, skills improvement and developmental courses are crucial and very important for better job performance, as they will keep the employee up to date with the external work environment and in line with the new development of job performance. The majority of studies (e.g. Arthur et al., 2003; Tharenou et al., 2007) have found a significant positive relationship between job training and increased employee performance. Thus, once a training or developmental programme is completed, the employee's quality of performance and level of productivity are expected to increase. The benefits will reflect on the organisation or the firm, due to an increase in the employee's quality of performance and level of productivity, and on the employee, as the increase in the performance quality and level of productivity should translate into higher income and opportunities for promotions and career advancement (Kaufman and Hotchkiss, 2006).

With respect to the retirement plan, many respondents were not happy with it. They indicated that the prices for commodities and other necessities that are needed for daily life are getting very expensive and the pension allowance is the same; it is limited with no increase. It is clear that motivation, e.g. extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors, predicts important organisational outcomes, e.g. job performance (Reio and Callahan, 2004). Many studies found strong connections between Public Service Motivation (PSM) and the monetary and nonmonetary work preferences of public employees (Brewer et al., 2000; Bright, 2005). Based on the respondents' answers and according to the analysis of

the findings, the answer to the first research question is no, GACA's motivation system does not contribute to better work performance.

2) In what ways are employees' motivation and performance managed in GACA?

Employee Performance fundamentally depends on many factors, e.g. employee motivation, performance appraisals, LMX, compensation, training and development, job security, organisational structure, etc, but in the current study we focus predominantly on employee motivation, as this factor highly influences the performance of employees (Bartol and Martin, 1998). Motivation is a power that strengthens individuals' behaviour, gives route to behaviour and work outcomes, and triggers the tendency to continue (Abadi et al., 2011). Nonetheless LMX is another dominant factor in this domain. Recent studies of the quality of superior–subordinate relationships, in particular, leader–member exchange, was found to have a strong relationship to important work outcomes (Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri 2012). GACA claims that its motivation system is working as intended, but responses to the questionnaire suggested otherwise. The actual implementation of the motivation programme is not functioning as expected. When the quantitative research was being conducted, the researcher looked for the outcomes and the findings that were revealed by the respondents, as these are what the researcher depends on and takes into account. GACA has the resources, e.g. the budget, the strategy, HRM, human resources developmental or training centre, etc.

With regard to the regulations and procedures of managing employees' motivation and performance in GACA, the employees' performance should be evaluated and an annual performance appraisal (PA) should be issued. It will present all items of the employee's performance and the grade or score he obtained on each item. The performance appraisal will indicate the employee's strong and weak areas or points. The employee's manager or supervisor should review the annual performance appraisal with the employee and

highlight the important points for him. Employees' PA has a significant impact on the employee's training, development, performance feedback, promotion, salary raise, and identifying the strengths and weaknesses of individuals (Taylor, 2005). Thus, it is an integral part of HRM (Shore and Strauss, 2008). Evaluating employees' performance will enable the employee as well as the HRM to identify the strong or good areas or points of the employee's job performance to maintain them, and indicate the weak areas or points of the employee's job performance, to improve them. Employees' performance evaluation is an important task. It functions as a measuring instrument for employees' performance and can motivate them (Houldsworth, and Jirasinghe, 2006). According to Cawley et al. (1998) and Shore and Strauss (2008) performance appraisal is considered as one of the most key functions in HRM. It is worth mentioning that according to Brown and Heywood (2005) performance appraisal is a management tool that is intended to improve employees' performance and productivity, it functions as a formalized process of worker monitoring and evaluation. They indicated that enhancing the performance appraisal by complementary HRM practices such as formal training programmes and incentives pay would result in greater influence on employees' performance and productivity. Thus, employees' commitment, performance and productivity can be improved by the implementation of a consistent performance appraisal system (Brown and Benson, 2003).

At GACA, an employee is entitled to be promoted every four years, based on the grade or score the employee obtained in his PA, meaning if his evaluations were very good for the last two years he is entitled to be promoted, and if he was graded excellent he is also entitled to the equivalent of a month's salary as a reward, and he should be awarded an appreciation certificate, to motivate him to continue the good effort that he dedicated to his job. Also based on the employee's PA, the employee's manager or supervisor should nominate him for skills improvement and training or development courses to strengthen

the weak points or areas in his PA to improve his job performance and motivate him, because training courses will add more points to his record in the PA. Such training and developmental courses could be held in the HRD or training centre in the headquarters in Jeddah, or even abroad, depending on the courses he needs. For example, there are different training or developmental courses for engineers, technicians, supervisors, managers. Employees' performance relies not only on their knowledge and actual skills but also on the extent and type of motivation they obtain (Burney and Widener, 2007).

Such steps work as motivators, particularly the skills improvement and training or development courses which would give a strong boost and support, to enhance the employee's job performance, as the more courses an employee takes, the more points he would collect in his record, so long as he passes the test of the course, so employees who have more points will have a better opportunity to be promoted. The existing evidence confirms that when there are proper performance measures, PFP can be a very influential tool in enhancing employee performance, productivity and improve match quality (Lemieux et al., 2009). Tessema and Soeters (2006) found a significantly positive relationship between promotion practices and perceived employee job performance. In addition, evidence indicated that LMX has a substantially positive influence on employees' task performance and helping behaviours (Gerstner and Day, 1997). The quality of the relationship between an employee and his or her manager was dominant and an influential factor in enhancing employee performance (Vigoda-Gadot and Beeri 2012). Nonetheless, if health care and accommodation or its allowances were available for the employees, it would act as a significant motivator for the employees. GACA has promised many times that health care and accommodation allowances would be provided for its personnel but yet they are unavailable. Such an act would make the employee lose trust in the organisation's management or administration; such issues are very sensitive for the employees. GACA's HRM can make a better use of the resources available to

invest and implemented them to effectively improve the implementation of the motivation programme to enhance employees' performance and productivity, which will reflect on the organisation as well.

3) To what extent are employees influenced by GACA’s motivation system?

With regard to GACA’s motivation system and its influence on the employees, according to the respondents' replies, a high percentage of the participants expressed that they were not influenced by and were unhappy with GACA's motivation system and how GACA’s motivation programme is actually conducted. As noted previously, it is taking much more than four years for an employee to be promoted, even if the employee obtained a very good grade in his performance appraisal, which is a condition for an employee to be promoted. Also the employee ought to obtain certain credits or points for the promotion to take place. Such dissatisfaction and disappointment with GACA's motivation system was indicated in the questionnaire by a high percentage of the respondents, and it was expressed explicitly in the open ended question. Indeed, concern was such that the author was telephoned by some of the participants with requests to add an item in the questionnaire to ask about how many promotions an employee had attained during his career with GACA. When the answer was given that this could not be achieved at this stage, they asked for it to be added it in the discussion of the study. This very clearly indicates and reflects how disappointed and upset employees were by GACA's promotion programme, and such promotion delays, as a promotion will provide a financial increase to the employee’s income which is an extrinsic motivation factor. According to Lazear (2000), employees who received an income increase from their organisation or firm were dedicated to their tasks, and performed their responsibilities diligently. Income is a necessity, outweighing every other incentive or motivational technique in its influential value (Agarwal, 2010; Prendergast, 1999).

Such promotion will also give internal contentment or intrinsic motivation, through the feeling of recognition and appreciation of the employee's effort in accomplishing his duties and responsibilities. This in itself is a strong motivation for an employee to increase his effort, and also would strengthen the bond between an employee and the organisation. Also it will encourage and support the employee to exert more effort toward better job performance. It is not only to the material value of the promotion or the reward but rather the public recognition that is associated with it. Nonetheless it will induce other employees to follow his footsteps. Unfortunately however, this is not the case in GACA. Motivation is an external inducement or an inner force that drives individuals to behave in some particular way, typically a way that will lead to rewards (Dessler, 2010).The level of employees' performance relies not only on their knowledge and actual skills but also to the extent of their motivation (Burney and Widener, 2007).

As discussed earlier, in the literature, throughout the Arab region, SON represents a significant and influential force in all aspects of decision-making and thus plays a significant role in career advancement (Hutchings and Weir, 2006a, b). It can be manifested in managerial favouritism, personal relations and nepotism via interpersonal connections (Hutchings and Weir, 2006b). It is one of the key determinants of, for example, recruitment, promotion, reward, training and many other organisational aspects. With respect to personnel development, training courses to enhance employees' knowledge and improve their working skills are limited; such courses will enhance employees' performance, add more credits or points to the employee's performance appraisal, and are a requirement for employees' promotion. GACA has a developmental or training centre, but based on the participants' responses, courses and resources are very limited. According to the participants' answers it is not easy for an employee to be nominated and selected to attend a training or a developmental course. Respondents

indicated that many employees were nominated, but they were not selected to attend the training course. They perceived their nomination as purely for the sake of appearance. In realty, someone else was selected and attended, based on SON. It was just to give the impression that the employee's manager or superior had nominated him.

The excuse would be given that places were limited for that course and the selection was made by the high authorities in the headquarters or the training centre in Jeddah. Thus, if an employee wants to be enrolled for a training course, he will have to chase up the selection process until the decision is approved. However, it is not the employee's responsibility to do this and following up the selection process, which will divert the employee's effort away from his job duties and responsibilities. Such training courses are also beneficial for the organisation's better performance and high productivity.

Furthermore when an employee is selected for a training or skills improvement course, the employee is entitled to a training course allowance or compensation toward his living and accommodation expenses, as such training courses are held in GACA's developmental centre, which is located in the headquarters in the city of Jeddah, and employees travel there from various cities far away from Jeddah, e.g. the capital city Riyadh, Medinah and Abha. A training course may take from 4-12 weeks or more, depending on the nature of the course, meaning an employee needs somewhere to stay and money to cover his living expenses. In some cases, however, an employee's selection is made conditional on his signing an agreement that no training course allowance or compensation will be claimed; the employee has no right to claim the compensation, otherwise he will not be selected, or the course will not be held. Thus, on the one hand there is the official way for an employee to be selected for a developmental course; on the other is the scenario where an employee has some connection with the high authorities in the headquarters or somewhere else, e.g. SON, or he is one of the in-group

of the manager or the superior. As mentioned earlier, LMX focuses on the quality of the superior-subordinate relationship, and how reciprocal social exchanges develop, enhance, and sustain that relationship. Studies supporting the LMX theory indicate that subordinates who form high-quality LMX status with their superiors will have more job resources than their counterparts of the low-quality LMX status (Ilies et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2007), which enables them to climb the advancement or career ladder faster than others (Sparrowe and Liden, 2005; Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994). As mentioned, in organisations, the superior, manager or supervisor is a key job resources provider. A job's resources e.g. work-related information, training, job autonomy, communication, performance feedback and emotional support, have motivating potential that leads to employees' excellent work performance (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Therefore high-quality LMX is the other root for an employee to be promoted, rewarded, nominated and selected for training courses, etc.

Business trips are another issue that have an influence on employees' motivation and practically affect job performance. Most of GACA's personnel are required to perform some duties in remote areas inside the country or sometimes abroad. For such business trips an employee is entitled to a trip allowance that will compensate the living expenses that he incurred during the business trip. Such payment is supposed to be prompt and with no delay, but unfortunately sometimes it takes up to six months for the employee to get the business trip allowance, which makes the employee disappointed and demotivated, unwilling to undertake such business trips. For example engineers and technicians have to perform Periodic Maintenance Inspection (PMI) for electronic, electrical and mechanical equipment, and when they have spent their own money, they need the money back for other expenses for their day to day life. The payment process could be accomplished in a matter of days or a couple of weeks, and could be employed as a motivator to the employees to exert their best effort for high job performance. Also

it would make employees look forward to accomplishing more business trips. PMI and other business trips ought to be conducted on a regular basis.

Such payment delay also applies to overtime payment; many employees are required to work for longer time than the official duty hours, or during the holidays, and they are willing and happy to do so, but when an employee is not compensated for the extra time he spends at work or when he works during the holidays, when he supposed to be relaxing or enjoying himself with his family, friends or traveling, then the employee is not motivated to perform such extra duty hours. According to Fisher (2008) money is considered to be the key motivator for most employees. It is a fundamental inducement, it is considered as one of the basic physiological needs. The motivational influence of monetary incentives in increasing performance has been documented by many researchers (e.g., Banker et al., 2000; Bloom and Milkovich, 1998; Park and Sturman, 2012). The type of task and type of performance-based financial incentive interact to affect task performance (Bonner et al., 2000).

Health care and accommodation are two very vital issues for GACA's employees as well as their families, according to the participants' answers obtained from the open ended questions. For years GACA's administration has promised that health care and accommodation, or health care and accommodation allowances, will be available for GACA's employees but as yet they are unavailable. The health care issue was a real grievance for most GACA's employees, as most of them have families and children, and it is becoming more expensive to provide health care for themselves and their family members. Thus, unless health care is provided by GACA, some of the employees' effort, concern and concentration will be devoted toward this matter.

Accommodation, as mentioned earlier, is another issue that GACA's employees are very concerned about. Providing a dwelling for oneself and one's family is becoming very

difficult and expensive; a large portion of the employee's income is going towards providing a dwelling. Hence it is no wonder that most of them were unhappy and upset about this matter. With regard to the retirement plan, also, many respondents were not happy with it, as they indicated that the cost of living is rising, but the pension allowance or the retirement annuity remains the same.

As knowledge regarding HRM increases, most organisations are accepting that employees or personnel are the most important assets and valuable resource. Thus, employees' performance, productivity and well being are becoming even more crucial for organisations that want to achieve high profitability and competitive advantage in today's knowledge intense business environment, and HRM makes a difference to organisations' performance and productivity (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Collins and Smith, 2006; Patterson et al., 1997). Employees' with talent and high achievements are the driving force of all firms so it is essential that organisations strive to motivate and hold on to the best employees (Harrington, 2003).

4) What are the key steps to improve GACA's motivation system to contribute to high job performance?

With regard to the research fourth question, which is about the key steps to improve GACA's motivation system to contribute to high job performance, based on the dataset and according to the respondents' replies, GACA's motivation system requires intensive reform. GACA employees were disappointed and dissatisfied with GACA's motivation programme, for a variety of reasons, e.g. lack of personnel development (training) courses, long delay of promotions, uncertainty of employees' career advancement, no health care and accommodation. The findings suggest that GACA's administration/top management, HRM, and HRD should profoundly consider making reforms so that the career advancement path is very clear to all employees, as having a goal leads to better

performance than having no goal. Improving or creating an effective motivation programme that is efficient, factual and reliable is necessary and the HRD programme should be of high quality and up to date. Employees tend to perform at higher levels when their pay is related to their individual performance (Lawler, 2003, 2005). Management/supervision quality, fairness, flexibility, and performance feedback are important and sensitive issues, which have strong and immediate effect on job performance. In this context evidence reveals that LMX has a substantially positive influence on employees' task performance and helping behaviors (Gerstner and Day, 1997), apart from work performance, LMX exerts a positive effect on employees' performance of extra-role behaviours (Wayne et al., 1997). According to Wieland Handy (2008) and Nikandrou et al. (2009) the standpoints and behaviours of managers, supervisors and peers represent important signals to employees, affecting not only their training but also their post-training behaviour. Many studies have indicated that maintaining a high-quality LMX status is beneficial to the organisation in terms of favourable employee attitudes and behaviours, which will reflect on work related outcomes (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007). Thus, such reform issues ought to be very well addressed by GACA's high authorities and HRM, and implemented by the managers and supervisors. Management needs some surveillance and inspection systems to scrutinize how such issues are addressed and utilised. Employees' feedback is required, meaning management and senior level authorities should hear from the employees and evaluate their concerns about such internal or external issues. Reforms of matters such as performance appraisal, personnel development (training) availability, promotions, health care and accommodation should take an active and effective place in GACA's motivation programme specifically:

1) Employees' performance appraisal should be very precise and effectively used, so the employee and organisation can benefit from the PA, to improve

employees' skills and performance. It should be also used as a motivational instrument.

2) Personnel development programme (Training) is a critical issue that has a strong influence on employees' performance; it must be available, sophisticated, up to date and of high quality.
3) Employees' promotions should be based on the performance appraisal grades and should not be delayed. If a delay occurs, GACA's management should determine the reasons and take immediate action to eliminate them. Employees who were entitled to promotion and did not get promoted should be compensated.
4) Employees' appraisal should be conducted more frequently than the current annual one, and it should be enhanced to an online advanced level in the future.
5) Employees' career advancement should be very clear to all personnel, which will increase employees' ambition and enhance their progression.
6) Management and supervision quality, fairness, flexibility, communication and performance feedback are very influential on job performance. Thus they should be properly managed.
7) Management and GACA's senior officials should consider immediate reformation of the motivation programme, in association with employee's PA indications. Moreover, GACA's motivation programme should be evaluated on an annual basis, and should overcome any shortcoming.
8) Health care and accommodation are very important issues, influential motivators and should be available to all employees.
9) Management should conceder increasing the retirement annuities, as living cost is becoming more expensive and prices of goods are becoming higher, but the amount of the retirement annuity is the same.

Such reforms would lead to an enhanced motivation programme that will contribute to improve employees' performance and the organisation's productivity, which is the ultimate goal.

With regard to the applicability of Western theories, e.g. Herzberg, Adams, and LMX in Arab countries, such as in the Saudi context, the contextual relevance of such theories as well as the practices inherent to their persistent generic application are widely studied (e.g. Avolio et al., 2004; Gelfand et al., 2007; Walumbwa et al., 2005, 2007). Such theories are relevant and applicable to organisations in different contexts, e.g. the Saudi context, as organisations in the Saudi context are already acknowledging, adopting and familiar with such theories because they are very much related to business organisation. However, a question remains as to how they are implemented, as in the Saudi context as reflected in GACA the execution of such theories is far from being correct, as there are many factors which influence such implementation, e.g. SON and organisation culture. This applies to such Western theories in particular and HRM practices in general (Bratton and Gold, 2012; Gelfand et al., 2007).

To be more specific in relation to Herzberg's theory, the strategies theoretically or it can be said officially used by GACA are consistent with Herzberg's theory; they include a range of intrinsic factors, e.g. training courses, skills development and also extrinsic factors, for example promotions, bonuses, and rewards. However, in some ways the findings challenge the theory. For example, the positive relationship between PB and PR *H1,* suggests that hygiene factors, when available, do motivate individual employees, it also supports that PFP and other hygiene factors are dominant and do motivate personnel (Agarwal, 2010; Fuller and Farrington, 1999; Gilbert, 2013) rather than being merely 'hygiene' factors as Herzberg suggests. In practice, however, incentives were not equally available to all employees, that is why many employees were dissatisfied, unhappy and

disappointed as expressed by many of them. Moreover, the operation of SON in Saudi culture may mean that intrinsic and extrinsic factors are linked in complex ways, so that relationships at work are not simply a motivator in themselves but may influence or control access to hygiene factors also.

With regard to Adams' Equity theory, consistent with the theory, GACA employees compared their outcomes with those of others in the organisation, and when they perceived unfairness and inequity, they were dissatisfied. A distinctive cultural finding was that unfairness was perceived as due to SON, which was not explicitly covered by Adams. However, given the prevalence of SON, it is likely that some managers gave incentives and rewards based on SON, and that some employees may have benefited from SON. Those who did not benefit would perceive such practices as unfair, but it is possible that in such a culture, others may have accepted them. It was not possible to ascertain this within this study. However in the author's view the reaction of GACA's employees to such unfair practice or use of power or authority is an indication of the applicability of the theory in a different context, in this study, the Saudi context.

In relation to LMX, findings support the view that those with high-quality LMX have more access to resources, and also support the relationship between LMX and PR *H9*. However there is some contradiction with LMX, because LMX suggests that relations with the out-group are more governed by formal contract, but in GACA, out-group employees (in the sense of those that did not have good SON) sometimes did not even get what they were entitled to by formal contract, which indicates that the practice of power and how it is implemented is not conductive to better job performance.

Thus, the Western theories are applicable to the extent that the evidence shows GACA employees want and value the same kinds of incentives and relationships advocated in the theories, and such factors seem to be related to job performance. However, the

implementation is more difficult because of other values and practices deeply rooted in Saudi culture such as (SON). These historically had an important role in enabling people to survive and prosper in a challenging environment, and may be thought to reflect important social values such as solidarity and mutual assistance, at least for those who are able to use them. Western theories do not take account of such competing value systems and their impact. In a country like SA, which is in transition, where traditional and modern social values exist side by side, this makes application of Western theories more complex.

Another point worth noting is that Western theories claim general applicability, irrespective of gender. However, SA is a society with a high level of gender segregation. Men and women are assigned different social roles, and assumed to have (or expected to display) different characteristics. It is not clear how this may affect motivation. For example, findings in this study showed male employees' concerns about PB in the light of the burden of family expenses (which are traditionally men's responsibility). It is possible that women may have different priorities. However, the present study was only able to capture the reaction of male employees in a single-sex environment.

7.8. Conclusion

The present chapter has discussed the findings of the statistical analyses. It started with the nine hypotheses that were generated based on the research questions, the conceptual framework and in accordance with the relevant literature. The hypotheses represent the proposed relationships among the four constructs of the motivation independent variable i.e. PB, JS, MG and WE, the mediator LMX and the dependent variable, which is job performance, with its four dimensions, i.e. DR, AR, SK and CF. All but two hypotheses were supported, the exceptions being *H4* and *H8*, which were rejected, as the relationships were not significant.

Based on the respondents' answers and according to the analysis of the findings, GACA's motivation system does not contribute to better work performance. GACA claims that its motivation system is working as it should, but in reality, according to the respondents, it is not. With regard to GACA's motivation system and its influence on the employees, a high percentage of the participants expressed that they were not influenced by and unhappy with GACA's motivation system and how GACA's motivation programme is actually conducted. GACA's motivation system requires intensive reforms. GACA employees were disappointed and dissatisfied with GACA's motivation programme, for a variety of reasons, e.g. lack of personnel development (training) courses, long delay of promotions, uncertainty of employees' career advancement, and absence of health care and accommodation. Successful and effective HRM should be mindful about the importance of personnel in achieving the organisation's goals, and that it is the duty of HRM to perform its responsibilities and implement its practices e.g. motivating, training, supporting, preparing or setting the appropriate workplace climate for employees, which are of paramount significance in achieving these goals. Thus the accomplishments and effectiveness of skilled employees will not be invested and exploited if they are not motivated to perform the required duties and responsibilities, as the level of employees' performance relies not only on their knowledge and actual skills but also on the extent and type of motivation (Burney and Widener, 2007). It is clear that motivation, e.g. extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors predict important organisational outcomes, e.g. job performance (Reio and Callahan, 2004). With relevance to the LMX theory, leaders or supervisors often engage in continuous role-making processes and resource exchanges with their subordinates. As has been emphasised, in organisations, the manager or supervisor is a key job resources provider. Thus, employees' PA, training and developmental programmes, motivation system and LMX ought to be effective, factual, well implemented and managed based on equity and

equality. This is necessary for an organisation to yield high performance on both individual and organisational level, which will reflect on its productivity. This does not mean there will not be any low-quality LMX relationships, but it means that the out-group members should receive their fair share according to their actual and factual job performance.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

8.1. Introduction

Employees' motivation plays an important role in enhancing employees' job performance in business organisations. This role continues to expand in scope and complexity and affects business operations dramatically. Employees' performance is a function of Motivation, training and skills improvement, LMX, justice, HRM practices, HRD, etc, whereby employees are motivated and a proper environment of work is provided to them. The Middle East region generally suffers from a lack of research in many fields, particularly HRM and its related functions (Ferguson and Reio, 2010). The aim of this study was to investigate the nature of GACA's motivation programme, its effectiveness and effect on employees' job performance. This chapter assesses the main conclusions of this study in the light of the research objectives and questions. It includes the limitations that were encountered by the researcher in this study and recommendations for future studies.

8.2. Conclusion

For organisations to have high employees' performance it is almost mandatory and imperative for them to motivate their personnel to work towards the organisation's goals. Organisations that learn effective tactics for utilizing and managing their employees for high job performance and productivity will be victorious in the long term. They should know how to emphasize the importance of work and have motivated personnel in a way that would direct or lead toward organisational effectiveness and high productivity. Employees' motivation is a complex and dynamic process which involves many disciplinary boundaries, including economics, HRM, psychology, HRD and sociology. Thus, employees' motivation ought to be viewed in a holistic manner. This research has explored identified gaps in knowledge in regard to HR practices and job performance,

the interactive impact of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors on performance, and the impact of Public Service Motivation (PSM) on work motivation. It has explored, investigated and evaluated the linkage between antecedents, mediators, and consequences of variables such as motivation, management, equity, LMX, HRD and job performance in public organisations, the influence of national culture and human resource development on work values, the process or mechanisms by which LMX's high or low quality relationships affect employees' job performance and research that examined the relationship between LMX and employee performance in public administration.

Based on the literature and previous scholars' and practitioners' studies regarding motivation theories, LMX and employees' performance, this thesis developed a reliable and validated framework which theoretically and empirically investigated the links between employees' motivation, LMX and employees' job performance based on the research hypotheses. The findings of this thesis were based on a quantitative dataset by adopting the positivist paradigm and a deductive approach via questionnaires collected from GACA's employees in the headquarters in Jeddah (Saudi Arabia). Consequently, the four research questions were answered and the study's objectives were fulfilled. In addition, it is believed that this thesis has further advanced the literatures of HRM practices, LMX and HRD in relation to employees' motivation, LMX and their influences on employees' job performance.

In this thesis employees' motivation, LMX and their effects on employees' job performance were investigated. It was found that HRM practices play an influential role in implementing employees' motivation system, employees' training and skills development, and also LMX, and consequently employees' job performance and organisation productivity. Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation factors both affect

individual performance. Promotion, pay for performance or rewards in the form of compensation, bonuses generally affect extrinsic motivation, while verbal appreciation, training and development affect intrinsic motivation. Aligning individual employees' goals with the goals of the organisation is an important task that should be considered carefully. The motivational arsenal is so powerful, it is one of the main challenges for managers or leaders to make sure that their reward or compensation system is not motivating the wrong kinds of behaviour. Employees are the important cause of high organisational performance and productivity, so organisations will be more productive, profitable and successful when they value their employees and view their personnel as an asset, not as a cost. Educating, training and improving employees will add to the organisation's performance and to the economy of the country in general; even if they go on to work somewhere else, it is a gain, not a loss. Leaders and decision makers ought to look from a broader perspective or a holistic point of view, recognizing that having an educated, cultured, valuable community is much better than otherwise. Investing in employee training and development is vital for maintaining and developing the skills, knowledge and abilities of both individual employees and the organisation as a whole. Furthermore, in accordance with the LMX, when organisations invest in their employees via the leader, employees tend to reciprocate in positive ways. Simply put, when employees are offered motivational incentives or inducements in the form of developmental opportunities, financial reward, etc, they become personally and prosocially motivated. Thus, in return, they are willing to expend their effort, which will benefit the organisation.

Leaders, managers or supervisors are considered as the first level of management who interact with subordinates and are given major duties and responsibilities to lead the work with their individual employees in organisations. Effectiveness of leadership will always result in better employees' performance. In that context, literature indicates that

when leaders or supervisors are supportive of subordinates, this treatment leads to favourable outcomes for the employee and the organisation. Such leadership effectiveness would include many missions or functions, e.g. performance feedback on a day to day level and annually as a performance appraisal, equitable treatment and evaluations which imply equity and equality. Performance appraisal or employees' evaluations are a very important and powerful instrument, which should be employed effectively by the leader or manager to provide beneficial outcomes in terms of employees' motivation and job performance. Also, clear and effective communication is considered as a very essential and central part of organisational life. Organisations cannot exist without communication; thus, it is ought to be on high quality level that would be beneficial to all parties. Supportive, motivating and effective leadership, justice, and high quality communications are some of the important factors or functions of a healthy workplace environment for employees to perform in and will enhance employees' job performance. As mentioned earlier, public sector organisations and organisations in general should view employees' motivation and development in a holistic manner. This broader view will enable policy and decision makers to structure motivation programmes to more effectively promote employees' motivation, overcome the shortcomings of potential negative incentives effects and hence, improve personnel performance. Also, a better understanding of the importance of employees in organisations would support the perspective of employee-centered management. This practice would motivate employees to improve their performance.

8.3. Limitations of the Study

The following points were noted by the researcher as encountered limitations:

- The researcher requested access to the headquarters and all other sectors related to GACA in various airports in SA to distribute as many questionnaires as possible, but he was only granted access to the headquarters where he distributed only 480. It may be suggested that if the researcher had been granted access to other sectors, it would have contributed more to the findings of the study.

- The researcher also requested formal and informal interviews with some of GACA's personnel, e.g. department managers and engineers, to make the study a mixed method one, which would provide deeper insight into personnel reactions to GACA's motivation system and LMX. However, again, the access afforded was confined to distribution of questionnaires within the headquarters' different departments. Data accessibility is difficult sometimes. This could be the case because of the sensitivity of the subject, as it was mentioned earlier for example the researcher was contacted by phone by many employees to add an item in the questionnaire asking, how many promotions had an employee obtained during his career with GACA. Also it could be an organisational culture as individuals employees, e.g. managers do not like to disclose information/data related to some issues because they think they will be accountable for it.

- This study was limited to GACA which is one of the public sector organisations. A broader perspective might have been obtained by including other private sector organisation.

- In Saudi Arabia, public sector organisations such as GACA employ only men, with the exception of some fields e.g. education, medical and business where there are separate departments or sectors for women, as explained in the literature chapter. Thus, the data of this study was collected from male participants. However, exploring the insights of female employees could have provided the study with deeper and richer data regarding female employees' views related to employees' motivation, LMX and job performance, as it is possible that men and women may have different priorities and needs, and be motivated differently, especially in a culture with very distinct gender roles.

- Some of the excluded respondents' replies reflect their unawareness of the questionnaire's importance in contributing to better outcomes to enhance GACA's motivation programme and LMX, which will reflect on enhancing employees' performance and the organisation's productivity. This could be because of the lack of research and/or unfamiliarity with the research culture in SA.

8.4. Recommendations for Future Research

In regard to further recommendations, the author believes that the present research opens the horizon to future studies in a number of areas, as follows:

- There is a need for more studies on HRM practices in the public sector, e.g. motivation, HRD, performance appraisal, employees' performance, HRM practices implementations and effectiveness, with regard to the context of Saudi Arabia and generally in other countries.

- Qualitative or mixed method studies should be conducted with regard to administration, HRM practices, and their implementations with an emphasis on formal and informal interviews, which will enrich the study and could disclose other dimensions that uncovered by a questionnaire.

- Antecedents and consequences of employees' motivation, LMX, and workplace climate should receive more attention from researchers as they have strong influence on employees' job performance, whether directly or indirectly, i.e. as mediators or moderators.

- Studies in the aforementioned domains, e.g. administration, HRM practices, LMX, workplace climate, should give more thought and attention to the insights of female managers and employees, to provide a more complete picture. In a segregated society such as SA, this may require separate studies by male and female researchers. However, arrangements should be made for coordination between them, to exchange, consider, compare, and evaluate their points of views or perspectives.

- Motivation, LMX and job performance are very broad and dynamic topics, involving many related issues such as policies, economic, cultural, and other external factors. Thus, more studies are needed. Employees' concerns need to be studied, considered, and evaluated so some actual outcomes can be obtained.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Table 1.1 Missing values results

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing	
				Count	Percent
EP	319	19.64	9.046	0	.0
Age	319	43.45	8.483	0	.0
Education	319	2.55	.791	0	.0
Position	319	4.53	1.350	0	.0
Income	319	3.50	.785	0	.0
PB2	319	2.83	.868	0	.0
PB3	319	3.53	1.027	0	.0
PB5	319	3.10	1.006	0	.0
PB6	319	3.99	1.155	0	.0
PB7	319	2.92	1.000	0	.0
PB8	319	2.52	.872	0	.0
PB9	319	2.27	1.206	0	.0
PB10	319	1.82	1.150	0	.0
PB11	319	1.88	1.114	0	.0
PB12	319	2.14	1.083	0	.0
PB13	319	2.25	1.172	0	.0
PB14	319	1.92	1.037	0	.0
PB15	319	1.76	1.025	0	.0
PB16	319	2.09	1.033	0	.0
PB17	319	1.82	1.119	0	.0
PB18	319	1.99	.994	0	.0
PB19	319	1.69	1.120	0	.0
JS1	319	2.26	1.179	0	.0
JS2	319	3.50	1.357	0	.0
JS3	319	2.46	1.154	0	.0
JS4	319	4.05	1.220	0	.0
JS5	319	3.71	1.232	0	.0
JS6	319	1.71	1.072	0	.0
JS7	319	1.73	1.097	0	.0
JS8	319	2.09	1.095	0	.0
JS9	319	1.75	1.022	0	.0
JS10	319	1.80	1.143	0	.0
JS11	319	3.23	1.267	0	.0
JS12	319	3.22	1.193	0	.0
MG1	319	2.33	.994	0	.0

MG2	319	2.42	1.223	0	.0
MG3	319	3.45	1.344	0	.0
MG4	319	3.15	1.285	0	.0
MG5	319	2.50	1.226	0	.0
MG6	319	2.50	1.236	0	.0
MG7	319	3.24	1.333	0	.0
MG8	319	2.10	1.155	0	.0
MG9	319	3.09	1.346	0	.0
MG10	319	2.95	1.274	0	.0
MG11	319	3.20	1.266	0	.0
MG12	319	2.13	1.076	0	.0
WE1	319	1.64	.846	0	.0
WE2	319	1.36	.682	0	.0
WE3	319	1.24	.651	0	.0
WE4	319	3.79	1.177	0	.0
WE5	319	4.33	.932	0	.0
WE6	319	3.54	1.245	0	.0
WE7	319	3.31	1.383	0	.0
WE8	319	4.66	.820	0	.0
WE9	319	2.91	1.465	0	.0
WE10	319	2.77	1.397	0	.0
WE11	319	3.70	1.260	0	.0
WE12	319	3.22	1.297	0	.0
WE13	319	3.26	1.268	0	.0
WE14	319	1.51	.760	0	.0
WE15	319	1.73	.964	0	.0
WE16	319	3.35	1.472	0	.0
WE17	319	1.96	1.140	0	.0
DR1	319	3.86	1.312	0	.0
DR2	319	3.50	1.281	0	.0
DR3	319	3.23	1.445	0	.0
DR4	319	3.31	1.315	0	.0
DR5	319	3.38	1.247	0	.0
DR6	319	3.71	1.282	0	.0
DR7	319	2.31	1.334	0	.0
DR8	319	3.99	1.259	0	.0
DR9	319	4.28	1.149	0	.0
DR10	319	2.77	1.210	0	.0
DR11	319	3.02	1.172	0	.0
DR12	319	3.65	1.054	0	.0
AR1	319	3.78	1.262	0	.0
AR2	319	4.25	1.132	0	.0
AR3	319	2.68	1.415	0	.0
AR4	319	2.60	1.374	0	.0
AR5	319	2.68	1.436	0	.0

AR6	319	3.14	1.284	0	.0
AR7	319	4.03	1.171	0	.0
AR8	319	3.92	1.175	0	.0
AR9	319	3.79	1.178	0	.0
AR10	319	4.25	1.195	0	.0
AR11	319	4.00	1.120	0	.0
SK1	319	1.77	1.195	0	.0
SK2	319	4.24	1.123	0	.0
SK3	319	4.20	1.150	0	.0
SK4	319	4.45	.976	0	.0
SK5	319	4.45	.888	0	.0
SK6	319	4.36	.931	0	.0
SK7	319	4.30	1.007	0	.0
SK8	319	4.12	1.237	0	.0
SK9	319	4.50	1.009	0	.0
SK10	319	1.74	1.315	0	.0
SK11	319	3.69	1.146	0	.0
SK12	319	3.28	1.289	0	.0
SK13	319	1.74	1.326	0	.0
SK14	319	4.53	.944	0	.0
SK15	319	4.43	.969	0	.0
SK16	319	4.41	.973	0	.0
SK17	319	4.42	.941	0	.0
SK18	319	4.46	.941	0	.0
SK19	319	4.26	.990	0	.0
SK20	319	4.58	.999	0	.0
CF1	319	3.22	1.443	0	.0
CF2	319	3.88	1.166	0	.0
CF3	319	4.37	1.006	0	.0
CF4	319	3.58	1.121	0	.0
CF5	319	3.76	1.028	0	.0
CF6	319	3.87	1.002	0	.0
CF7	319	4.52	.938	0	.0
CF8	319	3.76	1.006	0	.0
LMX1	319	2.82	1.100	0	.0
LMX2	319	2.77	1.008	0	.0
LMX3	319	2.79	1.044	0	.0
LMX4	319	2.69	.978	0	.0
LMX5	319	2.35	.994	0	.0
LMX6	319	2.51	1.015	0	.0
LMX7	319	2.97	.954	0	.0

Appendix 2

Table 2.1 Z-Score Test

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum
Zscore(PB2)	319	-2.10583	2.50315
Zscore(PB3)	319	-2.46632	1.42851
Zscore(PB5)	319	-2.08415	1.89100
Zscore(PB6)	319	-2.59268	.87147
Zscore(PB7)	319	-1.91885	2.08189
Zscore(PB8)	319	-1.74797	2.84135
Zscore(PB9)	319	-1.05238	2.26327
Zscore(PB10)	319	-.71397	2.76322
Zscore(PB11)	319	-.79348	2.79686
Zscore(PB12)	319	-1.05408	2.64099
Zscore(PB13)	319	-1.07035	2.34406
Zscore(PB14)	319	-.88584	2.97193
Zscore(PB15)	319	-.73977	3.16083
Zscore(PB16)	319	-1.05270	2.81833
Zscore(PB17)	319	-.72846	2.84660
Zscore(PB18)	319	-1.00006	3.02542
Zscore(PB19)	319	-.61315	2.95938
Zscore(JS1)	319	-1.07171	2.32158
Zscore(JS2)	319	-1.83858	1.10869
Zscore(JS3)	319	-1.26881	2.19801
Zscore(JS4)	319	-2.50043	.77865
Zscore(JS5)	319	-2.19672	1.05127
Zscore(JS6)	319	-.66378	3.06743
Zscore(JS7)	319	-.66897	2.97892
Zscore(JS8)	319	-.99307	2.65869
Zscore(JS9)	319	-.72971	3.18250
Zscore(JS10)	319	-.69961	2.80118
Zscore(JS11)	319	-1.75947	1.39817
Zscore(JS12)	319	-1.86029	1.49243
Zscore(MG1)	319	-1.33666	2.68593
Zscore(MG2)	319	-1.15868	2.11229
Zscore(MG3)	319	-1.81871	1.15651
Zscore(MG4)	319	-1.67402	1.43975
Zscore(MG5)	319	-1.22251	2.04092
Zscore(MG6)	319	-1.21240	2.02404
Zscore(MG7)	319	-1.67628	1.32363
Zscore(MG8)	319	-.95020	2.51395
Zscore(MG9)	319	-1.55310	1.41805
Zscore(MG10)	319	-1.53272	1.60652

Zscore(MG11)	319	-1.74059	1.41872
Zscore(MG12)	319	-1.05131	2.66467
Zscore(WE1)	319	-.75184	3.47400
Zscore(WE2)	319	-.53336	3.33356
Zscore(WE3)	319	-.37538	3.76539
Zscore(WE4)	319	-2.37358	1.02562
Zscore(WE5)	319	-3.57065	.71951
Zscore(WE6)	319	-2.04146	1.17051
Zscore(WE7)	319	-1.67222	1.21905
Zscore(WE8)	319	-4.45497	.42028
Zscore(WE9)	319	-1.30326	1.42738
Zscore(WE10)	319	-1.26815	1.59586
Zscore(WE11)	319	-2.14157	1.03223
Zscore(WE12)	319	-1.71322	1.37009
Zscore(WE13)	319	-1.78228	1.37194
Zscore(WE14)	319	-.66811	3.59428
Zscore(WE15)	319	-.75474	3.39634
Zscore(WE16)	319	-1.59763	1.12047
Zscore(WE17)	319	-.84391	2.66369
Zscore(DR1)	319	-2.17672	.87212
Zscore(DR2)	319	-1.95543	1.16738
Zscore(DR3)	319	-1.54056	1.22811
Zscore(DR4)	319	-1.75453	1.28729
Zscore(DR5)	319	-1.90481	1.30170
Zscore(DR6)	319	-2.11677	1.00216
Zscore(DR7)	319	-.98194	2.01556
Zscore(DR8)	319	-2.37313	.80433
Zscore(DR9)	319	-2.85139	.63031
Zscore(DR10)	319	-1.46610	1.83910
Zscore(DR11)	319	-1.72512	1.68767
Zscore(DR12)	319	-2.51128	1.28540
Zscore(AR1)	319	-2.20662	.96416
Zscore(AR2)	319	-2.86915	.66467
Zscore(AR3)	319	-1.18938	1.63678
Zscore(AR4)	319	-1.16576	1.74522
Zscore(AR5)	319	-1.17041	1.61587
Zscore(AR6)	319	-1.66560	1.45068
Zscore(AR7)	319	-2.58978	.82755
Zscore(AR8)	319	-2.48207	.92344
Zscore(AR9)	319	-2.36514	1.02959
Zscore(AR10)	319	-2.72198	.62412
Zscore(AR11)	319	-2.67544	.89555
Zscore(SK1)	319	-.64820	2.70041
Zscore(SK2)	319	-2.88955	.67283
Zscore(SK3)	319	-2.78042	.69783

Zscore(SK4)	319	-3.33849	.55871
Zscore(SK5)	319	-3.48211	.62114
Zscore(SK6)	319	-3.51014	.68700
Zscore(SK7)	319	-3.27366	.69705
Zscore(SK8)	319	-2.52499	.70984
Zscore(SK9)	319	-3.46723	.49709
Zscore(SK10)	319	-.56022	2.48164
Zscore(SK11)	319	-2.34900	1.14032
Zscore(SK12)	319	-1.77006	1.33241
Zscore(SK13)	319	-.56040	2.45676
Zscore(SK14)	319	-3.34234	.49477
Zscore(SK15)	319	-3.54413	.58583
Zscore(SK16)	319	-3.50230	.60896
Zscore(SK17)	319	-3.43599	.61266
Zscore(SK18)	319	-3.58276	.56991
Zscore(SK19)	319	-3.29518	.74387
Zscore(SK20)	319	-3.48562	.41722
Zscore(CF1)	319	-1.53599	1.23618
Zscore(CF2)	319	-2.46835	.96260
Zscore(CF3)	319	-3.34534	.62920
Zscore(CF4)	319	-2.29793	1.26917
Zscore(CF5)	319	-2.68719	1.20481
Zscore(CF6)	319	-2.85980	1.13265
Zscore(CF7)	319	-3.55063	.51479
Zscore(CF8)	319	-2.74500	1.23073
Zscore(LMX1)	319	-1.65567	1.98053
Zscore(LMX2)	319	-1.75474	2.21520
Zscore(LMX3)	319	-1.71372	2.11589
Zscore(LMX4)	319	-1.73163	2.36015
Zscore(LMX5)	319	-1.35571	2.66728
Zscore(LMX6)	319	-1.48528	2.45489
Zscore(LMX7)	319	-2.06262	2.12830
Valid N (listwise)	319		

Appendix 3

Table: 3.1 Normality Tests of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
PB2	.224	319	.000	.866	319	.000
PB3	.240	319	.000	.890	319	.000

PB5	.188	319	.000	.899	319	.000
PB6	.269	319	.000	.802	319	.000
PB7	.214	319	.000	.891	319	.000
PB8	.356	319	.000	.772	319	.000
PB9	.275	319	.000	.829	319	.000
PB10	.327	319	.000	.722	319	.000
PB11	.285	319	.000	.764	319	.000
PB12	.307	319	.000	.818	319	.000
PB13	.288	319	.000	.834	319	.000
PB14	.284	319	.000	.777	319	.000
PB15	.306	319	.000	.732	319	.000
PB16	.286	319	.000	.828	319	.000
PB17	.319	319	.000	.729	319	.000
PB18	.303	319	.000	.797	319	.000
PB19	.392	319	.000	.655	319	.000
JS1	.303	319	.000	.825	319	.000
JS2	.272	319	.000	.845	319	.000
JS3	.277	319	.000	.870	319	.000
JS4	.271	319	.000	.752	319	.000
JS5	.306	319	.000	.824	319	.000
JS6	.320	319	.000	.681	319	.000
JS7	.322	319	.000	.689	319	.000
JS8	.294	319	.000	.813	319	.000
JS9	.291	319	.000	.716	319	.000
JS10	.322	319	.000	.712	319	.000
JS11	.290	319	.000	.852	319	.000
JS12	.289	319	.000	.855	319	.000
MG1	.238	319	.000	.885	319	.000
MG2	.270	319	.000	.847	319	.000
MG3	.265	319	.000	.857	319	.000
MG4	.266	319	.000	.868	319	.000
MG5	.279	319	.000	.860	319	.000
MG6	.290	319	.000	.850	319	.000
MG7	.240	319	.000	.880	319	.000
MG8	.251	319	.000	.810	319	.000
MG9	.233	319	.000	.881	319	.000
MG10	.265	319	.000	.858	319	.000
MG11	.274	319	.000	.869	319	.000
MG12	.270	319	.000	.829	319	.000
WE1	.288	319	.000	.685	319	.000
WE2	.405	319	.000	.545	319	.000
WE3	.480	319	.000	.426	319	.000
WE4	.332	319	.000	.797	319	.000
WE5	.303	319	.000	.700	319	.000
WE6	.317	319	.000	.831	319	.000

WE7	.301	319	.000	.836	319	.000
WE8	.459	319	.000	.480	319	.000
WE9	.258	319	.000	.840	319	.000
WE10	.255	319	.000	.843	319	.000
WE11	.322	319	.000	.806	319	.000
WE12	.296	319	.000	.852	319	.000
WE13	.310	319	.000	.844	319	.000
WE14	.344	319	.000	.646	319	.000
WE15	.280	319	.000	.717	319	.000
WE16	.279	319	.000	.829	319	.000
WE17	.305	319	.000	.755	319	.000
DR1	.255	319	.000	.792	319	.000
DR2	.237	319	.000	.874	319	.000
DR3	.243	319	.000	.854	319	.000
DR4	.303	319	.000	.846	319	.000
DR5	.278	319	.000	.849	319	.000
DR6	.275	319	.000	.827	319	.000
DR7	.282	319	.000	.817	319	.000
DR8	.291	319	.000	.770	319	.000
DR9	.356	319	.000	.667	319	.000
DR10	.207	319	.000	.887	319	.000
DR11	.219	319	.000	.896	319	.000
DR12	.227	319	.000	.888	319	.000
AR1	.298	319	.000	.807	319	.000
AR2	.342	319	.000	.690	319	.000
AR3	.272	319	.000	.849	319	.000
AR4	.268	319	.000	.854	319	.000
AR5	.253	319	.000	.853	319	.000
AR6	.254	319	.000	.872	319	.000
AR7	.269	319	.000	.785	319	.000
AR8	.247	319	.000	.816	319	.000
AR9	.243	319	.000	.849	319	.000
AR10	.373	319	.000	.661	319	.000
AR11	.279	319	.000	.793	319	.000
SK1	.300	319	.000	.647	319	.000
SK2	.326	319	.000	.692	319	.000
SK3	.325	319	.000	.705	319	.000
SK4	.386	319	.000	.604	319	.000
SK5	.347	319	.000	.636	319	.000
SK6	.315	319	.000	.677	319	.000
SK7	.290	319	.000	.674	319	.000
SK8	.303	319	.000	.709	319	.000
SK9	.418	319	.000	.552	319	.000
SK10	.386	319	.000	.595	319	.000
SK11	.361	319	.000	.788	319	.000

SK12	.250	319	.000	.876	319	.000
SK13	.396	319	.000	.598	319	.000
SK14	.417	319	.000	.552	319	.000
SK15	.370	319	.000	.629	319	.000
SK16	.362	319	.000	.648	319	.000
SK17	.357	319	.000	.647	319	.000
SK18	.386	319	.000	.619	319	.000
SK19	.286	319	.000	.719	319	.000
SK20	.467	319	.000	.472	319	.000
CF1	.277	319	.000	.844	319	.000
CF2	.313	319	.000	.795	319	.000
CF3	.350	319	.000	.664	319	.000
CF4	.186	319	.000	.890	319	.000
CF5	.244	319	.000	.871	319	.000
CF6	.259	319	.000	.855	319	.000
CF7	.427	319	.000	.577	319	.000
CF8	.227	319	.000	.876	319	.000
LMX1	.204	319	.000	.902	319	.000
LMX2	.193	319	.000	.907	319	.000
LMX3	.202	319	.000	.908	319	.000
LMX4	.240	319	.000	.889	319	.000
LMX5	.377	319	.000	.775	319	.000
LMX6	.306	319	.000	.855	319	.000
LMX7	.237	319	.000	.898	319	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Appendix 4

Table: 4.1 Data Normality Tests of Skewness and Kurtosis

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
PB2	319	.487	.137	-.050	.272
PB3	319	-.335	.137	-.676	.272
PB5	319	.046	.137	-.775	.272
PB6	319	-.876	.137	-.380	.272
PB7	319	.392	.137	-.374	.272
PB8	319	1.060	.137	.544	.272
PB9	319	.637	.137	-.854	.272
PB10	319	1.265	.137	.406	.272
PB11	319	1.151	.137	.292	.272
PB12	319	.944	.137	.110	.272
PB13	319	.735	.137	-.552	.272

PB14	319	1.169	.137	.622	.272
PB15	319	1.361	.137	1.001	.272
PB16	319	.942	.137	.297	.272
PB17	319	1.251	.137	.416	.272
PB18	319	1.096	.137	.714	.272
PB19	319	1.467	.137	.862	.272
JS1	319	.763	.137	-.528	.272
JS2	319	-.525	.137	-1.074	.272
JS3	319	.608	.137	-.542	.272
JS4	319	-1.226	.137	.387	.272
JS5	319	-.856	.137	-.342	.272
JS6	319	1.705	.137	2.186	.272
JS7	319	1.639	.137	1.884	.272
JS8	319	.981	.137	.140	.272
JS9	319	1.591	.137	2.041	.272
JS10	319	1.380	.137	.802	.272
JS11	319	-.279	.137	-1.249	.272
JS12	319	-.286	.137	-1.164	.272
MG1	319	.461	.137	-.353	.272
MG2	319	.469	.137	-1.061	.272
MG3	319	-.492	.137	-1.060	.272
MG4	319	-.212	.137	-1.256	.272
MG5	319	.493	.137	-.938	.272
MG6	319	.501	.137	-.978	.272
MG7	319	-.270	.137	-1.207	.272
MG8	319	.759	.137	-.679	.272
MG9	319	-.143	.137	-1.294	.272
MG10	319	-.068	.137	-1.353	.272
MG11	319	-.323	.137	-1.142	.272
MG12	319	.710	.137	-.574	.272
WE1	319	1.868	.137	4.265	.272
WE2	319	2.810	.137	10.584	.272
WE3	319	3.485	.137	14.251	.272
WE4	319	-1.048	.137	.183	.272
WE5	319	-1.661	.137	2.482	.272
WE6	319	-.643	.137	-.806	.272
WE7	319	-.411	.137	-1.264	.272
WE8	319	-2.793	.137	7.652	.272
WE9	319	.019	.137	-1.543	.272
WE10	319	.149	.137	-1.466	.272
WE11	319	-.954	.137	-.180	.272
WE12	319	-.420	.137	-1.126	.272
WE13	319	-.499	.137	-1.023	.272
WE14	319	2.092	.137	5.791	.272
WE15	319	1.631	.137	2.474	.272

WE16	319	-.396	.137	-1.368	.272
WE17	319	1.239	.137	.575	.272
DR1	319	-.883	.137	-.547	.272
DR2	319	-.494	.137	-.911	.272
DR3	319	-.211	.137	-1.432	.272
DR4	319	-.457	.137	-1.116	.272
DR5	319	-.293	.137	-1.251	.272
DR6	319	-.741	.137	-.693	.272
DR7	319	.855	.137	-.484	.272
DR8	319	-.976	.137	-.358	.272
DR9	319	-1.569	.137	1.321	.272
DR10	319	.441	.137	-.576	.272
DR11	319	.264	.137	-.719	.272
DR12	319	-.454	.137	-.520	.272
AR1	319	-.901	.137	-.366	.272
AR2	319	-1.454	.137	.978	.272
AR3	319	.393	.137	-1.268	.272
AR4	319	.459	.137	-1.142	.272
AR5	319	.363	.137	-1.302	.272
AR6	319	-.152	.137	-1.274	.272
AR7	319	-1.079	.137	.164	.272
AR8	319	-.889	.137	-.274	.272
AR9	319	-.752	.137	-.409	.272
AR10	319	-1.468	.137	.830	.272
AR11	319	-1.129	.137	.458	.272
SK1	319	1.791	.137	2.206	.272
SK2	319	-1.526	.137	1.316	.272
SK3	319	-1.341	.137	.583	.272
SK4	319	-1.994	.137	3.200	.272
SK5	319	-2.064	.137	4.340	.272
SK6	319	-1.765	.137	2.817	.272
SK7	319	-1.813	.137	2.904	.272
SK8	319	-1.349	.137	.576	.272
SK9	319	-2.195	.137	3.877	.272
SK10	319	1.707	.137	1.410	.272
SK11	319	-.965	.137	-.038	.272
SK12	319	-.273	.137	-1.187	.272
SK13	319	1.655	.137	1.206	.272
SK14	319	-2.330	.137	4.854	.272
SK15	319	-1.982	.137	3.441	.272
SK16	319	-1.861	.137	2.908	.272
SK17	319	-1.938	.137	3.444	.272
SK18	319	-1.960	.137	3.229	.272
SK19	319	-1.604	.137	2.252	.272
SK20	319	-2.495	.137	5.083	.272

CF1	319	-.301	.137	-1.392	.272
CF2	319	-1.054	.137	.170	.272
CF3	319	-1.792	.137	2.625	.272
CF4	319	-.294	.137	-.866	.272
CF5	319	-.524	.137	-.560	.272
CF6	319	-.690	.137	-.230	.272
CF7	319	-2.030	.137	3.253	.272
CF8	319	-.440	.137	-.632	.272
LMX1	319	-.154	.137	-.800	.272
LMX2	319	.181	.137	-.338	.272
LMX3	319	.179	.137	-.641	.272
LMX4	319	.404	.137	-.356	.272
LMX5	319	.899	.137	-.015	.272
LMX6	319	.632	.137	-.321	.272
LMX7	319	-.156	.137	-.175	.272
Valid N (listwise)	319				

Appendix 5

Table 5.1 Names of Constructs, Dimensions, Factors, and Items Code

Construct Name	Factor/Dimension Name	Item Code
Pay and Benefits	Reward and promotions	PB10
		PB11
		PB12
		PB14
		PB15
		PB16
		PB17
		PB18
		PB19
	Wages and incentives	PB2
		PB7
		PB9
		PB13
	Allowances	PB3
		PB5
Job Security	Organisation goals achievement	JS1
		JS3
		JS6
		JS7
		JS8
		JS9
		JS10

	Organisation Orientation	JS2
		JS11
		JS12
Management	Supervision	MG3
		MG4
		MG7
		MG9
		MG10
		MG11
	Fairness and trust	MG1
		MG2
		MG5
		MG6
		MG8
		MG12
Work Environment	Work conditions	WE1
		WE2
		WE3
		WE14
		WE15
		WE17
	Employee-organisation fit	WE7
		WE9
		WE10
		WE11
	Relations with colleagues & team	WE4
		WE5
		WE6
Leader Member Exchange	LMX	LMX1
		LMX2
		LMX3
		LMX4
		LMX5
		LMX6
		LMX7
Dimension Name	Factor/Sub dimension Name	Item Code
Duties and Responsibilities	Clarity of systems and standards	DR2
		DR3
		DR4
		DR5
	Self efficacy	DR7
		DR10
		DR12
Accomplishments and Results	Capacity to perform	AR9
		AR11
	Sufficiency of systems and standard	AR3
		AR4
		AR5
		AR6
Skills and Knowledge	Training and development opportunities	SK5

		SK6
		SK7
		SK8
		SK9
		SK14
		SK15
		SK16
		SK17
		SK18
		SK19
		SK20
	Task requirements	SK1
		SK3
		SK10
		SK12
		SK13
Communication and Feedback	Relations and Supervision practices	CF4
		CF5
		CF6
		CF8
	Evaluation	CF1
		CF2
		CF3

Table 5.106 Factor Loadings/Cross Loadings

	ARF1	ARF2	CFF1	CFF2	DRF1	DRF2	JSF1	JSF2	LMX	MGF1	MGF2	PBF1	PBF2	PBF3	SKF1	SKF2	WEF1	WEF2	WEF3
AR11	0.95	0.32	0.29	0.27	0.51	0.28	0.08	0.37	0.27	0.36	0.18	0.14	0.25	0.48	0.55	0.04	-0.08	0.06	0.19
AR9	0.94	0.28	0.23	0.25	0.47	0.33	0.12	0.33	0.22	0.25	0.11	0.15	0.18	0.40	0.50	0.10	-0.04	0.06	0.21
AR3	0.16	0.78	-0.01	0.17	0.34	0.13	0.24	0.27	0.30	0.29	0.33	0.29	0.37	0.16	0.19	0.27	0.11	0.16	0.11
AR4	0.24	0.83	0.08	0.31	0.38	0.28	0.38	0.30	0.26	0.21	0.23	0.32	0.34	0.30	0.22	0.31	0.08	0.21	0.11
AR5	0.25	0.82	0.06	0.25	0.40	0.22	0.33	0.34	0.39	0.34	0.36	0.27	0.41	0.22	0.23	0.27	0.07	0.29	0.19
AR6	0.36	0.75	0.09	0.33	0.43	0.26	0.27	0.55	0.31	0.28	0.19	0.18	0.25	0.31	0.36	0.24	0.02	0.25	0.19
CF4	0.23	0.09	0.85	0.47	0.10	0.16	0.09	0.15	0.10	0.12	0.03	0.07	0.08	0.16	0.40	-0.04	0.09	0.15	0.21
CF5	0.21	0.05	0.87	0.41	0.06	0.17	0.15	0.08	0.13	0.10	0.04	0.09	0.16	0.22	0.35	-0.03	0.08	0.08	0.20
CF6	0.25	0.08	0.88	0.45	0.10	0.09	0.12	0.21	0.10	0.13	0.04	0.07	0.11	0.20	0.39	-0.03	0.01	0.10	0.20
CF8	0.23	0.00	0.70	0.42	0.11	0.06	0.05	0.08	0.11	0.10	0.09	0.03	0.05	0.12	0.33	0.05	0.14	0.15	0.25
CF1	0.10	0.37	0.33	0.73	0.12	0.10	0.18	0.38	0.09	0.17	0.12	0.11	0.16	0.21	0.29	0.13	0.09	0.30	0.25
CF2	0.21	0.18	0.51	0.86	0.19	0.09	0.08	0.34	0.15	0.27	0.12	0.10	0.11	0.25	0.46	0.09	0.01	0.27	0.25
CF3	0.33	0.29	0.43	0.83	0.34	0.17	0.09	0.42	0.23	0.42	0.18	0.03	0.15	0.32	0.62	0.14	-0.01	0.44	0.41
DR2	0.34	0.35	0.04	0.12	0.65	0.34	0.18	0.19	0.32	0.21	0.23	0.26	0.19	0.25	0.25	0.10	-0.02	0.08	0.25
DR3	0.39	0.29	0.13	0.17	0.73	0.47	0.24	0.21	0.33	0.27	0.20	0.30	0.29	0.21	0.30	0.19	0.00	0.19	0.09
DR4	0.40	0.37	0.05	0.21	0.78	0.36	0.12	0.31	0.31	0.37	0.22	0.24	0.21	0.31	0.35	0.25	-0.07	0.25	0.17
DR5	0.41	0.45	0.09	0.29	0.82	0.50	0.25	0.46	0.43	0.48	0.32	0.22	0.39	0.33	0.42	0.33	0.05	0.26	0.34
DR10	0.29	0.22	0.12	0.07	0.50	0.87	0.19	0.19	0.22	0.12	0.01	0.20	0.17	0.21	0.25	0.29	0.03	0.07	0.18
DR11	0.33	0.19	0.28	0.19	0.44	0.82	0.19	0.17	0.18	0.14	0.10	0.24	0.20	0.26	0.27	0.18	0.03	-0.01	0.17
DR7	0.18	0.31	-0.05	0.10	0.47	0.79	0.31	0.27	0.25	0.15	0.09	0.24	0.33	0.15	0.16	0.35	0.18	0.11	0.19
JS1	0.06	0.30	0.13	0.12	0.20	0.17	0.73	0.25	0.19	0.13	0.22	0.33	0.38	0.23	0.14	0.25	0.20	0.24	0.11
JS10	0.04	0.29	0.10	0.07	0.14	0.20	0.79	0.26	0.14	0.00	0.15	0.37	0.30	0.16	0.05	0.19	0.25	0.12	0.07
JS3	0.10	0.23	0.03	0.07	0.20	0.18	0.56	0.23	0.19	0.19	0.16	0.41	0.37	0.27	0.12	0.28	0.18	0.09	0.13

JS6	0.12	0.32	0.10	0.14	0.24	0.30	0.80	0.31	0.24	0.18	0.24	0.45	0.40	0.15	0.08	0.28	0.26	0.18	0.07
JS7	0.09	0.30	0.08	0.03	0.23	0.22	0.87	0.29	0.23	0.10	0.25	0.47	0.42	0.17	0.09	0.24	0.31	0.19	0.08
JS8	0.10	0.36	0.17	0.14	0.23	0.22	0.82	0.27	0.21	0.11	0.21	0.39	0.42	0.23	0.08	0.23	0.28	0.16	0.11
JS9	0.06	0.28	0.07	0.16	0.20	0.21	0.82	0.31	0.12	0.11	0.12	0.40	0.30	0.23	0.09	0.19	0.21	0.17	0.03
JS11	0.29	0.37	0.15	0.37	0.27	0.22	0.30	0.84	0.25	0.31	0.18	0.19	0.22	0.26	0.35	0.16	0.02	0.31	0.15
JS12	0.26	0.45	0.07	0.39	0.30	0.21	0.30	0.82	0.28	0.30	0.19	0.12	0.23	0.29	0.33	0.13	-0.01	0.23	0.17
JS2	0.34	0.26	0.16	0.33	0.40	0.15	0.21	0.66	0.20	0.32	0.18	0.15	0.23	0.44	0.44	0.10	0.00	0.29	0.13
LMX 1	0.22	0.32	0.08	0.15	0.38	0.26	0.18	0.27	0.75	0.46	0.40	0.14	0.28	0.21	0.24	0.10	0.04	0.20	0.23
LMX 2	0.22	0.28	0.09	0.20	0.38	0.21	0.09	0.25	0.73	0.41	0.44	0.25	0.30	0.27	0.23	0.10	0.05	0.21	0.18
LMX 3	0.18	0.30	0.15	0.13	0.34	0.18	0.17	0.13	0.73	0.35	0.35	0.22	0.29	0.19	0.21	0.10	0.15	0.11	0.19
LMX 4	0.09	0.28	0.02	0.06	0.26	0.14	0.23	0.17	0.68	0.30	0.40	0.17	0.28	0.18	0.10	0.10	0.17	0.17	0.19
LMX 5	0.16	0.29	0.05	0.12	0.38	0.19	0.23	0.24	0.73	0.33	0.37	0.28	0.36	0.16	0.20	0.11	0.06	0.10	0.18
LMX 6	0.18	0.25	0.08	0.09	0.27	0.17	0.21	0.23	0.69	0.29	0.34	0.24	0.38	0.16	0.20	0.13	0.15	0.08	0.18
LMX 7	0.24	0.29	0.17	0.20	0.35	0.16	0.14	0.27	0.73	0.43	0.37	0.15	0.31	0.16	0.20	0.01	0.02	0.22	0.23
MG 10	0.21	0.26	0.06	0.24	0.32	0.09	0.09	0.25	0.44	0.77	0.45	0.17	0.37	0.18	0.19	0.10	0.10	0.31	0.15
MG 11	0.25	0.25	0.13	0.32	0.34	0.10	0.09	0.29	0.39	0.81	0.33	0.08	0.30	0.22	0.24	0.06	0.07	0.33	0.13
MG 3	0.31	0.24	0.10	0.28	0.37	0.12	0.06	0.29	0.39	0.79	0.39	0.11	0.30	0.21	0.28	-0.02	0.09	0.29	0.16
MG 4	0.25	0.29	0.17	0.28	0.35	0.14	0.15	0.34	0.39	0.78	0.46	0.16	0.35	0.21	0.25	0.09	0.01	0.30	0.15
MG 7	0.27	0.30	0.04	0.32	0.35	0.21	0.19	0.40	0.42	0.73	0.30	0.15	0.27	0.20	0.27	0.13	0.08	0.32	0.16
MG 9	0.24	0.29	0.13	0.23	0.39	0.11	0.10	0.26	0.37	0.75	0.34	0.15	0.29	0.16	0.25	0.10	0.03	0.32	0.10

MG 1	0.17	0.29	0.05	0.10	0.25	0.11	0.23	0.19	0.41	0.24	0.58	0.27	0.39	0.24	0.11	0.12	0.15	0.20	0.18
MG 12	0.18	0.19	0.15	0.14	0.21	0.12	0.18	0.16	0.27	0.19	0.56	0.36	0.24	0.25	0.13	0.04	0.20	0.12	-0.01
MG 2	0.11	0.30	0.00	0.16	0.22	0.04	0.15	0.23	0.32	0.33	0.69	0.29	0.37	0.17	0.08	0.10	0.07	0.24	0.13
MG 6	0.08	0.23	0.04	0.10	0.25	0.03	0.14	0.16	0.46	0.45	0.79	0.24	0.39	0.09	0.12	0.07	0.16	0.16	0.14
MG 8	0.16	0.19	0.07	0.10	0.15	0.05	0.19	0.07	0.28	0.30	0.63	0.36	0.32	0.19	0.07	0.11	0.11	0.04	0.00
MG 5	0.06	0.24	0.00	0.10	0.22	0.03	0.15	0.16	0.39	0.42	0.76	0.24	0.40	0.14	0.10	0.11	0.17	0.15	0.18
PB1 0	0.13	0.25	0.07	0.06	0.28	0.23	0.45	0.18	0.20	0.10	0.33	0.86	0.56	0.19	0.06	0.25	0.08	0.01	0.10
PB1 1	0.08	0.19	0.01	0.02	0.24	0.19	0.34	0.09	0.15	0.12	0.30	0.78	0.50	0.16	0.04	0.22	0.02	0.01	0.10
PB1 2	0.16	0.27	0.11	0.11	0.27	0.27	0.46	0.20	0.30	0.14	0.35	0.72	0.53	0.27	0.13	0.23	0.05	0.08	0.16
PB1 4	0.12	0.25	0.11	0.04	0.29	0.29	0.43	0.07	0.30	0.17	0.36	0.78	0.52	0.11	0.14	0.29	0.15	0.05	0.13
PB1 5	0.12	0.27	0.05	0.05	0.24	0.20	0.40	0.15	0.17	0.11	0.29	0.81	0.51	0.24	0.09	0.23	0.04	0.02	0.04
PB1 6	0.18	0.30	-0.01	0.09	0.23	0.16	0.36	0.21	0.14	0.13	0.23	0.68	0.37	0.20	0.09	0.20	0.05	0.01	0.01
PB1 7	0.12	0.27	0.07	0.10	0.31	0.21	0.45	0.18	0.23	0.17	0.36	0.85	0.55	0.23	0.13	0.28	0.08	0.13	0.11
PB1 8	0.12	0.29	0.11	0.17	0.31	0.21	0.38	0.20	0.36	0.25	0.43	0.78	0.56	0.18	0.15	0.24	0.15	0.09	0.21
PB1 9	0.09	0.27	0.06	0.04	0.22	0.18	0.40	0.10	0.19	0.07	0.28	0.83	0.50	0.17	0.05	0.23	0.06	0.01	0.06
PB1 3	0.17	0.31	0.12	0.07	0.25	0.16	0.40	0.15	0.30	0.29	0.40	0.58	0.77	0.23	0.16	0.18	0.15	0.09	0.14
PB2	0.18	0.34	0.03	0.16	0.24	0.21	0.31	0.24	0.33	0.28	0.37	0.44	0.70	0.35	0.25	0.29	0.10	0.16	0.14
PB7	0.25	0.37	0.14	0.22	0.40	0.30	0.34	0.32	0.40	0.39	0.42	0.39	0.79	0.37	0.25	0.31	0.14	0.22	0.26

PB9	0.12	0.31	0.09	0.07	0.26	0.19	0.40	0.18	0.32	0.29	0.41	0.56	0.80	0.22	0.11	0.23	0.12	0.16	0.21
PB3	0.42	0.32	0.15	0.25	0.31	0.15	0.15	0.34	0.21	0.24	0.21	0.16	0.27	0.81	0.42	0.12	-0.02	0.11	0.17
PB5	0.38	0.23	0.21	0.28	0.32	0.26	0.28	0.36	0.24	0.20	0.21	0.24	0.35	0.89	0.36	0.14	0.10	0.10	0.20
SK14	0.48	0.25	0.35	0.47	0.36	0.19	0.07	0.39	0.18	0.29	0.07	0.09	0.14	0.38	0.85	0.09	0.00	0.24	0.36
SK15	0.44	0.21	0.37	0.49	0.33	0.25	0.07	0.39	0.19	0.25	0.11	0.07	0.20	0.33	0.81	0.15	-0.09	0.23	0.37
SK16	0.45	0.27	0.37	0.49	0.33	0.20	0.08	0.37	0.18	0.21	0.08	0.06	0.12	0.42	0.82	0.13	-0.01	0.19	0.34
SK17	0.51	0.30	0.41	0.44	0.37	0.21	0.09	0.38	0.20	0.26	0.12	0.09	0.14	0.34	0.83	0.12	0.03	0.21	0.39
SK18	0.48	0.23	0.36	0.42	0.35	0.24	0.10	0.35	0.23	0.24	0.11	0.09	0.17	0.37	0.84	0.11	-0.03	0.18	0.30
SK19	0.44	0.18	0.39	0.39	0.30	0.24	0.04	0.21	0.12	0.17	0.09	0.07	0.15	0.34	0.75	0.18	0.00	0.15	0.31
SK20	0.55	0.23	0.36	0.46	0.36	0.15	0.03	0.36	0.25	0.32	0.14	0.06	0.15	0.31	0.83	0.10	-0.12	0.19	0.31
SK5	0.40	0.24	0.41	0.47	0.41	0.25	0.12	0.35	0.25	0.28	0.14	0.06	0.24	0.41	0.81	0.20	0.04	0.30	0.49
SK6	0.42	0.31	0.36	0.50	0.40	0.22	0.08	0.45	0.29	0.30	0.19	0.13	0.31	0.38	0.79	0.18	-0.09	0.25	0.43
SK7	0.35	0.22	0.34	0.41	0.21	0.15	0.17	0.40	0.21	0.20	0.11	0.10	0.20	0.32	0.70	0.23	0.05	0.29	0.32
SK8	0.26	0.16	0.22	0.32	0.24	0.13	0.09	0.25	0.11	0.13	-0.04	0.10	0.13	0.29	0.56	0.17	-0.03	0.13	0.35
SK9	0.43	0.27	0.34	0.44	0.40	0.22	0.12	0.35	0.30	0.29	0.16	0.12	0.31	0.35	0.73	0.16	-0.12	0.29	0.39
SK1	0.07	0.30	-0.09	0.04	0.20	0.30	0.25	0.11	0.00	-0.02	0.06	0.27	0.24	0.18	0.12	0.83	0.08	0.10	0.07
SK10	0.03	0.32	-0.07	0.03	0.19	0.33	0.29	0.09	0.09	0.04	0.13	0.28	0.31	0.07	0.07	0.86	0.09	0.09	0.08
SK12	0.06	0.25	0.05	0.24	0.34	0.18	0.19	0.19	0.21	0.19	0.15	0.20	0.26	0.13	0.32	0.77	0.01	0.25	0.25
SK13	0.07	0.28	0.00	0.05	0.18	0.34	0.31	0.12	0.04	0.03	0.09	0.30	0.26	0.12	0.10	0.85	0.11	0.05	0.09
WE1	0.03	0.10	0.05	0.00	-0.01	0.09	0.24	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.15	0.06	0.14	0.05	0.01	0.13	0.78	0.23	0.17
WE14	-0.02	0.06	0.04	0.01	-0.01	0.02	0.24	-0.01	0.11	0.06	0.13	0.14	0.11	0.03	-0.08	0.01	0.71	0.21	0.09

WE15	0.00	0.07	0.03	-0.09	-0.04	0.08	0.28	-0.02	0.13	0.09	0.17	0.05	0.17	0.14	-0.01	0.04	0.71	0.17	0.13
WE17	-0.07	0.11	0.13	0.21	0.07	0.11	0.24	0.15	0.21	0.14	0.18	0.04	0.18	0.05	0.05	0.12	0.66	0.31	0.30
WE2	-0.09	0.01	0.12	0.00	-0.05	0.12	0.21	-0.05	-0.01	0.00	0.12	0.09	0.09	0.05	-0.11	-0.01	0.79	0.19	0.13
WE3	-0.14	0.00	0.00	-0.02	-0.03	-0.04	0.10	-0.09	-0.01	0.03	0.09	0.03	-0.01	-0.11	-0.11	0.01	0.61	0.15	0.09
WE10	-0.01	0.21	0.08	0.26	0.17	-0.02	0.20	0.23	0.16	0.31	0.24	0.04	0.20	0.06	0.17	0.14	0.29	0.82	0.19
WE11	0.13	0.18	0.17	0.38	0.27	0.05	0.10	0.32	0.20	0.33	0.10	0.03	0.09	0.14	0.28	0.10	0.17	0.77	0.31
WE7	0.03	0.23	0.12	0.34	0.17	0.14	0.17	0.24	0.21	0.26	0.12	0.03	0.18	0.13	0.23	0.20	0.20	0.73	0.35
WE9	0.05	0.27	0.08	0.33	0.24	0.05	0.21	0.32	0.13	0.37	0.16	0.09	0.16	0.06	0.23	0.12	0.27	0.83	0.23
WE4	0.13	0.20	0.16	0.30	0.23	0.14	0.09	0.08	0.29	0.21	0.20	0.16	0.25	0.13	0.28	0.20	0.22	0.23	0.80
WE5	0.24	0.15	0.30	0.44	0.27	0.21	0.10	0.26	0.20	0.19	0.10	0.08	0.17	0.23	0.56	0.10	0.11	0.37	0.82
WE6	0.13	0.12	0.14	0.15	0.17	0.17	0.07	0.10	0.18	0.03	0.13	0.08	0.18	0.14	0.26	0.14	0.20	0.20	0.79

Note: Accomplishment and Results Factor1&2 (ARF1) & (ARF2), Communication and Feedback Factor1&2 (CFF1) & (CFF2). Duties and Responsibilities Factor1&2 (DRF1) & (DRF2), Job Security Factor1&2 (JSF1) & (JSF2), Leader Member Exchange (LMX), Management Factor1&2 (MGF1) & (MGF2), Pay and Benefits Factor1, 2 &3 (PBF1), (PBF2) & (PBF3), Skills and Knowledge Factor1&2 (SKF1) & (SKF2), Work Environment Factor1, 2 &3 (WEF1), (WEF2) & (WEF3), N=319.

Appendix 6

Table 6.1 Harman's single-factor Test for CMV via Single Factor Extracted

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	18.066	19.426	19.426	18.066	19.426	19.426	9.516	10.233	10.233
2	8.661	9.312	28.738	8.661	9.312	28.738	7.549	8.117	18.350
3	4.973	5.348	34.086	4.973	5.348	34.086	4.622	4.969	23.319
4	4.164	4.477	38.563	4.164	4.477	38.563	4.389	4.719	28.038
5	3.448	3.707	42.271	3.448	3.707	42.271	4.308	4.632	32.670
6	2.707	2.910	45.181	2.707	2.910	45.181	3.401	3.657	36.327
7	2.560	2.752	47.933	2.560	2.752	47.933	3.251	3.496	39.823
8	2.274	2.445	50.378	2.274	2.445	50.378	3.137	3.373	43.197
9	2.119	2.278	52.656	2.119	2.278	52.656	2.869	3.085	46.282
10	1.993	2.143	54.799	1.993	2.143	54.799	2.791	3.001	49.283
11	1.830	1.968	56.767	1.830	1.968	56.767	2.520	2.710	51.993
12	1.644	1.768	58.535	1.644	1.768	58.535	2.335	2.511	54.503
13	1.479	1.590	60.126	1.479	1.590	60.126	2.211	2.378	56.881
14	1.439	1.547	61.672	1.439	1.547	61.672	2.194	2.359	59.240
15	1.388	1.493	63.165	1.388	1.493	63.165	1.874	2.015	61.255
16	1.298	1.396	64.561	1.298	1.396	64.561	1.707	1.836	63.090
17	1.262	1.357	65.918	1.262	1.357	65.918	1.699	1.827	64.918

18	1.209	1.300	67.219	1.209	1.300	67.219	1.507	1.620	66.538
19	1.108	1.191	68.410	1.108	1.191	68.410	1.469	1.579	68.117
20	1.016	1.092	69.502	1.016	1.092	69.502	1.288	1.385	69.502
21	.959	1.031	70.533						
22	.949	1.020	71.553						
23	.927	.997	72.550						
24	.877	.943	73.494						
25	.848	.911	74.405						
26	.826	.888	75.294						
27	.803	.864	76.158						
28	.769	.827	76.985						
29	.739	.795	77.779						
30	.724	.779	78.558						
31	.693	.745	79.303						
32	.690	.741	80.045						
33	.672	.723	80.768						
34	.645	.694	81.462						
35	.632	.679	82.141						
36	.602	.647	82.788						
37	.588	.632	83.420						
38	.571	.614	84.034						
39	.554	.596	84.630						
40	.535	.575	85.206						
41	.531	.571	85.777						
42	.513	.552	86.328						
43	.497	.534	86.862						
44	.481	.517	87.379						
45	.474	.510	87.889						
46	.462	.497	88.386						
47	.445	.478	88.864						
48	.432	.465	89.328						
49	.410	.441	89.769						
50	.402	.432	90.202						
51	.392	.421	90.623						
52	.374	.402	91.025						
53	.371	.399	91.424						
54	.367	.395	91.819						
55	.347	.373	92.192						
56	.338	.364	92.555						
57	.329	.354	92.909						
58	.321	.346	93.255						
59	.306	.329	93.583						

60	.296	.319	93.902						
61	.284	.305	94.207						
62	.276	.297	94.504						
63	.264	.284	94.788						
64	.258	.277	95.065						
65	.248	.266	95.331						
66	.242	.260	95.591						
67	.241	.259	95.851						
68	.232	.249	96.100						
69	.223	.240	96.339						
70	.215	.232	96.571						
71	.206	.222	96.793						
72	.193	.208	97.001						
73	.192	.206	97.207						
74	.188	.202	97.409						
75	.186	.200	97.609						
76	.178	.192	97.800						
77	.176	.189	97.990						
78	.167	.180	98.169						
79	.154	.165	98.334						
80	.152	.164	98.498						
81	.150	.161	98.659						
82	.140	.151	98.810						
83	.140	.151	98.961						
84	.132	.142	99.103						
85	.124	.134	99.236						
86	.114	.123	99.359						
87	.106	.114	99.472						
88	.102	.110	99.583						
89	.092	.099	99.681						
90	.087	.093	99.775						
91	.080	.086	99.861						
92	.068	.073	99.934						
93	.062	.066	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 7

Questionnaire (Arabic and English versions) along with the covering letter

- Questionnaire (Arabic version)

استبيان عن حوافز الهيئة العامة للطيران المدني للموظفين وأثرها على الأداء الوظيفي

هذا الاستبيان يهدف إلى قياس الحوافز في الهيئة العامة للطيران المدني وأثرها على الأداء الوظيفي. وهو جزء من رسالة دكتوراه في إدارة الأعمال. لذا أكون ممتنا لو تفضلتم بإعطائي جزءاً من وقتكم الثمين علماً بأن جميع البيانات سوف تظل سرية تماما، ولن تستخدم إلا لغرض هذا البحث العلمي، ونأمل أن تساهم نتائج هذه الدراسة في تطوير ورقي نظام الحوافز فى الهيئة العامة للطيران المدني مما سيعود بالفائدة والنفع علي الموظفين وتحسين مستوي الاداء والانتاج ان شاء الله.

اخي الكريم: إن إجابتك لهذا الاستبيان تعني الموافقة على استخدام الاجابات لأغراض البحث العلمي. اشكرلكم حسن تعاونكم وتقبلوا فائق تقديري.

الباحث: سقاف أبوبكر العيدروس

الرجاء ان كان لديك اي ملاحظة أو استفسار، فضلاً لا تتردد في الاتصال بي علي

هاتف جوال:00966560666855

أو إرسال رسالة الكترونية علي

E-mail: S.Alaidarous@2006.hull.ac.uk

فضلا اكتب أو اختر الإجابة المناسبة بوضع علامة صح [✓] في المربع المناسب ومن ثم انتقل إلى السؤال التالي مشكورا.

ا- الأسئلة العامة:

1- عدد سنوات الخدمة =

2- العمر =

3- المستوى التعليمى:

المستوى التعليمى	الثانوية أو أقل	دبلوم	بكالوريوس	تعليم عالي

4- مركزك الوظيفي:

مركزك الوظيفي	مدير عام	مدير قسم- قطاع	مهندس	مشرف	فني أجهزة إلكترونية	أخرى

5- الراتب الشهري:

الراتب الشهري	أقل من 5000 ريال	10000 -5001 ريال	15000-10001 ريال	25000-15001 ريال	أكثر من 25001 ريال

ب - كيف تقيم هيئة الطيران المدني في المجالات التالية:

	البيان	جيد جدا	جيد	متوسط	ضعيف	ضعيف جدا	غيرمتوفر
6	جودة الخدمات الصحية (الطبية)						
7	التدريب والتطوير الوظيفي (الدورات التدريبية)						
8	تقييم الأداء الوظيفي (مدي الرضا والاقتناع بعدالة التقييم السنوي)						
9	المواصلات أو بدل المواصلات						

10	السكن أو بدل السكن						
11	بدل رحلة عمل (انتداب) داخلى أو خارجي						
12	الإجازات (تفاعل الادارة مع طلب الموظف)						
13	الرواتب / الأجور (مرضي/غيرمرضي)						
14	نظام التقاعد (مرضي/غير مرضي)						

ج - الموظف وهيئة الطيران المدنى:

	البيان	أوافق	أوافق نوعا ما	محايد	لا اوافق نوعا ما	لا أوافق
15	نظام التحفيز في الهيئة يدفعني إلى بذل المزيد من الجهد والعطاء لأداء عملي					
16	واجبات ومسؤوليات ومهام عملي تحثني لتكريس وبذل المزيد من الجهد والعطاء					
17	أهداف وغايات الهيئة تحفز إرادتي للمحافظة على بذل الجهد الأفضل					
18	بشكل عام أنا مُحفّزبقوة في العمل					
19	نتائج العمل الذي أؤديه تتفق مع المعايير المحددة والأهداف					
20	لدي المقدرة لتحقيق مستوى العمل المطلوب					
21	بشكل عام الهيئة تحقق أهدافها وغاياتها					
22	لدي الثقة الكافية التي تمكنني من أداء عملي بالشكل الصحيح					
23	لدي الثقة في مقدرتي لتحسين معرفتي ومهاراتي لمواكبة المتطلبات الجديدة التي تتعلق بأداء عملي					
24	(مديري/ مشرفي) لديه القدرة ليخبرني عن كيفية تحسين معرفتي ومهاراتي المهنية لأقوم بأداء عملي بشكل أفضل					
25	أتواصل مع مديري (مشرفي) بسهولة وحرية					
26	مديري (مشرفي) رحب الصدر ويستمع لأفكاري واقتراحاتي					
27	عادة ما يرشدني مديري (مشرفي) للارتقاء بمستوي أداء عملي					
28	عادة ما يساعدني مديري (مشرفي) على إزالة العوائق والصعوبات التي أواجهها في العمل					
29	بإمكاني قول ما أراه صحيحا لمديري (مشرفي) عندما أتحدث وأتواصل معه بخصوص العمل					
30	يحدد معي مديري (مشرفي) الدورات التدريبية وفرص التطوير الوظيفي التي احتاجها لأداء عملي					
31	يقارن مديري (مشرفي) نتائج عملي الفعلية مع الأسس والمعايير المعمول بها في مجال العمل					
32	يتحدث ويتواصل معي مديري (مشرفي) علنا وبحرية تامة					
33	يستخدم مديري (مشرفي) التواصل المباشر مع الموظف وجها لوجه كثيرا					
34	بشكل عام مديري (مشرفي) متواجد ويمكن التواصل معه عندما نحتاجه					
35	أداء عملي بالشكل الصحيح يتطلب مستوي عالي من القدرة الذهنية					

36	استطيع استيعاب كيفية اداء عملي بكل سهولة					
37	أستطيع أداء عملي بكل دقة بمساعدة قليلة من الآخرين					
38	لدي المستوى الكافي من المهارات و المعرفة لاداء عملي بشكل مرضي					
39	رؤية ومهام وأهداف وتوجهات الهيئة تتماشي مع ما أفضله شخصياً					
40	ظروف عملي تتماشي مع ما أفضله					
	البيان	**أوافق**	**أوافق نوعا ما**	**محايد**	**لا اوافق نوعا ما**	**لا أوافق**
41	لدي القدرة علي التغيير والتطور عندما تكون هناك حاجة للتغيير بالهيئة					
42	تقوم الهيئة بتنظيم مناسبات العمل الاجتماعية اللازمة					
43	أحب مشاركة زملائي في حضور مناسبات العمل التي تقام					
44	أشارك وأتعاون مع زملائي في جميع مناشط العمل					
45	أشارك وأتعاون اجتماعيا مع زملائي خارج نطاق العمل					
46	ظروف العمل تساعدني في إنجاز المهام العملية في الوقت المحدد وبشكل مرضي					
47	بإمكاني استغلال ساعات العمل بشكل فعال (وبدون عوائق) لانجاز مهام ومسئوليات عملي					
48	علاقتي بزملاء العمل جيدة					
49	راتبي كافي ومناسب بالنسبة للعمل الذي أؤديه					
50	أشعر أن عملي يتسم بالأمان الوظيفي					
51	أتوقع أن تعلن الهيئة عن وجود فائض في اعداد الموظفين خلال العام القادم					
52	لا أزال أتوقع أن أكون مستمرا على رأس العمل في السنة القادمة					
53	أتوقع أن تقوم الهيئة بإعادة التنظيم الهيكلي خلال العام القادم مما سيودي إلى تعديل في هيكل الادارات ومواقع العمل					
54	لقد فكرت عدة مرات في ترك العمل والحصول علي عمل آخر					
55	أشعر بارتياح كبير عندما أثبت مقدرتي لأداء مهمات عمل ذات خاصية/سمة تنافسية					
56	أشعر بالرضى التام بما تقدمه الهيئة من دورات تدريبية وتطوير للمهارات وفرص التطوير الوظيفي					
57	أشعر بالرضى تجاه مستوى الوضوح في تطوري الوظيفي (المسار الوظيفي)					
58	لدي قناعة بالترقيات التي حصلت عليها من الهيئة					
59	بيئة وجو عملي خالية من التدخلات والمضايقات الكثيرة (من الزملاء والرؤساء)					
60	بيئة وجو عملي بنّاءة وتساعد الموظف علي أداء مهامه ومسئولياته					
61	ظروف عملي تحفيزية وتدعو إلى التفاؤل					
62	أعباء عملي كثيرة جدا وفوق ما استطيع تحمله					
63	أنا وزملائي نتعاون لإنجاز العمل في القسم الذي أعمل به					
64	لدي الشعور بأنني أنتمي إلى فريق عمل متعاون					
65	أشعر بارتياح كبير مع بيئة العمل الخاصة بي					
66	أشعر بارتياح وقناعة بتنظيم الهيئة العامة للطيران المدني بشكل عام					
67	أهداف وغايات الهيئة للمدي البعيد تتماشي وتتطابق مع					

	المتطلبات الاقليمية والدولية في مجال الطيران المدني					
68	الهيئة تحلل و تتفاعل مع المتغيرات الخارجية في مجال الطيران المدني					
69	الادارة العليا لهيئة الطيران المدني لديها رؤية واضحة للمستقبل					
	البيان	**أوافق**	**أوافق نوعا ما**	**محايد**	**لا اوافق نوعا ما**	**لا أوافق**
70	قامت الادارة العليا للطيران المدني بعمل تغييرات إيجابية للارتقاء باداء العمل					
71	الإدارة العليا للهيئة تتفاعل مع المستجدات والصعوبات الداخلية الهامة					
72	الإدارة العليا للهيئة تمتلك مهارات قيادية جيدة					
73	توجد خطط مكتوبة لإنجاز أهداف المدي القصير خلال السنة الحالية في الإدارة (القسم) الذي أعمل به					
74	مواصفات ومهام عملي تتطابق مع ما أفضله					
75	في الإدارة (القسم) الذي أعمل به الموظفين يشغلون وظائف تتماشي وتتطابق مع معرفتهم وقدراتهم					
76	أقوم بمهام ومسئوليات عملي باستقلالية وحرية					
77	في الإدارة (القسم) الذي أعمل به الإجراءات تتماشي مع المهام المطلوب إنجازها					
78	التنسيق بين إدارتي (القسم) الذي أعمل به والإدارات (الاقسام) الأخرى يجعل من السهل علي التواصل للحصول علي المعلومات الصحيحة / البيانات والأشياء الضرورية المطلوبة لإنجازالعمل					
79	تدارطريقة وإجراءات العمل في الهيئة عن طريق استخدام معايير ونظم وإجراءات المتابعة والتحكم المناسبة					
80	في الإدارة (القسم) الذي أعمل به يتم تحديد أسباب مشاكل أداء العمل والتخلص منها					
81	أعرف وأفهم الأهداف بعيدة المدي للهيئة					
82	المعلومات/ البيانات التي أحتاجها لأداء عملي بشكل صحيح متوفرة لي					
83	توافر المعلومات الصحيحة في الوقت المناسب، يسهل التواصل مع الآخرين لأداء عملي بشكل أفضل.					
84	أتواصل مع زملائي في العمل بسهولة وحرية					
85	تتوفر الأجهزة والأدوات والمواد الضرورية لأداء عملي بالشكل المطلوب					
86	في الادارة (القسم) الذي نعمل به لدينا أحدث الأجهزة والأدوات لأداء مهام و مسئوليات العمل					
87	في الإدارة (القسم) الذي أعمل به يوجد عدد كافي من الموظفين ذوي الكفاءة لأداء العمل					
88	في الإدارة (القسم) الذي أعمل به يمتلك الموظفون المعرفة والمهارات اللازمة لأداء العمل					
89	في الإدارة (القسم) الذي أعمل به يمتلك الموظفون كفاءات ومهارات عالية ذات قيمة للهيئة					
90	السياسات والإجراءات والقواعد التنظيمية المتعلقة بعملي كافية لاداء مهامي					
91	السياسات والإجراءات والقواعد والأنظمة القائمة سهلة الاتباع					
92	تم تصميم تنظيمات وإجراءات العمل القائمة بطريقة تؤدي إلى					

	تحقيق نتائج وأهداف وظيفتي.					
93	واجبات ومسؤوليات وظيفتي واضحة ويمكن القيام بها					
	البيان	**أوافق**	**أوافق نوعا ما**	**محايد**	**لا اوافق نوعا ما**	**لا أوافق**
94	تم تصميم واجبات ومسؤوليات عملي بطريقة منظمة تؤدي إلى الأداء العالي					
95	منذ التحاقي بالهيئة، حصلت على الدورات التدريبية وفرص التطوير التي أحتاجها لأداء عملي					
96	تقدم الهيئة حوافز مالية بغرض تحسين أداء الموظفين					
97	هناك أنظمة واضحة في الهيئة لسلم الرواتب والعلاوات والمكافآت					
98	أستلم راتب مجزي مقارنة بالموظفين الآخرين في الهيئة					
99	تعتمد العلاوة السنوية علي تقييم الأداء الوظيفي السنوي					
100	توفر الهيئة حوافز غير مالية مثل (شهادات تقدير، تميُّز، مشاركة، رحلات سفر، أيام راحة، الخ) بناءاً على أداء الموظف					
101	الهيئة تحاسب الموظفين الذين يحققون أداء عمل غير مرضي					
102	توجد فرص كافية لترقية الموظفين لتحفيزهم بغرض تحسين أداء عملهم					
103	لدي شعور قوي بالانتماء للهيئة					
104	ينظر الناس غيرالعاملين بالهيئة للهيئة العامة للطيران المدني علي أنها منظمة مرموقة يتطلعوا للعمل بها					
105	تدفع الهيئة رواتب مجزية لموظفيها مقارنة بالموظفين الذين يعملون في منظمات أخرى تعمل في نفس المجال					
106	توفر الهيئة (خدمات ومنافع) لموظفيها مثل: (السكن، العلاج ، ...الخ) مقارنة بغيرها من المنظمات العاملة في هذا المجال					

د - مقياس العلاقات العملية بين المدير والموظف:

تتعلق العبارات التالية بالعلاقات السائدة بينك وبين مديرك المباشر (مدير القطاع/القسم) الذي يرأسك (علاقة العمل وليست العلاقة الشخصية)، في هذا القسم صف علاقتك مع مديرك من خلال الصلاحيات المخولة له تجاهك. أرجو قراءة العبارات بحرص وعناية مع الإشارة إلى مدى انطباق كل عبارة أو وصف عليك وشكرا.

107	هل تعلم موقف مديرك لما تقوم به من مهام؟ وهل تعرف في العادة مدى رضاه عما تعمل؟	نادراً	قلما	أحياناً	غالباً	دائماً
108	كيف يفهم مديرك المشاكل التي تواجهها في العمل واحتاجاتك العملية؟	بأقل قدر	قليلاً	الي حدما	الي حد بعيد	بقدر كبير
109	ما مدى إدراك مديرك لإمكاناتك وقدراتك العملية؟	على الإطلاق	بقدر قليل	إلى حدما	في معظم الأحيان	تماماً

110	بغض النظر عن السلطات المخولة لمديرك حسب موقعة، ما هي الفرص التي يمكنه استغلالها لمساعدتك في حل مشكلات العمل؟	لا توجد فرص	ضعيفة	متوسطة	عالية	عالية جداً
111	اضافة لسلطات مديرك الرسمية، ما هي فرص دعمه وضمانه لك تحت مسئوليته؟	لا توجد فرص	ضعيفة	متوسطة	عالية	عالية جداً
112	لدي ثقة بنفسي للدفاع عن قرارات مديري وتبريرها حتى وان لم يكن موجوداً لفعل ذلك بنفسه.	لا توجد	ضعيفة	متوسطة	عالية	عالية جداً
113	كيف يمكن تصنيف علاقاتك العملية مع مديرك؟	غير فعالة	أقل من المتوسط	متوسطة	أفضل من المتوسط	فعالة تماماً

هـ - عوامل الأداء الوظيفي:

العوامل التالية قد تكون مهمة لرفع كفاءة الأداء الوظيفي للموظف في مكان عمله. فضلا ضع اشارة (✓) للدلالة على مستوى أهمية عنصر رفع كفائة الموظف من خلال ما تراه وتعتقده.

	البيان	هام جدا (5)	4	3	2	اقل اهمية (1)
114	قدرات الموظف العملية					
115	ثقة الموظف بنفسه					
116	قدرات الموظف الذهنية					
117	معرفة ومهارات الموظف					
118	توافق وتناسب وضع الموظف في الهيئة (الموظف المناسب في المكان المناسب)					
191	مدي علاقة الثقة بين الموظف والزملاء والمدير (المشرف)					
120	التزام الموظف بأداء عمله					
121	انفتاح ورحابة المدير (المشرف) مع الموظفين					
122	التواصل بين المدير (المشرف) والموظفين					
123	قناعة الموظف بالعمل الذي يؤديه					
124	فرص التطور الوظيفي					
125	دور وتوجه الهيئة نحو متطلبات العمل الخارجية					
126	توافر خطط قريبة وبعيدة المدى بالهيئة					
127	توافق وتناسب الموظف مع العمل الذي يؤديه					
128	إعطاء صلاحيات ومسؤوليات للموظف					
129	توافق وتناسق الاجراءات والمهام العملية					
130	توفر آليات الرقابة والمتابعة للاداء					
131	توفر المعلومات الضرورية لانجاز العمل					
132	الملاحظات والتعليقات من قبل المدير(المشرف) على الأداء الوظيفي					
133	الاتصال والتواصل المفتوح في بيئة العمل					
134	توفر المعدات والأدوات المطلوبة لاداء العمل					
135	توفر الموارد البشرية الكافية					

136	توفرالقوانين والأجراءات والنظم الواضحة بالهيئة					
137	الدورات والفرص التدريبية للموظف					

(أ) هل تعتقد ان نظام الهيئة للتحفيز والترقيات فعال بشكل عام؟

(ب) ما الذي يمكن إضافته أو تغييره ليصبح نظام الهيئة للتحفيز والترقيات أكثر كفاءة؟ فضلاً اكتب إجابتك وأي ملاحظات أو تعليقات اخري تراها مناسبة في السطور أدناه وشكرا.

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كيف تعتقد أنه يمكن تحسين وتعزيز أدائك الوظيفي من اجل إنتاجية أفضل؟

فضلا اكتب إجابتك وأي ملاحظات أو تعليقات إضافية تراها مناسبة في السطور أدناه وشكرا.

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شاكراً ومقدراً حسن تعاونكم معنا وبذل وقتك الثمين لمساعدتنا

الرجاء كتابة اي ملاحظة أو استفسار، بخصوص الاستبيان

التعليقات/ الملاحظات :

- Questionnaire (English version)

Survey into Motivation and its Effect on Job Performance in the General Authority of Civil Aviation (GACA) in Saudi Arabia

This questionnaire measures motivation and its effect on job performance in GACA. It is part of a PhD research project requirement.

I would be grateful if you would take some time to complete it. The answers you provide will be analysed for research purposes only, with the aim of improving GACA's employees' job performance and wellbeing. The respondents will be anonymous and your responses will be kept strictly confidential and only aggregate responses will be reported. By completing this questionnaire, you are indicating your consent for your responses to be used as part of this research.

Thank you for your kind consideration, participation and cooperation.

Should you have any comments, observations, or queries please do not hesitate to contact the author on

00966560666855.

E-mail: S.Alaidarous@2006.hull.ac.uk

Saggaf Alaidarous

To provide your answer, please tick the relevant box; once it appears you can then proceed to the next question; alternatively, tick one of the boxes under the given question – if the copy you have received is a paper one.

A: General Information

1- Employment period =

2- Age =

3- Level of Education

☐ High School or lower ☐ Diploma ☐ Bachelor Degree

☐ Postgraduate

4- Position

☐ General Manager ☐ Senior Manager ☐ Engineer

☐ Supervisor ☐ Technician ☐ Others

5- Gross salary per month

☐ Below 5,000 SR ☐ 5,001-10,000 SR ☐ 10,001-15,000 SR

☐ 15,001-25,000 SR ☐ 25,001 SR and above

B: How would you rate GACA on each of the following?

	Items	Very good	Good	Neither good nor bad	Poor	Very poor	Not applicable
6	Health care quality						
7	Personnel development (training) availability						
8	Fairness of performance evaluation						
9	Transportation or transportation financial allowance						
10	Accommodation or accommodation allowance						
11	Business trip allowance						
12	Vacation						
13	Salary/Wages						
14	Quality of retirement plan						

C: Yourself and your Organisation

	Items	Agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Disagree
15	GACA's motivation system energizes me to put in extra effort to perform my job.					
16	My job's duties and responsibilities stimulate me to dedicate my effort.					
17	My organisation's goals and objectives motivate my willingness to maintain a good effort.					
18	Overall, I am highly motivated at my work.					
19	The results I produce at my work are in accordance with the set and targeted standards.					

20	I am able to achieve my targeted performance level.					
21	Overall, my organisation achieves its goals and objectives.					
22	I have a sufficient level of confidence that allows me to do my job properly.					
23	I feel confident about my ability to improve my knowledge and skills to meet with new requirements related to my job performance.					
24	My manager (supervisor) has the ability to provide me with feedback about how to improve my knowledge and skills to enhance my job performance.					
25	I communicate easily with my manager (supervisor).					
26	My manager (supervisor) is open and listens to my ideas and suggestions.					
27	Normally, my manager (supervisor) guides me to enhance my job performance.					
	Items	Agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Disagree
28	Normally, my manager (supervisor) helps in removing the obstacles and barriers that I face in my work.					
29	I feel free to say what I think is right when communicating with my manager (supervisor).					
30	My manager (supervisor) identifies with me the training and personal development opportunities that I require for my job.					
31	My manager (supervisor) compares the actual job outcomes that I produce with					

	the established standards.					
32	My manager (supervisor) communicates with me openly.					
33	My manager (supervisor) is fair regarding promotions opportunities.					
34	My manager (supervisor) is fair regarding training opportunities.					
35	Performing my job properly requires a high level of mental ability.					
36	I find it very easy to comprehend (understand) how to perform my job.					
37	I can do my job perfectly with very little help from others.					
38	I have got a sufficient level of knowledge and skills to enable me to do my job in an acceptable way.					
39	My organisation's goals, and orientation are in accordance with my personality preferences.					
40	My job and working conditions match with my preferences.					
41	I am able to adapt and change when there are changes in my organisation.					
42	My organisation arranges sufficient social events.					
	Items	Agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Disagree
43	I like to participate with my colleagues in the social events they attend.					
44	I socialise with my colleagues inside our organisation.					
45	I socialise with my colleagues outside our organisation.					
46	The working conditions allow me to accomplish my job tasks within the deadline and					

	in an acceptable manner.					
47	My Organisation's management has a lot of concern towards external demands.					
48	I have good relationships with my colleagues.					
49	My salary is sufficient for the job I perform.					
50	I feel my job is secure.					
51	I expect my organisation to announce job redundancy within the next 12 months?					
52	I expect still to have my job in a year's time?					
53	I expect GACA to perform reorganisation that will affect the workplace within the next 12 months?					
54	I have often considered quitting and finding a job elsewhere.					
55	I feel highly satisfied when I can prove my ability to perform a challenging task.					
56	I am satisfied with the training, skills, and career development opportunities GACA provides.					
57	I am satisfied with the level of clarity about my career advancement.					
	Items	Agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Disagree
58	I am satisfied with the promotion(s) I have received in my organisation.					
59	My work environment is free from too many interferences and disruptions.					
60	My work environment is constructive and helps personnel to perform their duties and responsibilities.					
61	My work conditions are optimistic and motivating.					

62	My workload is very high and above the normal limit.					
63	In my department, my colleagues and I cooperate to get the job done.					
64	I really feel that I belong to a working team.					
65	I feel highly satisfied with my work environment.					
66	Overall, I am satisfied with my organisation.					
67	The long-term goals and objectives of my organisation fit and match with the requirements of the external environment and industry.					
68	My organisation analyses and interacts with regional and international changes.					
69	My organisation's top management has a clear vision of the future.					
70	My organisation's top management has made changes that are positive for organisation performance.					
71	My organisation's top management responds to important internal issues.					
72	Top management of my organisation possesses good leadership skills.					
	Items	Agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Disagree
73	My department has written plans to achieve the short-term goals for the current year.					
74	My job description fits well with my preferences.					
75	In my department, employees are placed in positions that match their knowledge and ability.					
76	I do my job tasks and					

	responsibilities in an autonomous and free way.					
77	In my department, the processes and functions are well integrated with each other.					
78	The coordination between my department and other departments makes it easy to communicate the correct information/data and the necessary things that are required to accomplish the job.					
79	In my organisation, business processes are managed by using appropriate control procedures, systems, and standards.					
80	The causes of performance problems in my department are identified and eliminated.					
81	I know and understand the long-term goals and objectives of my organisation.					
82	The correct information/data that I require to do my job properly is available to me.					
83	The availability of the correct information on time makes it easy for me to communicate with others and perform my job better.					
84	I communicate easily and freely with my colleagues.					
	Items	Agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Disagree
85	The necessary equipment, tools, and materials that I need to perform my job are available.					
86	In our department we have the most modern sufestacated equipment and tools to perform our jobs duties and responsibilities.					

87	In my department, there is a sufficient number of skillful personnel to perform the job.					
88	In my department, personnel possess the necessary knowledge and skills to perform the job.					
89	In my department, personnel have highly specialised skills and competencies that are valuable to the organisation.					
90	The rules and regulations related to my job are sufficient.					
91	The existing procedures, rules and regulations are easy to follow.					
92	The existing work processes and procedures are designed in a way that leads to achieving my job outcomes and objectives.					
93	My job duties and responsibilities are manageable.					
94	My job duties and responsibilities are designed in a systematic way that leads to high performance.					
95	Since I joined my organisation, I have been given the training and development opportunities that I needed to perform my job.					
96	My organisation uses financial incentives to improve personnel performance.					
97	There are clear policies for paying salaries, raises and bonuses.					
	Items	Agree	Slightly agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly disagree	Disagree
98	My organisation pays me fairly compared to other employees.					

99	My annual pay raise is based on my annual performance evaluation.					
100	My organisation provides non-financial incentives (e. g., recognition, involvement, authority; time off, … etc) based on employees' performance.					
101	My organisation sanctions employees who achieve unsatisfactory performance.					
102	There are enough promotion opportunities to motivate me to enhance my job performance.					
103	I have a strong sense of belonging to my organisation					
104	External people see my organisation as a prestigious organisation to work for.					
105	My organisation pays salaries that are comparable to other organisations in this sector.					
106	My organisation provides sufficient benefits compared to other organizations.					

D: <u>Leader Member Exchange (LMX)</u>

The following questions contain items that ask you to describe your relationship with your leader. For each of the items, please indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by choosing one of the responses that appear below the item.

	Items	1	2	3	4	5
107	Do you know where you stand with this manager… Do you usually know how satisfied your manager is with	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly often	Very often

	what you do?					
108	How well does your manager understand your job problems and needs?	Not a Bit	A Little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
109	How well does your manager recognize your potential?	Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
110	Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your manager would use his/her power to help you solve problems at work?	None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
111	Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your manager has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out," at his/her expense?	None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
112	I have enough confidence in my Manager that I would defend and justify his/her decisions if he/she were not present to do so.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
113	How would you characterize your working relationship with your manager?	Extremely ineffective	Worse than average	Average	Better than average	Extremely effective

E: **Performance factors**

The following factors may be important in improving employees' performance in the workplace. Please, tick (✓) to indicate the importance level for each factor according to your perception.

	Items	Very important (5)	4	3	2	Less important (1)
114	Employees' ability					
115	Employees' confidence					
116	Employees' intelligence					
117	Employees' knowledge and skills					
118	Employee-organisation fit (match)					
119	Measures of employee's outcomes					
120	Employees' commitment					
121	Openness between manager (supervisor) and employees					
122	Communication between manager (supervisor) and employees					
123	Employees' satisfaction with the job					
124	Career development opportunities					
125	Effective utilisation of working hours to perform job's duties and responsibilities					
126	Availability of long-term and short term plans					
127	Person-job fit (match)					
128	Responsibilities					
129	Integrated processes and functions					
130	Availability of control mechanisms					
131	Availability of the necessary data/information					
132	Job performance feedback					
133	Open communication					
134	Availability of sufficient tools and equipment					
135	Availability of sufficient human resources					
136	Availability of clear systems, rules, and procedures					
137	Training opportunities					

In general, (a) Do you find GACA's motivation programme to be effective? (b) What do you think can be added or changed to make it more efficient? Please provide your answers and any additional comments in the lines below.

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How do you think your job performance would be enhanced for better productivity? Please provide your answers and any additional comments in the lines below.

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Your help is much appreciated. Thank you!

Please feel free to write any Comments/Observations about the questionnaire:

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