Human Resource Management Practices and their Impact on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in the Public Sector Universities of Pakistan

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

By

Nusrat Khan Shahani

MBA

School of Management and Marketing
Charles Sturt University
Australia

March, 2015
In the name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful.

“By the time, verily man is in loss, except such as have faith, and do rightious deeds and (join together) in the mutual enjoinig of truth, and of patience and constancy”.

(Holy Quran 103:1-3)
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DEDICATIONS

With all my love, I dedicate this research to the most precious people, without whom I am unable to do anything:

My Loving Parents, My Brothers and My dearest Husband and to My dearly departed Grandmother whom I sadly lost during my Ph.D. May Allah (Almighty) rest her soul in heaven (Amin).
DECLARATION

I Nusrat Khan Shahani, hereby declare that the results, analysis, ideas, findings and conclusions reported in this thesis are entirely my own efforts, except where otherwise acknowledged. I also declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written for any degree award.

.................................................. Date..............................

Nusrat Khan Shahani
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27 November 2012

Name: Ms. Nusrat Khan Shahnani
Address: School of Management and Marketing

Dear Ms Nusrat Khan Shahnani,

The School of Management and Marketing Ethics Committee has approved your proposal: "Human resource management (HRM) practices and their impact on organizational citizenship behaviour in the public sector universities of Pakistan" for a 10 month period from “27 November 2012”.

The protocol number issued with respect to this project is 218/2012/21. Please be sure to quote this number when responding to any request made by the Committee.

Please note that the Committee requires that all consent forms and information sheets are to be printed on School of Management and Marketing letterhead. Students should liaise with their Supervisor to arrange to have these documents printed.

You must notify the Committee immediately should your research differ in any way from that proposed.

You are also required to complete a Progress Report form, which can be downloaded from www.csu.edu.au/research/forms/ehr_anrrep.doc, and return it on completion of your research project or by “27 September 2013” if your research has not been completed by that date.

The Committee wishes you well in your research and please do not hesitate to contact Dr Ramudu Bhanugopan on extension 32696 or email bramudu@csu.edu.au if you have any enquiries.

Yours sincerely,

DR RAMUDU BHANUGOPAN
School of Management and Marketing Ethics Committee
Direct Telephone: (02) 6933 2696
Email: bramudu@csu.edu.au
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Peer Reviewed Conference Proceedings


Abstract

The importance of human resource management practices (HRMP) has gained acceptance and wide recognition in a cross-cultural context. Several studies, examining the procedures and practices of human resource management (HRM) and its implementation aspects have emerged, and been applied in different contexts. However, despite growing literature on HRMP, practicability and execution in different contexts, very little published literature attempts to predict organisational citizenship behaviour in developing economies such as Pakistan.

Achieving better employee performance has been a significant focus for both private and public organisations. Hence there is need to investigate how human resource (HR) practices impact upon organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). This research will focus on three HRMP i.e. reward management system, promotion practices and performance appraisal system, and the influence of national culture and organisational culture on OCB. This study examined the factor structure of reward management system, promotion practices, performance appraisal system, national culture, organisational culture and OCB in a sample of administrative employees working within public sector universities in Pakistan.

A mixed methodology was used to investigate HRMP and their impact on OCB and to examine the correlational paths. Using a survey method, data was collected from 515 employees working in 5 public sector universities in Pakistan and semi-structured interviews were conducted with officials of these universities. The overall response rate was 56.5% (i.e. 515 out of 910). After data-screening, the final model was tested with 420 subjects. Principal component analysis was used to determine the underlying factor
structures employing SPSS 19.0 followed by the regression analysis and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) at the first stage. Hypothetical relationships were examined with analysis of moment structures (AMOS v.21) at the second stage and the study findings indicated that the extended model achieved good-fit for a four factor model and most of the hypothetical paths were significant. Specifically, out of 13 hypotheses, 12 were supported leaving 1 as unsupported. The final model supported a theoretical framework that is inclusive of four factors: human resource management practices (reward management system, promotion practices and performance appraisal system), national culture, organisational culture and OCB. The study findings revealed that HRMP significantly impact OCB directly and with the influence of national culture. Whereas, organisational culture had no impact on OCB, although HRMP significantly impacts organisational culture.

Confirmation of HRMP influence on OCB, as identified in this research, is important for policy makers in developing countries as it contributes to increased employee performance and organisational efficiency, benefiting both employees and organisations. This research adds to the body of knowledge by validating the nomological factor structure of HRMP, national culture, organisational culture and OCB in universities of Pakistan and enriching understanding of HRMP from the employees’ point of view. This study demonstrates the structural parameter estimates representing relationship between the constructs of the study. Finally, based on the findings, limitations and implications for theory and practices are devised.
Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents a detailed introduction to the study and its context. It begins with an introduction to the topic in the first section and presents, background information related to the country in which the study was undertaken in section two. Sections three and four outline the theoretical background and context of the study and describe the constructs of the study. The fifth section presents the theoretical model. The following three sections, sections six, seven and eight, provide the research problem, research objectives and outline the research question. Section nine consists of an overview of the research methodology of the study, followed by the tenth section, which describes the anticipated outcomes. The final two sections, sections eleven and twelve, provide an overall outline of the thesis structure and a brief conclusion.

1.2 Introduction

New fields of knowledge, increasing technological advancements, online automation, and the recent trends of globalization have compelled organisations to pay more attention to Human Resource practices and to set more exacting standards of excellence and perfection. In the early 1970s, organisations were operating in a stable environment with distinctive domestic markets and with fewer complexities. The real shift in the management of human resources in the organisation occurred in the 1980s when it went from relative insignificance to its current accepted strategic importance.
The field of human resource management (HRM) has been expanding and becoming more linked with the strategic needs of the business and has been characterized by a dynamic global economy with cut-throat competition, advanced information technology and the expansion of emerging economies (Anakwe, 2002; Kipkebut, 2010; Schuler, Dowling, & De Cieri, 1993). In organisations challenges are inevitable i.e. retention of competent employees, ensuring best practices, policies and procedures, developing positive working environments and responding to technological, economic, socio-cultural and socio-political factors. The organisation’s survival depends upon how it manages human resource practices and their implementation in an effective manner, (Anakwe, 2002; Kipkebut, 2010).

The economic slow-down has impacted on both developed and developing countries. Economic crises have brought challenges such as inflation, higher rates of unemployment, layoffs and downsizing which are heavily affecting organisational success. The main purpose for any organisation is to achieve better performance through efficient completion of tasks, commitment and motivation of employees. The participation of motivated employees involves emotional, cognitive, behavioural energies and coherence in working to achieve organisational objectives (Andrew & Sofian, 2011). According to Bakker, Albrecht, and Leiter (2011) organisational performance and effectiveness is a function of the mutual efforts of engaged employees who experience more attachment and do things which enhance organisational effectiveness.

HRM covers a wide range of areas. However, this study will introduce the general nature of HRM practices in a developing country, Pakistan, and analyse the relationship
between reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour in public sector universities of Pakistan.

1.3 Background to the research: The Islamic Republic of Pakistan

The Islamic Republic of Pakistan is classified as an under developed country on the world's mental map. With an estimated population of 197,361,691 (Including Azad Jamoon Kashmir) as of mid 2011 census, ("International The News," 2012). It has the world's sixth largest population and has the second largest Muslim population after Indonesia. Pakistan comprises four provinces namely Sindh, Balochistan, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Punjab.

Figure 1.1 Map of Pakistan

Province where this research was conducted
The province of Sindh, also known as 'Mehran' (River) and 'Indus Valley', is the second most densely populated province of Pakistan, with approximately 55,245,497 inhabitants. It has over 5000 year’s recorded history of civilization. Within Sindh province Thatta, Matiari, and Chotyarion were considered the educational centers of their time. However, Karachi, Hyderabad, Sukkur, Larkana and Jamshoro are the new educational hubs for the people of Sindh province. The biggest and coastal city of Karachi is its provincial capital.

1.3.1 Economy

Pakistan’s economy is based primarily on agriculture. However, recently the country's economic structure has begun to shift towards the manufacturing and service sectors. Per capita income of the country was 3.5% and GDP was 13.99% in 2013-2014. In order to accelerate economic growth the government of Pakistan is focused on global developments through competitiveness, productivity, innovation and entrepreneurship. The Pakistani economy is relying on the banking system to meet their financial needs, but capital markets are relatively slow in developing (Ministry of Finance Government of Pakistan, 2014). Consumption, investment and export are the three main drivers of economic growth in Pakistan. Pakistani society is a consumption oriented society, having a high marginal tendency to consume (Ministry of Finance Government of Pakistan, 2014).
1.3.2 Education

The Government of Pakistan recognizes education as a basic human right and primary education is compulsory, but there continues to be a low level of compliance with many children not enrolled at school. However, only a small percentage of the budget is spent on education, which results in a shortage of resources. Pakistan has one of the lowest levels of spending on education amongst South Asian countries as shown in Table 1, which has affected the quality and availability of education in Pakistan (Ministry of Finance Government of Pakistan, 2014).

Table 1.1 Public Sector Spending on Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Spending (As % GDP)</th>
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<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>2.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bhutan</td>
<td>4.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>3.1</td>
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<td>Iran</td>
<td>4.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maldives</td>
<td>11.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>4.6</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Pakistan</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.0</strong></td>
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<td>Sri Lanka</td>
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Source: CIA World Fact Book

(Ministry of Finance Government of Pakistan, 2014).

There is an embedded assumption in the community that a low budget, corruption and mismanagement have led to poor educational outcomes and have resulted in
inefficiency in the education sector during the last 10 years. In Pakistan education is available at five levels, from Primary, Middle, Secondary School Certificate (SSC), Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) and University programs leading to Graduate, Post Graduate and Advanced Degrees.

According to reports compiled by the Daily Dawn Newspaper half of the population of Pakistan is illiterate and it has the highest number of school aged children who are not engaged in primary or tertiary education. It also suffers gender disparity at all levels of education. The government of Pakistan is responsible, as the largest provider of education, but the failure of the educational sector of Pakistan has resulted in poor quality public education. Due to the failure of public sector education the private sector has emerged and flourished. But unfortunately there is no mechanism or control system for the overall quality of education in Pakistan ("Daily Dawn Newspaper Karachi Pakistan," 2012).

1.3.3 Public Sector Universities in Pakistan

The reform in higher education has brought economic diversification to Pakistan. Industrial and technological development has rapidly increased since the country’s independence in 1947, particularly in the late 60s and early 70s. As an agricultural country, development in the agriculture sector has dominated policies for education, meaning the agriculture and industries sector have a very close relationship. So as the requirements of agricultural and industrial education increased it resulted in the establishment of dedicated agricultural and engineering universities alongside the general purpose universities.
There are approximately 99 registered educational institutes (universities) working in Pakistan out of which 17 are public sector universities/degree awarding institutes providing education in the province of Sindh, which caters for the needs of higher education for around 29% of the population of Pakistan. The majority of these universities are lacking effective HR practices and do not have independent HR departments (Higher Education Commission Pakistan, 2015).

1.3.4 Human Resource Management Practices in Pakistan

The establishment of different types of universities required the availability of appropriate teaching and non-teaching staff. This requirement was fulfilled with the correct management of the human resources, and resulted in the demand for fully operational Human Resources Management (HRM) departments.

Human Resource Management was made responsible for all staff-related activities such as hiring, accommodation, remuneration, benefits and ongoing training of faculty and staff members of the organisation. Previously, only one division of the administration was responsible for a few human resource activities. This is now changing, with the development of Human Resource Departments with more functions involving all aspects of Human Resources Management. According to Wilson (1992) HR must be working in partnership with senior management to make sure people's needs are met by building trust and the psychological contract.

Universities are human capital intensive organisations and individuals are being considered an integral part of every organisation. Human resources have become the unique source of sustained competitive advantage for every organisation as they meet
the criteria of being valuable, rare, unmatched and non-substitutable (Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994).

Although a considerable amount of research into HRM in the university context has been undertaken, it is mainly focused on developed countries. Very little attention has been paid to developing countries like Pakistan. Researchers such as Tessema and Soeters (2006), Wright, Gardner, and Moynihan (2003), and Park, Mitsuhashi, Fey, and Bjorkman (2003), report that there is a positive link between HR practices, the organisation and employees performances.

Universities in Pakistan have shown tremendous growth over the last decade. Owing to continuous efforts of the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan (HEC), universities are gaining more attention both at local and international level. Many activities performed under human resource management within the five “P’s” (“HR Philosophy, Policies, Programs, Practices, and Processes”) aim towards the utilisation of individuals to achieve organisational objectives and goals (Schuler, 1992, p. 2).

1.3.5 The Context of the Study

It has been noted that research on HRM is largely confined to developed countries. There is a need for HRM research in public sector education - a sector of prime importance for developing countries like Pakistan. This research discusses the HR practices and employees’ relationships in the context of three dimensions of HR practices: reward management, promotion and performance appraisal and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour in the public sector universities of Sindh, Pakistan. These practices are affected by monetary policies, environmental uncertainties
and political instabilities; conditions which are evident in developing countries such as Pakistan. There is a realization of the fact that ‘workforce development has become a critical issue in enabling universities to deliver multiple agendas in complex environments’ (Gordon & Whitchurch, 2007, p. 136). Universities being an integrated ‘project’ in which the multiple agendas can only be achieved by a series of contributions from different groups of staff (Duke, 2003; Gordon & Whitchurch, 2007). HR and top management are attempting to understand how they might interface most successfully with line managers (Knight, Tait, & Yorke, 2006).

Although in the recent past the Government of Pakistan has taken serious steps in the growth and development of the higher education sector through investing in faculty development programs and infrastructure facilities; the education system and policies of Pakistani universities are strongly influenced by political intervention and policies. As universities are governed by the higher education commission (HEC) of Pakistan in the large public sector universities the majority of HR decisions are made by government appointed or nominated committees (Khilji, 2004). HRM research is still in a state of infancy, in Pakistan and Qadeer, Rehman, Ahmad, and Shafique (2011), point out that public and private universities of Pakistan have little integration and devolvement of HRM despite acknowledging that the HR department is the main player.

1.4 Theoretical Background: Institutional Theory

Accurate theories fulfill the objectives of prediction (knowledge of the outcome) and understanding (knowledge of the process) regarding the relationships among the variables of interest. A strong theoretical model has a great value (Wright & McMahan,
This study applies institutional theory to describe the determinants of HRM practices.

Today, organisations are experiencing a great deal of pressure not only to adapt but be consistent with the institutional environments (Bjorkman & Gooderham, 2006). However, different theorists view institutional theory differently, but most of them are interested to understand the bases of socially constructed norms, meanings, beliefs and rules exercised in the organisation (Powell & DiMaggio, 2012; Scott, 2001; Scott, 2013).

One of the central assumptions in institutional theory is that organisations become ‘isomorphic’; members of the same organisational field share the same environment and the same systems of meanings (Bjorkman & Gooderham, 2006; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Isomorphism is produced in three ways: coercive, mimetic and normative. In the coercive isomorphism rules are imposed by the government in the organisations; in the mimetic isomorphism organisations adopt contingency rules in the situation of uncertainty; and in the normative isomorphism organisations disseminate appropriate organisational patterns which are adopted by other organisations such as universities, professional interest organisations and consultancy firms (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). These isomorphisms are also known as, regulatory mechanism, cultural cognitive and normative process (Scott, 2001). According to Scott (2001) institutional theory or institutionalization is the process in which repeated activities are given common meanings. The institutionalization process has three stages: (1) pre-institutionalization, (2) semi-institutionalization, (3) full institutionalization.

The institutional theory initially gained prominence in the 19th century and in early 1990 its applicability was recognized by HRM scholars (Najeeb, 2014; Scott, 1995).
common characteristic of institutionalism in various disciplines is that ‘institutions matter’ (Kaufman, 2010). Therefore, ‘organisational practices are either a direct reflection of, or response to, rules and structures built into their larger environment” (Paauwe & Boselie, 2003, p. 59). The reason behind adopting the institutional theory is its relevance to HRM practices. Very early Meyer and Rowan (1977) suggested that the institutional environment is the source for legitimacy and recognition by defining practices adopted in their environment, for example, rewards, incentives, constraints and other organisational activities (Bjorkman & Gooderham, 2006).

1.4.1 Human Resource Management Practices

Ahmed (1999) views HRM as a strategic approach for any organisation to acquire, motivate, develop and manage employees and gain their commitment. Snell and Dean (1992) argue that HR practices are an investment in human capital management which is a key resource for any organisation. Effective organisations focus on three tasks: their employees must carry out assigned responsibilities, they want to retain effective employees, and they expect innovative ideas and spontaneous activities from the employees beyond their assigned roles to improve the business of the organisation while keeping market challenges in mind (Katz, 1964).

Historically, Bakke (1967) argues that human resource management is just a part of the general management function, and gives principles for an effective approach to this function. He views the general role of management as the efficient use of resources (money, materials, market, ideas, nature, and people) to achieve organisational objectives. In his view poor management of any one of these resources would affect the performance of the whole organisation. Thus, he argues that "attention to the human
resource is required not because managers are humanitarian, but because they are managers" (Bakke, 1967, p. 198).

Until the late 1960’s the term "human resource management" did not appear much in academic writings. However, the concept of human resource management was popularized in management circles in 1970. Pyle (1970, p. 19) stated "The importance of human resources to the success of an enterprise is widely acclaimed in corporate pronouncements" and HRM emerged as a distinct school of thought by developing a human resource accounting theory (Storey, 1995a). Storey (1995a) defines HRM as personnel management and industrial relations, which some consider as an approach for the integration of people management with business strategy. Tessema and Soeters (2006) have discussed eight HR practices and their relationship with perceived employee performance. These practices include recruitment and selection, placement, training, reward management, employee performance appraisal, promotion, grievance procedure and lastly the pension/social security. Huselid (1995) discussed eleven HRM practices, the additional practices including job design, information sharing and attitude assessment.

A number of HR practices discussed by Tessema and Soeters (2006) and Huselid (1995) as mentioned above can be tested in relation to employee performance. But this study examines the relationship between three HR practices i.e. reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. The Islamic Republic of Pakistan is considered an under developed country with a very low per capita income and these three practices which have an impact on financial earnings and communal status of people, may be
considered the major determinants of employee’s performance. This is the reason these practices have been chosen for this study.

1.5 Constructs of the Study

This section outlines the constructs of the current study: Reward Management System, Promotion Practices, Performance Appraisal System, National Culture, Organisational Culture and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

1.5.1 Reward Management System

Reward management is simply defined by Drucker and White (2000, p. 1) as “the management of remuneration systems”. It is a method of implementing strategies and developing systems through which organisations achieve their objectives while attracting, motivating and retaining employees (DeGieter, DeCooman, Pepermans, & Jegers, 2008). Rewarding employees is an exchange process between employer and employee, where employees perform their task in return for receiving rewards (Perkins & Vartiainen, 2010). The term ‘reward’ is used in the literature very frequently. On the one hand ‘reward’ is treated as an incentive to the employee in return for the contribution of their services. On the other hand, it is an expense to the organisation.

Highly skilled employees may become poor performers if not motivated; and for better performance motivated employees require rewards (Delaney & Hussield, 1996). The reward system increases performance in the interest of the employee and the organisation equally. Better reward systems improve the performance of an employee which results in increased productivity of the organisation (Shah, Warsi, Naeem, &
A reward can be of extrinsic or intrinsic value. An extrinsic reward includes salary, bonuses, benefits or promotion and physical working conditions. Intrinsic reward is associated with a person’s soul and spirit including factors like autonomy, challenges and variety in the job context (Shah et al., 2011).

The rewards should have a lasting impression to substantiate the employee’s perception that they are valued. In this regard, Frye (2004) argues that human capital is the most critical asset for any organisation. To attract human capital an organisation needs to link its incentive system with organisation performance. The loss of valuable human capital due to poor incentives may be very costly. Frye (2004) found a positive relationship between equity based compensation and firm performance. He pointed out that for human capital intensive organisations compensation plays a vital role in attracting and retaining highly skilled employees.

1.5.2 Promotion Practices

Organisations use promotions to give incentives to valuable employees in return for their hard work, and at the same time to fill higher level positions. Promotion provides an incentive for an employee to learn new skills and to engage in additional training that results in permanent earning differences (Bimbaun, 1976; Deborah, Clark, & Dunlop, 1990). Armstrong (2003) suggests two important considerations for promotion procedures in organisations; (1) to enable management to obtain the best talent available in the organisation to fill senior positions; and (2) to provide an opportunity for employees to advance their careers in the organisation in accordance with the opportunities available and their abilities. The internationally successful company Hewlett-Packard (HP) has a policy that promotes and develops from within (Truss,
Tessema and Soeters (2006) argue that there is a positive correlation between promotion practices and perceived employee performance in that performance was shown to improve when staff felt that this would most likely lead to promotion. Park et al. (2003), argue that efficient HR practices like merit promotion can lead to higher performance in an organisation.

Career moves are analyzed from two dominant aspects, (1) efficient allocation of skills for the tasks i.e. job related training that increases worker’s skills, and (2) promotion as an incentive effect of rewarding performance that includes accumulation of specific human capital. Attainment of skills which are required for higher responsibility jobs results in promotion. For example, it can be seen in the hierarchy of different jobs of prospective workers (Melero, 2010).

Promotions are mainly based on two procedures: the initial assessment of the employee’s ability that includes interview, tests or examination of Curriculum-vitae and job performance after entering an organisation (Hahn, 2009). Procedures for promotion may vary in organisations. In most Asian countries the initial evaluation score is preferred over the performances after entering the organisation. For example a graduate from a renowned university of Asia or from USA, UK and Australia is more likely to be promoted without consideration of their performance after entering the organisation. In this situation employee’s competition for a promotion may be biased towards the selection of an employee for promotion. Although competition does make employees work harder (Hahn, 2009).
Promotions can increase self-esteem, create trust and empowerment which have a positive association with intrinsic motivation (Deci & Rayan, 1985). Promotion plays a central role in creating incentives for employees and the prospect of promotion increases the level of extrinsic as well as intrinsic motivation (Herpen, Cools, & Praag, 2006).

1.5.3 Performance Appraisal System

Performance appraisal is one of the practices used in the organisation to evaluate and rate an employee’s performance for a particular job. Murphy and Cleveland (1995) state that performance appraisal is typically conducted as a formal, discrete event once or twice in a year, for two reasons, (1) to assist with administrative decisions like promotions and pay raises, and (2) to assist in employee’s development by identifying training opportunities and areas for improvement.

A well designed system of performance appraisal can help to motivate staff. For example, identifying proficient staff and rewarding them can result in better performance. Generally, organisations desire that employees should be working towards achieving goals for its success and employees desire to remain in the organisation if they are kept motivated. Both employee and employer commitment is based on motivation which directly impacts on performance (Mundhra & Jacob 2011).

Performance appraisal may have twofold objectives one is to measure employee performance while the other is to measure how HR performance contributes to organisational goals. According to Brown and Hewood (2005) performance appraisal represents a formalized process which is used for worker monitoring, evaluating job
performance and is intended to be a management tool to improve the performance and productivity of workers.

Brown and Benson (2003) and Brown and Hewood (2005) also believe that with the help of performance appraisals an employee’s commitment and productivity can be improved, with appropriate explanation and supervision of performance leading to higher job satisfaction and professional commitment.

Formally, performance appraisals are used for many purposes such as promotions, demotions, retentions, transfers, evaluating training need, psychological tests and developing executives (Kindall & Gatza, 2009).

Appraisals can be instrumental for the organisation in order to achieve its objectives if they are performed correctly and logically (Alireza, 2000). The organisation’s success depends upon the motivation of employees by their directors hence; performance appraisal systems are the most popular tool used for reforming activities to motivate staff for improved services (Saibou, 2011). Recognizing highly skilled employees and rewarding them appropriately for their hard work in order to motivate, retain and improve their performance, are among the important aspects of performance appraisal.

There are different types of appraisal methods such as, Trait-Focused Performance Appraisal, Behaviour-Focused Performance Appraisal, Unstructured Method, Straight Ranking, Paired Comparison, Grading and Checklist, Management By Objectives, Psychological Appraisals and 360-Degree Feedback. However these types of appraisal systems can be classified into two categories (1) individual appraisal methods, and (2)
annual confidential reports to check the employee’s weaknesses and strengths in performance (Saibou, 2011).

1.5.4 National Culture

Research has shown that due to cultural differences, all Human Resource (HR) tools and techniques cannot be applied in the same way in each and every country. Consequently, before such techniques are applied in a particular cultural context they should be investigated for appropriateness in that culture or organisational environment. This is because culture is always a man-made component of any society (Muduli, 2011). It reflects the way people live, their traditions, custom and design for living. Singh (2009) says that sociologists, psychologists and theorists are concerned with the popular constructs of national, organisational and societal culture. For example Kroeber and Kluckholm (1952, p. 357) described culture as "a body of learned behaviour, a collection of beliefs, habits and traditions shared by a group of people and successfully learned by people who enter the society". Hofstede (2005, p. 282) discussed culture as "the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes the members of one group from another…culture in this sense, includes a system of values".

National culture has increasingly become a key construct. It refers to the set of shared norms and beliefs amongst individuals within nationalized boundaries that are local to a specific area (Muduli, 2011). This seems to suggest that culture is the nucleus around which values revolve. Hence, domestic managers of companies are deemed to be responsible for being familiar with differences in national culture and their influence on the effectiveness of the HR practices and policies (Muduli, 2011).
Research demonstrates that there are different approaches to investigating cultural influence on HRM practices due to the variations of HRM practices across countries (Milikic, 2009). Many authors confirm that culture has an important impact on managing people, therefore differences in management or HRM practices are to be expected (Milikic, 2009; Newman & Nollen, 1996; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2004).

1.5.5 Organisational Culture

Organisational environments can differ across countries in a range of areas such as rules, regulations, institutional set up, market, work force characteristics and culture. Different countries impose significant limitations on organisations: what they can and cannot do. This leads to greater localization and greater variance between-country than within-country variance (Gerhart, 2009).

Organisational culture along with relevant HR practices can be a factor, used by the organisations to create values and uniqueness themselves (Barney & Wright, 1998). The claim that organisations mirror the national culture of the country where they are located is useful in clarifying issues of constraint and management discretion in organisations. Organisations are compelled to respond and adapt to environmental pressures to follow accepted ways of doing business to be considered legitimate by their customers and investors. With certain scenarios, the institutional influences like industry specific or country specific are expected to create similarities, across the organisation, in their structure and practices, (Gerhart, 2009).
Organisational culture is constrained by the national culture (Hofstede, 2001). This argument is supported by Johns (2006) who views national culture as a ‘contextual imperative’ which constrains the organisational culture. These claims also fit with the institutional theory, but are in contrast with the perspectives for weighting management’s choice and the role of uniqueness for sustained competitive advantages such as the resource based view (RBV) (Gerhart, 2009).

However, RBV focuses on and prioritizes the importance of organisation’s strategy research, (Hoopes, Madsen, & Walker, 2003). RBV emphasizes how an organisation becomes different or is different ‘looking inside’ with its rare and distinctive resources and capabilities for its sustained competitive advantages (Barney, 1991; Carmeli & Tishler, 2004). Hence, RBV leads to greater variance in organisational practices and attributes and supports being different (Gerhart, 2009). As an example it has been observed by Barney and Wright (1998) that an important implication of RBV is seen in managing the resources such as ‘human capital skills’, ‘employee commitment’, ‘culture’ and ‘teamwork’ for a sustained competitive advantage. The role of culture and related concepts like distinctive values, non-substitutability and ideology are highlighted in the academic studies as characteristics that help organisations to perform better (Collins, 2001; Denison, 1990; Kotter, 2008). As Lawler (2003, p. 35) says “the organisational design elements of people, structure, rewards, and processes lead to … corporate culture”.

Moreover, Chan, Shaffer, and Snape (2004), say that organisational culture greatly influences the way HR policies and practices are implemented. For example bureaucratic cultures discourage employee initiative and employees are asked to follow
desired rules and regulations with little or no room for innovation or risk taking. Generally in Asian firms, particularly public sector work, with an autocratic leadership style and high power distance characteristics, rewarding innovation is hard because of little empowerment and a bureaucratic environment (Prabhu, 2005). In developing nations harmony is highly valued in social and work relationships and effort is taken to avoid open conflicts in comparison to the developed nations (Rhodes, Walsh, & Lok, 2008).

### 1.5.6 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is one of the most widely studied topics in organisational behaviour research (Emmerik, Jawahar, & Stone, 2005; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1993). The concept of OCB was initially introduced by Bateman and Organ (1983), who defined OCB as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (Organ, 1988, p. 4).

Research has been undertaken on OCB in both western and non western countries as a multidimensional concept (Jahangir, Akbar, & Haq, 2004). Extensive research has been focused on the effects of OCB on individual and organisational performance resulting in general agreement that OCB addresses silent behaviours of organisational enterprises (Barbuto, Brown, Wilhite, & Wheeler, 2001). The survival or prosperity of organisations appears dependent upon employees behaving as good citizens by engaging in a variety of positive behaviours (Organ, 1988).
OCB has been identified with five distinct dimensions: (a) conscientiousness, or discretionary behaviour (b) altruism, or helping a specific other person with an organisationally-relevant task or problem; (c) civic virtue, which is behaving or indicating willingness to responsibly participate in the life of the company; (d) sportsmanship, which is any behaviour demonstrating tolerance of less than ideal circumstances without complaining; and (e) courtesy, or efforts to prevent work-related problems with others (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

Considering the importance of good citizenship for organisations, OCB has received considerable attention and has remained a high priority for organisational scholars. This is particularly important in the context of the growing service imperative facing organisations (Organ, 1988; Schneider, 1990). Organisations are increasing their focus on improving customer service with a realization that eliciting customer oriented behaviour from employees is critical. Thus service oriented behaviours are forms of OCB (Morrison, 1996; Schneider, 1990). Though many behaviours are difficult to specify and ensuring behaviours through HRM techniques such as training, job description and reward is hard, OCB is a behaviour which is beneficial for an organisation despite the difficulties of formally specifying or rewarding it (Morrison, 1996).

The aggregate level of OCB behaviour demonstrated by the employees will have a positive effect on the quality of service that an organisation delivers (Morrison, 1996). Organ and Ryan (1995) noted that primarily research on OCB focuses on motivating employee level variables such as attitudes, perceptions and personal dispositions. This
research provides guidance to the organisations on encouraging OCB to improve services (Morrison, 1996).

Feldman (2001, p. 164) discussed that ‘in an organisational context, discretion has been defined as an individual’s right to make choices based on an authoritative assessment of the situation’. This suggests direction that job discretion adds to employee’s sense of responsibilities regarding work that results in better outcomes and enhances their willingness to go the ‘extra mile’ to do the tasks (Snape & Redman, 2010). Low job discretion can result in employees developing a sense of ‘learned helplessness’, and ‘reduced industriousness’ which results in poor performance and low participation in citizenship behaviour (Eisenberger, 1992; Miller & Seligman, 1975).

1.6 The Theoretical Model

Based on the theoretical background discussed above, the following research model was developed (Figure 1.2).
Figure 1.2 Theoretical Model

- Reward Management System
- Promotion Practices
- Performance Appraisal System
- National Culture
- Organisational Culture
- Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
1.7 Research Problem

Pakistan is a developing country. Due to its poor economic conditions and unstable governments a very limited percentage of the budget has been spent on the education sector which has resulted in a poor and inadequate system in public sector universities. However, to reach international standards of education and match the competition of world ranking universities strenuous effort is required. Many public sector universities are still working without HR departments. Therefore, HR practices and policies are not made fully functional and operational in the public sector universities of Sindh province.

There is a paucity of research on the HRM practices and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour in the public sector universities of Pakistan. Aycan (2005) says it is very much needed to develop an environment where people can take initiatives to make HRM practices and procedures more clear. However, each HR practice has different dimensions and varies in importance, but should be working with an ultimate goal to improve performance of both employees and the organisation.

In Pakistan human resource management needs special attention and due care, although some actions has been undertaken to address the issues relating to manpower. HRM practices and their implementation and utilisation in public sector universities of Pakistan are yet to be standardized across the universities.

Intensive efforts are needed in Pakistan for research. Very limited research has been carried out in Pakistan with respect to HR practices which have resulted in poor management of human resources. There is a dire need to examine how HR practices are
implemented and utilized in the university context and to investigate the important aspects of HR in order to enhance the employees’ performance, particularly to explore the HRM practices and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour in the public sector universities of Pakistan.

1.8 Research Objectives

The primary objective of this research is to investigate how HRM practices impact upon organisational citizenship behaviour in Pakistani universities. The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- to study the general HRM practices in Pakistani universities;
- to analyse the impact of HRM practices such as reward management, promotion practices and performance appraisals on organisational citizenship behaviour;
- to identify the factors that can increase employee performance in the public universities; and
- to identify the relationship between the HRM practices of reward management, promotion practices and performance appraisals.

1.9 Research Questions

This research seeks to answer the following exploratory questions:

1. What is the impact of HRM practices on employees’ citizenship behaviour in public sector universities in Pakistan?

2. What is the relationship between HRM practices of reward management, promotion and performance appraisal, and employee performance in the public sector universities of Sindh, Pakistan?

3. What is the relationship between demographic variables and HRM Practices?
1.10 Methodology

This section outlines the methodology used in the current study.

1.10.1 Research Paradigm and Method

A mixed method qualitative and quantitative research approach was adopted for this research. The research focused on the administration of a survey questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The basic aim of mixed method research is to combine methods in a way that considers the strengths and weaknesses of each method (Johnson & Turner 2003).

1.10.2 Questionnaire

The distribution of the questionnaire was administered by the researcher and access was gained with the help of personal contacts. The questionnaire included 138 questions. It was divided into 7 sections, e.g. demographic, reward management system, performance appraisal systems, promotion practices, organisational culture, national culture and organisational citizenship behaviour. Each section comprised potential responses ranging across a five point Likert scale e.g. strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree and strongly agree.

The participants were full time (regular) employees from 5 universities of Sindh. Officer grade 17 to 19 and clerical staff grade 11 to 16 being the focus. Validated measures/questions were used. The questionnaires were distributed in English however, translation was provided for certain terminologies on HRM in order to avoid any ambiguity in the measurement scales.
A pilot study was conducted to test the validity of questions in the questionnaires. The confidentiality of the participant was assured and, in the questionnaire no name or signature of the participant was required.

1.10.3 Interviews
The interviews were conducted with top management of the universities such as Vice Chancellor, Pro Vice Chancellor or Registrar. Each interviewee was contacted for an appointment through personal contacts, and interviews were of 45 to 60 minutes and used questions that were semi-structured, with 25 to 30 questions prepared to maintain consistency. However, minor changes were made for probing to get deep information and data.

Interviews were voice recorded and transcribed, allowing the interview to proceed unimpaired of note-taking, but with all information available later for full analysis.

1.10.4 Population
The population for this study included employee(s) working in the administration of public sector universities of Pakistan. Namely 5 public sector universities in the province of Sindh, Pakistan. For each university, the employees were divided in three groups:

(1) Officer grade 20 to 22 (management/authority) minimum 2 from each university and in total 12 to 16.

(2) Officer grade 17 to 19 (middle management) minimum 40 from each university and in total 240 to 320.
(3) Staff grade 11 to 16 (clerical/ lower staff) minimum 125 employees from each university and in total 750 to 1000.

1.10.5 Sampling Design

Participants were selected randomly for the above categorized groups. Group (1) was interviewed and included Vice-Chancellor and Pro-Vice Chancellor or Registrar of the university. However, groups (2) and (3) were given questionnaires. The distribution of questionnaires was conducted in person and using personal contacts to gain access to the universities.

The data from the questionnaire was collected first from groups (2) and (3). Then the interviews with management/ authority group (1) were conducted. The interviews were conducted last because the data collected through the questionnaires provided information or issues to be raised with the interview participants.

1.10.6 Research Instrument and Measures

Reliable and validated measures that have been used in past research have been identified for each of the variables in this model.

Reward Management system: was measured using thirteen items developed by Husin, Chelladurai, and Musa (2012). Alpha ranges between 0.76 to 0.87.

Promotion Practices: were measured using eight items developed by Krivokapic-Skoko, O’ Neill, and Dowell (2009). Alphas range above 0.60.
Performance Appraisals: were measured using forty-six items developed by Whiting, Kline, and Sulsky (2008). Alpha range 0.84.

National Culture: was measured using seventeen items developed by Keillor and Hult (1999). Alphas ranges 0.77 and above

Organisational Culture was measured using twenty-four items developed by Cameron (2004).

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour: was measured using twenty-four items developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). Alphas range above 0.70

All alpha ranges were acceptable. The responses were required on five point Likert scales (endpoints: 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree).

1.10.7 Analytical Strategies

The data collected through the questionnaires was analyzed by using descriptive statistics techniques. The demographic frequency, factor analysis, multiple regression analysis and structural equation modelling were used to determine the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Organisational citizenship behaviour was the dependent variable, which was tested for relationships with the three HR practices: reward management, promotion and performance appraisal that were considered as independent variables. For data analysis “SPSS 19” and Structural Equation Modelling, AMOS was used.
1.10.8 Scope and Delimitations

This study has several limitations; firstly, it is limited in scope which will hinder complete understanding of the phenomenon of HR practices and policies and their impact. Secondly, only three HR practices were examined meaning only a partial investigation of HRM practice in Pakistan could be made. Thirdly, a limitation of this research is that it is confined to one region/province. 8 interviews and 420 questionnaires from 5 universities provide a narrow focus which restricts the generalisability and applicability to a larger population.

1.11 Research Outcomes and Contributions of the Study

In such fragile conditions it is very important to identify which determinants can increase the employee’s performance in the public sector universities of Sindh, Pakistan. The major objective of this research is to assist the authority/decision makers in the public sector universities and the funding agencies to realize and understand the importance of HR and to follow HR practices that can enhance the performance of the employees. The output of this research could become a roadmap for HR managers of both public and private sector universities in the formulation of effective HR practices for better performance of employees and to set more exacting standards of excellence and perfections in line with the top ranked universities of developed countries.

1.12 Organisation of Thesis

This study comprises six chapters. A brief description is given as follows:

1.12.1 Chapter 1 (Introduction): this chapter provides the introduction and background of the research. Specifically, it presents the research objectives, research problem,
background to the research, theoretical background, constructs of study and expected research methodology.

1.12.2 Chapter 2 (Review of Literature): this chapter presents an extensive overview of literature/research providing a useful discussion for the context of the current research. In addition this chapter highlights the gaps in the field relating to the aims and objectives of this research.

1.12.3 Chapter 3 (Research Methodology and Design): Drawing on the literature review presented in chapter two, this chapter presents an extensive investigation of the methodological approaches related to this study. It provides an examination of the research focused on the use of mixed method which included administration of a survey questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. To have a balanced approach to exploring employee(s) and employer(s) perspectives quantitative and qualitative methods were used respectively.

This chapter outlines the conceptual framework explaining the thirteen hypotheses tested, applying SEM using SPSS 19, and AMOS 21. It presents the analysis of interview(s) themes and the main findings. Finally the chapter discussion of the justification of the mixed methodology, statistical procedures, and triangulation, followed by the conclusion.

1.12.4 Chapter 4 (Quantitative Analysis, Results and Discussion): this chapter reports the results of the research based on the data collected through the questionnaires from university administrative employees. Subsequently structural equation modelling (SEM)
analysis was applied using Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) to analyse the data and to test the hypotheses. This chapter reports on the reliability and the validity of the constructs used in the study. It presents the detailed synthesis and discussion about findings that emerged from the analysis, and in doing so the findings of the study are rigorously complemented with the literature review.

1.12.5 Chapter 5 (Qualitative Analysis, Results and Discussion): this chapter reports the results of the research based on the in-depth data analysis undertaken using semi-structured interviews followed by the identification of themes. It presents the detailed synthesis and discussion about the findings that emerged from the analysis. Moreover, this chapter provides an intensive discussion of the findings that emerged from the interviews with the senior management of the university. In doing so, the findings are rigorously complemented with the previous literature to rationalise the aims and objectives proposed in the present study.

1.12.6 Chapter 6 (Conclusion, Limitations and Future Directions): this chapter summarises the main findings of the study in terms of contribution and its limitations. It also presents theoretical and managerial implications. Finally, delimitations and directions for future research are offered.

1.13 Conclusion
This chapter has laid the foundation of the study. It has introduced the research context and theoretical background, country profile, research objectives, research problem, research questions and anticipated outcomes. In addition this chapter described the methodology for the data collection and analysis of the results followed by the scope
and delimitations of the study. Finally, the research theoretical model was established and presented and a framework of the entire thesis concluded the chapter.
Chapter Two
Review of Literature

2.1 Chapter Overview
This chapter will provide an extensive background perspective, importance of the relevant literature and useful discussion of the context in which the current research has been conducted. In addition, the chapter builds the foundation for developing the conceptual framework. This chapter provides an introduction and general background to the study, and presents a review of the prominent theories in human resource management research, which are widely accepted as predicting and explaining employee behaviour. Second the chapter focuses on three HR practices (1. reward management systems, 2. promotion practices, 3. performance appraisal systems), and national culture, organisational culture and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. Finally this chapter discusses the relationship between the above mentioned human resource management practices, and national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour.

The next section of the chapter introduces the theoretical background relevant to understanding human resource management practices. It examines the underpinning concept of institutional theory, human resource management practices and cultural context and transferability of human resource management practices.
2.2 Theoretical Background

This study is underpinned by institutional theory and contributes to the theory of institutionalisation (Bjorkman & Gooderham, 2006; Kaufman, 2010; Najeeb, 2014; Powell & DiMaggio, 2012; Scott, 2001; Scott, 2013).

2.2.1 Institutional Theory

In international HRM research institutional theory has been in use since the early 1990s (Bjorkman & Gooderham, 2006). This theory was popularized after the argument of Wright and McMahan (1992, p. 313) that “the idea of institutionalization may help in understanding the determinants of HRM practices” and continues to be used to evaluate HRM practices (Bjorkman & Lu, 2001; Fenton-O’Creevy, Gooderham, & Nordhaug, 2008). This theory has provided institutional arguments in comparative studies of HRM practices in relation to different cultures and countries (Gooderham, Nordhaug, & Ringdal, 1999). Institutional theory sheds light on a range of organisational phenomena and addresses the issues in the field of international management (Kostova & Zaheer, 1999; Scott, 2013). Organisational institutionalism is referred to as institutional practices or approaches of the organisation (Greenwood, Oliver, Suddaby, & Sahlin-Andersson, 2008). Organisational institutionalism deals with the institutional perspective about organisational behaviour (Najeeb, 2014). For analysing behaviour of the organisation, institutional theory works as a tool or lens to measure inconsistencies due to its emphasis on the procedural, historical and contextual aspects of organisations (Currie, 2009).

According to Greenwood et al. (2008) institutional theory is a cure for the technocratic and overly rationalist perspective of early days because of its relevance to a variety of
theories such as neo-classical economies theory, ecology theory, resource dependence theory and more recently to structuration theory (Greenwood et al., 2008; Sayilar, 2009; Scott, 2008). Institutionalism was first applied systematically in HRM by Paauwe and Boselie (2003) who provided the following framework:

**Figure 2.1 Institutional Mechanisms and Human Resource Management**

![Diagram showing institutional mechanisms and human resource management.](source)

Source: Paauwe and Boselie (2003, p. 61).
2.3 Human Resource Management Practices

As early as 1967 Bakke argued that human resource management was part of the general management function, and identified a number of principles for an effective approach to this function. Bakke (1967) contested that the efficient use of resources, such as people, money and materials, was the primary role of a manager and was central to achieving organisational objectives. The overall performance of the organisation would be negatively affected if even one of these resources was mismanaged. He argued that "attention to the human resource is required not because managers are humanitarian, but because they are managers" (1967:198). Since then HRM has gained increased recognition and importance.

The concept of human resources was popularized in management circles in 1970. When Pyle (1970, p. 19) stated "The importance of human resources to the success of an enterprise is widely acclaimed in corporate pronouncements" and it emerged as a distinct school of thought with the development of a human resource accounting theory (Storey, 1995a). Storey (1995b) argued that HRM differed from personnel management and industrial relations and described this approach as integrating people management and business strategy. HRM now incorporates a range of people management practices including recruitment and selection, placement, training, reward management, employee performance appraisal, promotion, grievance procedure, pension/social security, job design, information sharing and attitude assessment (Huselid, 1995; Tessema & Soeters, 2006). All of which are thought to have a significant impact on employee performance (Tessema & Soeters, 2006) providing direction for employees and firms simultaneously (Fombrun, Tichy, & Devanna, 1984; Har, In, & Phaik, 2010; Mondy & Noe, 1993).
The value of human resources was confirmed in the 1980s when HRM research indicated that firms should pay attention to employees and treat them as valued assets to improve productivity and competitiveness (Yeganeh & Su, 2008). With the introduction of HRM, firms’ learnt how to reduce turnover rates of effective employees and increase their productivity level (Guthrie, 2001). The focus and contribution of HRM practices continued to evolve.

According to Legge (1995) HRM is divided into two aspects: (1) ‘Soft’ which is described as more ‘human oriented’ emphasising communication, commitment, skills and leadership. Employees are viewed as valued assets that contribute to better performance in the organisation. (2) ‘Hard’ which is focused on the quantitative calculations of resources and considers the cost and numbers of employees required (Storey, 1987). Moreover, many authors like Har et al. (2010), and Schuler (2000) attest that effective strategies and operations are foundations for organisational success, of which HRM is a key requirement for developing, executing and sustaining such competitiveness.

The role of HRM can be defined as a range of policies with strategic significance, designed to facilitate integration, commitment, flexibility, quality of working life, the meeting of business goals and also changing organisational values, structure, and productivity and delivery methods in the organisations where necessary (Brewster & Tyson, 1991).

Ahmed (1999) viewed HRM as a strategic approach for any organisation attempting to acquire, motivate, develop and manage employees and gain their commitment. Snell
and Dean (1992) argue that HR practices are an investment in human capital management which is a prime resource for any organisation. Effective organisations focus on three areas to improve the business of the organisation while keeping market challenges in mind (1) the ability and willingness of employees to carry out their assigned responsibilities, (2) retention of effective employees, and (3) innovative ideas and spontaneous activities from the employees beyond their assigned roles (Katz, 1964).

Despite growing support for HRM as a unique source of competitive advantage, improving organisational performances and contributing to success through developing and delivering strategic roles, efficient services and facilitating organisational change, it is primarily viewed as a cost to be minimized (Apospori, Nikandrou, Brewster, & Papalexandris, 2008). Hence HRM faces the challenge of proving its usefulness in organisational productivity and profitability (Apospori et al., 2008).

Adopting HRM practices can be beneficial, operational and motivational in improving an organisation’s competitiveness, and attracting more qualified employees that ultimately increase the productivity level of the organisation (Williamson, Cable, & Aldrich, 2002). Consequently their legitimacy is enhanced. HRM systems have recognised their importance (Bloom & Van Reenen, 2007), and that the adoption of HRM practices has positive effects and is of special interest to organisations (Patel & Cardon, 2010). International trends of business, globalization, deregulation, and changing customer demands require that organisations continually improve their quality, productivity and performance and HRM practices play a key role in realizing such efficiencies (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Stup, Hyde, & Holden, 2006).
Guest and Peccei (2001) and Patterson, West, Lawthom, and Nickell (1997) indicate that employee commitment and satisfaction are associated with higher workplace performance and that HRM has an effect on employees' attitudes and behaviour and therefore employee performance. Employees work and life satisfaction is therefore a result of the relationship between HRM practices and policies and work environment, which if well designed and implemented can enhance performance (Guest, 2002).

Whilst the importance of HRM to organisational success is now widely recognized and accepted, the growth in international and multinational corporations has presented another set of issues and challenges for HRM. The significance of cultural differences at the national and regional level has also been recognized for some time, particularly since the seminal research into cultural differences conducted by Hofstede (1980b).

Human resource management is about the procedures and practices that cover the human resource aspects within organisations (Al Ariss & Dessler, 2012; Obeidat, 2012). Such procedures and practices should be connected to the overall strategy of the organisation. Bratton and Gold (2003, p. 7) argued "the strategic approach to managing employment relations which emphasizes that leveraging people's capabilities is critical to achieving sustainable competitive advantage". HRM practices deliver progressive career support and development to employees (Tan, 2008) and are classified as programs for providing guidance to employees to gain career goals, skills, and interests to establish career plans across the organisation (Hall, 2002). HRM practices enhance retention, build morale of the employees and increase empowerment that results in improved strategic outcomes for the organisation (Gutteridge, 1993). Zaleska and De Menezes (2007) conducted a longitudinal study from 1997 to 2000 on employees from
six organisations in the UK and noted that there were substantial challenges for organisations in understanding the changing needs of their employees and the environment in order to support, guide and motivate them. A collaborative effort in career related HRM practices benefits both employees and organisations (Tan, 2008). HRM practices linked to career development increase employee organisational commitment by establishing a psychological contract between an organisation and its employees (Sturges, Conway, Guest, & Liefooghe, 2005). As a result of the psychological contract, mutual trust, understanding and reciprocity of responsibilities results in positive outcomes for both the employee in terms of promotion and professional career development and for the employer in terms of better productivity (Krivokapic-Skoko et al., 2009). Lippert and Swiercz (2005) noted that in the knowledge economy, its human resources are the most crucial asset of the organisation. The success of organisations relies mainly on the performance of their human resources. Gorjup, Valverde, and Ryan (2008) highlighted the fact that promotion is not used in isolation, but plays a part along with other human resource management practices in supporting and creating more promotional opportunities.

In the current business environment many organisations have invested enormously in HRM practices to boost their competitiveness and promote employees’ commitment. Human capital is treated like any other capital and is being measured in terms of return on investments (Innocenti, Pilati, & Peluso, 2011). Research by MacDuffie (1995) shows that there are three ways HRM practices are likely to positively influence the performance of any individual or organisation. (1) when employees possess good knowledge and skills to perform the task required in the organisation, (2) when employees are motivated to apply their knowledge and skills, and (3) when the
environment of the organisation allows them to contribute input and provide suggestions.

The increasing trends of international business, market globalization and cross national activities have seen growing interest in understanding what, how and why HRM policies and practices differ between countries. Leat and El-Kot (2007) and Rosenzweig and Nohria (1994) argued that HRM is the area of management most subject to national differences. Therefore understanding national context is very important, particularly the socio cultural context, economic and legal elements and the political environment. In order to understand and to explain HRM practices and policies, the main focus has been on aspects of national contexts (Leat & El-Kot, 2007). The implementation of HRM practices within any country is both historically and socially embedded therefore HRM practices are context specific and slow gradual change is expected. To ascertain that HRM practices being used are reflective and consistent with cultural values, an examination of the national culture of a country in relation to the HRM practices is essential. Functions such as recruitment and selection, training and development, job descriptions, rewards and performance appraisal systems have been found to be significantly influenced by cultural differences (Leat & El-Kot, 2007).

National factors (i.e. economics, governance, financial, legal and trade unions) together form the national business system and are the main sources of difference that underpin HRM between nations (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Lane, 1995; Whitley, 1999). The last two decades of the twentieth century saw the emergence of research identifying the influence of national culture on HRM practices and policies (Bjorkman, 2004; Budhwar & Sparrow, 2002; Laurent, 1986). To explain the national system of HRM, researchers
have focused on national, institutional and cultural environments. There is also a debate as to whether cultural, institutional or indeed both factors have the greatest influence on a national HRM system (Leat & El-Kot, 2007; Quintanilla & Ferner, 2003; Sparrow, Brewster, & Harris, 2004).

HRM approaches in any country can be seen as cultural artifacts reflecting the basic values and assumptions of the national culture where organisations originate (Laurent, 1986). Bjorkman (2004) reviews a number of studies that have examined the national cultural influences on HRM practices and the cultural dimensions of Hofstede have been used to illustrate how HRM practices may differ across national borders. The majority of HRM practices and policies are culturally linked (Sparrow & Wu, 1998), however, Budhwar (2000) concludes that HRM practices are context specific and so the national HRM practices are determined by both ‘culture free’ and ‘culture bound’ factors. ‘Culture free’ factors include, technical and recruitment training as these follow technical ingredients or specifications relevant to the job positions. ‘Culture bound’ factors include key elements of HRM functions such as policy for performance based pay and group performance versus individual performance requirements (Kerr, Dunlop, Harbison, & Myers, 1960). Therefore, HRM practices in any country are heavily influenced by both the cultural and institutional arrangements. Budhwar and Sparrow (2002) however point out that the deconstruction of various cultures is seen as difficult and that institutional influences also impact on managerial behaviour. Therefore a considerable focus has been given to understanding the influence of national culture on work-related attitudes and organisations (Tayeb, 1998).
Authors such as Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2004); Stone and Stone-Romero (2008); Tayeb (2005); Hofstede (1980a); Laurent (1986); Briscoe, Schuller, and Claus (2009); Aycan (2005); Li and Karakowsky (2001) and Schneider (1992) argue that HRM practices such as recruitment and selection, training and development, compensation, performance appraisal, job description and employment security appear to be vulnerable to cultural differences, and that this may have significant implications for their design and suitability. For example, the concept of paternal leave is not as common in developing countries as in developed nations.

According to Ashkanasy, Wilderom, and Peterson (2011), the growing debate on culture has resulted in the emergence of more diverse and varied perspectives among culture researchers (Sackmann, 2006). Authors such as Legge (1989), Adler and Jelinek (1980), and Hofstede (1980a) argue that cultural context is of prime importance for translating principles into practices. In the views of Denison, Nieminen, and Kotrba (2014), culture was distinctively conceptualized and viewed as unique rather than viewed as common or comparable. Successful HRM practices may not be easily transplanted without taking culture into consideration. Kidger (1991) also questions whether management practices are ‘culture bound’ or ‘culture free’, although multinational enterprises (MNEs) are considered as key players in the transferring of ideas. Schneider (1988) and (Lawrence, 1986) found that national culture may offset the creation of the ‘international organisation man’, and international HRM has to look into the ‘multi-dimensional puzzle’ available at the junctions of national and organisational cultures.
Organisational culture is constrained by the national culture (Hofstede, 2001), which is a reflection of the values, norms and beliefs of the local population. This argument is supported by (Johns, 2006) who views national culture as a ‘contextual imperative’ which constrains the organisational culture. Different national cultural values can influence leadership styles, organisational culture and how HRM practices and policies are implemented within the organisation (Rhodes et al., 2008). So national cultures differ mainly on their basic values, while organisational cultures differ more in their practices and become a visible part of culture which can be changed within cultural boundaries. The core of organisational culture is in the practices shared by its employees (Hofstede, 1998).

Increased interest has been seen in the relationship between HRM and organisational performance (Appelbaum & Kamal, 2000; Boxall & Macky, 2009) and attention has focused on the importance of knowing the mechanisms through which HRM influences organisational performance (Datta, Guthrie, & Wright, 2005; Delery, 1998; Paauwe & Boselie, 2005). Over the last decade, HRM research has tended to focus on issues of organisation and control through optimization of the organisational work, combination of efficiency and flexibility with innovative work structure and the sophisticated management control mix (Appelbaum & Kamal, 2000; Boxall & Macky, 2009). Commitment, cooperation, empowerment and self-control are at the heart of “high commitment or high involvement work systems” which provide “optimal” HRM systems (Appelbaum & Kamal, 2000; Arthur, 1994; Boxall & Macky, 2009; Huselid, 1995). This particular approach to HRM creates a better situation for both employers and employees that can result in the implementation of newer, more flexible and adaptable work environments.
Guest and Peccei (2001) and Patterson et al. (1997), indicate that employee commitment and satisfaction are associated with higher workplace performance and that HRM has an effect on employees’ attitudes and behaviour. As a whole, employee’s satisfaction both inside and outside work may best be linked to HRM in the context of a partnership or mutual gains system. A range of policies and practices associated with work and life satisfaction for employees and higher performance for the organisation can therefore be implemented more effectively (Guest, 2002).

Organisations are increasing their focus on improving customer service with a realization that eliciting customer oriented behaviour from employees is critical. Thus service oriented behaviours are forms of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Morrison, 1996; Schneider, 1990). Many behaviours are difficult to specify and ensuring these resultant behaviours through HRM techniques such as training, job description and reward can be difficult. OCB is a behaviour which is beneficial for an organisation despite the difficulties of formally specifying or rewarding OCB (Morrison, 1996). According to Sonnenberg, Koene, and Paauwe (2011) each HRM practice can be important for elevated performance if the HRM system is focused on a specific combination of practices. High commitment and high involvement work systems are seen as “optimal” HRM systems for managing employees which better align the interests of both the employees and the organisations (Arthur, 1994; Kochan & Osterman, 1994). Organisations that focus and commit to HRM practices are thus paying attention to, and investing in their human capital (Boselie, Dietz, & Boon, 2005).

The aggregate level of OCB behaviour demonstrated by the employees will have a positive effect on the quality of service that the organisation delivers (Morrison, 1996).
Organ and Ryan (1995) noted that primarily research on OCB focuses on the motivating impact of employee level variables for example attitudes, perceptions and personal dispositions. These provide guidance to the organisations to encourage OCB to improve services (Morrison, 1996).

2.3.1 Human Resource Management Practices and Cultural Context

Hofstede (1983), claimed that management is ‘culturally dependent’, and noted that leaders of effective organisations become accustomed to foreign management ideas within local cultures. Hofstede (2001, pp. 141-142) recognized that ‘there have been examples of multinationals successfully reforming local cultural traits’, but ‘this is a difficult task, and for best results multinational management practices should fit the local culture’.

Hofstede (1983) assumes that there is face-to-face correspondence between the culture and the nation, representing a reciprocal relationship. Four dimensions of culture, Power distance, Individualism and collectivism, Masculinity and Femininity and Uncertainty avoidance, identified by Hofstede link culture to human resource management and influences how human resource practices are used and practiced.

The central role of national culture was highlighted by the Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) cross-cultural study of Gupta and House (2004) which found an emphasis on the relationship between national culture and organisation culture that ‘mirrored’ each other. Gerhart (2009) and Javidan, House, Dorfman, Gupta, Hanges, and de Luque (2004, p. 726) concluded that ‘organisations mirror societies from which they originate’. HRM and culture both come from
employees who have been influenced by events outside the organisation in their social settings (Khilji, 2003). Ideas and beliefs are part of the people’s everyday life and one can neither isolate organisations from culture nor separate culture from the social structure. Thus culture is the driving force behind organisations (Willmott, 2000) that influences decision making and HRM practices. Gerhart (2009) argued that the organisations are constrained or mirrored by the national culture but face environmental pressures to be similar to other organisations and seek opportunities to be different from other organisations. Hence, emphasis is given to adapting or setting policies that respond to environmental pressures to conform to accepted business styles for organisational success (Scott, 2013).

However, Kochan, Katz, and McKersie (1994), argued that even when organisations face the same challenges of environmental pressures and competitiveness they can be unique in the market with respect to the attributes of HRM practices and organisational culture. Organisations with distinct human resource management practices and organisational culture may experience an increased level of success.

According to Gerhart (2009) besides cultural characteristics countries also differ in institutional environments, competitive environments, management practices, strategic decisions and organisational background. All these aspects have a certain influence on organisational culture, and it is generally assumed that national culture significantly constrains organisational culture. Moreover research evidence suggests that countries do differ. Therefore, national cultures differ and such differences should be taken into consideration while implementing and designing management and HR practices for organisational success (Gerhart, 2009).
As pointed out by Nyambegera, Sparrow, and Daniels (2000), the work of Austin (1990), Jaeger and Kanungo (1990) Kanungo and Mendonca (1994), and Kanungo and Saunders (1995) has focused on management issues in Asian developing countries and identified that culturally, developing countries employees have completely different values from Western employees. Hence, Western HRM paradigms are less relevant to Asian countries because of their divergent context (Nyambegera et al., 2000).

Research shows that South Asian managers are often traditionalists and have a preference for their current ways (Jaeger & Kanungo, 1990; Miah, 2000; Razzaque, 1991). These managers resist changes and develop culture-based, superior or subordinate relationships with regard to the local customs. These managers believe more in the value of machinery, equipment and plant of the company than in the development of human resources (Miah & Bird, 2007). Studies by Habibullah (1974), Razzaque (1991) and Sobhan and Ahmed (1979) observed that in South Asian Companies an autocratic approach prevails and managers favor an authoritarian style of HRM, perceiving this as equivalent to professional management. Subordinates rarely participate in managerial decision-making and ‘closed door’ is a common practice in South Asian companies (Khilji, 2003). Psychologically, the managers in South Asian companies are least concerned with employee participation and the participation of managers themselves in HRM practices is not noticeable (Miah & Bird, 2007).
2.3.2 Transferability of Human Resource Management Practices

To further complicate the challenges of HRM in the international arena transferring HRM practices and policies from developed nations to developing nations requires an understanding of culture-sensitive practices and societal culture characteristics. Thus it is advisable for HR experts and managers to understand the cultural differences prior to implementing HRM practices and policies with respect to the developing countries’ culture (Papalexandris & Panayotopoulou, 2004). The workforce brings culturally based values to the workplace and requires a HRM system that encompasses the reflected values of their culture. For example, American organisations have introduced management by objectives (MBO) to translate individualism of their employees into recognition of performance, and creating effective incentives for the employees (Khilji, 2003). The results of a survey conducted in India evidenced that the majority of people working at managerial level believed that HR policies are influenced by the labour laws, educational trainings and industrial regulations (Budhwar & Debrah, 2001).

The theoretical model of culture fit (MCF) proposed by Jaeger and Kanungo (1990) was an attempt to relate culture to HRM practices. The reliability of the MCF was tested with the participation of 2,003 employees and managers from ten countries namely: Canada, US, Germany, Israel, Romania, China, Pakistan, India, Turkey and Russia (Aycan et al., 2000; cited in Aycan, Al-Hamadi, Davis, & Budhwar, 2007). The conclusion derived from the MCF was that, the organisation’s two essential elements, task and employees, are influenced by the managerial beliefs and assumptions of the internal culture of the organisation (Aycan et al., 2007). HRM practices were based on managerial beliefs and were designed to alter or improve employee skills and behaviour. Managers based their beliefs on the understanding that controlling or directing their
own actions was determined by the existing socio-cultural contexts; and would subsequently influence the behaviour of others through setting an example.

In the field of HRM noteworthy advances, have been made in the past few decades. Albeit, the focus of the research has only been on developed countries (Aycan et al., 2007; Legge, 1995; Schuler & Jackson, 2005). This needs to be extended to developing countries. Research in the developing countries needs to be tested for the generalisability of theories and practices which have actually originated in the developed countries context and there is a need to identify suitable strategies in relation to the different contexts (Ali, 1992; Aycan et al., 2007; Napier & Vu, 1998; Robertson, Al-Khatib, & Al-Habib, 2002).

Each HR practice faces the same issues of transferability, cultural significance and impact, and relevance when introduced to a culturally different context. The remainder of this literature review will focus on three HR practices: reward management system, promotion practices, performance appraisal system, and two mediating components national culture and organisational culture, with organisational citizenship (OCB) behaviour as an outcome variable. The next section discusses reward management systems, followed by promotion practices and performance appraisal systems.

2.4 Reward Management System

The term ‘reward’ is frequently used in the literature. On the one hand ‘reward’ is considered an incentive to the employee in return for the contribution of their services. On the other hand, it is an expense to the organisation. Reward management is simply defined by Drucker and White (2000, p. 1) as “the management of remuneration
systems”. It is a method of implementing strategies and developing systems through which organisations achieve their objectives while attracting, motivating and retaining employees (DeGieter et al., 2008). Thus rewarding employees is an exchange process between the employer and employee, where employees perform their task in return for receiving rewards (Perkins & Vartiainen, 2010).

Husin et al. (2012), refer to rewards as all compensations and incentives provided to employees by the organisation for their contribution: mental, physical, moral and regulatory. Husin et al. (2012) used a questionnaire which was developed by integrating questions from a number of previous studies and focused on issues associated with reward management practice, supervisory recognition and performance acknowledgement. They found that these factors equally enhance organisational citizenship behaviours and suggested that managers should be more responsive to employee needs on these HRM specific practices.

Behrend (1957) described this process as an “effort bargain” whereby employees accept employer direction of their working hours in return for pay (Behrend, 1957). However, effort bargain is not a static arrangement and ‘renegotiation’ of the terms of exchange at the time of hiring of an employee is often necessary (Marsden, 2004). The contract of employment is open-ended in duration and contents and sometimes this contract needs revision and at this point renegotiation must occur. Both employee and employer have invested in this relationship and are vulnerable to pressure tactics from each other, because employers do not want to lose employees and employees do not want to lose their job. Considering the importance of reward management practices, factorial
structure should be regarded as an important aspect in determining reward structure and its prospects, in identifying specific, quantifiable output of work.

Rewards are instrumental for the satisfaction of employee needs and preferences (Maslow, 1954). Hofstede (1980a), and Pennings (1993) argue that employee needs and preferences vary across cultures, and that this affects the relative importance individuals attach to rewards. Therefore, employee perceptions of different rewards may differ across cultures, which ultimately affect the motivational potential and effectiveness of the reward system of any organisation (Chiang, 2005). For example in cross-border business, multi-national companies must recognize the cultural influence of reward systems because studies show that employee perceptions of reward systems are culturally bound (Hofstede, 1980a; Pennings, 1993).

As reward is a central element in the relationship between the employee and employer, it is important that the employee’s perceptions of different rewards are comprehended (Chiang, 2005), and that organisations offer well defined tangible value (e.g. pay and bonus). The employee must know which tasks to perform and which rewards they will receive in return; resulting in more effective employee performance and organisational goal achievement. Expectancy theory (Porter & Lawler, 1968) provides support for this claim, demonstrating a strong and visible link between performance and reward. When employees believe their performance will be rewarded they strive to achieve a particular level of performance. Chiang (2005) found evidence of expectancy in the employee preference for individual performance reward because there is a clear and direct perception of the link between personal performance and reward outcome. Similarly, according to Tones, Pillay, and Fraser (2010) personal characteristics such as age and
gender affect employee perceptions of rewards. Hence, in retaining efficient workers consideration of employee perceptions is essential for developing a system of rewards that provides suitable incentives to enhance employee performance (Irshad & Toor, 2008).

Bratton and Gold (2003, p. 278) contend that rewards are all “the monetary, non-monetary and psychological payments to employees in exchange for the work they perform”. Each reward type satisfies different needs. Elements of reward management as identified by Perkins and Vartiainen (2010) such as governance of pay and other benefits under the employment contract can be controversial and have been criticized especially at the time of the global financial crisis. Pressure on management to get it right has widened the concept of the “total rewards” model (Giancola, 2009). A total reward includes everything employees get as a result of their employment, i.e. monetary payments and other material benefits with monetary value such as health insurance, residence allowance and paid holidays (Davis, 2007). Another reward element encompasses “psychological rewards” such as recognition of professional interpersonal relationships (Perkins & Vartiainen, 2010).

The rewards should have a lasting impression to substantiate the employee’s perception that they are valued. In this regard Frye (2004) argues that human capital is the most critical asset for any organisation. To attract human capital an organisation needs to link its incentive system with organisational performance. The loss of valuable human capital due to poor incentives may be very costly. Frye found a positive relationship between equity based compensation and firm performance and concluded that for
human capital intensive organisations compensation plays a vital role in attracting and retaining highly skilled employees.

Ichniowski, Shaw, and Prennushi (1997) argue that employees performance can be improved if they are informed about significant benefits and incentive pay plans which are linked with practices such as employee participation in problem-solving, flexible tasks or job design, training to improve variety, and employment safety and security. Reward management systems have a statistically significant relationship with employee outcomes and corporate financial performance; for example, firms with effective reward systems have lower turnover, greater productivity, and better financial performance (Huselid, 1995).

Besides economic exchange, employees establish a social exchange relationship with their organisation. This includes long-term orientation guided by mutual trust, feelings of personal obligations and gratitude. Employees perform their job with a trust that their employers will compensate their efforts with appropriate rewards. In psychological rewards most rewards have a symbolic value satisfying an intrinsic need for recognition or achievement (DeGieter, DeCooman, Pepermans, & Jegers, 2010).

While accepting the controversies around the substance and process of employee reward following economic shocks from the global financial crises, employers’ responses may vary subject to the nature of the employment relationships and the role rewards play in regulating that relationship and its outcomes. For example employers bringing in foreign direct investment with their own ways of managing rewards (Perkins &
Vartiainen, 2010). Therefore, diverging assumptions about the role and nature of the reward are based on changing circumstances.

Highly skilled employees may become poor performers if not motivated; and for better performance motivating employees requires rewards (Delaney & Hussield, 1996). The reward system increases performance in the interest of the employee and organisation equally. Better reward systems improve employee performance which results in increased productivity of the organisation (Shah et al., 2011). A reward can be of extrinsic or intrinsic value. An extrinsic reward includes salary, bonuses, benefits of promotion and physical working conditions. Intrinsic reward is associated with a person’s self esteem and includes factors like autonomy, challenges and variety in the job context (Shah et al., 2011). Rewards are instrumental in stimulating employee behaviours to encourage excellent service and a strategically designed reward system helps to generate commitment and employee behaviour for effective contributions (Elmadağ, Ellinger, & Franke, 2008).

Employee reward preferences may differ between cultures or between individuals within a culture. To understand employee preferences and provide a more comprehensive and broader set of rewards entails consideration of three main aspects of rewards i.e. type, system, and criterion. (1) Reward type denotes the nature of the reward, for example financial or non-financial, extrinsic or intrinsic. (2) Reward system refers to the methods for determining employee reward. For example reward may be based on the employees’ performance on the job, or on non-performance factors such as, seniority, length of service, and skills. (3) Reward criterion, focuses on the basis
upon which rewards are distributed, such as individual or group based rewards (Chiang, 2005).

Considering the importance of reward management systems in attracting, motivating and retaining employees, the factorial structure should be regarded as an important aspect in identifying specific, quantifiable output of work. Hence, based on prior research and literature the following hypothesis was proposed to test the reward management system construct:

H0: The factor structure of reward management systems are interrelated, multidimensional and optimal predictors.
2.5 Promotion Practices

Organisations use promotions to give incentives to valuable employees in return for their hard work, and at the same time to fill higher level positions. Promotion provides an incentive for employees to learn new skills and to engage in additional training that results in permanent earning differences (Bimbaun, 1976; Deborah et al., 1990). Armstrong (2003) suggests two important considerations for promotion procedures in organisations; (1) to enable management to obtain the best talent available in the organisation to fill senior positions; and (2) to provide an opportunity for employees to advance their careers in the organisation in accordance with the opportunities available and their abilities.

Promotion is regarded as a practice for recognizing and rewarding employees’ effort and contribution to the organisation. It is symbolized by a change of job and title, associated with a pay increase, power, and responsibility (Go & Kleiner, 2001). Promotion is considered a key aspect of job quality (Valverde, Ryan, & Gorjup, 2007). Employees feel satisfied with these incentives and are encouraged to perform better in the new role, whilst improving their knowledge and skills to increase productivity. Employees with better jobs may decline other opportunities, therefore, promotions reduce turnover and increase employees’ loyalty to the organisation (Go & Kleiner, 2001). The management of the organisation expects promotions to bring an opportunity for improvement in organisational output. Employees are expected to produce while learning about the new job. As a result, promotion should improve organisational efficiencies (Go & Kleiner, 2001).
According to Melero (2010), career moves have two dominant aspects: (1) efficient allocation of skills for the tasks, i.e. job related training that increases worker’s skills; and (2) promotion as an incentive rewarding performance. Promotions could be the result of the acquisition of skills which are productive at higher responsibility jobs. This can be seen in the hierarchy of different jobs of a prospective worker (Melero, 2010).

Organisations that use promotion as an incentive device frequently recruit employees at the lowest level and reserve high level positions for insider promotion. For such organisations, promotion prospects for the employees work as a principal source of incentive without feeling any threat of outside competition. Realistic prospects for promotion will encourage employees to work harder and to undertake overtime work (Melero, 2010). The internationally successful company Hewlett-Packard (HP) has a policy that promotes and develops staff from within (Truss, 2001). Tessema and Soeters (2006) argue that there is a positive correlation between promotion practices and perceived employee performance in that performance was shown to improve when staff felt that this would most likely lead to promotion. Park et al. (2003), support this view arguing that practices such as merit promotion can lead to higher performance in an organisation.

According to Hahn (2009) promotions are mainly based on two procedures: initial evaluation of the employee through interviews, tests and examination of Curricula-Vitae; and job performance after entering an organisation. The promotion procedure may vary across organisations and countries. In many Asian countries initial evaluation is given preference over the employee performance after entering the organisation. For example, the candidate who graduated from a renowned university in Asia or from the USA, UK
or Australia is more likely to be promoted, whatever their performance after entering the organisation. In this situation their competition for a promotion may not exist, although competition makes employees work harder (Hahn, 2009).

Distorted promotion competition among the employees may affect their current work activities. Therefore, reducing promotion competition would affect the chance to promote the right employee. Organisations that are concerned about the success of current activities may avoid competition between employees for promotion and focus on the initial evaluation because promotion competition causes disharmony among its employees that ultimately disturb the organisation’s interests (Hahn, 2009). Lazear and Rosen (1981) concur that the risk of disharmony created through promotion competition may be damaging to an organisation’s interests.

However, Hahn (2009) argued that to handle the trade-off between the successful current work activities and correct promotion decisions the organisation may use both initial evaluation as well as job performance to make better promotion decisions. For example a mechanism comprising an examination of initial evaluation may provide information about the background of the employee, past achievements and future interests that would lead to the employee’s job placement or position for better job performance after entering the organisation.

Herpen et al. (2006) find significant positive effect of promotions on intrinsic as well as on extrinsic motivation and support the effectiveness of promotions as an incentive device. Intrinsic motivation becomes high when an employee expects to be promoted in
the near future, and a long delay in achieving that promotion would demotivate employees and would result in poor performance.

A monetary reward, appreciation of work by the boss and status under an implicit contract with the employer in return for certain performance by the employees is an induced behaviour for extrinsic motivation. Some employees are performance oriented and are more motivated than others having an extrinsic work motivation to achieve positive evaluations (Heintz & Steele-Johnson, 2004; Kacmar, Carlson, & Bratton, 2004) and believe in themselves to create an image emphasizing one’s own achievements and abilities (Schütz & Tice, 1997). The intrinsic motivation is the individual’s own desire to work for self-satisfaction which becomes stronger if the employee is fairly considered for extrinsic motivation (Benabou & Tirole, 2003). They further argue that promotions can increase self-esteem and intrinsic motivation of employees. Promotion can create trust and empowerment that has a positive association with intrinsic motivation (Deci & Rayan, 1985). Thus promotion plays a central role in creating incentives for employees and the prospect of promotion increases the level of extrinsic as well as intrinsic motivation (Herpen et al., 2006).

Although organisations are spending a large amount attempting to comply with fair employment laws, many managers face a dilemma in promotion decisions. Organisations continue to have problems with employees who perceive unfair treatment in promotion practices (Go & Kleiner, 2001; Lemons & Jones, 2001). Promotion decisions involve a search for the competence to execute the new job role according to the manager’s expectations, which is often difficult. According to Go and Kleiner (2001) the process of searching for competence involves managers’ time and seems annoying.
and burdensome to the managers. Therefore, sometimes managers make hasty and uninformed decisions that result in problems in the future. For example, bad promotions decisions can increase inefficiency in the organisation or the decision to promote the wrong person requires more managerial attention which detracts from their managing time (Go & Kleiner, 2001).

An unfair promotion decision creates aggression and fear among employees. As a result, the organisation’s activities get interrupted and the achievement of goals is jeopardized (Go & Kleiner, 2001). The issue of discrimination based on race, colour, religion, sex, national origin and age is frequently mentioned by the popular press; often using the phrase “the glass ceiling”. The glass ceiling refers to an invisible barrier for a denial of equal opportunity such as, gender discrimination and prevention of minorities from advancing to higher levels in organisations (Go & Kleiner, 2001; Lemons & Jones, 2001; Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990). However, although legislation such as the 1991 Amendment to the Civil Rights Act (USA) and the constitution of Pakistan 1956 Article: 27 safeguards against discrimination in services and specifically prohibits discrimination against women and minorities with strict penalties for organisations failing to comply, many problems continue to exist in this area (Lemons & Jones, 2001; "Article: 27 safeguards against discrimination in services", Pakistan).

According to Go and Kleiner (2001) promotion decisions are generally made on a seniority or ability basis. Seniority based promotion is easy to analyze because it refers to the length of service in a particular job. Ability based promotion includes consideration of knowledge, attitudes and performance that are complicated to measure due to the different perception of ability by different organisations. For example, an
employee’s performance level should be evaluated based on his/her attendance, punctuality and production. The organisation should have set goals and a prudent formulated promotion system with clear guidelines informing employees (Go & Kleiner, 2001). Therefore, measuring these factors varies depending on circumstances, and type of organisation. In the organisations the relationship between seniority and ability is likely to be less consistent and promotion patterns are more flexible (Go & Kleiner, 2001).

A few researchers have specifically focused on procedural justice in promotion decisions (Gilliland, 1993, 1994; Saal & Moore, 1993). Heneman, Judge, and Kammeyer-Mueller (2003) considered promotion a form of employee selection; internal promotion systems differ from external employee selection. As promotion involves existing employees, candidates have more information regarding the procedures used in the organisation to make promotion decisions than external job applicants. Therefore, employees who are rejected and who perceive the procedures used during the promotion process to be unfair, might demonstrate negative attitudes or behaviours.

According to Lemons and Jones (2001) promotion decisions might include interviews, performance reviews, psychological testing, or assessment centres. Hewlett-Packard allows their employees to choose their own supervisors to increase their interest in seeing their managers succeed. This can be especially important when the employee chosen for the promotion obtains legitimate power over former co-workers through the new position. The former co-workers are more cooperative when they participate in the promotion decision (Deutschman, 1994). Employees feel satisfaction with organisational outcomes, when they experience procedural justice in promotion
decisions and perceived fairness in promotion decisions can be an important determinant of employee commitment (Deutschman, 1994; Lemons & Jones, 2001).

Promotion policies and their use in organisations can also be examined using the theory of internal labour markets (Doeringer & Piore, 1971; Wholey, 1985), which entails an itinerary of jobs and professional career opportunities, less entry-routes into the organisation, and the provision of training in company-specific knowledge (Hurley, Wally, Segrest, Scandura, & Sonnenfeld, 2003; Matias-Reche & Fuentes-Fuentes, 2006).

Sourcing applicants from an internal labour market is considered to have a number of advantages for both organisations and employees (Anuedo-Dorantes, 2000; Burgess & Connell, 2006; McConnell, Brue, & Rabasco, 1997; Pergamit & Veum, 1998). From the employee perspective, internal labour markets promote greater job quality, ensuring job security, and opportunities for promotion (McConnell et al., 1997). However, internal labour markets also limit the competition for jobs from the external or secondary labour markets (Anuedo-Dorantes, 2000).

Many studies revealed that these characteristics of internal labour markets contribute to increasing job satisfaction among employees (Hunter, 2000; Leontaridi & Sloane, 2001; Ritter & Anker, 2002; Valverde et al., 2007). Most empirical studies of internal labour markets have focused on the manufacturing sector, both in terms of structure (Garavan & Coolahan, 1996) and the use of promotion (Baron, Davis-Blake, & Bielby, 1986; Bayo-Moriones & Ortin-Angel, 2005; Carmeli, Shalom, & Weisberg, 2007; George &
Shorey, 1985; Gorjup et al., 2008; Pergamit & Veum, 1998). Therefore, there is a need to examine the use of promotion in the service sector.

Many authors demonstrate that in the knowledge and information society, organisations are encouraged to develop employees’ skills and knowledge (Hansson, 2007; Sieben & De Grip, 2004) and that promotions are used in organisations which require specific knowledge to undertake the job (Becker, 1964), through the provision of training. (Gorjup et al., 2008) found that the greater the extent to which organisations depend on specific skills, that are best acquired through training on-the-job, the greater the likelihood of the use of promotion. Promotion is encouraged in situations where people are working in a close work environment, gaining real experiences and organisations are investing in employees to develop specific skills and knowledge (Baron et al., 1986; Bayo-Moriones & Ortin-Angel, 2005). Moreover, the impact of investment in training can be increased when it is combined with other human resource practices such as, training and promotion (Ichniowski et al., 1997; Sieben & De Grip, 2004). Additionally, Bayo-Moriones and Ortin-Angel (2005) found that when internal promotions are made to fill a vacancy, the organisations save on the training costs of providing a new employee from outside with company-specific skills. Therefore, an organisation benefits as the trained employee is promoted and utilises his/her acquired knowledge, skills and competence.

Given the importance to an organisation of promoting the right person and the fact that an adverse or wrong decision can result in litigation (Landy & Conte, 2004) it is surprising how little attention has been paid to promotion practices in academic literature. In order to be successful, organisations need to have a talented work force.
Generating a talented work force begins with the selection of an appropriate individual, providing helpful training and mentoring processes. Well designed promotion practices can contribute to the development of talented individuals (Breaugh, 2011). Promotion is considered as a process of rewarding and recognizing employees contribution to the organisation. Employees remain satisfied with promotion prospects and perform well, whilst enhancing their skills and knowledge (Go & Kleiner, 2001; Gorjup et al., 2008). There have been several studies that have examined the link between training and promotion (Melero, 2010), effects of wage and promotion incentives (Takahashi, 2006), assessing the contents of the psychological contracts (Krivokapic-Skoko et al., 2009) and promotion in call centers (Gorjup et al., 2008).

Considering the importance of promotion practices, the factorial structure should be regarded as an important aspect in determining promotion practices and its prospects in identifying specific, quantifiable output of work. Therefore, in the light of reported empirical evidences from prior research, the following hypothesis posited to investigate the promotion practices construct:

Hb:  The factor structure of promotion practices are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors.
2.6 Performance Appraisal System

Performance appraisal is one of the practices used in organisations to evaluate and rate an employee’s performance of a particular job. It is a process that allows for assessing progress towards that achievement of the desired goals or other performance standards (Kramar et al., 2011). Murphy and Cleveland (1995) state that performance appraisal is typically conducted as a formal, discrete event once or twice in a year, for two reasons, (1) to assist with administrative decisions like promotions and pay raises, and (2) to assist in the employee’s development through identifying training opportunities and areas for improvement. Appraisal can be instrumental for the organisation in order to achieve its objectives if it is performed correctly and logically (Alireza, 2000).

Success of the organisation depends upon the motivation of their employees and performance appraisal systems are the most popular tool for reforming activities to motivate staff for improved services (Saibou, 2011). Recognizing highly skilled employees and rewarding them appropriately for their hard work in order to motivate, retain and improve their performance are among the important aspects of performance appraisal. Brown and Benson (2003) and Brown and Hewood (2005) also believe that with the help of performance appraisals an employee’s commitment and productivity can be improved, and with appropriate explanation and supervision of performance, lead to higher job satisfaction and professional commitment.

Kavussi (1999) argues that appraisal systems help the organisation in improving the quality and quantity of the employee’s performance. Performance appraisal is considered a part of the control process in administration and an essential factor in HRM. Formally, performance appraisals are used for many purposes such as
promotions, demotions, retentions, transfers, evaluating training need, psychological tests and developing executives (Ahmed, Hussain, Ahmed, & Akbar, 2010).

The appraisal procedure should encourage the appraiser to investigate the personality traits of an employee such as mental alertness, integrity, initiative, confidence, adaptability and job interest in an attempt to identify the difference in causes and effects of employee behaviour. A well designed system of performance appraisal can help to motivate staff. For example, identifying proficient staff and rewarding them is one such means of motivation. Generally, an organisation needs employees who are working towards achieving goals for its success. Employees also want to remain with an organisation if they are motivated. Such commitment comes from motivation which directly effects performance of both the employee and employer (Mundhra & Jacob 2011).

Performance appraisals may have two primary objectives. To measure employee performance, and to measure how HR performance contributes to organisational goals. According to Brown and Hewood (2005) performance appraisal represents a formalized process which is used for worker monitoring and evaluating job performance and is intended to be a management tool to improve the performance and productivity of workers.

Deci, James, and Ryan (1989) maintain that managerial autonomy, support, acknowledging subordinate’s perspective, providing information in a friendly environment and encouraging initiation, results in employees being more satisfied with their jobs and achieving greater goal attainment. They emphasize that performance
appraisals need to be viewed as ways to motivate behaviour, and as such, they advocate consideration of performance evaluation consequences rather than just measurement issues. Deci and Ryan (2000) propose two types of motivation (1) autonomous that includes action with a sense of volition and choice of experiences. Intrinsic motivations such as self-esteem and self actualization are examples of autonomous motivation. (2) controlled motivation includes actions taken under pressure or externally mediated, such as actions undertaken as part of the job responsibilities often determined by others.

Lawler (1969) advocated that intrinsic and extrinsic motivators need to be taken into consideration in a performance appraisal system. An effort-reward probability can be established for many people because rewards are deemed to have high positive value. Intrinsic includes motivation from within and is internally-mediated, for example these might include such factors as pleasure, choice and interests. Extrinsic motivation is derived from monetary and nonmonetary rewards, for example, salary, bonus and health care facilities. Thus both types of motivators are a key component in supporting effective performance appraisals.

The annual appraisal process is often very lengthy and expensive in achieving objectives such as employee development, employee motivation and promotion, allocating tasks and assignments, maintaining discipline, organizing pay increases, providing performance feedback and determining educational and training needs. To achieve organisational objectives it is very important that each employee should have an awareness of the strengths and or weaknesses of their performance to resolve the problems and turn deficiencies into greater efficiency and effectiveness.
Appraisal practices include formal review, feedback sessions, and procedures for establishing work objectives, conducting self-appraisals, and setting performance goals. Performance appraisal outcomes can influence employees’ reactions toward their work, their supervisors, and their organisation as a whole. The appraisal process can create frustration and extreme dissatisfaction among employees when they perceive a biased, political or irrelevant appraisal system (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Appraisal systems can play a very important role in recognizing an employee’s talent and capabilities but while undertaking the appraisal process several problems may be experienced including inadequate support by managers, impracticality, biased attitude of appraiser or failure to conduct fair appraisal, as well as the manager’s lack of skills in using the appraisal process (Hamidi et al., 2010). These problems in the appraisal process ultimately affect the job assignment, training and promotion, transfer and dismissal and rewards such as salaries (Zavvaradeh, 1998). Such approaches to performance appraisal could merely be window dressing and a formality that would not provide the desired results. Going through such a process will result in a waste of time and resources and decisions made may result in unintended consequences (Mirsepassi, 1999).

As Wilson (2005) highlighted, performance appraisal encompasses the motivation, skills and knowledge activities of employees if conducted well. Comprehensive understanding of the effects of performance appraisal on individuals’ perceptions depends on all aspects of the appraisal process. Performance appraisal is more than the observation, judgment, evaluation, interviews, and formal documentation as emphasized by the traditional rational model. Performance appraisal systems are also more than the
personalities, self-interests, power and negotiations among their participants as suggested by the political model (Thurston & McNall, 2010). A performance appraisal includes both subjective as well as objective assessment of employee performance, to calibrate, refine and reward performances. Thus performance appraisals should be focused on ‘feedback, development and assessment’ (Khanna & Sharma, 2014). Hence improvements cannot be limited to the formats, criteria, training, goal setting, feedback, and other methods to improve the traditional model.

Performance appraisal systems must necessarily include all aspects of the performance appraisal in an integrated framework combining social interactions among the people involved with the structural forces in the environment to shape the perceptions about the processes and outcomes of performance appraisals (Thurston & McNall, 2010). These combinations and understanding the flaws in the system as a whole enable researchers to explain the performance appraisal phenomenon and assist organisations to improve their performance appraisal practices.

Associated with employee acceptance of performance appraisal is the employee perception of fairness. When employees perceive performance appraisal systems to be unfair, employers that are unable to measure specific appraisal practices and faults tend to assume that the entire system is bad. This situation can be rectified when employers are provided with the necessary information to make sensible decisions concerning their existing performance appraisal systems (Thurston & McNall, 2010). Employee dissatisfaction with the performance appraisal approach can be minimized if employees see procedural justice and perceived fairness in the appraisal process (Thurston & McNall, 2010). In order to determine the fairness of organisational processes Leventhal
(1980) identified seven procedural categories, unfair practices in any one of the categories can lead to perceptions of injustice. These include procedures for selecting agents, setting ground rules, collecting information, making decisions, appealing decisions, safeguarding employee rights, and changing procedures. Employers with a better understanding of employees’ perceptions about the performance appraisal system and process can modify performance appraisal practices so that their employees believe the systems and processes are informative and fair (Thurston & McNall, 2010).

Public sector employees have been found to perceive a lower level of organisational justice than private sector employees (Heponiemi, Kuusio, Sinervo, & Elovinio, 2011; Kurland & Egan, 1999), due to different decision-making procedures, work processes, and competing goals (Rainey, 2009). Research suggests public sector employees are motivated differently from private sector employees (Karl & Sutton, 1998; Khojasteh, 1993). Fair procedural or interactional information helps employees reduce uncertainty, and may lead to employees reacting more positively to fair treatment in situations of uncertainty. While working together employees adopt shared perceptions of organisational practices, procedures, and equity (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000), which affect individual perception of justice.

Mangwendeza (2001) argues that well managed performance appraisal is the key to improving staff morale, enabling forward planning and effective corporate performance management. Appraisal is the method of measuring the quality of work because the quality of work depends on the competency of the employee. Therefore, appraisal is an important and integral part of professional development in the workplace.
(Mangwendeza, 2001), and it can be used as a means to improve current performances and to motivate employees (Rocchiccioli & Tilbury, 1998; Swansburg, 2002).

The performance appraisal system should be considered when looking at job descriptions, as it establishes the criteria to measure job performances, relevance of the job and indicates whether the system itself is appropriate to the needs and culture of the organisation (Anderson & Pulich, 1998; Mangwendeza, 2001). Mangwendeza (2001) argued that in terms of performance standard, employees should have clear guidelines about expectations, and that descriptors be developed to formulate clear competencies for job performance that are understood by both the employer and employee. Competence frameworks are a means for aiding improved performance appraisal, promotion and career planning (Redman, Snape, Thompson, & Yan, 2000). Mohrman and Lawler (1983) argue that the motivations of HR managers in conducting performance appraisals need to be considered in reviewing the performance evaluation process, as it can be designed to measure overall contributions to the organisation or to place strict boundaries on individual performance and behaviour.

Every system has a ‘shelf life’ therefore changes are required for renewing energy and maintaining interest and relevance to the system. Ideally the performance appraisal system must have some key characteristics (Mangwendeza, 2001). These characteristics include involvement of employees in the development and revision of the system, collaboration with the human resource department to produce appraisal procedures, applications towards the development of recruitment policies, as well as rewards relevant to the appraisal outcomes (Mangwendeza, 2001).
Where researchers such as Femi (2013), Mundhra and Jacob (2011) and Thurston and McNall (2010) have examined performance appraisal systems, from many perspectives (the relationship between performance appraisal and worker’s performance; perceptions of procedural justice; and intrinsic motivators of employees of all age groups).

Considering the importance of the performance appraisal systems, the factorial structure should be regarded as an important aspect in determining performance appraisal systems in a cross cultural setting in identifying specific, quantifiable output of work. Based on, the research and literature presented here, the following hypothesis was tested:

Hc: The factor structure of performance appraisal systems are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors.
The following section presents an examination of the literature relating to the two mediating constructs of the study i.e. national culture and organisational culture.

2.7 National Culture

National culture has increasingly become a key construct. It refers to the set of shared norms and beliefs amongst individuals within nationalized boundaries that are local to a specific area (Muduli, 2011). Authors like Beck and Moore (1985) define national culture as the set of assumptions, beliefs and values learnt in childhood which differentiates one group of individuals from another group of people. Everybody’s life is implanted with national culture at an early stage which is relatively hard to change (Newman & Nollen, 1996). Similarly, Hofstede’s concept of national culture also argues that culture is the ‘software of the mind’ that is embedded at an early age of learning of any individual and is highly resistant to alteration. Another popular definition of culture offered by Hofstede (1991) is that culture is the unanimous planning of the human mind that distinguishes one from the other (cited in Senior & Fleming, 2006, p. 124). This seems to suggest that culture is the nucleus around which values revolve. Hence, domestic managers of companies are deemed to be responsible for being familiar with differences in national culture and their influence on the effectiveness of the HR practices and policies (Muduli, 2011).

Hofstede’s model includes four dimensions of national culture: power distance, individualism-collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity-femininity. Hofstede’s research showed that culture involves beliefs and behaviours at various levels evident in a wide range of organisational features such as aspects of work organisation, training arrangements and government policies (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv,
Moreover Hunt (1992), OReilly and Chatman (1996) and Wilson (2001), found that organisational culture involves shared beliefs, values, attitudes, behaviours, assumptions and practices that guide and shape organisational members in distinguishing and understanding activities. National culture refers to common customs and convictions among individuals within national boundaries that are indigenous to that area (Muduli, 2011).

The literature shows that different behaviours in different cultures are consistent with Hofstede’s cultural dimensions and have significant impact on cross cultural studies (Rhodes et al., 2008). There is ongoing discussion on the strengths and weaknesses of Hofstede’s cultural dimensions ‘high vs low power distance; collectivism vs individualism; masculinity vs femininity; long vs short term; certainty vs uncertainty avoidance’, and a further nine cultural dimensions identified by Gupta and Houses’ GLOBE study (Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness): assertiveness, future orientation, gender egalitarianism, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, performance orientation, power distance and uncertainty avoidance, provide a broader cultural perspective in relation to management practices (Tung & Thomas, 2003). To manage cultural diversity in cross-cultural associations needs appropriate organisational and interpersonal practices and skills (Delaney & Hussield, 1996). Therefore it is assumed that national cultures have significant influence on employee’s performance both directly, through cultural norms, beliefs, attitudes and values, and indirectly through its impact on employer HRM practices. Rhodes et al. (2008), advocate the term ‘glocal’ which is the combination of two concepts: ‘think globally but act locally’. These authors believe that western
management practices need amendments if used in different cultures or in a non-western perspective.

Research into international HRM has revealed that cultural differences have a great influence on an individual’s perceptions and preferences (Laurent, 1986) which impact on organisational and individual behaviour; for example, to enhance motivation within developing countries, monetary benefits are the preferred acknowledgment or appreciation of work rather than extra holidays or other non-financial rewards (Hofstede, 1980a; Rollinson & Broadfield, 2002).

Hofstede (1983, p. 89) further argued that “the convergence of management will never come” because of the divergent perspectives of culture. While recognizing the importance of culture in shaping individuals and institutional behaviour economic theory proposes that, “cultural socialization” is seen as significant in its influence on governance structures and in the coordination of employees action within institutions for example working terms and conditions (Wolff & Pooria, as cited in Festing, 2006, p. 456).

Studies on cultural differences with regard to HRM practices have two primary focuses: (1) raising awareness of cultural diversity due to the internationalization of the world economy; and the challenges of designing and implementing integrated HRM practices that acknowledge these differences (Milikic, 2009; Ricks, Toyne, & Martinez, 1990), and (2) studying the cultural differences with regard to HRM practices and policies in a comparative context.
It has been noted in the research by Hofstede, that all national cultures are different, influencing managerial values and beliefs. Due to varied national cultures, management practices need to be diverse. Hofstede (1980a), Jackson (2002), Laurent (1983), and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) further assert in their research that each society is different and that these differences can be noted in the organisational practices and distinctive management styles exhibited. Organisations are influenced by their particular cultural environment, with most HRM practices being based on cultural beliefs that reflect the basic assumptions and values of the national culture and the expectations and needs of the organisation and its employees (Myloni, Harzing, & Mirza, 2004).

In addition, Fay (1996) and Lukes (1973) note that besides cultural values as determinants of individual behaviour, people’s behaviour can also be partly understood in terms of social structures that guide or constrain individuals within institutions in the social system. For example in unionized companies, though management may favor the parent company’s HRM practices and consider them beneficial they are often unable to implement them, because of potential conflict in the host company (Beechler & Yang, 1994). This subsequently affects management practices because it is possible that a certain practice may convey an entirely different meaning in another culture (Khilji, 2002). Social institutions also influence organisational practice in a systematic way, which reflects national patterns through structural positions and processes (Sorge, 1995; Whitley, 1992). For example low preferences for empowered HRM culture are found in developing countries (Chandrakumara & Sparrow, 2004) and in developing countries’ socialization makes people passive and reactive to task requirements (Jaeger & Kanungo, 1990). As noted by Sparrow, Schuler, and Jackson (1994), evidence of
convergence of HRM strategies across nations is available but with cultural differences. This means cultural context is very important for convergence of HRM practices and policies. This is supported by Newman and Nollen (1996) who emphasized the importance of congruence between national culture and management practices and suggested that practices should be adapted to the local context to be effective.

Similarly, Huault (1996) found convergence in the reported globalizing of French industry and Japanese attempts to adopt US-type HRM practices, which suggests that both nations are becoming ‘less nationalistic’ in their own HRM policies, and incorporating more individual empowerment, flexibility, and concern for retaining specialist skills and improving commitment from employees in the workplace. On the other hand, Japan tends to have a strong vertical hierarchy and a culture of high respect for authority; equality and empowerment is little emphasized in Japanese culture (Faulkner, Pitkethly, & Child, 2002). However, hindrances in convergence of HRM show that national culture may dominate approaches to the way in which companies run. As such, due to the cultural differences and preferences a country’s emphasis differs i.e. USA-standardization of output, French-standardization of processes, German-standardization of skills and Japanese-standardization of values. These cultural differences and preferences influence their attitudes to HRM practices and policies (Faulkner et al., 2002; McGaughey & De Cieri, 1999). This is why USA, UK and German companies are inclined to openness and equality and companies in these countries lean towards flexible working conditions and decentralization (Faulkner et al., 2002).
Faulkner et al. (2002) also examine an alternative view which supports the convergence in HRM practices across nations. They argue that with increasing globalization, spreading industrialization and technological change across national cultures management practices will converge into a single best practice internationally. Earlier Woodward (1958) noted that technology plays a stronger role in establishing organisation structures than culture. Similarly, Kerr, Dunlop, Harbison, and Myers (1962), mentioned that industrialization and technological advancements tend to make for similar organisational superstructures. Haraoki (1986), Negandi (1979), Pang and Oliver (1988), and Prentice (1990) have claimed that cultural differences have less importance in designing international organisational practices, although management and personnel management practices are slightly influenced by national culture. For example, in the UK Japanese manufacturing companies introduced personnel practices that best fit the business strategy instead of traditional Japanese practices (Pang & Oliver, 1988). Prentice (1990) also believes that best management practices or style will evolve in the future irrespective of culture. Alternatively, (Caligieri & Stroh, 1995) claimed that national culture is not the only key to establishing HRM strategies. The organisational philosophy of the company and the country’s rules and regulations when setting the HRM strategy in any organisation are more important.

There has been a mixed response regarding the idea of convergence in HRM practices, some commentators (i.e. Chen, 2004; McGaughey & De Cieri, 1999; Rhodes et al., 2008) emphasize that there is a need to adapt to local conditions and cultures, because it is culture that shapes the organisation and its employee’s attitudes. Others such as Cooper (1998) Morris, Hassard, and McCann (2006), Von Glinow, Drost, and Teagarden (2002), and McGaughey and De Cieri (1999) proposed the convergence in
HRM practices and believed that an organisation’s tendency is towards increasing or adopting similar successful practices. This is due to the influence of improved technological transfers, organisational collaborations and global communication. Despite their location organisations are becoming more alike in their operations, structures, functions and technologies (Rhodes et al., 2008). Managers are inclined to hold common behaviours and attitudes in spite of cultural differences (McGaughhey & De Cieri, 1999).

Ngo, Turban, Lau, and Lui (1998) and Easterby Smith, Malina, and Lu Yuan (1995) emphasized that the essential factors to highlight are global integration and local adaptation. Globalization and responsiveness to the complexities involved in cross-cultural interactions has been expanding. At the micro level, behaviour of individuals, experiences, perceptions and values vary within national and ethnic cultures (Sanyal, 2000). As a result, to be successful in the new economy it is recognized that it is important to be familiar with other cultures, their behaviours, perception, values and impact on the organisation (Francesco & Gold, 2005). Internationalization of business and mobility in the global labour market has created difficulties and failure of international business due to a lack of understanding of the cultural background rather than that of market conditions (Podrug, 2011).

Businesses are continuing to expand into more diverse environments therefore it is important to establish or determine the organisations abilities to deliver services in such heterogeneous markets (Overby, Gardial, & Woodruff, 2004). According to Palich and Gomez-Mejia (1999) globalisation has enhanced managerial and marketing adoption due to the exposure to differences in national cultures. National cultural values have
shaped managerial behaviours and strategy formulation (Anwar & Chaker, 2003). Therefore, cultural factors are very important in HRM policy development, because transfer from one culture to another is very difficult so the more similar the culture, the easier the transfer.

Hodgetts and Luthans (1990) also assert that, most HRM practices cannot be exactly transferred because of the cultural diversity between one country and another. They say ‘hard’ factors such as organisations’ structure are easier to transfer than the ‘soft’ factors such as organisations’ practices. This shows that for organisations structural change is easy but procedural change is difficult. As Adler, Dokter, and Redding (1986) argued organisations are becoming similar in their ‘macro-variables’ like structure and technology but may be dissimilar in their culture based ‘micro-variables’ such as, employee’s attitudes within organisations. Sparrow (1995) believes that a number of distinctive national patterns of HRM are influenced by level of ownership, size of the organisations, extension of stockholders, bias attitude of employer and employee, level of authority, management style, national business system, contracting-sourcing out and the overall perceived importance of the HRM role in the organisation. Tayeb (1998) observed that companies have to be responsive to their local conditions in terms of its history, leadership, business and HRM practices, and policies. Most firms do have corporation-wide HRM practices but their application in the form of country-specific HRM practices is difficult.

According to Newman and Nollen (1996) until now, the American management theory that “one size fits all” means a good manager in the USA will be equally good in other countries and the same management practices are similarly effective in any part of the
world has prevailed. But this view is challengeable as managerial behaviours, attitudes and values differ across national cultures, with differences in national cultures creating differences in management practices. For example, a Big Mac is the same around the world but practices of McDonald’s differ across cultures (Newman & Nollen, 1996). Hence the differences among national culture and management practices have a greater effect on workplace performance. Because culture colours many aspects of an individual’s behaviour, knowledge of a culture and its influences are helpful to managers in a multicultural business environment (Javidan, Dorfman, Sully de Luque, & House, 2006).

Further research (i.e. House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Rosenzweig & Nohria, 1994) attempts to address the concept of culture and to measure cultural differences in relation to management practice, which found that national cultures and management practices vary (Haire, Ghiselli, & Porter, 1963; Hofstede, 1980a, 1991; Laurent, 1983, 1986; Trompenaars, 1993 as cited in Newman & Nollen, 1996). Moreover, Schneider and De Meyer (1991) concur, arguing that national culture varies from nation to nation and that management practices like strategic decision making, leadership style and human resource management also vary.

National culture can be viewed as a framework for organizing employees based on their understanding of work, and expectations of their treatment, it suggests a path for action and a preferable set of outcomes. Therefore, if management practices are inconsistent with national culture, employees’ become dissatisfied, uncomfortable, uncommitted and their performance becomes poor (Newman & Nollen, 1996). Management practices
with consistent national cultural values yield commitment, self-efficacy and high performance (Early, 1994; Wright & Mischel, 1987).

It has been noted that the impact of culture and values on management and HRM practices are inevitable. Competitive advantage can be gained if correct management practices are adopted with alignment of national culture and organisational culture (Newman & Nollen, 1996). The research supports the importance of analogous management practices and national culture for better performance level of the employees.

Various researchers such as Khilji (2002), Chevrier (2009), Gerhart (2009), and Javidan et al. (2006) have examined national culture, from many perspectives (modes of convergence and divergence; national culture relevance to management in a global context; national culture constraints; and cross cultural lessons in leadership).

The significance of the factorial structure of the national culture should be regarded as an important aspect in determining national culture and its prospects for identifying specific, quantifiable output of work. On the basis of the research and literature covered in this section, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hd: The factor structure of national culture are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors.
2.8 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture has been described as a set of values, assumptions and beliefs shared by organisational members and showing new members acceptable ways of working in the organisation (Daft, 2005). Organisational cultures are regarded as ‘gestalts’: a person’s set of experiences, knowledge and thoughts as a whole, that are accepted and appreciated by the organisational members (De Hilal, 2006). Organisational environments can differ across countries in a range of areas such as rules, regulations, institutional set up, market, work force characteristics and culture. Different countries impose significant limitations on organisations: what they can and cannot do. This leads to greater localization and greater variance between-countries rather than within-countries (Gerhart, 2009).

Bolman and Deal (1984) developed frames to understand organisations and leadership: the structural (factory- and machine-like imagery), human resource (family-like imagery), political (jungle), and symbolic (temple and theater) dimensions of organizational life.

Bolman and Deal (1984) argue that these frames provide lenses that bring the world into focus, and serve as tools for action. Any single tool may have certain strengths and limitations. Therefore, managers face increasingly complex problems and thus managerial and organizational success become more and more dependent on the ability to generate a diverse set of such tools, the capability to use each tool with insight and skill, and the capacity to appropriately match the frames with different situations.
Organisational culture along with relevant HR practices can be a factor, used by the organisations to create values and uniqueness themselves (Barney & Wright, 1998). The claim that organisations mirror the national culture of the country where they are located is useful in clarifying issues of constraint and management discretion in organisations, because heterogeneity of culture is mirrored by a multitude of cultural values within organisations (Büschgens, Bausch, & Balkin, 2013). Organisations are compelled to respond and adapt to environmental pressures, to follow accepted ways of doing business to be considered legitimate by their customers and investors. With certain scenarios, the institutional influences that are industry specific or country specific are expected to create similarities, across the organisation, in their structure and practices, (Gerhart, 2009).

Culture, both national and organisational, is a measure of practices, basic assumptions and preferred values (Hofstede, 1980a). National culture can be defined in terms of values using questions that address the issue of what ‘should be’ whereas organisational culture is defined in terms of practices using descriptors that address the issue of ‘what is’ (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, et al., 1990). As Hofstede (2001) argued national culture constrains organisational culture. As such, these claims fit with institutional theory, but are in contrast with the perspectives for weighting management’s choice and the role of uniqueness for sustained competitive advantages such as the resource based view (RBV) (Gerhart, 2009).

However, the RBV focus emphasizes the importance of organisations in strategy research (Hoopes et al., 2003), and how an organisation becomes different or is different ‘looking inside’ with its rare and non replicable resources and capabilities for sustained
competitive advantages (Barney, 1991; Carmeli & Tishler, 2004). Hence, RBV leads to greater variance in organisational practices and attributes and supports being different (Gerhart, 2009). As an example it has been observed by (Barney & Wright, 1998) that an important implication of RBV is seen in managing the resources such as ‘human capital skills’, ‘employee commitment’, ‘culture’ and ‘teamwork’ for a sustained competitive advantage. The role of organisational culture and related concepts like distinctive values, non-substitutability and ideology are highlighted in the academic studies as characteristics that help organisations to perform better (Collins, 2001; Denison, 1990; Kotter & Heskett, 1992). As Lawler (2003, p. 35) says “the organisational design elements of people, structure, rewards, and processes lead to … corporate culture”.

Chan et al. (2004) say that organisational culture greatly influences the way HR policies and practices are implemented. For example bureaucratic cultures discourage employee initiative and employees are asked to follow desired rules and regulations with little or no room for innovation or risk taking. Generally in Asian firms, particularly public sector work, with an autocratic leadership style and high power distance characteristics, rewarding innovation is hard because of little empowerment and a bureaucratic environment (Prabhu, 2005). In developing nations harmony is highly valued in social and work relationships and effort is taken to avoid open conflicts in comparison to developed nations (Rhodes et al., 2008).

Organisations do develop personalities and identities and try to distinguish themselves from one another while keeping pace with environmental threats, opportunities and challenges. Due to the growing involvement of HRM in planning and corporate decision
making, the analysis of organisational culture and HR functions has become very important (Ulrich, 1984). While analysing organisational culture the HR manager can maximise organisation usefulness through an understanding of the traditions, moral dilemmas, political manoeuvrings, myths and biases that reflect organisational realities (Ulrich, 1984). Therefore, HR executives should better understand the organisational cultural implication of HR functions such as reward, promotion and performance appraisals. This is important because HRM is involved in planning and implementing of plans as well as day to day decision making (Fombrun et al., 1984).

HRM practices are considered influential interpreters of change, and to influence the performance of organisations, the most important area managers should emphasize is the managing of people (Rhodes et al., 2008). Therefore HRM practices play a vital role in explaining performance in different cultural environments (Chan et al., 2004). Organisational objectives aligned with HRM practices and perceived organisational performance have a positive association that creates a system of high performance. This guides the implementation of consistent HR practices and policies which can align human capital to achieve organisational objectives through the development of a high performance culture (Huselid, Jacson, & Schuler, 1997; Rhodes et al., 2008). However, Lunnan et al. (2005) point out that despite the positive influence of HR practices on organisational performance, its transferability, autonomy and effectiveness to non-western companies is ambiguous.

Within organisations employees can gain a sense of both personalization and belonging and identification with the organisation, where they share the successes and the failures of their achievements (Moreland & Levine, 2001). Through both individual and group
work organisational identification increases employees’ commitment which enhances their performance and support of organisational goals in their daily routine work (Campbell & Göritz, 2014). Employees develop expectations about their role such as work coordination, social relations and group membership, which shape employee behaviour through the underlying values, norms and assumptions within the organisation (Alvesson, 2011). The focus on clear rules, procedures and expected behaviours was appropriate to underpin this study because understanding organisational practices in a cross-cultural context, is helpful to provide structure and process to direct employee behaviours to support organisational goals. The impact of institutional rules and expectations on OC is considered to be both a constraining and shaping factor in terms of OC development (Hofstede, 2001), and therefore as organisations are symbolic entities they perform according to culturally determined models which reinforce underlying cultural values and norms (Hofstede, 2001).

In the organisational context, organisational culture is a common variable (Zhang & Liu, 2010) and is viewed as organisational traits comprising mindsets, outlooks and behaviours (Ekvall, 1996). Given the relevance of organisational culture to a diverse set of organisational and psychological variables and a way in which the firm conducts its business there is agreement that organisational culture is a useful construct (Barney, 1986; Schein, 1992, 2010; Trice & Beyer, 1993). More recently many organisations have devoted considerable resources to make organisational culture a centre of attention and motivating efficient employees to improve performance (Kacmar, Andrews, Van Rooy, Steilberg, & Cerrone, 2006; Weng, McElroy, Morrow, & Liu, 2010). To achieve this it is necessary to identify the desires of employees to keep them dedicated and provide them with a constructive work environment where they consider that their
diversity is respected and recognized and they feel capable of moving business forward (Milory, 2004). Organisational culture has an influence on employees’ performance (Kulik, Cregan, Metz, & Brown, 2009) in a way that links their self-image to their work (André, 2008). To retain employees, the organisational environment should be supportive of employees because the appropriate use of the workforce develops the performance of an organisation (Ullah, 2013). Employees develop and learn values and assumptions that help resolve issues confronting it, and thus the organisation’s culture grows and evolves. This is why organisational culture is seen as a product of its members’ collective process of learning and problem solving in order to survive within the organisation (Owusu, 2012; Schultz, 1995).

A number of researchers such as Acar and Acar (2014), Büschgens et al. (2013), Ashraf and Khan (2013a), Ullah (2013) and Mavondo and Farrell (2003) have examined organisational culture, from many perspectives (organisational culture and innovations; organisational culture effects on performance; organisational innovation and effectiveness; and cultural orientation).

In determining the factor structure of organisational culture and its prospects for identifying specific, quantifiable output of work, based on the research and literature presented here, the following hypothesis was posited:

**H1:** The factor structure of organisational culture are interrelated, multidimensional and optimal predictors.
The remainder part of the chapter focuses on the relevant literature related to organisational citizenship behaviour, the outcome construct and discusses the relationships between the constructs of the study.

2.9 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is one of the most widely studied topics in organisational behaviour research (Emmerik et al., 2005; MacKenzie et al., 1993). It is a concept that was initially introduced by Bateman and Organ (1983), who defined OCB as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). OCB defines a set of desirable organisational behaviours that demonstrate multidimensional liaison with positive organisational results (Walz & Niehoff, 1996, 2000). Interaction between employees and supervisors is essential and unavoidable at the workplace which means it is important to enhance harmony to ensure mutual benefits and high quality outcomes. OCB among employees improves organisational performance and leads to greater job satisfaction and succession management (Wan, 2011).

Shweta and Jha (2012) state that over the past three decades OCB has been a powerful and influential concept. It is generally connected to improved process, innovativeness, effectiveness and increased capabilities of employees to cope with various organisational uncertainties. Shweta and Jha (2012) characterize OCB as an employee’s discretionary efforts to benefit the organisation without any expected rewards. Payne and Webber (2006) argued that employee satisfaction is positively related to OCB, which leads to efficiency and productivity maximization.
According to Farrell and Oczkowski (2012, p. 365) “OCBs are difficult to imitate and thus can be a source of competitive advantage”. In a competitive age organisations not only need to be functional and productive but need to have loyal and efficient employees. Renowned organisations depend upon the employees who work beyond their formal job responsibilities and are ready to sacrifice their extra time and energy for the organisation. This phenomenon is important for developing a culture of cooperation and successful performances (Kashif, Khan, & Rafi, 2011). OCB has three characteristics; firstly as a type of discretionary behaviour, performed by the employee as a personal choice that is not included in the job description; secondly as an enforceable requirement of the job description; finally, as a positive contribution to overall organisational effectiveness (Kashif et al., 2011).

OCB as a multidimensional concept has been the subject of research in both the western and non western context (Jahangir et al., 2004). There has been an extensive focus on the effects of OCB on individual and organisational performance that has resulted in a general consensus that OCB addresses silent behaviours in organisational enterprise (Barbuto et al., 2001). The survival or prosperity of organisations is positively enhanced by employees behaving as good citizens by engaging in a variety of positive behaviours (Organ, 1988).

OCB has been identified with five distinct dimensions: (1) conscientiousness, or discretionary behaviour (2) altruism, or helping a specific other person with an organisationally-relevant task or problem; (3) civic virtue, which is behaving or indicating willingness to responsibly participate in the life of the company; (4) sportsmanship, which is any behaviour demonstrating tolerance of less than ideal
circumstances without complaining; and (5) courtesy, or efforts to prevent work-related problems with others (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1990).

Considering the importance of good citizenship for organisations, OCB has received considerable attention and focus over recent years and has remained a high priority for organisational scholars, particularly in the context of the growing service imperative facing organisations (Organ, 1988; Schneider, 1990). In times of crisis OCB has an impact on workgroup efficiency (Organ, 1988). For example, its dimensions of conscientiousness and altruism or willingness for helping others results in reduced inter-group conflict, and enhanced employee motivational levels, factors which help managers to focus on more important organisational matters (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Podsakoff, 2011).

Feldman (2001, p. 164) argued that “in an organisational context, discretion has been defined as an individual’s right to make choices based on an authoritative assessment of the situation”. This suggests that job discretion adds to an employee’s sense of responsibility regarding work that results in better outcomes and enhances their willingness to go the ‘extra mile’ to do the tasks (Snape & Redman, 2010). In contrast low job discretion can result in employees displaying ‘learned helplessness’ and ‘reduced industriousness’ which leads to poor performance and low participation in citizenship behaviours (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger, 1992; Miller & Seligman, 1975).

Given the importance of employee performance in the context of its attractive consequences for organisations, employee participation has increasingly been viewed as
an essential element in elevating organisational effectiveness (Kataria, Garg, & Rastogi, 2013; Saks, 2006). Employee engagement or participation encourages OCB, and OCB increases organisational effectiveness (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Walz & Niehoff, 2000). Organisations survive well when their employees behave as good citizens by engaging themselves positively and constructively in all activities at work (Kashif et al., 2011). Koys (2006) considers that OCBs help organisations to compete with limited resources, increase productivity, improve coordination between employees, reduce employee turnover, and enhance organisational adaptability as well as in maximizing profitability.

Many authors consider OCB to be an individual behaviour which is not part of formal job descriptions or behaviours expected under formal reward systems in the organisation (Hall, Zinko, Perryman, & Ferris, 2009; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Thus, it is completely optional and where employees are more likely to exhibit their personal choice and omission of these behaviours is not considered as punishable (Chahal & Mehta, 2010). Furthermore, (Shahin, Shabani, & Khazaei Pool, 2014) described three features of OCB: (1) employees willingness to follow rules, or continue to volunteer, (2) employees are prepared to undertake tasks that have organisational advantages, and (3) OCB is a multi-faceted entity. OCB is the employees’ tendency to go beyond their expected work duties, and to help other co-workers align individual interest with organisational interests. Generally OCB features are behaviours that cannot be strengthened directly and are special and extraordinary endeavours expected by the organisation for its success (Korkmaz & Arpaci, 2009). OCBs are associated with various indicators of employee and organisational effectiveness. An employee performing OCBs is evaluated
more favourably with regard to his/her performance appraisals, overall job performance and promotability (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Organ et al. (2006) argue that citizenship behaviour assists a positive working environment that helps organisations to attract and retain employees.

Organisational identification is essential where individuals view themselves as bound to an organisation (Chen, Yu, Hsu, Lin, & Lou, 2013). Employees’ organisational identification in association with OCB encourages employees to contribute more productively and generates feelings of satisfaction and trust so they are more likely to stay and work on behalf of the organisation (Edwards & Peccei, 2010; Haslam, Jetten, & Waghorn, 2009). For this reason management understanding of the factors that either directly or indirectly affects OCB is critical to interaction with employees that promote OCB, predicts favourable outcomes and maintains benefits to the organisation (Chen et al., 2013). The outcome of this understanding results in reduced turnover, less resentment towards the supervisors and organisation (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007), increased employee confidence in management (Aycan, 2001), interactive and ‘social’ elements of OCB (Salam, Cox, & Sims, 1996), and serves to assist supervisors’ in promoting an employee’s level of motivation towards OCBs (Yaffe & Kark, 2011).

Therefore, OCBs are viewed as important elements for organisational performance, because an organisation that focuses more on OCB is found to have reduced turnover, absenteeism and more loyal and satisfied employees following improved organisational services (Chahal & Mehta, 2010). Understanding the impact of OCB is vital in strengthening both employee and organisational performance. Through OCBs managers enhance their knowledge to provide benefits to the organisation with the help of loyal and satisfied employees. Thus, better understanding of the individual behaviour is of
great help to HR managers and practitioners in delegating responsibilities and exhibiting commitment towards organisational goals in association with organisational identification and OCB (Chahal & Mehta, 2010).

Job satisfaction is the emotional orientation of employees towards their job roles (Oshagbemi, 2000). It is a pleasurable feeling which is achieved after completion of a task or fulfilment of a particular job (Organ, 1988; Tanriverdi, 2008). The higher the job satisfaction the better the performance at work. Job satisfaction incorporates a different type of satisfaction such as, satisfaction with rewards and promotions, satisfaction with supervisors and colleagues and with the work itself (Putman, 2002; Vitell & Singhapakdi, 2008) and is of vital importance as it affects the employee behaviour which ultimately affects performance of the organisation (Rowden, 2002). Organ and Konovsky (1989) found that job satisfaction is significantly related with OCB. Employees satisfied with their working conditions and jobs demonstrate better OCB and perform well in their tasks. This means job satisfaction is an important aspect which helps develop better OCB (Swaminathan & Jawahar, 2013).

Organisational commitment is a “psychological state that binds the individual to the organisation” which ultimately results in low turnover among employees (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 14). A model of organisational commitment proposed by Allen and Meyer (1990) consisted of three features: (1) affective commitment, emotional attachment of employees with the organisation, (2) continuance commitment, employee perception of costs on quitting the organisation, and (3) normative commitment, a feeling of belonging and obligation among employees to stay with the organisation.
Employees can experience these commitments to varying degrees (Awad & Alhashemi, 2012).

High organisational commitment brings constructive etiquettes and manners among employees that increase performance and reduce absenteeism and turnover within organisations (Saks, 2006). Namasivayam and Zhao (2007) explain organisational commitments as an employee’s response to the organisation whereas the employee’s response to a particular job is job satisfaction. Organisational success, stability and productivity largely depend on both job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Koys, 2006).

In this sense, OCB increases both employer and employee productivity through improved coordination, strengthened organisational ability to hold competitive employees and increased flexibility to environmental changes and enhanced performances (Moideenkutty, 2009). Therefore, OCBs are extra role behaviours that promote organisational profits without inclusion in the organisational official profile, discipline or compensation system (Watty-Benjamin & Udechukwu, 2014). This implies aspects of employee and employer reciprocity and ‘gestures of good will’ by both parties (Hopkins, 2002). Thus, organisational commitment fosters employee interest that adds to OCB and retention and, thereby, contributes to organisational effectiveness (Watty-Benjamin & Udechukwu, 2014).

OCB is a key factor in promoting organisational effectiveness. Its absence can lead to a dysfunctional organisation, an unstable and disloyal workforce and a decline in organisational performance (Motowidlo, 2003). Organisations can be successful and can
have better performance through facilitating employee engagement in OCB (Yen & Niehoff, 2004). Thus, OCB and factors influencing OCB have remained a central theme of researchers (Teh, Boerhannoeeddin, & Ismail, 2012). For example, performance appraisal systems of organisations may affect OCB. A fair perception of performance appraisal among employees results in more adherence to OCB (Becton, Giles, & Schraeder, 2008).

Many researchers such as Farrell and Oczkowski (2012); Watty-Benjamin and Udechukwu (2014); Husin et al. (2012) and Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen (2002) have examined OCB from many perspectives (government and employee OCB in the Virgin Island; organisational identification and OCB; HRM practices, OCB and perceived service quality in golf courses; and organisational justice and work outcomes).

The factorial structure of organisational citizenship behaviour should be regarded as an important aspect in determining its prospects, in identifying specific, quantifiable output of work. Based on the prior research and literature presented here, the following hypothesis is tested.

Hf: The factor structure of organisational citizenship behaviour are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors.

This section presents the review of literature related to the relationships between the constructs of the study.

2.10.1 Reward Management System and Promotion Practices

The reward management system is often considered a key management tool which contributes to organisational effectiveness by influencing employee behaviour to enhance performance and achieve more productivity within the organisation. A reward management system also carries other objectives such as cost control, legal conformity and fair treatment of employees (Kerrin & Oliver, 2002).

A traditional compensation system is controlled by base payments, often considered as bureaucratic models of organisation, where employees are paid according to the skills they bring and utilise in the job. In contrast, there is often no reward or motivation for flexibility, teamwork and judgement (Kerrin & Oliver, 2002).

The organisation needs to influence managerial efforts and performance through suitable control systems. This requires straightforward designing of a reward system that is both monetary and comprehensive (Kominis & Emmanuel, 2005). The rewards for the employees may have different perceived values depending on employee needs such as performance based financial rewards, authority and status related awards and market based financial rewards (Vancil & Buddrus, 1979). To measure assessment of
which reward impacts employee performance and motivation is perceived to be difficult, although it is important for organisational survival and success (Kominis & Emmanuel, 2005). Furthermore, Kominis and Emmanuel (2005) suggest that the motivational impact of rewards is central to both management control and the organisational psychology.

However, social psychology literature mentions some concerns that extrinsic rewards may affect intrinsic motivation, which ultimately influences outcomes and productivity. McCausland, Pouliakas, and Theodossiou (2005) linked these concerns to the underlying socio-economics of performance of employees in relation to alternative reward policies. Both extrinsic rewards such as pay, benefits and promotions and intrinsic rewards such as doing meaningful work, increase employees’ sense of self-esteem or self-worth (Stumpf, Tymon, Favorito, & Smith, 2013), and both types of reward are considered to influence outcomes that include work involvement, turnover and overall organisational performance.

Employees efforts in productive activities are governed by two main aspects. Firstly, they determine which and how much effort to invest at the organisation, and secondly they determine opportunities for promotion with a pay rise. This is a consequences based activity where employees feel encouraged and satisfied if their efforts are valued and they have a chance to prove to managers their suitability for promotion. On the contrary they put in less effort when they feel discouraged and unhappy (Epstein & Ward, 2006). Thus rewards are considered as an exchange process of employee efforts to achieve organisational objectives. It is understood that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards impact each other within certain societies. The importance of rewards and opportunities
for advancement are considered as significant determinants of organisational commitment (Morris, Yaacob, & Wood, 2004; Thompson & Mchugh, 1990).

### 2.10.2 Promotion Practices and Performance Appraisal System

There is a well established tradition that promotion plays a dual role in an organisation: (1) assigning a job that is best suited to the employees’ capabilities, and (2) as an incentive for performing well in the job (Fairburn & Malcomson, 2001; Lazear & Rosen, 1981). Promotion establishes a sense of discipline among managers because of its characteristics such as performance related pay in which managers ensure that the most suitable employee is promoted for the higher level job, and given appropriate salary increases (Fairburn & Malcomson, 2001). Organisations need to play a role in the justice relationship between promotion decisions and employee reactions as employees with fair justice perceptions of rewards, such as promotion into higher level attachments, will have positive motivation and encouragement (Cheng, 2014). Greenberg (1986) surveyed decisions about promotion opportunities and pay increases and found that for the fair distribution of rewards, decisions of promotion and pay increases should be based on actual performance.

One of the core objectives of performance appraisal is to determine the employees’ potential for promotion to higher level jobs (Milliman, Nason, Zhu, & Cieri, 2002). Criterion for promotion includes both abstract factors such as experience, personality traits, knowledge and interpersonal relationship and concrete factors such as seniority, educational level, and performance (Chang, 2009). Chiu (2009) states that it is not necessary to consider all these factors when promoting an employee, it depends on the organisational requirement and position. Organisations are facing two essential
challenges to enhance the productivity of their workforce: an appropriate incentive scheme to encourage employees to put in efforts, and a mechanism for selection of the most suitable employee (Schöttner & Thiele, 2010). Resulting rewards for performance encourage an employee to perform better and serve as a selection device (Schöttner & Thiele, 2010). Performance of any institution is based on the employees’ competency and performance (Offermann, Bailey, Vasilopoulos, Seal, & Sass, 2004). Furthermore, Qiao and Wang (2009) found in their investigations that promotions played a vital role in enhancing work performance.

2.10.3 Reward Management System and Performance Appraisal System

The rise of reward management has remained unchallenged. Many advocate it as the “best thing since sliced bread”, although gauging reward management alone as a practice and concept has been seen as difficult (Smith, 1993, p. 45). Designing rewards to increase performance is one of the core objectives of reward management. This practice is praised and has prevailed for the last 35 years in continuing attempts to link rewards to performance in both public and private sectors. In this regard reward systems and employees’ performance have been the focus of mechanisms to align employees’ actions with output delivery (Lapsley, 2008; Smith, 1993). Performance based reward systems came to prominence in the 1980s for public sector employees including education, health and civil service (Smith, 1993). These rewards are perceived to impart more benefits to employees than previous reward management approaches. Murlis and Wright (1985) argue that some performance based rewards, which were initially implemented in both private and public sectors, are still in place and this invites attention to get things done right.
A clearer expectation of organisational leaders enhances employee understanding of the link between rewards and resulting performance (Densten, 2006). Reward systems and performance appraisal systems promote output, performance standards, accountability and achievable targets in the public sector (Azzone & Palermo, 2011). However, Flury and Schedler (2006) and Hood and Peters (2004) argue that effective adoption of rewards and performance appraisal systems seems complex in public sector organisations. Although authors such as Fay and Thompson (2001); Henderson (1989); Latham, Almost, Mann, and Moore (2005) assert that there is an assumption that employee performance can be improved through developing an unambiguous link between contribution and rewards with specified objectives. This could be achieved through planning of objectives in terms of professional development, quality outcomes and competencies.

Management literature identifies various limitations to the actual practices of reward and performance appraisal. Problems arise between the appraiser and appraisee in setting situational factors, uncontrollable performance constraints, fairness towards perceptions of appraisals and planning periodic goals. These problems create crises within the employee and employer relationships, ultimately leading to increased friction that can make the situation worse within the organisation (Azzone & Palermo, 2011; Latham et al., 2005). Thus implementation of actual appraisals and reward management systems may be difficult due to the complex setting of public sector organisations (Lapsley, 2008; O'Donnell, 1998). To resolve these issues managers need to have the necessary proficiency, knowledge and capacity skills, particularly in public sector bureaucrats, to exert practices of reward and performance appraisal (Schofield, 2004).
The reward an employee receives in return for the contribution made in the workplace, and the only practice that managers employ to evaluate employee contribution and work dynamics among employees is performance appraisal (Cheng, 2014). Unfair perception of rewards leads to unhappy and unhelpful feelings among employees and is likely to lead to poor performance.

2.10.4 Reward Management System and National Culture

The scope of reward or compensation is divergent, offering varying formats in different corners of the world (Wright, 2010). The various categories of reward are commonly described as extrinsic or tangible including pay and benefits, and intrinsic or intangible including work satisfaction and recognition in the workplace (Perkins & White, 2008). Another category is ‘total reward’ that includes a strategic coherence of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (WorldatWork, 2007). These rewards include pay, recognition, work life balance, employee development and performance feedback (Wright, 2010).

The transferability of reward systems is viewed from both convergence and divergence points of view (Nyambegera et al., 2000). Convergence provides a view that regardless of differences in national culture universal best practices can be transferred due to increasing cultural similarities (Kerr et al., 1960). In contrast, divergence thought provides a view that transferability of best practice is dubious because of the reward systems embeddedness in the culture (Pudelko & Harzing, 2007). Hofstede (1980a, 1991) defines national culture as the collective programming of the mind, values, norms, assumptions and beliefs learned in childhood in a national context and are distinguishable from another group of people. National culture resides in the mental make-up of the people and is so deeply embedded in everyday life that it is relatively
hard to change. The people of a particular nationality are conditioned for a particular pattern of life experiences (Hofstede, 1980a). So it is important to design reward management systems with an understanding of the depth of national culture of a particular society. The aligned reward systems will encourage employees to produce more within the organisation.

Most cultural studies on human resource management practices (HRMP) have adopted Hofstede’s national cultural dimensions based on pioneering research conducted on the multinational company IBM. His research categorised culture into distinct dimensions (Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). Thus, preferences of reward are shaped by the cultural settings, and the rewards valued in one society may not be preferred in another society. Likewise in the convergence view, motivation theories also suggest that an organisation benefits from using performance related reward system (PRRS) because these allow alignment of organisational objectives’ with employee behaviour. Equity theory (Adams, 1963), agency theory (Eisenhardt, 1989), reinforcement theory (Skinner, 1969) and expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) suggest a linkage between pay and performance. If the rewards are perceived as fair they would result in better performance behaviour (Milkovich & Newman, 2002). However, from the divergence point of view, cultural self presentation theory (Erez & Earley, 1993) suggests that cultural values play a role as moderator between employee behaviour and motivation. So this theory purports that the reward system depends on the effects management expect it to have on the different aspects, where the relevant aspects are culturally defined.
2.10.5 Reward Management System and Organisational Culture

The reward management system includes the four elements of benefits, compensation, appreciation and recognition. Employees anticipate these elements in return for the tasks they perform. The reward management system comprising these elements are normally set by the organisations and managers can contribute to the reward management system by designing the reward management system in such a way that every employee understands the message that the reward system of the organisation is populated with an array of meaningful rewards (Sylvia, 2014). ‘There is no reward except with the task itself’ so the employees feel motivated when their performance is rewarded with incentives (Deci, 1971, p. 105). Thus organisations need to develop a culture where employees clearly know that their work is valued. Gomez-Mejia and Balkin (1992) cited in Milne (2007, p. 29) defined rewards programmes as “deliberate utilisation of the pay system as an essential integrating mechanism through which the efforts of individuals are directed towards the achievement of an organisation’s strategic objectives”. Rewards are believed to encourage outstanding performance, promote learning and ongoing development, strengthen an organisation’s value, and pursue achievement (Milne, 2007). All organisations provide pay, promotions and other incentives in order to encourage employees to perform well and produce better outcomes focused on organisational objectives (Cameron & Pierce, 1994; Stredwick, 2000).

Organisational culture is defined in many ways with different perspectives. For example Meyerson and Martin (1987, p. 626) identified organisational culture with three perspectives: (1) ‘integration perspective’ in which it is assumed that each organisation has one culture or an organisation with ‘monolithic’ culture where every member
shares the same values, beliefs and assumptions; (2) ‘differentiation perspective’ in which culture is assumed to be an open system, influenced by both internal and external environments and it is seen as a complex system of subcultures; (3) ‘fragmentation perspective’ in which different subcultures are accepted where employees may agree with values, beliefs and assumptions and disagree or take no notice of some values, beliefs and norms (Milikić, 2007). It seems that due to different perspectives of organisational culture, employees’ perceptions towards rewards and benefits can influence performance at the workplace. Cultural differences do exist within organisations in terms of perceptions of effectiveness of various HR practices. Cultural differences impact on HR practices and these differences may be acceptable in some societies but not in more hierarchical or less individualistic societies (Andreassi, Lawter, Brockerhoff, & Rutigliano, 2014; Trompennaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997).

2.10.6 Promotion Practices, National Culture and Organisational Culture

Promotion is one of the processes that govern the movement of an employee within the organisation. Awarding promotion to employees confers opportunities for skill development, a higher grade, status and job satisfaction or job security, which eventually help to produce greater productivity in achieving organisational objectives. Promotional opportunities keep employees performing well, thus saving the expenses of training and new hiring costs and also tends to lead to less turnover (Saporta & Farjoun, 2003).

To reach a decision about who to promote is one of the more difficult tasks for a manager because of the consequences for the employee involved as well as the organisation as a whole. Decision making regarding promotion takes into account
experience in the job, motivation for hard work and employees’ intelligence and skills (Furnham & Petrides, 2006). Promotion can be approached through a number of theories encompassing various perspectives of promotion such as procedural justice theory, equity theory, allocation preference theory and justice judgement theory (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). A promotion decision making theory suggested by (Powell and Butterfield 2002) has two assumptions: (1) a decision on promotions is based on information or cues such as position in the organisational pyramidal hierarchy, experience and qualification, and (2) employers bring together these cues and information for making decisions. The decisions regarding promotions impact on both the employer making the decision and the employee who is getting a promotion as an object of the decision and also all employees in an organisation (Furnham & Petrides, 2006; Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004).

National cultures are inevitably mingled in societies because of globalisation. Due to this blend, societies need to interact, in order to share ideas, to learn from each other and exchange human resources (Dimitrov, 2006). The motivation for such interactions differs in different disciplines such as sociology, education, psychology, social psychology, organisational behaviour and management (Dimitrov, 2006). Promotion processes, psychological contracts related to promotions and the new shapes of careers are affected by both the national and organisational culture (Bajdo & Dickson, 2001; Furnham, 2005).

Promotion decisions have important consequences in organisational life as they influence employee commitment (Lemons & Jones, 2001), absenteeism (Lam & Schaubroeck, 2000), employee affective reaction (Lam & Schaubroeck, 2000) and
organisational injustice (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003). However, Adams (1965), in the equity theory proposed that there is an exchange of resources for mutual benefits to both the employee and the organisation, where employees offer effort, experience and skills in return for rewards such as promotions (Parker, Nouri, & Hayes, 2011). The organisation needs to focus on developing ‘human capital’ in order to achieve the organisational goals, to manage human resources and build skills among employees (Anderson, 2005; Foss, 2008). This involves employers recognising cultural and ethnic diversities as an additional source of diverse potential and capacities to improve organisational performance (Islam, 2013). Thus promotion is often considered as an instrumental aspect of performance, and promotion of diversity is pivotal in introducing work in its social context, whereby a culture of dignity and inclusion is created.

2.10.7 Performance Appraisal System and National Culture

At present, developing ‘human capital’ is considered to be one of the most frustrating rituals at the workplace. Although it is often believed to be the most valuable resource a organisation has, thus developing, managing, rewarding, as well as evaluating them is an important activity (Kateřina, Andrea, & Gabriela, 2013). The employee performance appraisal system represents an important part of performance management and is a vital tool for organisation survival (Gul, Dolu, & Dogutas, 2010; Palaiologos, Papazekos, & Panayotopoulou, 2011). An effective appraisal system is helpful in identifying weaknesses, deficiencies and strengths for the employee, employer and organisation. Through efficient appraisal, the workforce can be guided for improvement and development (Kateřina et al., 2013; Krug, 1998). The performance appraisal system is a required process within the organisation through which, an individual’s work dynamics are individually judged and appraised over a particular time and the results kept on
record for the purpose of rewarding and developing employees (Coens & Jenkins, 2002). Murphy and Cleveland (1995) recommend that performance appraisal serves two purposes one administrative and the other employee development. Thus it serves as a systematic process for developing employee performance and eventually improving organisational performance through a formal evaluation (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014).

Culture can shape work attitudes and employee behaviours in the organisation, consequently impacting on the organisation’s performance. For example positive cultures with which employees are satisfied are more likely to bring positive outcomes and more commitment to the organisation (Aarons & Sawitzky, 2006; DeVoe & Iyengar, 2004).

Performance management practices should be responsive to significant and rapid environmental changes of the organisation internally as well as externally and ensure alignment of objectives (Bititci, Turner, & Begemann, 2000). Thus it is interesting to find what exactly encourages employees to perform well in different cultures and how an organisation maintains performance to achieve objectives. Dimitrov (2006, p. 37) argued that “national culture is a central organising principle of employees’ understanding of work, the approaches for obtaining, retaining and increasing knowledge, as well as the way people are treated in that process. When management practices are inconsistent with these deeply held values, employees are likely to feel dissatisfied, distracted, uncomfortable and uncommitted”. Organisations can improve performances by adapting values, norms, assumptions and rituals to the type of national culture and by considering its dimensions (Dimitrov, 2006). As Hofstede (1980a) and House et al. (1999) posited national culture strongly impacts organisations and
dominates its environmental influences. Therefore, organisations are nested in the national culture and are influenced by the national pattern of values (Dickson, Aditya, & Chhokar, 2000). DeVoe and Iyengar (2004) found different perceptions of managers towards appraisals. For example in developed nations appraisal is linked to the intrinsic motivation of an employee whereas; in East Asia managers’ perceptions of appraisal are linked to extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

2.10.8 Performance Appraisal System and Organisational Culture

Performance appraisal is widely accepted as a central human resource activity in enhancing performance of both the employee and organisation (Atwater, Wang, Smither, & Fleenor, 2009). Performance appraisal includes various characteristics such as ‘individual orientation’, ‘organisational orientation’ and ‘evaluation sources’. These characteristics of performance appraisal help in investigating the employee outcomes, organisational outcomes, human resource planning, supervisors, subordinates and peers being appraised (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995; Peretz & Fried, 2012). Culture shapes the way in which employees are evaluated by their managers (DeVoe & Iyengar, 2004).

Organisational culture has received sufficient acknowledgement in understanding human systems. It comprises beliefs, customs, values and norms that help the individual to understand the organisation’s stand, objectives and its functioning such as why and what to do (Sokro, 2012). Organisational culture is a consensus among employees to embracing the organisational pattern of values, norms and assumptions (Armstrong, 2009; Sokro, 2012). That is why Hofstede (2005) defined organisational culture as “the collective programming of the mind” and distinguishes between the national and the organisational culture. Organisational culture is an important part of an organisational
environment (Ricky, 2013). The practice of performance appraisal is a managerialism facet in human resource management that seeks to evaluate workforce performance, develop competence and identify rewards within the organisations (Fletcher, 2001; Johnson & Shields, 2007). These developmental approaches of performance appraisal can be influenced by the organisational culture because of the deeply rooted norms and traditions of organisational members. In this regard, it is important for managers to understand the effects of performance appraisal in the context of the organisational culture that how the performance appraisal system can be improved for their effectiveness and usefulness in the organisational culture (Levy & Williams, 2004; Tuytens & Devos, 2012). Organisations are determined by culture, which is used to describe the dynamics of an organisation. This gives logic to the argument that every organisation has a different culture and some cultures are better than others (Jarnagin & Slocum, 2007; Sokro, 2012). Those organisational cultures considered to be successful are those which are aligned with employees’ objectives (Kotter, 2008).

2.10.9 National Culture and Organisational Culture

Culture is defined in various ways. The cultural attributes are learned and shaped by the individual throughout their life (Ochoategui, 1998). Cultural values and beliefs are also developed by an individual within a particular environment. Cultures are means of expressing assumptions, norms and beliefs (Kattman, 2014), or as Hofstede (2005, p. 282), commented “Collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one society from another”. Culture is something which is always developing and adapting. Values and beliefs are passed from generation to generation within continual environment changes (Miltenburg, 2005). Many authors have provided numerous frameworks on national culture, for example Trompenaars and Hampden-
Turner (1998) and Hofstede (2001, 2005) proposed dimensions to examining culture. Hofstede’s study on IBM including 53 regional subsidiaries provided seminal research about national culture, and identified several key dimensions of national culture such as, ‘assertiveness’, ‘future-orientation’, ‘gender egalitarianism’, ‘human orientation’, ‘institutional collectivism’, ‘in-group collectivism’, ‘performance orientation’, ‘power distance’ and ‘uncertainty-avoidance’ (Rao, 2013). These cultural dimensions show different degrees of emphasis in different countries. For example, Pakistan displays moderate levels of power distance as well as masculinity, high uncertainty and low individualism.

Similarly, culture is defined in many ways “a source of family concept, such as, language, symbol and rituals” (Carmeli, 2005; Pettigrew, 1979, p. 574). Denison (1996) regarded culture as beliefs, assumptions and values of individuals. National culture influences organisations, as nations adopt, develop and embrace universal work practices. An important role is played by beliefs, norms and values in setting a certain culture (Kattman, 2014). Consequently organisations can modify individual behaviour in order to modify the effect of national culture (Von Glinow et al., 2002). A better understanding of the interaction between national and organisational culture can be helpful in the implementation of management practices (Naor, Linderman, & Schroeder, 2010).“Global solutions to organisation and management problems do not exist” due to the strong influence of national culture on values at the workplace (Hofstede, 2001, p. 373).

Rousseau (1990) defined organisational culture as a way of living life, fundamental values, assumptions and behavioural norms of the organisational members. However,
no precise or universal definition of organisational culture has yet been agreed upon. However, it is a term used frequently by managers, scholars and researchers (Carmeli, 2005). Hofstede (2005) argued organisational culture is ‘holistic’, ‘historically determined’, ‘related to the things anthropologists study’, ‘socially constructed’, ‘soft’ and ‘difficult to change’. As a consequence organisational culture can be defined as earlier mentioned as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from another. Therefore national culture differs from organisational culture, where organisational cultures are said to be learnt by an adult, even influenced by the nations in which they exist, for example multinational companies (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004).

Understanding the culture of, or within, the workplace is helpful in maximising productivity. Managers’ work to develop their organisational cultures through developing techniques that can result in an organisation’s effectiveness, typically with the thought that national culture is more dominant than organisational culture due to its depth (Kattman, 2014). On the contrary, organisational culture has been found to be impactful and strong in less inherent national cultures, and an influential manager can overtake norms, beliefs and assumptions of an individual and create the organisational culture especially in multinational companies (Mahmood, 2011).

2.10.10 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Reward Management System and Performance Appraisal System

The nature of many businesses have been undergoing transitions from traditional hierarchical structures to more autonomous team oriented styles (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). This has raised the significance of willing participation of employees
beyond their formal job responsibilities or an individual’s voluntarily contribution to the organisation. OCB has been the subject of a significant research and has been considered as beneficial to organisational functioning and viewed as a desirable behaviour as it reduces the cost of formal mechanisms of management (Becton et al., 2008). Considering the explicit advantages of OCBs organisations should focus on encouraging employee citizenship behaviour and reward OCBs through the performance appraisal process and reward management systems by compensation and performance acknowledgment (Becton et al., 2008).

Additionally, in the literature OCB has been conceptualised as contextual performance, prosocial behaviour and organisational spontaneity (Podsakoff et al., 2000). These features can be affected by a formal evaluation (performance appraisal system) and reward system (compensation) of the organisation, but can also be motivated through impression management (Becton et al., 2008; Bolino & Turnley, 2005). The effect of rewarding and evaluating OCB depends on the motivation of an employee demonstrating OCB within the organisation. However, Becton et al. (2008) suggests that there could be two main motives behind employees OCB; firstly a self-serving motive: employee is extrinsically motivated; secondly, other-oriented motive: employee is intrinsically motivated. Managers may not be concerned about an individual’s motivation for exhibiting OCBs, but are aware that an appraised and rewarded employee tends to show more OCBs. Likewise employees engaged in OCB for both reasons (self-serving and other-oriented) are more likely to favour rewards for OCB and formal performance appraisal as the outcome for their behaviour (Becton et al., 2008; Deckop, Mangel, & Cirka, 1999). Furthermore, inclusion of OCBs in the reward and
performance appraisal systems may enhance the emotional involvement of an employee in the work; which eventually produces more productivity within the organisation.

An absence of OCBs in reward and performance appraisal systems may result in frustration, doubts, anger, resentment and burnout among employees (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Therefore, the measurement of performance is equally important to both employees and the organisation. From the organisation’s standpoint measuring employee performance could be crucial due to its effect on employee behaviour and as far as employees are concerned, because of its consequences for professional development and compensation (Anderson & Oliver, 1987; Vilela, González, & Ferrín, 2008).

2.10.11 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Promotion Practices

Changes among the workforce and in the workplace have created the need for a hunt for talented staff to fill the vacant positions within organisations (Webster & Beehr, 2013). In competitive environments, attracting a high-quality workforce has forced workers to be more responsible for managing their own career advancement to meet the expectations of the competition by even crossing organisational boundaries (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Raabe, Frese, & Beehr, 2007; Webster & Beehr, 2013).

In the face of these environmental pressures employees prefer to be promoted within their current organisation rather than quitting or moving to another organisation (Segers, Inceoglu, Vloeberghs, Bartram, & Henderickx, 2008). Thus, a promotion has equal advantages for both the employee and the organisation, as it saves the cost of new hires and promoted employees exhibit higher affective commitment (Kondratuk, Hausdorf,
Korabik, & Rosin, 2004). This is the reason that organisations have developed programmes to manage their talented workforce and prepare them for promotion to higher level jobs within the organisation (Rothwell, 2010). Employee perception of promotion has a significant impact on employee work behaviour and attitudes (Webster & Beehr, 2013). The employees are motivated to display OCB in exchange for desirable outcomes, including organisational rewards such as promotion (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000). Therefore, it is important to understand how OCB is related to employees performance. For example, employees may exhibit OCB for different reasons such as performing OCB for formal rewards (e.g. a promotion), displaying OCB as a psychological process that recognises the link between OCB and promotion, and demonstrating OCB in response to gaining a promotion (Hui et al., 2000). Hence managers should consider OCBs when offering promotions to employees and employees should also appreciate the role of OCB in career advancement within the organisation (Hui et al., 2000).

2.10.12 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, National Culture and Organisational Culture

Globalisation and diversity has brought more challenges for managers in supervising employees from different cultural backgrounds, norms and traditions. Cross-cultural management has remained an important subject matter in the broader management studies considering national culture and management practices within the organisation. The most well known work in this area is that of Hofstede (2005) who provided the base for many cross-cultural studies and suggested that cultures displayed differing perspectives in a number of dimensions such as power distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity. These dimensions can help in determining the
differential effects of cultural dimensions and their impact on work outcomes (Testa, 2009).

Research into OCB and culture such as that of Hui, Lee, and Rousseau (2004) suggests that OCBs differ across the employees of different nationalities. In examining the relationship between OCB and national context they found that ‘nationality serves as a proxy for culture’. This illustrates the assumption that frequency of OCB could be enhanced with regard to its cultural dimensions (Testa, 2009). For example if the cultural dimension, ‘institutional collectivism’ is relevant to OCB (Javidan & House, 2001), employees from a collectivist background will focus more on interpersonal helping and harmony, and show a higher level of OCB than those from individualistic oriented cultures (Aycan et al., 2007; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Ueda, 2011). Furthermore, a culture is regarded as the accumulation of shared norms, traditions, meanings and beliefs of the individual of one society which is passed on across generations and as a generalization cultural boundary is supposed to match with the national boundary (Stohl & Cheney, 2001).

Progress has been made in understanding the antecedents that motivate organisational behaviour and identifying antecedents which motivate employees to go beyond their formal job roles in a certain cultural context with widespread belief that OCBs improve the effectiveness of organisations (Mayfield & Taber, 2010; Organ et al., 2006). Communication between employee and organisation, appropriateness of time and place for gaining useful information and also the nature of information within the organisation are all impacted by the role of national culture. Its strong influence and meaningful
effects on organisations eventually impacts on prosocial behaviours such as OCBs (Rezaeian, Tehrani, & Foroushani, 2013).

Organisational effectiveness depends on individual behaviour exhibited beyond the role requirements for organisational functioning and accomplishing objectives (DiPaola & da Costa Neves, 2009). Individual cultural behaviours are constantly being reinforced within the societal context (Testa, 2009). Cultural influence on organisation behaviour, for example organisational characteristics perceived as positive and meaningful by some people, may not be perceived positively by individuals from other cultures (Rezaeian et al., 2013). Both organisational and individual behaviours are affected by organisational culture through its various dimensions for example it affects job challenges and turnover intentions (Carmeli, 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2009). Therefore, it is necessary to take account of varying dimensions of organisational culture as a cultural force, for generating commitment and enhancing overall organisational effectiveness (Lee & Yu, 2004; Sharoni et al., 2012). The argument that employees from collectivist background focus more on interpersonal helping, harmony and show a higher level of OCB than those from individualistic oriented cultures implies that those societies that are low in ‘institutional collectivism’, such as Pakistan, will display less OCB than those of ‘institutional collectivism’ societies (Aycan et al., 2007; Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Ueda, 2011).
The focus of the study is on three HRM practices (reward management systems, promotion practices, performance appraisal systems) which have been grouped and labelled as HRMP. The extant literature related to the relationships between the constructs of the study, presented above, suggests the testing of the following hypotheses:

**Hypothesis (H₁):** The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, & PAS) are positively influenced by the national culture.

**Hypothesis (H₂):** The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, & PAS) are positively influenced by the organisational culture.

**Hypothesis (H₃):** The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, & PAS) have positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.

**Hypothesis (H₄):** National culture has a positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.

**Hypothesis (H₅):** There is a positive relationship between national culture and organisational culture.

**Hypothesis (H₆):** Organisational culture has a positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.
2.11 Overall Theoretical Model

*Hypothesis (H7):* The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, & PAS) have an influence on organisational citizenship behavior mediated by national culture and organisational culture.

The reviewed literature provides the basis for developing a model to extend the knowledge regarding human resource management practices (reward management system, promotion practices and performance appraisal system) and to measure the national and organisational cultural factors that influence organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in the context of university employees of a developing economy. Using the findings of literature reviewed and presented in this chapter, the overall theoretical model of this research is presented in Figure 2.2.
Figure 2.2 Overall Theoretical Model

- Reward Management System
- Promotion practices
- Performance Appraisal System
- HRMP
- National Culture
- Organisational Culture
- Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

H_a, H_b, H_c, H_d, H_e, H_f, H_7
2.12 Conclusion

This chapter presented a review of literature related to the constructs adopted in this study. Firstly, to develop a strong theoretical basis regarding HRMP, this chapter provides an overview of theories and models that have been used to understand and investigate HRMP. Secondly, this chapter highlights the importance of national culture and organisational culture in the model predicting organisational citizenship behaviour. In doing so, the theoretical foundations of the dimensions measuring individual constructs were reviewed. The literature considered and discussed past studies related to the relationships between the four constructs, namely, HRMP, NC, OC, and OCB. Finally, a proposed conceptual framework based on the review was then compiled and presented.

The next chapter presents a detailed discussion of the research methodology and design of this study.
Chapter Three

Research Methodology and Design

3.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter describes the mix method research approach used for data collection in this study. It outlines the population of the study, data collection procedure, and statistical techniques that were used. The process of data analysis for the final conceptual model using Structured Equation Modelling (SEM) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) software is outlined. Finally, a discussion of the strategy for analyzing the measurement models is followed by the conclusion of this chapter.

3.2 Research Approach

Research is considered as an academic activity or as a movement from the known to the unknown; it is actually a voyage of discovery. It is thus an original contribution to the existing knowledge through a systematic method of finding a solution to the research problem (Kothari, 2011, p. 1). Research methodology is defined as a systematic approach or a procedure of studying a research phenomenon (Kothari, 2011). The selection of research design depends on the theoretical and methodological considerations for data collection and analysis, and selecting the most appropriate methodology to carry out the intended purpose of the research project. This is extremely important in the social sciences because choosing the research design and conducting research in different competitive environments can confuse the researcher (Becker & Gerhart, 1996).
Making decisions regarding methods and determining strategies for any particular research depends on the answer to various questions. For example; the purpose of the information and its use, what kind of information is needed, availability of resources for conducting the evaluation and finally selection of appropriate methods (Patton, 1990). Cronbach (1982) suggested that there are no rigid rules and no recipe or formula for data collection methods. Therefore, a careful selection of the proper data collection method is essential to ensure that appropriate data is collected. Developing an evaluation is as much art as science. “Developing an evaluation is an exercise of dramatic imagination” (Cronbach, 1982, p. 239).

There are two main approaches to research, the quantitative approach and the qualitative approach, both these methods have advantages and disadvantages; neither of them is wrong or right but each may be more or less useful for specific research purposes (Kothari, 2011). The choice of a particular method depends on the nature of the research and objectives of the study, which determine the selection of the research methods i.e. qualitative, quantitative or mixed methodology (Kothari, 2011; Silverman, 2000).

Recently, mixed methods research has become more widely accepted in the field of evaluation research. This approach has acquired strong support in several other fields (Bryman, 2006; Creswell, 2003; Pawson & Tilley, 1997; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Mixed methods research provides a sense of the rigorousness of the research and can be helpful in clarifying the researchers’ objectives (Bryman, 2006). Combined use of quantitative and qualitative methods is useful for versatility of the research design and provides a limitless array of data collection and analysis techniques (Sandelowski,
‘Mixed-method research is a dynamic option for expanding the scope and improving the analytic power of studies’ (Sandelowski, 2000, p. 254).

Considering the reasons for combining quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection, this study focused on the administration of a survey questionnaire to administrative employees and conducted semi-structured interviews with senior management of the university. The basic aim of mixed method research was to combine these two research methods in a way that considers the strengths and weaknesses of each method (Johnson & Turner, 2003).

This chapter is based on epistemological and ontological considerations and discusses the methodological strategies (qualitative and quantitative). It also discusses the data collection procedures, data analysis tools and criterions, sample selection, and development of the questionnaire. Given the nature and objectives of this study, a mixed method qualitative and quantitative research approach was adopted. The data from the questionnaire were collected first from administrative employees and then the interviews with management/authority were conducted because the data collected through the questionnaires provided information or issues to be raised with the interview participants (management of university). This approach was chosen because it was deemed the most appropriate means to gather the data to achieve the objectives of the study: and added additional depth and richness to the data, providing, supporting and complementary information. This permitted the use of triangulation which further enhanced the value of the study. The research method utilized is described in two sections: first the quantitative method is discussed, and then the qualitative method is examined.
3.2.1 Quantitative Approach

The quantitative approach is based on the measurement of the quantity or number and is used to describe the quantity of data or information (Kothari, 2011). This method is defined as ‘the systematic communication content to categories using statistical methods to test hypotheses’ and involves a strict measurement of objectives (Riff, Lacy, & Fico, 2014, p. 3). In this study, the quantitative research approach was employed to test specific hypotheses and explain the relationships between the variables. Survey research is the most appropriate quantitative method of research because it provides a broad coverage of the range of situations and is a quick, economical and efficient means of gathering information (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 1991; Zikmund, 2003). There are three main characteristics of conducting research surveys (1) to produce quantitative descriptions of the research populations with standardized information; (2) to collect information by asking predefined questions; (3) to generalize information to the population as a fraction of the sample (Pinsonneault & Kraemer, 1993, p. 78). Considering the characteristics of the quantitative research survey method, and given the aims and objectives of this research, as described above in section 3.2, the present study has employed the quantitative approach for addressing the objectives of the study. This approach was chosen because it provided the most appropriate means to gather the data and this research method was deemed to achieve the aims and objectives of this study.

3.2.2 Qualitative Approach

Qualitative methods have a well established history in the field of business and management being applied in a wide range of areas from the organisational analysis to the traditional areas of accounting and finance (Cassell, Symon, Buehring, & Johnson,
2006). Qualitative methods provide rich insights into the issues (Boje, 2001; Prasad & Prasad, 2002), and is applicable to phenomenon that relates to quality or kind (Kothari, 2011). The traditional form of qualitative research has adopted explicit and implicit understanding of data, positivist and post-positivist and is termed as foundationalism (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Qualitative research enables objectivity and generalisability of data, reduces data systematically, and elicits and quantifies predetermined categories of information with a variety of techniques (Amis & Silk, 2007, p. 4) Qualitative research is not only a methodological exercise but an understanding of the ‘ontological’ and ‘epistemological’ bases of the research (Amis & Silk, 2007). Consequently, given the aims and objectives of this research and considering the aspects of the qualitative research method, the present study has employed the qualitative approach for examining the objectives of the study.

3.3 Population of the Study

Bryman and Bell (2007, p. 182) define the population as “the universe of units from which the sample is to be selected” such as a group of people or communities that share the same characteristics. Sproull (2002) argues that it is very difficult to survey the whole population for just one study. The population for this study included employees working in the administration of five public sector universities in the province of Sindh, Pakistan. A questionnaire was distributed among the university employees that included officer grade 17 to 19 (middle management) and staff grade 11 to 16 (clerical/ lower staff).

To supplement the quantitative study a qualitative element was added to provide in-depth responses for this study with eight higher officials being interviewed. Five public
sector universities consented to participate in this research and those who agreed to interviews included registrars, pro vice-chancellors and vice chancellors. In most universities there is no separate HR section and the registrar’s office looks after all HR activities. Only 3 of the 8 universities in Sindh province have separate HR sections.

3.4 Data Collection Methods

The study was based on mixed methodology using survey research and semi-structured interviews. In order to address the research objective, firstly, data was gathered using a structured questionnaire, which enabled the hypotheses testing and relationship between variables to be identified. The confidentiality of the participants was assured and no name or signature was required on the questionnaire. A copy of a letter asking for access permission was sent to the eight universities in Pakistan, explaining the objectives of the study and encouraging their cooperation in the research by filling out the questionnaire; however, only five universities approved the data collection process.

Secondly, the semi-structured interviews were conducted with the management of the universities who consented to participate in the research. The researcher’s personal contacts within the participating universities provided permission to contact officials at their universities and the nature of the study encouraged participants to take part. The interviewees were approached by telephone and personal visits to explain the research, to seek their willingness to participate, and make an interview time convenient to them. Those who agreed to an interview were offered the interview guide in advance, but all declined. Once agreed interview times were arranged the researcher provided each interviewee with an information sheet detailing the purpose of the research (see Appendix A) and other details regarding the interview such as time requirements and
language of the interview. The consent form was signed at the beginning of the interview by each interviewee (see Appendix B). Interviews were conducted individually and in-person using English, since English is commonly employed at workplaces in Pakistan. At this time permission was sought to record the interview and all consented. These were later transcribed by the interviewer. All identifiers (i.e. names of individuals, locations and names of institutions) were removed from the transcripts prior to analysis. At the request of the interviewees all interviews were conducted in the participants’ offices. The interviews lasted approximately 30 min, some interviewees elaborated in detail and these interviews lasted up to one hour. During the interviews interviewees held the conversational floor for around 90% of the time.

3.4.1 Quantitative: Data Collection

3.4.1.1 Unit of Analysis

A unit of study can be classified as what is to be studied and whom. One of the basic decisions is selecting the unit of analysis for the research. Unit of analysis refers to a number of objects of study such as a person, program or organisation (Creswell, 2003; Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). The participants involved in this study were all employees working in the administration in public sector universities of Pakistan. In order to collect reliable and valid data for this study and to avoid any forced participation, all participants were informed in advance that their participation was voluntary and anonymous. Survey questionnaires were distributed to those who showed interest and willing participation to contribute to the research.
3.4.1.2 Quantitative Method

Sekaran (2000) argued that a methodology for data collection is a basic component of any research. There are many research techniques for data collection. This study was conducted using the survey method because survey research is an appropriate method of research for quick, efficient, low-cost and accurate information (Zikmund, 2003). Further, survey research is appropriate for conducting quantitative research with standardized information such as hypothesis and relationship between variables, characters of individuals, groups and organisations, and a pre-defined structured instrument through a sample of population (Pinsonneault & Kraemer, 1993). Therefore, the survey method was adopted as the preferred tool for answering the objectives of the present study. In the survey method some form of direct participation is important during the collection of data, such as filling out a questionnaire (Zikmund, 2003). There are two phases of data collection, pretesting usually referred as to pilot study and the main study.

3.4.1.3 Pilot Study

Zikmund (2003) identified that ‘Pretesting’ involves using a small sample to determine the appropriateness of the data collection instrument for the main study. Hence pretesting provides an opportunity to check the questionnaire’s wording or sequence, length and clarity, it helps to minimize errors and to check its feasibility in terms of reliability and validity to the design of the survey instrument before conducting the main study (Zikmund, 2003).

A pilot study was conducted to test the validity of the questions in the questionnaires before conducting the main study. Thirty questionnaires were administered to the
employees of a university. A written consent was signed by the participants who volunteered to participate in the research, after providing them with an information letter about the questionnaire and the purpose of the research. Initially two days were allowed for filling out the questionnaire. After a reminder 100% response rate was received for the pilot study. The collection of the questionnaire was made by the researcher with words of thanks and appreciation to the participants. Although it was a pilot study all completed questionnaires were received. However, some reluctance of employees to complete the questionnaire was noticed. This was addressed by a briefing on the purpose of the questionnaire and their contribution to the research after which participants completed the questionnaire willingly. Another problem of mistrust of the respondents arose in that some of the respondents seemed concerned about confidentiality and having their names or positions reported to higher authority if they made any negative comments about university HR practices in the questionnaire. The trust of the respondent was gained by assuring them that it was not necessary to disclose their name, reinforcing the purpose of the study and their voluntarily participation in the research (see Appendix C, questionnaire consent form).
3.4.1.4 The Cover Letter

According to Adams, Khan, and Raeside (2014), success of the survey research is dependent on the response rate. To ensure a high response rate it is important to make the survey interesting to the respondent through a brief covering letter. The covering letter helps to motivate the respondent’s participation in the research and increase the response rate (Adams et al., 2014). In this research, two covering letters were prepared one for the survey participants and the second for the participants who agreed to be interviewed for this research. The covering letters were written on Charles Sturt University letterhead following the recommended guidelines, explaining the research topic, purpose of the research, significance of their participation in the research, ensuring confidentiality of information and anonymity of the respondent. The covering letter/information sheet mentioned ethical approval for this study, appreciation and thanks to the participants followed by the researcher’s contact details (e.g. email address and phone number) should they wish to query or discuss further details about the study (see Appendix A, B and C).

3.4.1.5 The Sampling Design

Bryman and Bell (2007) define ‘sample’ as a selected segment of the population, chosen to draw conclusions which can be generalisable to the targeted population. A questionnaire was distributed among the university employees that included officers holding basic pay scales (BPS) 17 to 22 (top/middle management) and staff BPS 7 to 16 (clerical/lower staff). A total of 910 questionnaires were distributed among five public sector universities. 515 questionnaires were returned out of which 420 questionnaires were fully completed and useable for data analysis, yielding an overall
response rate of 46.15%. 95 questionnaires were discarded due to incomplete and missing values. Details of the sampling can be seen in Figure 3.1.

The distribution of questionnaires was conducted utilizing personal contacts to gain access to the universities and circulation and collection of questionnaires was made through an individual nominated by the university authority. The researcher delivered the questionnaires to the appropriate person (nominated by the Registrar) in the Registrar’s office of the university, who was responsible for delivering the questionnaire to the employees who were willing to participate in the survey. The participants were requested to put completed questionnaires in a box which was arranged in each section of the university.
Figure 3.1 Sampling Design: Quantitative

Research population (Pakistan)

Punjab Province

Sindh Province

Khyber Pakhtoonkhuwah Province

Baluchistan Province

19 universities 16 universities 17 universities 5 universities

Questionnaire were distributed in the universities

MUET 250 questionnaires

Sindh 200 questionnaires

LUHMS 250 questionnaires

SAUT 100 questionnaires

QUEST 110 questionnaires

Total Questionnaire 910

Returned Number of Questionnaires

MUET 200 questionnaires

Sindh 90 questionnaires

LUHMS 95 questionnaires

SAUT 55 questionnaires

QUEST 75 questionnaires

Unit of Analysis

MUET 176 questionnaires

Sindh 75 questionnaires

LUHMS 80 questionnaires

SAUT 30 questionnaires

QUEST 59 questionnaires

Total sample size 420
with the permission of the authority. Later, the researcher collected the completed questionnaires from the same contact individual.

Baker and Risley (1994, p. 483) states the unit of analysis as the social object whose characteristics is the focus of the study. Generally, the unit of analysis can be a single unit such as a case study and survey research, but and it may be multiple units such as research using hierarchal data analysis (Bernard & Bernard, 2013). For this study the sample unit is regular employees working in the public sector universities of Pakistan. Comrey and Lee (2013) suggested that a sample size of 100 is considered as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as good, 500 as very good and 1000 as excellent. This study achieved a 420 workable sample size to carry out the analyses.

There are various categories of questionnaire design, depending on the questionnaire’s administration and the amount of contact involved with respondents. For instance, one type of questionnaire design is the self administered questionnaire. Self administered questionnaires are frequently answered by participants, and these questionnaires are delivered and returned through the post, via email or delivered and collected by hand (Lewis, Thornhill, & Saunders, 2007). Self administered questionnaires are an inexpensive method for both researchers and participants while providing a chance to reach a relatively large respondent population (Zikmund, 2003). Hence considering the advantages of the self administered questionnaire, this study used the questionnaire to examine the general nature of HRM practices in a developing country and analysed the underlying factor structure of the reward management system, promotion practices, performance appraisal system, national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour.
3.4.2 Qualitative: Data Collection

3.4.2.1 Unit of Analysis

After the quantitative collection of data, interviews were conducted with management of the public sector universities of Pakistan officials who consented to participate in the research.

3.4.2.2 Qualitative Method

Kavle (1996) described the interview as the “favoured digging tool” in social sciences. The interview could be structured, unstructured or semi-structured (Burns, 2010; Ehigie & Ehigie, 2005; Fontana & Frey, 2005; Marshall & Rossman, 2010; Polit & Beck, 2010). Sayrs (1998) stated that interviewing is an important methodological toolbox in social science research. It has also been the subject of various published texts (e.g. McCracken, 1988; Patton, 1990). In-depth interviews provide an opportunity for repeated face to face encounters between the interviewer and interviewee which increases understanding of informants’ experiences and situations as expressed by them in their own words (Ehigie & Ehigie, 2005). Face to face contact allows the development of rapport and a ‘natural’ interaction for generating rich qualitative data (Shuy, 2003).

This study adopted the standardized open-ended approach given the advantages suggested by Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey (2011), Khilji (2004) and Miles and Huberman (1994) that open ended questions provide an opportunity for probing, allows interviewees to share information in detail, and gives an opportunity to understand the interviewee in their context and point of view. In-depth interviews were used to explore
in detail the latent attitudes and feelings of respondents (Ehigie & Ehigie, 2005). Whilst these can be conducted in person or through telephone and email, this study chose to interview in person. As mentioned by Ehigie and Ehigie (2005) face to face interviews consider interviewee’s own discussions, expressions and emotions.

3.4.2.3 Interview Guidelines

Many authors make a distinction between different question types such as, open-ended and close-ended (Briggs, 1986, 2003; Kavle, 1996; Silverman, 2011). An open ended question allows interviewees to talk for long stretches with limited control of the interviewer on response construction. Hence, such question design is typical in qualitative interviewing (Grindsted, 2005). This study used semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions because they were the most practical method and widely used in qualitative research for obtaining adequate and valid information (Grbich, 2012). Considering the advantages of in-depth interviews and given the research objectives; in-depth interviews were deemed the most appropriate method for data collection.

According to Ramirez-Rubio et al. (2013) open-ended questions asked in qualitative studies are designed to discover the opinion, beliefs, experience and behaviour of the interviewee without any options for prescribing responses or leading interviewees to a particular answer. In this study the interview guide was developed with the aim of getting information and opinions from interviewees about the strengths and weaknesses of human resource management practices in the university based on their experience. A set of questions were arranged in order to ask each respondent the same question with flexibility in probing depending on the nature of the interview and interviewer skills.
The basic structure of the interview was followed so that all key topics were addressed. Initial questions were focused on determining their general understanding of Human resource management (HRM) practices. For each topic focused on in this research a broad question was asked to establish the respondents overall perception of the HR functions and followed up with specific questions to elicit further detail or support for their opinion. Questions asked in the interview addressed the following topics: 1) human resource management practices; 2) reward management system; 3) promotion practices; 4) performance appraisals systems; 5) organisational culture; 6) national culture; and 7) organisational citizenship behaviour. Interviews included a series of follow-up questions and some of the questions were probed with the intention to draw out additional information on these topics, and were used in response to the answers received from the interviewees (see Appendix D for list of interview questions and Appendix E for interview protocol).

### 3.4.2.4 The Sampling Design

There are no rules for sample size in qualitative research. The sample is dependent on the type of information sought, the purpose of the inquiry, the degree of credibility needed and what can be acquired with available resources (Patton, 1990). Sampling involves selecting a portion of a target population or universe as representative of the whole population or universe (Kerlinger, 1986).

Five public sector universities consented to participate in this research (see Table 3.1). Each interview was assigned a number, based on the order in which interviews took place. These numbers have been used to indicate which quotes/responses were provided by the different participants in Chapter five.
### Table 3.1 Interview Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>No. of Interviewees</th>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Registrar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Pro-Vice Chancellor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Vice chancellor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Registrar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Vice Chancellor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Registrar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Vice Chancellor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Pro-Vice Chancellor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.5 Research Instrument

The selection of the correct instrument is an essential activity. It is important to have an accurate instrument for the data collection. To measure construct validity and reliability requires a capable instrument (Zikmund, 2003). Research instruments can be used in combination to fulfill the objectives of the study (Sandelowski, 2000). Instrument typologies provide descriptions of the research, guidance to purposeful sampling and elicitation of devices to both qualitative and quantitative research. Research instruments direct researchers more precisely to the kinds of participants and the information to obtain (Sandelowski, 2000). Since, this study has employed mixed methodology for gathering data; the research instruments chosen for this research were questionnaire surveys and semi-structured interviews which are discussed in detail as follows:
3.5.1 Survey

Establishing an instrument for collection of data in achieving research objectives and selection of the relevant, accurate and correct instrument is a complex process (Zikmund, 2003). Sekaran (2000) discussed the capacity of the instrument to answer the research question’s validity and reliability. This study followed Sekaran’s (2000) procedures to develop an appropriate instrument, mainly emphasizing the instrument content development, item wording and language and layout of the instrument. Survey research is an appropriate tool to conduct quantitative research for obtaining standardized data to further explore the relationships between the hypothesis and the variables through a sample population (Pinsonneault and Kraemer, 1993).

Previously the researcher was working in one of the universities so access was gained by telephoning, emailing and making personal visits in order to distribute the questionnaires. The questionnaire was administered personally by the researcher and access to the universities was gained with the help of personal contacts. In this study the questionnaire was divided into two parts. Part A, demographic variables comprising six questions; age, gender, education level of respondent, grade of respondent, length of service and university name. This was placed at the beginning of the questionnaire on the recommendations of Sekaran (2000) who suggests that, in designing the questionnaire, the personal information should be asked at the start or at the end of the survey instrument. Part B, comprises 132 questions under the sections of reward management system, promotion practices, performance appraisal system, national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour which were measured using a five point Likert scale e.g. very dissatisfied, not satisfied, neutral, satisfied and very satisfied (see Appendix F).
3.5.2 Survey Language

The questionnaire wording, types and forms play a vital role in keeping respondents interested until the end of the questionnaire (Sekaran, 2000). Zikmund (2003) argued that there are two ways of phrasing questions i.e. open-ended and closed-ended. Closed-ended questions are preferable for quantitative research as they are easier to respond to in less time as well as easy for coding and tabulating purposes. This was the reason this study chose close-ended questions for the quantitative analysis. Since English is commonly used in workplaces in Pakistan the questionnaire was distributed in English. The questionnaire was written in simple and easy to understand language related to reward management systems, promotion practices, performance appraisal system, national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour in public sector universities of Pakistan.
3.5.3 Response Rate

The data was collected from February to May 2013. A total of 910 survey questionnaires were distributed into five public sector universities in Pakistan. 515 questionnaires were returned; a return rate of 56.5% (n=515), from which (n=95) 10.4% questionnaires were discarded due to incomplete sections and a large number of missing values. Finally, 46.15% (n=420) completed questionnaires were used for the final analysis. A response rate of 46% is considered acceptable for this type of study.

3.5.4 Semi-Structured Interview

In the social sciences, semi-structured interviews are widely used to gain insight into how people attribute meaning to their worlds in their social circle (Grindsted, 2005). Semi-structured interviews provide the opportunity to have face to face interviews which provide ‘social cues’ such as voice and body language of the interviewee. These aspects ‘help the interviewer to get a lot of extra information that can be added to the verbal answer of the interviewee’ (Opdenakker, 2006, p. 3). Punch (2009) asserted that accurately constructed and conducted interviews are a practical method of data collection, considering interviewees’ knowledge, experiences, reactions, and interpretations. A semi-structured, in-depth interview permits versatility and is a successful method for obtaining particular and relevant information (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Fontana & Frey, 2000; Rospenda, Richman, & Nawyn, 1998). In semi-structured interviews questions are planned in advance, using open-ended questions (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). Semi-structured open-ended interviews unveil concealed issues (Fontana & Frey, 2000) and help in the exploration of issues, minimize inconsistencies and assist the interviewer to better understand information (Kinoshita et al., 2012). Opdenakker (2006) also notes less delay between question and answer and a
quick reaction of both parties to what the other says or does. This helps to steer the conversation, and provides an opportunity for synchronised communication in time and place. An interview guide can be prepared in advance as it encourages the interviewer to cover all relevant information and allows deviation. In this way, the interview can be semi-structured (Ehigie & Ehigie, 2005).

Given the scope and purpose of the research project, the researcher chose to employ semi-structured interviews with officials working in authoritative positions such as Vice-Chancellors, Pro Vice-Chancellors and Registrars in the public sector universities. The decision to interview these officials was based on the premise that information could be obtained in detail using open ended questions to elicit the opportunity for probing which could not have been achieved if a questionnaire using the Likert scale was used. Another reason for interviewing them was to compare and contrast the information obtained from the employees and higher officials regarding the HRM practices and their impact on employee performance. Semi-structured interviews also allowed for the gathering of immediate information without the need for any reminders, which would be viewed as impolitic and culturally inappropriate given the senior positions held by the interviewees.
3.6 Analytical Procedure

The data collected through the questionnaires was analyzed by using descriptive statistics techniques. The demographic frequency, factor analysis, regression analysis and multiple analyses of variance were used to determine the strength of the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables. The regression pathways were confirmed by structural equation modelling (SEM). For this study reward management system, promotion practices and performance appraisal system were considered as dependent variables and organisational citizenship behaviour was tested as the independent variable through national culture and organisational culture as mediating variables using “SPSS 19” and SEM.

3.6.1 Data Entry

It is recommended by Adams et al. (2014) that responses should be entered into a spreadsheet with particular headings which identify each question or sub-question. In this study, the data collected through questionnaires and interviews were first coded and transcribed respectively. The cleaned data were then entered in SPSS 19.0 and Microsoft Excel. Finally the data was thoroughly checked for proper entry, corrections were made for double digit entry or any other typographical error.

3.6.2 Demographic Variables

The demographic variables age, gender and education were considered in this research. Age has been categorized in four groups, with 1 = 20-29 years, 2 = 30-40 years, 3 = 41-50 years and 4 = 51-60 years. Gender was grouped with two categories, with 1 distinguishing female and 2 distinguishing male, and education was grouped with five
categories, with 1 = Diploma, 2 = Undergraduate, 3 = Postgraduate, 4 = PhD, and 5 = Other qualification.

3.6.3 Organisational Variables
The organisational variables grade and length of service were considered in this research. Grade has been categorized into four groups, with 1 = (7-14), 2 = (15-17), 3 = (18-19), 4 = (20-22). Length of service of employee was measured in years and divided into five groups, 1 = (0-11) months, 2 = (1-10) years, 3 = (11-20) years, 4 = (21-30) years, and 5 = (31-40) years.

3.6.4 Constructs of the Study
Six constructs were considered in this research: reward management system, promotion practices, performance appraisal system, national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour. These constructs were ranked according to five categories, with 1 = (very dissatisfied) 2 = (not satisfied), 3 = (neutral), 4 = (satisfied), and 5 = (very satisfied).

3.7 Measures
Reliable and validated measures that have been used in past research were identified for each of the variables in this study.

3.7.1 Reward Management System
The thirteen items developed by Husin et al. (2012) to measure reward management systems were used. In this study the response was sought using a five point Likert scale (endpoints: 1 = very dissatisfied, 5 = very satisfied), and proved reliable having alpha
ranges between 0.76 to 0.87. This scale was selected as it had already been used in a developing country whose context seemed comparable to Pakistan: for instance an Islamic country with its own national language and the continuing British influence reflected in the use of the English language, the transportation system (trains), educational system and legislative system. Results of this study concluded that managing human resources through the various HRM practices was critical for the success of any organisation, particularly service organisations. Thus it was decided to use this scale as it was focused on the objectives of this study.

3.7.2 Promotion Practices

For promotion practices the questionnaire developed in an earlier study by Krivokapic-Skoko et al. (2009) was used, and contained eight items. The response was sought on a five point Likert scale (endpoints: 1 = very dissatisfied, 5 = very satisfied). The scale’s reliability was 0.89. This instrument was chosen as the basis of the current questionnaire due to focus of the questions and its successful use in the university context, which was appropriate for the objectives of this study.

3.7.3 Performance Appraisal System

An earlier study developed by Whiting, Kline, and Sulsky (2008), using forty-six items to measure performance appraisal was adopted for this study with 0.84 reliability. The response was sought on a five point Likert scale (anchors: 1 = very dissatisfied, 5 = very satisfied). This instrument was chosen for inclusion in the current questionnaire due to the focus of the questions to assess employee performance appraisal and its ability to predict employee attitude about their performance appraisal systems in the
organisational context. Therefore it was decided to use this scale as it was focused and related to the objectives of this study.

3.7.4 National Culture

National culture was measured by seventeen items developed by Keillor and Hult (1999). Alphas ranges 0.77 and above. The response was sought on a five point Likert scale (anchors: 1 = very dissatisfied, 5 = very satisfied). These were chosen for inclusion in the current questionnaire due to focus of the questions and its use in a five-country study of national identity examining differences across nations and culture. Therefore it was decided to use this scale as it was focused and related to the objectives of this study.

3.7.5 Organisational Culture

For the organisational culture variable questions were adopted from an earlier study by Cameron (2004), and consisted of twenty-four items. The response was sought on a five point Likert scale (endpoints: 1 = very dissatisfied, 5 = very satisfied). This instrument was chosen as the basis of the current questionnaire due to the nature of the questions which focused on the process of changing organisational culture. It was decided to use this scale to also examine the relationship between HR practices and organisational culture.

3.7.6 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour: was measured by twenty-four items developed by (Podsakoff et al., 1990). All alpha ranges were acceptable. The response was required on five point Likert scales (endpoints: 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly
agree). This instrument was selected due to the focus of the questions which were based on transformational behaviours and their effects on trust, satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour. This scale was chosen to examine the behaviours impacting individual performance in the organisation.

3.8 Data Analysis Plan

This section outlines the data analysis plans (quantitative and qualitative) that have been used in this study.

3.8.1 Data Analysis Plan: Quantitative

The analytic perspective has important implications for data collection. These standpoints lead to methodological commitments for data collection. There are some clear implications for identifying analytic plans (Silverman, 2010). Thus, the analysis of this study is divided into two stages, first, preliminary data analysis and second, evaluation of the structural model. In the first stage the data was analysed using descriptive statistics such as mean values and standard deviations. All the tasks included in this stage e.g. coding, editing, checking missing values, data normality testing, reliability of data and factor analysis were run using SPSS 19.0. In the second stage Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS version 21) was used for Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

3.8.1.1 Data Coding and Editing

According to Pallant (2007) the main purpose of the coding is labelling the variables of the study and assigning the numbers to the responses. In this study, a widely accepted and used SPSS 19.0 software package was employed for the purpose of coding and
editing the quantitative data collected from the questionnaires. SPSS 19.0 was run to screen the data, detecting missing or incomplete values, determining normality of data i.e. using kurtosis and skewness statistics, and to perform descriptive statistics such as mean values, standard deviations and frequencies.

3.8.1.2 Data Validation

Data validation is a process of quality assurance that confirms the accuracy of data during the study. Data validation involves three stages: prior data entry, during data entry and post data entry (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). Data quality assurance needs to be addressed and data collected for the research must be validated for its wide acceptance (Dickinson, Zuckerberg, & Bonter, 2010). For this study, to assess the validity and reliability of the data, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using SPSS 19.0, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM) was used.

3.8.1.3 Factor Analyses

According to Leeflang and Wittink (2000) factor analysis is a widely used technique to investigate any highly correlated variables with a structure of overlapping variation between predictors. This well-accepted tool is employed as a means of finding underlying dimensions in variable sets and has been extensively used in the literature (e.g. Gorsuch, 1983; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Hofstede, 1980a; Jolliffe, 1986; Rummel, 1970). Therefore, a factor analysis was run to confirm the scale selected for the present study and it was supported by the data. Recommendations of Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and William (1998) were followed for the purpose of this study with factor loadings equal to 0.40 or greater considered practically significant.
Factor analysis is the best method to understand the essential structure about a particular theory and its variables in analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Generally, the factor analysis is used to reduce the information included in a number of measuring items into smaller factors (Gorsuch, 1983). Factor analysis helps in specifying the unit of analysis and identifies the relationship between variables and respondents (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, factor analysis was used to study the possible factors which were grouped together in a meaningful way (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As to the psychometric validation, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed to examine dimensions of the components. PCA can be used in many ways to summarize a large number of variables into a smaller number of linear combinations that accounts for variability in the pattern of correlations (Pallant, 2013). Pallant (2013) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) argued that PCA is the better choice for the purpose of empirical summary of the data.

3.8.1.4 Structural Equation Modelling

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a collection of statistical techniques which facilitate the examination of a set of relationships between multiple variables, either continuous or discrete and either latent (construct) or observed variables (Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). SEM provides factor analysis, contribution of dependent and independent constructs and multiple regressions to assess model fit to the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It is a ‘procedure for accommodating measurement error directly in the estimation of a series of dependence relationships. It is the best multivariate procedure for testing both the construct validity and theoretical relationships among multiple variables’ (Hair, William, Barry, & Rolph, 2010, p. 627). SEM is given many names: casual analysis, casual modelling, covariance structure
analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and latent variable analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Thus, SEM has become a popular multivariate approach and has been used in various disciplines to address numerous research problems (Hair et al., 2010). The SEM technique contains two inter-related models: (1) the measurement model, and (2) the structural model. Both models can be estimated through second generation data analysing techniques such as variance-based modelling Partial Least Squares (PLS) and covariance-based modelling, Linear Structural Relations (LISREL), and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS). In addition, SEM enables the researcher to examine both measurement modelling and structural modelling by testing the relationships among multiple variables (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). According to Hair et al. (2010) there are six stages in SEM: stage one, defining the constructs, stage two, specifying the measurement model, stage three, adequacy of the sample size, stage four, measurement model validity, stage five, specifying structural model, and stage six structural model validity. SEM analyse techniques involve testing both measurement theory such as construct representation and structural theory such as construct interrelationships.

3.8.1.5 Justification for Structural Equation Modelling Use

SEM is a versatile statistical modelling tool. It has a number of advantages, such as estimation capacities of error between variables (Lei & Wu, 2007). SEM determines the significant paths among variables based on the proposed model and hypotheses (Isa, Loke, Smith, Papageorgiou, & Hunter, 2013). SEM is used for testing hypotheses, testing model appropriateness, modification of existing models and testing a number of related models (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 679). In addition this tool can be used
with different Software packages including Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS), Statistical Analysis Software (SAS), Linear Structural Relations (LISREL) and Structural Equation Modelling Software (EQS) (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Therefore, structural equation modelling was most suitable for this study to examine the multiple dependent and independent relationships given in the proposed research model. In this study AMOS was used to examine statistical relationships between the dependent factors such as reward management system, promotion practices, performance appraisal system with mediating factors such as national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour as the independent variable. It is important to highlight the reasons for adopting covariance-based modelling technique AMOS to analyse the data and the rationale behind using it in this study; (1) it proposes a systematic mechanism for dealing with multiple and interrelated dependence relationships simultaneously, (2) it helps in model specification, and (3) it helps to deal with complex models (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Therefore, the present study has employed the AMOS technique for addressing the objectives of the study.

3.8.2 Data Analysis Plan: Qualitative

Considering, the advantages of open-ended questions by various authors such as Hennink et al. (2011), Khilji (2004), Ehigie and Ehigie (2005), and Miles and Huberman (1994) this study used open-ended questions in the interview. It was decided that a more enhanced quality of response could be obtained through the use of open-ended questions. Therefore, face to face interviews were conducted, ranging from half an hour to one hour, depending on the respondent willingness to share the information.
Responses to the questions are presented under the seven sections: human resource management practices, reward management system, promotion practices, performance appraisal system, national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour. The opinions/comments made by the interview participants have been reviewed and summarised in the following discussion, and supported by quotations taken from the transcripts of interviews. Each question will be presented, followed by a summary of comments and selected quotations. In cases where two or more questions were used to collect responses on the one issue, from different perspectives, or to seek follow-up information, the questions have been discussed together.

3.8.2.1 Transcription

Ritchie and Spencer (2002, p. 225) define transcription as ‘transforming spoken language into a written text. Transcription is one of the important parts of the analytic plan. Talk is often treated as a medium for information passed from one person to another, it is a ‘telementation view of language’ (Harris, 1981; Silverman, 2010). It is important to determine features of talk precisely to know what actions are performed and establish an understanding of activity between participants and analysts. For this reason the talk was transcribed, initially as a first draft, the entire interviews were typed including words and other features of the conversation on paper such as pauses, interruptions, thinking modes, laughing and nodding. Then after re-transcription that best displayed the conversation between interviewee and interviewer was prepared in Microsoft excel. This was then used for the analysis of this study.
3.8.2.2 Coding

In the qualitative analysis, instances are systematically identified across the data and grouped together as a means of coding. The unit of analysis, either group or individual, provides the basis for developing a coding system, which is then applied in the transcription. Coding is meant to encourage conceptual development (Silverman, 2010).

Unit of analysis refers to several objects of study, for example, a person, an organisation, or a community (Patton, 1987). Unit of analysis is also considered as interviews, diaries or an interaction (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992). The text that are coded or written in the transcript, have also been considered as units of analysis (Feeley & Gottlieb, 1997). It is difficult to take a whole interview as a unit of analysis that may be large enough or small enough to keep in mind as a context of the meaning unit for the analysis process (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Thus, a group of words or statements that relate to the same central meaning, has been referred to as a content coding, a keyword and phrase (Baxter, 1991). In this study interview texts were sorted into seven content areas (i.e. human resource management practice, reward management system, promotion practices, performance appraisal system, national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour).

3.8.2.3 Themes

The next stage in qualitative data analysis is to explore what is ‘underlying’ in the data or to distil meaning, norms, patterns orders and themes (Silverman, 2010). Themes emerge from experiences of participants and unify ideas about the subject of the study. Themes evolve from the conceptual codes, sub-codes and relationship codes, which tag data that link concepts to each other (Bradley, Curry, & Devers, 2007). In this study
interview text was sorted into twenty seven themes for answering the objectives of the study.

3.9 Triangulation

Triangulation has been defined as the combination of multiple theories, methods and data sources in a single study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2009) (Oppermannt, 2000). It has been used as a metaphor to characterize several methods in measuring a single construct (Garner, 1954; Oppermannt, 2000). There are two types of methodological triangulation (1) within method triangulation, which includes the combination of numerous data collection strategies for the single study to evaluate the same constructs, and (2) between method triangulation, which incorporates both quantitative and qualitative approaches for a particular study to measure similar variables (Denzin & Lincoln, 2009).

3.9.1 Justification for the Use of Triangulation

For the purpose of this study the use of triangulation has been necessitated by the confirmation of analyses technique’s strengths and weaknesses, and to confirm the validity of results and to overcome the deficiency of any one method used in this research. As Blaikie (1991), concurs that triangulation has been useful to overcome issues of validity, biasness of research results and surmounting methodological insufficiency. This study has used between method triangulation to reveal the multifaceted nature of the study, uncover the context and consequences of the research findings in addressing its aims and objectives. The following framework (Figure 3.2) has been developed for the triangulation of this study.
Figure 3.2 Triangulation

Notes: □ = constructs of the research (HRMP = human resource management practice, NC = national culture, OC organisational culture and OCB organisational citizenship behaviour).
3.10 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations are an important element when conducting research in any organisations. The clear and agreed terms and conditions for the research provide cooperation and compliance by the respondents and allow collection of the desired amount of data (Zikmund, 2003). In this regard there are two important attributes concerning ethical issues: (1) the sensitivity issue related to ethics, and (2) the commitment to abide by the set actions (Eisner & Peshkin, 1990). Ethical consideration varies from culture to culture and from one individual to the other. Something considered ethical in one context may be considered unethical in another context (Bush & James, 2002). Thus an ethical decision is a trade-off whereby the researcher needs to display “a balance between the demands placed on them as professional scientists in the pursuit of truth, and their subjects’ rights and values potentially threatened by the research” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000, p. 49). In addition, Sekaran (2000) and Cohen et al. (2000) suggested that the researcher should ensure: the secrecy and confidentiality of the information; privacy and confidentiality of the respondent; ensure self-respect and self-esteem of the respondent’s; appropriate representation of the respondent information; clear representation of research purpose and objectives; and a prior consent of the respondent (not forced) to participate, withdraw or refrain from taking part in the research.

In this study, ethical issues were considered very rigorously to ensure the integrity of research. In addition to Cohen et al. (2000) and Sekaran’s (2000) recommendations as mentioned above, the guidelines of the Charles Sturt University (CSU) ethics committee were followed during the data collection of this research. According to CSU’s ethics guidelines, the researcher is required to submit an ethics approval form, create a
participant information sheet and a consent form ensuring the participants of voluntary participation and ability to withdraw from the research at any time if they wish. The ethics application form was filled and signed by the researcher and approved by the researcher’s supervisor and was submitted to the CSU ethics committee for approval to conduct the research. In conformity with the ethical requirements a detailed consent form was given to the participants with clear instructions for participating in the research, stating the purpose and objectives of the research study. Contact details of the researcher were provided to allow respondents the opportunity to ask further questions about the research if they wished. Ethics approval was granted, and a copy of the approval letter is provided in (Appendix G).

3.11 Conclusion

This chapter provided the methodological details for conducting this research, outlining the mixed methodology, quantitative and qualitative approach for data collection. A detailed description of quantitative and qualitative approaches, population of the study, sampling of the study (qualitative, quantitative), research instrument, data collection procedure, the cover letter and pilot study is provided. This chapter also explained the analytical procedures involved in this study such as demographic variables, organisational variable, constructs of the study, data entry, coding and measure used for this study. This was followed by further detail on the analytic plan used in this study; exploratory factor analyses, and structural equation modelling. Finally justification for SEM, interview analysis, transcription and themes were outlined followed by the conclusion.

The next chapter presents detailed discussion of the quantitative findings of this study.
Chapter Four
Quantitative Analysis, Results and Discussion

4.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter will present the analysis of the results and discussion based on the findings of the current research. It begins by describing the demographic profile of the respondents and the organisational characteristics and presenting results of each construct of the study: reward management system, promotion practices, performance appraisal system, national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour. This chapter provides factor analyses of each construct in order to establish the reliability and validity of the variables. In this chapter, all constructs of the study are separately examined for their correlations and relationships. This is followed by MANOVA to assess the influence of demographic and the organisational characteristics on each construct of the study. The final two sections, sections ten and eleven, provide the results of the analysis and the hypotheses testing by conducting SEM, a brief conclusion of the chapter.

4.2 Demographic and Organisational Profile of the Respondents

A breakdown of the demographic details of the respondents is provided in Table 4.1. The number of male and female respondents was unevenly distributed, with 79.5% (n=334) male and 20.5% (n=86) female. The largest number of respondents were aged 26-40 years (34%, n=143), followed by 20-25 years (29.5%, n=124), and the smallest age group 51-60 years (9.7%, n=67). For the participant’s education level, the highest level was observed as postgraduate (64.8%, n=272), the participants holding PhD (16.2% n=68) and working with dual responsibilities of teaching and administration, and the lowest category was other education including intermediate or certificate level (2.1%, n=9). The largest groups for the category of length of service were identified as having
1-10 years (46.9%, n=197) followed by two groups 11-20 years (19.3%, n=81) and 21-30 years with the same results (19.3%, n=81). The smallest group in this category consisted of those who had length of service of 31-40 years (5.7%, n=24). The result showed that for the category of grade of respondent most of the respondents were holding basic pay scale (BPS) 18-19 (40.5%, n=170), followed by BPS-15-17 (28.6%, n=120) and lowest category was BPS 20-22 (14% n=59).
Table 4.1 Demographic and Organisational Profile of the Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>79.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (In Years)</td>
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<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26-40</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>34</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>86</td>
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<td></td>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>9.7</td>
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<td>Grade of respondent</td>
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<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BPS 15-17</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BPS 18-19</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BPS 20-22</td>
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<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Service</td>
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<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-10 years</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>46.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>19.3</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Other (Intermediate or certificate level)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>420</td>
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4.3 Data Normality: Skewness and Kurtosis

One of the fundamental assumptions in data distribution is normality of data. The shape of the distribution of data is mainly described by two measures; kurtosis and skewness. Hair et al. (2010) point out that skewness score ± 2.58 and kurtosis index from 8.0 to over 20.0 indicate a symmetrical distribution of data. The value of both kurtosis and skewness for all the constructs of the study met the assumption of normal distribution of data. In this study, as presented in Table 4.2, all the items were within the normal range of skewness and kurtosis and both have positive and negative skewed and kurtosis values e.g. < ± 2.58. Hair et al. (2010, p. 73), Pallant (2007, p. 56) suggested both skewness and kurtosis either positive or negative does not represents any problem unless their score is within the normal range.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Skew</th>
<th>t-values</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
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<td>OCB21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-0.954</td>
<td>-7.984</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>5.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-0.798</td>
<td>-6.678</td>
<td>0.454</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-0.861</td>
<td>-7.205</td>
<td>1.194</td>
<td>4.994</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Multivariate | 222.647 | 50.438 |
4.4 Reward Management System

In order to determine the dimensions of reward management system in public sector universities in Pakistan, factor analysis (FA), correlation analysis (CA), regression analysis (RA), and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were applied to examine the reward management factorial structure and to ascertain convergent reliability and variability of the relationship according to the data collected from respondents within the Pakistani public sector universities.

Examination of the existing literature suggests that the reward management system is a multi-dimensional factor. Therefore, the following hypothesis has been tested:

*Hypothesis (Ha):* The factor structure of reward management systems are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors.

4.4.1 Factor Analysis

According to Leeflang and Wittink (2000) factor analysis is a widely used technique to investigate any highly correlated variables with a structure of overlapping variation between predictors. This well-accepted tool is employed as a means of finding underlying dimensions in variable sets and has been extensively used in the literature (e.g. Gorsuch, 1983; Hair et al., 2006; Hofstede, 1980a; Jolliffe, 1986; Rummel, 1970). Therefore, a factor analysis was run to confirm the scale selected for the present study and is supported by the data. Recommendations of Hair et al. (1998) were followed for the purpose of this study with factor loadings equal to 0.40 or greater considered practically significant.
Factor analysis is the best method to understand the essential structure about a particular theory and its variables in analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Generally, the factor analysis is used to reduce the information included in a number of items into smaller factors (Gorsuch, 1983). Factor analysis helps in specifying the unit of analysis and identifies the relationship between variables and respondents (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, factor analysis was used to study the possible factors which were grouped together in a meaningful way (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As to the psychometric validation, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed to examine dimensions of the components. PCA can be used in many ways to summarize a large number of variables into a smaller number of linear combinations that accounts for variability in the pattern of correlations Pallant (2013) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) argued that PCA is the better choice for the purpose of empirical summary of the data.

Factor analysis was performed using principal component analysis to estimate factors. One most widely used method principle component analysis does not require the normality assumption of the data (Valadkhani, Chancharat, & Harvie, 2008). Principle component analysis determines minimum numbers of factors that account for maximum data variance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). With principle component the eigenvalues technique was used for factor extraction and varimax rotation without specifying the number of factors to be extracted was employed. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy test were analysed to assess the appropriateness of using factor analysis on the data.

The results depicted a solution with three factors. Once the matrix was considered factorable, the eigenvalues and percentage of explained variance of each factor were
then examined in order to determine the quantity of factors to be extracted. After the factor loadings obtained from the factor analysis were further considered to test and eliminate the items with no significant loading. The two items namely, question (1) “In this university good performance does not necessarily get rewarded,” and question (10) “Employees are always unclear of what their supervisors expect them to do,” were removed for their low significance value. The removal of these items led to two factors with eight items in one factor labelled as reward system and three items in the other factor labelled as award recognition.

Once again factor analysis was carried out after removing the two items (results with the two factors are shown in Table 4.3). Factors that contributed eigenvalue >1.0 were significant and the remaining were not taken into consideration (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The result of this study exhibited eigenvalues >1.0 for two components i.e. reward system (5.841) and award recognition (1.026). These two components explained total variance of 62.4% which is higher than the recommendations. 60% or above cumulative variance satisfies the criterion of variance percentage (Hair et al., 2006). This solution explained 36.926 cumulative percent of the variance and 62.427 cumulative percent for components. Hair et al. (2006) suggested that lower communality identifies that an item does not fit well with other items in the same component. Communality lower than 0.5 (50%) are considered to be weak items (Hair et al., 2006). In this study total communalities of each item were greater than 0.5; all communalities were noted (1.0.) for each item which are higher than the recommended value. Norusis (1992) recommended the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test to measure sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity to achieve appropriate factor analysis results. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that a value of KMO greater
than 0.6 is statistically significant and is suitable for factor analysis to provide a discreet set of factors, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity indicates that correlations among the measurement items higher than 0.3 are suitable for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was .920 which was greater than 0.6 and Bartlett’s test was significant at (Chi-square) 2343.058 and satisfied the initial assumptions for the factor analysis (Bartlett, 1954; Kaiser, 1974). The mean score for each item was identified >2.87 and <3.37. The standard deviation were confirmed >1.0 for each item. Cronbach Alpha was noted to 0.89 for factor one (reward system) and 0.78 for factor two (award recognition); that signifies the reliability of the measures. Cronbach’s α is easier to calculate and is a well-accepted measure within research (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Generally, Cronbach’s α coefficient 0.70, is acceptable, however, it may be accepted at 0.60 (Sekaran, 2000).

After using factor analysis two factors emerged as seen in Table 4.3. Factors loaded from the factor analysis ranged from 0.579 to 0.803 for the first factor, namely reward system that consisted of eight items. The second factor namely, award recognition, ranged from 0.754 to 0.828 and consisted of three items (Churchill, 1979; Henseler, Christian, & Rudolf, 2009). The factor loading was above the minimum threshold criterion 0.4 (Hair et al., 2006). Each factor has a Cronbach’s alpha range from 0.89 to 0.78 which is above 0.60 and satisfied the requirements of the psychometric reliability test (Hair et al., 2006). All values exceed the recommended threshold 0.70 (Sekaran, 2000) indicating good internal consistency among the items within each dimension,
each variable, and the entire scale. The results demonstrated the factor structure of reward management. Therefore, $H_a$ is accepted.

4.4.2 Definition of the Latent Factors

Reward System

Factor one, reward system, showed that the question “Supervisors are supportive of employees’ ideas and ways of getting things done” has a high factor loading (0.803) on the first factor. The inspection of the factor loadings indicates that for each of the variables loading was >0.579 on the reward system. The highest factor loading indicates the highest explanatory power in the reward system factor.

Award Recognition

Factor two, award recognition, shows that the question “Promotions and pay increases are based on achieving documented performance objectives” has a high factor loading (0.828) on the second factor. An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading on award recognition are much higher than on reward system, and the highest factor loading indicates greater explanatory power.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reward system</td>
<td>Supervisors are supportive of employees’ ideas and ways of getting things done.</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.031</td>
<td>0.803</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supervisors recognize employees for doing high-quality work.</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>1.089</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supervisors are responsive of employees' requests for help or guide.</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.068</td>
<td>0.751</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees are satisfied with the recognition they receive for doing good jobs.</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.135</td>
<td>0.692</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This university noticeably celebrates excellent service.</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.168</td>
<td>0.683</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supervisors use the rewards they have to let employees know when they have done fine jobs.</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.058</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management provides excellent incentives and rewards to every employee at all levels.</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.191</td>
<td>0.586</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In this university, promotions go to the people who really deserve them.</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.187</td>
<td>0.579</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Award recognition</td>
<td>Promotions and pay increases are based on achieving documented performance objectives.</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.189</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managers consistently tell employees about the standards used to evaluate job performances.</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.176</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The performance appraisal process is linked to reward system.</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.100</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note*: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (.90) and Bartlett test (Chi-square) 2343.058
4.4.3 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was employed to predict the relationship between the variables, namely reward system and award recognition. The results are presented in Table 4.4. According to Sekaran (2000) tests of hypothetical relationships are usually categorized into two groups i.e. ‘causal’ which investigate the best or exact relationships with cause and effect and ‘correlational’ which examines the important construct relations associated with certain problems of domain. This study examined the relationships between the constructs of reward management.

Churchill (1979) suggested a cut off value 0.30 for item-to-total correlation. The value above 0.7 (Henseler et al., 2009) and no less than 0.4 (Churchill, 1979) are recommended satisfactory. For this study, correlation matrix analysis was conducted to assess the appropriateness of factor analysis under the factors reward system and award recognition variables, and showed a correlation among the measurement items higher than 0.3 and was suitable for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006).
### Table 4.4 Inter-correlations of Reward System and Award Recognition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Employees are satisfied with the recognition they receive for doing good jobs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>In this university, promotions go to the people who really deserve them.</td>
<td>0.561</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Management provides excellent incentives and rewards to every employee at all levels.</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.672</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>This university noticeably celebrates excellent service.</td>
<td>0.524</td>
<td>0.526</td>
<td>0.586</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Supervisors recognize employees for doing high-quality work.</td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td>0.523</td>
<td>0.598</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Employees are satisfied with the recognition they receive for doing good jobs.</td>
<td>0.442</td>
<td>0.479</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.484</td>
<td>0.587</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Supervisors are supportive of employees’ ideas and ways of getting things done.</td>
<td>0.511</td>
<td>0.474</td>
<td>0.485</td>
<td>0.476</td>
<td>0.542</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Supervisors use the rewards they have to let employees know when they have done fine jobs.</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.532</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>0.563</td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The performance appraisal process is linked to reward system.</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.455</td>
<td>0.403</td>
<td>0.377</td>
<td>0.399</td>
<td>0.419</td>
<td>0.387</td>
<td>0.464</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Promotions and pay increases are based on achieving documented performance objectives.</td>
<td>0.411</td>
<td>0.503</td>
<td>0.487</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>0.389</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>0.433</td>
<td>0.559</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Managers consistently tell employees about the standards used to evaluate job performances.</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.504</td>
<td>0.486</td>
<td>0.425</td>
<td>0.444</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.417</td>
<td>0.522</td>
<td>0.567</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Correlation is Significant at the 0.01 level (one tailed)
4.4.4 Regression Analysis

Certain principles for achieving robust and authenticated results are accepted within the literature on data analysis techniques. The present study considered a few such practices in order to examine the measurement path and explain the regression estimation of variables (Henseler et al., 2009; Janice et al., 1996). Statistical tools such as regression (e.g. linear regression, factor analysis, PCA, ANOVA, and MANOVA) are widely used by many researchers (e.g. Chin, 1998; Gefen et al., 2000; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Hair et al., 2006; Mathieson, 1991; Taylor & Todd, 1995) to analyze the relationship between independent and dependent variables at one time.

Regression analysis was employed to predict between variables of interest (Şchiopu, Petre, & Negoiţă, 2009). In this study, the linear regression method was applied for obtaining R squared, and t-value of significance, The determination of coefficient (R²) provides the percentage of variation in dependent variable(s) explained by independent variable(s) (Gefen et al., 2000).

According to the Montgomery, Peck, and Vining (2012) $R^2$ represents the level of the latent construct’s explained variance and $R$ and $R^2$, the standard error $S$ used to determine the best equation and the higher the values of $R$ and $R^2$, and the lower the values of $S$, the better the goodness of the fit. Further, Chin (1998) suggests that having $R^2 0.67$ is considered as substantial; $R^2 0.33$ is considered as moderate, and $R^2 0.19$ is considered as weak.

For this study regression analysis was performed between the two factors of reward management, namely reward system and award recognition, as dependent variables and
demographic as independent variables using SPSS-19. It can be seen from Table 4.5 that the factor award recognition had a significant relationship with grade of respondent ($\beta = .125, p < 0.05$). In this regard results indicate that the interaction of the demographic variables and reward management is significantly influenced and lending support to the hypothesis.
Table 4.5 Regression Analysis for Reward Management System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Reward System</th>
<th>Award Recognition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.922</td>
<td>3.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(10.64)</td>
<td>(10.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.046</td>
<td>-.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.57)</td>
<td>(-.479)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>-.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.46)</td>
<td>(-.299)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-.044</td>
<td>-.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.766)</td>
<td>(-1.24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of Respondent</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>.125**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.31)</td>
<td>(2.06)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Service</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>.496</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: t-values in parenthesis are presented.
$R^2$ (.009); (.012); *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$ and *$p < 0.10$
4.4.5 Multivariate Analysis of Variance

As suggested Gefen et al. (2000), Chin (1998), Gerbing and Anderson (1988), Hair et al. (2006) and Hair et al. (2010) MANOVA is generally employed to verify the relationship between independent and dependent variables. MANOVA is used when several dependent variables are measured for each sampling unit (Olumayede, 2012). Multivariate analysis of variance method is neither tidy nor simple but is a complex method (Borgen & Seling, 1978; Hair et al., 2010) and generally provides overall test compilation for significant differences among groups in order to determine the significant effects (Borgen & Seling, 1978; Hair et al., 2010). For this study MANOVA was used to analyse how dependent variables (reward system and award recognition) have an effect on the independent variables (age, gender, education, grade and length of service).

In order to test the hypothesis and to analyse the dependent variables multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was employed as suggested by (Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.6 shows multivariate test results that demonstrate statistically significant differences were found between gender, age, education, grade of respondent and length of service as independent variables and reward system as the dependent variable. Field (2013) considered 0.5 as significant criterion. Using Roy’s Largest Root and combining demographic variables (independent) revealed a number of significant relationships with reward management system (dependent) namely age and education together has significant effect on reward management system (F= .005, \( p < 0.05 \)), age and grade of respondent (F= .037, \( p < 0.05 \)), and education and length of service (F= .012, \( p < 0.05 \)). Similarly, gender has a significant effect on reward management system, Pillai's Trace
(F= .09, p< 0.05), Wilks’ Lambda (F= .09, p< 0.05), Hotelling’s Trace (F= .09, p< 0.05) and Roy’s Largest Root (F= .09, p< 0.05).
Table 4.6 MANOVA for Reward Management System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Approx F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Significance of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age and Education</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>3.474</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.005**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age and Grade of the respondent</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>2.164</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.037**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Length of Service</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>2.418</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.012**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Pillai's Trace</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.009**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.009**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hotelling's Trace</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.009**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.009**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***p < 0.01, **p < 0.05 and *p < 0.10
Post Hoc analysis using Tukey’s least significant difference (LSD) was employed to compare variables in order to determine significant effects of dependent and independent variables. It was found that employees within age group 41-50 years had a significantly positive (.003: \( p = .05 \)) effect on the reward system, and employees aged of 51-60 years were found to have a significant (.050: \( p = .10 \)) effect on award recognition.

Test of Between – Subject effects was conducted to determine the sum of squares. It can be seen from Table 4.7 that there was significant effect of gender on the reward system (F=.002, \( p < .01 \)). The value of (F=.025, \( p < .05 \)) indicated that there was also a significant effect of gender and education on award recognition. The interaction of education and length of service of the employee was found to have significant effect on award recognition (F=.033, \( p < .10 \)).

There is conclusive evidence that gender is influencing the reward system whereas, age, education grade and length of service are not. However, the results demonstrated that gender, education and length of service of employee are influencing award recognition and age and grade are having no influence. Therefore, the above analyses support \( H_a \)
Table 4.7 ANOVA Between Independent and Dependent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Reward system</td>
<td>7.97</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.970</td>
<td>9.343</td>
<td>.002***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Education</td>
<td>Award recognition</td>
<td>13.382</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.676</td>
<td>2.605</td>
<td>.025**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education × Length of Service</td>
<td>Award recognition</td>
<td>19.005</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.112</td>
<td>2.055</td>
<td>.033**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***p < 0.01, **p < 0.05 and *p < 0.10.

a. R Squared = .383 (Adjusted R Squared = .147)
b. R Squared = .257 (Adjusted R Squared = -.027)
4.4.6 Discussion on Reward Management System

The importance of reward management is widely recognized (Monika & Bonsdorff, 2011). A number of studies have examined the impact of reward management (e.g. performance based rewards by Muduli (2011), age-related differences in reward preferences by Monika and Bonsdorff (2011), psychological reward satisfaction by DeGieter et al. (2010), manage through reward by DeGieter et al. (2008) and reward management by Drucker and White (2000). Little attention has been paid to reward management systems in relation to the public sector universities in developing countries.

The aim of this study was to analyse the underlying factor structure of reward management and place the construct of reward management in the broader theoretical framework of human resource management by developing a nomological network of related variables. The findings of the factor structure help to recognise the ways in which reward management is perceived by employees and how reward management may influence perceptions of employees and outcomes within organisations. Two factors of reward management i.e. reward system and award recognition, were found to be associated with the demographic variables i.e. age, gender, education and length of service. Evidence from previous studies has shown that the reward system increases performance of both the organisation and employees and a well accepted reward system improves employee efficiency which increases organisational productivity (Shah et al., 2011). Human capital is the most important asset for any organisation, so attracting human capital requires organisations to link their reward systems with organisational performance (Frye, 2004).

Studies of Aycan et al. (2007), Ali (1992), Napier and Vu (1998), and Robertson et al. (2002) identified the scarcity of research relating to developing countries. However an
an attempt was made by Jaeger and Kanungo (1990) to relate culture to HRM where they noted that managerial beliefs influence both organisational and employee’s objectives. Therefore, it was important to understand the factor structure of reward management; identifying manager’s assumptions regarding the contribution of employees or employee’s expectations in return for their efforts.

In identifying the cultural aspects of organisations Hofstede (1983) and Aycan et al. (2000), found Pakistan had the highest score in power distance. In a power distance society like Pakistan the factor structure of reward systems provides insights for managers in designing appropriate reward systems, identifying and incorporating what employees consider important including both financial and nonfinancial incentives. For example introducing performance orientation, acknowledging achievements and recognizing length of service or commitment of employees to develop reward systems which are efficient and suitable for both the organisation and employees, whilst considering the local culture. The findings may be influenced by culture therefore; reward systems should be culturally developed and managed. Hofstede (1983) asserted that management is ‘culturally dependent’. Therefore organisations can only succeed in achieving their objectives if they are familiar with local culture. Gupta and House (2004) found a relationship between national culture and organisational culture and argued ‘organisations mirror societies’ (Gerhart, 2009; Javidan et al., 2004).

The present study establishes the baseline data of the factor structure of reward management among managers and employees in Pakistani universities. It provides insights to better understand the reward system and adds to the body of literature on employee perceptions of reward management by investigating public sector university
employees, revealing that the two factors within reward management (reward system and award recognition) are highly correlated. The findings of the GLOBE study were significant in identifying the underlying importance of culture in management practice. Whilst their grouping of countries from Southern Asia (e.g. India, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand) did not include Pakistan, these countries may share some characteristics with Pakistan, as developing nations, but there are also some significant differences in culture, values, norms and religion. Despite this omission this study contributed to the recognition of a unique factor structure of reward management for indigenous cultures and drew the attention of international HR experts and scholars, to the need to further examine the impact of culture on management and employee behaviour.

Based on the theoretical background and findings of the study the hypothesis was tested to establish whether the factor structure of reward management are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors. The findings provide confirmation of the hypothesis and significant support for the factor structure of reward management. The results of factor analysis revealed that the highest scoring factor across both factors was award recognition.

In comparing the findings of the current study with that of Husin et al. (2012), a common conclusion can be made; both show the valence of reward management. However there are some differences in significant predictors between this study and that of Husin et al. (2012). Hence, the finding that demographic variables are related to reward management for the current study could be associated with the difference between these two studies, i.e. sample size and context. Husin et al. (2012) found that
rewards systems do not enhance work efficiency and are gender biased. Additionally, Monika and Bonsdorff (2011) investigated reward preferences of Finnish nurses and found age related reward preferences: nurses aged 50-59 years had the lowest preferences for financial rewards and preferred job security, flexible working hours and recognition, whereas the nurses aged 20-29 had the highest preferences for financial rewards. Mujtaba and Shuaib (2010) examined the use of a total reward approach and found that organisations should structure reward systems that enhance performance and encourage the effort of employees. Reward programs should be a part of an integrative and comprehensive performance management system rather than a standalone policy. Hafiza, Shah, Jamseheed, and Zamam (2011) conducted their study in Pakistan on the relationship between rewards and employees motivation and found a relationship between extrinsic rewards (i.e. fringe benefits, promotions and job security) and the employees’ motivation. However, results of this study suggest that the relationship between reward management and demographic variables is confirmed. A significant link was found among age, gender, education, grade and length of service with the components reward system and award recognition. As hypothesized, demographic variables were partially associated with reward management. Therefore, supporting the findings of Tones et al. (2010) that demographic variables affect how employees perceive opportunities at work. Employee involvements in special projects, opportunities for career development through training and appreciated performance are often seen as reward for recognition of employee diligence. The result supports the idea that organisations with effective reward systems have lower turnover, greater productivity, and better performance (DeGieter et al., 2008; Huselid, 1995; Ichniowski et al., 1997).
Given the objective of this study the results strengthen the need for awareness of managers of the consequences of the factor structure of reward management. The results of the current study provide insights for understanding reward management practice in order to design attractive salary packages, to enhance long term commitment and efficient staffing practices. This supports previous studies illustrating the essential role of reward management as enforcing and motivating an employees’ belief in the degree to which they affect their work environment, their competence, the meaningfulness of their job and the perceived autonomy of their work (Perkins & Vartiainen, 2010). There is a need to incorporate recognition of employee efforts into both human resource management practices and current organisational models (Brun & Dugas, 2008). Developing human capital through continuing rewards for performance can increase the output of employees either through improvement in skills or improvement in job satisfaction (Dessler, 2003; Stup et al., 2006).

4.5 Promotion Practices

In order to determine whether the promotion practices scale had a valid factor structure, factor analysis (FA), correlation analysis (CA), and regression analysis (RA), were applied to examine the promotion practices factorial structure and to ascertain convergent reliability and variability of the relationship according to the data collected from respondents within the Pakistani public sector universities.

To evaluate the dimensions of promotion practices, the following hypothesis was proposed and tested:
Hypothesis (Hb): The factor structure of promotion practices are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors.

4.5.1 Factor Analysis

In order to determine the underlying dimensions of promotion practices, factor analysis was performed to identify the possible factorial structures of promotion practices (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), and depicted a solution with one factor consisting of eight items. The findings from the factor analysis can be seen in Table 4.8. Factors that contributed an eigenvalue >1.0 were significant and were taken into consideration (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The identified factor named ‘fair treatment in promotion’ (5.062) explained total variance of 63.270% which is higher than the recommendations. 60% or above cumulative variance satisfies the criterion of variance percentage (Hair et al., 2006). In this study total communalities of each item were greater than 0.5; all communalities were noted (1.0.) for each item which are higher than the recommended value. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test to measure sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity to achieve appropriate factor analysis results was again performed and returned a result of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of 0.896 which was greater than 0.6 and Bartlett’s test significant at (Chi-square) 2139.765 which satisfied the initial assumptions for the factor analysis (Bartlett, 1954; Kaiser, 1974). The mean score for each item was identified >2.87 and <3.21. The standard deviation were confirmed >1.0 for each item. Cronbach Alpha was noted to 0.91 that signifies the reliability of the measures.

After using factor analysis one factor emerged namely ‘fair treatment in promotion’ with loadings ranging from 0.748 to 0.824 consisting of eight items (See Table 4.8).
The factor loading was above the minimum threshold criterion 0.4 (Hair et al., 2006) and satisfied the requirements of the psychometric reliability test (Henseler et al., 2009; Churchill, 1979).

4.5.2 Definition of the Latent Factors

Fair Treatment in Promotion

The factor fair treatment in promotion, showed that the question “The university is fair and equitable in its treatment of management” has a high factor loading (0.842). The inspection of the highest factor loadings indicates that for each of the variables loading was >0.748. The highest factor loading indicates the highest explanatory power in the fair treatment in promotion.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fair Treatment in Promotion</td>
<td>The university is fair and equitable in its treatment of management.</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.134</td>
<td>0.824</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The university rewards the excellence in performance through promotion system.</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.149</td>
<td>0.823</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The university provides promotional opportunities.</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.111</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The university treats you fairly and equitably with regards to promotion.</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.174</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The university provides opportunities for career development.</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.272</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The university acknowledges the long hours you devote to work.</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.206</td>
<td>0.782</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The university supports ongoing professional development.</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.132</td>
<td>0.755</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The university provides clear and consistent requirements for promotion.</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.188</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (.89) and Bartlett test (Chi-square) 2139.765
4.5.3 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was employed to predict the relationship between the variables of the factor fair treatment in promotion. The results are presented in Table 4.9. For this study, correlation matrix analysis was conducted to assess the appropriateness of factor analysis under the factor fair treatment in promotion variables, and showed a correlation among the measurement items higher than 0.4 and was suitable for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006).
Table 4.9 Inter-correlations of Fair Treatment in Promotion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The university provides clear and consistent requirements for promotion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The university treats you fairly and equitably with regards to promotion</td>
<td>0.724</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The university is fair and equitable in its treatment of management</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The university provides opportunities for career development</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.517</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The university supports ongoing professional development</td>
<td>0.434</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td>0.523</td>
<td>0.689</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The university provides promotional opportunities</td>
<td>0.524</td>
<td>0.569</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>0.678</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The university acknowledge the long hours you devote to work</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.519</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td>0.578</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td>0.547</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The university reward excellence in performance through promotion system</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>0.658</td>
<td>0.685</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (one tailed)
4.5.4 Regression Analysis

In this study, linear regression method was applied for obtaining R squared, and t-value of significance. The determination of coefficient ($R^2$) provides the percentage of variation in dependent variable(s) explained by independent variable(s) (Gefen et al., 2000).

For this study regression analysis was performed between fair treatment in promotion as dependent variables and demographic as independent variables using SPSS-19. It can be seen from Table 4.10 that there is a linear relationship between fair treatment in promotion with grade of the respondent which was noted as statistically significant ($\beta=.108, p<0.10$). Thus the course of analyses lends support to $H_b$. 
Table 4.10 Regression Analysis for Promotion Practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Fair Treatment in Promotion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-8.84)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of Respondent</td>
<td>.108*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-1.78)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Service</td>
<td>.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-1.58)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: t-ratios in parenthesis are presented.
$R^2 (.022)$; ***$p < 0.01$, **$p < 0.05$ and *$p < 0.10$
4.5.5 Discussion on Promotion Practice

Organisations are experiencing significant changes in their structure and environment. One of the issues emerging from the debates about changes in job quality is that promotion is an important element (Valverde et al., 2007). The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of employees on promotion practices and explore the underlying factor structure of promotion practices and to identify the relationship between promotion practices and demographic variables. The review of literature identifies certain factors that influence promotion practices, such as training provision, knowledge and skills of employees and type of organisation. As promotion has received little research attention in the service sector, particularly in universities, the findings of the factor structure help to identify employee perception of promotion practices. Promotion practices in the public sector were investigated in terms of structural factors related to the administrative employees to examine the use of promotion policies that influence employee performance.

This study found a relationship between demographic variables and promotion practices. Results demonstrated that the grade of employees had a positive impact on promotion. Since, promotion has been shown to be determined by the factor structure, management should establish policies to facilitate promotion practices to enhance employee performance. This reflects the arguments of Zaleska and De Menezes (2007) who place emphasis on the organisation’s responsibility in understanding the changing needs of their employees and the environment, and providing support and encouraging performance. Collaborative efforts in professional career development benefits both employees and organisations (Tan, 2008).
Studies by Go and Kleiner (2001), Benabou and Tirole (2003), Melero (2010), Herpen et al. (2006), and Gorjup et al. (2008) identified, that prospects of promotion encourage employees to work harder, create trust and enhance the self-esteem of employees and increase extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Therefore, it was important to understand the factor structure of promotion practices identifying employee perceptions of promotion. The present study establishes the factor structure of promotion practices for authorities and employees in the public sector. It adds to the body of literature on employee perceptions of promotion practices by investigating administrative employees and revealed one factor with highly correlated variables.

Based on the theoretical background and findings of the study a hypothesis was tested and established a positive and significant relationship between demographic variables and promotion practices. The findings provide confirmation of the hypothesis and significant support for the earlier studies of Tessema and Soeters (2006) and Park et al. (2003) that identified a positive correlation between promotion practices and perceived employee performance.

In comparing the findings of the current study with the study developed by Krivokapic-Skoko et al. (2009) the importance of management for fair and equitable promotion practices was highlighted. Both studies examined the factor scores of employee perceptions within a university context. However there are some differences in predictors of this study and that of Krivokapic-Skoko et al. (2009). Given the objectives of this study, the results strengthen the awareness of university management of the consequences of the factor structure of promotion practices. The results of the current study provide insights for understanding promotion practices that will assist
organisations in retaining efficient employees, with the best available talent through recognizing and rewarding employees efforts or filling vacancies. This supports previous studies, illustrating that merit promotion can lead to enhanced performance in the organisation (Park et al., 2003). There is a need to provide opportunities for career advancement (Armstrong, 2003), because these incentives encourage better employee performance whilst increasing their learning capabilities, and success of the organisations relies on the performance of their employees.

4.6 Performance Appraisal System

In order to determine the dimensions of the performance appraisal systems in public sector universities in Pakistan, factor analysis (FA), correlation analysis (CA), and regression analysis (RA) were applied to examine the performance appraisal system factorial structure and to ascertain convergent reliability and variability of the relationship according to the data collected from respondents within the Pakistani public sector universities.

In the course of analysis, the following hypothesis was proposed and tested:

Hypothesis (Hc): The factor structure of performance appraisal system are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors.

4.6.1 Factor Analysis

In order to uncover the underlying dimensions of performance appraisal systems, factor analysis was performed to extract factors. The results depicted a solution with nine factors. Once the matrix was considered factorable, the eigenvalues and percentage of
explained variance of each factor were then examined in order to determine the quantity of factors to be extracted. After the factor loadings obtained from the factor analysis were further considered five items namely, question (12) “Assessments are conducted by the immediate supervisor”, (25) “All employees have their performance evaluated regardless of rank or tenure”, (29) “Any performance feedback is given in writing whether or not there is a formal meeting with the supervisor to discuss the assessment”, (34) “Supervisors are appraised by employees reporting to him/her”, and (35) “Supervisors are appraised on their skills as performance assessors”, were removed due to their low significance value. The removal of these items led to nine factors and after examining the reliability of each factor seven factors were considered—nine items in factor one labelled as perceptions of performance appraisal, seven items in factor two labelled as assessment of performance, five items in factor three labelled as training on appraisal, five items in factor four labelled as ratings of performance, five items in factor five labelled as aspects of appraisal, three items in factor six labelled as procedure for appraisal and two items in factor seven labelled as information for appraisal.

Once again factor analysis was carried out after removing five items (results with the seven factors are shown in Table 4.11). Factors that contributed eigenvalue >1.0 were significant and the remaining were not taken into consideration (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The result of this study exhibited eigenvalues >1.0 for seven components i.e. perceptions of performance appraisal (13.845), assessment of performance (2.388), training on appraisal (2.299), ratings of performance (1.842), aspects of appraisal (1.505), procedure for performance (1.347) and information for appraisal (1.130). These seven components explained total variance of 64.4% which is higher than the recommendations. 60% or above cumulative variance satisfies the criterion of variance.
percentage (Hair et al., 2006). This solution explained 33.768 cumulative percent of the variance and 64.417 cumulative percent for components. In this study total communalities of each item were greater than 0.5; all communalities were noted (1.0) for each item which was higher than the recommended value. Norusis (1992) recommended the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test to measure sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity to achieve appropriate factor analysis results.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.921 which was greater than 0.6 and Bartlett’s test was significant at (Chi-square) 9367.945 and satisfied the initial assumptions for the factor analysis (Bartlett, 1954; Kaiser, 1974). The mean score for each item was identified >2.70 and <3.56. The standard deviation were confirmed >0.889 for each item. Cronbach Alpha was noted to 0.90 for factor one (perceptions of performance appraisal), 0.85 for factor two (training on appraisal), 0.79 for factor three (ratings on performance), 0.81 for factor four (aspects of appraisal), 0.78 for factor five (record of performance), 0.86 for factor six (procedure for appraisal) and 0.74 for factor seven (information for appraisal); that signifies the reliability of the measures.

After using factor analysis seven factors emerged as seen in Table 4.11. Factors loaded from the factor analysis ranged from 0.418 to 0.726 for the first factor, namely perceptions of performance appraisal that consisted of nine items. The second factor namely, training on appraisal, ranged from 0.420 to 0.732 consisting of seven items. The third factor namely ratings on performance ranged from 0.463 to 0.817 consisting of five items. The fourth factor namely aspects of appraisal ranged from 0.449 to 0.786 consisting of five items. The fifth factor namely records of performance ranged from
0.497 to 0.698 consisting of five items. The sixth factor namely procedure for appraisal ranged from 0.561 to 0.811 consisting of three items. The seventh factor namely information for appraisal ranged from 0.768 to 0.790 consisting of two items (Henseler et al., 2009; Churchill, 1979). The factor loading was above the minimum threshold criterion 0.4 (Hair et al., 2006). Each factor has a Cronbach’s alpha range from 0.74 to 0.90 which is above the recommended threshold 0.60 and satisfied the requirements of the psychometric reliability test and indicates good internal consistency among the items within each dimension, each variable, and the entire scale (Hair et al., 2006; Sekaran, 2006).

4.6.2 Definition of the Latent Factors

*Perceptions of Performance Appraisal*

Factor one, perceptions of performance appraisal, showed that the question “the appraisal system is used for succession planning” has a high factor loading (0.726). The inspection of the factor loadings indicates that for each of the variables loading was >0.418 on the perceptions of performance appraisal. The highest factor loading indicates the highest explanatory power in the perceptions of performance appraisal factor.

*Training on Appraisal*

Factor two, training on appraisal, represents the question “supervisors are provided adequate training on conducting performance appraisals” and has a high factor loading (0.732). An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading on training on appraisal are much higher than on perceptions of performance appraisal, and the highest factor loading indicates greater explanatory power.
Ratings on Performance

Factor three, ratings on performance, represents the question “numerical ratings of performance are included in the assessment report” and has a high factor loading (0.817). An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading on ratings on performance are much higher than on training on appraisal, and the highest factor loading indicates greater explanatory power.

Aspects of Appraisal

Factor four, aspects of appraisal, shows the question “situational constraints (e.g. computer faults or electricity failure or political unrest so the work/assignments are delayed) are taken into account when the assessment is conducted” has a high factor loading (0.786). An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading on aspects of appraisal is lower than ratings on performance, training on appraisal and perceptions of performance appraisal.

Record of Performance

Factor five, record of performance, indicates that the question “supervisors are required to keep daily records of employee performance” has a high factor loading (0.698). An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading on record of performance is higher than on aspects of appraisal.

Procedure for Appraisal

Factor six, procedure for appraisal, represents that the question “employees keep daily records of their own performance” has a high factor loading (0.811). The inspection of the factor loadings indicates that for each of the variables loading was >0.561 on the
procedure for appraisal. The highest factor loading indicates the highest explanatory power in the perceptions of performance appraisal factor.

*Information for Appraisal*

Factor seven, information for appraisal, shows that the question “the appraisal system is used for demotion decisions” has a high factor loading (0.790). An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading on information for appraisal are much higher than on perceptions of performance appraisal, rating on performance, trainings on appraisal, aspects of appraisal and procedure for appraisals and the highest factor loading indicates greater explanatory power.
Table 4.11 Descriptive Statistics, Factor Loadings, and Reliability of Perceptions of Performance Appraisal, Training on Appraisal, Ratings on Performance, Aspects of Appraisal, Record of Performance, Procedure for Appraisal and Information for Appraisal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions of Performance Appraisal</td>
<td>The appraisal system is used for succession planning.</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.053</td>
<td>0.726</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The appraisal system is used for promotion decisions.</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.069</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The appraisal system is used for recognition purposes.</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.029</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The appraisal system includes a component where employees are given feedback on their assessment.</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>1.109</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The appraisal system assists employees in setting work-related goals.</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.064</td>
<td>0.690</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The appraisal system is used for making salary adjustments.</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.089</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The appraisal system is used to identify training needs.</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>1.091</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The appraisal system considers improvement when an evaluation is conducted.</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.983</td>
<td>0.450</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees are evaluated on competencies (e.g. leadership, creativity, communication or other relevant competencies).</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.113</td>
<td>0.418</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training on Appraisal</td>
<td>Supervisors are provided adequate training in conducting performance appraisals.</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.082</td>
<td>0.732</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees are provided adequate training in how to actively participate in the appraisal process.</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appraisals are only conducted for employees considered less than “standard” in their Performance</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>0.991</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A formal meeting is held where employees are given verbal feedback on their performance assessment.</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.130</td>
<td>0.584</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance appraisal is conducted to identify employee career paths within the organisation.</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>0.541</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The formal appraisal meeting between employer and employee takes between one and two hours.</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>1.030</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluations are checked by an independent source other than the primary assessor for accuracy and fairness.</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.068</td>
<td>0.420</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ratings on Performance</th>
<th>Numerical ratings of performance are included in the assessment report.</th>
<th>3.44</th>
<th>1.083</th>
<th>0.817</th>
<th>0.79</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance evaluation forms include a written (i.e. narrative) assessment.</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>1.075</td>
<td>0.678</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A numerical rating indicating overall performance is calculated as part of the assessment</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.022</td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assessments are conducted annually.</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.047</td>
<td>0.626</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees are evaluated on how well they perform individual tasks or behaviour (e.g. how well they prepared a report or dealt with a student/teacher enquiry).</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.091</td>
<td>0.463</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspects of Appraisal</td>
<td>Rating 1</td>
<td>Rating 2</td>
<td>Rating 3</td>
<td>Rating 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational constraints (e.g., computer faults or electricity failure or political unrest so the work/assignments are delayed) are taken into account when the assessment is conducted.</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.103</td>
<td>0.786</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The “numbers” used to rate various aspects of performance are appropriate (e.g., a 1 to 7 point scale, a 1 to 5 point scale, a 1 to 3 point scale).</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.027</td>
<td>0.581</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The various aspects of performance on which an employee is assessed are appropriate.</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.951</td>
<td>0.561</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system puts adequate emphasis on team performance.</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>1.072</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For each area of performance, the appraisal system provides information concerning how the employee compares to other employees in the same job family.</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.033</td>
<td>0.449</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Record of Performance</th>
<th>Rating 1</th>
<th>Rating 2</th>
<th>Rating 3</th>
<th>Rating 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors are required to keep daily records of employee performance.</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.132</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors are required to keep weekly or bi-weekly records of employee performance.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.105</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As employees’ experience or tenure increases, assessments are made less frequently.</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>0.983</td>
<td>0.593</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is more than one assessor to assess any one employee.</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.061</td>
<td>0.563</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors collect performance information from other sources (beyond their own observations) such as peer/customer before making an assessment.</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.055</td>
<td>0.497</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Procedure for Appraisal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Score 1</th>
<th>Score 2</th>
<th>Score 3</th>
<th>Score 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employees keep daily records of their own performance.</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.103</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees keep weekly or bi-weekly records of their own performance.</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.027</td>
<td>0.777</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The various aspects of performance on which an employee is assessed are appropriate.</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.951</td>
<td>0.561</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Information for Appraisal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Score 1</th>
<th>Score 2</th>
<th>Score 3</th>
<th>Score 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system is used for demotion decisions.</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>0.932</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system is used for firing decisions.</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0.889</td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (.92) and Bartlett test (Chi-square) 9367.945*
4.6.3 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was employed to predict the relationship between the variables, namely perceptions of performance appraisal, assessment of performance, training on appraisal, ratings on performance, aspects of appraisal, procedure for performance, information for appraisal and appraisal for decisions. The results are presented in Table 4.12.

For this study, correlation analysis was conducted to assess the appropriateness of factor analysis under the factors perceptions of performance appraisal, training on appraisal, ratings on performance, aspects of appraisal, record of performance, procedure for appraisal, and information for appraisal and showed a positive correlation among all the measurement items, significant at the 0.01 level and was suitable for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006).
Table 4.12 Inter-correlations of Perceptions of performance appraisal, Training on appraisal, Ratings of performance, Aspects of appraisal
Record of performance, Procedure for appraisal and Information for appraisal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Perceptions of performance appraisal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Training on appraisal</td>
<td>.698**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ratings on performance</td>
<td>.499**</td>
<td>.461**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Aspects of appraisal</td>
<td>.673**</td>
<td>.665**</td>
<td>.440**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Record of performance</td>
<td>.512**</td>
<td>.550**</td>
<td>.425**</td>
<td>.501**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Procedure for appraisal</td>
<td>.402**</td>
<td>.467**</td>
<td>.322**</td>
<td>.342**</td>
<td>.520**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Information for appraisal</td>
<td>.420**</td>
<td>.303**</td>
<td>.188**</td>
<td>.247**</td>
<td>.349**</td>
<td>.191**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** denotes significance at the 0.01 level.
4.6.4 Regression Analysis

For this study regression analysis was performed between seven factors of performance appraisal, namely perceptions of performance appraisal, training on appraisal, ratings on performance, aspects of appraisal, record of performance, procedure for appraisal and information for appraisal as dependent variables and demographic characteristics age, gender, education, grade of respondent and length of service as independent variables using SPSS-19. It can be seen from Table 4.13 that the factor training on appraisal had a significant relationship with education ($\beta = -.096$, $p < 0.10$), and grade of respondent ($\beta = -.115$, $p < 0.10$). A significant relationship was also found between the demographic variable grade of respondent and ratings on performance ($\beta = .182$, $p < 0.01$), and record of performance ($\beta = .130$, $p < 0.05$). Similarly, a significant relationship was found between the factor aspects of appraisal and education ($\beta = -.129$, $p < 0.05$). The results show an association between the demographic variables and performance appraisal. These analyses provide support for $H_c$. 
Table 4.13 Regression Analysis for Performance Appraisal System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Perceptions on performance appraisal</th>
<th>Training on appraisal</th>
<th>Ratings on performance</th>
<th>Aspects of appraisal</th>
<th>Record of performance</th>
<th>Procedure for appraisal</th>
<th>Information for appraisal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.927</td>
<td>3.148</td>
<td>2.799</td>
<td>3.334</td>
<td>3.143</td>
<td>3.261</td>
<td>2.893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.048</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>-.041</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>-.117</td>
<td>.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.600)</td>
<td>(-0.04)</td>
<td>(-0.41)</td>
<td>(-.51)</td>
<td>(-0.07)</td>
<td>(-1.45)</td>
<td>(-0.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>-.033</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>-.028</td>
<td>-.003</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.68)</td>
<td>(-.64)</td>
<td>(-1.20)</td>
<td>(-0.04)</td>
<td>(-.56)</td>
<td>(-.05)</td>
<td>(-.08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-.068</td>
<td>-.096*</td>
<td>-.009</td>
<td>-.129**</td>
<td>-.079</td>
<td>-.054</td>
<td>-.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-1.17)</td>
<td>(-1.66)</td>
<td>(-.15)</td>
<td>(-2.22)</td>
<td>(-1.36)</td>
<td>(-.92)</td>
<td>(-1.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of Respondent</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.115*</td>
<td>.182***</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>.130**</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.98)</td>
<td>(-1.89)</td>
<td>(-3.04)</td>
<td>(-1.30)</td>
<td>(-2.13)</td>
<td>(-.83)</td>
<td>(-.98)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Service</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>-.021</td>
<td>-.011</td>
<td>.039</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-1.06)</td>
<td>(-.26)</td>
<td>(-.13)</td>
<td>(-0.49)</td>
<td>(-0.00)</td>
<td>(-0.64)</td>
<td>(-1.69)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: *t*-values in parenthesis are presented.

*R*^2^ (.009); (.012); (.039); (.013); (.009) (.040); ***p < 0.01, **p < 0.05 and *p < 0.10
4.6.5 Discussion on Performance Appraisal System

Appraisal programs are widely used in organisations for a variety of reasons such as promotions and transfers, as well as to evaluate developmental needs of staff (Ahmed et al., 2010). Studies were found on performance appraisal (e.g. the effect of performance appraisal results on the personnel’s motivation and job promotion by Hamidi et al. (2010), Performance appraisals impact on attitudinal outcomes and organisational performance by Ahmed et al. (2010), impact of performance appraisal on employee motivation by Jabeen (2011) and justice perceptions of performance appraisal practices by Thurston and McNall (2010).

The aim of this study was to analyze the underlying factor structure of performance appraisal and to develop a theoretical framework to better understand employee perceptions of the performance appraisal system in relation to the human resource management practices. Organisational leaders with a better understanding of employees’ perceptions about performance appraisal systems and processes can modify their performance appraisal practices so that employees believe systems and processes are fair and informative (Thurston & McNall, 2010). The findings of this study help to identify the way in which performance appraisal is perceived by employees through looking at the factors impacting on the structure of performance appraisal. The analysis revealed seven key factors of which four were identified as influencing performance appraisal (i.e. training on appraisal, ratings on performance, aspects of appraisal and records of performance) and found to be related to the independent variables (i.e. education and grade).
The findings identified that education has influence on training on appraisal and aspects of appraisal. The appraisals should be designed in a way that encourages the appraiser to look into the employee characteristics such as intuitiveness, level of confidence and job interests towards achieving goals for organisational success (Mundhra & Jacob 2011). These characteristics could be developed in an employee through a well designed system of appraisal and provide motivation to remain with the organisation (Mundhra & Jacob 2011).

Result of the three constructs of performance appraisal, training on appraisal, ratings on performance and records of performance, showed that grade influences employee perceptions such as salaries, pay and promotions. This is supported by the literature which indicates that performance appraisal identifies and rewards skilled employees (Saibou, 2011), so a well rewarded person may have more confidence in the process of appraisal. However, the process of appraisal can also create frustration and dissatisfaction when employees perceived bias (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Despite this, a carefully designed and implemented appraisal system can accommodate the goals of employees and the organisation and provide the organisation with a more accurate picture of employee capabilities and contribution to the organisation.

The results of the study indicated that grade of the respondent has influence on training on appraisal, ratings on performance and records of performance. This means that the higher the grade the more familiarity the employee has with the performance appraisal systems. Employee’s who hold higher positions have more experience and understanding of the appraisal process and are therefore more motivated and confident participating in the process. Therefore results suggest a link between grade and
performance appraisals. This is supported by Lawler (1969) who recognized the importance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in appraisal systems. Evidence from the earlier studies of Saibou (2011), Brown and Benson (2003), and Brown and Hewood (2005) found that this suggests one way to enhance the effectiveness of employees is to involve them in developmental programs such as training. If an employee is given appropriate training from their immediate supervisors, it will likely result in an improved assessment which will then impact on employee motivation and performance (Jabeen, 2011). However, performance appraisal affects both employee motivation and satisfaction positively and negatively. Performance appraisals offer the opportunity for appraisers and employees to recognize existing problems, recognize developmental and training needs and encourage better performance (Mehta, 2014).

The results of this study align with the findings of Mehta (2014) that performance appraisal is important in motivating the employees desire to perform better. This study is also supported by Khan, Chandio, and Farooqi (2014) who state that performance appraisal is important for career succession and development and evaluating job performance. Thus appraisals help organisations to assess individuals’ performance with respect to their job requirements, setting job standards and providing feedback to the employee (Jabeen, 2011; Khan et al., 2014; Varkkey, Koshy, & Oburai, 2008).

The findings are also consistent with those of Kurland and Egan (1999) and Heponiemi et al. (2011) that public sector employees have been found to perceive a lower level of organisational justice than private sector employees due to different decision-making procedures, work processes, and competing goals (Rainey, 2009). The importance of performance appraisal in public sector universities is therefore widely acknowledged
The findings of the present study as discussed earlier were that education and grade of the respondent exert influence on performance appraisal in public sector universities. This will help management to form a better understanding of the appraisal process. Consequently, management will be well placed to reduce turnover and demotions of qualified employees and provide developmental programs and training for career advancement within universities. Ahmed et al. (2010) agree that performance appraisal is used for rewards such as promotions, as well as retentions. Kavussi (1999) considers appraisal as a control process in administration and an essential factor in HRM which helps in improving the quality and quantity of the employee’s performance. Furthermore, the literature supports the findings that the annual planning of an appraisal is an integral process in the public sector which requires a significant investment of money and time to achieve the desired objectives. These include personal development, career advancement, determination of punishment and rewards, measurement of performance output and identification of educational needs of an employee (Hamidi et al., 2010). In order to achieve these objectives, organisations need such catalyst appraisal systems, where employees must have sufficient information about their deficiencies, regular feedback for improvement of their performance and ways to turn their weaknesses into strengths. Conducting appraisals in the public sector for both administrative and developmental purposes is of vital importance because knowing employees past performance is necessary in order to enhance functioning of the organisations’ appraisal system (Saibou, 2011).

The findings of the study showed that three constructs out of seven i.e. perceptions of performance appraisal, procedure for appraisal and information for appraisal have no effect on the independent variables. However, the literature says appraisal systems can
play a role in recognizing employee talents and capabilities (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) and describes performance appraisal as being just window dressing. It can be a formality that does not achieve the desired results and is even a waste of time and resources with the decisions made achieving unintended consequences (Mirsepassi, 1999), and may even have grown in importance as the influence of managerial unions began to increase (Margerison, 2001).

Based on the theoretical background and findings a hypothesis was tested to establish whether there is a positive and significant relationship between demographic variables and performance appraisal. The findings provide confirmation of the hypothesis and support the results of the factor structure of performance appraisal. As hypothesized, demographic variables were partially associated with performance appraisal. From the senior management’s point of view performance appraisal is considered an important part of the management system because of its acceptance and recognized benefits (Mehta, 2014). Therefore, it was important to understand the factor structure of performance appraisal; identifying both scholars and practitioners assumptions regarding employee perception on performance appraisal, as performance appraisal is a system which identifies the deficiencies, motivates employees and assesses employee performance with respect to their job requirement (Khan et al., 2014).

4.7 National Culture

In order to determine whether the national culture (NC) had a valid factor structure factor analysis (FA), correlation analysis (CA), regression analysis (RA), and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were applied to examine the NC factorial structure and to ascertain convergent reliability and variability of the relationship
according to the data collected from respondents within the Pakistani public sector universities.

To examine the national culture’s dimensions, the following hypothesis was proposed and tested:

*Hypothesis* (Hd): The factor structure of national culture are interrelated, multidimensional and optimal predictors.

### 4.7.1 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was employed to ascertain dimensions of national culture. The results depicted a solution with three factors. Once the matrix was considered factorable, the eigenvalues and percentage of explained variance of each factor were then examined in order to determine the quantity of factors to be extracted. After, the factor loadings obtained from the factor analysis were further considered to test and to eliminate the items with no significant loading. One item namely, question (11) “A specific religious philosophy is not an important part of being Pakistani,” were removed for its low significance value. The removal of this item led to three factors with seven items in factor one labelled as national/cultural heritage, five items in the second factor labelled employee ethnocentrism and four items in the third factor labelled as belief system.

Once again factor analysis was carried out after removing one item (results with the three factors are shown in Table 4.14). Factors that contributed eigenvalue >1.0 were significant and the remaining were not taken into consideration (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The result of this study exhibited eigenvalues >1.0 for three components i.e.
national/cultural heritage (6.194), employee ethnocentrism (1.833) and belief system (1.341). These three components explained total variance of 58.551%, and the solution explained 38.712 cumulative percent of the variance and 58.552 cumulative percent for components. Hair et al. (2006) suggested that lower communality identifies that an item does not fit well with other items in the same component. Communality lower than 0.5 (50%) are considered to be weak items (Hair et al., 2006). In this study total communalities of each item were greater than 0.5; all communalities were noted (1.0.) for each item which are higher than the recommended value. Norusis (1992) recommended the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test to measure sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity to achieve appropriate factor analysis results. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that a value of KMO greater than 0.6 is statistically significant and is suitable for factor analysis to provide a discreet set of factors, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity indicates that correlations among the measurement items higher than 0.3 are suitable for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.880 which was greater than 0.6 and Bartlett’s test was significant at (Chi-square) 2976.256 and satisfied the initial assumptions for the factor analysis (Bartlett, 1954; Kaiser, 1974). The mean score for each item was identified >2.94 and <3.99. The standard deviation were confirmed >0.962 for each item. Cronbach Alpha was noted to 0.85 for factor one (national/cultural heritage), 0.82 for factor two (employee ethnocentrism), and 0.77 for factor three (belief system); that signifies the reliability of the measures. Cronbach’s α is easier to calculate and is a well-accepted measure within research (Nunnally, 1978; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Generally, Cronbach’s α coefficient 0.70, is acceptable, however, it may be accepted at 0.60 (Sekaran, 2000).
After using factor analysis three factors emerged as seen in Table 4.14. Factors loaded from the factor analysis ranged from 0.526 to 0.797 for the first factor, namely national/cultural heritage that consisted of seven items. The second factor namely, employee ethnocentrism, ranged from 0.568 to 0.802 and consisted of five items. The third factor namely, belief system, ranged from 0.678 to 0.777 (Henseler et al., 2009; & Churchill, 1979). The factor loading was above the minimum threshold criterion 0.4 (Hair et al., 2006). Each factor has a Cronbach’s alpha range from 0.77 to 0.85 which is above 0.60 and satisfied the requirements of the psychometric reliability test (Hair et al., 2006). All values exceed the recommended threshold 0.70 (Sekaran, 2000) indicating good internal consistency among the items within each dimension, each variable, and the entire scale.

4.7.2 Definition of the Latent Factors

National/Cultural Heritage

Factor one, national/cultural heritage, showed that the question “Pakistan has a strong historical heritage” has a high factor loading (0.797). The inspection of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading was >0.526 on the national/cultural heritage. The highest factor loading indicates the highest explanatory power in the national/ cultural heritage factor.

Employee Ethnocentrism

Factor two, employee ethnocentrism, indicates the question “It is always best to enrol in Pakistani educational institutes” has a high factor loading (0.802). An examination of the factor loadings showed that each of the variables loaded was >0.568 on employee
ethnocentrism much higher than on national/cultural heritage, and the highest factor loading indicates greater explanatory power.

**Belief System**

Factor three, belief system, shows that the question “Religious education is essential to preserve the cohesiveness of the Pakistan society” has a high factor loading (0.777). An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading on belief system is lower than on national/cultural heritage and employee ethnocentrism.
Table 4.14 Descriptive Statistics, Factor Loadings, and Reliability of National/Cultural Heritage, Employee Ethnocentrism and Belief System.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National/ Cultural Heritage</td>
<td>Pakistan has a strong historical heritage.</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>0.962</td>
<td>0.797</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One of the Pakistan's strengths is that it emphasizes events of historical importance.</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>1.043</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Important people from the country's past are admired by people today.</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.069</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pakistan in general feels that they come from a common historical background.</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.991</td>
<td>0.689</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A Pakistani possesses certain cultural attributes that other people do not possess.</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.987</td>
<td>0.605</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pakistani is proud of their nationality.</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.216</td>
<td>0.557</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People frequently engage in activities that identify them as Pakistani.</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.116</td>
<td>0.526</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Ethnocentrism</td>
<td>It is always best to enrol in Pakistani educational institutes.</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>1.198</td>
<td>0.802</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We should take admissions in our local universities instead of other /outside universities.</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.279</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>People should only go abroad if choice for field of study is unavailable in the Pakistan.</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.269</td>
<td>0.741</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pakistani people should not go abroad for jobs because it is loss for Pakistan in terms of brain drain which effects country development.</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.288</td>
<td>0.728</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Pakistani academics.</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.269</td>
<td>0.568</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief System</td>
<td>Religious education is essential to preserve the cohesiveness of the Pakistan society.</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>1.119</td>
<td>0.777</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is impossible for an individual to be truly Pakistani without taking part in some form of religious activity.</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.139</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A specific religious philosophy is what makes a person uniquely Pakistani.</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.103</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A true Pakistan would never reject their religious beliefs.</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.123</td>
<td>0.678</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (.88) and Bartlett test (Chi-square) 2895.150*
4.7.3 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was employed to predict the relationship between the variables, national/cultural heritage, employee ethnocentrism and belief system. The results are presented in Table 4.15. According to Sekaran (2000) tests of hypothetical relationships are usually categorized into two groups i.e. ‘causal’ which investigate the best or exact relationships with cause and effect and ‘correlational’ which examines the important construct relations associated with certain problems of domain. This study examined the relationships between the constructs of national culture.

For this study, correlation matrix analysis was conducted to assess the appropriateness of factor analysis under the factors national/cultural heritage, employee ethnocentrism and belief system variables, and showed a correlation among the measurement items higher than 0.3 for seven items and nine items lower than 0.3.
Table 4.15 Inter-correlations of National/Cultural Heritage, Employee Ethnocentrism and Belief System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>14</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
<th>17</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.434</td>
<td>0.77</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.47</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.41</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.397</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.41</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.62</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.184</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.49</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.15</td>
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<td>0.13</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.188</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
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<td>0.197</td>
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<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.24</td>
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<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.13</td>
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<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.22</td>
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<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.21</td>
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<td>0.205</td>
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<td>0.35</td>
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<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.49</td>
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<td>16</td>
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<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.39</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.225</td>
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<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.24</td>
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<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (one tailed)
4.7.4 Regression Analysis

For this study regression analysis was performed between the three factors of national culture; namely national/cultural heritage, employee ethnocentrism and belief system as dependent variables and demographics as independent variables using SPSS-19. It can be seen from Table 4.16 that the factor employee ethnocentrism was significantly related to the length of service of the respondent ($\beta = .156, p < 0.05$), and the factor belief system had a significant relationship with education ($\beta = -.102, p < 0.10$). In this regard results indicate that the interaction of the demographic variables and national culture is significantly influenced and lending support to the hypothesis.
Table 4.16 Regression Analysis for National Culture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>National/Cultural Heritage</th>
<th>Employee Ethnocentrism</th>
<th>Belief System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.752</td>
<td>3.366</td>
<td>3.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(15.40)</td>
<td>(11.37)</td>
<td>(13.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>-0.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.68)</td>
<td>(-.59)</td>
<td>(-.66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>-0.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.25)</td>
<td>(-0.41)</td>
<td>(-.86)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-0.094</td>
<td>-.058</td>
<td>-.102*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-1.63)</td>
<td>(-1.01)</td>
<td>(-1.77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of Respondent</td>
<td>-0.003</td>
<td>-.079</td>
<td>.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.05)</td>
<td>(-1.30)</td>
<td>(-1.58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Service</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>.156**</td>
<td>.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.91)</td>
<td>(-1.98)</td>
<td>(-0.99)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: $t$-values in parenthesis are presented.
$R^2$ (.020); (.025) and (.014); ***$p < 0.01$, **$p < 0.05$ and *$p < 0.10$. 
4.7.5 Multivariate Analysis of Variance

For this study MANOVA was used to analyse whether the dependent variables (national/cultural heritage, employee ethnocentrism and belief system) have an effect on the independent variables (age, gender, education, grade and length of service).

In order to test the hypothesis and to analyse the dependent variables multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was employed as suggested by (Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.17 shows multivariate test results that demonstrate a statistically significant difference was found between age, gender, education, grade and length of service as the independent variables and national/cultural heritage, employee ethnocentrism and belief system as the dependent variables. Field (2013) considered 0.5 as significant criterion. Using Roy's Largest Root, two independent variables emerged as having a significant effect on national culture; education (F= .016, p< 0.05) and length of service (F= .019, p< 0.05). Further analysis, using Roy’s Largest Root and combining demographic variables (independent) revealed a number of significant relationships with national culture (dependent) namely age and length of service together has significant effect on national culture (F= .024, p< 0.05), gender and education (F= .065, p< 0.10), gender and length of service (F= .041, p< 0.05), education and grade of the employees (F= .005, p< 0.05), education and length of service of the employees (F= .053, p< 0.10), grade and length of service of the employees (F= .085, p< 0.10). Age, education and grade have a significant effect on national culture (F= .083, p< 0.10). Age, grade and length of service of the employees together have a significant effect on national culture, Pillai's Trace (F= .064, p< 0.10), Wilks' Lambda (F= .064, p< 0.10), Hotelling's Trace (F= .065, p< 0.10) and Roy’s Largest Root (F= .002, p< 0.01). Similarly, education, grade and length of service of the employees have a significant effect on national culture, Pillai’s
Trace (F= .002, p< 0.01), Wilks’ Lambda (F= .002, p< 0.01), Hotelling’s Trace (F= .002, p< 0.01), and Roy’s Largest Root (F= .000, p< 0.01).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Approx F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Significance of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>3.097</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.016**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>2.988</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.019**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age and Length of service</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>2.176</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.024**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender and Education</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>2.432</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.065*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender and Length of service</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>2.525</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.041**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Grade</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>3.412</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.005**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Length of service</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>1.890</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.053*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade and Length of service</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
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<td>1.678</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.085*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age, Education and Grade</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
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<td>2.243</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.083*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age, Grade and Length of service</td>
<td>Pillai's Trace</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>2.036</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.064*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Approx F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Significance of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education, Grade and Length of service</td>
<td>Pillai's Trace</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>3.447</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.002***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education, Grade and Length of service</td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>0.934</td>
<td>3.494</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.002***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hotelling's Trace</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>3.540</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.002***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>7.056</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***p < 0.01, **p < 0.05 and *p < 0.10.
Test of Between – Subject effects was conducted to determine the sum of squares. It can be seen from Table 4.18 that there was significant effect of education on the belief system (F= .025, p<.05). A significant effect of length of service on belief system (F= .029, p<.05) was also found. Significant difference level was found in the effect of age and length of service on national/cultural heritage and belief system (F= .073, p<.10) and (F=.047, p<.05) respectively. The interaction of gender and grade was found to have significant effect on the belief system (F=.044, p<.05). The interaction of gender and length of service of the employee had significant effect on national/cultural heritage (F=.096, p<.10). The value of (F=.031, p<.05) indicated that there was significant effect of employee ethnocentrism on age, grade and length of service of the employee. There was a highly significant effect of education, grade and length of service of the employee on employee ethnocentrism (F=.004, p<.01).

There is conclusive evidence that age, gender and length of service are influencing national/cultural heritage whereas education and grade are not. However, the results demonstrated that age, education, grade and length of service of employee are influencing employee ethnocentrism and gender is having no influence on employee ethnocentrism. There is also evidence that age, gender, education, grade and length of service of employee are influencing belief system. Therefore, the above analyses support $H_d$. 
### Table 4.18 ANOVA Between Independent and Dependent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Length of service</td>
<td>National/Cultural Heritage</td>
<td>4.444</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.111</td>
<td>1.993</td>
<td>.096*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age × Length of service</td>
<td>National/Cultural Heritage</td>
<td>8.877</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.986</td>
<td>1.769</td>
<td>.073*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Grade</td>
<td>Belief System</td>
<td>12.173</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.353</td>
<td>1.931</td>
<td>.047**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Belief System</td>
<td>7.919</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>2.827</td>
<td>.025**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>Belief System</td>
<td>7.662</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.916</td>
<td>2.735</td>
<td>.029**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age × Grade × Length of service</td>
<td>Employee Ethnocentrism</td>
<td>9.083</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.271</td>
<td>2.701</td>
<td>.031**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education × Grade × Length of service</td>
<td>Employee Ethnocentrism</td>
<td>9.656</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.828</td>
<td>5.744</td>
<td>.004***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: ***p < 0.01, **p < 0.05 and p < 0.10

a. R Squared = .331 (Adjusted R Squared = .075)
b. R Squared = .320 (Adjusted R Squared = .059)
c. R Squared = .322 (Adjusted R Squared = .063)
4.7.6 Discussion on National Culture

National culture has a significant influence on an employee’s performance both directly, through cultural norms, beliefs, attitudes and values, and also indirectly through its impact on organisational HRM practices (Delaney & Hussied, 1996). The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of employees on national culture; explore the underlying factor structure of national culture and to identify the relationship between national culture and demographic variables. While the review of literature identified that social and economic similarities are growing between nations, through multiculturalism and globalisation, there are still significant differences between nations arising from their parochial and culture based values (McGaughey & De Cieri, 1999). Therefore understanding national context is very important, particularly the socio cultural context, economic and legal elements and the political environment (Leat & El-Kot, 2007). National culture has received little research attention in the public sector universities in developing countries.

Previous research of Leat and El-Kot (2007), Sparrow et al. (2004), Quintanilla and Ferner (2003), Budhwar and Sparrow (2002) and Hall and Soskice (2001) identified that national factors (i.e. economics, governance, financial, legal and trade unions) together with HR practices form the national business system. In explaining the national system of HR, researchers have focused on national, institutional and cultural environments to better understand the way that HR practices are affected within national frameworks. Therefore, it was important to further explore the factor structure of national culture and in doing so identify both managerial and employee cultural norms reflecting basic values and assumptions of the national culture within nationalized boundaries.
The literature shows that cultural differences have a great influence on individual perceptions and preferences (Laurent, 1986), which impact on organisational and individual behaviour. This is important in HRM due to the strong role of national culture in shaping the values and beliefs of individuals in ways that are specific to the culture during childhood (Beck & Moore, 1985) and is relatively hard to change (Newman & Nollen, 1996). It is therefore important in looking at a developing country like Pakistan to explore how the factor structure of national culture helps senior managers in understanding norms and beliefs amongst employees and also helps in identifying what cultural aspects are important to consider when designing organisational policies.

The findings of the factor structure of national culture help to identify employee perceptions of national culture and how national culture influences outcomes within an organisation. Three factors of national culture in the study i.e. national/heritage culture, employee ethnocentrism and belief system were found to be associated with demographic variables i.e. age, gender, education, grade and length of service. This concurs with earlier findings by Leat and El-Kot (2007) that culture influences HR practices in recruitment and selection, job design (e.g. job descriptions), training and development and that it also influences performance management in areas such as rewards and performance appraisal systems (Leat & El-Kot, 2007).

Results demonstrated that age, gender and length of service of employees had a positive impact on perceptions of national/cultural heritage. This reflects the arguments of Delaney and Hussield (1996) who emphasise that national cultures have a significant influence on employee’s performance. It is therefore, management’s responsibility to
understand the needs of their employees and the environment, and to manage cultural diversity in terms of organisational and interpersonal practices and skills. Culture, states Hofstede plays an integral role in distinguishing one person from another because of its role in the “unanimous planning of the human mind” (Hofstede, 1991). This suggests that understanding of cultural norms and values is essential for a manager’s grasp of national culture and its influence on the effectiveness of HR practices and policies as well as employee performance (Muduli, 2011). Understanding cultural differences has become important because of the internationalization of the world economy and its challenges in designing and implementing integrated HRM practices in a comparative context (Milikic, 2009; Ricks et al., 1990). Since, national culture has been shown to be determined by the factor structure, authorities of the public sector should establish policies to facilitate employees to perform well within organisations.

Secondly, the findings of the study revealed that age, education, grade and length of service have an influence on employee ethnocentrism. Which mirrors previous research indicating that understanding an employee’s social or cultural group is necessary for better coordination of employee activities Wolff and Pooria (cited in Festing, 2006) likewise argued that cultural socialization influenced governance structures and impacts the coordination of employees’ action through working terms and conditions.

Thirdly, results of the study showed that age, gender, education, grade and length of service do have an influence on the belief system. It shows that understanding employees’ beliefs within an organisation with regard to national culture is very important, and can help managers to designing HRM policies which suit the national culture. Every organisation operates in a cultural context that imparts beliefs and norms
affecting their functioning and has internal policies and structures that correspond with their national culture, resources and market. The international research on HRM has shown that cultural differences have a great influence on individual perceptions and preferences (Laurent, 1986) which are exhibited through a preference for different types of rewards and job characteristics. For example, the literature shows that in developing countries, workers value monetary benefits over extra holidays as recognition that their work is appreciated by employers. These preferences impact on individual behaviour that then influences organisational behaviour (Hofstede, 1980a; Rollinson & Broadfield, 2002). Hofstede (1980a) stressed that managerial values and beliefs need to vary to suit cultural context and that this requires management practices to be adaptable and diverse because all national cultures are different. Each society is different and the literature notes that different organisational practices and management styles can be observed between cultures due to the differences of national frameworks (Hofstede, 1980a; Jackson, 2002; Trompenaars, 1993). This difference is because the cultural environment impacts on the organisations within to satisfy nationalized viewpoints. The literature also observes that this impact extends to HRM practices with cultural beliefs within national boundaries observably reflected in HRM practices, because, the cultural beliefs and basic assumptions of the individual who has been shaped by the national culture, is translated into the expectations and needs of the employees of an organisation (Myloni et al., 2004).

Myloni et al. (2004), Fay (1996) and Lukes (1973) also note the influence of social systems within different cultures that in turn “constrain and guide” the people who make up institutions within that social system. These authors also stated that, it can be difficult for a unionized company to implement standardized HRM practices across all
cultures because what may be seen as beneficial in one culture will not be seen as beneficial in another (Beechler & Yang, 1994) and lead to workplace conflict in the host country. For this reason management practices need to change to suit the host culture (Khilji, 2002).

In summary the present study establishes the factor structure of national culture for authorities and employees in the public sector. It adds to the body of literature on employee perceptions of national culture by investigating administrative employees and revealed three factors with highly correlated variables. Based on the theoretical background and findings of the study a hypothesis was tested and established a positive and significant relationship between demographic variables and national culture. The findings provide confirmation of the hypothesis and significant support for the earlier studies of Jackson (2002), Delaney and Hussield (1996), and Hofstede (1980a) which identified the influence of national culture on management practices and employee performance in a particular cultural environment.

The results of the current study provide insights for understanding national culture. This knowledge will assist organisations in designing efficient systems, with the best available talent through recognizing their cultural values, their ethnocentrism and beliefs. Recognising these aspects encourages better employee performance whilst providing them with a learning culture that ultimately helps the success of the organisations. Given the objectives of this study, the results strengthen the knowledge of university management of the consequences of the factor structure of national culture.
4.8 Organisational Culture

In order to determine the dimensions of organisational culture (OC) in public sector universities in Pakistan, factor analysis (FA), correlation analysis (CA), regression analysis (RA), and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were applied to examine the OC factorial structure and to ascertain convergent reliability and variability of the relationship according to the data collected from respondents within the Pakistani public sector universities.

In order to examine the dimensions of organisational culture, the following hypothesis has been tested:

Hypothesis (He): The factor structure of organisational culture are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors.

4.8.1 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was performed to establish dimensions of organisational culture. The results depicted a solution with three factors. Once the matrix was considered factorable, the eigenvalues and percentage of explained variance of each factor were then examined in order to determine the quantity of factors to be extracted (results with the three factors are shown in Table 4.19). Factors that contributed eigenvalue >1.0 were significant and the remaining were not taken into consideration (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The result of this study exhibited eigenvalues >1.0 for three components i.e. strategic emphasis (12.084), organisational leaders (1.453) and dominant characteristics (1.023). These three components explained total variance of 60.6% which is higher than the recommendations. 60% or above cumulative variance satisfies
the criterion of variance percentage (Hair et al., 2006). This solution explained 50.351 cumulative percent of the variance and 60.667 cumulative percent for components. Hair et al., (2006), suggested that lower communality identifies that an item does not fit well with other items in the same component. Communality lower than 0.5 (50%) are considered to be weak items (Hair et al., 2006). In this study total communalities of each item were greater than 0.5; all communalities were noted (1.0.) for each item which were higher than the recommended value. Norusis (1992) recommended the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test to measure sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity to achieve appropriate factor analysis results. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that a value of KMO greater than 0.6 is statistically significant and is suitable for factor analysis to provide a discreet set of factors, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity indicates that correlations among the measurement items higher than 0.3 are suitable for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.950 which was greater than 0.6 and Bartlett’s test was significant at (Chi-square) 6724.546 and satisfied the initial assumptions for the factor analysis (Bartlett, 1954; Kaiser, 1974). The mean score for each item was identified >3.13 and <3.57. The standard deviation were confirmed >1.0 for each item. Cronbach Alpha was noted to 0.90 for factor one (strategic emphasis), 0.91 for factor two (organisational leaders) and 0.72 for factor three (dominant characteristics); that signifies the reliability of the measures. Cronbach’s α is easier to calculate and is a well-accepted measure within research (Nunnally, 1978; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Generally, Cronbach’s α coefficient 0.70, is acceptable, however, it may be accepted at 0.60 (Sekaran, 2000).
After using factor analysis three factors emerged as seen in Table 4.19. Factors loaded from the factor analysis ranged from 0.424 to 0.743 for the first factor, namely strategic emphasis that consisted of thirteen items. The second factor namely, organisational leaders, ranged from 0.532 to 0.759 and consisted of eight items. The third factor namely, dominant characteristics, ranged from 0.499 to 0.774 that consisted of three items (Henseler et al., 2009; Churchill, 1979). The factor loading was above the minimum threshold criterion 0.4 (Hair et al., 2006). Each factor has a Cronbach’s alpha range from 0.72 to 0.91 which is above 0.60 and satisfied the requirements of the psychometric reliability test (Hair et al., 2006). All values exceed the recommended threshold 0.70 (Sekaran, 2000) indicating good internal consistency among the items within each dimension, each variable, and the entire scale.

4.8.2 Definition of the Latent Factors

Strategic Emphasis

Factor one, strategic emphasis, showed that the question “the organisation emphasizes human development. High trust, openness and participation persist” has a high factor loading (0.743). The inspection of the factor loadings indicates that for each of the variables loading was >0.424 on the strategic emphasis. The highest factor loading indicates the highest explanatory power in the strategic emphasis factor.

Organisational Leaders

Factor two, organisational leaders, showed that the question “the leaders of the organisation are generally considered to be entrepreneurs, innovators, or risk takers” has a high factor loading (0.759). An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each
of the variables loading on organisational leaders are much higher than on strategic emphasis, and the highest factor loading indicates greater explanatory power.

**Dominant Characteristics**

Factor three, dominant characteristics, showed that the question “the organisation is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks” has a high factor loading (0.774). An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading on dominant characteristics are much higher than on strategic emphasis and organisational leaders and the highest factor loading indicates greater explanatory power.

With the exception of “the organisation is a very formalized and structured place, bureaucratic procedures generally govern what people do”. All factors show a high level of explanatory power. This factor has a lower factor loading (0.499) which indicates a low descriptive power.
Table 4.19 Descriptive Statistics, Factor Loadings, and Reliability of Strategic Emphasis, Organisational Leaders and Dominant Characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategic Emphasis</td>
<td>The organisation emphasizes human development. High trust, openness and participation persist.</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.083</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organisation defines success on the basis of development of human resources, teamwork, and concern for people.</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.047</td>
<td>0.733</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organisation emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficient, smooth operations are important.</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>0.956</td>
<td>0.731</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organisation defines success on the basis of having the most unique or the newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.004</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organisation defines success on the basis of market penetration and market share. Competitive market leadership is key.</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>0.997</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organisation emphasizes acquiring new resources and meeting new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for new opportunities are valued.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.976</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organisation defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost production are critical.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>0.976</td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The spirit that holds the organisation together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth running organisation is important.</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.025</td>
<td>0.625</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The spirit that holds the organisation together is the emphasis on production and goal accomplishment. Marketplace aggressiveness is a common theme.</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>1.014</td>
<td>0.619</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The spirit that holds the organisation together is orientation toward innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.976</td>
<td>0.577</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organisation is very production oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.932</td>
<td>0.513</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The spirit that holds the organisation together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organisation runs high.</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.008</td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organisation emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Measurement targets and objectives are dominant.</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>2.208</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational Leaders</td>
<td>The leaders of the organisation are generally considered to be entrepreneurs, innovators, or risk takers.</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The leaders of the organisation are generally considered to be hard-drivers, producers, or competitors.</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.006</td>
<td>0.744</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The leaders of the organisation are generally considered to be mentors, facilitators, or parent figures.</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The management style in the organisation is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, goal directedness, and achievement.</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.031</td>
<td>0.622</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The leaders of the organisation are generally considered to be coordinators, organizers, or efficiency experts.</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.081</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The management style in the organisation is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, flexibility, and uniqueness.</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1.039</td>
<td>0.596</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The management style in the organisation is characterized by teamwork, consensus and participation.</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.072</td>
<td>0.537</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The management style in the organisation is characterized by careful monitoring of performance, longevity in position, and predictability.</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.031</td>
<td>0.532</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dominant Characteristics</th>
<th>The organisation is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.</th>
<th>3.13</th>
<th>1.003</th>
<th>0.774</th>
<th>0.72</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organisation is a very special place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.078</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organisation is a very formalized and structured place. Bureaucratic procedures generally govern what people do.</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.037</td>
<td>0.499</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (0.95) and Bartlett test (Chi-square) 6724.546*
4.8.3 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was employed to predict the relationship between the variables, namely strategic emphasis, organisational leaders and dominant characteristics. The results are presented in Table 4.20. According to Sekaran (2000) tests of hypothetical relationships are usually categorized into two groups i.e. ‘causal’ which investigate the best or exact relationships with cause and effect and ‘correlational’ which examines the important construct relations associated with certain problems of domain. This study examined the relationships between the constructs of organisational culture.

For this study, correlation matrix analysis was conducted to assess the appropriateness of factor analysis under the factors strategic emphasis, organisational leaders and dominant characteristics, and showed a correlation among the measurement items higher than 0.3 for 21 items and was suitable for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006). Three items namely “The organisation emphasizes acquiring new resources and meeting new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for new opportunities are valued”;
“The organisation emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficient, smooth operations are important” and “The organisation defines success on the basis of having the most unique or the newest products. It is a product leader and innovator” showed low correlations of 24 items.
Table 4.20 Inter-correlations of Strategic Emphasis, Organisational Leaders and Dominant Characteristics

|     | 1   | 2   | 3   | 4   | 5   | 6   | 7   | 8   | 9   | 10  | 11  | 12  | 13  | 14  | 15  | 16  | 17  | 18  | 19  | 20  | 21  | 22  | 23  | 24  |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1   |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 2   | .628|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 3   | .436| .540|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 4   | .366| .391| .466|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 5   | .454| .398| .519| .404|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 6   | .382| .441| .560| .378| .711|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 7   | .317| .413| .565| .372| .609| .726|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 8   | .431| .447| .500| .399| .599| .647| .700|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 10  | .333| .453| .460| .341| .479| .487| .479| .388| .551|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 11  | .353| .429| .519| .285| .566| .548| .574| .537| .582| .587|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 13  | .445| .494| .543| .322| .513| .507| .560| .532| .516| .495| .487| .587|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 15  | .370| .412| .557| .388| .446| .498| .539| .544| .493| .376| .479| .532| .569| .594|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 17  | .413| .424| .566| .336| .551| .548| .512| .562| .467| .419| .547| .510| .554| .586| .549| .621|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 18  | .293| .320| .558| .296| .500| .561| .576| .583| .512| .367| .521| .507| .505| .478| .559| .538| .703|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 19  | .065| .096| .274| .107| .278| .246| .275| .213| .179| .158| .266| .207| .193| .227| .251| .280| .296| .326|     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 22  | .265| .315| .482| .273| .463| .428| .465| .425| .385| .401| .486| .496| .515| .504| .496| .476| .554| .519| .229| .556| .612|     |     |     |

Note: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (one tailed).
4.8.4 Regression Analysis

A regression analysis was performed between the three factors of organisational culture, namely strategic emphasis, organisational leaders and dominant characteristics, as dependent variables and demographics as independent variables using SPSS-19. It can be seen from Table 4.21 that the factors strategic emphasis and organisational leaders had a significant relationship with education ($\beta = -.145, p< 0.05$), and ($\beta = -.129, p< 0.05$) respectively. In this regard the results indicate that the interaction of the demographic variables and organisational culture is significantly influenced and lending support to the hypothesis.
## Table 4.21 Regression Analysis for Organisational Culture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Strategic Emphasis</th>
<th>Organisational Leaders</th>
<th>Dominant Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.689</td>
<td>3.276</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(14.74)</td>
<td>(14.54)</td>
<td>(13.79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.61)</td>
<td>(-0.10)</td>
<td>(-1.27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>-.033</td>
<td>-.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.08)</td>
<td>(-.65)</td>
<td>(-.601)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td><strong>-.145</strong></td>
<td><strong>-.129</strong></td>
<td>-.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-2.51)</td>
<td>(-2.23)</td>
<td>(-1.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of Respondent</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-1.30)</td>
<td>(-1.50)</td>
<td>(-0.20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Service</td>
<td>-.038</td>
<td>-.028</td>
<td>-.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.483)</td>
<td>(-.349)</td>
<td>(-.446)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: *t*-ratios in parenthesis are presented.

$R^2 (.016); (.014) and (.011); ***p < 0.01, **p < 0.05 and *p < 0.10.$
4.8.5 Multivariate Analysis of Variance

For this study MANOVA was used to analyse whether the dependent variables (strategic emphasis, organisational leaders and dominant characteristics) have an effect on the independent variables (age, gender, education, grade and length of service).

In order to test the hypothesis and to analyse the dependent variables multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was employed as suggested by (Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.22 shows multivariate test results that demonstrate a statistically significant difference was found between gender, age, education, grade and length of service as independent variables and strategic emphasis, organisational leaders and dominant characteristics as dependent variables. Field (2013) considered 0.5 as significant criterion. Using Roy’s Largest Root, two independent variables emerged as having significant affect on organisational culture; education (F= .065, p< 0.10) and grade (F= .091, p< 0.10). Further analysis, using Roy’s Largest Root and combining demographic variables (independent) revealed a number of significant relationships with organisational culture (dependent) namely age and gender together has significant effect on organisational culture (F= .017, p< 0.05), age and education (F= .055, p< 0.10), gender and grade (F= .026, p< 0.05), gender and length of service of employee (F= .011, p< 0.05), age, education and grade together have significant effect on organisational culture (F= .063, p< 0.10). Age and grade together have a significant effect on organisational culture, Pillai's Trace (F= .095, p< 0.10), Wilks' Lambda (F= .095, p< 0.10), Hotelling's Trace (F= .095, p< 0.10) and Hotelling's Trace (F= .018, p< 0.05). Similarly, age, grade and length of service of employee together have a significant effect on organisational culture, Pillai's Trace (F= .081, p< 0.10), Wilks' Lambda (F= .081, p< 0.10), Hotelling's Trace (F= .082, p< 0.10) and Roy’s Largest
Root ($F = .013, p < 0.05$). Also education, grade and length of service of employee together have a significant effect on organisational culture, Pillai's Trace ($F = .009, p < 0.05$), Wilks' Lambda ($F = .009, p < 0.05$), Hotelling's Trace ($F = .009, p < 0.05$) and Roy’s Largest Root ($F = .002, p < 0.01$).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Approx F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Significance of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>2.239</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.065*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>2.178</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.091*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age and Gender</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>3.441</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.017**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age and Education</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.036</td>
<td>2.190</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.055*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender and Grade</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>3.136</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.026**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender and Length of service</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>3.326</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.011**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age, Education and Grade</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>2.453</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.063*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age and Grade</td>
<td>Pillai's Trace</td>
<td>0.960</td>
<td>1.420</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>.095*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>1.430</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>.095*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hotelling's Trace</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>1.429</td>
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<td>.095*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>2.474</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.018**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age, Grade and Length of service</td>
<td>Pillai's Trace</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>1.618</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.081*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>0.938</td>
<td>1.618</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.081*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hotelling's Trace</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>1.617</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.082*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>3.221</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.013**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education, Grade and Length of service</td>
<td>Pillai's Trace</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>2.871</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.009**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>0.945</td>
<td>2.885</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.009**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hotelling's Trace</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>2.900</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.009**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.051</td>
<td>5.169</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.002***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05 and *p < 0.10.
Test of Between – Subject effects was conducted to determine the sum of squares. It can be seen from Table 4.23 that there was significant effect of education on the organisational leaders (F=0.066, p<.10). A significant effect of age and gender combined on dominant characteristics (F=0.045, p<.05) was found. Significant difference level was found in the effect of age and grade on organisational leaders and dominant characteristics (F=0.75, p<.10) and (F=0.034, p<.05) respectively. The interaction of age, education and grade were found to have significant effect on strategic emphasis (F=0.92, p<.10). Similarly, the value of (F=0.72, p<.10) indicated that there was significant effect of age, grade and length of service on dominant characteristics. There was a highly significant effect of education, grade, and length of service on strategic emphasis, organisational leaders and dominant characteristics (F=0.022, p<.05), (F=0.001, p<.05), and (F=0.099, p<.10) respectively.

There is conclusive evidence that age, education, grade and length of service are influencing strategic emphasis whereas gender is not. The results also demonstrated that age, education, grade and length of service are influencing organisational leaders and gender is having no influence. There is also evidence that age, gender, education, grade and length of service of employee are influencing dominant characteristics. The above course of analyses provide support to $H_e$. 
Table 4.23 ANOVA Between Independent and Dependent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age × Education × Grade</td>
<td>Strategic emphasis</td>
<td>3.893</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>2.168</td>
<td>.092*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education × Grade × Length of service</td>
<td>Strategic emphasis, Organisational leaders and Dominant characteristics</td>
<td>4.585</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.292</td>
<td>3.884</td>
<td>.022**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational leaders</td>
<td>6.746</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.373</td>
<td>7.506</td>
<td>.001***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational leaders</td>
<td>3.126</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.563</td>
<td>2.327</td>
<td>.099*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Educational leaders</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.003</td>
<td>2.231</td>
<td>.066*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age × Grade</td>
<td>Organisational leaders, Dominant characteristics</td>
<td>5.861</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.837</td>
<td>1.863</td>
<td>.075*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age × Gender</td>
<td>Dominant characteristics</td>
<td>10.351</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.479</td>
<td>2.201</td>
<td>.034**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age × Grade × Length of service</td>
<td>Dominant Characteristics</td>
<td>5.481</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.827</td>
<td>2.719</td>
<td>.045**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>5.845</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.461</td>
<td>2.175</td>
<td>.072**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:  Note: ***p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05 and *p < 0.10.

a. R Squared = .326 (Adjusted R Squared = .068)
b. R Squared = .365 (Adjusted R Squared = .122)
4.8.6 Discussion on Organisational Culture

This study explores the relationship between organisational culture and demographic characteristics in a developing country. The present study empirically investigates the underlying factor structure of organisational culture and also examined which constructs of organisational culture carried most significance in predicting employee perceptions of organisational culture. The analysis revealed three key factors of organisational culture i.e. strategic emphasis, organisational leaders and dominant characteristics. From the literature we find that culture, either national or organisational, is a measure of practices, basic assumptions and preferred values (Hofstede, 1980a). A number of studies have examined other aspects of organisational culture such as: organisational culture and innovation (Büschgens et al., 2013); organisational innovation and organisational effectiveness (Ashraf & Khan, 2013a); diagnosing organisational culture (Denison et al., 2014); and, cultural orientation (Mavondo & Farrell, 2003). The literature tells us, culture is the part of society that is “man-made”, the way people live and their beliefs and customs will impact on culture within organisations that are also “man-made”. Therefore understanding the organisational cultural context is very important because of the variations of HRM practices across countries. Cultural differences may hinder the implementation of HR practices, tools and techniques in the same way in each and every organisation (Muduli, 2011).

The study found that three factors of organisational culture i.e. strategic emphasis, organisational leaders and dominant characteristics as dependent variables were found to be associated with demographic characteristics i.e. age, gender, education, grade and length of service. Results of the study concur with previous research that found that many HR practices such as recruitment of employees, wages, rewards, and appraisal
systems appear to be vulnerable due to cultural differences. This indicates that factors of organisational culture need to be taken into account when designing HR practices to suit the internal organisational culture (Aycan, 2005; Briscoe et al., 2009; Li & Karakowsky, 2001).

This study contains a number of interesting findings relevant to understanding the factor structure of organisational culture and its perception among employees in order to decide what cultural factors should be implemented in public sector universities in a developing country. First, these results illustrated that age, education grade and length of service of employee influence strategic emphasis, which suggests that if organisational culture is matched to employees’ basic norms, assumptions, customs, and beliefs, it will help achieve better performance and organisational goals. This is supported in the literature by Hofstede (1980a) who mentions six descriptive dimensions of organisational practice such as process oriented versus job oriented, employee oriented versus job oriented, parochial versus professional, open versus closed system, loose control versus tight control and normative versus pragmatic. Each of these dimensions is based on the strategic position of the organisation and provides a conceptual framework for comparison between cultures of different organisations (De Hilal, 2006). Organisational success and effectiveness is based on a well planned strategy and the employees’ contribution is a key factor (Acar & Acar, 2014). Therefore it is necessary for management to adapt HR strategies to suit and reflect desired employee behaviour within the organisation and its culture. Thus exploring strategic emphasis as a construct of organisational culture provides insights for the managers in combining employee performance with organisational objectives. Further Acar and Acar (2014) suggest that in rapidly changing organisational environments the strategic
situations and strategy needs to bear in mind the overall perspectives of organisational culture to deal with and solve problems associated with socialisation in the organisation. If strategies reflect the cultural context, an organisation is better placed to solve the problems encountered by the employees of the organisation during the socialization process.

Second, findings of the study revealed that age, education grade and length of service of employee have an influence on organisational leaders. This shows that the culture of any organisation is developed when they place importance on following procedures, rules and regulations correctly in order to achieve best performances. Employees have to learn organisational practices after joining the organisation, as most values are developed and learned in the family and at school (De Hilal, 2006). In this way the “main leaders” shape the organisation and their values shape the practices of the newcomers. It is this collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one organisation from the members of another. Organisational culture comprises different sub-cultures and each subculture develops a unique shared understanding while involving all the cultural domains that form the organisational culture as a whole (De Hilal, 2006). It is therefore important to understand the influence of organisational leaders on demographic characteristics in public sector universities and their perceptions of organisational culture. For example in many developing countries such as Pakistan high power distance characteristics, harmony and bureaucratic styles of work prevail in social and work settings (Rhodes et al., 2008). Thus understanding the factorial structure of organisational culture helps managers become better acquainted with different cultural dimensions. However, while organisations are compelled to respond and adapt to environmental pressures that create
accepted ways of doing business considered legitimate by their customers and investors, they must also respond to institutional influences that are industry specific or country specific (Gerhart, 2009).

This is possible when organisations are perceived as a home and personnel regard the organisation as a large family, where personal relationships constitute the framework of the whole system (De Hilal, 2006). In relation to Hofstede, Neuijen, Daval Ohayv, and Sanders (1990) the dimension of organisational culture and parochial organisational practices, such as informal rituals and practices including socializing. Internal heroes or the people that others go to for informal interactions and the symbols that mean something to the “family” such as informal activities that mark the cultural context of the workforce for example sports teams etc are important for creating the overall “feel” of the organisation. In parochial practices the literature finds no difference between senior management and employees (De Hilal, 2006; Schein, 2010). Hofstede (1998) finds that the main leaders shape organisational culture, and this includes “internal heroes”.

Third, the analysis of the results showed that demographic characteristics such as age, gender, education, grade and length of service as independent variables have the same influence on dominant characteristics as a dependent variable. Countries have different organisational environments, and therefore different cultures have variations in their regulatory framework and this framework provides a boundary for organisations and largely determines what they are able to do and what they must refrain from doing. This country specific framework can give rise to greater differences between countries than exists within countries (Gerhart, 2009). Internally, or “looking inside”, an organisation
is different from others in the same culture or country due to its unique combination of resources and capabilities that create competitive advantage in the market or culture in which the organisation operates (Barney, 1991; Carmeli & Tishler, 2004). These inimitable resources and capabilities provide the base for the organisation’s unique organisational culture and its distinctive values and determine organisational performance (Collins, 2001; Denison, 1990; Kotter, 2008). While Lawler (2003, p. 35) argues “the organisational design elements of people, structure, rewards, and processes lead to … corporate culture”. Chan et al. (2004) say that organisational culture greatly influences the way HR policies and practices are implemented. As previously pointed out, the restrictive cultures that inhibit employee initiative and require them to strictly follow rules are associated with a more bureaucratic organisation. More autocratic leadership styles are to be found in Asian cultures than Western cultures and this management style restricts risk taking in its employees. The bureaucratic environment tends to discourage employees from feeling empowered as decision makers (Prabhu, 2005). This is also a common feature of organisations in developing countries like Pakistan where cultures may restrict risk taking and innovation. In developing nations harmony is highly valued in social and work relationships and effort is taken to avoid open conflicts in comparison with more developed nations, whether they be Asian or Western nations (Rhodes et al., 2008).

The results of the study presented empirical support for the existence of a positive and significant relationship between organisational culture and demographic variables and confirm the hypothesis. The findings of the current study compare with that of Kulik et al. (2009) who found that organisational culture has an influence on employee performance, in a way that links their self-image to their work. Thus a supportive
organisational environment would lead to employees as useful manpower in developing organisational performance (André, 2008; Ullah, 2013).

In summary the present study establishes the factor structure of organisational culture for authorities and employees in the public sector. It adds to the body of literature on employee perceptions of organisational culture by investigating administrative employees and revealed three factors with correlated variables within organisational culture (strategic emphasis, organisational leaders and dominant characteristics). The findings of Ullah (2013) were significant in emphasizing that the supportive organisational environment develops a useful workforce which contributes better performance in an organisation. In such an environment employees develop and learn values and assumptions that help resolve issues confronting it, and thus the organisation’s culture grows and evolves. This is why organisational culture can be seen as a product of its members’ collective process of learning and problem solving in order to adapt and survive within the organisation (Owusu, 2012; Schultz, 1995).

4.9 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

In order to determine the dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in public sector universities in Pakistan, factor analysis (FA), correlation analysis (CA), regression analysis (RA), and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were applied to examine the OCB factorial structure and to ascertain convergent reliability and variability of the relationship according to the data collected from respondents within the Pakistani public sector universities.

In the course of analyses, the following hypothesis was posited and tested:
Hypothesis (Hf): The factor structure of organisational citizenship behaviour are interrelated, multi-dimensional and optimal predictors.

4.9.1 Factor Analysis

In order to determine the underlying dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour, this study employed factor analysis and the results depicted a solution with five factors. Once the matrix was considered factorable, the eigenvalues and percentage of explained variance of each factor were then examined in order to determine the quantity of factors to be extracted. Five factors with seven items in factor one labelled conscientiousness, five items in the second factor labelled civic virtue, five items in the third factor labelled altruism, five items in the fourth factor labelled sportsmanship and two items in the fifth factor labelled as courtesy.

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) factors that contributed eigenvalue >1.0 were significant and were taken into consideration (results with the five factors are shown in Table 4.24). The result of this study exhibited eigenvalues >1.0 for five components i.e. conscientiousness (6.499), civic virtue (3.405), altruism (1.556), sportsmanship (1.361), and courtesy (1.150). These five components explained total variance of 58.208% and solution explained 27.077 cumulative percent of the variance and 58.208 cumulative percent for components. Hair et al. (2006) suggested that lower communality identifies that an item does not fit well with other items in the same component. Communality lower than 0.5 (50%) are considered to be weak items (Hair et al., 2006). In this study total communalities of each item were greater than 0.5; all communalities were noted (1.0.) for each item which was higher than the recommended value. Norusis (1992) recommended the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test to measure
sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of Sphericity to achieve appropriate factor analysis results. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that a value of KMO greater than 0.6 is statistically significant and is suitable for factor analysis to provide a discreet set of factors, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity indicates that correlations among the measurement items higher than 0.3 are suitable for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.867 which was greater than 0.6 and Bartlett’s test was significant at (Chi-square) 3937.731 and satisfied the initial assumptions for the factor analysis (Bartlett, 1954; Kaiser, 1974). The mean score for each item was identified >2.40 and <4.26. Cronbach Alpha was noted to 0.83 for factor one (conscientiousness), 0.85 for factor two (civic virtue), 0.66 for factor three (altruism) 0.78 for factor four (sportsmanship) and 0.73 for factor five (courtesy); that signifies the reliability of the measures. Cronbach’s α is easier to calculate and is a well-accepted measure within research (Nunnally, 1978; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Generally, Cronbach’s α coefficient 0.70, is acceptable, however, it may be accepted at 0.60 (Sekaran, 2000).

After using factor analysis five factors emerged as seen in Table 4.24. Factors loaded from the factor analysis ranged from 0.592 to 0.715 for the first factor, namely conscientiousness that consisted of seven items. The second factor namely, civic virtue, ranged from 0.720 to 0.839 and consisted of five items. The third factor namely, altruism, ranged from 0.495 to 0.729. The fourth factor namely, sportsmanship, ranged from 0.528 to 0.759. The fifth factor namely, courtesy, ranged from 0.782 to 0.819 (Henseler et al., 2009; & Churchill, 1979). The factor loading was above the minimum threshold criterion 0.4 (Hair et al., 2006). Each factor has a Cronbach’s alpha range
from 0.73 to 0.85 which is above 0.60 and satisfied the requirements of the psychometric reliability test (Hair et al., 2006). All values exceed the recommended threshold 0.70 (Sekaran, 2000) indicating good internal consistency among the items within each dimension, each variable, and the entire scale.

### 4.9.2 Definition of the Latent Factors

**Conscientiousness**

Factor one, conscientiousness, showed that the question “I am mindful of how my behaviour affects other people's jobs” has a high factor loading (0.715). The inspection of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading was >0.592 on conscientiousness. The highest factor loading indicates the highest explanatory power in the conscientiousness factor.

**Civic virtue**

Factor two, civic virtue, indicates the question “I tend to make little issues into big problems” has a high factor loading (0.839). An examination of the factor loadings showed that each of the variables loaded was >0.720 on civic virtue much higher than on conscientiousness, and the highest factor loading indicates greater explanatory power.

**Altruism**

Factor three, altruism, shows that the question “I am the most careful employee” has a high factor loading (0.729). An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading on altruism is lower than on civic virtue.

**Sportsmanship**
Factor four, sportsmanship, indicates the question “I help new people even though it is not required” has a high factor loading (0.759). An examination of the factor loadings showed that each of the variables loaded was >0.528 on sportsmanship and the highest factor loading indicates greater explanatory power.

*Courtesy*

Factor five, courtesy, shows that the question “I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image” has a high factor loading (0.819). An examination of the factor loadings indicates that each of the variables loading on courtesy is higher than on altruism and sportsmanship and the highest factor loading indicates greater explanatory power.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>I am mindful of how my behaviour affects other people’s jobs.</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.884</td>
<td>0.715</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I accept changes in the organisation.</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.878</td>
<td>0.698</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I read and keep up with organisation announcements, memos, and so on.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td>0.681</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do not abuse the rights of others.</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>1.004</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.805</td>
<td>0.620</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I consider the impact of my actions on co-workers.</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.034</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civic Virtue</td>
<td>I tend to make little issues into big problems.</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.210</td>
<td>0.839</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I always focus on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side.</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.168</td>
<td>0.821</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I always find fault with what the organisation is doing.</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.161</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am the classic complainer who always needs help.</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>1.183</td>
<td>0.724</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I consume a lot of time complaining about unimportant matters.</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>1.169</td>
<td>0.720</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Corr</td>
<td>Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (.86) and Bartlett test (Chi-square) 3937.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altruism</td>
<td>I am the most careful employee.</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.893</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I do not take extra breaks.</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.876</td>
<td>0.697</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My attendance at work is above the norm.</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.877</td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I believe in giving an honest day’s work for an honest day’s pay.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.831</td>
<td>0.535</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.658</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sportsmanship</td>
<td>I help new people even though it is not required.</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.950</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I help others who have been absent.</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.053</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I willingly help others who have work related problems.</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.789</td>
<td>0.653</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I help others who have heavy workloads.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.873</td>
<td>0.634</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.763</td>
<td>0.528</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image.</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.021</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.017</td>
<td>0.782</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.9.3 Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis was employed to predict the relationship between the variables, namely perceptions of conscientiousness, civic virtue, altruism sportsmanship and courtesy. The results are presented in Table 4.25. According to Sekaran (2000) tests of hypothetical relationships are usually categorized into two groups i.e. ‘causal’ which investigate the best or exact relationships with cause and effect and ‘correlational’ which examines the important construct relations associated with certain problems of domain. This study examined the relationships between the constructs of organisational citizenship behaviour.

For this study, correlation matrix analysis was conducted to assess the appropriateness of factor analysis under the factors perceptions of conscientiousness, civic virtue, altruism sportsmanship and courtesy variables, and showed a correlation among the measurement items higher than 0.3 and was suitable for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2006).
Table 4.25 Inter-correlations of Conscientiousness, Civic virtue, Altruism, Sportsmanship and Courtesy

|    | 1   | 2   | 3   | 4   | 5   | 6   | 7   | 8   | 9   | 10  | 11  | 12  | 13  | 14  | 15  | 16  | 17  | 18  | 19  | 20  | 21  | 22  | 23  | 24  |
|----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1  | .623|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 2  | .208| .218|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 3  | .403| .424| .236|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 4  | .367| .385| .195| .437|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 5  | .016| .105| .022| .059| .053|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 6  | .020| .009| .006| .061| .545|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 7  | .085| .178| .026| .036| .112| .541| .619|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 8  | .098| .089| .006| .051| .069| .407| .567| .615|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 9  | .077| .161| .013| .059| .090| .468| .459| .556| .525|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 10 | .150| .170| .024| .066| .090| .140| .168| .195| .183| .196|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 11 | .188| .165| .030| .195| .117| .119| .140| .172| .092| .153| .580|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 12 | .253| .284| .106| .238| .344| .074| .000| .008| .047| .084| .262| .341|     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 17 | .230| .251| .085| .131| .313| .129| .058| .061| .001| .078| .175| .206| .329| .332| .287| .369| .492|     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 19 | .200| .155| .034| .146| .065| .103| .034| .090| .047| .103| .181| .166| .172| .113| .179| .218| .186| .230| .261|     |     |     |     |     |

Note: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (one tailed)
4.9.4 Regression Analysis

For this study regression analysis was performed between five factors of organisational citizenship behaviour, namely conscientiousness, civic virtue, altruism, sportsmanship and courtesy as dependent variables and demographic as independent variables using SPSS-19. It can be seen from Table 4.26 that the factor conscientiousness was significantly related to the grade of the respondent ($\beta = .182, p < 0.01$), and the factor altruism had a significant relationship with age of the respondent ($\beta = .217, p < 0.01$). In this regard results indicate that the interaction of the demographic variables and organisational citizenship behaviour is significantly influenced and lending support to the hypothesis.
Table 4.26 Regression Analysis for Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Conscientiousness</th>
<th>Civic Virtue</th>
<th>Altruism</th>
<th>Sportsmanship</th>
<th>Courtesy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.992</td>
<td>2.695</td>
<td>4.124</td>
<td>4.253</td>
<td>3.411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-19.68)</td>
<td>(-9.16)</td>
<td>(-18.85)</td>
<td>(-20.64)</td>
<td>(-11.90)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.20)</td>
<td>(-0.47)</td>
<td>(-2.72)</td>
<td>(-0.12)</td>
<td>(-0.68)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>-0.031</td>
<td>-0.015</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-.95)</td>
<td>(-.61)</td>
<td>(-.29)</td>
<td>(-1.19)</td>
<td>(-0.40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-0.074</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
<td>-0.073</td>
<td>-0.086</td>
<td>-0.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-1.29)</td>
<td>(-.47)</td>
<td>(-1.27)</td>
<td>(-1.48)</td>
<td>(-.91)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade of Respondent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>182</strong>*</td>
<td>-0.025</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>0.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-3.02)</td>
<td>(-.41)</td>
<td>(-1.17)</td>
<td>(-1.25)</td>
<td>(-1.24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Service</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>-0.117</td>
<td>-0.009</td>
<td>0.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-0.23)</td>
<td>(-.56)</td>
<td>(-1.49)</td>
<td>(-.11)</td>
<td>(-0.36)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: *t-ratios in parenthesis are presented.*

$R^2 (0.030); (0.006); (0.028); (0.010); and (0.005); ***p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05 and *p < 0.10$
4.9.5 Multivariate Analysis of Variance

For this study MANOVA was used to analyse whether the dependent variables (conscientiousness, civic virtue, altruism, sportsmanship, and courtesy) have an effect on the independent variables (age, gender, education, grade, and length of service).

In order to test the hypothesis and to analyse the dependent variables multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was employed as suggested by (Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.27 shows multivariate test results that demonstrate a statistically significant difference was found between age, gender, education, grade, and experience as independent variables and conscientiousness, civic virtue, altruism, sportsmanship, and courtesy as dependent variables. Field (2013) considered 0.5 as significant criterion. Using Roy’s Largest Root and combining demographic variables (independent) revealed a number of significant relationships with organisational citizenship behaviour (dependent); namely age and grade has a significant effect on organisational citizenship behaviour (F= .036, p< 0.05). Further analysis, using Roy’s Largest Root, found age and length of service together has a significant effect on organisational citizenship behaviour (F= .013, p< 0.05), education and grade (F= .021, p< 0.05), education and length of service (F= .036, p< 0.05), gender and length of service of the employees (F= .050, p< 0.05). Grade and length of service of the employees together have a significant effect on organisational citizenship behaviour, Pillai’s Trace (F= .089, p< 0.10), Wilk’s Lambda (F= .088, p< 0.10), Hotelling’s Trace (F= .087, p< 0.10) and Roy’s Largest Root (F= .003, p< 0.01). Similarly, age, grade, and length of service of the employees have a significant effect on organisational citizenship behaviour, Pillai’s Trace (F= .065, p< 0.10), Wilk’s Lambda (F= .064, p< 0.10), Hotelling’s Trace (F= .064, p< 0.10), and Roy’s Largest Root (F= .004, p< 0.01).
Table 4.27 MANOVA for Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Test Name</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Approx F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Significance of F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age and Grade</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>2.178</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.036**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age and Length of service</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>2.371</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.013**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Grade</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>2.709</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.021**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Length of service</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>2.028</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.036**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender and Length of service</td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>1.863</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.050**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade and Length of service</td>
<td>Pillai's Trace</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>1.452</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.089*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>0.908</td>
<td>1.457</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.088*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hotelling's Trace</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>1.459</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.087*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.062</td>
<td>3.753</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.003***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age, Grade and Length of service</td>
<td>Pillai's Trace</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>1.525</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.065*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>0.904</td>
<td>1.527</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.064*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hotelling's Trace</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>1.526</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.064*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roy's Largest Root</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>3.601</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.004***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05 and *p < 0.10.
Test of Between – Subject effects was conducted to determine the sum of squares. It can be seen from Table 4.28 that there was significant effect of gender on the sportsmanship (F=0.095, \( p<.10 \)). There was a highly significant effect of grade and length of service together on courtesy (F=0.004, \( p<.01 \)). The value of (F=0.071, \( p<.10 \)) indicated that there was significant effect of civic virtue on grade, education and length of service of the employee. The interaction of education, grade and length of service of the employee had significant effect on courtesy (F=0.079, \( p<.10 \)).

There is conclusive evidence that grade, education and length of service are influencing civic virtue whereas, age and gender are not. However, the results demonstrated that gender is influencing sportsmanship and age, education, grade, and length of service of employee is having no influence. There is also evidence that education, grade and length of service of employee are influencing courtesy and age and gender is having no influence. Thus the above analyses lend support to \( H_f \).
### Table 4.28 ANOVA Between Independent and Dependent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade × Education × Length of service</td>
<td>Civic virtue</td>
<td>2.833</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.833</td>
<td>3.284</td>
<td>.071*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Sportsmanship</td>
<td>1.224</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.224</td>
<td>2.805</td>
<td>.095*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade × Length of service</td>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>12.264</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.066</td>
<td>3.901</td>
<td>.004***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education × Grade × Length of service</td>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>4.030</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.015</td>
<td>2.564</td>
<td>.079*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** ***p < 0.01, ** p < 0.05 and *p < 0.10

- a. R Squared = .281 (Adjusted R Squared = .006)
- b. R Squared = .280 (Adjusted R Squared = .005)
- c. R Squared = .311 (Adjusted R Squared = .047)
- d. R Squared = .261 (Adjusted R Squared = -.022)
- e. R Squared = .308 (Adjusted R Squared = .043)
4.9.6 Discussion on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has widespread significance. It is actually a form of reciprocation of the favourable treatment which employees receive at their workplace. OCB is generally viewed as extra role or prosocial behaviour which enhances organisational benefits, but it is not formally included in an organisation’s reward system (Aryee et al., 2002; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Watty-Benjamin & Udechukwu, 2014). Organisations devote significant resources to attract and retain competitive employees, who will perform their tasks willingly and contribute in additional ways that involve putting in extra effort for the effective functioning of the organisation.

Given the relevance of OCB with regard to achieving organisational effectiveness, the present study contributes to the literature by exploring the factor structure of OCB and how OCB influences an employee’s performance within an organisation. Furthermore this study also contributes to the knowledge base concerning perception of OCB among employees within the public sector in a developing country.

In exploring the factor structure of OCB, firstly it was important to identify both managerial and employee perceptions of OCB. Secondly it was important to investigate the ways that employees perform exhibiting behaviours like conscientiousness, civic virtue, altruism, sportsmanship and courtesy as aspects of OCB within an organisation. The analysis of the study revealed these five factors of OCB.

The extant literature suggests that the reciprocation of favourable treatment associated with OCB can be difficult to specify and even reward (Morrison, 1996) but strategies
that benefit employees such as training and rewards can contribute positively to OCB. This positive and reciprocal benefit is evident in workplace performance and in employee attitudes and behaviours. This is the partnership or mutual gain system described by Guest (2002). It was therefore necessary to look at OCB in a developing country such as Pakistan, in order to identify how the factor structure of OCB helps management to understand the attitudes and behaviours of employees. It would also help in identifying OCBs perspectives which are important to consider while establishing organisational HR practices.

A review of literature identified that OCB contributes in motivating employee attitudes, perceptions and individual characteristics (Organ & Ryan, 1995) which fosters employee performances and ultimately provides guidance to the organisations to improve services (Morrison, 1996). Having a more complete understanding about the factor structure of OCB and knowing the factors through which organisational performance is influenced, promotes better organisational performance as a result of focusing on OCBs.

This is linked with the Shweta and Jha (2012) argument that OCB has been a powerful and influential concept, which is connected to improved process, innovativeness, effectiveness and increased capabilities of employees to cope with various organisational uncertainties. Due to OCB’s importance, Boxall and Macky (2009), Appelbaum and Kamal (2000) and Paauwe and Boselie (2005) identified an increased interest in the relationship between HRM and organisational performance. They focused on issues of organisation and control through optimization of the organisational work, combination of efficiency and flexibility with innovative work structure and the
sophisticated management control mix. Therefore, the results of the present study add to understanding of the factors that may facilitate senior managers’ perceptions, OCBs and ultimately employee behaviour in public sector universities in ways that help in the optimization of organisational output and they provide insight in setting flexible working environments for both the employer and employee.

The results found a relationship between OCB as a dependent variable and demographic characteristics of employees as independent variables. The findings showed gender, education and grade of employees had an influence on civic virtue. This indicates that employees take an active part in organisational events, which Podsakoff et al. (2000) explains reflect an employee’s recognition of being part of the organisation. While it is important for organisations to be efficient and productive they must have loyal and efficient employees, attributes which are influenced by factors of OCB. This is supported by earlier research, which suggests that organisations not only need to be functional and productive but need to have loyal and efficient staff (Kashif et al., 2011). This means to become prominent and productive organisations should have a culture of cooperation and successful performance where employees feel more confident working beyond their formal job responsibilities and happily sacrifice their extra time and energy and actively participate in the organisational activities (Kashif et al., 2011).

Additionally the findings of the study are consistent with Payne and Webber (2006) who found that employee satisfaction is positively related to OCB, which leads to efficiency and productivity maximization. Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Mishra (2011) also found that OCBs have a positive relationship with performance and reward allocation. This suggests that understanding OCB and OCB-related activities among
employees is essential for managers in order to align employee needs with organisational needs.

Results of the study demonstrated that demographic characteristics of employees influence OCB. Findings revealed that gender, education and grade have an impact on sportsmanship. “Sportsmanship” describes employees’ tendency to ignore personal inconveniences and a tolerance for complaints and grievances towards managers at the workplace. It also describes the positive citizenship behaviour of employees towards each other, which has been shown to contribute to prosperity; even to the survival of the organisations, (Organ, 1988) especially considering the growing service imperative facing organisations (Schneider, 1990). Happy employees make happy customers which is the principle of OCB. This OCB principle applies to all organisations, even public sector universities in a developing country like Pakistan. It is therefore important to enhance managers’ perspectives in understanding the factors that facilitate OCBs, and as stated by Farrell and Oczkowski (2012, p. 365) “OCBs are difficult to imitate and thus can be a source of competitive advantage”.

The results of the study also demonstrated that independent variables such as gender, education, grade and length of service of employee have an influence on dependent variables such as courtesy. This infers that employees exhibit courteous attitudes and respect for each other at the workplace. Organ (1988) defined a courteous employee as one who often avoids conflicts and creating problems for colleagues, and these behaviours are helpful for managers from a crisis management perspective. The findings of this study reflect those reported by Snape and Redman (2010) who found that through OCBs employees’ sense of responsibility is enhanced, resulting in better
outcomes and encouraging employees to go the ‘extra mile’ to do the tasks. This means it is essential for management to take account of employee’s behaviour to establish a cordial and friendly environment while encouraging or motivating courteous behaviour which boosts teamwork and cooperation. However, Korkmaz and Arpaci (2009) argued that these behaviours cannot be strengthened directly and are special and extraordinary endeavours expected by the organisation for its success. This suggests that employee performance is associated with OCB’s various indicators and organisational effectiveness. An employee will perform OCBs in a positive working environment. This behaviour in turn helps organisations to evaluate more favourably an employee’s performance, overall job performance and promotability (Organ et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2009).

In summary, the present results should be seen as providing insight into the factor structure of OCB for authorities and employees in the public sector. It adds to the body of literature on employee perceptions of OCB by investigating administrative employees and reveals five factors with correlated variables. This proposes managerial familiarity with the behaviours exhibited within their organisations; provides a closer alignment between their expectations and the outcomes produced by employees as a result of the OCB. Authors such as, Haslam et al. (2009) and Edwards and Peccei (2010) argue that OCB encourages employees to be more productive, generates a feeling of trust and contentment and confidence to stay and work on behalf of the organisation. Therefore supervisor OCBs are important in promoting employee OCBs (Yaffe & Kark, 2011) and thus, OCBs are viewed as important elements to organisational performance.
Lastly, the analysis techniques employed in this study established that there is a positive and significant relationship between demographic variables and organisational citizenship behaviour. The findings provide significant support for the earlier studies of Vitell and Singhapakdi (2008) and Putman (2002) who identified that the higher the job satisfaction the better the performance at work. Job satisfaction incorporates a different type of satisfaction, such as satisfaction with rewards and promotions, satisfaction with supervisors and colleagues and with the work itself (Putman, 2002; Vitell & Singhapakdi, 2008) and is of vital importance as it affects the employee behaviour which conclusively affects performance of the organisation (Rowden, 2002).

Given the objective of this study the results contribute to strengthening the awareness of managers of the consequences of the factor structure of OCB. The results of the study provide insights for understanding OCB, in the sense that OCB increases both employer and employee productivity through improved coordination, strengthens organisational ability to hold competitive employees, encouraging flexibility with respect to environmental changes and enhancing performances (Moideenkutty, 2009). Managers in developing countries should consider OCB as a critical feature of management and as a predictor of work outcomes. Understanding OCB in public sector universities, and the factors that either directly or indirectly affect OCB helps to attract and retain employees (Chen et al., 2013). It also helps in extending employee cooperation towards the supervisors and organisation (Aryee et al., 2007) and makes employees more confident, helpful and trustful within the organisation (Aycan, 2001).
4.10 The Final Model Showing the Relationship Between The Four Constructs: Human Resource Management Practices, National Culture, Organisational Culture and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

SEM analysis was performed adopting a two-step approach as recommended by Gerbing and Anderson (1988). First, the measurement model was specified using the interrelationships between dependent and independent factors. Second, the structural model was specified to test the hypotheses. There are three main types of fit measures indices: (1) absolute fit indices, (2) incremental fit indices, and (3) parsimonious fit indices (Hair et al., 2010). The results for the fit measures are presented in Table 4.29.

In this study a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed to evaluate the distinctiveness of the measure. CFA was performed on the measurement model to investigate the latent structure of the factors, which were: human resource management practices (HRMP), national culture (NC), organisational culture (OC) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Data were processed and analysed via AMOS version 21. SEM with CFA was performed to evaluate the scale structure of the HRMP in the Pakistani context. These factors were measured using 36 items in total, derived from the EFA, in the first model (M1). Human resource management practice was measured with seventeen items code named as RM5, RM6, RM7, RM8, RM9, PP1, PP2, PP3, PP5, PP6, PP7, PP8, PA 2, PA3, PA7, PA8, and PA9; national culture consisted of five items code named as NC1, NC2, NC6, NC7, and NC8; ten items reflected the third construct which was organisational culture and code named as OC14, OC15, OC16, OC17, OC18, OC20, OC21, OC22, OC23, and OC 24; and the fourth construct of the study, organisational citizenship behaviour, was measured by four items code named as OCB21, OCB22, OCB23, and OCB24.
The measurement model was analysed using AMOS v.21 with maximum likelihood (ML) estimation technique. Table 4.29 provides the results of the CFA. The overall goodness of fit (GFI) statistics showed that the proposed four-factor model for HRM practices achieved a good model of fit after removing the items with the lowest coefficient values. The result revealed that in the first model (M₁): chi square statistics ($\chi^2 = 1456.142$, df=588) was significant at $p<0.0$. In addition, the other fit indices i.e. goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), comparative fit index (CFI), normed fit index (NFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were used to assess the goodness-of fit of the model and the statistical significance of the estimated parameters. These indices showed GFI=0.831, AGFI=0.809, CFI=0.87, NFI=0.8 and RMSEA=0.059 and indicated a need for further refinement of the model as these results showed poor fit to the data and were not within the recommended levels.

In order to find a better fit model, a detailed re-specification process was conducted to refine the model, and improve discriminant validity to obtain a better fit of the model. In doing so, the items with lowest significance values, which were five items in total i.e. RM6, RM8, PA2, PA7 and PA8, were dropped from the first model (M₁) and the measurement model was re-run and the second model was developed (M₂). CFA was re-run for assessing the (M₂) and the results of the revised model showed that the goodness of fit model was improved and indicated a better fit model (See Table 4.29). M₂ comprising 31 items in total, for which results revealed chi square statistics ($\chi^2 = 978.413$, df=428). In addition, the absolute fit measures i.e. GFI=0.87, RMSEA=0.055, the incremental fit measures i.e. CFI=0.90, NFI=0.846 and the parsimony fit measure i.e. AGFI=0.849 indicated a better fit.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness-of-fit results</th>
<th>$M_1$</th>
<th>$M_2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Absolute predictive fit</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$x$</td>
<td>1456.142</td>
<td>978.413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(p &lt;0.01)</td>
<td>(p &lt; 0.01)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of freedom (df)</td>
<td>588</td>
<td>428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Expected Cross-Validation index (ECVI)</em></td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Comparative fit</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFI</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>0.831</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGFI</td>
<td>0.809</td>
<td>0.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMR</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.055</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Structural parameter estimates i.e. β, Std. loadings and critical ratio (t values) of this study is shown in Table 4. The results showed that the second model (M2) achieved a perfect fit ($\chi^2 = 978.413, P= 0$), CFI=0.90, NFI=0.846, GFI=0.87, AGFI=0.849 and RMSEA=0.055. The results of the final structural model (M2) (Table 4.30 and Figure 4.1) revealed interesting findings showing that the reward management including two items (RM5 and RM7) depict a significant and positive relationship ($\gamma = 0.59, p < 0.01$), and ($\gamma = 0.56, p < 0.01$) between HRM1 respectively. Results also revealed a significant and positive relationship ($\gamma = 0.63, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.70, p < 0.01$) ($\gamma = 0.70, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.57, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.62, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.59, p < 0.01$) and ($\gamma = 0.55, p < 0.01$), between promotion practices (PPI, PP2, PP3, PP5, PP6, PP7, and PP8) and HRM1 respectively. The results also indicated a significant and positive relationship ($\gamma = 0.48, p < 0.01$) between performance appraisal (PA3) and HRM1.

The structural parameter estimations also indicated a significant and positive relationship ($\gamma = 0.69, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.71, p < 0.01$) ($\gamma = 0.71, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.83, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.78, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.75, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.81, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.71, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.75, p < 0.01$) and ($\gamma = 0.78, p < 0.01$), between organisational culture (OC14, OC15, OC16, OC17, OC18, OC20, OC21, OC22, OC23, and OC24) and OC1 respectively. The results of the final structural model (M2) also depict a significant and positive relationship ($\gamma = 0.58, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.66, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.73, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.80, p < 0.01$), and ($\gamma = 0.66, p < 0.01$) between national culture (NC1, NC2, NC6, NC7, and NC8) and NC1 respectively. The results also demonstrated a significant and positive relationship ($\gamma = 0.63, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.65, p < 0.01$), ($\gamma = 0.83, p < 0.01$), and ($\gamma = 0.76, p < 0.01$) between organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB21, OCB22, OCB23 and OCB24) and OCB1 respectively.

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Table 4.30 Structural Parameter Estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structural path</th>
<th>( \beta )</th>
<th>Std. loading</th>
<th>( t )-values</th>
<th>( \beta )</th>
<th>Std. loadings</th>
<th>( t )-values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → PA9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.524</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.484</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → PA3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.507</td>
<td>8.25***</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>7.59***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → PP8</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.555</td>
<td>8.69***</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>0.557</td>
<td>8.16***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → PP7</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.587</td>
<td>9.02***</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>0.598</td>
<td>8.51***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → PP6</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>9.30***</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td>8.68***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → PP5</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>0.576</td>
<td>8.93***</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>8.30***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → PP3</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.686</td>
<td>9.78***</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>9.16***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → PP2</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td>9.69***</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>0.702</td>
<td>9.10***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → PP1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td>9.19***</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td>8.69***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → RM9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td>8.19***</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.502</td>
<td>7.66***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → RM7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.563</td>
<td>8.69***</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.562</td>
<td>8.15***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM1 → RM5</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td>9.00***</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.591</td>
<td>8.43***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC1 → OC14</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.692</td>
<td>14.5***</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.692</td>
<td>14.99***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC1 → OC15</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.715</td>
<td>14.96***</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>15.59***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC1 → OC16</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>14.79***</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.711</td>
<td>15.46***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC1 → OC17</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.839</td>
<td>18.03***</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>18.85***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC1 → OC18</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>16.51***</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>17.36***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC1 → OC20</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.758</td>
<td>15.99***</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.758</td>
<td>16.59***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC1 → OC21</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.815</td>
<td>17.44***</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td>18.13***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC1 → OC22</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>15.14***</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>15.48***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC1 → OC23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td>16.73***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC1 → OC24</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>16.74***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC1 → NC8</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td>13.79***</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td>9.66***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC1 → NC7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.803</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.804</td>
<td>10.42***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC1 → NC6</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>14.82***</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>0.731</td>
<td>10.30***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC1 → NC2</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.663</td>
<td>11.84***</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td>10.82***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC1 → NC1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.587</td>
<td>10.42***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB1 → OCB21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB1 → OCB22</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>0.653</td>
<td>10.85***</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>0.654</td>
<td>10.86***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB1 → OCB23</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.837</td>
<td>12.18***</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>12.15***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OCB1 → OCB24</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.762</td>
<td>12.26***</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>12.24***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: Significant at: \( p<0.01*** \), \( \beta \) denotes standardized coefficients; items with lowest coefficient values - (\( M_1 \)): five lowest value items removed (PA2, PA7, PA8, RM6, RM8).
Figure 4.1 indicated that the three practices of human resource management (reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems) have a significant correlated relationship ($\gamma = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$) with the national culture of the country, and therefore, confirmed the hypothesis $H_1$ (i.e. human resource management practices are influenced by the national culture of the country). The result further displays the path diagram and the correlation between the two constructs organisational culture ($\gamma = 0.63$, $p < 0.01$) and organisational citizenship behaviour ($\gamma = 0.19$, $p < 0.05$), which confirmed hypotheses $H_2$ and $H_3$, that there is a positive relationship between human resource management practices and organisational culture and between human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviour. The path from national culture to organisational culture shows a significant correlation ($\gamma = 0.12$, $p < 0.05$), confirmed $H_4$, that there is a positive link between national culture and organisational culture. The results of the final structural model for the four constructs showed a positive and significant relationship ($\gamma = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$), between national culture and organisational citizenship behaviour thus providing a confirmation of $H_5$, that organisational citizenship behaviour is positively influenced by the national culture. However, results indicated that organisational culture had no significant and correlated relationship ($\gamma = 0.04$, $p < 0.064$), with the organisational citizenship behaviour which therefore rejects the hypothesis $H_6$, organisational citizenship behaviour is positively influenced by the organisational culture (see Figure 4.1).
Figure 4.1

Note: All Correlations are significant at (**p<0.01, ** p<0.05)

The Final Structural Model for the Four Constructs (HRMP= human resource management practice, NC= national culture, OC organisational culture and OCB organisational citizenship behaviour)

To further test the hypotheses hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. Table 4.31 shows the values yielded by step 2, HRMP was significantly, positively related to OCB ($\beta = .179, p< 0.01$), and NC was significantly, positively related to OCB ($\beta = .185, p< 0.01$). In step three the strength of the relationship between HRMP and OCB, and NC and OCB increased with the value of ($\beta = .213, p< 0.01$), and ($\beta = .212, p< 0.01$) respectively. These findings support H1 and H3. In addition, the interaction effects of HRMP, OC and NC ($\beta = -.137, p< 0.05$) were significant for OCB, thus supporting H4 and H6.
Table 4.31 Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Human Resource Management Practices, National Culture, Organisational Culture, and organisational Citizenship Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Models</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Step 1</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-0.038</td>
<td>-0.054</td>
<td>-0.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-0.077</td>
<td>-0.042</td>
<td>-0.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Service</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>-0.009</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Step 2</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.179***</td>
<td>0.213***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.185***</td>
<td>0.212***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OC</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>0.097</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Step 3</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP × NC</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.083</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP × OC</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRMP × OC × NC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.137**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change in $R^2$</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td>0.784</td>
<td>17.402</td>
<td>2.074</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: **$p<0.05$, ***$p<0.01$
4.12 Discussion on Final Model of the Study

The aim of this study was to empirically examine the potential relationships between four-constructs: human resource management practices (HRMP), including reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems, national culture (NC), organisational culture (OC), and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in public sector universities in Pakistan. For this reason, the structural model was used to evaluate the relationship among the study’s constructs. This study also aims to discuss the possible justifications for the significance and insignificance of the relationships proposed in the theoretical model (Figure 2.2 discussed in Chapter Two). More specifically, it examines the findings in relation to the extant literature, and the Pakistani context contributes to an understanding of how HRMP impacts on OCB through the influence of national and organisational culture.

A two-step approach was adopted in SEM: (1) the measurement model, using CFA method, was used in order to test and investigate the reliability and validity of the constructs of the study, and (2) the structural model was investigated using the path analysis technique for testing the hypothesized relationships between the constructs as proposed in the research model. The proposed research model was found to be valuable in explaining the human resource management practices and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour.

In the structural model a total of six hypotheses were proposed in order to understand the in-depth exploratory impact of each construct in relation to the study. Hypothesis (H7) was also derived from the overall model to investigate the relationship between human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviour. The
results revealed that six out of seven relations were significant and were supported, whilst one was unsupported.

In order to investigate human resource management (HRM) practices in the Pakistani context and to examine how HRM practices are influenced by the national culture (NC), organisational culture (OC), and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) within the public sector universities, SEM was used to investigate the relationship between HRMP and NC, OC, and OCB. In the course of analysis the following hypotheses are posited and tested:

**Hypothesis 1**
The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, & PAS) are positively influenced by the national culture.

**Hypothesis 2**
The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, & PAS) are positively influenced by the organisational culture.

**Hypothesis 3**
The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, & PAS) have positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.

**Hypothesis 4**
National culture has a positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.

**Hypothesis 5**
There is a positive relationship between national culture and organisational culture.
**Hypothesis 6**  
Organisational culture has a positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.

**Hypothesis 7**  
The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, & PAS) have positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour mediated by national culture and organisational culture.

As shown in Figure 4.1, the standardized regression weight is 0.48 and critical ratio or (t-values) 6.063 for HRMP and NC, suggesting statistical significance at the $p<.001$ value. The results confirmed and strongly supported $H_1$, and suggest that NC was an important component in HRM practices. These results indicate that the human resource management practices (reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems) are strongly influenced by the national culture of the country, implying that if these HR practices were designed in the context of national culture they would positively influence the perception of employees towards these HR practices in the public sector universities. Both developed and developing countries are affected by the economic slow-down and a number of challenges have emerged in response to the recent economic crises such as a high ratio of unemployment, price rises, more dismissal and downsizing of employees. The basic target of every organisation is to achieve better performance through efficient utilisation of resources (Kataria, Rastogi, & Garg, 2013). This requires emotional, cognitive, behavioural energies and coherence in working to achieve organisational objectives (Andrew & Sofian, 2011). According to Bakker et al. (2011) organisational performance and effectiveness is a function of the mutual efforts of committed and motivated employees who do things which enhance organisational effectiveness. More specifically, HRM deals with a number of activities
such as hiring of staff, remuneration and benefits policies and training of staff members. According to Wilson (1992) HR must be working in partnership with senior management to make sure people's needs are met by building trust and the psychological contract for better performances.

Universities are human capital intensive organisations and individuals are being considered an integral part of every organisation. Human resources have become the unique source of sustained competitive advantage for every organisation as they meet the criteria of being valuable, rare, unmatched and non-substitutable (Wright et al., 1994). The findings of this study are comparable with that of Tessema and Soeters (2006), Wright et al. (2003) and Park et al. (2003) in that there is a positive link between HR practices, the organisation and employees performance. The HRM practices in public sector universities in Pakistan are heavily influenced by the national culture of Pakistan. This suggests that “the idea of institutionalization may help in understanding the determinants of HRM practices” in the context of Pakistan (Bjorkman & Lu, 2001; Fenton-O'Creevy et al., 2008). Understanding organisational institutionalism is very important as it helps to clarify the institutional perspective about organisational behaviour (Najeeb, 2014). Analysing the behaviour of the organisation in relation to its procedural, historical and contextual aspects (Currie, 2009) of the national context is necessary.

The findings indicated that HR practices aligned with national culture will result in better performance, which is generally consistent with previous studies (Bjorkman, 2004; Budhwar & Sparrow, 2002; Laurent, 1986) identifying the influence of national culture on HRM practices and policies. Further the findings of this study are also
supported by Har et al. (2010), and Schuler (2000), who indicate effective strategies and operations are foundations for organisational success, of which HRM is a key requirement for developing, executing and sustaining such competitiveness. The significance of cultural differences at the national and regional level has also been recognized (Hofstede, 1980a). National factors such as economics, governance, financial, legal and trade unions together form the national business system and are the main sources of difference that underpin HRM (Hall & Soskice, 2001; Lane, 1995; Whitley, 1999). Therefore, the results from this study suggest that national culture played a significant role in the design and operation of HRM practices. This finding is in line with the earlier research of Gerhart (2009), Gupta and House (2004), Javidan et al. (2004), and Khilji (2003) emphasising ‘organisations mirror societies from which they originate’. HRM and culture both come from employees who have been influenced by events outside the organisation in their social settings. This suggests that HR experts and managers need to understand the cultural differences prior to implementing HRM practices and policies with respect to the developing countries’ culture (Papalexandris & Panayotopoulou, 2004).

Another finding from this study reveals that human resource management practices (reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems) are significantly and positively influenced by organisational culture. As presented in Figure 4.1, the standardized regression weight is 0.63 and critical ratio (t-values) 7.809 for HRMP and OC, suggesting statistically significance at the $p < .001$ value. The result confirmed and strongly supported H$_2$, and suggests that OC is an important component in HRM practices. These results indicate that human resource management practices including reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal
systems are strongly influenced by the organisational culture, implying that if these HR practices were aligned with the organisational culture it would positively influence the perception of employees towards these HR practices in the public sector universities. This means organisational rules, policies, and culture impact on HRM practices in public sector universities in Pakistan. Thus organisational culture can play a significant role in strengthening HRM practices and improving performance of the organisation. This finding is supported by Patel and Cardon (2010) Apospori et al. (2008), Bloom and Van Reenen (2007) and Williamson et al. (2002) who noted growing support for HRM as a unique source of competitive advantage, improving organisational performances and contributing to success through developing and delivering strategic roles, efficient services and facilitating organisational change. Hence, adopting HRM practices can be beneficial, operational and motivational to improve an organisation’s competitiveness, and attract more qualified employees that ultimately increase the productivity level of the organisation. Consequently their legitimacy is enhanced and therefore the adoption of HRM practices has positive effects and is of special interest to organisations (Patel & Cardon, 2010).

This study finds the existence of a significant and positive correlation between HRM and OCB. As presented in Figure 4.1, the standardized regression weight is 0.19 and critical ratio (t-values) 2.229 for HRMP and OCB, suggesting statistical significance at the $p< .05$ value. The results confirmed and strongly supported H3, and suggest that OCB was a major determinant of employee performances. These results indicate that the human resource management practices including reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems have a positive and significant influence on organisational citizenship behaviour. This implied that employees’
perceptions of HR practices are highly related to the organisational citizenship behaviour in public sector universities of Pakistan. HRM plays a crucial and dynamic role in developing OCBs and organisational performance. Guest and Peccei (2001) and Patterson et al. (1997) indicate that employee commitment and satisfaction are associated with higher workplace performance and that HRM has an effect on employees' attitudes and behaviour and therefore employee performance. Employee work and life satisfaction is therefore a result of the relationship between HRM practices and policies and work environment, which if well designed and implemented can enhance performance (Guest, 2002). However, Zaleska and De Menezes (2007) noted in their study that understanding the changing needs of their employees and the environment in order to support, guide and motivate them is quite challenging for the organisations. Thus, a collaborative effort in career related HRM practices benefits both employees and organisations (Tan, 2008). HRM practices linked to career developments increase employee organisational commitment by establishing a psychological contract between an organisation and its employees (Sturges et al., 2005).

With regard to how OCBs are influenced by the national culture in Pakistani universities, this study finds that national culture is an important determinant and plays a major role in organisational citizenship behaviour. As presented in Figure 4.1, the standardized regression weight is 0.24 and critical ratio (t-values) 3.47 for NC and OCB, suggesting statistical significance at the \( p < .001 \) value. The results confirmed and strongly supported \( H_4 \), and suggest that NC was a major determinant of employee OCBs. These results indicate that the national culture has a positive and significant influence on organisational citizenship behaviour. This implied that within the national culture, employees with higher levels of OCBs were likely to perform better in public sector
universities of Pakistan. Providing employees with HR practices that align with national culture results in more positive OCBs within the organisation. This finding is consistent with other researcher’s studies (Leat & El-Kot, 2007; Lippert & Swiercz, 2005; Rosenzweig & Nohria, 1994) where it was noted that in the knowledge economy, human resources are the most crucial asset of the organisation. The success of organisations relies mainly on the performance of their human resources. HRM is the area of management most subject to national differences. Therefore understanding national context is very important, particularly the socio cultural context, economic and legal elements and the political environment. In order to understand and to explain HRM practices and policies, the main focus has been on aspects of national contexts. The implementation of HRM practices within any country is both historically and socially embedded therefore HRM practices are context specific. Further, Sonnenberg et al. (2011) stated that each HRM practice can be important for elevated performance if the HRM system is focused on a specific combination of practices. Organisations that focus and commit to HRM practices are thus paying attention to, and investing in their human capital (Boselie et al., 2005). The aggregate level of OCBs demonstrated by the employees will have a positive effect on the quality of service that the organisation delivers (Morrison, 1996).

Furthermore, this study found that national culture has a positive influence on organisational culture. As presented in Figure 4.1, the standardized regression weight is 0.12 and critical ratio (t-values) 2.254 for NC and OC, suggesting statistical significance at the p< .05 value. The results confirmed and strongly supported H5, and suggest that NC was a major determinant of OC. These results indicate that the national culture has a positive and significant influence on organisational culture. This implies that national
culture influences the organisational culture of public sector universities of Pakistan. This finding is consistent with the findings of Bjorkman (2004) who found that national cultural influences HRM practices and the cultural dimensions of Hofstede can be used to illustrate how HRM practices may differ across national borders. The majority of HRM practices and policies are culturally linked (Sparrow & Wu, 1998). However Budhwar (2000) further explains that HRM practices are context specific, thus, the national HRM practices are determined by both ‘culture free’ and ‘culture bound’ factors. Hence, HRM practices in any country are heavily influenced by both the cultural and institutional arrangements. This indicates considerable attention should be given to understanding the influence of national culture on work-related attitudes and organisations (Tayeb, 1998). The findings of the current study are consistent with many other research studies such as Briscoe et al. (2009), Stone and Stone-Romero (2008), Tayeb (2005), Aycan (2005), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2004), Li and Karakowsky (2001), Schneider (1992) Laurent (1986), Hofstede (1980a). HRM practices including recruitment and selection, compensation, performance appraisal, training and development, job description and employment security appear to be vulnerable to cultural differences, which may have significant implications for their design and suitability. According to Hofstede (2001) organisational culture is constrained by the national culture, which is a reflection of the values, norms and beliefs of the local population. Hofstede’s argument is supported by Johns (2006) who argued that national culture is a ‘contextual imperative’ which constrains the organisational culture. Therefore, different national cultural values can influence leadership styles, organisational culture and how HRM practices and policies are implemented within the public sector universities of Pakistan (Rhodes et al., 2008). This indicates that
successful HRM practices may not be easily transplanted without taking culture into consideration.

Finally, the results of testing the correlation between organisational culture (OC) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) reveal an unexpected finding. As presented in Figure 4.1, the standardized regression weight is 0.04 and critical ratio (t-values) 0.465 for OC and OCB, suggesting that this path was not statistically significant. The results for this path showed that hypothesis H₆ was not supported, indicating that OC does not influence OCB. This implies that organisational culture was unlikely to be related to OCB in public sector universities of Pakistan. This finding is inconsistent with the previous studies of Wan (2011), Kashif et al. (2011), Shweta and Jha (2012) and Organ (1988) who found that organisations depend upon OCBs and successful OCBs improve organisational performance and lead to greater job satisfaction and succession management. The OCB phenomenon is important for developing a culture of cooperation and successful performance of organisations. Further, in this regard Payne and Webber (2006) found that employee satisfaction is positively related to OCB, which leads to efficiency and productivity maximization. However, the findings of the current study show that in these universities, there is no perceived relationship between OC and OCB in the workplace.

In the scenario of Pakistan national culture influences the organisational culture of public sector universities. This reflects that organisational practices and policies are culturally bound and constrained by the national culture as argued by the Hofstede (2011). For example in many developing countries such as Pakistan high power distance characteristics, harmony and bureaucratic styles of work prevail in social and work
settings (Rhodes et al., 2008). Thus, the political involvement and cultural elements such as obedience (yes boss culture) and Islamic work ethics on organisational outcomes such as, work behaviour, interaction and communication in the workplace is influenced by NC. Pakistan scored high on ‘Power Distance’ and is highly influenced by the Islamic perspectives; therefore, OC is based on these strong elements which are constrained by NC. For example national culture discourages disagreement with senior management.

Apart from the cross-cultural differences at a national level, diversities within intra-culture (within the same nation but in different group or organisation) are also identified (Hofstede 1994). Pakistan is highly influenced by the religion Islam (98% population) and high on ‘power distance’ where employee are reluctant to express disagreement with their seniors (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005). Therefore certain elements of the NC have a stronger influence on the individual than elements of the OC which has resulted in an organisational culture of public sector universities which is very bureaucratic with no significant impact on OCB.

Lastly, with regard to how HRMP (reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal system) influence OCB mediated by national culture and organisational culture. The results confirmed and strongly supported $H_7$, and suggested that HRMP plays a crucial role in enhancing OCBs, implying that HRMP perceptions are highly relevant to OCB in the context of Pakistani universities.
Table 4.32 Summary of Results of the Hypotheses Tested

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_a</strong> The factor structure of reward management are optimal predictors.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_b</strong> The factor structure of promotion practices are optimal predictors.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_c</strong> The factor structure of performance appraisal are optimal predictors.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_d</strong> The factor structure of national culture are optimal predictors.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_e</strong> The factor structure of organisational culture are optimal predictors.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_f</strong> The factor structure of organisational citizenship behaviour are optimal predictors.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_1</strong> The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, &amp; PAS) are positively influenced by the national culture.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_2</strong> The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, &amp; PAS) are positively influenced by the organisational culture.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_3</strong> The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, &amp; PAS) have positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_4</strong> National culture has a positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_5</strong> There is a positive relationship between national culture and organisational culture.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_6</strong> Organisational culture has a positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour.</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>H_7</strong> The human resource management practices (RMS, PP, &amp; PAS) have an influence on organisational citizenship behavior mediated by national culture and organisational culture.</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The aim in using a mixed method approach was to complement and support the survey findings and to provide a better understanding of the perceptions of two distinct groups of employees (1) administrative employees (2) management/authority of university. The survey questionnaires were administered among the different levels of administrative employees and the interviews were conducted with the senior management of the university. The main reason for conducting interviews was to collect data from senior management within the university. This was considered more appropriate methodology. The interviews allowed for the eliciting of more in-depth insights into human resource management practices and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour in public sector universities from management’s perspective. Both sets of data (quantitative and qualitative) were subsequently triangulated with the relevant past literature.

4.13 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to discuss the key findings of the research study and provided an examination of the statistical techniques used in analysing the data. First, the chapter established the reliability, validity, analysis and discussion of each construct separately. Second, the chapter presented the analysis and the results of hypotheses testing. Finally, this chapter presented the model proposed in this study that helped to explain the overall relationships among the predictor variables and the outcome variable i.e. organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), the dependent variable.

In addition, a review of the literature in Pakistan shows that developing countries employees have completely different values from Western employees. Thus, Western HRM paradigms are less relevant to Asian countries because of their divergent context.
Transferring HRM practices and policies from developed nations to developing nations requires an understanding of culture-sensitive practices and societal culture characteristics. Therefore, it is advisable for HR experts and managers to understand the cultural differences prior to implementing HRM practices and policies with respect to the developing countries’ culture (Papalexandris & Panayotopoulou, 2004). Noteworthy advances have been made in the past few decades with regard to HRM which has focused on developed countries (Aycan et al., 2007; Jackson & Schuler, 1999; Legge, 1995). This needs to be extended to developing countries and be tested for the generalisability of theories and practices, as most originated in a developed countries context. There is a need to identify suitable strategies in relation to the different contexts (Ali, 1992; Aycan et al., 2007; Napier & Vu, 1998; Robertson et al., 2002).

This study supported a best fit structural model which included interrelationships between four constructs, namely human resource management practice (reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems), national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour. In terms of contribution to human resource management, this study has enhanced the body of knowledge in relation to HRMP in developing countries. It has provided empirical evidence of HRMP in public sector universities and has investigated the impact on OCB, and has contributed to the under researched area of HRM in a developing country, namely Pakistan. In summary, this study has significantly contributed to management research by providing empirical findings on human resource management practices and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour and informs managers of the need
to adopt appropriate HRMP for their organisations and context. Suitable HRMP will improve performance and increase levels of OCBs among employees.
Chapter Five
Qualitative Analysis, Results and Discussion

5.1 Chapter Overview
This chapter begins with a detailed introduction to the nature of qualitative research and context of the interviews. This chapter outlines the general perception of human resource management practices in public sector universities and three specific human resources management practices: reward management system, promotion practices and performance appraisal system. The chapter also includes discussion of the two mediating variables - national culture and organisational culture, and discusses the outcome variable - organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). The use of triangulation to confirm and verify findings is examined, followed by the overall chapter conclusion.

5.2 Nature of Qualitative Research
According to Patton (1990, p. 10) there are three kinds of data collection using qualitative methods; (1) in-depth, open-ended interviews; (2) direct observation; and (3) written documents. Data obtained from interviews consists of experiences, opinions, feelings and knowledge of people (Patton, 1990). Qualitative findings can be presented alone and in combination with quantitative data. Validity and reliability of qualitative data rely on the methodological skill, sensitivity and integrity of the researcher because in qualitative research the researcher is the instrument for data collection (Ehigie & Ehigie, 2005; Grindsted, 2005; Patton, 1990). The collection of useful and credible qualitative data requires discipline, knowledge, creativity, training, practice and hard work (Patton, 1990). To judge accomplishments and effectiveness the researcher must
engage in evaluative research and employ qualitative methods to evaluate the information (Patton, 1990).

Patton (1990) compares qualitative and quantitative measures arguing that quantitative measures are concise, parsimonious, systematic and standardized and easily analysed. On the other hand, qualitative data is detailed, less concise, variable in content and difficult to analyse due to its being neither systematic or consisting of standardized responses; yet it provides an opportunity to understand participants on their own terms and captures their point of view using open ended responses (Hennink et al., 2011; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Qualitative research allows the researcher to study selected issues in depth and with openness, and to gather detailed information. On the other hand quantitative research requires standardized measures to fit varying perspectives and experiences of people into a limited number of predetermined response categories (Patton, 1990). Qualitative data makes quantitative findings clearer and more powerful (Sackett & Larson, 1990). According to Ehigie and Ehigie (2005) the researcher as an explorer needs to decide on the use of either qualitative or quantitative methods for his/her research investigation. Rogelberg and Brooks-Laber (2002) point out the focus should be on research findings rather than on methodology.

According to Muchinsky (2003) in the qualitative research method the researchers take an active role in interacting with the participants. Qualitative research produces results of research with verbal summaries and no statistical analysis (Zechmeister, Zechmeister, & Shaughnessy, 2006), whereas, quantitative methods produce findings in numbers, flow diagrams and narrative descriptions relying on tests, rating scales questionnaires and physiological measures (Landy & Conte, 2004; Stone-Romero, 2002; Strauss &
Corbin, 1990). Qualitative research involves discussions about people’s life experiences and their events (Beins, 2012; Hennink et al., 2011) and can be used for generating hypotheses and theories (Spector, 2006).

According to Taylor and Bogdan (1998) qualitative research had its beginning in the interdisciplinary approach in the early 1970s and continues to be embraced by many people (Camic, Rhodes, & Yardley, 2003). Qualitative research is widely used in the literature (e.g. Landy & Conte, 2004; McBride & Schostak, 2004; Muchinsky, 2006; Seale, 1999; Spector, 2006). Lee, Mitchell, and Sablynski (1999) provide evidence that the use of qualitative research is growing in organisational management research because the researcher wants additional methods for better understanding of the field. Qualitative research is used to investigate unconscious and subconscious intents of employees in organisations. It works like a story completion, the respondent is given some words or pictures then is asked to complete in his /her own words (Ehigie & Ehigie, 2005).

The use of qualitative research methods in organisational research includes observation, ethnography, interviews, focus group discussions, and projective techniques (Ehigie & Ehigie, 2005). Taylor and Bogdan (1998) considered this as being flexible and dynamic.

5.3 Interviews

Interviews are one of the most popular techniques used for generating information (Atkinson & Silverman, 1997; Brenner, 1981; Briggs, 1986; DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Madill, 2007). The interview itself constitutes an interaction between the interviewer and the informants (Grindsted, 2005). Qualitative interviewing is
designed to find out what is on someone’s mind and interviewing starts with the assumption that the others perspective is meaningful (Patton, 1990; Ramirez-Rubio et al., 2013). There are three approaches for qualitative interviewing: informal conversation, the general interview guide, and the standardized open-ended interview. A standardized interview minimizes variation in the questions posed to interviewees, reduces the possibility of bias occurring within different interviews and helps to obtain systematic and thorough data from each respondent (Patton, 1990).

There is no one best, right, or correct format appropriate to all situations and no single way of wording will always work effectively. The interviewee and the interviewer’s personal style all come together to reach or obtain effective information. Interviewing people can be invigorating as it provides the possibility to reach inside another individual’s world for a short period of time (Patton, 1990). Joppe (2004) distinguished two primary focuses of interviews (1) life history or sociological autobiography; (2) in-depth interviews focused on learning about experiences and activities of the respondent, which are employed in job analysis to enrich job information in order to produce detailed and accurate job descriptions (Levine, Ash, & Bennet, 1980).

According to Marshall and Rossman (2010) as an interviewer, the first thing one needs to consider is whether the interview is to be conducted with an individual or with a group (also known as focus groups). Individual interviews provide detailed information, including the meaning of an event and social context of each participant and are appropriate when the data is subjected to statistical analysis. To ensure the independence of respondents, it is essential to conduct individual interviews, (Marshall & Rossman, 2010).
Kvale (1996, p. 3) offers two metaphors for an interviewer: (1) the interviewer “seeks nuggets of essential meaning”; (2) the interviewer engages in therapeutic exchange with the interviewee, while creating a new experience. An interviewer should know what he/she is asking about and the reason for asking to clarify the meanings relevant to the research (Kvale, 1996).

5.4 Human Resource Management Practices

As noted in earlier discussion, HRM is an evolving function in many developing countries and has not yet received full acceptance. In view of this it was necessary to seek background information on how senior administrative staff within the selected universities perceived HRM and its role. To build a picture of the context within which HRM is currently unfolding six questions were asked that sought clarification of the perceived role of HRM, the current state of HRM usage, and the perceived understanding of HRM by staff within the institution.

5.4.1 Role of Human Resource Management

Initial questions therefore sought to establish the extent to which the respondent understood the role of HRM within their organisation, and whether or not their understanding differed from the currently accepted view, in response to the following question.
Q: How would you define the role of human resource management?

All respondents expressed the view that the role of HRM as a separate section had never been recognised before, but recently it has been realised that HRM has a very important role in the management of employees including their appointment, training, promotion, maintenance of personal records and meeting immediate organisational needs. This is reflected in the following comments:

Interviewee 1

“Conventionally in our system it has never been recognised that there should be HRM as a different entity in any organisation, but now, for [the] last couple of decades its been important and its felt.”

Interviewee 2

“Unfortunately, we [are] in the developing country, where the HRM as an individual sector, is not yet recognised; in many sectors though its importance is recognized.”

5.4.2 Current Human Resource Management Usage

Q: Have you already implemented human resource management practices in this university?

Q: When did the university introduce human resource management practices?
Q: How do you perceive the impact of human resource management practices on employee performance?

This group of questions sought to establish the extent to which HRM practices were currently implemented, when these HRM practices were introduced and the perceived impact of HRM practices within the institutes. In response to the questions regarding implementation of the human resource management practices and the current usage of HRM practices within public sector universities, most respondents estimated that 70% to 80% of HRM practices have been implemented in their university. The principal HRM practice utilised was recruitment of employees through formal testing and interviews. This view is reflected in the following selected quotes:

Interviewee 1

“...conventionally we have never been able to implement HRM as in a formal way, but yes the basics of HRM, the way we recruit, the way we advertise then interviews, then the trainings. [It] may not be in the complete shape of HRM, what the international bodies recognise, but yes to seventy percent extent in Pakistan we do adopt”.

Interviewee 3

“...not 100% but to the extent of 80%, the practices start with the induction of manpower as a part because that is the first step”.
Interviewee 8

“...the recruitment is first, then, there start the transparent scrutiny of the candidate through interview of high standard”.

Regarding the introduction of HRM practices within universities, the interviewees indicated that approximately 10% of practices had been adopted with the establishment of the organisation. But most of the existing HRM practices have been adopted over the last 10 to 13 years. Their views are reflected in the following quotes:

Interviewee 1

“Officially I cannot say when, but I think for about [the] last twelve years. We are trying to follow, not [a] formal, but [an] informal path of human resource management”.

Interviewee 2

“...I believe right from the beginning advertising [and] short listing was there but job description maybe introduced from the year 2000 and onwards from the last twelve years”.

Interviewee 7

“I can recall that in [the] late 80’s we framed the statutes, recruitment laws and training system for such purpose”.
When, the information was sought on perception of the impact of HRM practices on employee performance, there was agreement that HRM practices had had positive impacts on employees’ performance.

Interviewee 2

“...Well, they understand, but when it comes to the implementation they really do not agree because they know at the end of the day they have to perform. So people who have good understanding, good knowledge, good background, they are very much promoting that these HRM practices should be implemented in letter and spirit”.

5.4.3 Understanding of Staff

Q: How well do the employees understand the human resource management practices?

The respondents believed that the employees knew the role of HRM in their organisation but they all agreed that implementation of HRM practices was poor and employees often pretend ignorance which is reflected in the following comments:

Interviewee 4

“...I will say we disseminate all information. All policies for their reading and understanding, so far if I put on scale of 5, I would say three and half”.
Interviewee 6

“...Well, the employees are being made to understand through internal memos and notifications that what is the job of HR, how do they behave in the HR and what are the expectations from this”.

It was agreed by all respondents that HRM has a very important and vital role in every organisation. HRM develop manpower, provide training and makes transparent selection of employees. HRM helps in promotions and further prospective and proceedings. Most of the interviewees held the opinion that HRM as an individual sector is not yet recognised in developing countries though its importance is recognised. Due to the limited resources and some other constraints such as political interference and low interest of funding authorities, most of the HRM activities are carried out but looked after by the registrar section. However, respondents understood that effective implementation of HRM practices increased performance of employees and employee efficiency is correlated to best HRM practices. Ultimately HRM practices help in achieving organisational goals.

As a summary of this section, a question was asked, “is there any change which you want to see in the HRM within your university”? Out of eight respondents five discussed it generally and did not identify any change, however three respondents’ offered differing views which are reflected below:

Interviewee 1

“...it’s not necessary that international human resource management laws be taken up for adoption; it is always
good that there should be a blend of national cultural values in the techniques of human resource management”.

Interviewee 2

“Well, I wish there is some legislation which makes implementation of HRM possible because without strong governmental support and legislation we will not be able to implement true HRM”.

Interviewee 3

“I would like to recommend to strengthen the department of HRM at larger level, and people should be sent, those who are working there at-least, within the country for higher trainings and refresher courses”.

Based on the information collected through interviews, it can be summarised that the role of HRM has recently been recognised in public sector universities of Pakistan. Thus, at this stage the focus has primarily been on the appointment, training, promotions and maintaining employee personal records. As HRM, is not fully enforced in these universities most of the job coordination is done by following certain rules and regulations under instruction from senior staff. Although it was understood and realised by the university officials that HRM has a positive impact on employee performance the implementation of HRM practices is noticeably slow. When asked to rank the current implementation of the HRM practices on a scale of 1 to 5 with 1 being disagree and 5 agree most respondents indicated a level of HRM practices usage of between 3 and 4. These views are supported with Tessema and Soeters (2006) and Huselid (1995), who argue that HRM incorporates a range of people management practices including
recruitment and selection, placement, training, reward management, employee performance appraisal, promotion, grievance procedure, pension/social security, job design, information sharing and attitude assessment. All these practices have a significant impact on employee performance (Tessema & Soeters, 2006) while providing direction for employees and organisations simultaneously (Fombrun et al., 1984; Har et al., 2010; Mondy & Noe, 1993). In the past few decades, the field of HRM has made significant advances, although, the focus of the research has only been on developed countries (Aycan et al., 2007; Legge, 1995; Schuler & Jackson, 2005). Plenty of HRM research is available in developed countries but a lack of research regarding HRM practices is seen in developing countries (Qadeer et al., 2011). Research related to HRM practices in higher education in Pakistan is at an early stage and therefore slow integration and development of HRM practices is found (Qadeer et al., 2011).

Analysis of information gathered through interviews with university officials shows that these universities had adopted similar HR practices such as recruitment through formal procedures. The remainder of the interviews focused on three specific HR practices: reward management system, promotion practices, performance appraisal system, two mediating components-national culture and organisational culture and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. Each component was addressed separately with the interviewees, and responses from each component will be presented in the following sections.
5.5 Reward Management System

The link between reward management and employee performance is well recognised (Perkins & Vartiainen, 2010). The ways in which rewards were used within these institutions was explored by seeking views in relation to two questions. Public sector universities in Pakistan follow fixed rules and regulations designed by federal government for reward management, for example salaries, pays and annual increments. However, some universities have started to reward employees for better performance, long hours worked and performing well in the various management activities. Depending on the performance, different rewards are awarded including financial (i.e. quarter pay or half pay bonus), morale (i.e. a certificate from officials or verbal appreciation among peers and co-workers) and recommendations for promotion through good annual confidential reports (ACRs). The focus of these questions probed two underlying aspects of the reward management system—the communication of expected standards and acknowledgment of service.

Q: Does management consistently tell employees about the standard used to evaluate job performance?

Q: Does this university noticeably celebrate excellent services?

A question was asked to check the consistency and procedure for improving performance. The response was positive and most of the respondents agreed that bosses do inform their employees about the standards of performance required on the job and they also help them to improve by conducting seminars, workshops, meetings and providing training. This is reflected in the following comments:
Interviewee 2

“...Yes, because I believe that motivation and follow up is the key to bring changes. So if we are continuously talking about such things then ultimately we will be able to implement it”.

Interviewee 6

“...Yes, employees are aware of that there are certain standards on which they will be assessed”.

But one of the interviewees held a contradictory view stating that:

Interviewee 5

“...It’s actually difficult for the vice chancellor to convey this. It should be each boss, but that practice is negligible. They do not do that. It’s like you rub my back, I will rub your back and that’s very bad”.

A follow up question seeking an indication of how the university demonstrated their appreciation of service provided was asked. Most of the respondents contended that excellent services were generally rewarded with financial benefits, consideration for promotion and the awarding of certificates of recognition.

Interviewee 2

“Yes, in the last five to six years we have started this. Like teaching faculty who perform very well, they have been
awarded with best teacher award by higher education commission and if they publish in very good journals [the] university reward[s] them with some financial incentives. So yes, reward management is actually motivate[ing] people to perform well and the benefit of this reward management to our university is that our ranking… improved research output is increased. Well, in the administration, in-fact I was the one who started by giving half basic pay, quarter pay or full basic pay depending on the performance in the various management activities and that help[ed] us in bringing good positive changes. I remember that in early time of my registrar people were not very keen to participate but once we started this half basic pay, quarter pay or full basic pay people started taking interest and they perform well”.

Interviewee 6

“Oh yes, there is the best teacher award, best employee award, so we do give them the annual awards”.

However, two of the respondents were of the opinion that current reward systems lacked recognition of employee performance as reflected in the following comments:

Interviewee 1

“...Unfortunately we don’t...Not to that extent, but if someone has done [a] good job maybe a call from the vice
chancellor or may be a simple pat [on the back], otherwise we do not celebrate excellent services”.

Interviewee 7

“Excellent services of the employees, yes. Actually in a way we categorise that someone has excellent service by putting up the number of years in the service or for the professors or publishing certain number of papers that is the criterion to evaluate. So we give excellence to the experienced and number of publications. But for example in the establishment division for administration employees, we have the experience, the number of days, number of years which he has put [in] and then the ACRs, Annual Confidential Reports, and truly speaking they do not reflect the performance, so in a way, we are rewarding but not rewarding properly”.

The analyses suggest that in these universities the reward management system exists although in some institutes the reward system only prevails at face value and is not practiced in letter and spirit. The practice and implementation of rewarding employees for outstanding services is not regular, and nor is there any consistent communication to enhance performance in these institutions.

It was suggested by the officials that rewarding employees helps in bringing good positive changes. Employees perform well and take interest in management activities more rigorously which ultimately help in achieving organisational objectives. This is
supported in the literature by Husin et al. (2012) who refer to rewards as all compensations and incentives provided to employees by the organisation for their contribution: mental, physical, morale and regulatory. Reward is a central element in the relationship between the employee and employer, it is important that the employee’s perceptions of different rewards are understood (Chiang, 2005), and that organisations offer well defined tangible value (e.g. pay and bonus). The employee must know which tasks to perform and the rewards they will receive in return; resulting in more effective employee performance and organisational goal achievement. Porter and Lawler (1968) concur that demonstrating a strong and visible link between performance and reward, and if employees believe their performance will be rewarded they strive to achieve a particular level of performance.

5.6 Promotion Practices

Promotion is widely accepted as a practice which provides reward, and increases motivation, job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Valverde et al., 2007). The use of formal promotion practices to improve employee performance was explored through four questions focused on the themes of opportunity, clarity of requirements, fairness of procedures and use as a reward.

5.6.1 Promotion Opportunities

Q: Does this university provide clear and consistent requirements for promotion?

Responses identified that two types of promotions were used by the university, (1) Faculty Promotions (Teachers), and (2) Non Teaching (Administration). For faculty
promotion the university follows higher education commission (HEC) rules/directions and for administrative staff universities have a 60-40 recruitment policy (60% through advertisement and 40% through seniority based internal promotions); although the percentage breakdown did vary slightly. This was reflected by the following comment:

Interviewee 8

“…we have quota 50% against the promotion and 50% vacancies for new appointments... The vacancies are advertised through newspapers and other media resources”.

5.6.2 Clarity of Requirements

Q: Is the University fair and equitable in its treatment of management towards employees with regard to the promotions?

In response to this question all respondents expressed their views that most of the promotions are fair, and promotion depends on the availability or vacancy of seats in the university. In the public sector universities, employees cannot be promoted without a vacant post and budget being available. However one of the respondents indicated unfair, biased and influenced promotion. His statement is follows:

Interviewee 5

“...Yes, we literally follow the rule and we see the justice has been made. However, sometimes there is a chance of favouritism influenced by the lobbies, such as strong unions. [Where] humanly possible merit is maintained but being
human we are motivated and do some favours to run the university”.

5.6.3 Fairness of Promotion

Q: Does the university provide opportunities for career development and support ongoing professional development?

A follow up question was asked to identify the system in place for improving employees’ skills. Most respondents agreed that the university provided opportunities for career development and supported ongoing professional development through training, workshops and seminars. In contrast, one of the interviewees identified that opportunities for career development and professional development are focused on academia rather than administrative employees. Meaning that at this institution, negligible opportunities for career development and professional development are provided to administrative employees. Some of the views are given below:

Interviewee 1

“We have got [a] continuing education department, which not only relates to the technical but to the nontechnical as well”.

Interviewee 3

“Yes, we normally conduct workshops, seminars for the improvement of the faculty and for the improvement of our administrative staff”.

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Interviewee 4

“Again I would say not very impressive for the employees working in administration”.

5.6.4 Promotion as Reward

Q: Does the university reward excellent performance services through the promotion system?

A question was asked to determine whether good performance is rewarded with promotion in the public sector university. All respondents agreed that the university does not directly promote employees on the basis of performance, but encourages employees to apply for higher grade jobs. Good performances are recorded in the annual confidential reports (ACRs) of employees and they are recommended for promotion when the promotion committees meet.

Interviewee 1

“This is a public sector university so promotion comes up with availability of seats, but some employee may work hard he/she will be considered for promotion for the particular post for which he/she has applied”.

Interviewee 7

“In [this] university rewards… not really…. but, that need[s] to be targeted”.
In this section it has been identified that public sector universities follow two main promotion practices; (1) seniority based promotions, these are made through promotion committees to promote internal employees. That is employees who are experienced within the university become eligible, based on their performance, relevant qualification and attitude and behaviour towards their job which is reflected in the annual confidential reports (ACRs) and a recommendation for promotion form is completed by the immediate boss. They are then considered for promotion, and (2) advertisement, the universities advertise the vacant positions, and both internal employees and external candidates can apply through prescribed criteria of eligibility. The analyses identify that organisations use promotions to give incentives to valuable employees in return for their hard work, and at the same time to fill higher level positions (Deborah et al., 1990). Promotions reduce turnover and increase employees’ loyalty to the organisation (Go & Kleiner, 2001). Therefore, officials of the organisation expect that promotions bring an opportunity for improvement in organisational output. Employees are expected to produce while learning about the new job. As a result, promotion should improve organisational efficiencies (Go & Kleiner, 2001). Tessema and Soeters (2006) argue that there is a positive correlation between promotion practices and perceived employee performance in that performance was shown to improve when staff felt that this would most likely lead to promotion.

The analyses showed that some interviewees recognised the importance of justice in promotion. Park et al. (2003) support this view arguing that practices such as merit promotion can lead to higher performance in an organisation. However, they also mentioned chances of favouritism, liking and disliking element and influence of pressure groups, lobbies and unions. This is supported in the literature, as although
organisations are spending a large amount attempting to comply with fair employment laws, many managers face a dilemma in promotion decisions. Organisations continue to have problems with employees who perceive unfair treatment in promotion practices (Go & Kleiner, 2001; Lemons & Jones, 2001).

5.7 Performance Appraisal System

The next component included in the interview agenda was performance appraisal. The questions were designed to identify the system of evaluation of employee performance used in public sector universities. The questions were related to the themes of appraisal’s purpose, appraisals for work-related goals, appraisal based career paths and performance aspects.

5.7.1 Purpose of Appraisal

Q: What is the main purpose of the appraisal system in this university?

The first question sought to identify the focus of the performance appraisal systems. The respondents explained that it is used to evaluate an individual’s performance throughout the year, with the immediate boss assessing the performance of an employee against a prescribed criterion set by the university. Some of the interviewee views are reflected below:

Interviewee 1

“In this university the annual confidential reports (ACR) is to understand the performance of an employee”.
Interviewee 3

“It is [a] record [of] a person who is working in any position, how we measure his capabilities, how we measure his working strength so that is the criteria, that is the measure tool, under which you can measure a person that how much he earns during the year.”

Interviewee 4

“The main purpose of the appraisals is to evaluation an individual to know their yearly progress and performance”.

5.7.2 Appraisals for Work-Related Goals

Q: Does the appraisal system assist employees in setting work-related goals?

The second question was asked to determine if appraisals support the identification of work-related goals. The responses were divided: 50% agreed that it does. However, 50% of respondents stated that the appraisal system did not assist employees in setting work-related goals because of the favouritism and deliberate lack of understanding in completion of appraisals. Some of the views are as follows:

Interviewee 1

“Basically in this university the annual confidential reports (ACR) is to understand the performance of an employee in any section and it’s not more than that...”.
Interviewee 2

“...To tell you the truth I am not satisfied with the appraisal system right from the beginning. Yes, we get appraisal each year and special appraisal in the middle of the year if we need. But then the appraisal which we receive sometimes is not very realistic, and sometimes it’s very realistic, but we are not in [a] position to implement it because of the pressure groups”.

One of the interviewees seemed adamant while responding to this question and stated:

Interviewee 7

“... it doesn’t, it doesn’t, it doesn’t”.

5.7.3 Appraisals Based Career Paths

Q: Is the performance appraisal conducted to identify employee career paths within the university?

The link between performance appraisals and careers was explored through asking the above question. The responses were mixed, some of the respondents strongly agreed that performance appraisal identifies employee career paths, but some of the respondents didn’t agree. Their views are reflected as follows:
Interviewee 4

“...It is very much true in our university. Employee career path is designed on the basis of appraisal system”.

Interviewee 7

“Those who are filling it in written, they do not put it in the right justification like everybody gets the excellent. So the conduct of performance appraisal is perfect, but its implementation maybe not in true aspect”.

Interviewee 5

“Annual confidential report (ACR) is not a true reflection of merit and bosses with whom employee works becomes very chummy, because do not want to spoil the friendly relationship and favouritism occur from both sides and results are not justice, so the ACR doesn’t reflect the actual position”.

Interviewee 2

“Well, I really don’t think that its helping us, but indirectly section head feel that this employee is performing very well and he is an asset then he gives special recommendations, then we try to move that person on right path but routine appraisal does not help us”.

5.7.4 Performance Aspects

Q: Do you believe the various aspects of performance on which an employee is assessed are appropriate?

A follow up question sought to know whether the interviewee thought the pro-forma, pattern or procedure used for evaluation of performance was suitable to them, or they see any inappropriateness and suggest any change in the pro-forma. Most of the respondents held the opinion that small changes in the appraisal pro-forma would make it more effective. Their views are reflected below:

Interviewee 1

“For this environment, at this stage, for public sector universities this pro-forma is fine. It needs some tuning, but at this stage it is fine”.

Interviewee 2

“The criteria are good but you see implementation which is making things shaky, I mean the appraisal process is okay, the parameters are okay but when [you] get the desired appraisal and then you cannot actually implement it because of one reason or other then the whole process becomes questionable”.

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Interviewee 8

“Yes, I mean from eighty to ninety percent I am satisfied with the course set by the organisation with regard to the performance appraisal system pro-forma”.

The analyses on performance appraisal revealed that public sector universities understand the purpose of performance appraisal in their universities. Officials enforce the regularity of this practice and conduct special appraisal if required. This supported the views of Mehta (2014), who argues that assessing of employee performance is essential for evaluation and development of staff to ensure they are effective and efficient in their job roles, as appraised and rewarded employees perform better than other employees. The importance of the performance appraisal process in creating motivation and desire to perform better cannot be denied (Chahal & Mehta, 2010). However, the analyses found a gap in public sector universities regarding the effective utilisation of performance appraisals. Although this practice is conducted regularly, a very low implementation was found in terms of its outcomes such as setting work-related goals, improving job design, allocating job roles and identifying deficiencies.

Only a few criteria of performance appraisals are considered at face value such as the psychological impression given to employees that their performance is being noticed by their immediate boss each year. It is used as a tool to control the employee who is not performing well and given a warning to improve his/ her performance. However the literature claims that performance appraisal is a system which helps to identify deficiencies and provides motivation to employees (Jabeen, 2011; Khan et al., 2014; Mundhra & Jacob 2011). Appraisal is an evaluating tool which helps organisations to
assess individuals with respect to their job requirements, setting job standards and providing feedback to the employee (Khan et al., 2014; Mundhra & Jacob 2011), which is not found in these public sector universities. Apart from the lack of ability for performance appraisal to aid in setting work related goals as discussed above, some other observations were also made by the respondents i.e. pressure groups that included unions, lobbies, political interference and favouritism in rating performance. These issues were identified as hindrances to the full implementation of performance appraisal systems: from paper to practice in these public sector universities.

5.8 National Culture

National culture is believed to underpin all aspects of management and HRM. The extent to which this is considered true was examined by asking questions focused on three themes, significant historical figures, important historical events and cultural attributes.

5.8.1 Significant Historical Figures

Q: Do you believe that important people from the country’s past are admired by people today?

The question elicited strong agreement from all respondents who indicated that important people from their history are always remembered, and celebrations and anniversaries are held to pay tribute to them. Some of their views are as follows:
Interviewee 1

“They are remembered in their quotations”.

Interviewee 2

“We do not forget our former leaders. We respect our ambassadors and think-tanks”.

Interviewee 4

“Nationally, we remember our past people and we celebrate national heroes and their services”.

5.8.2 Important Historical Events

Q: In your opinion, what is Pakistan’s strength with regard to the importance of its historical events?

Likewise, respondent views about the country’s strength showed a high level of patriotism reflected in the comments below:

Interviewee 1

“Pakistan is more towards collectivism and Pakistani culture more tends on femininity nature, in femininity culture, motherhood culture come to take everybody on board their history, their present and their future. We praise our history and on the basis of that history we try to progress”.
Interviewee 8

“I think the undoubting commitment of the people with the democracy and rule of law”.

5.8.3 Cultural Attributes

Q: What are the defining cultural attributes of a Pakistani that other people do not possess?

In an effort to identify the characteristics of the people the respondents were asked about the cultural characteristics of an individual. The general response was that Pakistani people are loyal, faithful, courageous, loving and hospitable. The respondent views are as follows:

Interviewee 1

“Pakistani are good at collectivism, high uncertainty but they love to work of their own ethnic group, own caste or maybe own sect”.

Interviewee 2

“We are loyal, we are faithful, and we are obedient, because that is the eastern culture. We pay lot of respects to our elders our teachers, we take care of our youngsters’ and that is our strength”.

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Interviewee 4

“Pakistani are very courageous people, they stand for in very difficult circumstances, they are innovative, they can adapt they have very good rooms for other countries; they survive with dignity even in a difficult times”.

As a summary it is seen that although Pakistan is a young country, 68 years old, the people admire and remember their regional and national heroes through celebrating their achievement. On the basis of its history they are trying to progress. They believed that Pakistani people possess unique traits such as loyalty, faithfulness, courageousness, loving and hospitable approach. This is supported by McGaughey and De Cieri (1999) who state that although social and economic similarities are growing between nations, there still remain significant differences among nations. These are largely derived from their parochial values and the fact that individuals maintain diverse, culturally based values. They also mentioned that every country has a different national culture and Pakistani are good at collectivism, high uncertainty and they love to work with their own tribe, own caste or maybe own sect. This is supported in the literature by Muduli (2011) who says national culture has increasingly become a key construct. It refers to the set of shared norms and beliefs amongst individuals within nationalized boundaries that are local to a specific area, as and noted by Hofstede (1980a) all national cultures are different, influencing managerial values and beliefs. Due to varied national cultures, management practices need to be diverse. Hofstede (1980a), Jackson (2002), Laurent (1983), and Trompenaars (1993), further assert in their research that each society is different and that these differences can be noted in the organisational practices and distinctive management styles exhibited. Organisations are influenced by their particular
cultural environment, with most HRM practices being based on cultural beliefs that reflect the basic assumptions and values of the national culture and the expectations and needs of the organisation, its culture and its employees (Myloni et al., 2004).

5.9 Organisational Culture

The other mediating component included in the interview agenda was organisational culture. To examine the culture within the university opinions were sought on themes such as organisation as a special place, attributes of the organisational leader, management style and organisational spirit.

5.9.1 Organisation as a Special Place

Q: Do you believe that the organisation is a very special place?

The responses were positive and they believed that people see the university as a special place. They share their time and expertise to support the university. A few reflections are given below:

Interviewee 1

“People here love to work in groups, whatever the reflection of national culture it is available in the organizational culture”.

Interviewee 2

“One of most important features of this university is that most of the people feel that they [are] part of this bigger family”.

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Interviewee 4

“This place works like a cordial environment: a friendly place”.

5.9.2 Attributes of Organisational Leader

Q: Are the leaders of this organisation considered to be mentors, facilitators and parent figures?

The responses were positive and they believed that this was true in their university. Their views are reflected as below:

Interviewee 1

“...We take our bosses and match them as the head of the family of our own”.

Interviewee 6

“...All three qualities are present in our leaders”.
5.9.3 Management Style

Q: How would you define the management style in this university?

The respondents stated that although public sector universities are governed by the federal government, a participatory management and consensus building style prevails within the university. Some of the views are as follows:

Interviewee 2

“...I think most of the time it is a consensus building style, where we take into confidence all the stakeholders, all the end users, all the people who are involved. Team on board we have like [a] top management committee, then, we have [an] administrative committee, then, we try to take on board as many people as possible. In my personal view, I believe in bottom to top approach, instead of top to bottom approach”.

Interviewee 3

“...Its management style is appreciated, especially the discipline. Law and order is the main key of any organisation.”

Interviewee 4

“Participatory way of management at all levels”.
5.9.4 Organisational Spirit

Q: What spirit holds the university together?

Finally, respondents were asked to identify the bonding elements and characteristics that exist in the university, which help the smooth functioning of the university. Some of the respondents’ views are reflected as below:

Interviewee 1

“The spirit of mutual respect through the university bound us all working with the enthusiasm”.

Interviewee 2

“Pride and affiliation with this university and being part of this bigger family. I think the ranking of this university; these are things making us together”.

Interviewee 3

“...Welfare of its employees, especially students and their parents, so this keeps us going”.

Interviewee 4

“The sense of ownership and teamwork production”.

Interviewee 8

“I think the observance of code and dutifulness”.

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The analyses shows that employees working within public sector universities are very committed and they feel part of the bigger family. They prefer to work in teams and groups. They are found to be more inclined towards collectivism. According to Hofstede (1998) organisational cultures differ more in their practices and become a visible part of culture which can be changed within cultural boundaries. The core of organisational culture is in the practices shared by its employees. It was revealed that generally, the leaders are considered as mentors, facilitators, and parent figures, and a cordial and friendly environment prevails. This is supported with Rhodes et al. (2008), arguing that in developing nations harmony is highly valued in social and work relationships and more effort is taken to avoid open conflicts than in developed nations. It is summarized that public sector employees tend to follow rules and regulations in letter and spirit and are inclined to the observance of code and dutifulness. This is supported by Chan et al. (2004), who suggest that organisational culture greatly influences the way HR policies and practices are implemented. For example bureaucratic cultures discourage employee initiative and employees are asked to follow desired rules and regulations with little or no room for innovation or risk taking. Generally in Asian firms, particularly public sector work, with an autocratic leadership style and high power distance characteristics, rewarding innovation is hard because of little empowerment and a bureaucratic environment (Prabhu, 2005).

5.10 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) has been identified as a necessary factor for improved organisational performance and success. Respondent views were sought on OCB within the university and its impact on performance. Interviewees were asked
questions focused on the themes of OCB within organisations, OCB impact on performance and relationship between HRM and OCB.

5.10.1 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour within Organisation

Q: How do you see organisational citizenship behaviour within your university?

The respondents agreed that OCB was an attitude or behaviour that included respect, loyalty and commitment to the organisation which is reflected in their comments below:

Interviewee 1

“Within their own parameters they perform well, they respect well”.

Interviewee 2

“Well, mostly people working in this university belong to rural culture where the general attitudes of people are to pay respect, remember the past, so these attributes are there”.

Interviewee 3

“I think as such we have positive approach from our employees and it’s vice versa”.

Interviewee 4

“I think I already said that sense of ownership makes a bond between employee and organisation. If good HRM is in place at some stage all employees start feeling that the
organisation is like their home, they will work here, will be retired from here, feel like lasting stakeholders and keep on contributing”.

Interviewee 8

“I think it’s a chain for example the behaviour of top management to the employees and employees behaviour to the organisation and towards society is comparatively that gives edge for further growth”.

5.10.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Impact on Performance

Q: What is the impact of organisational citizenship behaviour on performance?

This question found that the overall response from the respondents was positive and they considered that OCB has a positive impact on employee performance. One of the respondents view is as follow:

Interviewee 1

“...that people love to work within their understanding of people and they give very good results”.
5.10.3 Relationship between Human Resource Management and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Q: Do you see any relationship between human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviour?

Opinion and views on this question showed all respondents believed that there is a positive and strong relationship between HRM practices and OCB. They are very much interrelated.

Interviewee 2

“...Yes, they are very much interrelated because HR basically, by default is human skills which are built in human when they are brought in the organisation through various HRM practices, then you have to move those attributes and behaviour in such a way that they can deliver good performance for the organisation”.

Interviewee 4

“Very strong relationship between HRM and OCB”.

Interviewee 2

“Off course, when if we experience HRM system as a whole, which we are not experiencing, and offcourse it impacts the society, civil society, to the region we definitely make”.
In summary it is seen that employee’s behaviour towards job role is positive and they are willing to work, and are found to be obedient. In literature, increased interest has been seen in the relationship between HRM and organisational performance (Appelbaum & Kamal, 2000; Boxall & Macky, 2009) and attention has focused on the importance of knowing the mechanisms through which HRM influences organisational performance (Delery, 1998; Paauwe & Boselie, 2005; Wright, Gardner, Moynihan, & Allen, 2005), which is reflected in the interest and importance shown in OCB.

The respondents suggested that every organisation should establish an HRM department, it has many advantages if they want to improve their manpower and at every stage of its development. Guest and Peccei (2001) and Patterson et al. (1997) indicate that employee commitment and satisfaction are associated with higher workplace performance and that HRM has an effect on employees' attitudes and behaviour.

One of the respondents stated that research on HRM practices to examine its impact on OCB is needed in public sector universities because dealing with behaviour is something which has to be discovered through research. Although, a few researchers had examined HRM mostly from the perspective of very high status organisations where HRM practices are fully operational. Research in public sector universities of developing nations may provide a true picture regarding the role, policies and practices of HRM which may help in enhancing output and achieving organisational success. A range of policies and practices associated with work and life satisfaction for employees and higher performance for the organisation can therefore be implemented more effectively (Guest, 2002). Further, the aggregate level of OCB demonstrated by the employees will have a positive effect on the level of quality of service that the...
organisation delivers (Morrison, 1996). Organ and Ryan (1995) noted that primarily research on OCB focuses on the motivating impact of employee level variables for example attitudes, perceptions and personal dispositions. Those provide guidance to the organisations to encourage OCB to improve services (Morrison, 1996).

5.11 Discussion

There was evidence in these public sector universities of some HR practices, where employees were managed according to policies, with regard to recruitment and selection procedure, financial policies and personnel performance records and training. The HR practices and policies in use were inherited from the higher education commission (federal government) and have remained unchanged since the establishment of the university. However, it can be seen that all HRM practices were not actually being used. Increased exposure to competition among universities at national and international level highlighted the need for the introduction of an independent HRM system.

The universities placed a priority on ensuring that academic/ faculty members were provided training courses and workshops. The universities had generous study leave and financial reimbursement for faculty who elected to attain higher education such as PhDs whereas, more restricted facilities were available to personnel from administration. The teachers received the most training, but employees working in administration were provided with fewer developmental programmes because of the inadequacy of plans. There are also limited financial rewards for administrative employees. Performance appraisal systems they had in place were not as effective as they would have been if a reward was available. There were no significant actions for HRM that provided
evidence of a change to HRM from paper to practice, due to the lack of resources and insufficient support from the government.

It was the perspective of the senior officials that achieving university goals for creating fully functional HRM is a need of the time and requires rigorous government action. It is not possible for the public sector universities to tailor HR practices in letter and spirit, because of the wide range of different political pressures that had to be responded to. The management of universities had explained the HR practices and procedures needed for the universities, considering the national and organisational culture and its goals, in order to pursue best HR practices in the provision of effective services. To link HR practices to university strategy needs HRM fully in place to align employees and the managing of all regulatory issues with national cultural norms and values.

Many organisations consider performance measurement as a method for making decisions for promoting employees to higher level jobs. Promotions were subject to a vacancy and budget availability in the public sector universities. Similarly, promotion consisted of two stages; utilisation of performance appraisals for promoting employees based on seniority and providing opportunities for existing employees to apply for a vacant position. However, there was evidence of some political pressures and managerial favouritism in the implementation of performance appraisal for employee promotions. This uncertainty sometimes lead to resistance and substantially hindered adoption of promotion practices on merit. It could be more effectively controlled by internal forces before its consequences (budget cuts, political interference and lobbies involvement). The public sector universities also need to provide people-centred
practices for promoting employees’, job satisfaction, motivation, performance and organizational citizenship behaviours.

The country is very young and the people of Pakistan possess an enthusiasm and patriotic approach in celebrating their historical event and heroes. Both the national culture and the organisational culture are deeply embedded in the employees of these universities. They carry out their values, norms and traditions at the workplace in a way that seniors are respected and obliged for their orders obeyed. A caring culture is common in these universities because they believe that the organisations, where they are working are like a home place. Therefore they are very respectful with a sense of belonging towards the organisation and seniors and caring to the new comers. Generally, employees are found to be loyal to the affiliated organisations because they think it is the source of their bread and butter and being comforted by a religious element that God (Allah) is always watchful of their duties even if the boss is away. The feeling of God fearing makes them a faithful and a devoted employee. Overall the employees were found to be helpful to each other because of the inbuilt cultural values and norms. The employees behaviour is three tiered, first respectful to elders and seniors, second helping co-workers and colleague and third welcoming to the newcomer. Since these universities are governed by the federal government the high officials are nominated and appointed by the government, so employees are not involved in any decision making process, but simply follow instructions of their supervisors. A summary of the questions and themes raised during the interviews can be found in Table 5.1.

In conclusion, a need for independent, fully functional and operational HRM was realised and identified to reduce the gap in public sector universities regarding the
effective utilisation of HRM practices. Effective HRM practices would only be possible if political interference is replaced with the monitoring element. The government, as the funding agency, should only monitor the policies and progress of these institutes rather than intrude into the system. Reward management systems could be re-designed i.e. performance based rewards so that the employees should not be taken for granted that in public sector universities hiring is easier but firing of less productive employee is very difficult. Similarly, promotions should be given on performance merit rather than on seniority or on the basis of annual confidential reports (ACR) which are biased by favouritism. The ACRs should be objective to communicate the deficiencies of employees and he/she should be provided with training for improvement. The role of the ACRs should be developmental, setting work related goals and identify career paths to improve productivity among employees.

To develop the area of HRM, it is necessary to understand HRM in the context of public sector universities. This should reflected the interest and importance shown to the organisational citizenship behaviour of employees who are influence by the national culture of the country and organisational culture of the universities, for better performance and desired outcomes.
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<td></td>
<td>Q: How do you perceive the impact of human resource management practices on employee performance?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding of Staff</td>
<td>Q: How well do the employees understand the human resource management practices?</td>
<td>Respondents believed that the employees knew the role of human resource management practices in their organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reward Management System</strong></td>
<td>Reward Management</td>
<td>Q: Does management consistently tell employees about the standard used to evaluate job performance?</td>
<td>Most of the respondents agreed that management do inform their employees about the standards of performance required and excellent services were rewarded with financial benefits, promotions and awarding of certificates of recognition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Q: Does this university noticeably celebrate excellent services?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Promotion Practices</strong></td>
<td>Promotion Opportunity</td>
<td>Q: Does this university provide clear and consistent requirements for promotion?</td>
<td>Respondents identified that 60% promotion opportunities based on advertisement and 40% through seniority based internal promotions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clarity of Requirements</td>
<td>Q: Is the university fair and equitable in its treatment of management towards employees with regard to the promotions?</td>
<td>Respondents expressed that promotion depends on the availability or vacancy of seats in the public sector universities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fairness of Promotion</td>
<td>Q: Does the university provide opportunities for career development and support ongoing professional development?</td>
<td>Most respondents agreed that the university provided opportunities for career development and support professional development through training, workshops and seminars.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructs</td>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>Key Findings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Promotion as Reward</strong></td>
<td>Q: Does the university reward excellent performance services through the promotion system?</td>
<td>All respondents agreed that good performances are recorded in the annual confidential reports (ACRs) of employees and recommendations are given to the university promotion committees for promotion.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Performance Appraisal System</strong></td>
<td>Purpose of Appraisal</td>
<td>Q: What is the main purpose of the appraisal system in this university?</td>
<td>Respondents explained that appraisal is used to evaluate an employee performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appraisals for Work-Related Goals</td>
<td>Q: Does the appraisal system assist employees in setting work-related goals?</td>
<td>Responses were divided, 50% agreed that appraisal system assist employees in setting work-related goals and 50% respondents stated that it does not.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appraisal Based Career Paths</td>
<td>Q: Is the performance appraisal conducted to identify employee career paths within the university?</td>
<td>The responses were mixed, some of the respondents agreed that performance appraisal identifies employee career path. However some of the respondents stated that it does not.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance Aspects</td>
<td>Q: Do you believe the various aspects of performance on which an employee are assessed are appropriate?</td>
<td>Most of the respondent held the opinion that minor changes in the performance appraisal pro-forma would make it more effective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>National Culture</strong></td>
<td>Significant Historical Figures</td>
<td>Q: Do you believe that the important people from the country’s past are admired by people today?</td>
<td>Responses elicited strong agreement from all respondents that important people from their history are admired by people of today.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Important Historical Events</td>
<td>Q: In your opinion what is Pakistan’s strength with regard to the importance of its historical events?</td>
<td>Respondents stated that a high level of patriotism is Pakistan’s strength.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cultural Attributes</td>
<td>Q: What are the defining cultural attributes of a Pakistani that other people do not possess?</td>
<td>The general response was that Pakistani people are loyal, faithful, courageous, loving and hospitable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cont:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Key Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational Culture</strong></td>
<td>Organisation as a special place</td>
<td>Q: do you believe that the organisation is a very special place?</td>
<td>Respondents believed that university is a special place where they share their time and expertise to support the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attributes of Organisational Leaders</td>
<td>Q: Are the leaders of this organisation considered to be mentors, facilitators and parent figures?</td>
<td>Responses were positive and they stated that in their university leaders are mentors, facilitators and parent figures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management Style</td>
<td>Q: How would you define the management style in this university?</td>
<td>Respondent stated that a participatory management and consensus building style prevails within the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational Spirit</td>
<td>Q: What spirit holds the university together?</td>
<td>Respondents expressed that spirit of mutual respect, sense of ownership, welfare of employees and the observance of code and dutifulness are the bonding elements that exist in the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisational Citizenship Behaviour</strong></td>
<td>Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Within Organisation</td>
<td>Q: How do you see organisational citizenship behaviour within your university?</td>
<td>Respondents agreed that organisational citizenship behaviour was an attitude or behaviour that included respect loyalty and commitment to the organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Impact on performance</td>
<td>Q: What is the impact of organisational citizenship behaviour on performance?</td>
<td>Respondents considered that organisational citizenship behaviour has a positive impact on employee performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationship between Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Human Resource Management</td>
<td>Q: Do you see any relationship between human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviour?</td>
<td>Respondents believed a positive and strong relationship between human resource management practices and organisational citizenship behaviour.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.12 Triangulation Analysis

Using different qualitative modes and statistical tests to analyse the data helps in identifying related data patterns and verify their findings (Kimchi, Polivka, & Stevenson, 1991). Triangulation provided a logical balance to identify and delineate the possible impact of human resource management practices in public sector universities in Pakistan. Triangulation thus facilitated a more complete understanding of the current research phenomenon.

5.12.1 Quantitative Stage

In the quantitative stage, a survey of five public sector Pakistani universities with 515 questionnaires was conducted out of which 420 completed questionnaires were used for the analysis. Details of the sampling are presented in Chapter 3, section (3.4.1.5).

Through the analysis of quantitative data, it was found that human resource management practices (reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems) are impacting on organisational citizenship behaviour in Pakistani universities. The findings of the quantitative analysis asserted that national culture and organisational culture tends to be significantly associated with the functional and competitive dimensions of human resource management practices. It was found that human resource management practices are influenced by both the national culture of the country (Pakistan) as well as by the local organisational culture of the institutes. Thus the declared objectives of this research were achieved, within the phenomenon of human resource management practices and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour in public sector universities of Pakistan. The current study set out to meet the research objectives presented in (Chapter 1). This study performed structural equation
modelling to examine hypothesised relationships between the constructs of the study. Detail discussion on the quantitative data is presented in (Chapter 4 section 4.10.1).

5.12.2 Qualitative Stage

In the qualitative stage, semi-structured interviews of five public sector Pakistani universities’ officials were undertaken; with 25-30 questions being asked in each interview. Details of the participants are presented in (Chapter 3, section 3.4.2.4).

Through the analysis of qualitative data, it was found that a less stringent use of human resource management practices (HRMP) was observed in Pakistani public sector universities, as these universities are governed by the federal government and are following given rules and regulations. The findings of the research through qualitative analysis revealed the need for independent, fully functional and competitive HRMPs in public sector universities. In doing so, government support and interest is highlighted as a fundamental step in establishing HRMPs whilst considering national and organisational cultures as a developing country (Pakistan). The findings of the research through qualitative analysis verified that the national culture and organisational culture are deeply rooted in the individuals of these universities. Therefore careful consideration of culture(s) is required in designing HRMPs in public sector universities of Pakistan. Through the analysis of qualitative data it was revealed that understanding of HRMPs and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour in the context of Pakistani universities is important for better outcomes. Thus the analysis of qualitative data provided confirmatory information about existing HRMP in these institutes and identified factors to enhance performance to meet the international standards. Hence declared research questions were achieved, within the phenomenon of human resource
management practices and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour in public sector universities of Pakistan. The current study set out to meet the research questions presented in (Chapter 1). Detail discussion on the qualitative data is presented in (Chapter 5 section 5.11).

5.13 Conclusion

In order to determine the perception of human resource management practices (HRMP): reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems in public sector universities, this study adopted the quantitative and qualitative (mixed) approach, as it was consistent with the objectives of the study (see Chapter 3).

In addition, a qualitative approach using semi-structured interviews was employed to collect the data. This method was used because it was designed to deal more directly with the respondents’ (interviewee: officials of the universities) opinions, thoughts, and feelings especially when collecting information regarding HRMP and their impact on organisational citizenship behaviour within the influence of national and organisational culture. Moreover, this chapter provided a more accurate means of evaluating and confirming information about the data collected through questionnaires and enabled the researcher to draw conclusions about generalising the findings of this study using triangulation.
Chapter Six
Conclusion, Limitations and Future Directions

6.1 Chapter Overview
To achieve the aims and objectives of the current study a review of literature was undertaken, followed by the methodology and research design using both a quantitative and qualitative (mixed) approach. An examination of the model, analysis, findings and a discussion of the results which emerged is presented. This is followed by the contributions of the research findings, limitations, delimitations and future directions for the research. Finally, the last section presents the final conclusions.

6.2 Contribution to Theory and Practice
This section outlines the theoretical and practical contributions of the four constructs from the current study: Human resource management practices (reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems), national culture (NC), organisational culture (OC), and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

The findings highlight the importance of different HRM practices and their relationship to OCB. The relationship between the four constructs under investigation were found to support the results of earlier studies by Stumpf et al. (2013) Schöttner and Thiele (2010) Tessema and Soeters (2006) Wright et al. (2003) and Park et al. (2003) which demonstrate a link between HR practices, the employee and organisational performance. Although these have largely focused on a single construct.
To provide insight into how HR practices, as a group of practices, impact on OCB the constructs of reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems were combined as one multi-dimensional construct, ‘HRMP’, to allow for model testing using structural equation modelling and hierarchical regression analysis.

6.2.1 Contribution for Human Resource Management Practices

6.2.1.1 Contributions to Theory: Human Resource Management Practices

This study was grounded in institutional theory, drawing upon the assumption that there are three types of ‘isomorphism’ that underpin institutional theory i.e. coercive, mimetic and normative (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Institutional theory has been adopted to examine the influence of HRM practices and provide the theoretical background for the study as the management of employees takes place within an institutional environment which impacts upon practices that can be used through the constraints associated with rules, regulations and accepted procedures. Based on this premise a number of theoretical contributions emerged.

The primary contribution was the examination of the relationship between HRMP and OCB in a specific cultural context. This has numerous implications for institutional theory, (Boselie, 2010) demonstrating that HRMP needs to be adaptive and consistent with the institutional environments (Boselie, 2010). Institutional theory suggests that organisations with the same environment become isomorphic and gradually adopt the same characteristics through three different forms of isomorphism i.e. coercive, mimetic and normative (Kostova & Roth, 2002). This can be seen in the universities, where
HRM systems can be influenced by unions and government policies and certain practices such as rewards and promotions practices that are coercively enforced. Individual behaviours also need to be consistent with the dominant practices in the specific national context (Brewster, Wood, & Brooks, 2008).

This research also identified important factors in the relationship between HRMP, NC, OC and OCB. The inclusive model developed draws attention to the need for HR practices to recognise the influence of NC and OC, and ensure that HR practices are designed to suit the socially constructed organisations (Najeeb, 2014). This is important when designing HR practices as the processes and practices adopted and used by organisations are not only reflections of the institutional environment but also of the “established and culturally sanctioned actions, patterns and expectations” of the context in which they operate (Lee, 2011, p. 65). This reflects and supports the views of Brewster et al. (2008) that institutional environments are reflections of organisational processes. Pakistani culture leans towards collectivism and femininity and these cultural dimensions are reflected in the employee behaviours in the practice of performance appraisal systems. For example, it was revealed by senior administrators that the outcomes of the appraisals are rarely communicated to the employees to avoid conflicting situations.

This study extends research on OC by testing how OC affects the relationship between HRMP and OCB. The result was surprising, indicating that OC is significantly associated with HRMP, but is not linked with OCB within the Pakistani context. The earlier studies by Aycan et al. (2007); Moorman and Blakely (1995); Ueda (2011) found societies that are low in ‘institutional collectivism’, such as Pakistan, will display less
OCB than high ‘institutional collectivism’ societies. From the perspective of institutional theory organisations embed themselves in the environment in which they operate using coercive, mimetic and normative forces (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Scott, 2007; Wang, Tseng, & Yen, 2014).

A related finding of the study established a strong relationship between NC and OC. Within the Pakistani context, NC has a significant influence on the establishment and adherence to organisational rules and regulations. This finding is supported by Kattman (2014) who found that NC influences organisations, in adopting, developing and embracing universal work practices because beliefs, norms and values play an important role in determining the characteristics of a specific culture.

Prior work has focused on measuring HRMP individually, but has overlooked the relationship between HRMP, NC, OC and OCB and demographic variables. Whilst research into human resource management practices in a number of different cultural settings has increased in recent years (Al Ariss & Dessler, 2012; Anakwe, 2002; Kipkebut, 2010; Obeidat, 2012) the link between HRMP and OCB has not yet been explored. Conducting the research in a specific cross-cultural setting, has not only revealed the importance of this relationship, but has contributed significantly to revealing how HR practices are viewed within Pakistani organisations, particularly universities. Exploring the views of employees has revealed the impact of current HRMP and the influence of demographic and organisational variables on perceptions of HRMP, which assisted in developing a theoretical framework for enhancing employee performance.
Summing up, this research has added to the emergent organisational behaviour (OB) literature on HRMP, NC, OC and OCB, particularly in Pakistan, through examining the viability of the model, in explaining behaviour in a specific cultural context. The current research illustrates that the institutional environment is legitimised and recognised through HRM practices.

6.2.1.2 Contributions to Practice: Human Resource Management Practices

The study makes a number of practical contributions through analyses of HRMP and their relationship to NC, OC, and OCB, which will benefit HR managers, scholars and university management through the alignment of HRMP, NC, OC, and OCB with institutionalisation of rules, regulations and disciplines.

Understanding the impact of HRMP and their relationship to NC, OC, and OCB assists in developing HRM systems that provide better employee performance and enhance organisational performance. Given the large investment in human capital, understanding these perceptions is useful as organisations can prioritise the use of their resources more effectively. In addition, NC and OC were found to exert a significant influence on HRMP. In order to improve perceptions of HRMP, universities could organise workshops, seminars and training programs to educate employees about potential advantages of applying HRMP. This would help to build employee confidence and trust in the HRMP. In addition, public sector universities could develop HRMP to suit NC and OC resulting in improved OCBs.

Recently the Pakistani government has taken initiatives to reform higher education and has implemented a number of programmes relating to staff development (Higher
However, some universities in Pakistan continue to work without proper utilisation and implementation of HRMP due to their institutional set up. Rules and regulations are still driven by the federal government although these universities are considered autonomous bodies. The implication is that HR managers should pay particular attention not only to build more effective HRM systems that reward, motivate, encourage improved performance, and attract and retain quality staff, but also align work values and HRMP with national and organisational orientations. This will help to match employee expectations and perceptions of HRMP within institutional environments.

The model indicated that the HRMP scale is valuable for examining HRMP and appears to be congruent with data in the context of Pakistan. The structural model indices indicated an acceptable level of compatibility and showed robust interrelationships between the variables of the study. The results also demonstrated that demographic and organisational variables have an affect on HRMP. Regardless of demographic characteristics, the importance of cultural dimensions which are heterogeneous across and between nations must be considered in relation to distinct groups and institutional characteristics. Through this examination previously overlooked issues have been identified and will assist in addressing challenges faced in designing effective HRM systems.

Managers and policy makers should carefully consider the requirements and values of HRMP and ensure that HRM systems effectively meet the norms and values of both national and organisational culture. They should develop, implement and institutionalise HRM systems whilst considering the alignment between HRMP and the employee’s needs which will ultimately increase the employee OCBs and performance in the organisation.
6.2.2 Contribution for National Culture

6.2.2.1 Contributions to Theory: National Culture

As revealed by the results of previous studies such as Leat and El-Kot (2007), Muduli (2011) and Hofstede (1980c), who considered the importance of NC and its influence on HR practices, policies and employee performance, examination of NC in this context revealed the significance of employee perceptions of HRM practices in Pakistan. Certain variables such as cultural norms and values were found to be more prominent in explaining employees’ perception of HRMP. This reflects institutional theory which suggests that organisations need to conform to the formal rules, regulations and unwritten norms of specific institutional contexts in order to be more efficient and legitimate (Kostova & Roth, 2002); and these will be influenced by national culture.

National and organisational cultures were examined to explore the relationship between HRMP and cultural dimensions in the Pakistani institutional context. Every organisation operates in its institutional environment where they impart their own beliefs and norms, which reflect the prevailing values of the community and employees. The preference for financial benefits illustrates the importance of establishing HRM systems in accordance with cultural perceptions related to ‘isomorphism’ (observance of rules and regulations).

This study advances understanding of NC by empirical exploration of the role that NC plays in the design, use and perceptions of HRM practices which is further strengthened by consideration of demographic variables that have not previously been considered. This concurs with the literature which emphasises the need to review HRMP (e.g. Becton et al., 2008; Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Sylvia, 2014).
Interestingly, the results showed a clear link between NC and OCB, indicating that OCBs differ across the employees of different nationalities. Changes in the organisational activities are not accepted by all organisational members with limited or non acceptance of some HRM practices. An association between NC and OCBs, can be enhanced through cultural dimensions such as ‘institutional collectivism’ which is relevant to specific OCBs impact on work outcomes (Javidan & House, 2001), this is also supportive of the findings of Hofstede (2005) and Testa (2009).

6.2.2.2 Contributions to Practice: National Culture
The practical implications provide insight into how cultural factors influence HRMP and decisions. Understanding the fact that HRM decisions are grounded in customs, local culture and administrative frameworks enables managers to discern the impact of cultural differences on how employees perceive HRMP. Better understanding of NC, in conjunction with demographic variables provides an understanding of the role of coercive ‘isomorphism’ (limited by rules). Consequently, the results assist in understanding employee perceptions of NC and developing HRM practices that encourage employees to perform in anticipation of higher returns.

Most importantly the results uncover aspects of the little understood relationship between HRMP and NC in developing countries with a link to normative isomorphism (adherence to rules). Significantly it has provided additional information for both managers and HR practitioners to help, manage and encourage employees to exhibit better OCBs while employing effective HRMP within a certain culture or environment.
6.2.3 Contribution for Organisational Culture

6.2.3.1 Contributions to Theory: Organisational Culture

Past research suggests that understanding OC within the workplace is helpful in boosting productivity. The present study contributes to the OC literature by examining the perceptions of organisational practices in a cross-cultural context, and implies that OC provides the structure and processes which direct employee behaviour in ways which support the achievement of organisational goals. The results revealed that OC is closely linked with HRMP and organisational performance showing implications for theory and practices.

The relationship between national and organisational culture was also explored and showed concurrence with Naor et al. (2010), that a better understanding of the interaction between OC and NC can be helpful in the implementation of management practices, including HRM and advances research on OC by confirming that perceptions of OC differ across nations in line with isomorphism (disseminating appropriate organisational patterns).

Attempts to identify the perceptions of OC in relation to OCB in a cross-cultural setting are important. This is the first attempt to systematically examine the factor properties of OC and its influence on employee OCBs in a Pakistani context and extends prior literature on OC. Surprisingly, the findings indicate no association between OC and OCB, implying that the willing participation of employees beyond their formal job responsibilities were not clearly related to any OC characteristic. This agrees by the past studies of Becton et al. (2008) and Bolino and Turnley (2005) who found that on one
hand OCBs features can be affected by performance appraisal systems and reward management systems within the organisation and on the other hand can be motivated through impression management such as establishing good social image dependent on the employee motives (Becton et al., 2008).

In examining the role of demographic and organisational variables in influencing the impact of OC these variables were found to be important, and build on the latest studies in organisational culture by Büschgens et al. (2013) Ashraf and Khan (2013b) and Denison et al. (2014) who found that understanding organisational cultural context is very important for organisational effectiveness because of the variations of HRM practices across countries.

In addition, the focus on administrative employees within an academic setting has added an alternative perspective to the research. Traditionally, similar studies have focused on academics only.

6.2.3.2 Contributions to Practice: Organisational Culture

The results highlight the link between OC, HRMP, NC, and organisational and demographic variables. This indicates that once the organisation is aware of these variables it can initiate policies for staff motivation, retention and participation that encourage performance. Employee commitment can be increased by recognising cultural values, norms and assumptions, adopting practices which reflect these and involving employees in decision making. This has two potential benefits: employees feel recognised and valued through improved participation, sincerity and justification, and involvement fosters employee acceptance and trust in the system.
Muduli (2011) argued that implementation of HRMP can be hindered by cultural differences in every organisation. This is the case in Pakistan. The use of management and HRM practices developed in Western countries is often problematic and an appreciation of cultural differences will assist management in adapting practices to suit societal expectations. The importance of OC, and the key characteristics revealed through this study will assist management to identify important factors and can be used in all settings and environments. In this respect, this study builds a theoretical and empirical framework of OC that provides guidance in acknowledging and integrating its importance in developing the relationship with improved OCBs.

6.2.4 Contributions for Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

6.2.4.1 Contributions to Theory: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

OCB has been recognised as beneficial to organisational functioning and viewed as a desirable behaviour (Becton et al., 2008; Webster & Beehr, 2013). The importance of OCB and its relationship to other aspects of management is still being explored. In exploring the relationship between HRMP and OCB this research has added to the debate in two areas, (1) the influence of NC and OC on HRMP and the resulting OCBs are examined, and, (2) the use of Pakistan as the country of focus. The subsequent development of a conceptual and theoretical model of OCB shows the relationship between HRMP and OCB in a cross-cultural setting, and was used to explore the views of administrative employees influenced by isomorphism within the public sector.

The results also provide an understanding of the relationship between OCB and HRMP and shows that an appraised and rewarded employee tends to display more OCBs and
employees demonstrate a preference for financial rewards in return for extra role services. OCBs are based on a mutual gain system and employees weigh up the gain against the effort (Guest, 2002). Explaining the attitudes and behaviours of employees towards HR practices which are important for building OCBs helps to identify how employees view OCB and when they are prepared to contribute effort outside of the expected job responsibilities. OCBs were displayed or demonstrated within the boundaries imposed by normative isomorphism (subject to rules and regulations).

Exploring the relationship between OCB and NC in the cultural setting of Pakistan makes a further contribution to comprehension of the significance of NC. Not surprisingly, the findings indicated that NC influences OCB, which is supported by many studies (Denison et al., 2014; Hofstede, 1980a; Muduli, 2011; Myloni et al., 2004; Rhodes et al., 2008) that found cultural environments significantly influence individual behaviours and organisational practices within institutions.

In contrast, the results showed no link between OCB and OC within the Pakistani context. This concurs with past research by Prabhu (2005) and Rhodes et al. (2008) who found Asian firms autocratic leadership style and high power distance characteristics restrict employee empowerment and innovation in the workplace. Similarly the bureaucratic cultures seen in the universities discouraged employee initiative, innovation and risk taking and employee behaviours are restricted to obeying and following rules and regulations (Rhodes et al., 2008).

Demographic and organisational characteristics were found to significantly influence employee perceptions of OCB. The results clearly identified the importance of
considering and acknowledging these characteristics in HR practices to enhance employee OCBs for better performance.

Viewing OCBs from the perspective of employees has uncovered information about the understanding and consequences of OCB as seen from the employees’ perspective. This expands the current knowledge on OCB in a developing country influenced by isomorphism within the public sector. The findings will assist in developing and establishing frameworks for better performance, and provide guidance for encouraging OCBs.

6.2.4.2 Contributions to Practice: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The findings suggest that organisations rely on OCBs as a form of reciprocity, praise or approval of employee contributions that can lead to improved rewards or benefits. Effective HRM systems help to identify employee traits, interests and attitudes towards their job.

The established positive relationship between OCB and HRMP will assist employers to identify employee attributes, traits, and interests that aligned with HRMP, in turn enhancing OCBs. This supports past studies by Guest (2002), Shweta and Jha (2012), Appelbaum and Kamal (2000), Paauwe and Boselie (2005) who suggest that HRMP are related to OCB and that poor OCBs lead to poor performance within organisations.

Highlighting the relationship between employees’ perceptions of OCB provides a guideline for designing and implementing an HRM system that provides a better alignment of both employee and organisation needs and expectations. To achieve better
OCBs, management needs to be aware of how well employees perform key roles on the job and the extent of extra role/activity engagement. Without this knowledge base improved OCB will rarely be achieved (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Watty-Benjamin & Udechukwu, 2014).

The results show a strong influence of HRMP on OCB. This indicates that OCB is a powerful influence which organisations should utilise for improved organisational performance and effectiveness, and increasing OCBs among employees must be a key feature of building effectiveness. The HRM managers should incorporate a range of features, purposes, functions and activities (i.e. process, purpose, accuracy, variety, challenge and development) in any job task to enhance OCBs and organisational performance.

In conclusion, better focused OCB will increase employee OCBs and enhance performance of the employees and the organisation. Establishing clear links between HRMP, NC, OC and OCB will help managers improve staff motivation, commitment and loyalty, leading to improved performance and a sense of value.

6.3 Limitations of the Study

This study has produced interesting findings in relation to the four constructs HRMP, NC, OC, and OCB, but like all research there are some limitations which must be acknowledged.
6.3.1 Common Method Bias

To overcome the chances of the common method variance this study employed factor analysis that authenticated that factors were loaded separately. The self-reported questionnaire raises the possibility of common method variance that should not be regarded as precise measures of actual usage (Igbaria, 1993). According to Organ et al. (2006) common method variance can be a problem. Whereas Crampton and Wagner (1994) suggest common method variance is not as big an issue as is suggested.

6.3.2 Population and Sample

A limitation of the study was the focus on a single developing country, Pakistan. Hofstede (1980d) attests that countries like Pakistan are culturally moderate on masculinity and high on power distance, lower on individualism and higher on uncertainty avoidance than western developed countries. So, the findings cannot be generalized to other countries.

Secondly, the data were based on responses gathered from a limited number of universities; five universities from one specific province of the country, therefore, its generalisability and representativeness can be questioned. Additional research is essential to target a larger sample for establishing more conclusively the robustness of the findings explored in the current study.

6.3.3 Context Generalisation

The study focused on public sector universities and findings may not be applicable to the private sector university context due to the difference in organisational structure and governance. For instance public sector universities follow government imposed higher
education commission (Higher Education Commission Pakistan, 2009) rules and regulations whereas, private universities design and implement their own working terms and conditions. Therefore, it is assumed that, other than the current context of the study, the findings would be dissimilar. So the findings of the current research are limited in their generalisability.

6.3.4 Measures - Quantitative survey and Semi-structured Interviews

The questionnaires were only completed by administrative employees working in the university. Other categories of employees such as academic and research staff were not included in this study. Therefore, the interpretations of results cannot be generalised. To overcome this limitation, inclusion of other categories of employees would enhance understanding of different employee perceptions.

Secondly, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a limited number of officials of each university. As a result, generalisability of the findings may not be possible as each interviewee has an individual and unique perspective.

Finally, no data indicating evaluations of job performance and personal characteristics such as commitment and initiatives associated with career advancement or OCBs was collected in the present study. Despite mechanisms for HRMP, the final decision remains in the hands of hiring officials in the organisation. Therefore generalizing the results of this study and comparing across different national settings is cautioned.
6. 4 Delimitations of the Study

This study was delimited to public sector universities. The constraints associated with time, resources, scope and distance restricted the current study to one province of Pakistan (i.e. Sindh), and a selected number of public sector universities (5 only). Additional research conducted in other areas of the country would establish whether the findings are representative of public sector staff employment conditions across higher education institutes.

The current study provides insight into administrative employee perceptions of HRMP within selected public sector universities. However, to ensure the research remained manageable the focus was restricted to three HR practices (reward management systems, promotion practices, and performance appraisal systems), which prevents a complete understanding of staff perceptions of HR practices. Other HRM areas may be equally important and have a significant relationship with national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour but have been purposely excluded from this study.

Administrative employees are regarded by university management as central to the efficient and effective running of the individual institutions. Therefore, research was restricted to administrative employee perceptions of HRMP and how this contributed to OCBs, and improved performance within the organisation.
6.5 Direction for Future Research

This study sets a new direction for research about HRMP, NC, OC and OCB, providing an understanding of the relationship between HRMP, NC, OC and OCB. Several areas for future research remain to be explored.

Other HR practices such as recruitment and selection and training and development in organisations should be examined to provide a more comprehensive exploration of HRM systems in a cross-cultural setting.

Future research in other geographic regions such as South East Asia and the Middle East would advance the understanding of HRMP, NC, OC and OCB and allow for interesting comparisons. The limitations of cultural differences in terms of norms, values and assumptions among employees in developing economies could be explored to examine the impact of these cultural determinants, either national or organisational on employee performance. Replicating this research in different cultural contexts across nations, as well as within the country’s own regions and provinces, could reveal more practices and perceptions of HRMP and their impact on OCBs.

Likewise the research can be expanded to investigate the relationship between reward management system, promotion practice and performance appraisal system and national culture, organisational culture and organisational citizenship behaviour in other regions and provinces of Pakistan.

Expanding research to include multiple organisations, of a similar or dissimilar nature, within the region, other regions or other countries, would allow for better understanding
of the impact of HRMP, NC, and OC on OCBs; which would contribute to a more detailed model.

HRMP, NC, OC and OCB need to be addressed through additional research using multi-source data, longitudinal study and multi-wave data to test the causal relationship between the variables. The evaluation and measurement of HRMP, NC, OC and OCB may vary widely depending on a range of individual and organisational variables such as type of industry, size of organisation, working domains, job commitments and behavioural beliefs. Investigations should include additional variables to examine their impact on HRMP, NC, OC and OCB application.

This study focused on the data collected from administrative employees. Future investigations should incorporate other categories of employees (i.e. academic, research staff and private sector employees) for wider empirical findings and their application and to provide further insight into mutual understanding and obligations of HRMP, NC, OC and OCB. Further examinations should also be expanded for a comparison of perception of HRMP, NC, OC and OCB from employees working in other roles and in the private sector.

The study has demonstrated a need for further examination of the relationship between demographic variables and HRMP, and the relationship between NC, OC and OCB at the wider level focused on multiple domestic and international organisations. Apart from the variables considered, personality characteristics such as need for achievement (Heintz & Steele-Johnson, 2004), self-esteem (Schütz & Tice, 1997), and need for power (Kacmar et al., 2004) should be included in future research to determine the
motivational level of the employee pursuing a progressive career and development in the public sector organisations. Including such variables in future research is likely to produce more generalized findings.

The framework developed for this study should be extended through the inclusion of other variables such as psychological contract, employees’ wellness and welfare and employee commitment to investigate the influence of HRM practices on OCBs.

6.6 Conclusion
The current study contributes to the understanding of HRMP, NC, OC and OCB in public sector universities in Pakistan. Findings of the study significantly add to the body of knowledge regarding HRMP, NC, OC and OCB, drawing on data from 420 administrative employees. This is a unique perspective as the final model focused on four constructs: HRMP (reward management systems, promotion practices and performance appraisal systems), NC, OC and OCB and offers a new perspective underpinned by institutional theory, and suggests that HRMP is positively influenced by NC, OC and OCB. This has received little attention in Pakistan, particularly in the education sector (Aycan et al., 2007; Qadeer et al., 2011). The current study aimed to fill the gap in the OB literature related to HRMP in Pakistani universities.

The research focus was restricted to three key HR practices (reward management systems, promotion practices, and performance appraisal systems) to ensure manageability. These were selected as they are recognised as the most commonly used HRM practices (Özutku, 2012; Yap, Bove, & Beverland, 2009), and bring about positive outcomes when well implemented.
This study suggests a positive link between the reward management systems, national culture, organisational culture, organisational citizenship behaviour and demographic variables, highlighting that these should be taken into account when building effective and efficient human resources. Although limited to administrative employees this provides a valuable framework for examining employee perceptions in other parts of the organisation. In summary, improved understanding of reward management systems would provide a more comprehensive picture of employee perceptions.

The second key HR practice focused on promotion practices. The findings of this study have suggested a positive link between promotion practices, national culture, organisational culture, organisational citizenship behaviour and demographic variables; with the grade of the employee impacting promotion. The study endorses the need for a more rational approach towards promotion practices which is fair and enables employees to develop and contribute to organisational success.

The third key HR practice was performance appraisal systems. The findings suggest a link between performance appraisal systems and national culture, organisational culture, organisational citizenship behaviour and demographic variables, indicating their importance for developing an effective performance appraisal system. To achieve the desired outcome performance appraisals must be fair and transparent and provide clear instructions and feedback to employees with regard to performance and future development.

The impact of both NC and OC on HRMP was found; with both influencing HR practices and employee perceptions of these practices. This finding confirmed the need
for universities to implement HRMP that are aligned with cultural differences and values. Cultural differences do exist and are embedded in all societies. If these differences are not recognised and accommodated within HR practices the HR practices will be poorly supported. Likewise, OC has a significant impact on employee perceptions of HR practices, which is reflected in established rules and practices.

The results of the study have confirmed that organisational citizenship behaviours are significantly impacted by HRMP, NC, and demographic and organisational variables, demonstrating that these necessarily be recognised when motivating employees for better outcomes. The findings call for universities to develop HRM practices that consider employee attitudes, behaviours and interests and encourage employees to go the ‘extra mile’ to do job tasks willingly. Better understanding of OCBs improves the perceptions of HRMP in the normative forces within organisations.

Taken together, these findings suggest that HRM practices and NC have a significant impact on OCBs recognised and demonstrated by employees, and the influence of these factors should be recognised when developing HRM practices. This study has only examined selected HRM practice, but it is hoped that this research will help to further understanding of the evolving impact of NC on interactions and behaviours in the workplace, and stimulate debate.
References


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416


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Dear sir/Madam

I am writing this letter to invite you to participate in a research study which I am conducting as a requirement for my PhD program at the Charles Sturt University, Australia. The following will provide you with information about this research and what your involvement would be. The topic of the research is:

**Human resource management (HRM) practices and their impact on organizational citizenship behaviour in the public sector universities of Pakistan**

The primary aim of this study is to investigate HRM practices and their impact on organizational citizenship behaviour in the public sector universities of Pakistan. The findings of the research will be of benefit to organisations and employees in the field of HRM. Therefore, it will be appreciated if you consent to include your university as one of several universities to be included in my research. I believe you are actively involved in the management and operations of the university so you are best suited to provide insight into HRM practices and their impact on organizational citizenship behaviour.

Participation in this study is voluntary. If you agree to participate you will be asked for an interview. The interview will be of 20-30 minutes and if you are unhappy with any aspects of this research you may decline to answer any of the questions. Further, you may withdraw at any time without any negative consequences.

All the information provided by you will be kept confidential and your name will not appear in any report resulting from this research at any stage. Only researchers associated with this research project will have the access. Information gathered during this research will be used in my PhD thesis, and any publications which result from it.

There is no risk anticipated to you as participant in this research project.

If you have any questions about this research or if you need additional information before participation please contact me at +321 3003770 or by email at nshahani@csu.edu.au
School of Management and Marketing Ethics in Human Research Committee has approved this project. If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this project, you may contact the Committee through the Executive Officer

Dr. Pamela Mathews  
School of Management and Marketing Ethics Committee  
Charles Sturt University  
Locked Bag 588  
Wagga Wagga NSW 2678  
Australia  
Phone: (02) 69332575  
Email: pmathews@csu.edu.au

Any issues you raise will be investigated completely and will be dealt with confidentiality and you will be informed of the outcomes. I hope that this research will be of benefit to both those who are directly involved in this research and to the broader community as well.

Thank you in advance for your assistance in this project.

Yours Sincerely

Nusrat Khan Shahani
Interview

Participants’ Consent Form

Researcher:

Nusrat Khan Shahani, PhD Student

Supervisors:

Dr. Pamela Mathews
Dr. Goeff Bamberry
School of Management and Marketing
Charles Sturt University

Thank you for your consent to engage in an interview for the research project. I am a researcher from Charles Sturt University working on this topic.

Human resource management (HRM) practices and their impact on organizational citizenship behaviour in the public sector universities of Pakistan.

Please sign below indicating that you have:

- Read and understood the information sheet given to you.
- Been given the opportunity to ask questions about the research and received satisfactory answers.
- Understood you are free to withdraw your participation in this research at any time without any disadvantage.
- Understood that any information or personal details gathered in the course of this research about you are confidential and that neither your name nor any other identifying information will be used or published without your permission.
- Understood that interview will be taped/recorded.
- Understood that the information gathered in this study will be included in the writing up of my thesis and any publications which result from it.

School of Management and Marketing Ethics in Human Research Committee has approved this project. If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this project, you may contact the Committee through the Executive Officer:

Dr. Pamela Mathews
School of Management and Marketing Ethics Committee
Charles Sturt University
Locked Bag 588
Wagga Wagga NSW 2678
Australia
Phone: (02) 69332575
Email: pmathews@csu.edu.au

Signed by:...................................... Dated:.............................................
Questionnaire

Participants’ Consent Form

I have read the information presented in the information letter about a study being conducted by the School of Management and Marketing at the Charles Sturt University, Australia. I understand that I am free to request further information at any stage.

I know that my participation in the research is entirely voluntary. I am free to withdraw my participation at any time without any disadvantage.

The purpose of the research has been explained to me and I have read and fully understood the information sheet given to me. Any questions regarding the research have been answered to my satisfaction.

I understand that any information / personal details gathered for this research about me are confidential and that my name or any other identifying information will be destroyed at the completion of the research.

Charles Sturt University’s SB Ethics in Human Research Committee has approved this project (protocol 218/2012/21). If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this project, you may contact the Committee through the Executive Officer

Dr. Pamela Mathews  
School of Management and Marketing  
Ethics Committee  
Academic Secretariat  
Charles Sturt University  
Boorooma Street  
Locked Bag 588  
Wagga Wagga NSW 2678  
Australia  
Phone: (02) 69332575  
Email: pmatheus@csu.edu.au
With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree, of my own free will, to participate in this study.

Yes          No
List of Interview Questions

Q: How would you define the role of human resource management?

Q: Have you already implemented human resource management practices in this university? and would you please tell me what HRM practices are operational or functional at your university?

Q: How would you define the role of human resource management?

Q: When did this university first introduce the human resource management practices?

Q: How would you rate the implementation of human resource management practices in your organization?

Q: How do you perceive the impact of human resources management practices on employee performances?

Q: How well do the employees understand the human resource management practices?

Q: How do they coordinate their services in accordance with human resource management practices in the university?

Q: Do you notice any difference and competitiveness in the employee performance after the introduction/induction of human resource management practices in the university?
Q: Is there any change which you want to see in human resource management within your university?

Q: Does this university noticeably celebrate the excellent services?

Q: Do the head/ bosses like you as a registrar consistently tell employees about the standards used to evaluate the job performance?

Q: Does this university provide clear and consistent requirements for promotion?

Q: Is this university fair and equitable in its treatment of management with regard to the promotions?

Q: Does the university provide opportunities for career development to the employee working in the administration?

Q: Does this university support ongoing professional development?

Q: Does this university provide promotional opportunities?

Q: Does this university acknowledge the long hours devoted by employees to work?

Q: Does the university rewards excellent performance services through promotion system?

Q: What is the main purpose of appraisal system in this university?

Q: Does the appraisal system assist employees in setting work related goals?

Q: Does the performance appraisal system consider improvement when an evaluation is conducted?

Q: Is the performance appraisal conducted to identify employee career paths within the university?
Q: Do you believe the appraisal system focuses more on positive aspects of performance than on negative aspects of performance?

Q: Do you believe the various aspects of performance on which an employee is assessed are appropriate?

Q: Do you believe that the organization is a very special place?

Q: Generally, the leaders of this organization are considered to be mentors, facilitators, and parent figures?

Q: Leaders of the organization are generally considered to be entrepreneurs, innovators, or risk takers?

Q: How would you define management style of this university?

Q: On what basis the university defines its success?

Q: Do you believe that the important people from the country's past are admired by people today?

Q: In your opinion what is the Pakistan's strengths with regards to the importance of historical events?

Q: What are the defining cultural attributes of a Pakistani that other people do not possess?

Q: How do you see organizational citizenship behaviour?

Q: What is impact of organizational citizenship behaviour on performance of employee working in the administration?
Q: Do you see any relationship between human recourse management practice and organizational citizenship behaviour?

Q: I conclude with this question that is there anything else which you would like to add.
Interview Protocol:

Research Topic: Human resource management (HRM) practices and their impact on organizational citizenship behaviour in the public sector universities of Pakistan.

1. The interviewee will be contacted in advance to determine a time convenient to them.
2. Location will be the university/ interviewee workplace.
3. The interviewee will be provided with an information sheet and consent form as well as the interview schedule in advance.
4. The consent form informs them that they may withdraw from the research at any time.
5. The interviewee is informed of the confidentiality of the information and that data will be anonymised.
6. The opportunity for a break, pause or halt will be provided to relax the interviewee should stress or illness occurs.
7. The interview will be of 45-60 minutes duration.
8. The interviewee will be informed of the recording of the interview in advance and consent will be taken. If the interviewee requests recordings will not be used and notes will be taken with their consent.
9. The interviewee will receive a copy of the transcript to authenticate and keep as a record if requested.
10. At the end interviewee will be thanked for their participation and time and providing information for the research.

General instructions on how to complete the survey:

The questions in this survey relate to the Human Resource Management Practices and their Impact on Organisational Citizenship behaviour. Examples of these may include reward management, promotion practices and performance appraisals etc.

The questionnaire consists of two parts. **Part A** asks about demographic variables and organisational characteristics of an employee. **Part B** includes 6 sections and looks at reward management, promotion practices, performance appraisals, organisational culture, national culture and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Please attempt to answer all questions. Please note; questions appear on both sides of each page on this questionnaire.

Completion and submission of the following questionnaire is taken as an indication that you have read and understood the research information provided, and are voluntarily consenting to participate in this research.
Part A – Demographics characteristics

(1) Age of respondent

- 20-29
- 30-40
- 41-50
- 51-60

Gender of respondent

- Female
- Male

(2) Education level of respondent

- Diploma level
- Undergraduate
- Postgraduate
- PhD
- Other

(3) Grade of respondent

- BPS (7-14)
- BPS (15-17)
- BPS (18-19)
- BPS (20-22)

(4) Length of service

- 0-11 months
- 1-10 years
- 11-20 years
- 21-30 years
- 31-40 years

(5) Name of University

Part B – Reward management

Please circle the number between 1 and 5 that best indicates the extent that you agree or disagree with each of the following statement in the present situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Very Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Not Satisfied</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Very Satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>In this university good performance does not necessarily get rewarded</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Employees are satisfied with the recognition they receive for doing good jobs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>In this university, promotions go to the people who really deserve them</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Management provides excellent incentives and rewards to every employee at all levels</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>This university noticeably celebrates excellent service</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Supervisors recognize employees for doing high-quality work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supervisors are responsive to employees’ requests for help or guidance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Supervisors are supportive of employees’ ideas and ways of getting things done</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Supervisors use the rewards they have to let employees know when they have done fine jobs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Employees are always unclear of what their supervisors expect them to do</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The performance appraisal process is linked to reward system.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Promotions and pay increases are based on achieving documented performance objectives.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Managers consistently tell employees about the standards used to evaluate job performances</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Part C - Promotion practices**

Please circle the number between 1 and 5 that best indicates the extent that you agree or disagree with each of the following statement in the present situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Very Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Not Satisfied</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Very Satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The university provides clear and consistent requirements for promotion</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The university treats you fairly and equitably with regards to promotion</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The university is fair and equitable in its treatment of management</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The university provides opportunities for career development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The university supports ongoing professional development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The university provides promotional opportunities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. The university acknowledges the long hours you devote to work

8. The university rewards the excellence in performance through promotion system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part D- Performance Appraisal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Please circle the number between 1 and 5 that best indicates the extent that you agree or disagree with each of the following statement in the present situation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Very Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Not Satisfied</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Very Satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system is used for promotion decisions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system is used for making salary adjustments</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system is used for recognition purposes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system is used for demotion decisions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system is used for firing decisions</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system is used to identify training needs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system is used for succession planning</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system includes a component where employees are given feedback on their assessment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The appraisal system assists employees in setting work-related goals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors are required to keep daily records of employee performance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors are required to keep weekly or bi-weekly records of employee performance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessments are conducted by the immediate supervisor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessments are conducted by peers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessments are done by the employee on him/herself</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessments are conducted annually</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees keep daily records of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Employees keep weekly or bi-weekly records of their own performance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Supervisors collect performance information from other sources (beyond their own observations) such as peer/customer before making an assessment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>A grievance procedure is in place to challenge assessments if necessary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>As employees’ experience or tenure increases, assessments are made less frequently</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>There is more than one assessor to assess any one employee</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Any negative information (e.g. missing a deadline) is included in the assessment regardless of whether there has been improvement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Information collected via cameras or computer-monitoring systems are used in the assessment process</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>The appraisal system considers improvement when an evaluation is conducted</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>All employees have their performance evaluated regardless of rank or tenure</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Employees are evaluated on how well they perform individual tasks or behaviors (e.g., how well they prepared a report or dealt with a student/teacher enquiry)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Performance evaluation forms include a written (i.e. narrative) assessment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Numerical ratings of performance are included in the assessment report</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Any performance feedback is given in writing whether or not there is a formal meeting with the supervisor to discuss the assessment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Employees are evaluated on competencies (e.g. leadership, creativity, communication or other relevant competencies)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>A formal meeting is held where employees are given verbal feedback on their performance assessment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Appraisals are only conducted for employees considered less than “standard” in their performance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Evaluations are checked by an independent source other than the primary assessor for accuracy and fairness</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Supervisors are appraised by employees reporting to him/her</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Supervisors are appraised on their skills as performance assessors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>A numerical rating indicating overall performance is calculated as part of the assessment.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Performance appraisal is conducted to identify employee career paths within the organization</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Supervisors are provided adequate training in conducting performance appraisals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Employees are provided adequate training in how to actively participate in the appraisal process</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>The “numbers” used to rate various aspects of performance are appropriate (e.g., a 1 to 7 point scale, a 1 to 5 point scale, a 1 to 3 point scale)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>The appraisal system focuses more on positive aspects of performance than on negative aspects of performance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>The appraisal system puts adequate emphasis on team performance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>For each area of performance, the appraisal system provides</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>The formal appraisal meeting between employer and employee takes between one and two hours</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Situational constraints (e.g. computer faults or electricity failure or political unrest so the work/assignments are delayed) are taken into account when the assessment is conducted</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>The various aspects of performance on which an employee is assessed are appropriate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Part E - Organisational Culture**

Please circle the number between 1 and 5 that best indicates the extent that you agree or disagree with each of the following statement in the present situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Very Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Not Satisfied</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Very Satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organization is a very special place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organization is very production oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The organization is a very formalized and structured place. Bureaucratic procedures generally govern what people do</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The leaders of the organization are generally considered to be mentors, facilitators, or parent figures</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The leaders of the organization are generally considered to be entrepreneurs, innovators, or risk takers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The leaders of the organization are generally considered to be hard-drivers, producers, or competitors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The leaders of the organization are generally considered to be coordinators, organizers, or efficiency experts</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus and participation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, flexibility, and uniqueness</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by hard-driving competitiveness, goal directedness, and achievement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The management style in the organization is characterized by careful monitoring of performance, longevity in position, and predictability</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The spirit that holds the</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>14</strong> The spirit that holds the organization together is orientation toward innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>15</strong> The spirit that holds the organization together is the emphasis on production and goal accomplishment. Marketplace aggressiveness is a common theme</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>16</strong> The spirit that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth running organization is important</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>17</strong> The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness and participation persist.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>18</strong> The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and meeting new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for new opportunities are valued</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>19</strong> The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Measurement targets and objectives are dominant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>20</strong> The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficient, smooth operations are important</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>21</strong> The organization defines</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
success on the basis of development of human resources, teamwork, and concern for people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  
---|---|---|---|---|---
22 | The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or the newest products. It is a product leader and innovator | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  
---|---|---|---|---|---
23 | The organization defines success on the basis of market penetration and market share. Competitive market leadership is key | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  
---|---|---|---|---|---
24 | The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, and low cost production are critical | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5  
---|---|---|---|---|---

**Part F- National Culture**

Please circle the number between 1 and 5 that best indicates the extent that you agree or disagree with each of the following statement in the present situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Very Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Not Satisfied</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Very Satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Important people from the country's past are admired by people today</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. One of the Pakistan's strengths is that it emphasizes events of historical importance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The Pakistan has a strong historical heritage</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. A Pakistani possesses certain cultural attributes that other people do not possess</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Pakistan in general feels that they come from a common historical background</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Pakistani are proud of their nationality</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. People frequently engage in activities that identify them as Pakistani</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8 A specific religious philosophy is what makes a person uniquely Pakistani 1 2 3 4 5

9 It is impossible for an individual to be truly Pakistani without taking part in some form of religious activity 1 2 3 4 5

10 Religious education is essential to preserve the cohesiveness of the Pakistan society 1 2 3 4 5

11 A specific religious philosophy is not an important part of being Pakistani 1 2 3 4 5

12 A true Pakistan would never reject their religious beliefs 1 2 3 4 5

13 We should take admissions in our local universities instead of other/ outside universities. 1 2 3 4 5

14 It is always best to enroll in Pakistani educational institutes. 1 2 3 4 5

15 Pakistani people should not go abroad for jobs because it is loss for Pakistani in terms of brain drain which effects country development. 1 2 3 4 5

16 It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Pakistani academics. 1 2 3 4 5

17 People should only go abroad if choice for field of study is unavailable in the Pakistan. 1 2 3 4 5

### Part G- Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Please circle the number between 1 and 5 that best indicates the extent that you agree or disagree with each of the following statement in the present situation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Very Dissatisfied</th>
<th>Not Satisfied</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Satisfied</th>
<th>Very Satisfied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>My attendance at work is above the norm</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I do not take extra breaks.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I am the most careful employee</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I believe in giving an honest</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I consume a lot of time complaining about unimportant matters.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I tend to make little issues into big problems.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I always find fault with what the organization is doing.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I am the classic complainer who always needs help.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I accept changes in the organization.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I am mindful of how my behaviour affects other people’s jobs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Do not abuse the rights of others.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I consider the impact of my actions on co-workers.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I help others who have been absent.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I help others who have heavy workloads.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I help new people even though it is not required.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I Willingly help others who have work related problems.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
27 November 2012

Name: Ms. Nusrat Khan Shahani
Address: School of Management and Marketing

Dear Ms Nusrat Khan Shahani

The School of Management and Marketing Ethics Committee has approved your proposal "Human resource management (HRA1) practices and their impact on organizational citizenship behaviour in the public sector universities of Pakistan" for a 10 month period from "27 November 2012".

The protocol number issued with respect to this project is 218/2012/21. Please be sure to quote this number when responding to any request made by the Committee.

Please note that the Committee requires that all consent forms and information sheets are to be printed on School of Management and Marketing letterhead. Students should liaise with their Supervisor to arrange to have these documents printed.

You must notify the Committee immediately should your research differ in any way from that proposed.

You are also required to complete a Progress Report form, which can be downloaded from www.csu.edu.au/rcresearch/forms/ehrc_annrep.doc, and return it on completion of your research project or by "27 September 2013" if your research has not been completed by that date.

The Committee wishes you well in your research and please do not hesitate to contact Dr Ramudu Bhanugopan on extension 32696 or email bramudu@csu.edu.au if you have any enquiries.

Yours sincerely

DR RAMUDU BHANUGOPAN
School of Management and Marketing Ethics Committee
Direct Telephone: (02) 6933 2696
Email: bramudu@csu.edu.au

www.csu.edu.au
CRICOS Provider Numbers for Charles Sturt University are 00005F (NSW), 01947G (VIC) and 029608 (ACI). ABN: 83 878 708 551