

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the relevant literature related to this study. The chapter begins with an introduction to higher education institutions (HEIs) in Malaysia. Then, the chapter introduces the concept of academic staff and job performance. Following this, the chapter explains performance evaluation in a higher education institution. The chapter also discusses the factors that influence job performance, the underpinning theory applies in this study and hypothesis development. Finally, the chapter introduces the research framework of this study.

2.2 Higher Education Institutions in Malaysia

The Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Malaysia are under the purview of the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE). HEIs offer programs leading to the awarding of certificates, diplomas, and undergraduate and postgraduate qualifications.

HEIs in Malaysia are divided into two major categories. First, the government funded HEIs consist of public universities, polytechnics and community colleges. Second, the private HEIs, consist of private universities, private university colleges, foreign university branch campuses and private colleges.

There are 20 public universities, 53 private universities and six foreign university branch campuses, 37 university colleges, 347 private colleges, 27 polytechnics, and 59

public community colleges (Department of Standard and Registration, MOHE, 31 July 2019).

2.2.1 Public University

The Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia has made numerous efforts to boost the reputation of Malaysian higher education institutions as a regional centre of excellence. Public universities can be divided into five research universities, 11 comprehensive universities and four specialised technical universities (MTUN). The five public universities that have been designated as research universities are Universiti Malaya (UM), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) and Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM). In 2008, the Accelerated Programme for Excellence (APEX) was launched to improve creativity and efficiency and foster age excellence among public universities. Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) has been awarded this Apex university status. The four universities under the Malaysian Technical University Network (MTUN) are Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM), Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka (UTeM), Universiti Malaysia Pahang (UMP) and Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UniMAP).

2.2.2 Private University

The government does not fund private universities, and these institutions rely on the student's tuition contribution. There are four types of the private universities. First, private universities that offer undergraduate and postgraduate degree courses. Second are the university colleges. University colleges offer pre-university and diploma programmes. In

addition, university colleges have the power to award degrees at the undergraduate level that are held in the same regard as those awarded by the university. Third are colleges. Colleges offer diploma and pre-university programmes. Some established colleges provide degree courses, twinning programmes including through a local or foreign partner university. Fourth are foreign universities. Foreign universities in Malaysia are also considered private universities and work together with Malaysian institutions. Malaysian students who study in these private universities will get international qualifications without leaving the country.

2.3 Academic Staff

An academic staff member is a person who gives a lecture or a person who teaches at a university or college. Academic staff members are also defined as people with values, talents, interests, attitudes, and behaviours that may influence university development (Nasution, 2010). To be part of the academic staff is very demanding (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004). Being an academic staff member is not just a job but a career (Hill et al., 2003). For some, being an academic staff is considered a lifestyle (Rafnsdottir & Heijstra, 2011). Santos and Cardoso (2008) stated that as academic staff, the job has more flexibility than in other industries. One reason is that the academic staff can decide their schedule at the university even though they are employees in their organisations (Rafnsdottir & Heijstra, 2011). However, the academic staff must finish their tasks on weekends or at home (O'Laughlin & Bischoff, 2005).

According to Wardhani Hakim and Adji Fernandes (2017), the academic staff ideally has the following criteria:

1. Intellectually productive

An academic staff member is a person who can implement education and teaching, research and development, and community service. In teaching, an academic staff can prepare the relevant teaching materials and deliver them to students using the current technology.

2. Ability and background knowledge

It means the academic staff member has the qualifications appropriate to the education level. It is because the teaching and learning process needs to be progressively supported by the teaching experience, resulting in the process of maturity to overcome the dynamics of educational psychology, demanding effort tolerance of ideas and strategies to student learning patterns.

3. Good attitude

An academic staff member becomes the role model for the students in the act. It is because any actions of the academic staff usually becomes a mirror of students' attitudes.

4. Able to communicate and act as an educator and a teacher for learners

2.4 Job Performance

Performance is a term that has several meanings, and currently, there is no universal consensus on the definition of this concept (Folan & Browne, 2005). Performance is the result or achievement achieved by individuals or organisations in carrying out a predetermined plan relating to the realisation of the goals, vision, mission and objectives of an organisation (Moheriono, 2012: 95). Performance is a function of the interaction of

abilities, motivation and opportunities (Robbins & Judge, 2017). Performance is an achievement shown through financial or non-financial results directly related to organisational performance and its success (Johlke & Iyer, 2013).

Job performance refers to various attitudes and emotions of the employees toward their job functions (Raza et al., 2014; Spector, 1997). It is widely known to reflect job attitudes, which are people's favourable or unfavourable perception of their job (Moyle et al., 2003). Other researchers, such as Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) define job performance as the scalable actions, behaviours and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organisational goals. Job performance is also specific behaviour performed by employees in an organisation. It substantially affects organisational profitability (Bevan, 2012; Muchhal, 2014; Reio & Wiswell, 2000; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000).

Job performance is viewed as a multifaceted construct that includes in-role and extra-role performance (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000; Kluemper et al., 2013). Extra-role performance entails individual behaviour that goes beyond an employee's formal work role and promotes the organisation's effective functioning (Organ, 1988). Extra-role performance does not support the technical core as much as the broader organisational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function (Motowidlo & Scotter, 1994).

In-role performance refers to the proficiency with which employees perform activities formally recognized as part of their jobs and concerns the accomplishment of duties and tasks specified in a job description (Humborstad et al., 2014; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). In-role performance covers issues related to the quantity and quality of work

output and the accomplishment of work duties and responsibilities related to the job. In-role performance has received the most attention in recent literature (Hassan et al., 2016; Lang et al., 2018; Khong et al., 2017). In-role performance is more important than extra-role performance in an organisation. It is an important basis for the survival of an organisation (Yang et al., 2017).

2.4.1 Job Performance Dimensions

2.4.1.1 Campbell Model (1993)

According to Campbell and colleagues (1993), there are eight different dimensions of job performance. The eight factors are not of the same form. They have different patterns of sub-general factors, and their content varies differently across jobs. Further, any particular job might not incorporate all eight components. The eight factors appear in the following Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1: Campbell Eight Factors

No.	Factors	Explanation
1.	Job-Specific task proficiency	How well can someone do tasks that make up the core technical requirement of a job and differentiate one job from another?
2.	Non- job-specific task proficiency	How well someone can perform tasks that are not unique to the job but are required by most or all jobs in an organisation.
3.	Written and oral communications	How well someone can write or speak to an audience of any size.
4.	Demonstrating effort	How much commitment to job tasks and how persistently and intensely someone works at job tasks.

5.	Maintain personal discipline	How much does someone avoid negative behaviour such as alcohol abuse, rule-breaking, and absenteeism?
6.	Facilitating team and peer performance	How well someone supports, helps, and develops peer help the group function effectively.
7.	Supervision	How well does someone influence subordinates through face-to-face interaction?
8.	Management and administration	How well does someone perform other non-supervisory management functions, such as setting organisational goals, organising people and resources, monitoring progress, controlling expenses, and finding additional resources?

Campbell (2012) revised Campbell et al. (1993) model to represent a latent consensus structure that is described as concretely as possible. The intent was to use as few difficult-to-define abstractions as possible, even though it makes things sound less exciting. The eight fundamental substantive factors of individual performance in a work role are asserted to be the following:

1. Technical performance

All models acknowledge that virtually all jobs or roles have technical performance requirements. Such requirements can vary by substantive area (driving a vehicle versus analysing data) and complexity or difficulty within the area (driving a taxi versus driving a jetliner, tabulating sales frequencies versus modelling institutional investment strategies). As noted by Wisecarver & colleagues (2007), this factor should also include, what they term, core interpersonal tasks, such as those involved when dealing with patients, vendors, customers, or community members. A common term for these tasks is customer service. They are no less technical than maintaining equipment. The subfactors for this dimension are numerous, and the domain could be parsed into wide or narrow slices.

2. Communication

The Campbell et al. (1993) model is the only one that isolates communication as a separate dimension, but it appears as a subfactor in virtually all others. It refers to the proficiency with which one conveys clear, understandable, compelling, and well-organised information. It is defined as being independent of subject matter expertise, and thus a different factor, and is not limited to formal communication. The two significant subfactors are oral and written transmission, and their importance can vary widely across work roles.

3. Initiative, persistence, and effort

This factor emerged from the contextual performance and management performance literature, as well as the OCB literature, where it was referred to as a conscientious initiative. It was also part of the Project A factor model. This element must consist of visible acts to meet the definition of performance and consist of observable actions. Consequently, it is typically specified in working extra hours, voluntarily taking on additional tasks, going beyond prescribed responsibilities, or working under extreme or adverse conditions. Frese (2008) uses the term active performance to describe these actions.

4. Counterproductive work behaviour (CWB)

Consistent with other models, CWB refers to a category of individual actions or behaviours under individual control that harm the goals of the unit or organisation. As noted above, there seems to be general agreement that CWB has two major subfactors: deviance directed at the organisation and deviance directed at other individuals. Also, as explained above, it seems reasonable to expect an approach of avoidance or moving toward versus moving away, a distinction for both organisational and individual deviance.

5. Supervisory, managerial, executive (i.e., hierarchical) leadership

This factor refers to leadership performance in a hierarchical relationship. It also distinguishes between leadership and management. Leadership refers to the interpersonal influence process. The substantive content, as specified by the leadership research literature, is most parsimoniously described by six subfactors (see the sidebar titled Six Subfactors Comprising Leadership Performance; also Campbell (2012)), based on the remarkable convergence of the literature from the Ohio State and Michigan studies through the contingency theories of Fielder, House, Vroom, and Yetton to the current emphasis on being charismatic and transformational, leading the team, and operating in highly complex and dynamic environments.

The subfactors describe what leaders do, not the outcomes of performance (e.g., effective LMX, follower satisfaction, unit profitability) or the determinants (e.g., cognitive ability, personality) of leadership performance or the situational influences on leader performance. The subfactors are not “styles” or temporary “perceptions.” In a given setting, the relative emphasis across subfactors may be different. Different leadership models may hypothesise different paths from leader performance to leader effectiveness (i.e., outcomes), which may be an interesting part for some people. Still, the literature’s characterization of leader performance (including transformational and charismatic leadership) always seems within the boundaries of these six factors (see Campbell 2013b).

Similarly, the six subfactors circumscribe hierarchical leadership performance at all levels. However, the relative emphasis on each subfactor may differ at different organisational levels, and the specific actions within each subfactor may also receive differential emphases. It is also the case that individuals may react differently to

interpersonal influence attempted by the “leader.” Leadership is a series of reciprocal processes.

6. Hierarchical management performance

Within a hierarchical organisation, this factor, distinct from leadership as interpersonal influence, includes those actions that deal with generating, preserving, and allocating the organisation’s resources to best achieve its goals. Given the existing literature, Campbell (2012) argues that eight meaningful subfactors exist (see the sidebar titled Eight Subfactors Comprising Management Performance). As is true for the components of leadership, there may be considerably different emphases on the management performance subfactors across work roles and as a function of the type of organisation, organisational level, changes in the situational context, or changes in organisational goals. Also, there can be very high and very low scores on both the leadership and management subfactors. Very high scores on certain critical dimensions are transformational (e.g., Walumbwa & Wernsing, 2013). Very low scorers are dysfunctional (Hogan et al. 2011).

7. Peer/team member leadership performance

The content of this factor is parallel to the actions that comprise hierarchical leadership. The defining characteristic is that these actions are in the context of peer or team member interrelationships. The peer/team relationships in question can be at any organisational level (e.g., production teams versus management teams). Many behaviours that comprise the OCB dimension of personal support (e.g., helping, cooperating, courtesy, motivating) that are not part of hierarchical leadership also belong here.

8. Peer/team member management performance

A defining characteristic of the high-performance work team (e.g., Campbell & Kuncel, 2001; Goodman et al., 1988) is that team members perform many management functions, such as planning and problem solving, determining within-team coordination requirements and workload balance, and monitoring team performance. Besides, the contextual performance and OCB literature both strongly indicate that representing the unit or organisation to external stakeholders and exhibiting commitment and compliance to the policies and procedures of the organisation are critical performance factors at any organisational level. Consequently, to a greater extent than most researchers realise or acknowledge, there are important elements of management performance in the peer or team context and the hierarchical setting.

2.4.1.2 Motowidlo and Scotter (1994) Model

Motowidlo & Scotter (1994) distinguished between task performance (in-role) and contextual (extra-role) performance. Task performance includes two classes of behaviour. The first consists of activities that directly transform raw materials into the goods and services that the organisation produces. It includes such activities as selling merchandise in a retail store, operating a production machine in a manufacturing plant, teaching in school, performing surgery in a hospital, and cashing a check in a bank. Second consists of activities that service and maintain in technical core by replenishing its supply of raw materials, distributing its finished products, and providing important planning coordination, supervising, and staff functions that enable it to function effectively and efficiently.

In contrast, contextual performance behaviour does not support the technical core as much as it supports the broader organisational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function. The five categories of contextual performance are; volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally part of a job; persisting with extra enthusiasm when necessary to complete own task activities successfully; helping and cooperating with others; following organisational rules and procedures even when it is personally inconvenient; and endorsing, supporting, and defending organisational objectives.

2.5 Performance Evaluation in Higher Education Institution

Performance measurement is a process of assessing the progress of work toward the achievement of goals and objectives that have been determined, including information on the efficiency of resource use in producing goods and services, quality of goods and services, comparison of the results of activities with the target, and the effectiveness of action in achieving goals (Hakim & Fernandes, 2017). Every university has certain criteria for measuring the performance of its academic staff. In general, measuring academic staff performance in higher education institutions implicates an evaluation of teaching and learning, including supervision, research, publication, and community services, based on the duties and responsibilities and other qualities.

Measuring job performance for academic staff is based on an annual performance review conducted at the end of each year. All the tasks are measured and included in the Key Performance Index (KPI) as a determinant of annual academic staff performance. It also serves as a benchmark for academic staff performance. In Malaysia, the academic staff

performance criteria are as follows: (1) teaching and learning scores; (2) administrative scores; (3) research grant scores; (4) publication and research scores; (5) supervisory scores; and (6) professional service scores (Guidelines to Good Practice Academic Staff, Malaysian Qualifications Agency, 2014). According to Franco-Santos (2016), previously, universities based their interpretation on performance metrics such as teaching units, number of publications in top journals, research income generation, students' satisfaction, citizenship, or patents, and these metrics have become part of the day-to-day lexicon of academia. These performance metrics are used at all levels, including individuals, departments, faculties, and institutions.

Based on extensive survey data among the employees at Finnish universities, Kallio and Kallio (2014) found that performance measurement, which the universities have practised, is based on quantitative rather than qualitative measures. In general, the job performance of academic staff at higher education institutions has been assessed through three indicators known as teaching performance, research, and publication (Mawoli & Babandako, 2011), as detailed below:

2.5.1 Teaching Performance

There are three criteria for a good university academic staff (Su & Wood, 2012). First, the good academic staff members at the university reflect on what they do to develop a greater awareness of themselves and their students. Second, good academic staff members at the university are involved with the students in their dialogue, motivated by a desire to know and understand them and their practice better. Third, good academic staff at the university are expected to be highly qualified for the position and have the specialised

knowledge in the subject area they teach, as well as all the necessary skills to pass on this knowledge to students. They need to prepare for teaching and learning purposes, such as preparing notes and exam questions, examining and preparing scores following predefined scoring schemes, and providing guidelines for assignments that must be delivered to students. Converting knowledge through teaching and learning is an essential task every academic staff should bear (Yong & Hamdan, 2008). Besides, each academic staff must supervise graduate or postgraduate students, such as academic advisors and supervisors for undergraduate and doctoral students (Azlina & Shiqah, 2010). Adunola (2011) emphasised that the teaching methods adopted by academic staffs should be aligned with the content and learning outcomes to effectively enhance the transmission of knowledge and information to the students. They need to prepare for teaching and learning outcomes such as preparation of notes and exam questions, examine and provide marks according to the designated scoring scheme, and prepare guidelines for a given task to be given to the students.

Evaluating the academic staff's teaching performance is very important to enhance their commitment to promoting more effective learning activities and experiences at the HEIs. Besides that, it would also foster a more positive approach in their effort to build a quality relationship with the students and create an environment that is both challenging and nurturing in the long run (Ayers, 2001). A systematic evaluation of teaching and learning performance for higher education is relatively limited and immature compared to those in corporate and industrial contexts. In the context of higher learning, the primary skills of academic staffs are not the ability to accumulate knowledge but to communicate that knowledge to other people. Academic staffs are appraised based on their performance

in teaching and learning and their contribution to the institution of higher learning. The academic staffs are also evaluated through an evaluation form filled out by students online at the end of each semester.

2.5.2 Research Performance

The second indicator of an academic staff's performance in HEIs is through research activities. The universities have to assess the academic staff achievement not only through teaching performance but also through research assessment. Although all academic staffs have to carry out all the responsibilities assigned by the university, it is a priority for those who work in the university to do research and publication work (Guidelines to Good Practice Academic Staff, Malaysian Qualifications Agency, 2014).

According to Said and Tandi (2014), the measurement of research activities could be obtained by combining the number of publications by an individual (the academic staff), group (academic department or known as faculty or school), and institution (the university) at a specific time. Similarly, other researchers also argue that the research performance is often determined by a publication based on the research outcomes. The publication can be made in various ways, such as conference papers (known as proceeding), journal articles, books, book chapters, research project reports, articles in newspapers or magazines, and monographs (Bieschke, 2006; Mawoli, 2011; Seyyed et al., 2004).

2.5.3 Publication Performance

The publication refers to conference papers (or proceedings), journal articles, books, book chapters, research project reports, articles in newspapers or magazines, and

monographs (Bieschke, 2006; Mawoli, 2011; Seyyed et al., 2004). Flora (1994) has divided publications into two categories known as scholarly work and non-scholarly work. Examples of scholarly work include journal articles, conference papers, books, and research project reports. On the other hand, examples of non-scholarly work include articles published in newspapers or non-scholarly journals and general circulation magazines. Bellas & Toutkoushian (1999) have stated that research and publications are more highly rewarded by many universities than teaching than providing services, and research and publications are the most demanding factors for the faculty.

The quality of the publications can be measured through the number of citations of those publications by other researchers. The tool that can be used to evaluate the quality of a publication is known as Scientometric. This tool has been recognized as a significant instrument for measuring the quality of the publication (Said & Tandi, 2013). Scientometrics examines the impact of citation and research productivity of researchers in a particular time by quantifying the utility of literature on a given subject, patterns of authorship, and the impact of reading on groups and societies (Kumar et al., 2009).

One of the recently used sources of Scientometric data is Publish or Perish (PoP) software, which was released in 2006. It uses Google Scholar to obtain the number of publications and sources that cite them. In great detail, PoP gives several descriptive statistics for individual authors, including years since first publication, the total number of publications, the total number of citations, the average number of citations per year, total citations per paper, total citations per author and total papers per author (Harzing, 2008).

Moreover, students' feedback through the evaluation process will be studied, while moderators and examiners are also taken into account and implemented if found necessary

(Nagasangari, 2018). Comments from partner universities, moderators, and examiners are also taken into account and implemented if found necessary (Nagasangari, 2018).

2.6 Factors that Influence Job Performance

2.6.1 Human Resources Management Practices

Human Resources Management (HRM) is all activities associated with managing people in an organisation (Boxall & Purcell, 2008). These activities are commonly referred to as HRM practices (e.g., recruitment and selection, employee training and involvement, reward, job analysis, employee relationship, employee empowerment, and social support). All these practices should be built to achieve a high level of satisfaction and performance for workers (Albrecht et al., 2015; Dessler, 2006; Majumder & Hossain, 2012; Wall & Wood, 2005). According to Razimi et al.(2014), adhering to Islamic principles in HRM is likely to positively impact the firm value and dedication of employees.

According to Bowen & Ostroff (2004), HRM practices are communications between employers and employees. HRM practices are designed to help firms acquire and develop employees' knowledge, skills, abilities, and motivations in ways that support the implementation of organisational strategies. To create a strong situation, the HRM system must be perceived as high in distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus. The characteristics of HRM associated with distinctiveness include visibility, understandability, legitimacy of authority, and relevance. Consistency is defined as establishing an effect over time using different modalities. It is achieved through instrumentality (unambiguous perceived cause-effect relationships), validity (consistency between what they purport to do and what they do), and consistent HRM messages (compatibility and stability in the

signals sent by the HR practices). The third characteristic of a strong situation, consensus, is the result of an agreement among HRM decision-makers (message senders) and perceptions of the overall fairness of the HRM system. Fairness, according to their framework, is determined by the system being congruent with principles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004).

The management of human resources involves a combination of “hard” issues such as recruitment and retention, rewards and incentives, and “softer” issues such as motivation, work-life balance, and career development (Gordon & Whitchurch, 2007). According to Cross & Carbery (2013), some of these practices and processes are as follows:

1. How are officials recruited and selected?
2. How are they paid and rewarded?
3. In what conditions do they work?
4. What training and development opportunities should organisations organise for their career development?
5. How are employees who break the rules of the organisation dealt with?
6. How does the organisation ensure that everyone is treated equally?

According to Snell and Bohlander (2013), HRM practices are how an organisation can manage its human capital to accomplish organisational objectives. Specifically, HRM practices are the fundamental activities by which the organisation can develop and shape the employees' skills, abilities, and behaviour to do their job successfully and focus on meeting the targets, i.e., organisational goals. HRM is the core of achieving the organisations' goals in different fields (Cania, 2014; Harter et al., 2002). Besides, it is a system that sets the attitude and behaviour of the workers and builds up the relationship

between employer and employees, which motivates the employees to spend more efforts based on creation and innovation and helps the firm achieve its objectives and motivates employees (Tan & Nasurdin, 2011).

Dunkin (2005) outlines six core elements of a human resource strategy that may be used to address the challenges of competing for and retaining high-quality, creative people:

1. Determine how many people are needed, what they can do, how they need to do it, and how to manage them.
2. Analyse the skills needed and how recruitment, outsourcing, or in-house development will occur.
3. Attract and retain high-quality staff.
4. Manage their performance and clarify how their performance will be measured.
5. Reward and acknowledge good performance.
6. Develop and train staff on an ongoing basis.

Jiang & colleagues (2012) believe HR practices can be distributed into three policy domains: knowledge, skills and abilities, motivation and effort, and opportunities to contribute. Tayeb (1997) distributes HRM practices into four categories: employee selection and development, job design, reward system, and employee participation. Van De Voorde & colleagues (2012) present three HR practices categories: enhancement of employee ability, employee motivation, and the opportunity to perform. There are seven HRM practices put forward by Pfeffer (1998): employment security, selective hiring, self-managed teams, decentralised decision-making, comparatively high compensation, extensive training, the reduced status of distinctions and barriers, and extensive sharing of information. This study includes four categories proposed by Presbitero and colleagues

(2016). The categories are remuneration and rewards, training and development, career development and work-life balance. These four categories have been explained in detail in the following sections.

2.6.1.1 Compensation and Benefits

Compensation and benefits are another important human resource function that helps organisations fairly distribute intrinsic and extrinsic rewards based on individual contributions towards the organisational output. Compensation is also one of the fastest-changing fields in Human Resources, as companies continue to investigate various ways of rewarding employees for 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 & Latham, 2002; Taghipour & Dejban, 2013). Individuals always view monetary and non-monetary rewards as their motivators for performance improvement. Therefore, an employer needs to decide on how employees are being paid because this can attract capable employees or reduce the motivation of existing employees. Islam places a strong focus on labour rights, including that the task assigned should be within the employee's capabilities, earnings and remuneration should be appropriate with the needs of a decent lifestyle, and sickness and old-age benefits should be ensured, preferably with the involvement of the state (Saeed, 2013).

According to McNamara (2006), compensation includes issues regarding wage or salary programs and structures accruing from job descriptions, merit-based programs, bonus-based programs, commission-based programs, and so on, while benefits typically

refer to retirement plans, health life insurance, disability insurance, vacation, employee stock ownership plan and so on. Gomez- Mejia et al. (2006) view employee compensation as comprising base pay and fringe benefits. Base pay or cash pay is the direct pay provided by employers for work performed, and these include salary, overtime pay, shift allowance, uniform allowances, and pay contingent on performance like merit awards, incentive pay, bonuses and gain sharing, while fringe compensating include required programs such as social security, health benefits, pension plans, paid time off, tuition reimbursement, foreign service premiums and so on.

Based on the viewpoint of the social exchange theory, employees may generate different influencing outcomes according to the degree to which they psychologically expect that job engagement could receive organisational rewards. The compensation system is a powerful mechanism with performance evaluation as the important evidence and repaying and stimulating employees' work, and is a system covering intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards mainly refer to the quantifiable monetary value provided to the employees and the salary, bonus, welfare, and others largely meeting the survival and security needs of the employees in the material. Intrinsic rewards are defined as the connotations providing employees with the need to satisfy the realisation of inner value. Intrinsic rewards include all kinds of rewards that could not be quantified in monetary forms, such as promotion, power, prestige, ability enhancement or further improvement of work resources (Tymon et al., 2010).

Monetary compensation improves firm performance by attracting and retaining capable employees and motivating employees (Larkin et al., 2012). Firms are willing to pay employees a premium to compensate for employment uncertainty because employees

tend to be risk-averse (Larkin et al., 2012). One of the employee expectations in a company is fair remuneration instigating satisfaction (Boles et al., 2003; Giannikis & Mihail, 2011). In regulating the remuneration system, it is important to consider employees' contribution adequate with the appreciation (reward) (Fisher et al., 2010; Hatch & Dyer, 2004; Iqbal, 2012). As perceived satisfaction generates positive work behaviour (Cullen et al., 2014), fair remuneration is expected to motivate employees to face changes. When employees are satisfied with their wages or salaries, they are expected to contribute to the organisation's process, including facing changes.

Benefits include employee compensation methods such as insurance, retirement, unemployment, wellness, and child care (Guchait, 2007). Benjamin & Ahmad (2012) stated that in today's economic world, financial reward is the basic incentive that motivates employees to stay in an organisation. Employee benefits are often perceived as important rewards that can influence employees to continue working in an organisation (Tourangeau et al., 2010). Due to the unique characteristics of individuals, the same benefits may not suit every employee (Chiu et al., 2002; Kominis & Emmanuel, 2009), and previous studies have revealed that individual employees may have different preferences regarding their employment benefits (Tourangeau et al., 2010; Yamamoto, 2013). According to Hooda & Singh (2014), rewards need to be appropriately designed for faculty members as rewards have a remarkable impact on job satisfaction. In the education sector, on the occasion of educator's day, faculty members may be given appreciation certificates, awards, salary increments, or gifts during festivals. Therefore, human resource managers need to identify which benefits are more likely to satisfy particular employees' needs with an accurate assessment of employees' feedback.

Employee Benefits focus on maintaining or improving employees' quality of life and providing protection and financial security for workers and their family members. Academic institutions typically offer their employees a wide range of benefits. These include retirement plans, medical care, sick and annual leave, sabbatical leave, study leave, maternity leave, child care, pension benefit, sponsorship to conferences and workshops, leave bonuses, on-campus accommodation, and so on, which are referred to as university supported benefits (Odunlade, 2012). Employee benefits, though a part of total compensation, embrace a non-monetary form of compensation ranging from health care plans to pensions or retirement plans, social security, insurance, family and medical leave (Bernadin, 2007), severance pay, payments for time not working (vacations, sabbatical, holidays), workers compensation, that is, those injured on the job (Cascio, 2003).

As perceived satisfaction generates positive work behaviour (Cullen et al., 2014), fair remuneration is expected to motivate employees to face changes. When employees are satisfied with their wages or salaries, they are expected to contribute to the organisation's process, including facing changes. Nausheen & Sahar (2015) view compensation as a determinant of organisational turnover and state that it plays a major role in employee retention. One of the primary reasons employees leave their current employers is better compensation from the new employer. However, employee opportunities to use their skills and good career prospects can influence their decision to stay (Tanton 2007).

2.6.1.2 Training and Development

One major human resource management function is training and development, which helps organisations equip their employees with the required knowledge, skills, and

abilities (KSAs). Jiang et al. (2012) refer to HRM practices designed to ensure that employees have the appropriate KSAs for their organisational roles as skill-enhancing practices. Past literature on training and development confirmed that training and development activities help employees gain the necessary skills and abilities required to perform the job or task given and potentially enhance their performance. Therefore, organisations should systematically perform the training needs assessment and design the training programs accordingly. Training and development are at the heart of a continuous effort to improve employee competency and organisational performance (Mondy, R.W, 2010). In this regard, Roberson et al. (2003) suggested that human resources managers should carefully assess training needs and offer training programs that fulfill organisational goals when dealing with a diverse workforce. The benefits of training and development include improved morale, employee satisfaction, lower turnover, higher retention, improved hiring, and a better bottom line. All these benefits can satisfy employees and increase commitment and motivation, thus improving an employee's overall competence and performance.

Training and development refer to programs carried out by a firm to improve employees' "job-related and behavioural skills" (Babakus et al., 2003; Rogg et al., 2001). Training employees in job-related abilities and behavioural skills to develop their capability is essential to overcome customer requirements, personalities, and circumstances in offering perfect service quality (Yavas et al., 2003). Training and development is also an organisational investment in developing employees' appropriate skills and abilities to perform better to achieve organisational goals. According to Yang & Fu (2009), training and development programs are designed by the organisation to enhance employees' job-

related skills and abilities, which may help employees to handle different, complicated organisational situations (Karatepe et al., 2007; Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991). On the other hand, training focuses on systematically developing the employees' skills within the organisation (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009).

Essentially, the organisation should provide high-quality training and development to equip the employees with job skills (Ahmad & Schroeder, 2003), resulting in elevated satisfaction and performance at the workplace. The employees can acquire the necessary knowledge through training and development and enhance their capacities to sustain and improve their performance (Atteya, 2012). Besides that, the equipment provided during these training and development courses should be adequate to ensure all employees have similar training opportunities (Al-Qudah et al., 2014) and to clear any doubts that the employees may have by exposing them to all key areas of the industry. The individual responsible for the training and development should be well-informed and possess the expertise and capacity to address all questions posed by the employees. Training and development encompass learning activities, coaching, counselling, and performance assessment, which employees have undergone to improve their performance, eventually benefiting the organisation.

According to Rehmat et al. (2015), training is a key strategy for human resource development, generating skills in people, and achieving organisational objectives. Training can be defined as “the systematic acquisition of skills, concepts, or attitude that must result in improved performance of trainees”. Training is a crucial tool for enhancing job-related performance and organisational effectiveness. Training helps individuals to acquire the competencies necessary to achieve organisational objectives. Training improves the

capabilities of an organisation. So, training plays an essential role in the effectiveness of people at work. Training affects productivity, health, and safety at work and personal development (Thakore, 2013). According to Islamic administrative principles, administrators should be informed and always look for ways to help people they are responsible for in developing their knowledge and abilities (Salleh et al., 2012).

Aslam, H. D., & Rasheed (2010) suggested that the performance constraint for academic staffs in higher education institutions is due to a lack of training and support from senior faculty members. If the academic staffs can perform well in their performance, universities will have a higher contribution towards higher education. Therefore, training impacts the academic staff's performance in the education industry. The training will allow teachers or academic staffs to continuously build their skill levels against each of the competencies expected of an educator (MOE, 2015). Therefore, ongoing professional development raises academic staff's quality to enhance their skill set, including being updated with the latest pedagogical developments.

According to Nagasangari (2018), continuous professional development among academic staffs is highly encouraged and enhanced with compulsory training on updated approaches to teaching and learning. Harris (2015), there is a need to focus on improving teaching and learning as it is the main driver in enhancing student success. For example, changes in pedagogy or teaching approaches, such as Outcome-Based Education and Flipped Classroom training, were organised in the institution in 2016 to equip academic staffs with the knowledge and strategies to implement these changes.

2.6.1.3 Career Development

Career Development is a “continuous lifelong process of developmental experiences that focuses on seeking, obtaining and processing information about self, occupational and educational alternatives, lifestyles and role options” (Hansen, 1976). Van Maanen & Schein (1977, p. 36) defined career development as “a lifelong process of working out a synthesis between individual interests and the opportunities (or limitations) present in the external work-related environment so that both individual and environmental objectives are fulfilled.” According to Kirk et al. (2000), career development can be described as achieving specific employee and organisation goals, including providing career information, helping employees identify advancement opportunities, promoting job satisfaction, and improving employee productivity. To put another way; career development is the process through which people come to understand themselves as they relate to work and their role in it. Career development improves individual and organisational performance (McDonald & Hite, 2016).

Career development is part of human resources development. Human resources development has been analysed as having the following four interrelated functions: organisation development (OD), career development (CD), training and development (T&D), and performance improvement (PI) (McGuire & Cseh, 2006; Wang & McLean, 2007; Abdullah, 2009). Career Development refers to planned processes and outcomes concerning initiatives undertaken by employees (the academics) and the organisation to improve employees’ performance to move them into a better status and position in the job hierarchy. The key elements of the definition of career development are the individuals, environment, and changes occurring through learning (Parker & Arthur, 2002; Patton &

McMahon, 2006), in which the organisation becomes an element in the environment, and the individuals come from the organisation.

Promotion is part of a career development plan. Promotion in Higher Education Institutions has a significant effect on academic staffs and is a critical challenge. In a recent study by Jacob & Idah (2014:7), it is revealed that the process of promoting academics is seen as very long and tedious. Those promotion criteria discourage academic staffs from considering applying for promotion. The study also revealed that research excellence seems to be the favoured promotion criterion amongst others. Commensurates with the above, a study by Pienaar & Bester (2006) indicated that there is a lack of clear guidelines and transparency in promotions, limited or few promotion opportunities, double standards with specific reference to promotion; and the perception that promotion is determined by your research output and not necessarily intensive teaching. The organisation should provide promotion policies and opportunities for its existing staff, and that promotion awakens ambition and creates a sense of job security and satisfaction. That lack of promotion creates a low spirit in academic staffs.

Historically, career development was the individual's responsibility (Lee, Kwon, Kim, & Cho, 2016). There are many different types of career development, both formal and informal, including employee assessment (Bolt, 1989; Hinrichs & Hollenbeck, 1991), on-the-job experiences (McCall et al., 1988), formal courses and programs (Tansky & Cohen, 2001), and mentoring relationships (Chao et al., 1992). Career development contributes to the growth of enduring abilities and behaviours that help employees in their current positions and enable them to grow personally and professionally (Noe et al., 1997). According to Ismajli et al. (2015) career development is a key element in motivating

employees. The research shows a specific need for a concrete result-oriented development process embedded in a document referred to as an individual development plan, a learning contract, MBO (management-by-objectives) for personal learning, and a personal "curriculum" for learning or a plan for personal career advancement.

2.6.1.4 Work-life Balance

Work-life balance refers to satisfaction at work and home with less or no role conflict (Clark, 2000). In recent years, the term "work-life balance" has been replaced what used to be known as "work-family balance" (Hudson Resourcing, 2005; Singh & Koradia, 2017). The definition of work-life balance is generally associated with equilibrium between the amount of time and effort somebody devotes to work and personal activities to maintain an overall sense of harmony (Clarke et al. 2004, 121). Research on work-life balance generally suggests that organisations with clear work-life balance policies that promote a family-friendly work environment, enjoy higher employee retention (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). Work-life balance can be interpreted as a challenge for an employee to balance the responsibility to complete work and the commitment to perform their role in the family that needs a supportive work environment.

Organisations can implement various work-life balance initiatives that may assist employees in balancing their work and family responsibilities better, improve well-being, and provide organisational benefits. There are a large variety of family-friendly policies, including but not limited to the following: flexible working hours, job sharing, part-time work, compressed work weeks, parental leave, telecommuting, and on-site child care facility (Hartel et al., 2007). Furthermore, work-life balance is also provided in the context

of supervisor and organisational support that can reduce work-life conflict and increase positive appraisals of one's organisation. These effects are often associated with employee attitudes, such as increased job satisfaction and enhanced control over their work schedule (Lazar et al., 2010).

2.6.2 Leader-member Exchange (LMX)

The study of leadership has evolved. Leadership is also defined as a process of social interaction where the leaders strongly influence the behaviour of their followers, which affecting their performance (Humphrey, 2002; Pirola-Merlo et al., 2002; McCleskey, 2014). Moreover, Humphrey (2002) describes leadership as an emotional process where leaders recognize, manage, and evoke emotions in their followers. Goleman defined leadership as “the art of persuading people to work towards a common goal” (Goleman, 1998, p. 12). Thus, leadership refers to the ability to motivate, influence, and enable other people to contribute to the success and effectiveness of the organisation (Anand & Udaya-Suriyan, 2010). Effective leadership behaviour seems critical in facing HEI's latest development and challenges (Johnstone, 2011). Mid-level academic management greatly influences the university operation through negotiating with top- and bottom-level management (De Boer & Goedegebuure, 2009; Johnstone, 2011; Mercer & Pogolian, 2013; Montez et al., 2002). Mid-level academic management refers to the dean, head of the academic department, or educational program director of a university.

The LMX theory was put forward by Grean, Dansereau & Minami (1972), which has the apparent advantage in explaining the leader effect compared with the traditional balanced leadership theory. The theory thought that a differential exchange relationship

exists between leader and member. A high-quality LMX relationship indicates mutual trust, respect, influence, and high-quality information exchange and feedback between leader and member. On the other hand, a low-quality LMX relationship means that the exchange between leader and member is only limited to a formal employment agreement (Chen et al., 2007).

Leader-member exchange (LMX) is the essence of the relationship between leaders and subordinates. It is the extent to which one likes, is loyal to, respects, and is willing to help the other (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Originally termed vertical dyad linkage (Dansereau et al., 1975), the LMX theory conceptualises leadership as a process of interaction between leader and follower, and centers on the dyadic exchange relationships between both (Winkler, 2010b). LMX theory assumes that leaders and followers are involved in an exchange relationship. Followers follow because they receive something from the leader. In turn, leaders lead as they get something from followers (Messick, 2004; Winkler, 2010b). The basic principle of LMX is that leaders develop different types of exchange relationships with their followers and that the quality of these relationships affects important leader and member attitudes and behaviours (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Liden et al., 1997; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997; Illies, 2007).

Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995) proposed that subordinates who met the role expectations of supervisors were more likely to have high-quality leader-member relationships, and the present research supports that. The two studies' results supported the theme that subordinates' task orientation and task-related behaviours are critical in forming LMX. Graen & Uhl-Bien (1996) acknowledge that LMX focuses on individual, dyadic relationships for simplicity. They also note that within complex organisations, leaders often

interact with multiple followers “working together in some type of interacting collectivity” and that LMX should be further examined within the context of network assemblies to paint a more complete picture of effective organisational leadership.

2.6.2.1 LMX theory

LMX theory was introduced by Dansereau, Graen, and colleagues during the 1970s and was originally referred to as the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) approach (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975). To measure LMX but agreed on a conceptual definition based on an early theory called VDL (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). VDL is about the discovery of differentiated dyads. According to Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995), Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) documented that leaders do not use an average leadership style but instead develop differentiated relationships with their direct reports (dyads within units). The VDL model suggested that a key outcome of leaders’ differentiated relationships with followers is the development of an “in-group” and an “out-group” among followers concerning the leader (Dansereau, F. 1995), in which the “in-group” has comparatively high-quality relationships with their leader. They explained that the central concept of this early VDL work was that these differentiated relationships resulted from resource constraints on the managers that required them to develop a cadre of trusted assistance to help function the work unit. This assumption of VDL differed from previous theories of leadership, which often had an underlying assumption that leaders treated all members the same. Documentation of the differentiated relationship in the VDL research was obtained from longitudinal studies of management teams by asking managers and their direct reports to describe their work and working relationships in input, process,

and outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The dyadic relationship in LMX is shown in figure 2.1 below:

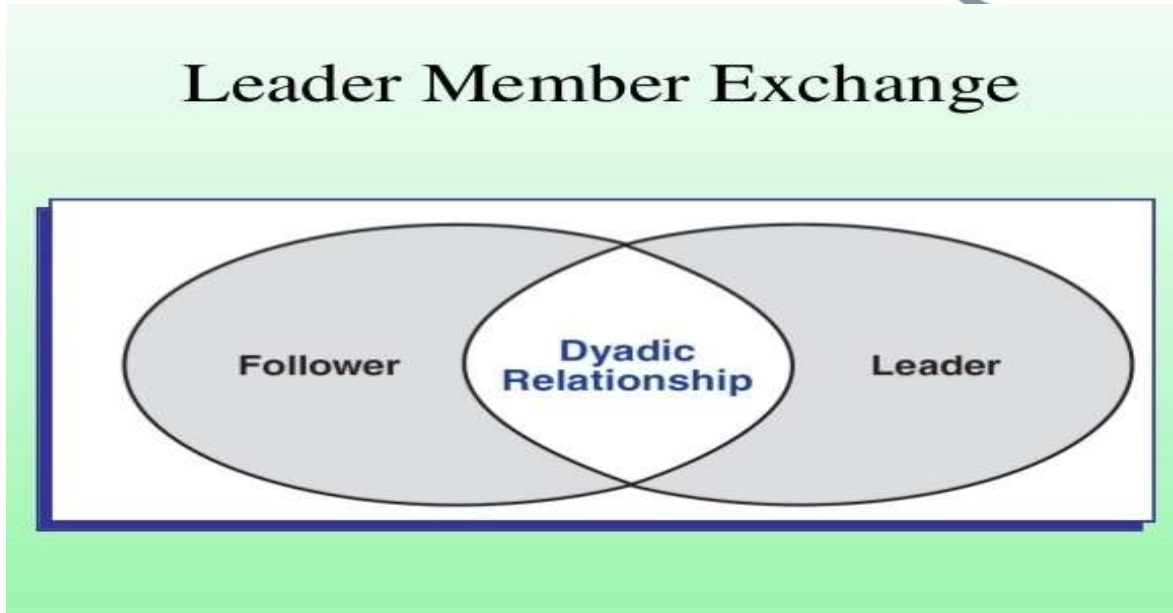


Figure 2.1: The Dyadic Relationship

The transition from VDL approaches to what became LMX beginning in the early 1980s is one of the major evolutions in the history of LMX theory (Day & Miscenko, 2015). The later research of LMX focused on investigating how many high-quality exchanges a leader could profitably develop and maintain, where findings documented significant, positive relationships between quality of exchange (LMX) and many outcome variables of interest. However, Gerstner & Days' (1997) meta-analysis has shown that interest in the first branch of the VDL approach, the LMX model, has been growing considerably over the years. Nevertheless, they highlighted some fundamental problems related to the validity of the LMX construct.

2.6.2.2 Evolution of LMX theory

The evolution of LMX research has been categorised into four stages of theory development, delineating how research has advanced since its inception (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). These stages include the discovery of differential dyads, the focus on the LMX relationship and outcomes, describing dyadic partnership building, and examining LMX at the group and network level (Martin et al., 2010).

1. *First Stage*

The first stage of LMX theory development established that leaders develop different quality relationships with their subordinates (e.g., Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973; Johnson & Graen, 1973), which has been corroborated in longitudinal studies (e.g., Graen & Wakabayashi, 1994; Nahrgang et al., 2009).

2. *Second Stage*

The second stage of theory development has focused on the correlates of LMX quality, antecedents, and outcomes. Research in this stage has mainly utilised cross-sectional designs and inferred causal relations of antecedents and outcomes of LMX. Liden et al. (1997) have grouped antecedent variables into four main categories: subordinate characteristics, leader characteristics, interactional variables, and contextual variables.

3. *Third Stage*

The third stage of theory development has centred on describing the development of LMX relationships and how leaders develop effective relationships with their subordinates. What sets this stage apart from the previous stages is the shift in focus from different quality relationships to how leaders develop these relationships and mechanisms for providing equal opportunities for effective LMX. The lack of understanding of how

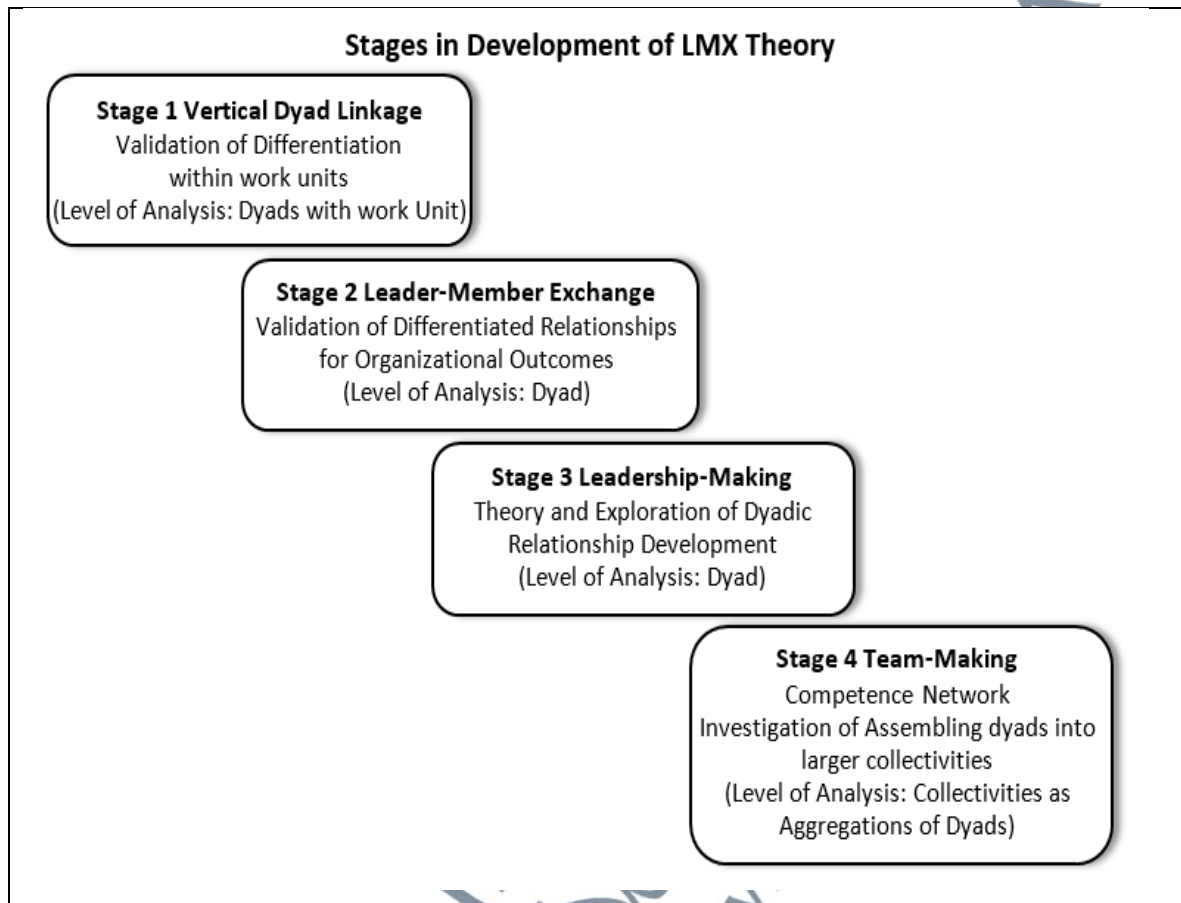
LMX relationships are formed has been referred to as the “black box” of LMX research (Rousseau, 1998).

4. *Fourth Stage*

The fourth stage of theory development acknowledges that LMX relationships do not evolve in isolation but as a part of a network of relationships across the organisation. Thus, recent research has focused on the group and network levels of analysis, and the three areas of development include social network analysis, relational leadership, and relationship variation.

2.6.2.3 The stages of LMX theory

LMX theory offers several frameworks for understanding the development of leader-follower relationships: the Role Making Model (Graen & Scandura, 1987) and the Leadership Making Model (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The prior framework by Graen & Scandura (1987) served as a theoretical base for the Leadership Making Model (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), which outlines three stages of development, namely, the “stranger stage”, the “acquaintance stage”, and the “maturity stage”. The stages of LMX are shown in figure 2.2 below:



Source: Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995

Figure 2.2: Stages of LMX

1. The stranger stage parallels the “role-specification” stage of the funding model. It involves the initial segment of the relationship when the leader and member assume independent roles and job requirements dictate the nature of the exchange.
2. The progress to the second stage depends on the acceptance and reciprocation of particular career-centred social exchange offered by either dyad member.
3. The acquaintance stage (role-making) occurs when the mutual exchange of resources within the dyad defines the nature of the relationship.

4. Lastly, the mature relationship stage (role routinization) involves highly developed exchanges between the leader and the member. At this stage, the leader and member are more interdependent, and it is proposed that this stage of development corresponds to a high-quality LMX relationship (Martin et al., 2010).

In Yukl's (2010) view, the dyadic relationship is likely to advance through a series of ups and downs, which are likely to change the attitudes and behaviours of the involved parties. Previously established relationship quality is expected to be re-evaluated and be vulnerable to change through enhancement or deterioration (Ferris et al., 2009). Scandura (1999) acknowledged that although the LMX relationship is stable, the exchange status can deteriorate. Namely, critical incidents in which the leader or member views the other's actions as violating the norms may send the relationship back to the role-specification phase (Scandura, 1999). Nevertheless, it is not yet clear why or how an LMX relationship is deteriorating. Similarly, the trust literature has recognized that leader-follower relationships can deteriorate due to trust violations (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008).

Even though these conceptualizations are valuable, both frameworks broadly depict LMX development. The two models do not provide a prescriptive account of the variables critical to the process nor define the exchange content (Martin et al., 2010). Indeed, apart from the work of Maslyn & Uhl-Bien (2001) who studied the role of effort in LMX relationships, the content of these exchanges is yet to be researched. The absence of an integrative theory that could explain the process of LMX development has likely resulted in a lack of empirical research into LMX development (Martin et al., 2010). This shortage of studies demonstrates that social exchange theory is extensively applied within LMX but

not empirically supported. In their review of the LMX literature, Martin et al. (2010) suggested that research would increasingly focus on the later stages of LMX theory development. This new conceptualization suggests that relationships are subject to substantial instability and change even once developed rather than being stable. The final stage of relationship development involves mutual accountability, where individuals assist in maintaining each other's role identities and encourage behavioural consistency. According to the interdependence perspective, LMX relationships, like close non-work relationships, are likely to experience critical incidents that could deteriorate the relationships (Thomas et al., 2013a).

Relatedly, Ferris et al. (2009) suggested that relationship development is influenced by change and expansion, which has not been considered in the early LMX theorising, including the Role Making and Leadership Making Model. In their integrative model of work relationships, Ferris et al. (2009) conceptualised the first two stages in a similar vein as the early developmental stages outlined in the models of LMX (described above). The third stage of relationship development represents a divergence from the traditional conceptualization of LMX development.

2.6.2.4 High and low quality of LMX relationship

A high-quality relationship with a leader develops trust with employees and facilitates them to express themselves better in their work roles. In turn, it made the followers more engaged and performed better, probably because their leaders supported them in their capabilities and trusting not to punish them (Macey & Schneider, 2008; de Villiers & Stander, 2011). In a high-quality exchange relationship, both partners hold

congruent perceptions regarding the work environment (Turban et al., 1990), which enables the subordinate to better anticipate what the leader will reward, and accordingly behave to match the manager's expectations by exerting extra effort for better performance (Turban & Jones, 1988). In such situations, the manager gives additional support to the partner – for example, special information, mentoring opportunities (Graen & Scandura, 1987), and valuable resources (Schyns & Paul, 2005)- thus improving the subordinate's job performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Turban & Jones, 1988).

Subordinates in a high-quality exchange relationship also communicate often with their manager (Turban & Jones, 1988), which contributes to job and task performance by facilitating the interpersonal and social context that is essential for the social exchange of the dyad (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). Furthermore, high-quality LMX relationships improve the predictability of the managers' and subordinates' attitudes and behaviours of the manager and the subordinate – thus allowing the individuals to understand each other better (Gerstner & Day, 1997). High-quality LMX relationships are consequently characterised by frequent interactions and open avenues for both dyadic members to generate and realise the currencies of exchange (i.e. liking, loyalty, professional respect, and contribution) (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Research shows that high LMX quality relates to a range of positive follower outcomes (for reviews see Anand et al., 2011; Martin et al., 2010; Schriesheim et al., 1999; Van Breukelen et al., 2006).

In the initial stage of an LMX process, when liking and respect have been established, a manager can assign a subordinate to test their capability, contribution, and loyalty (Liden et al., 1997). When satisfied with the subordinate's qualities, the manager becomes more confident and involves the subordinate in more important organisational

activities (Leana, 1986; Liden et al., 1997). The subordinate may interpret this as special treatment from the manager, and the subordinate may feel indebted. The norm of reciprocity (Bauer & Green, 1996) makes the subordinate feel obliged to reciprocate by applying an extra effort for better performance (Bauer & Green, 1996; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Ahmed et al., 2014).

The quality of relationships between supervisors and subordinates is often studied via LMX theory. To develop high-quality LMX, employees must increase their commitment and performance. To assist focal employees in achieving their goals, a leader will likely provide vocational training and organisational resources and share work-related information (Xiaoling Song et al., 2017). These relationships are characterised as high quality, reflecting trust, respect, and loyalty, or low quality, reflecting mistrust, low respect, and a lack of loyalty (Morrow et al., 2005). Sparrowe & Liden (1997) found that individuals in high-quality LMX relationships receive more of a leader's time, direction information, and emotional support than those in low-quality relationships. Employees are more concerned about what they get in the short-term rewards and usually have lower social exchanges with their leaders. Supervisors interacted less with subordinates in a low-quality LMX relationship (Kramer, 1995).

Additionally, leaders do not offer valuable job assignments involving potential future development. Consequently, employees will have lower self-confidence to complete the required tasks. Higher LMX exchanges decrease employee performance by partially reducing their engagement. Employees in such a situation may likely consider searching for other opportunities and leave their organisations.

LMX has been associated with many antecedents (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Van Breukelen et al., 2006) and positive personal and organisational outcomes (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2016; Rockstuhl et al., 2012). In a recent meta-analysis of LMX consequences and antecedents, Dulebohn et al. (2012) examined 247 studies of the LMX literature with 290 samples. They found that LMX quality has been associated with 21 antecedents and 16 outcomes. Positive outcomes occurred at both the individual level, such as job performance and job satisfaction (Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984), and at the organisational level, such as commitment (Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986), low turnover (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982), and overall organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB; see also for review Dulebohn et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2016). As for the antecedents associated with LMX, Dulebohn et al. (2012) categorised these 21 antecedents into three domains, that is, leader characteristics (e.g., agreeableness, transformational leadership qualities; see also Schyns et al., 2012), follower characteristics (e.g., locus of control, extraversion, and neuroticism), and interpersonal relationship characteristics (e.g., perceived similarity, affect, and trust).

2.6.3 Work Engagement

The concept of work engagement was first coined by Kahn in 1990, who defined it as "the harnessing of organisational members' selves to their work roles" (p. 694). It is the extent to which an individual is attentive and absorbed in the performance of his or her work. Kahn (1990) argued that when people are engaged, they are not only physically involved in their work, but they also are cognitively alert and emotionally connected to others at the moment of engagement. However, the level of work engagement varies across

individuals as the amount of energy and dedication they contribute to their job is different. According to May et al. (2004), the definition of work engagement was quite similar to what has been previously defined by Kahn (1990). They believed that work engagement consists of three components: *physical* - the energy used to perform a job; *emotional* – putting one’s heart in one’s job; and *cognitive* - engrossed in a job.

Schaufeli et al. (2002, p. 24) defined work engagement as a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption.” They refer to vigour as high levels of energy and mental resilience related to work experience and one’s eagerness to invest effort in work and persist even when faced with problems. Employees will feel motivated, eager, and excited about their work even when faced with setbacks, limitations, or challenges. Dedication involves being deeply involved in one’s work and experiencing feelings of importance, passion, motivation, and challenge. Dedicated employees would happily be involved in their work and feel that it is important, meaningful, and challenging. Lastly, absorption is described as being content and total concentration on one’s work.

Furthermore, Work engagement is “a relatively enduring state of mind referring to the simultaneous investment of personal energies in the experience or performance of work” (Christian et al., 2011). Rather than a momentary and specific state, engagement refers to a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behaviour” (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Macey et al. (2009) suggest various steps that organisations can take to build a culture of engagement to yield a competitive advantage, including treating people fairly and as valued resources, building an environment of trust in management and immediate supervisors,

strengthening recruitment and socialisation by attracting people disposed to doing well in such work environment, and communicating engagement culture through an on-boarding process in which employees learn about the organisation's culture. Effective engagement undertaken by managers across the organisation should be shared and rewarded openly to institutionalize a culture of engagement.

2.6.4 Personality

As defined by Churchill et al. (1985), personality characteristics are psychological characteristics that enhance a person's ability to perform. Personality is an important indicator of the work world today. A positive personality is capable of producing employees with positive values involving emotional, cognitive, and behavioural values and thus contributes to the effectiveness of work performance. According to Hogan & Smither (2008), at the most basic level, a meaningful personality theory must address at least six topics: human motivation, personality development, the self, the unconscious, psychological adjustment, and the relationship of the individual to society (Smither & Khorsand, 2009).

From the psychological aspect, the Five-Key Personality features are five common factors or dimensions of personality traits found through empirical studies;

1. The first feature is extraversion which is energetic, active, curious, self-esteem, sociable, wanting to be with others, speaking, expressing ideas, and wanting something confident, optimistic, and positive about something (McCrae & Costa, 1999).

2. The second is neuroticism. This feature is contrary to emotional stability, such as unreasonable behaviour, worrying about something, nervousness, easy-to-lose patience, irritability, depression, and anxiety.
3. The third characteristic of character is the consent of comfort and ease of love, showing respect and courtesy, and having a good, flexible, trustworthy, cooperative, forgiving, tolerant, and kind personality (Zhang, 2003).
4. The fourth personality feature includes honest openness, does not have any agenda, can think about something, has an idea of imagination, listening and accepting ideas, no cover and frankness, curiosity, having original ideas, and broad-minded and artistic sensitivity (Barrick & Ryan, 2003).
5. The fifth characteristic of personality is the firmness of the firm and firm with his idea. Hence, motivated behaviour to realise a clear and tangible objective. It includes working with caution, complete, thorough, detailed, responsible, and knowledgeable. This personality feature is usually associated with educational achievement and motivation (Barrick & Ryan, 2003).

Defining personality empirically was made easier with the Big Five factors, dimensions, or traits model. Some researchers use different labels, but these are commonly studied as extraversion (versus introversion), agreeableness (versus antagonism), conscientiousness (versus indirectness), emotional stability (versus neuroticism) and openness (versus closedness) (Carlson, 1971; Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1999;).

1. Extraversion refers to those individuals who are socially active, motivated, assertive, optimistic, active, and self-confident. These individuals perceive difficult situations as opportunities and believe all problems can be solved with hard work and continuous

efforts. In this regard, Cheng-Liang & Mark (2014) argued that extraversion influences job performance positively because their main characteristics are assertiveness, being active, and being sociable. A person with high scores in extraversion tends to be energetic and seeks out the company of others, and those who get low scores tend to be less cooperative (Golberg, 1999).

2. Conscientiousness is the degree of reliability, and an extravert is responsible and organised. Conscientiousness is slightly more ambiguous. Individuals with conscientiousness traits are considered more reliable, trustworthy, careful, and good at planning and hard work. Cheng-Liang & Mark (2014) suggested that individuals with conscientiousness traits are more committed to their work and have higher chances of getting rewards for their work, which would create job satisfaction amongst them. According to Golberg (1999), high scores in this factor indicate who is well organised and diligent. Similarly, the low scores indicate who is less careful and less focused.
3. Agreeableness is characterised by prosocial behaviour such as kindness, sympathy, and cooperativeness. Any individual low in agreeableness would be typically cold, suspicious, insensitive, rude, and ruthless. People who get high scores in this factor are trusting, friendly, and cooperative. People who get low scores in this factor are more aggressive and less cooperative (Golberg, 1999).
4. Openness or intellect is the degree of mental flexibility and originality. People with high scores tend to be imaginative, creative, and seek educational experiences. People with low scores tend to be less interested in art and more practical (Golberg, 1999).
5. Emotional instability or neuroticism represents the level of adjustment and control of stress and anxiety (John & Srivastava, 1999; Moberg, 2001). This trait reflects the

tendency to experience negative thoughts and feelings. According to Golberg (1999), high scores in this factor indicate a propensity for insecurity and emotional distress. In contrast, low scores in this factor indicate who is more relaxed and less emotional.

When the big five personalities are viewed based on the individual Muslim perspective, a person is taught to be responsible and abstain from committing sins (conscientious), patient and *tawakkal* meaning whole-hearted (emotional stability), *musyawarah* meaning consultation (agreeableness), refrain from talking unproductively (opposite of extraversion) and display modesty and uphold conservative values originally taught by the Quran and the Prophet Muhammad (PBUH) (opposite of openness to experience). Taking Islamic precepts and teachings at their face value, one would expect to observe, for instance, teamwork, consultative, participative, and egalitarian (equality) views among employees in Muslim organisations (Tayeb, 1997). These values, especially conscientiousness and agreeableness, are well-positioned to become indispensable parts of the proposed Islamic personality measure construct. This is supported by Saroglou's (2010) findings that the fundamental personality characteristics of the religious person, regardless of culture, are agreeableness and conscientiousness.

Feist & Feist (2006) suggest that personality is a relatively permanent pattern of nature, character, and personality that gives consistency in behaviour. Thus, a personality is a dynamic organisation in a unique individual, relatively settled in the internal and external aspects of a person's character that affects behaviour in different situations. Although it is impossible to determine work behaviour from the effect of personality alone, because of the importance of situational variables such as colleagues, supervision, job environments, reward structure, etc., personality variables can be significant predictors of

work performance when they are carefully matched with appropriate occupations and organisations (Robertson & Callinan, 1998).

Islamic view of “character” is synonymous with personality. The definition of character within the field of Islamic literature could be similar to the definition that is mentioned in modern psychology in terms of interpreting human behaviour based on certain qualities that make a person unique. Ghazali’s definition of the term “character” has the same meaning as what had been given by other Muslim scholars such as Ibn Miskawayh and Ibn Sina: “A stable state of the soul, one which causes it performs its actions spontaneously and easily, without thought or deliberation. Suppose this state is of the kind which causes good actions, i.e., those praised by intellect and religious law. In that case, the state is called good character, and vice versa” (Sherif, 1975:29). Ghazali’s view in terms of the acquisition of “good character” or “*Khaliq al-Hasan*” in three ways: habitation, learning, and divine generosity.

2.7 Underpinning Theory

2.7.1 Job Demand-Resource Model (JD-R)

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model, built off of the well-known Job Demands Control model (Karasek, 1979) and Effort Reward Imbalance (ERI) model (Siegrist, 1996), describes the process by which health and well-being are related to the combination of one’s resources and job demands (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The JD-R model proposes two broad job characteristics that independently influence employee well-being. First, job demands are defined as job aspects that require sustained effort and that are associated with physiological and psychological costs. Second, job resources which are

defined as factors functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands, or stimulating personal growth and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

Job demands are those aspects of the job that involve substantial physical, cognitive, or emotional effort. Specific examples of job demand include time pressure, work overload, work-home interference, job insecurity, and conflict with coworkers (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2007). Job Demands are related negatively to individual performance. Job Demands are not aggravators but may become stressors when a sustained elevated effort is required to meet work-related demands and when health recovery is inhibited (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The general idea is that job demands drive negative well-being outcomes such as burnout or stress (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Job resources are conceptualized as catalysts in the motivational process (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011, p. 1) with the capacity to function as motivational stimuli. According to this conceptualization, factors associated with employment at various organizational dimensions, such as the organizational level, interpersonal or social relations level, task level, and the organization of work level (e.g., role clarity), can be identified as job resources. These encompass elements such as organizational and social support, opportunities for growth and career advancement, autonomy, role clarity, and performance feedback (Bakker et al., 2005; Barkhuizen et al., 2014; Boyd et al., 2011; Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006). Critical job resources included social support, pay, and benefits (Bakker et al., 2003; Dwyer & Fox, 2006). Job resources may play an extrinsic and an intrinsic motivational role because they foster learning and personal growth and are instrumental in achieving tasks (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Also, according to the JD-R model, job resources are assumed to have motivational potential, which leads to high performance through low

cynicism and high engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In other words, job resources increase engagement through energy, involvement, and efficacy and enhance individual performance (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources also may mitigate the negative effect of job demands on the strain and influence motivation when job demands are high.

In conclusion, the JD-R model is a very influential framework for establishing job performance antecedents (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The JD-R model provides a flexible theoretical tool for conceptualising key aspects of the work environment, explaining and predicting a wide range of work-related outcomes, including stress, burnout, work engagement, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, or productivity (Bakker, 2011). Specifically, the JD-R model explains and predicts employee well-being and job performance in all work environments.

2.7.2 Work Performance Theory (Blumberg & Pringle, 1982)

Work performance theory describes three dimensions influencing employee performance: capacity, willingness, and opportunity (Blumberg & Pringle, 1982).

1. The capacity dimension describes physiological and cognitive abilities. Capacity affects individual capabilities, knowledge, skills, level of education, health, age, intelligence, skills, and expertise. The capacity dimension is a driving factor for someone doing work in accordance with his ability. Suppose an employee works not according to his capacity. In that case, it will tend to have low productivity. To increase employee productivity, the company must spend to increase employee capacity through training workshops and seminars. Dimension of will refers to psychological and emotional characteristics that affect the degree to which an individual performs tasks

- and willingness is the effect of behaviour on motivation, job satisfaction, personality, norms, characteristics, and values.
2. Willingness is one dimension strongly influenced by motivation, so the higher the motivation of an employee working, the more goals to be achieved by the company will be easily achieved. Dimensions of opportunity in doing a job, this dimension is strongly influenced by environmental factors surrounding it. An individual cannot control this dimension.
 3. The dimension of opportunity greatly influences employee performance, and this is because employees are closely related to technical work. Variables related to the dimensions of opportunity are work design, systems, and procedures, relationships with colleagues, information systems, and organisational policies (Kawedar, 2015).

2.7.3 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory has become one of the models for understanding interpersonal interactions between employers and employees. Within the organisation, social exchange theory has been applied in many aspects, namely the theory of organisational justice, commitment, OCB, and support. The employees in an organisation depend on the effectiveness of the positive relationships and social interactions that exist among the employees. Blau's (1964) contributions revealed that the norm of exchange is a binding agreement in which both leaders and employees determine what, when and how exchange will be conducted. On the other hand, social exchange indicates the exchange of benefits on the basis of a relationship and trust. The benefits that come from these relationships motivate them to make decisions about relationships in life.

This social exchange theory has been used in organisations to describe interpersonal interactions. For example, if the superior has a good relationship with the subordinate, the employee will make the decision to maintain the relationship and remain in the organisation. In addition to that, social exchange theory has also indicated that power relationships occur naturally when people with different levels of potential power interact to accomplish organisational goals (Mossholder, Kemery, Bennett, & Wesolowski, 1998).

Blau (1964) proposed the social exchange theory, which explained that when organisations adopt human resource management practices, employees feel that their organisation is committed to them and they develop positive attitudes towards their job, which then creates job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2003). According to social exchange theory, if organisations offer employees rewards, they will be more motivated to build relationships with each other and work in teams to achieve organisational goals. Reasonable rewards and incentives will make employees happy and willing to stay in the organisation. On the other hand, Blau (1964) claims that social exchange supports trust, loyalty, and commitment as the basis for relational contracts and social exchange which in turn reflect the feelings and beliefs of the employees towards the leaders.

According to Schroeder (2010), social exchange theory has several assumptions which are: a) in order to maintain social exchange, both leader and employee are involved as giver and receiver in the exchange of non- contractual benefits and discretionary; b) both parties should make the common goal be realised in order to feel an obligation to reciprocate; c) social exchange should stable at least in the long term, and d) followers must actually recognize that the discretionary acts are desirable (Ibuknoluwa et al., 2015)

2.8 Hypothesis Development

2.8.1 HRM Practices and Job Performance

There are many researches that have been conducted in different sectors and various countries that indicate the link between HRM practices and job performance (Gerhart et al., 1992; Haddock-Millar et al., 2016; Tabiu et al., 2013; Hassan, 2016; Mira et al., 2019; Tadesse, 2018). Specifically, HRM practices affect performance by increasing productivity per unit of cost per worker (Huselid, 1995; Ichniowski et al., 1997; MacDuffie, 1995). The specific HRM practices that contribute to job performance are training and development, reward, job analysis, recruitment and selection, social support, employee relationship, and employee empowerment (Delery & Doty, 1996; Nataraja & Alamri, 2016; Albrecht et al., 2015; Dessler, 2006; Majumder & Hossain, 2012).

Previous research was conducted by Azim and colleagues (2017) using a questionnaire distributed to 260 lecturers at two private universities in Selangor, Malaysia. The study found a link between organisational support, system rewards, supervisory support, feedback, and organisational citizenship behaviour (a specific job performance indicator). Additionally, Rodjam and colleagues (2020) showed that all the human resource management practices (e.g., training and development, performance appraisal, reward and compensation, and employee empowerment) have a significant and positive relationship with employee performance. Mohapatra and Sharma (2010) asserted that workers without the organisation's right development path are more likely to get demotivated during their performance, which causes them to be less engaged at work.

The possible reason is that effective HRM practices will increase the sense of obligation of employees to work harder and display a higher level of commitment, which

leads to better performance for the organisation. Another reason is that one of the aspects of HRM practices (i.e., training) can positively influence employee performance by generating benefits for both the employees and the organisation. They work through developing skills, knowledge, abilities, competencies, and behaviour. In addition, previous studies have found that another aspect of HRM practices (i.e., career development) improves the quality of employees' work experiences (Barnett & Bradley, 2007; Chen et al., 2004). Based on the above discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: HRM practices are positively and significantly related to job performance

2.8.2 Human Resource Management (HRM) Practices and Work Engagement

HRM activities have the greatest impact on employee engagement, skills, attitudes, and behaviour, as well as a firm's financial performance (Ruzic, 2015). According to Van De Voorde and Beijer (2015), if employees receive economic or socio-economic resources through HRM practices, they feel obliged to repay the organisation because of their reciprocal relationship with the employer. Hoon Song and colleagues (2014) asserted that one of the ways for an employee to repay their organisation is through a higher level of engagement. In a past study, Alima and Fauzuniah (2018) found that HRM practices such as career advancement, employee participation, job security, performance feedback, rewards and recognition, training, and development are the significant predictors of work engagement for employees in 30 private commercial banks in Bangladesh.

According to Ling Suan and Mohd Nasurdin (2014), employees with proper training and development will feel that their organisations are investing a lot in their development and reciprocate by showing a high level of engagement in their work role. Armstrong and Taylor (2013) stipulated that work engagement occurs when people are committed to their work and the organisation and are motivated to achieve high-performance levels. For example, previous empirical research found HRM practices such as training have a positive association with the psychological health of employees (Luthans et al., 2008), and better psychological health of employees can lead to increased employee engagement (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Besides, a training and development program may help to build employees' confidence in their work, which ultimately helps to increase their feelings of availability (Presbitero, 2017; Gruman & Saks, 2011).

Abdul Khalid and colleagues (2014) studied and aimed to check the impact of employee compensation on employee job engagement. The data were collected among 312 employees at the banks of Lahore, Pakistan. The survey method was used in this study. The result of this study confirmed the proposed hypothesis that employee compensation positively impacts employee job engagement. Another study from Anitha (2014) identified the key determinants of employee engagement are working environment, leadership, team and co-worker relationship, training and career development, compensation program, policies and procedures, and workplace wellbeing. 67.2 percent of the study's variance in employee engagement is influenced by all those determinants.

Bhatti and colleagues (2014) argued that when organisations adopt certain practices such as a fair performance appraisal system, unbiased recruitment, development opportunities, and so on, employees show satisfactory feelings in return that help them

improve their job performance. Through her study, Nor Arpizah (2016) examines whether organisational culture and HRM practices influence employee engagement among academic staffs at Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM). Two dimensions of organisational culture, perceived organisational support (POS) and stability, were used. Whereas three dimensions of HRM practices, salary, training, and career development, will be the focus of this study to determine the influence on employee engagement. The result shows that organisational culture and HRM practices influence employee engagement among academic staffs at UUM. Among all five independent variables, training in human resource practices is the most significant variable influencing employee engagement among academic staffs of UUM. Based on the discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2: HRM practices are positively and significantly related to work engagement.

2.8.3 Human Resource Management (HRM) Practices and Personality

HRM practices have been regarded as one of the factors that can influence employee attitudes and behaviours, such as commitment, satisfaction, OCB, and social support (see e.g., Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Liao et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2007; Takeuchi, Chen & Lepak, 2009; Mallen et al., 2015; Ogunyami & Bruning, 2015; Takeuchi et al., 2007; Huselid, 1995; Katou & Budhwar, 2015; Rhee, Zhao & Kim, 2014). For example, in HRM practices, an organisation might, for instance, recruit people who demonstrate teamwork and collaboration because they value those qualities. Employees' behaviour and attitude concerning cooperation and teamwork may change over time if surrounded by co-workers who share the same traits.

HRM practices also can influence employee personality in an organisation, and an employee's behaviour and attitude can be influenced by the environment that the HR system creates, which can encourage or prevent the expression or growth of particular personality traits. A study by Shantz and colleagues (2016) argue that when employees perceive that their organisation's HRM practices are intended to improve their job performance, they experience higher levels of job involvement and lower levels of emotional exhaustion. HRM functions such as training and development can provide opportunities for personal growth, fostering increased self-confidence and self-efficacy, and positively influencing an employee's personality. Ivaskovic (2014) in his study among 277 athletes from four South East European countries, found that HRM practices contribute to an athlete's personality, which is trust in the head coach. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: HRM practices are positively and significantly related to personality.

2.8.4 Leader-member Exchange (LMX) and Job Performance

A recent meta-analysis by Martin and colleagues (2016) shows a positive relationship between LMX and follower task performance. Choy and colleagues (2016) indicate a positive relationship between high-quality LMX and job performance in their study among 268 employees in a large public sector organisation. Numerous studies also have demonstrated that LMX can affect employee's job performance (Harris et al., 2009; Law et al., 2010; Chan & Mak, 2012; Biao et al., 2014; Dulebohn et al., 2012; Ilies et al., 2007; Mehmet & Faruk, 2018). The meta-analysis of 164 LMX studies found that LMX was consistently related to member job performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

In another study, LMX is positively associated with different dimensions of employee performance, including task performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Ilies et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2016).

A possible reason is that high LMX relationships demonstrated positive outcomes for followers and their leaders in establishing high-quality working relationships. As a result, Erdogan and Enders (2007) thought that employees with high-quality LMX relationships tend to pay back with high work performance to keep a balance or fair social exchange. In addition, good interaction between superiors and subordinates will also provide good quality job satisfaction. When superiors can communicate well with subordinates, they will feel that their superiors give full impetus to subordinates. So as to increase self-confidence in subordinates and motivate them to do the job as expected even more.

There are various ways for leaders to show LMX in the organisation. For instance, involve the subordinate in decision-making. Such an approach encourages collaboration and cooperation between management and employees. When leaders and followers have good exchanges, they feel better and accomplish more, and the organisation prospers. In a higher education context, supportive leaders tend to provide various resources that assist in coordinating academic staffs in faculty. These include performance feedback and coaching that enhances academic staffs' professional skills and knowledge and permits supervisors to provide more autonomy for academic staffs to undertake their work. Supervisors may grant academic staff preferred work schedules and give emotional and social support when difficult teaching and learning environments or onerous workloads burden academic staffs.

Based on the discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: LMX is positively and significantly related to job performance.

2.8.5 Leader-member Exchange (LMX) and Work Engagement

The degree of engagement of an employee is dependent on the perception of an employee towards the quality of LMX behaviours. Organisations can never force employees to engage. They can only facilitate by providing a good and trustworthy relationship with their employers. Therefore, employees with higher-quality LMX relationships (in-group members) are more motivated and less stressed (Lagace et al., 1993) and are positively related to job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982).

Employees with a high-quality relationship with their leaders tend to engage in their organisation and a job more than those without it. Li et al. (2012) state that LMX has improved job performance through work engagement.

Leadership behaviours strongly influence employee and organisational outcomes (Chen & Silverthorne, 2005), including work engagement and turnover intention (Mendes & Stander, 2011). Furthermore, the quality of LMX improves the performance, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour, decides the level of engagement, and reduces the turnover intention (Walumbwa et al., 2011; Truckenbrodt, 2000; Hui & Law, 1999; Cheung and Wu, 2012).

The quality of the exchange relationship between employee and employer decides the degree of engagement of an employee in their work roles. Furthermore, this variation in the degree of engagement through the quality of exchange behaviours can be better understood by Social exchange theory (Saks, 2006; Andrew & Sofian, 2011) which

constitutes that when individuals receive economic and socioeconomic resources from their organisation, they feel obliged to respond in kind and repay the organisation (Emerson, 1976) by their level of engagement (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The quality of exchanges between employees and their immediate supervisors influences engagement (Agarwal et al., 2012). Based on the discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5: LMX is positively and significantly related to work engagement.

2.8.6 LMX and Personality

High-quality LMX relationships are characterised by frequent interactions and open avenues for both dyadic members (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Thus, high-quality LMX relationships improve the predictability of the managers' and subordinates' attitudes and behaviours, allowing the individuals to understand each other better (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Li et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2012). A good attitude and behaviour will develop a good personality at work.

Previous studies have shown that the quality of LMX positively affects employee personality. For instance, a study by Kim and Koo (2017) and Volmer and colleagues (2012) shows that LMX contributes to employee engagement and innovative behaviour development. One factor that determines how interested employees are in their work is the quality of their relationship with their manager (Van Dyne et al., 2008). High-quality LMX involves high levels of interpersonal trust, which carry the relationship beyond the formal employment contract (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). In another study, Runhaar and colleagues (2013) suggested that to encourage teachers to exert extra effort to ensure school success, principals should establish high-quality exchange relationships with teachers. Teachers

who enjoy a high-quality exchange relationship may show a good personality (i.e., believe that their principals are more likely to accept mistakes as learning experiences, encouraging them to try things beyond their required tasks) (Sekiguchi, 2010). In addition, the literature has found a link between LMX and other positive personalities, such as proactive (Bhal & Ansari, 2007; Sekiguchi, 2010; Van Dyne et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2015). Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 6: LMX is positively and significantly related to personality.

2.8.7 Work Engagement and Job Performance

Studies in various industries, including hotels (Leiter, 2010; Bakker & Leiter, 2010), have found a significant association between work engagement and job performance (Salanova et al., 2005). Furthermore, previous research has found that employee engagement positively impacts job performance (Bakker & Bal, 2010). Barkhuizen and colleagues (2014) found that a lack of resources increased academics' levels of exhaustion and affected their engagement level.

Armstrong and Taylor (2013) stipulated that employee engagement takes place when people are committed to their work and the organisation and are motivated to achieve high-performance levels. Engaged employees lead to higher job and in-role performance (Crawford et al., 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Salanova et al., 2005; Whittington & Galpin, 2010; Ho, Wong, & Lee, 2011).

Bailey and colleagues (2017) conducted a systematic review involving 214 studies examining engagement's meaning, antecedents, and consequences (42 studies researched the performance outcomes). They distinguished five groups of engagement determinants: leadership, job design, team, organisational factors, organisational interventions, and

psychological states. The engagement was positively associated with four work-related aspects: individual morale, individual task performance, organisational performance, and extra-role performance. Based on the previous research, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 7: Work engagement is positively related to job performance.

2.8.8 Personality and Job Performance

Past studies have shown that personality characteristics of five factors can influence the employees' job performance in a positive and significant manner (Ingarianti, 2014; John et al., 2014; Kappagoda, 2013; Chua Bee Seok, 2011; Barrick & Ryan, 2003; Bozionelis, 2004; Cheng-Liang & Mark, 2014; Raja et al., 2011). For instance, Nikolaou and colleagues (2001) examined the relationship between the five personality traits and supervisor ratings of overall job performance in the occupational setting in Greece. The study found statistically significant correlations between openness to experience and agreeableness on job performance. Abubakr and colleagues (2010) in their research on the role of personality traits in affecting employees' work performance revealed that extraversion is a useful personality trait in predicting performance in managerial and sales occupations. Olukemi and colleagues (2009) focus their research on examining the relationship between personality factors and performance using service performance indicators. Results using structural equation modelling showed that, except extraversion or introversion, all of the personality dimensions of the five-factor model (conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to new experience, and emotional stability) and the locus of control were significantly related to one or more of the performance measures. Ioannis Nikolaou (2003) examined the personality - job performance relationship from a new

perspective from 22 small and medium firms in Athens, Greece. The study found that agreeableness and openness to experience showed the most consistent relationships with the performance measures in occupations involving interpersonal interaction. Bhatti and colleagues (2014) investigated the effects of personality traits (big five) on expatriates' job performance. The data were collected from 201 expatriates working in Malaysia and analysed by using structural equation modelling with Amos 16. The findings of this study indicated that personality traits (big five) which include extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism, positively influence expatriate performance rated by peers. Recently, Nailah and colleagues (2017) explored the role of personality traits in determining performance. The data were collected from 153 employees in the sales and marketing offices of one of the largest multinational companies in two main locations in Punjab, Pakistan. The study found that conscientiousness, openness, and emotional stability directly affect performance.

The influence of personality on job performance is different between individuals. It is because each individual has a different personality, which may explain why job performance differs across different types of people with a certain personality (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Poropat (2009) argued that individuals with greater conscientiousness are more involved in the job and perform job tasks better than less conscientious individuals. On the other hand, Mount and colleagues (1998) argue that agreeableness may be used to predict job performance because individuals with high agreeableness have effective interpersonal interaction and can cooperate with others, thus also resulting in increased job performance. In addition, individuals considered more open to experience are more inclined to try new challenges and experiences, which results in better work performance. Moreover,

other research also found that emotional stability has been found to relate positively to job performance (Mount et al., 1998; Skyrme et al., 2005).

A proactive personality can facilitate employee job performance (Baba et al., 2009; Liguori et al., 2013). It is proactive that employees tend not to be restrained by direct in-role requirements. They tend to define their work role more broadly than others, perceive more opportunities to improve things in their organisations, take initiatives to make contributions, and are more likely to go beyond their formal job duties (Bergeron et al., 2014; Campbell, 2000; Crant, 2000). Proactive employees continuously feel they are working not to obtain external rewards or fulfilling the duties imposed upon them; their self-concordance is higher than those with low proactive personality (Horng et al., 2016; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2010). Based on the findings and discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 8: Personality is positively and significantly related to job performance.

2.8.9 Work engagement as a Mediator in the Relationship HRM Practices, LMX and Job Performance.

In empirical research, Wang and Tseng (2019) investigated the mediating role of work engagement for the effects of deep acting, perceived organisational support (POS), and self-efficacy on service quality. Questionnaires were rigorously distributed by stratified random sampling. For two months, data were collected from hospitality frontline employees (HFLEs) of hotels and restaurants in Taiwan. Structural equation modelling analyses were conducted to assess the data. Empirical results demonstrated work engagement is a significant mediator in the relationship.

Ahmat and colleagues (2019) found that work motivation, engagement, and job satisfaction significantly mediated the relationship between employee compensation satisfaction and turnover intention. Furthermore, the study explored by Rai and colleagues (2019) on how total rewards might influence intention to stay among employees of private sector banks in India. A moderated-mediation mechanism is hypothesised, in which a system of total rewards leads to the intention to stay via engagement.

Mohammad Aboramadan and colleagues (2019) investigate the impact of human resource management (HRM) practices on organisational commitment in Palestinian universities and examine the mediating effect of work engagement as a black-box mechanism that defines HRM practices-organisational commitment relationship. The data source is from 237 employees (academics and administrative staff) from Palestinian universities. The results reveal that work engagement showed a significant mediating effect between performance appraisal and organisational commitment, and between rewards, compensation and organisational commitment.

Swati Chaurasia and Archana Shukla (2013) established the relationship between LMX and work role performance through the dynamic employee engagement process. The study population comprised individuals from various manufacturing and service industries. The sample has covered IT industries, automobile sectors, the textile industry, the banking sector, and the pharmaceutical industry. The study's results showed that the high-quality relationship of employees with their leaders is positively related to employee engagement and their work role performance.

Work engagement emerged recently as an important mediating variable (Rich et al., 2010), with Job-Demand Resource (JD-R) theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti

et al., 2001a) providing a basis for much of this work. According to JD-R theory, job resources such as organisational and supervisor support have motivational potential. Their availability increases the engagement of employees, which in turn fosters positive employee outcomes.

Rich and colleagues (2010) discovered engagement mediates relationships between value congruence, perceived organisational support, core self-evaluations, task performance, and organisational citizenship behaviour. Shreya and Rajib (2017) revealed that LMX shares a positive relationship with employee service and innovative behaviour via work engagement. Agarwal and colleagues (2012) investigated the relationships among LMX, innovative work behaviour (IWB), and intention to quit. The mediating role of work engagement is tested within the relationship of LMX, IWB, and intention to quit. The finding showed that work engagement mediates the relationship between LMX and innovative work behaviour and partially mediates the intention to quit.

The LMX theory is based on the notion that positive actions by a supervisor can lead employees to feel indebted, forming a favour exchange (Liden et al., 2006). Previous research demonstrates that a high-quality relationship between an employee and a supervisor can reinforce the employee's work motivation (Klein and Kim, 1998). High-quality LMX relationships initiate a motivational process whereby the relationship between LMX and subordinates' job performance is sequentially mediated by employees' job resources (developmental opportunities and social support) and work engagement (Breevart et al., 2015).

The previous findings show the evidence about the potential role of work engagement as a mediator in the relationship between HRM practices, LMX, and job performance. Thus the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 9: Work engagement will mediate the relationship between HRM practices and job performance.

Hypothesis 10: Work engagement will mediate the relationship between LMX and job performance.

2.8.10 Personality as a Mediator in the Relationship between HRM Practices, LMX and Job Performance.

Previous studies have verified the role of personality as a mediator. For instance, Awais and colleagues (2013) found that personalities X and Y significantly mediate the relationship between Islamic work ethics and employee performance. Komarraju and colleagues (2009) also found that conscientiousness emerged as a partial mediator of the relationship between intrinsic motivation to accomplish and the student's Grade point average (GPA). Another study by Clarke (2004) indicates that neuroticism is a mediator in the relationship between locus of control and depression. Finally, Lee and colleagues (2006) investigated the relationships between trait procrastination and two Big Five personality factors, neuroticism and conscientiousness. Results from structural equation modelling analyses favoured a model with conscientiousness as a mediator over a model with procrastination as a mediator. The conscientiousness mediator model accounted for 24% of the variance in trait procrastination. Based on previous findings, there is a potential

for personality to play the role of a mediator in the relationship between HRM practices, LMX and job performance. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 11: Personality will mediate the relationship between HRM practices and job performance

Hypothesis 12: Personality will mediate the relationship between LMX and job performance

2.9 Research Framework

The research framework refers to the abstract and logical structure that guides the development of this study. The framework of this study is based on the identification of key concepts and the interrelationship among these concepts. The research framework in this study represents the organisational factors (HRM Practices, LMX) as independent variables, academic staff's performance as the dependent variable, and individual factors as mediators (work engagement, personality).

The research assume that organisational factors (HRMP & LMX) will significantly influence job performance. Such assumption is underpin by Job Demand Resources Model (JDR) (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). JD-R model is a very influential framework for establishing job performance antecedents (Bakker & Demerouti, 2016; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The JD-R model provides a flexible theoretical tool for conceptualizing key aspects of the work environment, explaining and predicting a wide range of work-related outcomes, including job performance (Bakker, 2011).

The research also assume that individual factors (WE & PS)) will significantly influence job performance. Such assumption is underpin by Work Performance Theory

(Blumberg & Pringle, 1982). Work performance theory describes one of the dimensions influencing employee performance is capacity. Capacity refers to individual characteristics such as their knowledge, skill, expertise, motivation, engagement and personality.

In addition the research assume WE and PS mediate the influence of HRMP, LMX on job performance. Such assumption is underpin by Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964). The theory stated that when employees feel they are treated well by their leader and organisation, they reciprocate with positive attitude and work behaviour, which intern produce a positive output that profit department and organisation. The overall model is presented in Figure 2.3.

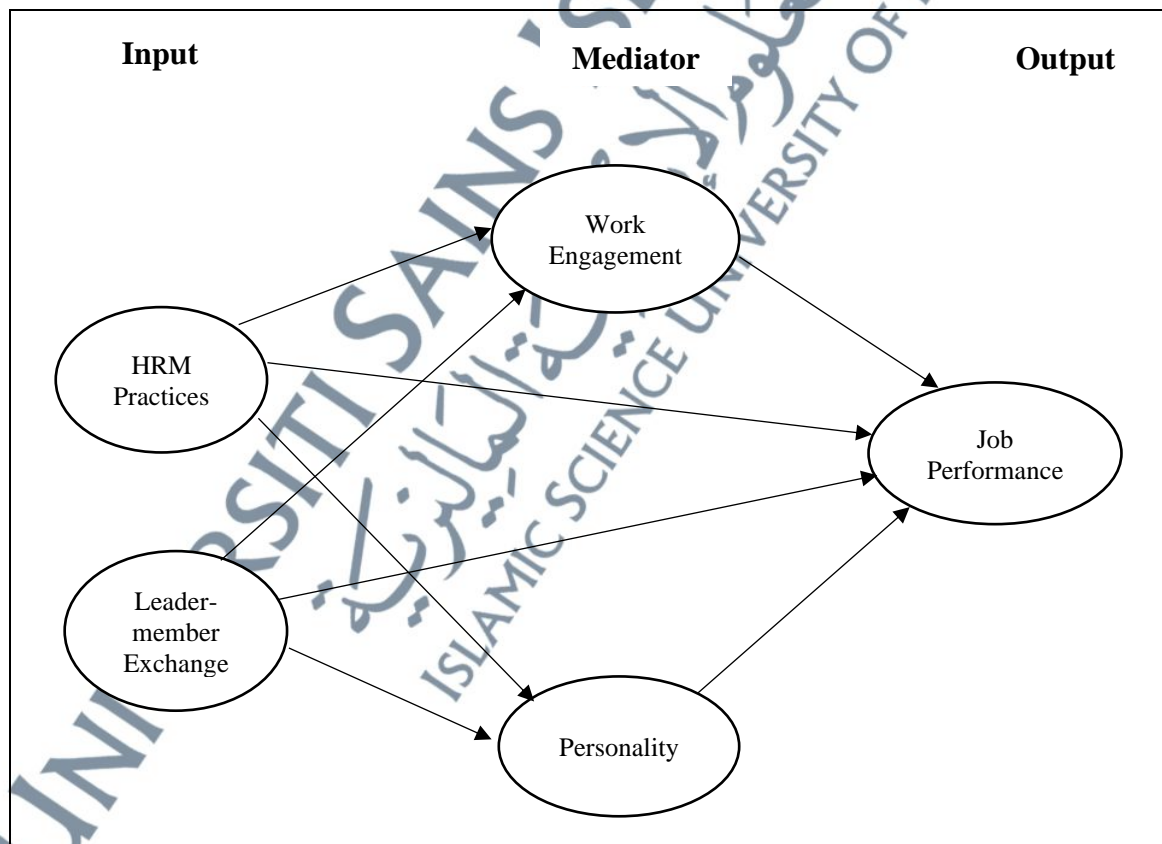


Figure 2.3: The Research Framework

2.10 Research Hypotheses

Several hypotheses have been generated for this study:

- H1: HRM practices are positively and significantly related to job performance.
- H2: HRM practices are positively and significantly related to work engagement.
- H3: HRM practices are positively and significantly related to personality.
- H4: LMX is positively and significantly related to job performance.
- H5: LMX is positively and significantly related to work engagement.
- H6: LMX is positively and significantly related to personality.
- H7: Work engagement is positively and significantly related to job performance.
- H8: Personality is positively and significantly related to job performance.
- H9: Work engagement will mediate the relationship between HRM practices and job performance.
- H10: Work engagement will mediate the relationship between LMX and job performance.
- H11: Personality will mediate the relationship between HRM practices and job performance.
- H12: Personality will mediate the relationship between LMX and job performance.

The overall model and hypotheses are presented in Figure 2.4.

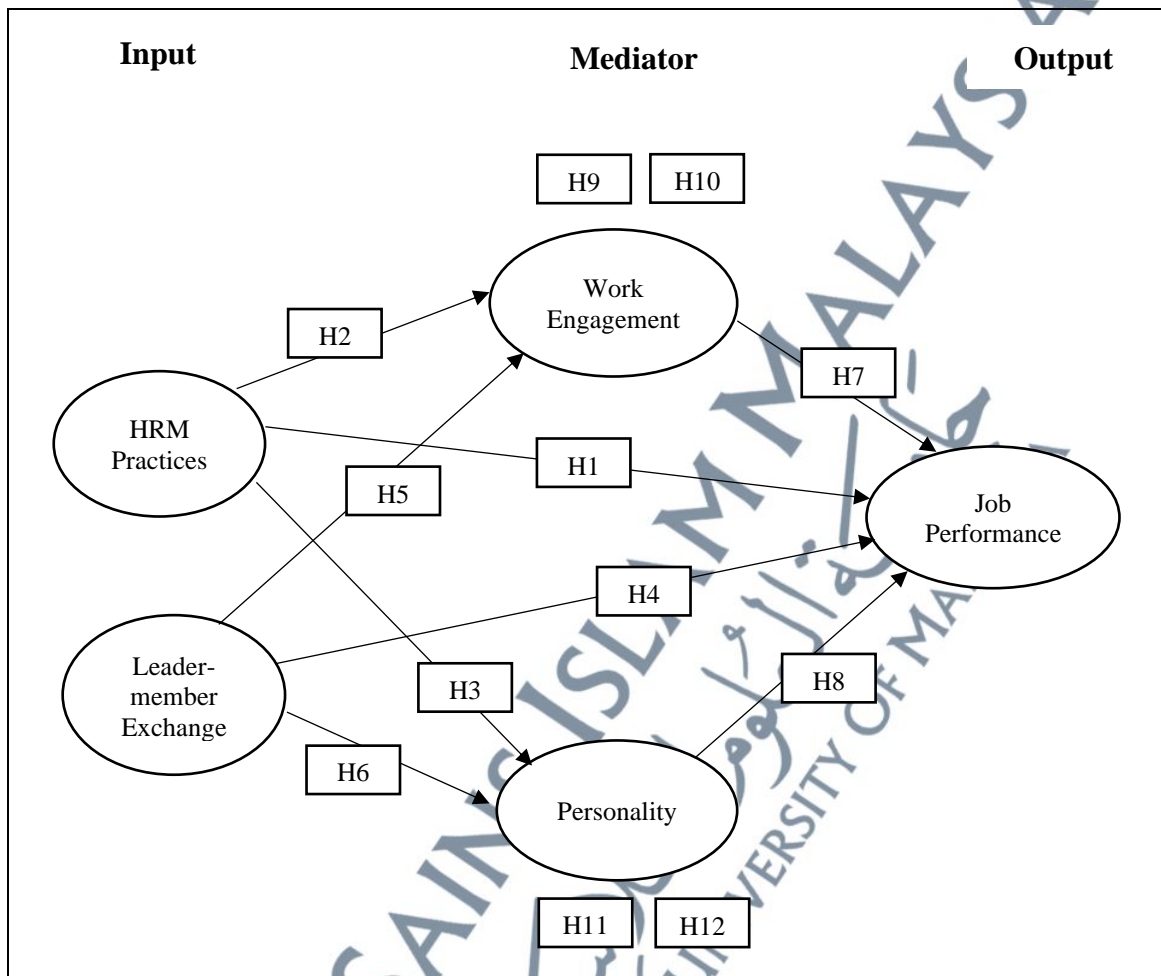


Figure 2.4: The Research Framework and Hypotheses

2.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reviewed the relevant literature related to this study. The chapter begins with an introduction to a higher education institution in Malaysia. Then, it chapter introduces the concept of academic staff and job performance. Following this, the chapter explains performance evaluation in a higher education institution. It also discusses the factors that influence job performance, the underpinning theory applied in this study, and

hypothesis development. Finally, the chapter introduces the research framework of this study. Next Chapter 3 will explain the methodological aspect of this study.

